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Natural Language & Linguistic Theory

ISSN 0167-806X Volume 39 Number 1

Nat Lang Linguist Theory (2021) 39:157-213 DOI 10.1007/s11049-020-09471-1



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Nat Lang Linguist Theory (2021) 39:157–213 https://doi.org/10.1007/s11049-020-09471-1



## Ezafe, PP and the nature of nominalization

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Received: 10 November 2018 / Accepted: 14 April 2020 / Published online: 4 May 2020 © Springer Nature B.V. 2020

Abstract In the paper we argue that the English VP/NP structures in (i) a-d have exact counterparts in the i(ranian)Persian PP/NP structures in (ii) a-d, where P1-P3 are three different classes of iPersian Ps and where -EZ is the so-called "Ezafe" morpheme. (i. a) John [VP destroy the evidence] "Pure VP"; (i. b) John -'s [NP destroying the evidence] Nominalized VP; (i. c) John -'s [NP destroying of the evidence] Nominalized V; (i. d) John -'s [NP destruction of the evidence] Deverbal N; (ii. a) NP [PP P1 NP] "Pure PP"; (ii. b) NP -Ez [NP P2 NP] Nominalized PP; (ii. c) NP -Ez [NP P2 -Ez NP] Nominalized P; (ii. d) NP -Ez [NP P3 -Ez NP] "Deprepositional" N. The notion "nominalization" is thus shown to be relevant to both of the lexical categories - V and P - identified by Chomsky (1974) as [-N]. Our demonstration proceeds in three steps: 1) We establish a common syntactic function for English -'s/of and iPersian -EZ, viz., case-assignment, following Samiian 1994; Karimi and Brame 1986/2012; Larson and Samiian 2020; 2) We argue for a shared cross-categorial structure for VP-PP, developing proposals by Jackendoff 1973; van Riemsdijk 1990; Svenonius 2003. We show that if Jackendoff's (1977) "scopal nominalization" analysis of gerunds is extended to iPersian PPs, the parallelism in (i) and (ii) is accounted for; 3) We show that the full extension of nominalization to iPersian PPs suggests a more general view of nominalization than has been recognized previously, viz., a "split-feature" view of category specification. This has a variety of implications, which we briefly explore.

**Keywords** Ezafe · Prepositional phrases · PP · Case · Nominalization · Iranian languages

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Chomsky (1970) demonstrated that by viewing syntactic form and operations at a greater level of abstractness than was current at the time, it was possible to express the intuitive parallelisms in sentence - noun phrase pairs like (1-2) in a deeper, more systematic way.

- (1) a. The committee elected John.
  - b. John was elected by the committee.
- (2) a. The committee's election of John.
  - b. John's election by the committee.

To express the common form exhibited by (1a)/(2a) Chomsky posited an abstract, cross-categorial syntactic "shape"—X-bar theory, whose descendant is modern "bare phrase structure" analysis (Chomsky 1994). To capture the relation between (1b) and (2b), Chomsky factored the existing rule of Passive into simpler, more general operations, crucially including NP-preposing, which later became NP-movement, A-movement, Move  $\alpha$  and ultimately Internal Merge (Chomsky 1995).

In this paper we pursue a similar theme. We argue that the familiar paradigm of English verbal, gerundive and derived nominal structures in (3a-d) have exact parallels in Iranian Persian prepositional and nominal structures, represented schematically (4a-d), where  $P_1$ - $P_3$  are three different classes of Iranian Persian prepositions and where - $E_Z$  is the so-called "Ezafe" morpheme.

(3)	a.	John	[VP destro	y the	e evidence	Pure VP"
	b.	John -'s	[NP destro	ying the	e evidence	Nominalized VP
	c.	John -'s	[NP destro	ying of the	e evidence	Nominalized V
	d.	John -'s	[NP destru	ction of the	e evidence	Deverbal N
(4)	a.	NP	[PP P1		NP]	"Pure PP"
	b.	NP -I	$\mathbf{E}\mathbf{z} = [\mathbf{NP} \ \mathbf{P}_2]$		NP]	Nominalized PP
	c.	NP -I	$\mathbf{E}\mathbf{z} = [\mathbf{NP} \ \mathbf{P}_2]$	-Ez	NP]	Nominalized P
	d.	NP -I	$\mathbf{E}\mathbf{z} = [\mathbf{NP} \ \mathbf{P}_3]$	-Ez	NP]	"Deprepositional" N

Expressing this parallelism requires recognition of a common cross-categorial syntactic shape for verbal and prepositional phrases. As we show, it also requires a broader view of nominalization than has been countenanced heretofore. Under the combined picture, the same space of nominalization possibilities is seen to be realized with <u>both</u> of the lexical categories identified by Chomsky (1974) as [-N] (5).

#### (5) Syntactically Nominalizable Categories

	[+N]	[-N]
[+V]	A	V
[-V]	N	P

In Sect. 1, developing observations by Samiian (1983, 1994), Karimi and Brame (1986/2012) and Larson and Samiian (2020), we examine the basic distribution of Ezafe in Iranian Persian, noting that in core cases Ezafe occurs between nominal



([+N]) elements, like 's/of in English. We introduce the theoretical proposal of Samiian (1994) that Ezafe is a clitic element that attaches to its preceding nominal and case-marks its trailing nominal, further strengthening the parallel between Ezafe and English of. In Sect. 2, we introduce the problem that Iranian Persian Ps and PPs pose for the basic distributional claim about Ezafe and we introduce the important connection between Iranian Persian prepositions licensing Ezafe and relational nouns. In Sect. 3, we briefly discuss the structure of PP, drawing particular attention to the parallelism between verbal and prepositional syntax under proposals by Jackendoff (1973), van Riemsdijk (1990) and Svenonius (2003). In Sect. 4 we draw the preceding lines together, proposing that the core parallelism in (3) and (4) derives from parallel nominalization syntax. Our proposal develops an idea about gerundive nominalization originally proposed by Jackendoff (1977), retaining its key "scopal" insight, but abandoning its view of nominalization as involving a specific operation or morpheme in favor of a more general, "split-feature" view of category specification. Nominalization as split-feature determination of category is developed more fully in Sect. 5, where English gerunds and derived nouns are considered in detail. These results are extended to the comparable Iranian Persian prepositions in Sect. 6, where the presence of an active, overt relational noun is argued to be the surface "exponence" of nominalization. Finally, in Sect. 7, we briefly compare our view of nominal category determination with the "contextual" theory of Borsley and Kornfilt (2000).

#### 1 The Ezafe phenomenon

"Ezafe" refers to a morpheme found in Iranian Persian (hereafter "iPersian"), Afghan Persian (aPersian), Tajiki Persian (tPersian), Balochi, Kurdish (Sorani, Kurmanji), Zazaki (Dimili) and Hawrami (Gorani). N, A, Q and P heads precede their complements and modifiers. In certain cases, Ezafe (-EZ) appears between them, realized on the preceding element. (6) shows the basic patterns:

```
(6)
            N
                -EZ
                       NP/AP/PP/nonfinite CP
       a.
            Α
       b.
                       NP
                -EZ
       c.
            Q
                -EZ
                       NP
                               (for some Qs)
                       NP
       d.
                -EZ
                               (for some Ps)
```

#### 1.1 Ezafe in Iranian Persian (iPersian)

iPersian exhibits Ezafe in its simplest form; the only variation being phonological (*elye*). (7a-g) show Ezafe occurring between a noun and a nominal complement or modifier. (7h) shows Ezafe between a noun and an attributive adjective. (7i) shows

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>The three main geographical variants of Modern Persian spoken in Iran, Afghanistan and Tajikistan are largely mutually intelligible, but nonetheless grammatically distinct, including for the phenomena discussed in this paper. We adopt the terminology "iPersian," "aPersian" and "tPersian" for these variants in order to accommodate the strong desire of all three communities to be identified as speaking "Persian" (Farsi), but also to distinguish them for linguistic purposes.



it between a noun and a PP. Finally, (7j) shows that the Ezafe is recursive insofar as multiple attributive adjectives trigger multiple instances of Ezafe.

#### (7) Modifiers and complements of Ns

sang

del-e

•••	aci c saiig	(11 EE 111)
	heart-EZ stone	
	'stone heart'	
b.	manzel-e John	(N-EZ NP)
	house-EZ John	

(N-EZ NP)

house-EZ John
'John's house'

c. shahr-e Tehran (N-EZ NP)
city-EZ Tehran
'Tehran city'

d. Ali-e Ghozati
Ali-EZ Ghozati
'Ali Ghozati'

(N-EZ NP)

e. taxrib-e shahr (N-EZ NP)
destruction-EZ city
'destruction of the city'

f. xordan-e âb (N-EZ NP)
drinking-EZ water
'drinking of water'

g. forushande-ye ketâb (N-EZ NP)
seller-EZ books
'seller of books'

h. otâq-e besyâr kucik (N-EZ AP)
room-EZ very small
'very small room'

i. divâr-e jelo Ali (N-EZ PP) wall-EZ in-front-of Ali 'wall in front of Ali'

j. ketâb-e sabz-e jâleb (N-EZ AP-EZ AP) book-EZ green-EZ interesting 'interesting green book'

(8a-c) illustrate the occurrence of Ezafe in an adjective phrase (AP) between the head and its nominal (NP) complement:

#### (8) Complements of As

a. besyâr âsheq-e Hasan
very in love-EZ Hasan
'very enamored with Hasan'
b. besyâr negarân-e bache-hâ
(A-EZ NP)

very worried-EZ child-PL

'very worried about the children'



c. montazer-e Godot<sup>2</sup> (A-EZ NP)
waiting-EZ Godot
'waiting for Godot'

Ezafe also occurs in iPersian between some quantificational elements (Qs) and their restriction phrase (9a-c):

#### (9) Partitives

a. tamâm-e sherkathâ (Q-EZ NP)
all-EZ companies
'all/the-totality-of companies'

b. bištar-e in sherkathâ (Q-EZ NP)
most-EZ these companies
'most/the-majority-of these companies'

c. hich kodum-e sherkathâ
no one-EZ companies
'none of the companies'

(Q N-EZ NP)

(10a-c) illustrate an interesting alternation involving Ezafe and relative clauses (RCs). iPersian relative clauses are uniformly post nominal. Finite relative clauses (FRCs) do not involve Ezafe and are instead introduced by the relative marker ke (10a,b). By contrast, reduced, nonfinite relative clauses (RRCs) are introduced by Ezafe and no ke appears (10c,d):

#### (10) Finite and reduced relative clauses

- a. dust -e Hasan] (\*-e) [ke Nanaz-o mišnâs-e] (N FRC) friend -EZ Hasan -EZ that Nanaz know-3sG 'the friend of Hasan who knows Nanaz'
- b. in šâgerd-â (\*-ye) [ke zabânšenâsi mi-xun-and ] (N FRC)

  DEM student-PL -EZ that linguistics DUR-study-3PL

  'these students who study linguistics'
- c. in javân-e [az suis bar=gašt-e] (N-EZ RRC) this young-EZ from Switzerland re=turn-PPL 'this young man back from Switzerland'
- d. aks-e [čâp šode dar ruznâme] (N-EZ RRC) photo-EZ publication become in newspaper 'the photo published in the newspaper'

Finally, (11a-d) show that with certain iPersian prepositional phrases, Ezafe occurs between the P head and its object. (11e) shows furthermore that when such a PP occurs as a noun modifier, Ezafe may sometimes occur between PP and the head noun:



<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup>Montazer 'waiting' is the adjectival form of the noun *entezar* 'wait, expectation', both of Arabic origin. Although glossed here with a gerund, *montazer* exhibits its adjectival nature clearly in predicative constructions like (i) where it appears with an intensifier (*xeyli*):

<sup>(</sup>i) Ali xeyli montazer bud Ali very waiting was 'Ali was very much waiting'

#### (11) Complements of (certain) Ps

a.	beyn-e	man-o to	(P-EZ NP)
	between-	EZ you and me	
	'between	you and me'	

#### 1.2 The distribution of Ezafe

A number of authors (Karimi and Brame 1986/2012; Samiian 1994; Samvelian 2007; Larson and Yamakido 2008; Larson and Samiian 2020) have argued that the core distributional fact about Ezafe is that it occurs between nominals.<sup>3</sup> We formulate this idea in terms of the categorial feature [N] from Chomsky (1974) as in (12):

(12) **Key distributional claim**: Ezafe occurs between [+N] elements. The correctness of (12) for the iPersian data cited above in (7)-(10) can be established straightforwardly.

Under standard featural assumptions (Chomsky 1974; Stowell 1981; van Riemsdijk 1983, among many others), nouns and adjectives both constitute [+N] categories. If we accept this classification, all cases falling under either of the schemata in (13a) and (13b), conform to the key distributional claim:

$$\begin{array}{cccc} \text{(13)} & & \text{a.} & N(P) & \text{-ez} & N(P) / A(P) \\ & & \text{b.} & A(P) & \text{-ez} & N(P) / A(P) \end{array}$$

Consider next (14), involving nouns and reduced relatives. In the typological literature, participles are widely analyzed as adjectival elements; correspondingly, nonfinite, participial relative clauses are widely analyzed as adjectival and hence nominal ([+N]) in category (see Siloni 1995; Hazout 2001; Krause 2001; Marvin 2003; Sleeman 2019).

#### (14) N -EZ CP(nonfinite, participial)

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup>Karimi and Brame (1986/2012) argue that Ezafe occurs between nouns, which requires them to argue that the category N in iPersian embraces a far larger group of expressions than might otherwise be thought. Samvelian (2007) argues that Ezafe is specifically <u>nominal</u> morphology; given that Ezafe can attach to adjectives (7j) and to Partitive quantifiers, this entails the claim that these elements are nominal. Samiian (1994), Larson and Yamakido (2008), Larson and Samiian (2020) adopt the claim in the form given in (12).



If so, Ezafe is once again occurring between [+N] categories, in conformity with (12). Finally consider partitives with Ezafe. In iPersian these occur in the two basic syntactic patterns shown in (15a-b). In pattern (15a), Ezafe attaches to an indefinite noun (*kodum*, literally 'which') occurring between the quantifier and the restrictor. In (15b) it appears to attach directly to the quantifier, here *tamâm* 'all'.

In (15a) and all similar cases, Ezafe is plainly occurring between two [+N] elements, viz., between the indefinite noun (*kodum*) and the NP restrictor (here *shâgerdâ* 'students'). Such examples therefore conform to the key distributional claim (12). What about (15b)?

One widely held analysis of partitives of the Q-EZ NP form is that they involve a covert noun following Q, either a deleted version of the restrictor noun (16a) or a covert version of indefinite *kodum* 'one' (16b) (see Jackendoff 1977; Chomsky 1981; Sauerland and Yatsushiro 2004; Stickney 2009; Ionin et al. 2006).

