

Participles, periphrastic constructions, and the structure of the Indo-European verb

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Introduction: participles & “identity”

Participles in Indo-European languages (today’s talk: mostly Greek and Sanskrit) occur in a variety of contexts—but not all participles are licensed in all contexts.

- (1) Lowe 2017: Three-way distinction for adjectival/nominal modification:
- Attributive:** the *happy/dancing* man.
 - Predicative:** the man went home, *happy/dancing*.
 - Predicated:** the man was *happy/dancing*.

- ▶ (1c) → “periphrastic constructions”
- ▶ Vedic has very few instances of (1c), compared to (1a-b) (Lowe 2015)
- ▶ Greek allows (1c), but not all participles occur in periphrastic constructions

Moreover, these contexts are rarely treated together. Are these all (syntactially/semantically) “identical”?

Participles & “identity”

Identity of participles across periphrastic constructions:

- (2) Synchronic (non-?)identity: perfect/passive participle “syncretism” in German (and English, Romance ...):
- a. Die Livia hat die Schildkröte **gewaschen** (*perfect*)
The Livia has the turtle washed
 - b. Die Schildkröte wurde **gewaschen** (*eventive/verbal passive*)
The turtle was washed
 - c. Die Schildkröte ist **gewaschen** (*adjectival/stative passive*)
The turtle is washed

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- ▶ \approx same affix in different contexts
 - ▶ Synchronically “identical” in terms of their synsem-features, internal functional structure, “attachment site”....? (Wegner 2019)
 - ▶ Category of the participle(s)? “Ptcp”? “Adj/a”? Something else?

Participles in periphrastic constructions

Accepting that participles in these contexts *are* identical in the relevant sense (here: structure), why do seemingly similar periphrastic constructions vary w.r.t. participial/auxiliary morphology, even in closely related languages?

- (3) a. **Greek** periphrastic perfect (passive/nonactive):

le-lu-mén-os/ē

ei-mi

PF-√release-PTCP.NONACT-M/F BE-1SG.PRES.ACT

‘I have been released’

- b. **Sanskrit** periphrastic perfect (deponent):

īd-ām̐

ca-kr-e

√praise-VN-ACC.SG PF-DO-3SG.PF.NONACT

‘He/she has praised’

- c. **Latin** periphrastic perfect passive:

consump-t-um

est

consume-PERF.PTCP.PASS-NOM.N BE.3SG.PRES

‘It has been eaten’

Today's goals

- ▶ Use DM (Distributed Morphology) to “decompose” IE participles into their component parts
- ▶ Argue that participles are structurally identical across contexts (“predicated” & “non-predicated”)
- ▶ Derive the distribution of participles in periphrastic constructions from feature markedness, specifically of **Voice** and **Aspect**
 - ▶ **periphrastic perfect** constructions in Greek and Sanskrit
- ▶ Discuss implications for the (synchronic) verbal systems of Greek and Sanskrit, especially w.r.t. verbalizing, voice, and aspectual morphology.

Background: Participles & periphrastic constructions

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 - ▶ Case on obj.: accusative/structural
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In DM:

- ▶ “verbal” properties of participles result from shared functional structure with finite verbs
- ▶ differences in participial syntax result from different attachment sites of the participial suffix.
 - ▶ Embick 2000, 2004b, Anagnostopoulou 2003, 2014, Alexiadou et al. 2007, Alexiadou & Anagnostopoulou 2008, Alexiadou et al. 2015, Baker & Vinokurova 2009, Baker 2011, Harley 2009 ...

Background: participles

- ▶ “Paradigmaticity” is a non-issue in DM—the “verbal properties” of participles arise because these forms *share structure* with the corresponding finite forms (we’ll see exactly how much structure).
 - ▶ Cf. Bobaljik 2002, 2008 on “paradigm effects” in DM.

Additional assumptions (to be motivated)

- ▶ “PTCP” (participial/nominalizing morphology) spells out Asp when there is no verb movement to T (or Agreement with T is blocked).
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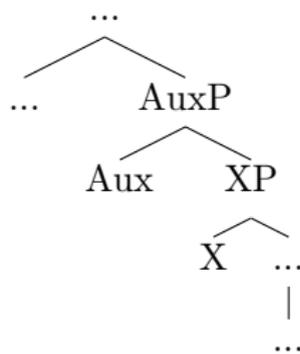
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 - ▶ Embick 2000, 2003, 2004b, Alexiadou & Anagnostopoulou 2008, Bjorkman 2011, Alexiadou et al. 2015.
- ▶ “PTCP” = a contextual allomorph of Asp.
 - ▶ Can realize different features of Asp (e.g., perfective vs. imperfective).
 - ▶ Can realize Asp in different environments, e.g. adjacent to Voice[±ext.arg.]—difference between AG active and nonactive/middle participles, Grestenberger 2018, 2020.