On this analysis, (15b) simply falls together with (15a) in conforming to (12). An alternative is that Q selects the partitive complement directly, without an intervening N, a view defended for English Q of NP partitives by Matthewson (2001) and Gagnon (2013). On this proposal, conformity with (12) hinges on the nominal status of Q.

The featural composition of quantifiers and determiners is controversial, but at least under the widely influential proposals of Grimshaw (1991, 2005), wherein functional categories occurring within the nominal like D, Q, Number, Gender are analyzed as forming an "extended projection" of NP, these are featurally [+N]. More exactly, Grimshaw proposes that the functional scaffolding above NP must be consistent with it in category features (17). If so, then quantifiers and determiners are all featurally nominal.

(17) N 
$$[+N,-V,...]$$
  
GEN  $[+N,-V,...]$   
NUM  $[+N,-V,...]$   
D/Q  $[+N,-V,...]$ 

We may also note in this connection that all analyses of partitives arguing for a case-marking analysis of the preposition of in examples like all of the companies implicitly



adopt the view that the Partitive complement *the students* following *of* is an expression that needs case and that the quantifier head preceding *of* is an expression that cannot itself assign case (see Girbau 2010 and especially Matthewson 2001 for a forceful defense of this idea). In the system of Chomsky (1981) at least (see below), this implies both elements are [+N].

We conclude that the iPersian data cited above in (7)-(10) are either clearly or very plausibly in conformity with the key distributional claim (12) about the distribution of Ezafe. Thus in core cases, Ezafe occurs between nominal ([+N]) elements, much like 's/of in English.

- (i) a. **tamâm**-o did-am all-ACC saw-1SG 'I saw everyone'
  - b. **ba'zi**-â ro mi-shnâs-am some-PL-ACC DUR-know-1SG 'I know some of them'

This is true of many quantifiers but not all. Specifically, all iPersian quantifiers that are followed by a classifier behave nominally as in (15)a. And some quantifiers without classifiers also occur nominally, e.g., hame 'all' in (iia-b):

- (ii) a. **hama**-ro did-am all-ACC saw-1SG 'I saw everyone'
  - be hame goft-am to all said-1SG 'I told everyone'

However, some iPersian quantifiers don't occur in nominal positions, such as *bishtar* 'most' (iiia-b), *aksar* 'most/majority' (iva-b), *aqhlab* 'most/temporal'; even *tamam* 'all' is not acceptable as a nominal for some native speakers (va-b).

- (iii) a. \*bishtar-o xund-am most-ACC read-1SG 'I read most'
  - b. **bishtar**-esh-o xund-am most-3SG-ACC read-1SG 'I read most of it'
- (iv) a. \*aksar-o davat=kard-am most/majority-ACC invitation=made-1SG 'I invited most'
  - b. **aksar**-eshun-o davat=kard-am all-3SG.OBL-ACC read-1SG 'I invited most of them'
- (v) a. \*?tamâm-o xund-am all-ACC read-1SG 'I read all'
  - b. **tamâm-**esh-o xund-am all-3sg.obl-ACC read-1sg 'I read all of it'



<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>4</sup>An anonymous *NLLT* reviewer notes that some quantifiers display nominal behavior insofar as they occur in argument position and take a plural morpheme (1a-b):

AP

#### 1.3 Ezafe as case-marker

Samiian (1994) offers a theoretical proposal about Ezafe from which the key distributional claim in (12) follows. Consider the sets of examples below, involving NPs (18), APs (19), QPs (20) and PPs (21). Each of the (a) examples exhibits Ezafe; the remaining ones either show the iPersian preposition az or Ezafe and az alternating, with largely identical meaning. Semantic variation in heads across the example sets suggests that az contributes very little on its own—i.e., that its content is determined contextually. Like Ezafe, az seems to be present largely for grammatical reasons, with examples becoming sharply ungrammatical without it.

- (18) a. ye goruh \*(-e)/\*(az) dâneshju-yân
  a group -EZ / of student-PL
  'a group of the students'
  - b. bayâniye \*(-ye)/\*(az) kârgar-ân-e motehasen statement -EZ / of worker-PL-EZ striking 'statement of/from/by striking workers'
  - c. gozâresh \*(-e)/\*(az) vezârat-e farhang
     report -EZ / of ministry-EZ education
     'report of/from the ministry of education'
- (19) a. negarân \*(-e) bache.hâ

  worried -EZ child.PL

  'worried about the children'
  - b. deltang \*(az) zendegi depressed of life 'depressed about life'
  - xashmgin \*(az) natije -ye entexabat
     enraged of result -EZ election
     'enraged by/at/about the election result'

iPersian speakers detect an "ablative flavor" with az in some cases in (19)-(22), such as (21d). Note that fromlof alternation is also found in English in examples like (iia-b):

- (ii) a. Alice jumped out **of/from** the plane.
  - b. Max ran out **of/from** the house.
  - We require this of/from you.

Presumably the semantic differences between use of Ezafe versus az follow from the fact that az carries genuine semantic features whereas Ezafe is semantically empty, a pure case-marker, counterpart to the difference between English from and of.



 $<sup>^{5}</sup>Az$  has independent use in iPersian as an ablative preposition meaning 'from' (ia-b); example (ib) shows both partitive and ablative uses together:

<sup>(</sup>i) a. Ali az N.Y. âmad-e bud Ali from N.Y. came-PPT was 'Ali had come from N.Y.'

b. yek-i az dâneshjuy-ân az Chomsky soal-e xub-i kard one-IND from student-PL from Chomsky question-EZ good-IND made 'one of the students asked a good question of Chomsky'

OP

PP

(20) a. bishtar \*(-e) ketâb-hâ
most -EZ book.PL
'most of/among the books'

- b. barxi \*(az) ketâb-hâ ]
  some of book-PL
  'some of/among the books'
- c. cand-tâ \*(-ye)/\*(az) ânhâ few-unit -EZ / of them 'few of them'
- d. hic kodum \*(-e)/\*(az) ânhâ
   not any -EZ / of them
   'none of them'
- (21) a. dar-tul \*(-e) mâh -e Fevriye during -EZ month -EZ February 'during the month of February'
  - b. qabl \*(-e)/\*(az) nahâr
     before -EZ / of lunch
     'before lunch'
  - c. bad \*(-e)/\*(az) molâqât -e Hasan ]
     after -EZ / of visit -EZ Hasan
     'after the meeting with Hasan'
  - d. birun \*(-e)/\*(az) panjare
     out -EZ / of window
     'out/outside of the window'

English exhibits a parallel distribution insofar as where iPersian shows Ezafe or az, English shows the preposition of (22a-1).<sup>6</sup> Here too the semantic contribution by of is minimal. The preposition seems to be present for purely grammatical reasons.<sup>7</sup>

<sup>(</sup>iv) a. ketâb-e jadid-e Chomsky book-EZ new-EZ Chomsky 'Chomsky's new book'



<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>6</sup>The close parallelism between iPersian Ezafe and English *of* is noted explicitly in Karimi and Brame (1986/2012) and Samiian (1994).

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>7</sup>When the head noun bears the indefinite suffix in iPersian, Ezafe is excluded (ref.). In this context, az becomes obligatory (i-v):

ye goruh-i \*e/\*(az) dâneshju-yân
 a group-IND -EZ/of student-PL
 'a group of students'

bayâniye-i \*e/\*(az) kârgarân-e motehasen statement-IND -EZ/of workers-EZ striking 'a statement from striking workers'

<sup>(</sup>iii) gozâresh-i \*e/\*(az) vezârat-e farhang report-IND -EZ/from ministry-EZ education 'a report of the ministry of education'

(22)	a.	del-e sang heart-EZ stone 'heart of stone'/'stone heart'	(N-EZ NP)
	b.	manzel-e John house-Ez John 'house of John's'/John's house'	(N-EZ NP)
	c.	shahr-e Tehran city-EZ Tehran 'city of Tehran'/'Tehran city'	(N-EZ NP)
	d.	Ali-e Ghozati Ali-EZ Ghozati 'Ali of the Ghozati's'/'Ali Ghozati'	(N-EZ NP)
	e.	tæxrib-e shahr destruction-EZ city 'destruction of the city'	(N-EZ NP)
	f.	xordan-e âb drinking-EZ water 'drinking of water'	(N-EZ NP)
	g.	forushande-ye ketâb seller-EZ books 'seller of books'	(N-EZ NP)
	h.	ârezumand-e shohrat desirous-EZ fame 'desirous of fame'	(A-EZ NP)
	i.	bishtar-e ketâb-hâ most-EZ book-PL 'most of the books'	(Q-EZ NP)
	j.	birun-e panjare out-EZ window 'out of the window'	(P-EZ NP)

 ketâb-e jadid-i \*e/\*(az) Chomsky book-EZ new-IND -EZ/from Chomsky 'a new book by Chomsky'

- (v) a. maqâle-ye Milâd-e Azimi article-EZ Milad-EZ Azimi 'the article by Milad Azimi'
  - b. maqale-i \*e/\*(az) Milad-e Azimi article-IND EZ/of Milad-EZ Azimi 'an article by Milad Azimi'

Note, however, that this distribution does not hold of adjectival modifiers, which never co-occur with az.

(vi) Ketab-i (\*az) jadid book-IND of new 'a new book'

We assume that whereas adjectives can co-occur with the pure case-marker -EZ, they cannot occur with the prepositional case-marker az in virtue of residual ablative semantic features inhering in the latter.



k. bâ-vojud-e Hasan
with-existence-EZ Hasan
'in spite of Hasan'
l. be-dalil-e in mozu
for-reason-EZ this issue
'because of this issue'

Chomsky (1981) proposes that *of* is present in the English expressions given as glosses in (22) in order to satisfy a case licensing requirement on NPs (i.e., on [+N] elements). In essence, his proposal is that nominal items require case, but nominal elements do not assign or check case. It follows that when two nominals X, Y are adjacent (23a), a case assigner like *of* will be required between them (23b) to assign case to the rightward Y. iPersian az 'of' can be analyzed in the same terms (23c):

(23)

NON-CASE-ASSIGNING CASE-ASSIGNING CASE-REQUIRING

a. 
$$X[+N] \Rightarrow Y[+N]$$

b.  $X[+N] \Rightarrow [pp \ of \Rightarrow Y[+N]]$ 

English of

c.  $X[+N] \Rightarrow [pp \ az \Rightarrow Y[+N]]$ 

iPersian  $az$ 

Samiian (1994) proposes essentially the same picture for iPersian Ezafe, suggesting that -EZ is a case-assigning element that is merged into the first nominal X and provides case assignment for the second nominal Y (24a); Larson and Yamakido (2008) offer a minor variant of Samiian's proposal wherein Ezafe is, in effect, a clitic version of az, heading its own phrase (EzP) and cliticizing onto the preceding nominal stem (24b)

(24)

a. 
$$X[+N]$$
 - $EZ$   $\Rightarrow$   $Y[+N]$  iPersian Ezafe  
b.  $X[+N]$  - $EZ$   $[EZP]$  - $EZ$   $\Rightarrow$   $Y[+N]$  iPersian Ezafe

On either variant, Samiian's proposal derives the key distributional claim in (12) from case theory: from the inability of nominal items to assign (or check) case, from the licensing requirement on nominal elements that they receive case (or have it checked on them) and from the problem posed by adjacent nominals (23a). Again, a basic parallelism is observed between Ezafe and 's/of in English.

#### 2 Ezafe and iPersian PPs

Arguments for the key distributional claim (12) were given above for all iPersian cases except those involving prepositional phrases. And in fact, iPersian Ps and PPs

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>8</sup>An interesting implication of Samiian's analysis is that iPersian adjectives can be directly case-marked like iPersian nouns (a point also noted by Haig 2011). This implication is explored and developed for iPersian and a number of other Iranian languages in Larson (2018).



raise a serious puzzle for (12). In the feature system of Chomsky (1974) and Stowell (1981), prepositions are analyzed as [-N] elements. Accordingly:

- We do not expect Ezafe after P within PP. That is, we predict \*P-EZ NP.
- We do not expect Ezafe <u>before</u> PP when the latter modifies an NP. That is, we predict \*N-EZ PP.

Neither prediction is correct however.

#### 2.1 PP-internal Ezafe

Samiian (1994) notes that iPersian prepositions fall into 3 classes with respect to Ezafe and their objects. Some prepositions ( $P_1$ ) do forbid Ezafe before their objects, as predicted (25a-d). But others ( $P_2$ ) allow Ezafe in this position (26a-d), and some ( $P_3$ ) actually require it (27a-d). <sup>10</sup>

#### (25) **P<sub>1</sub>** (forbids Ezafe)

- a. az (\*-e) Maryam from (-EZ) Maryam 'from Maryam'
- b. bâ (\*-ye) Hasan with (-EZ) Hasan 'with Hasan'
- c. be (\*-ye) Ali to (-EZ) Ali 'to Ali'
- d. dar (\*-e) Tehran in/at/on (-EZ) Tehran 'in/at/on Tehran'

#### (26) **P**<sub>2</sub> (allows Ezafe)

- a. bâlâ (-ye) divârup (-EZ) wall'up the wall'
- b. jelo (-ye) Hasan in front (-EZ) Hasan 'in front of Hasan'
- c. ru (-ye) miz on (-EZ) table 'on top of the table'

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>10</sup>The P1-P3 division classifies iPersian prepositions with regard to Ezafe, but some iPersian Ps show other options. For example, the prepositions *badlpas* 'after', *gabllpish* 'before', and *qeyr* 'except' pattern like P3s, but instead of showing Ezafe before their objects they govern the preposition *az* (see 21b-c). iPersian also exhibits compound prepositions like *bar-asaas-e* 'based on', *banaa bar* 'according to', *bar-mabnaa-ye* 'on the basis of' and *dar-baare-ye* 'about'. See Appendix for a more complete classification.



<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>9</sup>See Appendix for a full list of iPersian prepositions.

d. tu (-e) divâr inside (-EZ) wall 'inside the wall'

#### (27) P<sub>3</sub> (requires Ezafe)

- a. beyn \*(-e) man-o to between -EZ you-and me 'between you and me'
- b. vasat \*(-e) otâq in-the-middle -EZ room 'in the middle of the room'
- c. dor \*(-e) estaxr around -EZ pool 'around the pool'
- d. baqal \*(-e) darby -EZ door'by the door'

Under the key distributional claim in (12) whereby Ezafe occurs between [+N] elements, these patterns should reflect "nominality" in  $P_n$ . Specifically:

P<sub>1</sub>s must be non-nominal ([-N]), since Ezafe is excluded.