Background: auxiliaries

Standard approach(es) (e.g., Kayne 1993, Cinque 1999): Auxiliaries select/are selected by particular inflectional categories (e.g., progressive Asp in English) and project:

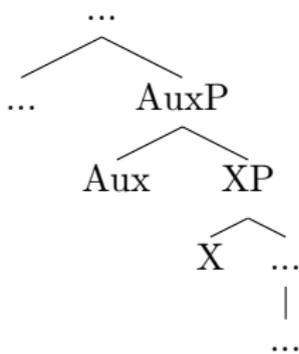
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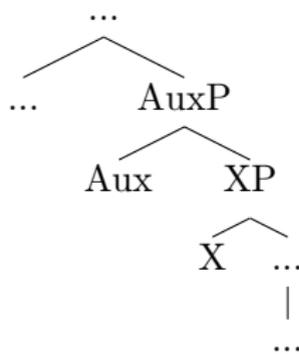


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- ▶ Bjorkman (2011): Auxiliaries are not selected by other syntactic elements, and hence do not project. Instead, they pick up “stranded” inflectional features when Agreement has failed.
- ▶ Two patterns of auxiliary use in periphrastic constructions:
 - ▶ The “additive” pattern
 - ▶ The “overflow” pattern

Background: auxiliaries

- ▶ **The “additive” pattern:** A particular context (e.g., progressive, or passive) *always* requires use of an auxiliary. If two AUX-contexts are combined, the auxiliaries are added or “stacked up”.

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- (5) Example: The English progressive, passive, and passive progressive (Bjorkman's ex.)
- a. The cake **was** eaten.
 - b. The children **were** eating the cake.
 - c. The cake **was being** eaten.

Both the passive, (5a), and the progressive, (5b) by themselves require use of a BE auxiliary, and the passive progressive (past, in this case) in (5c) adds these two auxiliaries together.

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→ Greek has the additive pattern.

Background: auxiliaries

- **The “overflow” pattern:** An auxiliary is required only if two particular contexts are *combined*, for example, passive and perfect, like in Latin.

(6) Latin perfect, passive, and perf. passive (ex. Bjorkman 2011: 27).

a. Puellae crustulum **consumserunt.**

girls small.pastry-ACC eat-3PL.PFV

“The girls ate the little pastry.”

b. Crustulum **consumitur.**

small.pastry eat-3SG.PRES.PASS

“The little pastry is (being) eaten.”

c. Crustulum **consumptum est.**

small.pastry eat-PASS.PTCP be.3SG.PRES

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→ Sanskrit has the overflow pattern.

Explaining the patterns: verbal morphology in DM

Word formation (verb formation) in DM (e.g., Harley 2013, Bjorkman To appear...):

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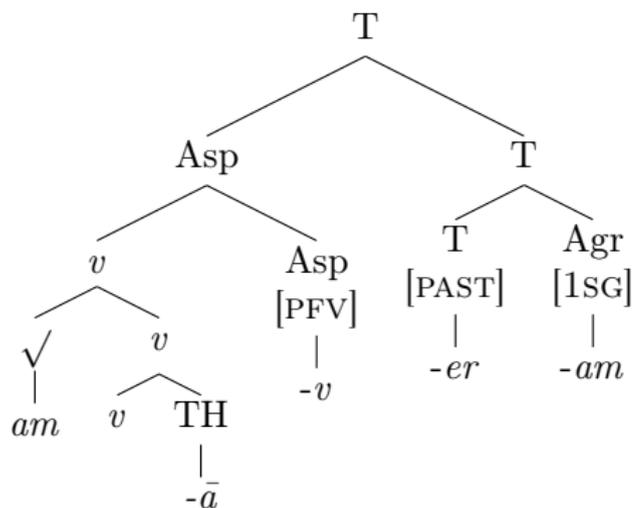
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- ▶ **Mirror principle:** The sequence of morphemes on a complex form, e.g., a verb *mirrors* the sequence of verbal functional projections.
 - ▶ For example, aspectual morphemes are cross-linguistically closer to the root than morphemes relating to tense and mood.

Explaining the patterns: verbal morphology in DM

Embick 2000 (also Embick 1997: 226ff.): The Latin periphrastic perfect is the result of lack of verb movement to T.

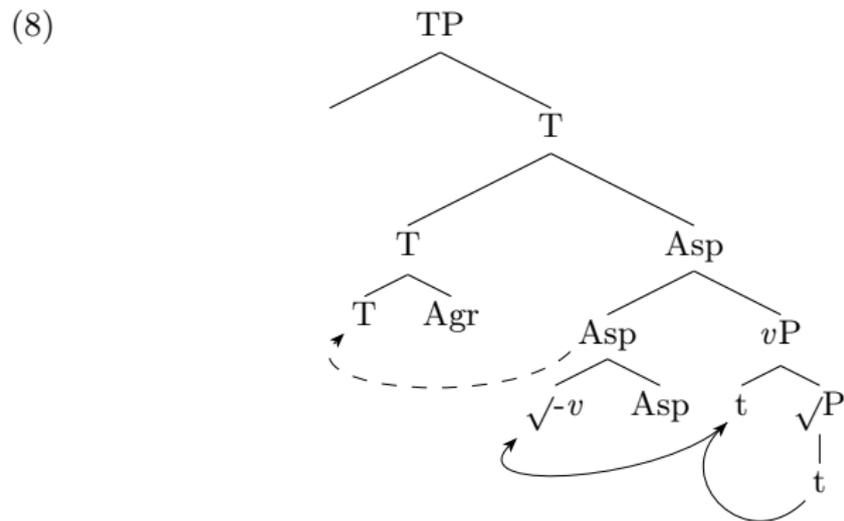
- ▶ Synthetic verb forms are complex heads built by cyclic head movement and left adjunction, e.g., (7) (Lat. pluperf. *amāveram* 'I had loved', cf. Embick 2000: 196–7).