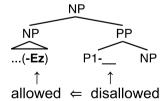
 $P_2$ s must be somehow "optionally nominal" ([ $\pm N$ ]), since Ezafe is permitted.

 $P_3$ s must be nominal ([+N]), since Ezafe is required.

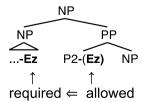
#### 2.2 PP-external Ezafe

Consider next prepositional phrases functioning as NP modifiers. Again, contrary to prediction, Ezafe <u>does</u> occur between NP and PP in such cases. The exact distribution is determined according to P-class. Prepositional phrases headed by  $P_1s$  (i.e.,  $P_1Ps$ ) <u>allow</u> a preceding Ezafe (28a).  $P_2Ps$  <u>require</u> a preceding Ezafe (28b). And  $P_3Ps$  also require a preceding -EZ (28c).

#### (28) a. **Ezafe and P<sub>1</sub>s**

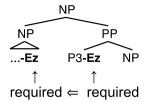


#### b. Ezafe and $P_2$ s





#### c. Ezafe and P<sub>3</sub>s



These distributions are illustrated in (29a-d) with Ps from the three respective classes:

(29)

a.	[NP shâm (-e)	[PP bâ (*-e)	Hasan]]		<b>P</b> <sub>1</sub> : <i>bâ</i>
	dinner	with	Hasan	'dinner with Hasan'	
b.	[ <sub>NP</sub> divâr <b>-e</b>	[PP jelo	Ali]]		P <sub>2</sub> : jelo
	wall	in-front-of	Ali	'wall in front of Ali'	
c.	[ <sub>NP</sub> divâr <b>-e</b>	[PP jelo -e	Ali]]		P <sub>2</sub> : jelo
	wall	in-front-of	Ali	'wall in front of Ali'	
d.	[ <sub>NP</sub> miz -e	[PP baqal -e	Hasan]]		P <sub>3</sub> : baqal
	table	near	Hasan	'table near Hasan'	

Once again, if Ezafe occurs between [+N] elements as hypothesized under (12), then this pattern must reflect "nominality" of  $P_nP$ . Specifically:

- $P_1Ps$  must be "optionally nominal" ([ $\pm N$ ]), since Ezafe is permitted before them
- P<sub>2</sub>Ps must be nominal ([+N]), since Ezafe is required before them
- P<sub>3</sub>Ps must be nominal ([+N]), since Ezafe is required before them

What sense can we make of these PP distributions, and how can we connect them to the "nominality" facts about the corresponding P heads?<sup>11</sup>

- (i) in/un ru-ye miz this/that top-EZ table 'this/that top of the table'
- (ii) inja/unja ru-ye miz here/there top-EZ table 'here/there on top of the table'

However, (i) and (ii) exhibit some distinctions. For example, (i) disallows demonstratives before the final noun (iiia), whereas (ii) allows them (iiib). Note the bare PP form allows final demonstratives (iiic).

- (iii) a. \*in/un ru-ye in/un miz 'this/that top of this/that table'
  - b. inja/unja ru-ye in/un miz 'here/there on top of this/that table'



<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>11</sup>Pantcheva (2008), following Svenonius (2006), analyzes  $P_2s$  and  $P_3s$  as "Axial Parts," a locative category distinct from nouns and distinct from functional prepositions ( $P_1s$ ). To account for the nominal characteristics of  $P_2/P_3s$  she posits an empty PLACE node before  $P_2/P_3s$ . A major argument she presents is the occurrence of a demonstrative determiner before  $P_2/P_3s$  as in (i) which is semantically synonymous with (ii). Since ja means 'place,' she assumes a silent PLACE before ru-ye miz in (i).

#### 2.3 Prepositions and relational nouns

A key element of the answer, we believe, lies in the intimate connection between iPersian P<sub>2</sub>s/P<sub>3</sub>s and corresponding relational nouns, a link familiar from the grammaticalization literature (Quirk and Mulholland 1964; König and Kortmann 1991; Kortmann and König 1992; Waters 2009; Libert 2013).<sup>12</sup>

To introduce the core issues, consider first the English expressions *inside* and *interior* as they appear in (30) and (31). Co-occurrence in argument position with an article (30a) and an attributive modifier (30b) and appearance in the plural (30c) identify *inside* and *interior* as nouns in these examples. Co-occurrence with an *of*-PP complement in (31a) furthermore identifies the two expressions as <u>relational</u> nouns, with a logical structure as in (31b):

- (30) a. The **inside/interior** is white.
  - b. We examined the grimy **inside/interior**.
  - The company is not responsible for interiors/?insides (only exteriors/outsides).
- (31) a. The **interior/inside** [PP of the box] was filled with foam.
  - b.  $\lambda y \lambda x [interior/inside(x,y)]$

Conceptually, something is an interior x in virtue of being an interior of something y. Likewise something is an inside in virtue of being an inside of something.

Compare next *inside* and *interior* in (32a-b). Again the two expressions occur as nouns, but here within a larger PP structure. Again the two nouns are relational, as can be seen by considering the logical structure of the larger PP (32c):

(32) a. John put the clock [PP in the [inside of the box]].

```
c. ru-ye in/un miz 'on top of this/that table'
```

Moreover, P<sub>3</sub>s can occur without a complement with a determiner, but not preceded by *inja* and *unja*.

(iv) a. in/un ru
'this/that top'
b. \*inja/unja ru
'here/there on top'

Also, absent from Pantcheva (2008) is any account of the <u>external</u> occurrence of Ezafe before PPs. (The internal occurrence of Ezafe is not accounted for in detail beyond the assumption that Ezafe is a case assigner and an additional projection KP can host the Ezafe morpheme as proposed by Svenonius 2006.) Finally with respect to optionality of Ezafe following P2s, Pantcheva proposes to classify them as  $P_1$  when there is no Ezafe following them as in (v) or as Axial Part  $P_3$  when there is as in (vi).

- (v) tu jabe
- (vi) tu-ye jabe

This appears to us simply to restate the distributional facts rather than to explain them.

<sup>12</sup>We are grateful to an anonymous *NLLT* reviewer for comments prompting the discussion in this section and to Jonathan Washington (p.c.) for pointing out the relevance of English *inside* and *outside* for the discussion of iPersian prepositions.



- b. John put the clock [PP in the [interior of the box]].
- c.  $\lambda w[in(w,\iota x[inside/interior(x,the-box)])]$

Intuitively, in the inside of the box is true of entities z that are contained within the volume x constituting the inside of the box.

Finally consider (33a-c). (33a) illustrates prepositional *inside*. Here no definite article or *of* is present, indicating that the expression is not a noun. Nonetheless, the synonymy of (32a) and (33a) strongly suggests that the semantics of relational noun *inside* persists within the semantics of prepositional *inside* (33b). To be inside the box is clearly to be located in the box's inside, etc.

- (33) a. John put the clock [PP inside the box].
  - b.  $[\![ inside ]\!] = \lambda z \lambda y i x [\![ iN(z,x) \& inside(x,y) ]\!]$
  - c. \*John put the clock [PP interior the box].

These points suggest that when a relational noun develops a corresponding preposition, it does so by incorporating an additional locative relation ('IN') into its existing relational structure. <sup>13</sup> Plausibly the reason *interior* has no corresponding prepositional form (33c) is because it has failed to undergo a similar incorporation process; native speakers do sense a missing locative relation in this example. <sup>14</sup>

#### 2.4 iPersian P<sub>2</sub>s and P<sub>3</sub>s and relational nouns

The observations made above for English *inside* apply equally to iPersian  $P_2s$  and  $P_3s$  insofar as all of these forms appear to have active relational noun counterparts in iPersian grammar.

Karimi and Brame (1986/2012) observe that forms corresponding to iPersian P<sub>3</sub>s behave like nouns in combining with demonstratives (34), in pluralizing (35), in occurring as prepositional objects (36a) and in being modifiable by attributive adjectives (36b).

- (34) a. **in/un** zir-e miz (=Karimi and Brame 1986/2012: (43a-f)) **this/that** under-EZ table 'this/that underspace of the table'
  - b. in/un vasat-e sandoqthis/that middle-EZ trunk'this/that middle part of the trunk'
  - c. **in/un** posht-e måshin **this/that** behind-EZ car 'this/that back area of the car'

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>14</sup>This difference in prepositional trajectory for *inside* and *interior* plausibly traces to their different origins. According to the *OED*, *inside* originated (1504) from an adjective-relational noun combination *ynsyde* meaning 'inner side,' later generalized to 'interior.' By contrast *interior* (1490) derives from a Latin comparative adjective *intere* meaning 'situated more within.'



<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>13</sup>Svenonius (2003, 2012) analyzes what are here identified as relational nouns as of the syntactic category Axial Part, and offers an extensive decompositional analysis of spatial adpositions.

(35) a. un zir-**â**-ye miz (=Karimi and Brame 1986/2012: (45a,b,d)) that under-PL-EZ table 'those under spaces of the table'

- b. un vasat-**â**-ye otâq that middle-**PL**-EZ room 'those middle parts of the room'
- c. in posht-â-ye xune this behind-PL-EZ house 'these back areas of the house'
- (36) a. **be** zir-e miz (=Karimi and Brame 1986/2012: (46a)) **to** under-EZ table

  'to the space under the table'/'under the table' (directional)
  - b. zir-e **kasif-e** miz (=Karimi and Brame 1986/2012: (47)) under-EZ **dirty-EZ** table 'the dirty underspace of the table'

The same observations hold of iPersian  $P_2$ s. Sample cases are shown in (37)-(39), which again display combination with demonstratives (37), pluralization (38), occurrence as object of a preposition (39) and the possibility adjectival modification (40):

- (37) a. **in** ru-ye miz **this** top-EZ table 'this top of the table'
  - b. **un** jelo-ye xune **that** front-EZ house
    'that front of the house'
  - c. **in** tu-ye ganje **this** inside-EZ closet 'this inside of the closet'
- (38) a. in ru-**â**-ye miz this top-**PL**-EZ table 'these top areas of the table'
  - b. un jelo-**â**-ye xune that front-**PL**-EZ house 'those front areas of the house'
  - c. in tu-â-ye ganje this inside-PL-EZ closet 'these inside areas of the closet'
- (39) a. az ru-ye miz from top-EZ table 'from the top of the table'
  - b. dar jelo-ye xunein front-EZ house'in the front of the house'
  - c. az tu-ye ganje from inside-EZ closet 'from the inside of the closet'



- (40) a. in ru-ye **tamiz**-e miz this top-EZ **clean**-EZ table 'this clean top of the table'
  - b. in jelo-ye **qashang-**e xune this front-EZ **beautiful-**EZ house 'this beautiful front area of the house'
  - c. in tu-ye târik-e ganje this inside-EZ dark-EZ closet 'this dark inside of the closet'

Furthermore, as with *inside*, the prepositional meanings of iPersian  $P_2$ s and  $P_3$ s plausibly incorporate the meanings of their corresponding relational nouns, as we see from synonymous pairs like (41)-(46), in which the generalized iPersian locative  $P_1$  dar 'in/on/at' is present (a) and absent (b) (resp.):

- - mâshin-e Ali [PP jelo(-ye) xune]-ast car-EZ Ali front(-EZ) house-is 'Ali's car is in front of the house.'
- (42) a. sâ'at [PP dar bâlâ-ye yaxcâl]-e P<sub>2</sub> (bala 'on top of') clock LOC top-EZ refrigerator-is 'The clock is on top of the refrigerator.'
  - sâ'at [PP bâlâ(-ye) yaxcâl]-e
     clock top(-EZ) refrigerator-is
     'The clock is on top of the refrigerator.'
- (43) a. ketâb-e Ali [PP dar tu-ye jabe]-ast P<sub>2</sub> (tu 'inside') book-EZ Ali LOC inside-EZ box-is 'Ali's book is inside the box.'
  - ketâb-e Ali [PP tu(-ye) jabe]-ast
     book-EZ Ali inside(-EZ) box-is
     'Ali's book is inside the box.'
- (44) a. in gol-hâ [PP dar vasat-e miz]-an P<sub>3</sub> (vasat 'middle') this flower-PL LOC middle-EZ table-are 'These flowers are in the middle of the table.'
  - b. in gol-hâ [PP vasat-e miz] an this flower-PL middle-EZ table are 'These flowers are in the middle of the table.'
- (45) a. sâ'at [PP dar dâxel-e jabe]-ast  $P_3$  (daxel 'inside') clock LOC inside-EZ box-is 'The clock is in the inside of the box.'
  - sâ'at [PP dâxel-e jabe]-ast clock inside-EZ box-is
     'The clock is inside the box.'



(46) a. xune-ye Hasan [PP dar kenâr-e daryâ]-ast P3 (kenar 'beside') house-EZ Hasan LOC beside-EZ sea]-is 'Hasan's house is at the seaside/on the beach.'

b. xune-ye Hasan [PP kenâr-e daryâ]-ast house-EZ Hasan beside-EZ sea]-is
 'Hasan's house is at the seaside/on the beach.'

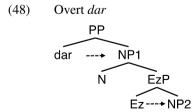
In all this behavior, iPersian parallels what we saw earlier with English *inside*, where the prepositional form was matched by an active relational noun form that is logically prior (since the prepositional meaning contains the relational noun meaning), grammatically prior (since the prepositional form contains the relational noun form) and historically prior (since the preposition developed from the relational noun). As also in the English case, the added locative component in iPersian P<sub>2</sub>s and P<sub>3</sub>s can be covert, with the P<sub>2</sub>s and P<sub>3</sub>s identical in form to the corresponding relational nouns. <sup>15</sup>

#### 2.5 Grammaticization and synchronic analysis

As noted above, the development of prepositions from relational nouns is a topic widely discussed in the grammaticization literature. A commonly proposed scenario in this context starts from the situation where a nominal containing a relational noun (RN) and its complement NP occur as the object of a preposition (P) (47). RN subsequently incorporates into P, either overtly or covertly. The P-RN composite is later reanalyzed as a P itself, with the complement NP reanalyzed as its grammatical object (Waters 2009; Ogawa 2014).

(47) 
$$P [RN NP] \Rightarrow P-RN [RN NP] \Rightarrow [P_{RN} NP]$$

This picture suggests a potentially attractive synchronic analysis of PP-internal Ezafe. Assume that examples (41a)-(46a) above, with overt  $P_1$  dar, have the basic structure in (48), where the complement of dar is a relational NP (NP1). Here dar assigns case to NP1 and Ezafe assigns case to the complement of N (NP2).