(7)



Explaining the patterns

- ▶ In analytic forms, the movement is interrupted: root-to-*v*-to-Asp movement takes place like in synthetic forms (solid arrows in (8)), but the resulting complex head cannot move to T (dotted line; ex. based on Embick 2000: 214).



Explaining the patterns

→ “Overflow” pattern: T/AGR features on T are “stranded” and a dummy verb BE is inserted in order to phonologically realize them, while the complex $\sqrt{-v}$ -Asp head in (8) is realized by a nonfinite form (= the perfect participle).

- ▶ Embick stipulates that movement to T is blocked in the perfect in the presence of the (interpretable) feature [PASS] on *v*.
 - ▶ ... also in deponent verbs, which Embick analyzes as lexically possessing a [PASS] feature on the root

Bjorkman 2011: analytic forms follow from properties of Agree + *markedness* of certain features.

Explaining the patterns: Bjorkman 2011

Three core assumptions:

1. Agreement is upwards (“Reverse Agree”, “Upwards Agree”, e.g., Wurmbrand 2012, Zeijlstra 2012, Bjorkman & Zeijlstra 2019), cf. (9).
2. Marked features can block Agree:
 - ▶ Only *marked* features are visible for Agree & can potentially act as intervenors.
 - ▶ Markedness = *semantic markedness*: both the marked and the unmarked (or elsewhere) value of a given feature can be morphologically realized, but only the marked value will be relevant to Agree.
 - ▶ Markedness varies cross-linguistically (e.g., PFV is the marked value of Asp in Latin, but unmarked in Arabic, where IPFV is marked).
3. Failure to Agree can leave inflectional features “stranded”, triggering the insertion of auxiliaries.
 - ▶ Cf. earlier “Affix Hopping”: inflectional morphology originates “high” and has to be combined with V via language specific head movement or Lowering operations → These operations can *fail*.

Reverse Agree

(9) *Reverse Agree* (Bjorkman 2011: 42)

Agree is a relationship between two features such that an unvalued feature [F:_] receives a value of a feature [F:val] of the same type iff:

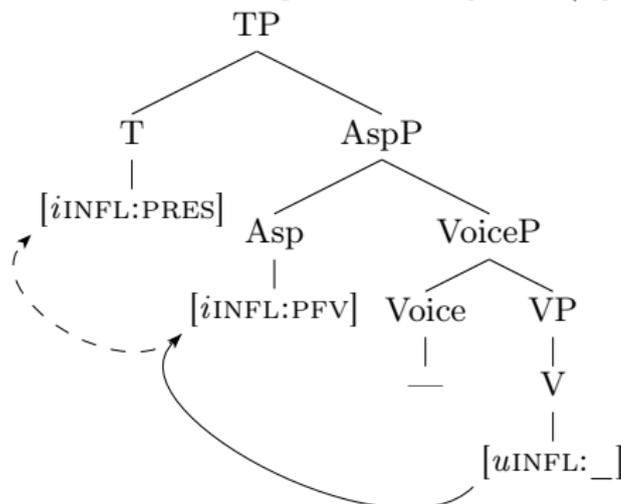
- a. A head α containing [F:_] is c-commanded by a head β containing [F:val].
- b. There is no head γ containing a matching feature [F:(val)], such that γ c-commands α and β c-commands γ .

Example: Deriving the synthetic perfect & present passive and the periphrastic perfect passive in Latin.

- ▶ Marked feature on Asp: [*i*INFL:PFV], marked feature on Voice (= Embick's *v*): [*i*INFL:PASS].

Illustration: the Latin perfect

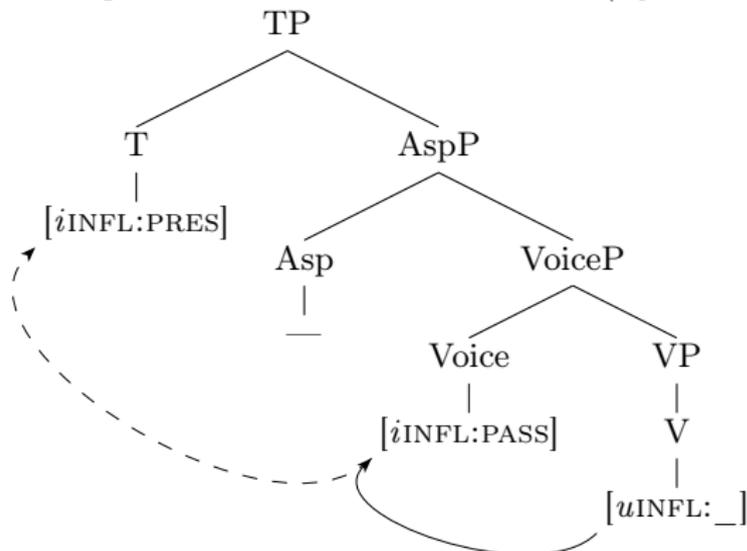
- (10) Latin perfect active: *consumpserunt* 'they ate' (Bjorkman 2011: 72)