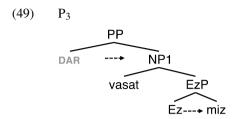


Starting from this basic picture, examples where *dar* is absent (41b)-(46b) might then be accommodated as follows. With P<sub>3</sub>s we would take the structure to be identical

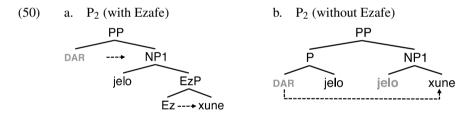
<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>15</sup>This identity of form led Karimi and Brame (1986/2012) to conclude that iPersian P3s simply <u>are</u> nouns. But this cannot be correct, as we have seen, given that prepositions and relational nouns have distinct semantics.



to (48), but with dar (or its equivalent) present in null form (DAR). This proposal correctly predicts that Ezafe is required internally with  $P_3s$ ; see (49), corresponding to (44b):



With  $P_2s$ , we would assume the same underlying structure, but with an additional option. Thus structure (50a) would be available for (41b), which is essentially identical to (49); here again Ez is realized. But additionally we might assume a structure as in (50b), where the relational noun (jelo) incorporates into null DAR, following the usual historical sequence, voiding the case requirement on NP1 (Baker 1988) and allowing DAR to case-mark the relational complement (xune) directly. Ez would then be unrealized.  $^{16}$ 



This account would ascribe the obligatoriness of Ezafe with  $P_3$ s to the fact that these are not really prepositions at all, but rather relational NP complements of a null P. And it would ascribe the optionality of Ezafe with  $P_2$ s to the optionality of N-incorporation, an operation presumably unavailable to  $P_3$ s as a matter of the lexical properties of their relational noun heads.

Nonetheless, however attractive these proposals might seem as an account of the PP-<u>internal</u> distribution of Ezafe, observe that they are clearly <u>not</u> adequate for explaining the PP-<u>ex</u>ternal distributional of Ezafe. On the structures proposed in (48)-(50), iPersian PPs of all types are headed by an overt or null P, which is [-N] by assumptions and whose projection is [-N] by assumptions. This predicts neither the optional occurrence of Ezafe with P<sub>1</sub>Ps (29a) nor the obligatory occurrence of Ezafe with P<sub>2</sub>Ps and P<sub>3</sub>Ps, whether these show internal Ezafe or not (29b-d). So a synchronic analysis mimicking the common developmental account of prepositions from relational nouns (47) will not suffice as it stands.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>16</sup>We remain neutral in this discussion as to whether incorporation occurs syntactically as in Baker (1988) or whether it is a word formation process as in Rosen (1989). For us the key point is that incorporated nominal material, like *jelo* in (50b), does not bear case features like argumental nominals.



Nevertheless, although the proposals in (48)-(50) are not successful, we think the relational noun "core" observed within iPersian P<sub>2</sub>Ps and P<sub>3</sub>Ps is the key to a more adequate account. A striking difference between iPersian and English is the sheer productivity of the P-RN patterning. In English the set of prepositions having active relational noun counterparts is confined to the forms *insideloutside*. Overwhelmingly, the set of English locative prepositions deriving from relational nouns (*around*, *atop*, *behind*, *below*, *beneath*, *beside*, *between*, *beyond*, *underneath*, etc.) no longer have transparent relations to grammatically independent relational nouns. In iPersian, by contrast, the pattern is highly regular. This suggests that what we are seeing in iPersian P<sub>2</sub>Ps and P<sub>3</sub>Ps might represent a kind of "projection" of the [N] feature present in their core relational noun to higher levels of structure. We now turn to an account that has these properties, beginning with a closer look at PP itself.

#### 3 The structure of PP

In the first systematic study of prepositional phrase structure in generative grammar, Jackendoff (1973) demonstrated a basic parallelism in selection and complementation between verbs and prepositions. In brief, for verb classes with complement type X (51a-d), Jackendoff exhibited a corresponding prepositional class with complement type X (52a-d):<sup>17</sup>

#### (51) Verbal complementation

- a. [VP V] Intransitive V e.g., John [VP laughed/fell]
- b. [VP V NP] Transitive V e.g., John [VP **hit** [NP the wall]]
- c. [VP V PP] PP Complement-taking V e.g., John [VP **dug** [PP through his coins]]
- d. [VP V NP PP] Ditransitive V e.g., John [VP **put** [NP salt] [PP on the fish]]

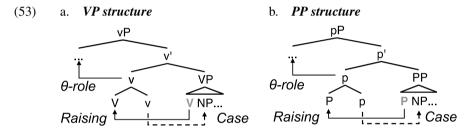
## (52) **Prepositional complementation**

- a. [PP P] Intransitive P e.g., John went [PP out/inside]
- b. [PP P NP] Transitive P e.g., John went [PP **through** the wall]
- c. [PP P PP] PP Complement-taking P e.g., John jumped [PP **up** [PP from the floor]]
- d. [PP P NP PP] Ditransitive P e.g., John traveled [PP **from** [NP Kyoto] [PP to Tokyo]]

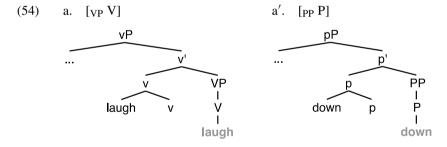
<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>17</sup>Jackendoff 1973 did not consider sentential complement-taking verbs [VP V CP], which, as later noted by Emonds (1976), are matched by clause-taking prepositions like *before*, *after*, *while*, *because* and *although*—so-called "subordinating conjunctions." An anonymous *NLLT* reviewer also notes the clause-taking P in (*Reading is a skill*, in that we need to practice it). The core VP complementation patterns not apparently matched in PP appear to be: double objects ([VP V NP NP]; *give John a peach*)), double PPs ([VP V PP PP]; *talk to John about Max*) and object control structures ([VP V NP CP]; *urge John to eat*).



These parallels have been further developed in more recent work. Chomsky (1995) (expanding ideas by Larson 1988) proposes a "split" or "shelled" structure for VP as in (53a), which includes a light verbal head that Chomsky labels "v". Little v is understood as the source of the subject thematic role, as well as the source of accusative case in a transitive structure. In the course of derivation, the lexical verb (V) raises to little v adjoining to it. Van Riemsdijk (1990) conjectures the existence of a functional little v head in prepositional phrases in certain cases and Svenonius (2003) integrates this idea into a picture of PP structure fully parallel to that of vP/VP under Chomsky (1995) (53b). If PPs are thought of as determining Locatum and Location roles (vLocatum) is in the office (Location), then little vLocatum role, as well as the source of case for the P object. In the course of derivation, the lexical preposition (vLocatum) role, as vell as the source of case for the P object. In the course of derivation, the lexical preposition (vLocatum) role, as vell as the source of case for the P object. In the course of derivation, the lexical preposition (vLocatum) role, as vell as the source of case for the P object. In the course of derivation, the lexical preposition (vLocatum) role, as vell as the source of case for the P object. In the course of derivation, the lexical preposition (vLocatum) role, as vell as the source of case for the P object. In the course of derivation, the lexical preposition (vLocatum) role, as vell as the source of case for the P object. In the course of derivation, the lexical preposition (vLocatum) role, as vell as the source of case for the P object.



Adopting Svenonius' proposal, we may represent the VP/PP complementation parallels identified by Jackendoff as in (54a-d). Note the non-vacuous nature of lexical head raising in (54d)/(54d'), which achieves the correct ordering of complements. <sup>18</sup>



Subject position Cleft position

Pied-piping with wh-



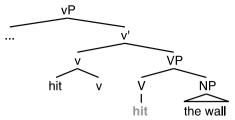
<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>18</sup>One of Jackendoff's (1973) striking demonstrations is that expressions like *from Kyoto to Tokyo* can function as a single constituent (54d') and not simply as a sequence of two PPs. Jackendoff establishes this with classic constituency tests and examples like (ia-c):

<sup>(</sup>i) a. [From Kyoto to Tokyo] is a long way.

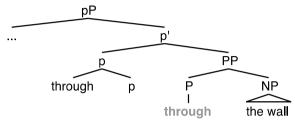
b. It was [from Kyoto to Tokyo] that John traveled.

c. [From where to Tokyo]/[from Kyoto to where] did John travel?

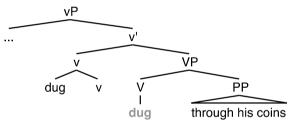




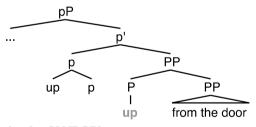
## b'. [PP P NP]



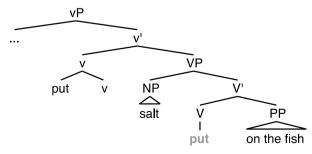
## c. [VP V PP]



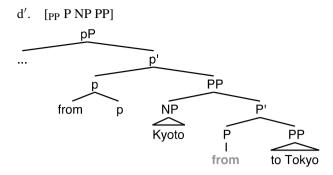
## c'. [PP P PP]



## d. [VP V NP PP]







#### 4 VPs, gerunds and derived nominals

With these results in place, consider now the external and internal distribution of the boldfaced VPs and nominals in (55a-d):<sup>19</sup>

Informally, one might describe the verb phrase *destroy the evidence* in (55a) as "externally verbal" insofar as it combines with the modal *will* and also as "internally verbal" in showing an accusative object. By contrast, the verbal gerund *destroying the evidence* in (55b) is "externally nominal" insofar as it combines with a possessive determiner, but it remains "internally verbal" in continuing to show an accusative object. The nominal gerund *destroying of the evidence* in (55c) is "externally nominal" in combining with a possessive determiner; but it is also "internally nominal" in showing an *of* - complement in place of an accusative object. Finally, the derived nominal *destruction of the evidence* in (55d) is both externally and internally nominal.

Compare now the external and internal distribution of the boldfaced iPersian phrases in (56a-d), where we take the presence of Ezafe as an indicator of nominality in its flanking phrases, as discussed in Sect. 2:

 $<sup>^{19}</sup>$ The characterization of of and EZ as "optional" in (55b,c) and (56b,c) (resp.) is purely descriptive. As we argue below, the two pairs have different structures.



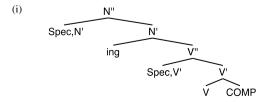
Again we might informally describe the P<sub>1</sub> prepositional phrase *bâ Hasan* in (56a) as "externally prepositional" in showing no Ezafe on the preceding N and also as "internally prepositional" in showing no Ezafe between P and its object. By contrast, the P<sub>2</sub> prepositional phrase *jelo Ali* in (56b) is "externally nominal" in requiring Ezafe on the preceding N, but still "internally prepositional" in showing no Ezafe between P and its object. The P<sub>2</sub> prepositional phrase *jelo-ye Ali* in (56c) is "externally nominal" in requiring Ezafe on the preceding N; but it is now also "internally nominal" in showing Ezafe between P and its object. Finally, the P<sub>3</sub> prepositional phrase *baqale Hasan* in (56d) is both externally and internally nominal in requiring Ezafe both before PP and within it.

The parallelism between (55) and (56) is striking.<sup>20</sup> iPersian P<sub>1</sub>s pattern like "true prepositions" heading "true prepositional phrases." By contrast, iPersian P<sub>3</sub>s pattern like nouns heading noun phrases. And iPersian P<sub>2</sub>s pattern like non-nominal and nominal "gerunds" derived from prepositions.

#### 4.1 Gerund formation as "scopal nominalization"

Jackendoff (1977) makes the interesting proposal that status as a nominal versus a verbal gerund in English reflects the scope of -ing, which he analyzes as a nominalizing morpheme. Specifically, Jackendoff proposes that when -ing combines with a verbal head directly (57a), it converts the latter to a noun, projecting nominal structure from the converted head up. The nominal gerund destroying thus becomes comparable to the derived nominal destruction, which also projects nominal structure from the head up (57b).

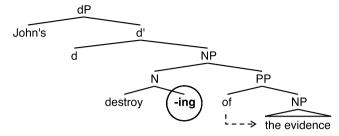
<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>21</sup> Jackendoff (1977) builds on Horn (1975), who was the first (to our knowledge) to propose that *-ing* can function to nominalize a verbal projection. Horn (1975:363) offers a general structure for verbal gerunds as in (i), utilizing X-bar theory:



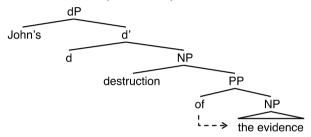


<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>20</sup>An anonymous *NLLT* reviewer questions the parallelism between (55a-d) and (56a-d) based on presumed thematic differences. Specifically, in (55a-d) *John('s)* is claimed to be an argument of the boldfaced phrases that follow it whereas in (56a-d) the boldfaced phrases constitute adjunct modifiers of the preceding N-EZ. While it is true that *John('s)* functions as a <u>semantic</u> argument in (55a-d), in at least (55b-d) it is dubious that *John's* is in fact a <u>syntactic</u> argument. As discussed in detail by Grimshaw (1991) in all of such cases, the genitive nominal is optional and replaceable by a simple determiner (*the destroying/destruction*), behavior quite uncharacteristic of a true argument. More plausible, as Grimshaw discusses, is that gerunds and derived nominals contain covert subjects and that the genitive-marked nominal has the status of an adjunct that, when present, is bound to the covert subject. If so, then the fundamental relation between *John's* and the boldfaced phrases in (55b-d) and N-EZ and the boldfaced phrases in (56b-d) (resp.) is not fundamentally different, presumably interpreted by predicate conjunction in both cases, a symmetric relation. Furthermore we note that the parallelism that truly matters in (55) and (56) is exactly between (55b-d) and (56b-d) since (56b-d) are precisely the cases where presence of Ezafe is unexpected and in need of explanation. In short then, where parallelism in (55)/(56) truly matters, it does indeed appear to obtain, including with respect to thematic relations.

#### (57) a. **N gerund** (Nominalized V)

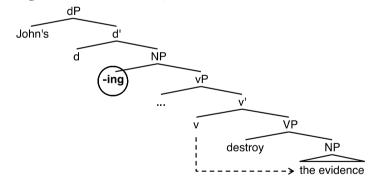


#### b. **Derived nominal** (Deverbal N)



By contrast, when *-ing* combines with a verb phrase (here vP) (58a), the result is nominal structure only from the phrase level up. Beneath the nominalizer the expression continues to have the status of a true vP, comparable to (58b).<sup>22,23,24</sup>

### (58) a. **V gerund** (Nominalized vP)



<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>22</sup>As is well known, verbal gerunds also allow aspectual verbs (ia) and negation (ib). In the first case, *-ing* would be assumed to attach to the corresponding projections above vP, e.g., PerfP. The second case appears to be a negative verbal gerund and raises an interesting word order problem for Jackendoff that we discuss below:

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>24</sup>As noted in fn. 16, the genitive subjects of gerunds and nominals do not behave as true syntactic subjects in being optional; we follow Grimshaw (1991) in taking these genitives to be adjuncts, bound to a covert pronominal subject (represented in (58a) by "...") that remains within vP.