- ▶ The verb agrees directly with the marked inflectional feature on Asp because there is no marked feature on Voice, hence no intervener.
- ▶ the verb moves to Asp (bold arrow); head movement depends on prior Agree.
- ▶ The verb is now in a local relationship with T and can agree with its inflectional features (dashed line) → no features are stranded → synthetic verb form.

Illustration: the Latin present passive “overflow pattern”

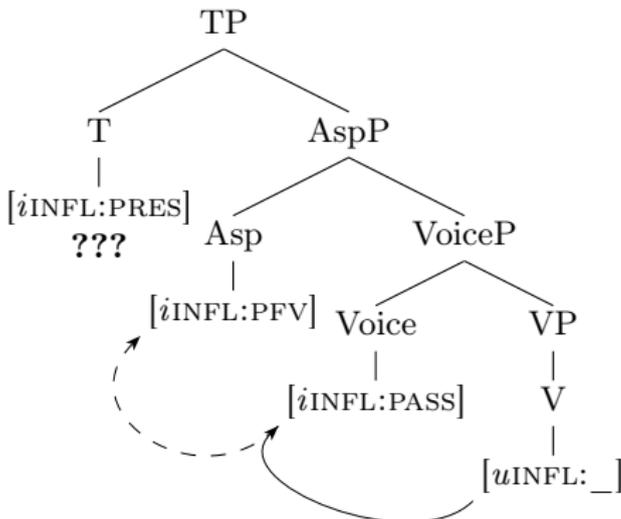
- (11) Latin present passive: *consumitur* ‘it is eaten’ (Bjorkman 2011: 72)



- ▶ The verb agrees with the marked feature [PASS] on Voice and moves to Voice (bold arrow).
- ▶ No marked feature on Asp: the verb agrees with [iINFL] on T → no features are stranded.

Illustration: the Latin perfect passive

(12) Latin perfect passive: *consumptum est* 'was consumed':

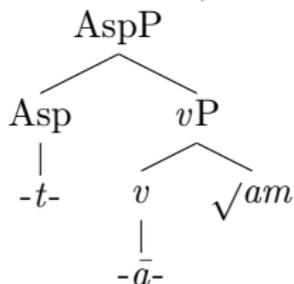


- ▶ The verb agrees with and moves to Voice, where it agrees with the marked [PFV] feature on Asp (dotted line).
- ▶ The marked [PASS] feature on Voice blocks further movement to Asp; [PFV] on Asp now acts as an intervenor for further agreement
- ▶ V cannot agree for Tense and [PRES] on T is stranded. → the default auxiliary BE picks up stranded T/Agr features.

Further assumptions

Embick (2000) analyzes the “participial” suffix *-t-* in perfect passive participles like *consump-t-um* (n.) in (12) or *am-ā-t-us* (m.) ‘loved’ as the default realization of the functional head Asp when Asp has not raised to T:

(13) *am-ā-t-us* (Embick 2000: 219)



(14) Realization of Asp (not raised to T; Embick 2000: 218)

- a. *-nt-* ↔ [pres]
- b. *-s-* ↔ []/ _ (List)
- c. *-t-* ↔ []

Implications

Several advantages:

- ▶ No need to stipulate designated functional categories for auxiliaries (“AuxP”) and participles (“PtcpP”)—a participle is a verb that has not moved to T (Embick) or agreed with T (Bjorkman).
- ▶ Periphrastic constructions appear to “supplete a paradigm” (like in the Latin perfect passive) because they morphologically realize the same syntactic structure as the synthetic forms—the difference lies in interaction of Agree with marked features.
- ▶ If participial morphology spells out Asp, we expect to see it in other “tenseless” environments (the complement of verbs like *think*, *see*, ..., as NP-adjuncts, etc.)

Implications

Open issues:

1. Distribution of different auxiliaries (BE, HAVE), light verbs? (Not today's topic)
2. Cross-linguistic variation: which features trigger periphrasis where, and why?
3. What to do with participles/nonfinite verb forms outside of periphrastic constructions?

→ We will look at (2) more closely by comparing variation in the participial/periphrastic perfect systems of Classical Greek and Sanskrit.