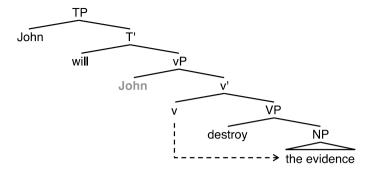


<sup>(</sup>i) a. John's [NP having destroyed the evidence] (was problematic).

b. John's [NP **not** destroying the evidence] (was fortunate).

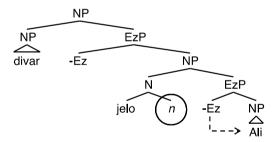
<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>23</sup>Abney (1987) and Kratzer (1996) adopt variants of Jackendoff's scopal nominalization; cf. also Borsley and Kornfilt's (2000) analysis of "mixed categories." See Sect. 7 for more discussion.

#### b. True vP

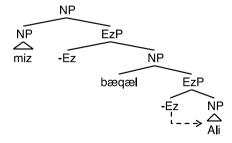


Consider now Jackendoff's proposals extended to iPersian PPs, where we understand P<sub>1</sub>s as "true prepositions" heading "true prepositional phrases," where we understand P<sub>3</sub>s as "de-prepositional nouns," and where we understand P<sub>2</sub>s as the counterparts of nominal and non-nominal gerunds. Specifically in regard to the latter, suppose iPersian has a null nominalization morpheme (*n*) counterpart to Jackendoff's -*ing* that can combine either with a lexical P head or with a pP projection. When *n* combines with a prepositional head directly (59a), it converts the latter to a noun projecting nominal structure from the converted head up. The nominalized P<sub>2</sub> *jelo* thus becomes comparable to the "de-prepositional" noun *baqal*, which also projects nominal structure from the head up (59b).

#### (59) a. **P**<sub>2</sub> (Nominalized P) ('wall before/in front of Ali')



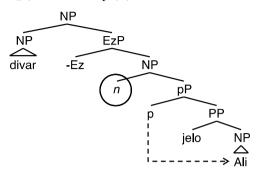
#### b. **P**<sub>3</sub> (De-prepositional N) ('table near Ali')



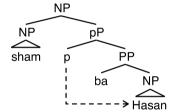


By contrast, when n combines with a prepositional phrase (pP) (60a), the result is nominal structure only from the phrase up. Beneath the nominalizer, the expression continues to have the status of a true pP comparable to (60b).

(60) a. **P**<sub>2</sub> (Nominalized pP) ('wall before/in front of Ali')



b. **P**<sub>1</sub> (True p) ('dinner with Hasan')



#### 4.2 iPersian P<sub>1</sub>Ps again

Scopal nominalization, as sketched above, appears to offer an attractive account of the internal and external occurrence of Ezafe with respect to iPersian PPs and the key distributional claim (13). But it leaves an important factual point unaccounted for.

We have characterized iPersian  $P_1s$  like az 'from',  $b\hat{a}$  'with', be 'to' and dar 'in/at/on' as "true prepositions" heading "true prepositional phrases," a view consistent with the fact that they never take Ezafe before their objects. However, as first observed by Samvelian (2007), and as noted in (22a), Ezafe <u>does</u> occur between iPersian  $P_1Ps$  and a nominal it modifies; (61a) is from Samvelian (2007, ex 27), and (61b-e) are drawn from the Bijan Khan online corpus:

(61) a. sobh-hâ-ye [PIP bâ mâdar] morning-PL-EZ with mother 'mornings with mother'

 $<sup>^{26}</sup>$ In (61c-e), the preposition be, bar and az are optional with Ezafe present. With Ezafe absent, be, bar and az become obligatory. The meaning is the same in all cases.



<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>25</sup>We are grateful to Nazila Shafiei for assistance with corpus research.

b.	sherkat-(e) [PIP dar entexâbât] participation-EZ in election 'participation in the election'	(BK#25)
c.	dar pasox-(e) [PIP be in porsesh]	(BK#56)
	in response-EZ to this question 'in response to this question'	

d. savâr (-e) [P1P bar asb-e zarin zin] (BK#86) riding -EZ on horse-EZ golden saddle 'riding on a horse with a golden saddle'

e. davat (-e) [P1P az aziz. ân ] (BK#94) invitation -EZ from loved.ones 'invitation of loved ones'

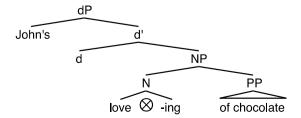
What can be said about the optionality of EZ on  $P_1P_5$  despite its exclusion after  $P_1s$  (28a)?

Pursuing the general analogy with gerund and derived nominals, we propose that this situation with iPersian  $P_1$ s is analogous to what one sees in English with gerund examples like (62). Whereas action verbs (*destroy*, *borrow*) typically allow both nominal and verbal gerund formation (62a,b), stative verbs (*hear*, *know*, *love*) typically permit only the latter (62c-e). Nominal gerund formation with stative verbs is sharply degraded in comparison to action verbs.

- (62) a. John's **destroying** (of) the evidence (was illegal).
  - b. John's **borrowing** (of) the tools (was frowned on).
  - c. John's **hearing** (\*of) the noise (was unexpected).
  - d. John's **knowing** (\*of) French (was not taken for granted).
  - e. John's **loving** (\*of) chocolate (was a drawback).

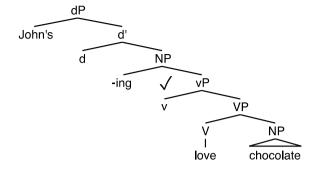
Jackendoff's (1977) scopal analysis provides a direct way of understanding the greater restrictiveness observed with nominal gerund formation. If the latter involve nominalizing a lexical V, then we might expect the inherent lexical properties of V to play a role in determining acceptability (63a). By contrast, if verbal gerund formation involves nominalizing a whole verbal phrase (vP), then lexical properties will be inaccessible at that point and the only constraints should involve those on the phrase as a whole (63b).

#### (63) a. \*Nominalized Stative V



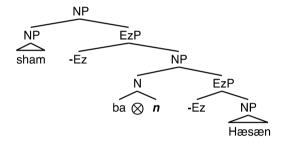


#### b. OK Nominalized Stative vP

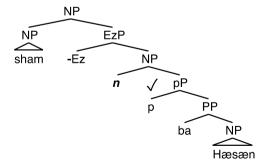


We propose to extend this basic logic to iPersian PPs. Specifically, we suggest that true prepositions  $(P_1s)$  reject nominalization as a lexical matter (64a), but accept nominalization of the larger pP phrase in some cases (64b) because lexical constraints don't apply at that point.

#### (64) a. \* $\mathbf{P_1}$ (Nominalized P)



## b. OK P<sub>1</sub> (Nominalized pP)



What lexical factors might be at work in excluding (64a)? In the case of verbal gerunds the factors seem to be semantic. As Vendler (1967) notes, nominal gerunds appear to involve reference to actions whereas verbal gerunds involve reference to "facts" or "states of affairs." Compare Vendler's (65a,b).

 $<sup>^{27}</sup>$ For developments of, and alternatives to, Vendler's proposals about gerunds, see Hamm and van Lambalgen (2002), Milsark (2005), Grimm and McNally (2015).



```
(65) a. John's playing *(of) poker is sloppy.
b. John's playing (?of) poker is unlikely.
Vendler (1967:125)
Vendler (1967:126)
```

Intuitively, actions can be sloppy, but facts or states of affairs cannot. As Vendler notes, this is reflected in the felicity of the nominal gerund in (65a) versus the infelicity of the verbal gerund. By contrast, states of affairs can be unlikely but actions in themselves cannot (although it can be unlikely that they will be undertaken). This tracks the felicity of the verbal gerund in (65b) versus the relative infelicity of the nominal gerund. Given this view, the unacceptability of (62c-e) is straightforward: hearing a noise, knowing French and loving chocolate are not naturally construed as actions, as required by the nominal gerund.

Extending Vendler's general view to prepositions and prepositional phrases, what lexical property of iPersian P<sub>1</sub>s might be responsible for their resisting nominalization as depicted in (64a)? Here we suggest a formal syntactic property noted above, namely, that unlike iPersian P<sub>2</sub>s and P<sub>3</sub>s, iPersian P<sub>1</sub>s lack a syntactic "core" based on a relational noun. Put differently, we suggest that iPersian P<sub>2</sub>s and P<sub>3</sub>s can be lexically nominalized because of an intrinsic nominality they possess through their contained relational noun. Nominalization in this sense represents a kind of wide scoping of the nominal feature born by this element. By contrast, iPersian P<sub>1</sub>s do not have a relational noun core and hence no contained nominal feature, hence the only way they can become nominal is through the phrasal nominalization mechanism (64b) available to all pPs/PPs. We develop this proposal and make it formally precise in the next section.<sup>28</sup>

```
a. sob.hâ *(-ye) [p<sub>1</sub>p bâ mâdar] mornings -EZ with mother 'mornings with mother'
b. aks *(-e) [p<sub>1</sub>p dar ganje] picture -EZ in closet 'the picture in the closet'
c. goruh *(-e) [p<sub>1</sub>p dar shahr]
```

'the group in town'

group -EZ

Interestingly, the three  $P_1P_5$  in (i) behave differently than  $P_2P_5$  and  $P_3P_5$  despite requiring a preceding Ezafe like the latter. With the  $P_3$  kenar 'beside' in (iia) and the  $P_2$  tu 'inside' in (iib), we can have an Ezafe requiring modifier before PP and a possessive after.

(ii) a. xune-ye <u>tâbestuni</u> \*(-ye) [p3p kenâr-e daryâ-ye] Hasan house-EZ summer -EZ next-EZ ocean-EZ Hasan 'Hasan's summer house on the beach'

in town

ketab-â-ye <u>zabânshenâsi</u> \*(-ye) [p2p tu-(ye) ganje-ye] Hasan-o dâd-am be ketâbxune book-PL-EZ linguistics
 -EZ inside-EZ closet-EZ Hasan-ACC gave-1SG to library 'I gave Hasan's linguistics books in the closet to the library.'

However, with *goruh-e dar shahr* 'the group in town' a preceding modifier is acceptable only if the Ezafe before P1P is omitted (iiia,b).



 $<sup>^{28}</sup>$ Our analysis makes the general prediction that Ezafe should be optional before  $P_1P_8$ . We are aware of only two counter-examples from the literature, viz., (ia) from Samvelian (2007) and (ib) from Khanemouyepour (2014). In addition, the Bijan Khan corpus of 103 items contains one such item (BK#27), reproduced in (ic).

#### 5 Nominalization as feature-separation

As noted above, the core of Jackendoff's analysis of gerunds is scope. Nominal and verbal gerunds differ insofar as a "nominalizing" element (*ing*) receives lexical versus phrasal scope, respectively. This prompts two simple, very natural questions. What is a nominalizing element in the first place? What is the nature of nominalization scope?

#### 5.1 Nominalizers and the feature [N]

The nature and status of nominalization and nominalizers is a topic of enduring interest in theoretical linguistics (for recent studies see Alexiadou 2001; Baker 2011; Comrie and Thompson 2007; Harley 2009; Lieber 2016, 2018; Kornfilt and Whitman 2011a,b; Reuland 2011; Roy and Soare 2011). It is well known that nominalizers appear to associate with specific lexical categories insofar as there are verbal nominalizers (*employ-ing*, *employ-er*, *employ-ee*), adjectival nominalizers (*happi-ness*, *complex-ity*), etc. Nominalizers also seem to associate with specific phrasal categories as in the case of clausal nominalizers like *no* in Japanese and *kes* in Korean (Simpson and Wu 2001). In some cases, these are associated with specific semantic contributions; in many other cases the semantic content is broad and vague. At base, however,

- (iii) a. goruh-e <u>zabânshenâsi</u> (\*-ye) [**p1p** dar shahr] group-EZ linguistics -EZ in town 'the linguistics group in town'
  - goruh-e zabânsenâs-an (\*e) [PIP dar shahr]
     group-EZ linguist-PL -ez in town
     'the group of linguists in town'

Similarly with sob.ha-ye ba madar 'mornings with mother' (iva-c)

- (iv) a. sob-hâ-ye <u>zud</u> (\*-ye) [p<sub>1</sub>p bâ mâdar] mornings-EZ early -EZ with mother 'summer mornings with mother'
  - sob-hâ-ye Maryam (\*-e) [PIP bâ mâdar] mornings-EZ Maryam -EZ with mother 'Maryam's mornings with mother'
  - c. \*sob-hâ-ye [p<sub>1</sub>p bâ mâdar-e] Maryam mornings-EZ with mother-EZ Maryam 'Maryam's mornings with mother'

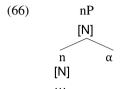
Similarly with aks-e dar ganje 'picture in the closet' (va-c).

- (v) a. aks-e <u>jaleb</u> (\*-e) [p<sub>1</sub>p dar ganje] picture-EZ <u>interesting-EZ</u> in closet 'the interesting picture in the closet'
  - b. aks-e <u>Hasan</u> (\*-e) [P1P dar ganje] picture-EZ Hasan -EZ in closet 'the picture of Hasan in the closet'
  - c. aks (\*-e) [prp dar ganje-e] <u>Hasan</u> picture-EZ in closet-EZ Hasan 'the picture in the closet of Hasan's'

We conjecture that the examples in (ia-c) cannot be broken up by other modifiers. If so, the obligatory Ezafe found with them is not the productive Ezafe found elsewhere, and is not a counterexample to the generalization made here.



as the very title suggests, the core of a "nominalizer" n must surely be the syntactic feature [N]. Whatever other semantic and/or selectional features might accrue to n historically, its key feature must be [N], since this is what characterizes the larger projection as nominal after composition (66).

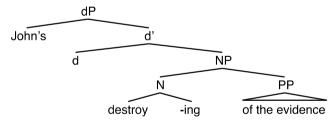


Thus when we talk of nominalizers, we seem at minimum to be talking about the distribution of the feature [N].

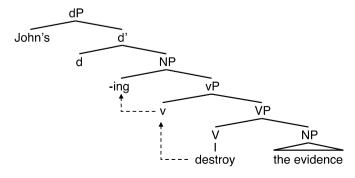
#### 5.2 Nominalizers and scope

What sense does it then make to talk about 'scope' of nominalizers? In Jackendoff's (1977) analysis of gerunds, the answer is straightforward: the *-ing* nominalizing element attaches at various bar levels of V projections. In the case of nominal gerunds, it attaches to V, hence morphological constituency and scope coincide (67a). With verbal gerunds, *-ing* attaches to vP. Here morphological constituency and scope do not coincide, hence some form of raising operation must be assumed to bring the two elements together (67b).

#### (67) a. **N gerund** (Nominalized V)



#### b. **V gerund** (Nominalized vP)

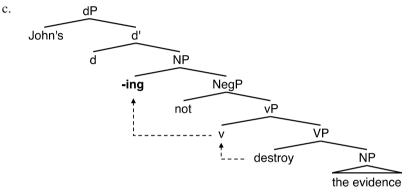




In this account, scope is a matter of derivational attachment, plus movement in the case where scope and morphology do not coincide.

Although simple and straightforward, the picture of nominalization scope in (67) is not without problems. Consider the verbal gerund in (68a). Intuitively, (68a) is a nominalized version of (68b);<sup>29</sup> that is, (68a) is the nominalization of a negation (and not, for example, the negation of a nominalization, which would not make sense semantically). On a Jackendoff 1977-style analysis, this would imply a structure for (68a) as in (68c), where -ing takes scope over NegP, and where V raises to it.

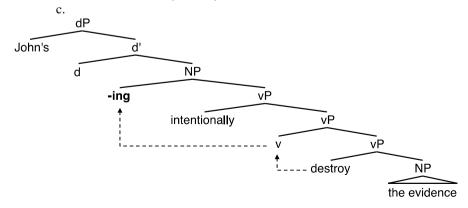
- (68) a. John's not destroying the evidence (is problematic).
  - b. John didn't destroy the evidence.



Interestingly, this structure derives the wrong constituent order after raising (\*John's destroying not the evidence). Scope and position of the gerund do not coincide.

The same issue arises with examples involving preverbal adverbs. (69a) is the nominalization of an adverbially modified vP; that is, (69a) is the nominalized version of (69b). But attaching -ing with the required scope and raising V will again yield the wrong word order (\*John's destroying intentionally the evidence) (69c).

- (69) a. John's intentionally destroying the evidence (is problematic).
  - b. John intentionally destroyed the evidence.



<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>29</sup>Note that the truth of (68a) presupposes the truth of (68b). Similarly for (69a-b) below.



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Evidently, a simple attachment theory like (67), which aligns scope directly with the surface position of the gerund, is not adequate across the full range of cases. A more abstract view seems to be required: one separating the "spelled out" position of nominalization—its exponence—from the position where nominalization is interpreted. Furthermore, as we noted above, this view should be linked to the categorial feature N, which is the core of nominalization in the first place.

# 5.3 Separating categorial features

Our proposal involves a reconceptualizing of nominalization in grammar that embraces both of the points just stated. In brief, we suggest that nominalization is not a specific grammatical operation performed by a specific class of morphemes—e.g., "nominalizers" like -ing or -e—but rather represents something much more general following from the basic theory of features, namely, from the separation of features into interpretable and valued instances.

Modern syntactic thinking has imported the familiar LF/PF distinction into features, typically assuming a 2-fold distinction between interpretable/unvalued [iF] instances of features versus uninterpretable/valued [Fv] instances (Chomsky 1995). In a derivation, the first probes the second under c-command and the two agree (70):

An interpretable instance of a feature ([iF]) is LF-legible. A valued instance of a feature ([Fv]) is PF-legible. When the two instances of a feature undergo agreement, they form a single syntactic object that is visible at both interfaces, as required of all syntactic objects under full interpretation (Chomsky 1995).

Pesetsky and Torrego (2007) argue that [iF] and [Fv] are not the only possibilities for features and that indeed the full space of options made available by the distinctions [±interpretable] and [±valued] must be countenanced by grammatical theory (71):

(71)			
		+ interpretable	<ul> <li>interpretable</li> </ul>
	+ valued	iFv	Fv
	- valued	iF	F

Thus, on Pesetsky and Torrego's proposal, it should also be possible for features to be both interpretable and valued [iFv] and to be neither interpretable nor valued [F]. 30,31

(i) a. iF 
$$\Rightarrow$$
 Fv, F  $\Rightarrow$  Fv, F  $\Rightarrow$  Fi, F  $\Rightarrow$  F.  
b. Fv  $\Rightarrow$  Fi, Fv  $\Rightarrow$  Fv, Fv  $\Rightarrow$  F



<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>30</sup>For what it means for an N or V feature to be interpretable see Panagiotidis (2014) for extensive discussion. Regarding valuation, note that in this theory features do not have or assume different values; they simply are valued or not. To be valued is thus simply to be PF-interpretable.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>31</sup>Pesetsky and Torrego (2007) generalize the scheme in (70) so that any unvalued feature may probe and agree with a local, c-commanded matching feature. This allows for potential probe-goal relations as in (i), where "⇒" indicates agreement. By contrast, potential probe-goal relations as in (ib) are excluded since they involve a valued probe:

The former option ([iFv]) appears to represent the typical case of category features. For example a lexical item like *destroy* is identifiable both in form and in meaning as a verb ([iVv]). Likewise a lexical item like *destruction* is identifiable in form and meaning as a noun, however we regard the relevant items as being constructed morphologically. Hence it must also involve interpretable and valued [N].<sup>32</sup>

# 5.4 Gerunds in English

With these ideas in mind, consider what might one say about the featural composition of gerund forms like *destroying* (72), which, in the theory of Jackendoff (1977), involve either nominalization of a word or nominalization of a phrase.

(72) 
$$destroying [ N_]?$$

We suggest that gerund formation represents a case where the two featural components of N—[iN] and [Nv]—are separated and realized independently in structure. Specifically, we propose that in gerunds:

- the valued, PF-legible instance of [N] is instantiated by -ing.
- the interpretable, LF-legible instance of [N] is instantiated by an abstract element *n* that can attach at different levels of structure.
- when (and only when) *n* and *-ing* are present and joined by agreement, the item they "enclose" is categorized as a nominal.

To illustrate these proposals with our example *destroy*, nominal gerund formation will involve attachment of *-ing* to the verb (73a), followed immediately by attachment of n to the result (73b), with agreement between the two instances of [N]. The outcome is an N projection derived directly from the lexical verb, which it encloses.<sup>33</sup>

### (73) Nominal gerund formation

```
a. [v destroy -ing]
[iVv] [Nv]
b. [N n [v destroy -ing]]
[iN] [iVv] [Nv]
[PROBE and AGREE
```

Furthermore, as a condition on legibility at the PF-LF interfaces, Pesetsky and Torrego require each feature to have both an interpretable and a valued instance joined by agreement. Hence feature structures like (iia) will constitute legible objects since they contain instances of both kinds, but those in (iib) will not, because of lack of interpretable F, valued F, or both:

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>33</sup>An anonymous *NLLT* reviewer inquires whether so-called zero-derived nominals like *love* in *John's love* of chocolate can be handled in this account; e.g., would they be analyzed like nominal gerunds, with [iN] and [Nv] features that are both unrealized phonetically. If so, why is the equivalent of a verbal gerund excluded (\**John's love chocolate*), etc. Briefly, we do think this analysis extends to zero-derivation, but that extension involves additional issues of PF feature visibility that carry us outside the scope of this paper. Hence we postpone development to a later occasion.



<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>32</sup>See Sect. 5.5 below for more about the feature structure of derived nouns like *destruction*.

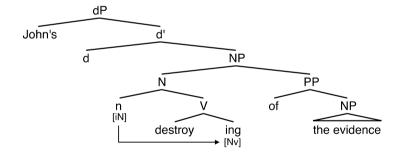
Verbal gerund formation will also involve attachment of *-ing* to the lexical verb (74a). But in this case attachment of n will occur at a later stage to a projection of V (74b), again with agreement between feature instances. The result is an NP projection derived from a verb phrase (vP).

# (74) **Verbal Gerund Formation**

Note carefully that since *destroying* carries [Nv] in (74b), its projection must ultimately contain an agreeing [iN] for well-formedness; that is, *destroying* must be licensed by a nominal projection at some point in the derivation. However, since the N feature on *destroying* is merely valued, and since *destroy* itself carries an interpretable and valued V feature, the projection will remain verbal until n enters the structure. *Destroying* is thus something like a "noun-to-be," behaving as a verb until its nominality is syntactically established by (and at the point of) agreement.<sup>34</sup>

Under this picture, the Jackendovian structures (57a)/(58a) are recast as in (75a-b), where [iN] and [Nv] undergo agreement in both cases. In effect, -ing now marks the exponence of nominalization whereas n marks the scope of nominalization.<sup>35</sup>

# (75) a. **N gerund** (Nominalized V)

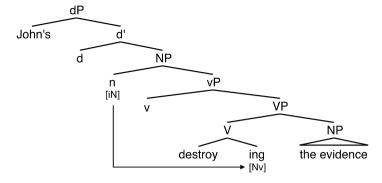


 $<sup>^{34}</sup>$ Thus the general labeling convention is that [ $_{\alpha P}$  ...] will only project the categorial features of a head that is both valued and interpretable. In [destroy -ing], destroy bears interpretable and valued V, but only valued N, hence it is projected as V. By contrast in [n [destroy -ing]], n bears both interpretable and (by agreement) valued N, hence it is projected as N. Likewise in [n ... [destroy -ing]], all projections up to n will be projected as V since N is not interpretable until that point. Note carefully that in this discussion we are talking about categorial projection in terms of whether features are interpretable and valued, not the lexical items bearing them. This allows for the fully licit projection of elements with no semantic features, such as expletives or a purely grammatical preposition. See below.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>35</sup>We assume *of* to be a categorial P that enters the numeration like other prepositions. It is distinguished only in bearing no inherent semantic features, being a "purely grammatical" P in this sense.

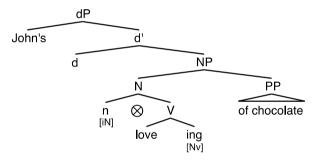


# b. **V gerund** (Nominalized vP)

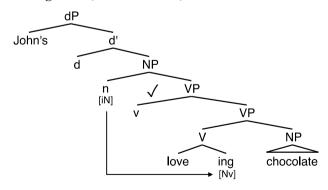


Recalling the discussion in Section 4.2, we may further stipulate that in certain cases, when lexical semantics forbids it, n is excluded from attaching directly to V (76a), even when verbal gerund formation remains permitted (76b) (cf. 63a-b).<sup>36</sup>

# (76) a. \*N gerund (Nominalized V)



# b. OK V gerund (Nominalized vP)



 $<sup>^{36}</sup>$ An anonymous *NLLT* reviewer asks about the precise semantics of nominalization that would block (76a). For interesting discussion on this point, see Grimm and McNally (2015).



# 5.5 Derived nominals in English

Our proposal regarding derived nominals is based on our account of nominal gerunds. According to the preceding discussion, the nominal gerund *destroying* has the morphosyntax and feature structure in (77a). We take the derived nominal *destruction* to be similar (77b), but with a key difference. Whereas *destroy*, to which *-ing* attaches, is a "fully categorial verb," *destruct*-, to which *-ion* attaches, is not.

# (77) a. Nominal gerund

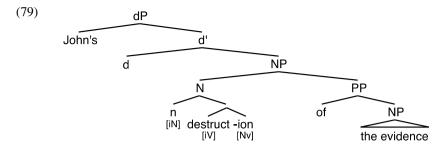
# b. **Derived nominal**

Destroy bears a verbal feature that is both interpretable <u>and</u> valued ([iVv]). By contrast, destruct- bears a verbal feature that is <u>only</u> interpretable ([iV]). Intuitively, this corresponds to the fact that whereas destruct- is verbal in meaning, it is not verbal in form. This leaves destruct-ion "defective" as a potential head since one of its features (V) is interpretable but not valued and the other feature (N) is valued but not interpretable. Lacking full specification for either category, we suggest this entails that destruct-ion cannot be projected as a verb, like destroying and cannot be projected as a noun either (78).

The consequence, we propose, is that an interpretable noun feature ([iN]) must be added immediately in morphological derivation and cannot be delayed as in the case of verbal gerunds. Derived nominals thus behave, in effect, like "obligatorily nominal gerunds":<sup>37</sup>

 $<sup>^{37}</sup>$ Note that whereas we can resolve projection of the defective [destruct -ion] by adding an interpretable noun feature ([iN]), creating [N n [destruct -ion]], we cannot do so by adding valued verbal feature ([Vv]), creating [V v [destruct -ion]]. Since valued features do not probe in this theory (see fn. 25 above), [Vv] and [iV] could not come into agreement in this configuration. A question arises regarding the residual [iV] feature on destruct-, which does not undergo agreement with any [Vv] feature in the course of derivation and hence isn't PF-visible—i.e., not fully interpretable. We assume that this is acceptable in the case of roots contained within larger lexical expressions that are fully interpretable heads. This corresponds to our informal intuition that lexemes can have subparts with notional categorial contribution (verbal, nominal, adjectival) even without ever being formally of that category at any stage of derivation.



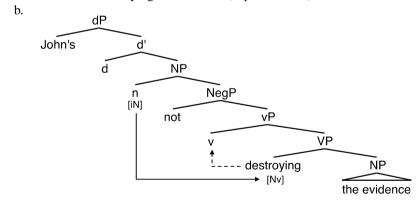


In general derived nominals must therefore behave as nouns at all levels of structure in virtue of their "defective" feature structure.

# 5.6 More scope and exponence

The proposals offered above have the general properties we sought in an account of nominalization. They associate nominalization crucially with the distribution of the feature N. Furthermore, they separate scope and exponence of nominalization, assimilating this to the general separation of features into interpretable and valued instances, respectively. These moves permit a straightforward account of examples like (68a) and (69a), which proved problematic for a Jackendoff 1977-style "direct attachment" account. In both cases, scope is represented by positioning of the unpronounced interpretable instance of N ([iN]), not by the position of the gerund itself. No word order issues therefore arise; see (80)/(81).<sup>38</sup>

(80) a. John's not destroying the evidence (is problematic).

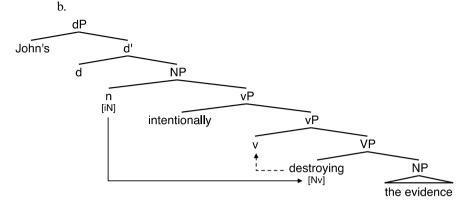


 $<sup>^{38}</sup>$ Note in (77)/(78) that since *destroying* bears only unagreed [Nv] at the point where vP is composed, its feature structure is as in (73a)/(74a); i.e., it is still formally a verb. This entails that it will undergo raising to  $\nu$ .



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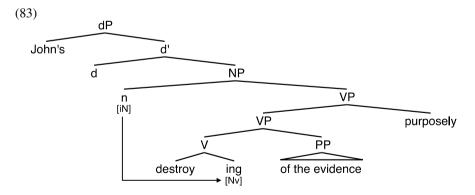
(81) a. John's intentionally destroying the evidence (is problematic).