Periphrastic perfects in Classical Greek

The Greek verbal system: agreement features

- ▶ PERSON: 1, 2, 3. (infl. endings)
- ▶ NUMBER: Sg., Dual, Pl. (infl. endings)
- ▶ VOICE: active/nonactive (“middle”; infl. endings)
 - ▶ In the aorist/perfective stem: also passive, marked by a (derivational?) affix *-th(ē/e)-*. Probably not Voice but (inchoative) *v* (Grestenberger Forthcoming).
- ▶ ASP: imperfective/perfective; perfect (?), marked on the stem via derivational affixes.
- ▶ TENSE: present/past (or: past/nonpast?), marked on the infl. endings (+ past tense prefix, “augment”)
 - ▶ Future is treated as Mod.
- ▶ MOD: indicative, future, subjunctive, optative, imperative: derivational suffixes (except *ipv.*: endings)

Summary: CG participles

(15) Classical Greek participles (m.), *lúō* ‘release’

	Active	Nonactive
a. Present	<i>lúōn</i> , -o- nt -os	<i>lúomenos</i>
b. Aorist	<i>lúsas</i> , -a- nt -os	<i>lúsamenos</i>
c. Perfect	<i>lelukós</i> , -o t -os	<i>lelúmenos</i>
d. Future	<i>lúsōn</i> , -o- nt -os	<i>lúsōmenos</i>
(e. Future perfect		<i>lelúsōmenos</i>)
f. Aorist passive	<i>luthéis</i> , -thé- nt -os	
g. Pfv. fut. passive		<i>luthēsōmenos</i>

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- ▶ present, aorist, perfect, and future participles (rows a–d): verbal stem (root plus verbal stem-forming morphology) + *-nt-* (“active participle”) or *-men-* “middle participle” + plus gender/case morphology.
- ▶ Exception: the perfect *active* participle suffix is *-ot-/os-*.
 - ▶ Nom.sg.m. *-ōs* < **-ō(t)s* ← PIE **-uōs-/us-*; Nom.sg.n. *-os* < **-uos*; cf. the f. perfect ptc. Nom.sg. *-uīa* < **-usia* < **-usih₂*.

The CG periphrastic perfect

- ▶ Initially (Homeric/archaic Greek), only the *perfect* participle (+ *eĩnai* ‘be’ and *ékhein* ‘have’) is used periphrastically, and this construction also predominates in CG.
- ▶ In CG, the aorist and present participles also begin to be used with auxiliaries (cf. Bentein 2013b), and this continues into post-Classical Greek (less systematically).
- ▶ We’ll focus on deriving the periphrastic perfect forms, summarized in (16) (based on Smyth & Messing 1956: 182–183)
 - ▶ cf. also Aerts 1965, Bentein 2012a, 2012b, 2013b.

The CG periphrastic perfect

(16) Periphrastic perfect constructions in CG; AUX = *eĩnai* (1Sg. *eimĩ*) ‘be’.

	Participle		Auxiliary		
	act.	nonact.	act.	nonact.	
a. Perf.act.	lelukōs		eimi		‘have released’
b. Perf.pass.		leluménos	eimi		‘have been released’
c. Pluperf.act.	lelukōs		ẽn		‘had released’
d. Pluperf.pass.		leluménos	ẽn		‘had been released’
e. Perf.subj.act.	lelukōs		õ		‘shall release’
f. Perf.subj.pass.		leluménos	õ		‘shall be released’
g. Perf.opt.act.	lelukōs		eĩen		‘might release’
h. Perf.opt.pass.		leluménos	eĩen		‘might be released’
i. Fut.perf.act.	lelukōs			ésomai	‘will have released’
j. Fut.perf.pass.		leluménos		ésomai	‘will have been –/–’

Feature analysis

- ▶ *Additive* pattern: a periphrastic construction is always present in a particular context → the perfect.
- ▶ Features of Voice (active/nonactive) are always expressed on the participial part of the periphrastic construction: active participle in the active forms, nonactive/middle participle in the nonactive/middle forms.
- ▶ ... while the auxiliary is *always* morphologically active (unlike in Sanskrit!)
 - ▶ ... with the exception of the future perfect, which is a special case.
- ▶ Unlike in Latin, the relevant feature on Voice in CG is [NONACT] rather than [PASS].
 - ▶ “passive” is one of several contexts in which nonactive/“middle” morphology is found.

Features: Voice

Canonical contexts of **active** vs. **nonactive** inflectional endings in finite forms (alternating verbs):

(17) Voice alternations in Classical Greek:

Function	Nonactive	Active
Anticausative	<i>daío-mai</i> ‘burn, blaze’ (itr.)	<i>daí-ō</i> ‘burn sth.’
Reflexive	<i>louío-mai</i> ‘wash myself’	<i>lou-ō</i> ‘wash sth.’
Selfbenefactive	<i>phéro-mai</i> ‘carry (away) for myself’	<i>phér-ō</i> ‘carry, bear’
(Medio)passive	<i>theíno-mai</i> ‘am struck, killed’	<i>theín-ō</i> ‘kill, strike’

- ▶ → **Voice syncretism** (Embick 1998, 2004a): the same morphological exponent (here: nonactive/NONACT) surfaces in different syntactic environments.
 - ▶ MG: Embick 1998, 2004a, Alexiadou & Anagnostopoulou 2004, Alexiadou 2012, 2013, Alexiadou & Doron 2012, Alexiadou et al. 2015, etc.; CG, Sanskrit: Grestenberger 2018, 2020; Modern Albanian: Rivero 1990, Kallulli 2007, 2013.

Features: Voice

- ▶ active vs. nonactive morphology in CG = determined by features of **Voice**.
 - ▶ Cf. Kratzer 1996, Embick 1998, 2004a, Kallulli 2007, 2013, Harley 2013, Alexiadou et al. 2015, Schäfer 2017, etc.

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- ▶ Voice syncretism follows from a particular condition on the realization of Voice in a specific syntactic context:

(18) Voice \rightarrow Voice[NonAct]/_ No DP specifier
(Alexiadou et al. 2015: 102, after Embick 2004a: 150)

Features: Voice

- ▶ active vs. nonactive morphology in CG = determined by features of **Voice**.
 - ▶ Cf. Kratzer 1996, Embick 1998, 2004a, Kallulli 2007, 2013, Harley 2013, Alexiadou et al. 2015, Schäfer 2017, etc.
- ▶ Voice syncretism follows from a particular condition on the realization of Voice in a specific syntactic context:

- (18) Voice \rightarrow Voice[NonAct]/_ No DP specifier
 (Alexiadou et al. 2015: 102, after Embick 2004a: 150)

[NONACT] = VoiceP without an external argument.

- ▶ i.e., Voice[-D] or Voice[-ext.arg.]
- ▶ ACT = elsewhere.
- ▶ Both active and nonactive perfects are periphrastic, so features of Voice are not “intervenors” in Greek (unlike in Latin).

Features: Asp

- ▶ In Latin, the marked feature on Asp was [PFV], but this won't work for CG: the perfective/aorist stem is consistently *synthetic*.
 - ▶ The aorist and the present participle do begin to be used in periphrastic constructions in CG: the aorist participle in anterior/perfective periphrastic constructions, and the present participle in stative and progressive periphrastic constructions—but these, too, differ functionally from the periphrastic perfect.
 - ▶ We also begin to see more variation in terms of auxiliary selection around this time (*eimi* 'be', *ékhō* 'have', *méllō* 'be about to', *thélō* 'want'; cf. Bentein 2013b on CG and Bentein 2012a on post-CG).
- ▶ We need a feature that uniquely distinguishes the perfect stem from the aorist and present stem.
- ▶ Reed (2014): binary features on Asp:
 - ▶ aorist: [+aor,-perf]
 - ▶ present: [-aor,-perf]
 - ▶ perfect: [-aor,+perf]

Features: Asp

Problems:

- ▶ Descriptive—doesn't bring us any closer to understanding what exactly distinguishes these stems semantically.
- ▶ In particular, it does not explain why the periphrastic perfect and pluperfect constructions (*lelukós eimi*, *lelukós ēn*, etc.) came to functionally replace the inherited *synthetic* perfect and pluperfect (*léluka*, *elelúkē*) in Classical and post-Classical Greek.
- ▶ ... and why, at the same time, the synthetic perfect increasingly merges formally with the synthetic aorist into a perfective/anterior preterit-like stem (cf. Haspelmath 1992, Bentein 2012b, 2013a).

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→ Since the (Homeric/pre-Classical) synthetic perfect, and especially the perfect participle, are usually characterized as *resultative* (Schwyzer 1939: 768, Haspelmath 1992, Bentein 2012a, 2012b, 2013a, Napoli 2017) it seems reasonable to assume that the feature that distinguishes the pre-Classical synthetic perfect from the aorist is [RES].

Features: Asp

- ▶ Since the periphrastic perfect and pluperfect express a (resultative) state, it looks like these periphrastic constructions effectively replace the synthetic perfect in its resultative use ...
- ▶ ... while its anterior past use merged with the aorist.
- ▶ Which would suggest that the feature [RES] was reanalyzed in some fashion between Homeric and Classical Greek:
 - ▶ From an unmarked to a marked feature, preventing the hitherto synthetic form from appearing?
 - ▶ From a feature on *v* to a feature on Asp?
 - ▶ Both?