Separation of scope and exponence in nominalization as proposed here also illuminates other interesting cases that have been observed in the literature. Fu et al. (2001) note that English nominal gerunds accept verb phrase-final adverbs in some instances, a fact that would seem to clash with their nominal constituency (82a-b). Fu et al. attribute this possibility to the presence of verbal structure, even in nominal gerunds.

- (82) a. Kim's explaining of the problem to the tenants **thoroughly** (didn't prevent a riot). (adapted from Fu et al.'s (1a))
  - b. John's destroying of the evidence **purposely** (surprised us).

These facts are accommodated straightforwardly under the proposals offered above if the interpretable N feature can adjoin to VP, above the V level but below the vP level, as in (83). This represents an "intermediate scope" for nominalization.<sup>39</sup>



Since v and vP are absent in (83), the preposition of will be required to case-mark the object as in nominal gerunds generally, despite the verbal nature of the projection

 $<sup>^{39}</sup>$ Presumably the marginality that some speakers perceive in examples like (82a-b) can be linked to the marginality of VP as an adverbial attachment site.

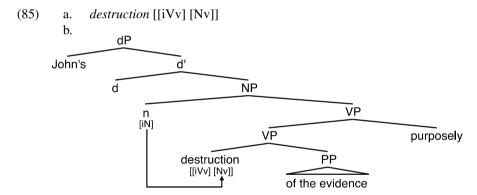


structure (cf. 75a).<sup>40</sup> At the same time, presence of VP provides an attachment site for the adverb *purposely*.

Consider now a related and more striking observation by Fu et al. (2001), namely, that process-derived nominals accept final VP adverbs in the same circumstances that nominal gerunds do (84a-b), again raising an apparent problem for the idea that derived nominals are strictly nominal in structure:

- (84) a. Kim's explanation of the problem to the tenants **thoroughly** (didn't prevent a riot). (Fu et al.'s 1a)
  - b. John's destruction of the evidence **purposely** (surprised us).

Note now that if process nominalizations are optionally allowed to carry a feature structure similar to nominal gerunds as a lexical matter—i.e., (85a)—there will be no barrier to generating a structure as in (85b). Presumably, the valued status of V in derived nominals of this kind—the fact *destr*- bears identical feature structure of the lexical verb *destroy* within destroying—would be linked to the process understanding of the nominalization and the explicitly more verbal character of the latter.<sup>41</sup>



Since *destruction* (bearing [[iVv][Nv]]) now contains an interpretable, valued instance of V, it can generate a verbal projection up to the VP level, where the interpretable N feature is supplied. The resulting structure will provide a site for adverb attachment, just as in the gerund case.

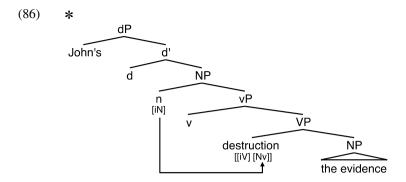
Note that we are obliged to address why phrasal nominalization at the vP level will be unavailable in such cases, given the possibility of a feature structure for *destruction* equivalent to *destroying*. How, for example is (86), with no *of* present, to be ruled out?

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>41</sup>In the analysis of Panagiotidis (2014), items bearing an interpretable V feature are taken to denote entities extended in time. Being both interpretable and valued *destr*- would thus be treated as a full fledged verb. This would also presumably link to the fact, noted by an anonymous *NLLT* reviewer, that derived nominals with a result meaning resist adverbs e.g., *I held the translation of the poem* (\*quickly) in my hand. Since such nominals precisely do not denote entities extended in time, they might be analyzed as bearing a valued V feature, but not an interpretable one.



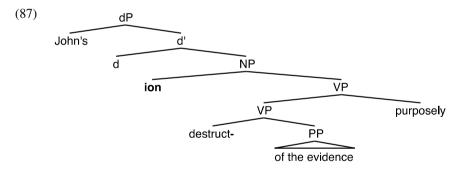
<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>40</sup>In this we follow the line of explanation in Carnie (2011), who attributes the occurrence of genitive in certain Irish verbal noun constructions to the absence of a specific accusative case-assigning element, rather than to the presence of nominal vs. verbal projection *per se*.

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Here again one might appeal to the proposals of Vendler (1967). If gerundive nominals like *destroying* denote eventualities and not propositional entities (states of affairs), and if process derived nominals like *destruction* have the same denotations as gerundive nominals, then we expect process derived nominals to reject the propositional denotation that is associated with vP nominalization, and hence to reject the structural possibility represented in (86).

The account of adverbials in gerundive and derived nominals in (83) and (85) shows another important difference between the "split-feature" approach to nominalizing morphology and a Jackendoff 1977-style proposal where scope of nominalization directly reflects attachment site for the morpheme -ing. Extending this picture to process derived nominals like *destruction* would require a similar decompositional treatment of -ion. Compare (85b) to (87).<sup>42</sup>



While syntactic decomposition is certainly plausible for productive inflectional morphemes like -ing, it is far less so for derivational morphemes like -ion, -al, -ence, etc., for reasons originally discussed in detail by Chomsky (1970). In the account proposed here, which separates nominal feature  $\underline{\text{valuation}}$  (by -ing, ion, -al, -ence, etc.) from nominal feature interpretation (by n), syntactic decomposition like that implied by (87) is not required.

We briefly note two further points about the separation of scope and exponence posited in our theory of nominalization. <sup>43</sup> First, although a Jackendoff 1977-style, di-

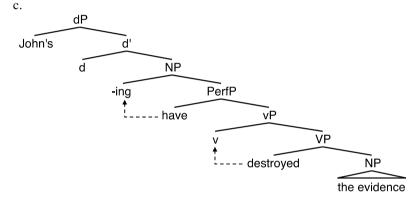
 $<sup>^{43}</sup>$ We are grateful to an anonymous *NLLT* reviewer for pointing out the examples discussed in (88)-(93) and the issues they raise.



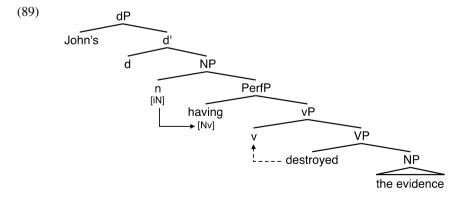
<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>42</sup>See Fu et al. (2001) for an analysis similar in spirit to (53).

rect attachment theory fails to predict that scope of nominalization can extend <u>above</u> the position of the gerund, it correctly predicts that nominalization will never extend <u>below</u> the gerund site. Consider the contrast in (88a-b), for example, involving gerunds with an aspectual verb. Evidently, when the aspectual verb is nominalized, the gerund is strictly verbal in character: modifiers appear in their adverbial form (*quickly*) and objects are case-marked by little *v* and not by *of*. Assuming aspectual verbs like *have* head projections above vP, this contrast will follow in the direct attachment theory as shown in (88c). Nominalization "starts" at the level of PerfP and no lower, correctly predicting the gerund to be strictly verbal in character.

- (88) a. John's having quickly destroyed the evidence (is problematic).
  - b. \*John's hav**ing** quick destroyed of the evidence (is problematic).



Our theory makes exactly the same prediction regarding the minimum scope of nominalization, positing the very similar structure (89). In the probe-goal relation between [iN] and [Nv], -ing is the surface exponence of the latter and constitutes the lowest point in structure where nominalization effects can be instantiated. We thus also predict that verbal gerunds like (88a) should indeed show only verbal properties below the level of the aspectual verb, equivalently to the direct attachment theory.

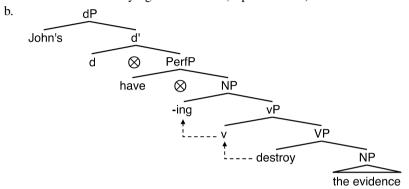


Now consider once again the question of the <u>maximum</u> scope of nominalization with respect to its exponence. We noted that in a direct attachment theory scope of nom-

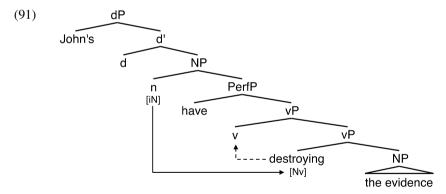


inalization does not extend above the position of the gerund and that this prediction fails in a variety of examples. Nonetheless it <u>does</u> appear to yield a correct prediction for cases like (90a). If nominalization extends no higher than the *ing*-marked form, then (90a) will be correctly ruled out: PerfP will <u>not</u> be nominal, which is required for complements of d; furthermore *destroying the evidence* will be nominal, which is forbidden for complements of *have*; see (90b).<sup>44</sup>

(90) a. \*John's have destroying the evidence (is problematic).



Interestingly, on our account this result is not equally straightforward. Potentially we <u>could</u> assign a structure for (90a) as in (91), where covert [iN] attaches above PerfP, agreeing with the lower [Nv] and apparently incurring none of the problems of (90b).



What would rule out such a structure?

We propose that the principle excluding (91), and thus (90a), is the same one excluding forms like (92a) and requiring (92b).<sup>45</sup>

 $<sup>^{45}</sup>$ Note here again that the ungrammaticality of (92b) cannot simply be ascribed to the lack of expression of participial morphology associated with be since "do-support" does not save the example (i):

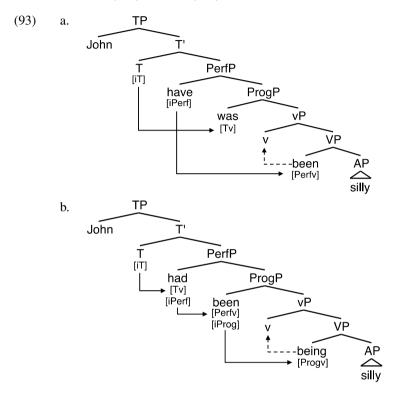


<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>44</sup>An anonymous *NLLT* reviewer observes that the ungrammaticality of (90a) cannot simply be ascribed to the lack of expression of participial morphology associated with *have* since "*do*-support" does not save the example (i):

<sup>(</sup>i) \*John's have **done** destroying the evidence (is problematic).

- (92) a. \*John have was been silly.
  - b. John had been being silly.

The feature agreement relations required for (92a) are as in (93a). The feature agreement relations for (92b) are as in (93b):



In (93a) the interpretable tense feature on T ([iT]) probes past *have*, a closer potential bearer of [Tv], in finding its actual goal (progressive *be*). Likewise, the interpretable perfective feature on *have* ([iPerf]) probes past progressive *be*, a potential bearer of [Perfv], in finding its actual goal (main verb *be*). By contrast, in (93b) each interpretable feature finds its corresponding valued feature on the closest potential bearer of that feature.

Relations like those in (93a) are excluded by Minimality (Chomsky 1995), which requires probes to find goals on their closest potential agreer, as in (93b). We propose that the same principle excludes (91), where the interpretable nominal feature on n ([iN]) probes past perfective *have*, a closer potential bearer of [Nv], in finding its actual goal (*destroying*). Under Minimality (90a) is correctly excluded, as indeed are all other examples involving [N] agreement relations that would be "non-local" in the relevant sense. 46

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>46</sup>Note in (80b) and (81b) above that the items *not* and *intentionally* (respectively) are <u>not</u> potential bearers of -ing ([Nv]), and hence are not barriers to the indicated probe-goal relations under Minimality.



<sup>(</sup>i) \*John have was been **doing** silly.

# 6 iPersian prepositions and nominalization

With these proposals in place, we now return to iPersian prepositions, developing our main idea that iPersian P<sub>1</sub>s are counterpart to true verbs, P<sub>3</sub>s are counterpart to derived nouns, and P<sub>2</sub>s are counterpart to gerunds.

# **6.1** Feature structure of iPersian prepositions

In featural terms, our proposal amounts to analyzing the three prepositional classes as shown in (94a-c), where we compare to the corresponding verbal forms.<sup>47</sup>

(94)	a.	$P_1$ :	bâ	'with'	[iPv]
			destroy		[iVv]
	b.	$P_3$ :	baqal	'near'	[[iN] [[iP] [Nv]]]
			destruction		[[iN] [[iV] [Nv]]]
	c.	$P_2$ :	jelo	'before'	[[iPv] [Nv]]
			destroying		[[iVv] [Nv]]

Thus  $P_1$   $b\hat{a}$  is a basic preposition, analogous to a basic verb like *destroy*. The latter bears an interpretable and valued V feature ([iVv]); correspondingly,  $b\hat{a}$  bears an interpretable and valued P feature ([iPv]).<sup>48</sup>

By contrast, P<sub>3</sub> baqal is a "de-prepositional noun," analogous to a de-verbal noun like destruction. We have proposed that the latter are formed on a verbal root that is featurally [iV] by addition of interpretable and valued N feature. Here we likewise propose that baqal is formed on a prepositional root by addition of interpretable and valued N features. As discussed in Sect. 5.5, the "defective" status of the verbal root in derived nominals forces an interpretable N feature to be composed immediately, and hence in general ensures an obligatorily nominal character to derived nouns. We draw the same conclusion about P<sub>3</sub>s, viz., that they are formed on a defective prepositional root—one that is only [iP]. This forces an interpretable N feature to be composed immediately, and hence ensures an obligatorily nominal character for P<sub>3</sub>s.

Finally, P<sub>2</sub>s like *jelo* we analyze analogously to gerund forms. On our account, gerunds contain a fully verbal core ([iVv]) and a valued N feature ([Nv]). The corresponding interpretable N feature ([iN]) is then added derivationally, either to the lexical head or to the vP phrase. Correlatively, we take *jelo* to involve a fully prepositional core ([iPv]) and a valued N feature ([Nv]). The corresponding interpretable N feature ([iN]) is then added derivationally, either to the lexical P head (95a) or to pP

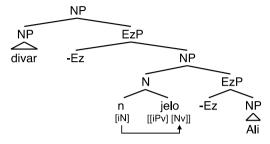
<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>48</sup>See 6.3 below for additions. [P] is treated here as a basic category for convenience. Nothing hangs on this. "P" could as easily be analyzed as a combination of [-v,-n], as in Chomsky (1974) or the more elaborate system in Jackendoff (1977). Similarly for the treatment of [V] and [N] in the text.