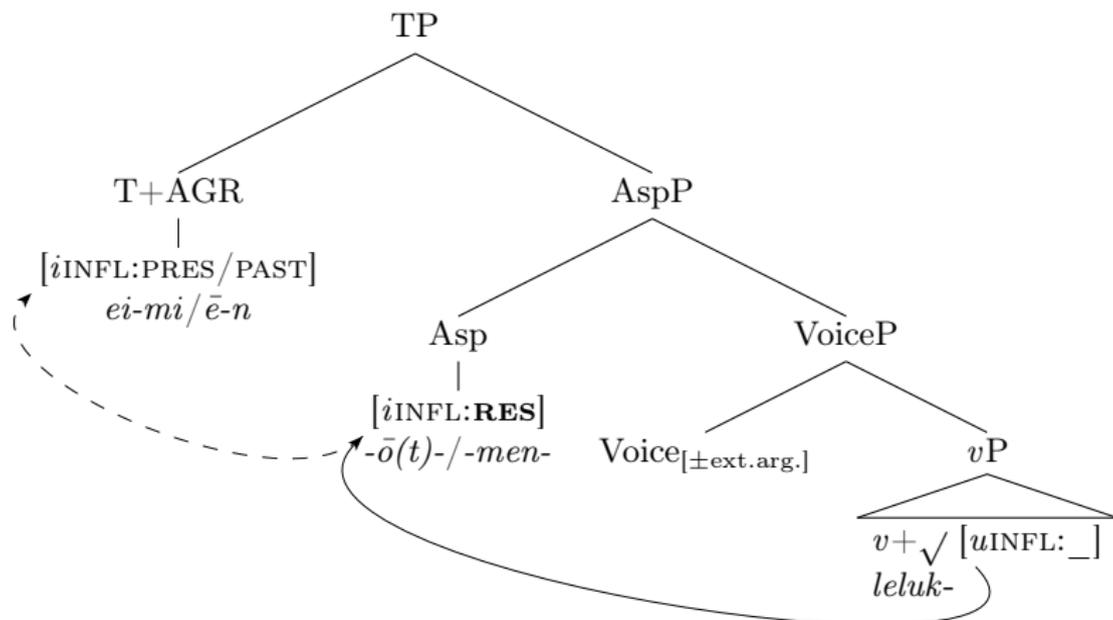
Deriving the perfect indicative

Perfect & pluperfect active/nonactive periphrastic forms:

le-lu-k-ot/os- ei-mi/ē-n ‘have/had released’,

le-lu-men- ei-mi/ē-n ‘have/had been released’.

(19) Perfect indicative



Analysis

- ▶ Like in the periphrastic perfect passive in Latin, the copula BE picks up the stranded T and Agr features on T, either present (in the perfect) or past (pluperfect).
- ▶ The participial morphology in (19) realizes Asp under different conditions, cf. (20) (Grestenberger 2018, 2020; based on Embick 2000: 218).

(20) Spell-Out conditions for CG participles:

- a. Asp \leftrightarrow *-men(os)*/ Voice[-ext.arg] _
- b. Asp \leftrightarrow *-nt-*: elsewhere

- ▶ Environment for active/nonactive participial morphology = the same as for the finite forms
- ▶ Asp must be linearly adjacent to Voice, but not T: otherwise we would expect a regular nonactive *finite* form.

→ Participial morphology in CG spells out Asp that has not moved to T.

Hypothesis: “perfect” feature [RES] intervenes and blocks movement

Analysis

The Spell Out conditions for Asp in (20) need to be refined:

- ▶ Asp in finite contexts, when it has moved to/agreed with T?
- ▶ Allomorphy of the perfect active participle?

(21) Vocabulary Items for CG Asp, revised

- | | | | | | |
|-------------|---|-----------|---------------------|---|---|
| a. Asp[RES] | ↔ | -ot-/-os- | /v/Voice[+ext.arg.] | ∩ | _ |
| b. Asp | ↔ | ∅ | /∩_∩T | | |
| c. Asp | ↔ | -men- | /Voice[-ext.arg.] | ∩ | _ |
| d. Asp | ↔ | -nt- | | | |

- ▶ The perfect active participle suffix, (21a) is the most highly specified allomorph of Asp.
 - ▶ Its VI in (21) pretty much formalizes the context “perfect active participle”, which may not be elegant, but seems unavoidable.
- ▶ Asp in (21b) is specified for concatenation (indicated by ∩) with T —this is Asp in (finite) synthetic forms.
- ▶ (21c) is the condition on realization of *men(os)*, cf. (20)
- ▶ (21d) is the elsewhere form (“active” -nt-).

Implications

- ▶ Verbal stem-forming morphology, i.e., “present”, “aorist” stem-forming morphology, is treated not as aspectual morphology (viewpoint aspect) but as verbalizing morphology/lexical aspect.
- ▶ This follows from the approach outlined so far in which participial morphology realizes Asp, since verbal stem forming-morphology regularly co-occurs with participial morphology.

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- ▶ But it is also independently warranted:
 - ▶ Verbal stem-forming morphology in the present, aorist, and perfect stems displays a great deal of idiosyncratic/root-dependent allomorphy.
 - ▶ It also occurs immediately adjacent to the root.
 - ▶ The “perfective passive” (valency changing) morpheme $-th(\tilde{e})-$ is in complementary distribution with other verbal stem-forming morphology—this would be odd if the latter spelled out Asp, but is expected if it spells out a verbalizing/argument structure-related projection $\rightarrow v$ (Grestenberger Forthcoming).

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- ▶ This analysis may also hold for the “simple future” stem; but more needs to be said about the future perfect and future perfect passive.