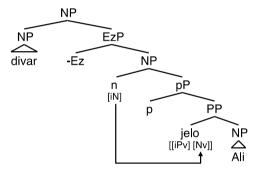
<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>47</sup>As noted by an anonymous *NLLT* reviewer, an important difference between the prepositional and verbal forms is that the latter derive morphologically from a verbal root and hence any verb with appropriate meaning can occur with each class. By contrast, the iPersian P2 and P3 forms have their nominal content lexically, derived only in a historical sense.

phrase (95b). In the former case, *jelo*'s projection is fully nominal in character. In the latter case, it is prepositional below the point in structure where n is composed.<sup>49</sup>

# (95) a. $P_2$ (Nominalized P)



# b. $P_2$ (Nominalized pP)



# 6.2 Nominal valuation in iPersian prepositions

With English deverbal nouns like *destruction* and gerunds like *destroying*, the overt sign of nominal valuation is the specific morphology that each bears: *-ion* and *-ing*, respectively. The latter thus constitutes "nominalizing morphology." With iPersian P<sub>3</sub>s and P<sub>2</sub>s no such affixal signal is present and this might appear to be a flaw in the basic analogy. In the absence of overt nominalizers, in what sense is this nominalization and

miyan i shmah ut oshan
between EZ you and them
'between you and them'

By contrast,  $P_2$ s appear to be absent from Middle Persian and to represent a recent development. Resuming earlier discussion, we propose below in 6.2 that  $P_2$ s and  $P_3$ s derive by incorporating a relational noun into a covert preposition. A natural conclusion from these historical facts is that this incorporation process took place only recently with  $P_2$ s. This appears compatible with the idea that P would have a more independent, less root-like nature in  $P_2$ s versus  $P_3$ s, given their more recent development.



 $<sup>^{49}</sup>$ There is an interesting historical correlate to the hypothesized difference between the "defective" P feature of P<sub>3</sub>s ([iP]) versus the interpretable, valued feature of P<sub>2</sub>s ([iPv]). Middle Persian, the historical antecedent of iPersian, exhibits P<sub>1</sub>s and P<sub>3</sub>s in examples like (1a-b):

in what sense is it parallel to the English cases? In answer, we return to a key observation made earlier about iPersian grammar, viz., the highly regular, active relationship between P<sub>2</sub>s and P<sub>3</sub>s and corresponding homophonous relational nouns.

We noted in Sect. 2.3 that the prepositional version of English *inside* differs semantically from its corresponding relational noun in containing an additional locative relation (AT) (96a-b).

(96) a. 
$$[[N inside]] = \lambda y \lambda x [inside(x,y)]$$
  
b.  $[[P inside]] = \lambda y \lambda z [AT(z,\iota x [inside(x,y)])]$ 

This suggests a natural syntactic proposal, namely, that prepositional *inside* contains an abstract prepositional formative (LOC), which is the source of the extra semantic relation, and which incorporates the relational noun (96a-b)

```
(96') a. [[N \text{ inside}]] = \lambda y \lambda x [\text{inside}(x,y)]
b. [[P \text{ LOC-inside}]] = \lambda y \lambda z [AT(z,\iota x [\text{inside}(x,y)])]
```

Given that all iPersian  $P_2s$  and  $P_3s$  exhibit similar relations to homophonous relational nouns, it is natural to extend this syntactic view to them. Thus the  $P_2$  *jelo* 'in front of' and the  $P_2$  *baqal* 'beside' would receive the analyses in (97) and (98), respectively.

```
(97) a. [[N \ jelo\ ]] = \lambda y \lambda x [front-of(x,y)]
b. [[P_2 \ LOC-jelo\ ]] = \lambda z \lambda y [AT(z,\iota x [front-of(x,y)])]
(98) a. [[N \ baqal\ ]] = \lambda y \lambda x [side(x,y)]
b. [[N \ LOC-baqal\ ]] = \lambda z \lambda y [AT(z,\iota x [side(x,y)])]
```

Note now that these proposals align with the categorial feature structures proposed for P<sub>2</sub>s and P<sub>3</sub>s, with the P feature matching LOC and the [Nv] feature matching the relational noun (99a-b). Compare these to the corresponding feature structures and syntax that we've posited for English gerunds and derived nouns (99a'-b'). The contained iPersian relational nouns correspond to the English nominal affixes.

```
(99) a. [P2 LOC-jelo] a'. [V destroy-ing] [iPV] [NV] [iVV] [NV] b. [N n LOC-baqal] b'. [N n destruct-ion] [iN] [iP] [NV] [iN] [iN] [iP] [NV]
```

We suggest this as the key to pervasive nominal behavior of iPersian  $P_2s$  and  $P_3s$ , revealed by the distribution of Ezafe. Relational nouns like *jelo* and *baqal* function like English affixes in signaling nominality in the construction. Since the preposition is always silent, there is, as it were, no overt sign of categorial preposition-hood in either  $P_2s$  or  $P_3s$ . What iPersian speakers see in all cases is a preposition that is fully homophonous with a grammatically active relational noun. As a consequence, we suggest, the nominality of this core remains active in the grammar, allowing nominality to "outscope" prepositionality, just as nominality outscopes verbality in English gerunds and deverbal nouns. In essence, the grammatically regular, transparent nominal core of iPersian  $P_2s$  and  $P_3s$  licenses the regular nominal behavior of  $P_2s$  and  $P_3s$ , both lexically and phrasally.



These points serve to emphasize the important difference between our account of nominalization as reflecting the general separation of N into interpretable and valued instances (however these might be realized) and accounts that posit specific nominalizing morphemes to convert some category into a nominal. Our account accommodates the iPersian  $P_2/P_3$  data in a natural way that other accounts of nominalization do not.

### 6.3 Nominalization in P<sub>1</sub>s

The discussion of features above still leaves one element undiscussed, namely iPersian  $P_1s$ . We proposed earlier that  $P_1s$  have the option of phrasal nominalization but not lexical nominalization, which we analyzed extending ideas by Vendler (1967). Under the current proposal to say that  $P_1s$  are optionally nominalizable must mean that  $P_1s$  may optionally bear the feature specification [Nv]. In other words, the full picture must be as in (100a-c), where the  $P_1$   $b\hat{a}$  can have either of the feature specifications shown, but where lexical nominalization is excluded with  $P_1s$  on independent grounds.

This view essentially claims that all  $P_1s$  have the option of behaving like  $P_2s$ , up to lexical constraints. This situation is roughly comparable to what we were led to assume with English process derived nouns like *destruction* given the observations Fu et al. (2001). Whereas *destruction* is normally fully nominal in behavior, reflecting its feature status as [[iN] [[iV][Nv]]]], in certain structures it behaves like a phrasal gerund (101d) (recall 85a-b). Similarly, whereas  $b\hat{a}$  is normally fully prepositional in behavior, reflecting its feature status as [iPV], in certain structures it behaves like a phrasal  $P_2$  (recall 64b).

# 7 Our account versus "contextual nominalization"

As we have observed, our analysis ties nominalization specifically to the presence of the feature N, but allows its separation into interpretable and valued instances. This view contrasts subtly with another view that has gained popularity in the literature.

In an influential study of clausal projections with nominal properties, Borsley and Kornfilt (2000) propose that varying degrees of "nominality" be analyzed in terms of where nominal-associated functional categories are introduced in derivation. This analysis implies, in effect, a "contextual definition" of nominality in that a projection is understood as nominalized by combining with a noun-associated functional element—one that selects Ns.<sup>50</sup>

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>50</sup>This view is conceptually similar to Distributed Morphology (Halle and Marantz 1993) wherein category-less roots receive their syntactic category by combination with "categorizers."



To illustrate, Turkish nominalized clauses like (101a) show an accusative object (odya 'room') but a genitive subject (usas 'servant'). Nominalization here has basically the character of a verbal gerund, taking place above vP but below the level of the genitive subject (101b). On the contextual view of Borsley and Kornfilt (2000), nominalization occurs by introduction of the factive nominal mood element dis, realized as morphology on the verb. Presumably this morphological constituency is derived by head raising.

(101) a. Hasan [ uşağ-ın odya-yı temizle-diğ-in-i ] soÿle-di Hasan servant-GEN room-ACC clean-FACT-3SG-ACC say-PAST 'Hasan said the servant cleaned the room.'

(=Borsley and Kornfilt 2000: (2))

b. [ uşağ-ın [[<sub>vP</sub> odya-yı temizle] **diğ** ... ]]

By contrast, in Basque nominalized clauses like (102a), not only does the clausal interior appear verbal, but the embedded subject also appears in its normal ergative case form. Borsley and Kornfilt (2000) suggest this corresponds to nominalizing an entire TP by introducing the nominal functional category *te* (NR) above it (102b). This also requires head raising.

(102) a. [Jon-ek bere hitzak hain ozenki es-te-a-n] denok harritu

Jon-ERG his words so loudly say-NR-DET-INESS all surprise

ginen

AUX

'We were all surprised at John saying his words so loudly.'

(=Borsley and Kornfilt 2000: (38))

b. [TP Jon-ek bere hitzak hain ozenki es] te ...] denok harritu ginen

Finally, in the Polish nominalized clause (103a), the clause interior is again entirely verbal, but now also includes a complementizer ( $\dot{z}e$ ) preceded by a demonstrative (to 'that'). Borsley and Kornfilt (2000) suggest this corresponds to nominalizing a full CP by introducing D above it (103b).

- (103) a. Jan oznajmił [to, że Maria zmienia pracę].

  Jan announced that COMP Maria is-changing job

  'Jan announced that Maria is changing her job.'
  - b. Jan oznajmił **to** [CP że Maria zmienia pracę]

Without attempting to evaluate differences, we simply note that Borsley and Kornfilt's proposals translate smoothly into the analysis proposed here. In cases like Turkish and Basque, we can regard the relevant "nominalizing morphemes" simply as carrying nominal feature valuation ([Nv]) and with nominal feature interpretation ([iN]) entering higher in the derivation (104a-b) (cf, (101b) and (102b), resp.). There is no need for extensive head movement on this view.



With cases like Polish, we might either regard the complementizer as fully nominal itself (105a), essentially following Manzini's (2010) proposals for Romance, or as nominalized in the course of derivation (105b).

```
    (105) a. to [NP że Maria zmienia pracę ]
        [iNv]
        b. to [NP n [ że Maria zmienia pracę ]]
        [iN] [...[Nv]]
```

On all of these proposals, our view differs from Borsley and Kornfilt in attributing the shift to nominal character in a derivation to the presence, not simply of "nominal functional categories," but of the specific [N] category feature, either in total ([iNv]) or separated into interpretable ([iN]) and valued ([Nv]) instances.<sup>51</sup>

# 8 Conclusion

In this article we have proposed that nominalization, a syntactic phenomenon widely assumed to apply to verbs and their projections, in fact applies to "non-nominals," where the latter crucially includes prepositions and prepositional phrases. Specifically, we have argued that in its PP domain Iranian Persian exhibits items with the same distribution as English gerunds and derived nominals. This distribution is revealed by the iPersian Ezafe element, argued by Samiian (1983, 1994) to be a case-marker and hence a probe into nominal status. Our analysis crucially implements observations by Jackendoff (1973), van Riemsdijk (1990) and Svenonius (2003), who demonstrate the compelling parallelism of VP and PP structure, and hence the naturalness of syntactic proposals that would apply equally to both.

We furthermore proposed that nominalization is not a specific syntactic process or operation, or the product of specific nominalizing morphemes, but rather an instance of a much broader notion in modern syntactic theory: the factorization of features into interpretable and valued instances, corresponding to their LF and PF contributions, respectively. On this picture, nominalizing morphology (-ing, -tion, -er) can be understood as contributing valuation—"PF visibility"—for the N feature, while interpretability is provided by an abstract element n, that can take scope at various levels of structure, following original insights by Jackendoff (1977). This proposal was shown to account for a wide and interesting range of cases where exponence of nominalization and scope of nominalization do not coincide.

**Acknowledgements** For helpful comments and clarifying questions we thank audiences at CLS54, Tehran University and Stony Brook University, where earlier versions of this material were presented. We are also grateful to Xuhui Freddy Hu, Anna Maria Di Sciullo, Jim Wood and four anonymous *NLLT* reviewers for comments and suggestions that have substantially improved this manuscript.

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<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>51</sup>In an interesting extension of Borsley and Kornfilt (2000), Cole and Hermon (2011) analyze nominative-genitive alternation in the subject marking of Quechua relative clauses as reflecting scope of nominalization. We believe our approach can be extended directly to Cole and Hermon's data, along the lines of our analysis of gerunds and hope to pursue these ideas in separate work.



# Appendix: A partial list of iPersian prepositions

<b>P4</b> (Compound Ps): Allows Int. EZ if ending in [+N]; Allows Ext. EZ	[râje-be] 'about'	[nesbat-be] 'w. respect to'	[ru-be] 'facing'	[banâ-bar] 'according to'	[az-taraf-e] 'from/on behalf of'	[az bahr-e] 'for, for the sake of'	[alâ.raqm-e] 'despite'	[ba-vojud-e] 'in spite of'	[be-joz] 'except for'	[be-raqm-e] 'according to'	[be-jâ-ye] 'instead of'	[be-taraf-e] 'towards'	[be-su-ye] 'in the direction of'	[bar-aks-e] 'opposite to'	[bar-zed-e] 'against'	[bar-mabnâ-ye] 'on the basis of'	[bar-asâs-e] 'based on'	[dar-bâre-ye] 'about'	[dar-moqâbel-e] 'against'	[dar-pey-e] 'following'	[dar-zemn-e] 'in the midst'	[dar-hin-e] 'at the time of'	[dar-tul-e] 'during'				
<b>P3b:</b> Requires Int. AZ Requires Ext. EZ	[bad az] after	[pas az] after	[pish az] before	[qabl az] before	[qeyr az] except for																						
<b>P3a:</b> Requires Int. EZ Requires Ext. EZ	[atrâf] 'around'	[aleyh] 'against'	[baqal] 'next to'	[beyn] 'between	[birun] 'outside	[dâxel] 'inside'	[darun] 'inside'	[dowr] 'around'	[kenar] 'next to/by'	[miyân] 'between/among'	[mesl] 'similar to'	[nazd] 'at/near'	[nazdik] 'near'	[posht] 'behind'	[pâin] 'below'	[pâ] 'foot of'	[pish] 'beside/at'	[sar] 'head of/at'	[taraf] 'side of'	[tavasot] 'by	(agent/instrument)'	[zir] 'under'	[vasat] 'between/middle	[taraf] 'in the vicinity of	(temporal)]	[mâbeyn] 'among'	[hamrâh] 'along with'
<b>P2:</b> Allows Int. EZ Requires Ext EZ	[bâlâ] above	on top of,	[tu] inside	[ru] on top of	[jelo] in front of	[pahlu] 'next to'																					
<b>P1:</b> Forbids Int. EZ Allows Ext EZ	[az] 'from'	[dar] 'in'	[bar] 'on/at'	[bâ] 'with'	[be] 'to'	[bi] 'without'	[tâ] 'until'	[barâye/bare] 'for'																			



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