Summary of the pieces

- ▶ verbal stem-forming morphology = *v*
- ▶ [NONACT] = Voice (active = elsewhere)
- ▶ [RES] = “marked” on Asp
- ▶ Participial morphology spells out Asp (several contextual allomorphs)

Still to be accounted for:

- ▶ The perfect subjunctive & optative
- ▶ The future perfect

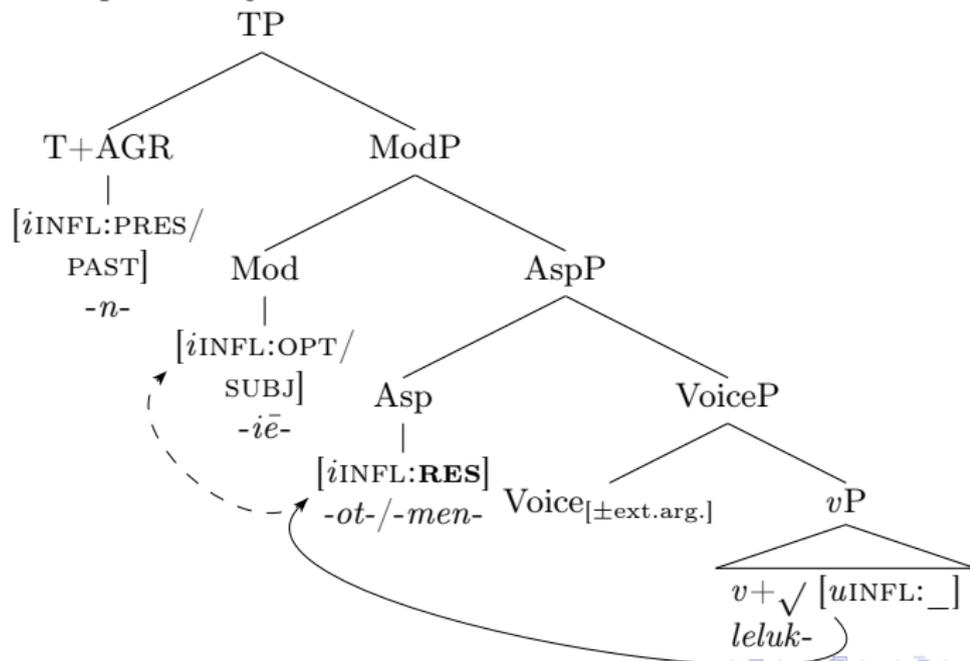
The modal forms

Optative & subjunctive morphology = marked features on ModP.

le-lu-k-ot/os- $\bar{o}/e-i\bar{e}-n$ 'shall/might release'

le-lu-men- $\bar{o}/e-i\bar{e}-n$ 'shall/might be released'

(22) Perf.opt. & subj.:



The modal forms

- ▶ The fact that Mood features are expressed on the *auxiliary* in the CG periphrastic perfect distinguishes the Greek “additive” pattern from that seen in English: English expresses stranded features on separate auxiliaries, as in the passive progressive
- ▶ By contrast, CG seems to have only *one* feature that causes trouble, [RES], and does not seem to restrict movement in the way English does.
 - ▶ English famously does not allow V to move, thus preventing it from extending its agreement domain in the way the Latin finite verb does

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 - ▶ English famously does not allow V to move, thus preventing it from extending its agreement domain in the way the Latin finite verb does
- ▶ The fact that the CG finite verb is overwhelmingly synthetic suggests that no comparable restrictions exist there → the only factor that blocks movement is [RES] on Asp.

The future perfect

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In other words, we get

- (23) le-lu-mén-os é-so-mai
 PERF-√-PTCP.NONACT-M.SG be-FUT-1SG.NONACT

The future perfect

However, the use of the perfect rather than the future perfect participle follows from our analysis so far:

- ▶ The perfect/[RES] feature on Asp blocks movement and triggers Spell-Out of Asp as a participial form.
- ▶ Therefore higher inflectional features relating to tense and modality, like [FUT], will have to be “picked up” by the auxiliary, just like [SUBJ] and [OPT].
- ▶ Future as Mod: Grestenberger 2016 for CG; cf. Giannakidou 2014.
 - ▶ The future marker *-se/o-* diachronically continues one (or several) *desiderative* stem-forming suffixes inherited from PIE (**-h₁s(e/o)-* or variants thereof).
 - ▶ Desiderative origin of the future = responsible for the (quasi-)obligatory nonactive morphology in the (Attic) future? Cf. Kemmer 1993: 79ff. on inherently desiderative or volitional verbs & nonactive morphology.

The nonactive morphology on the auxiliary in the periphrastic future perfect in (23) is all the more vexing because *eimi* ‘be’ is otherwise *activum tantum* (it only takes the active endings). However, ...

The future of the future perfect

... we already hinted that the CG future often surfaces with obligatory *nonactive* endings, even if the corresponding aorists and presents are active (cf. e.g. Schwyzler 1939: 781). This results in a very distinctive pattern of “semi-deponency” for many stems, cf. (25).

(25) CG semi-deponents

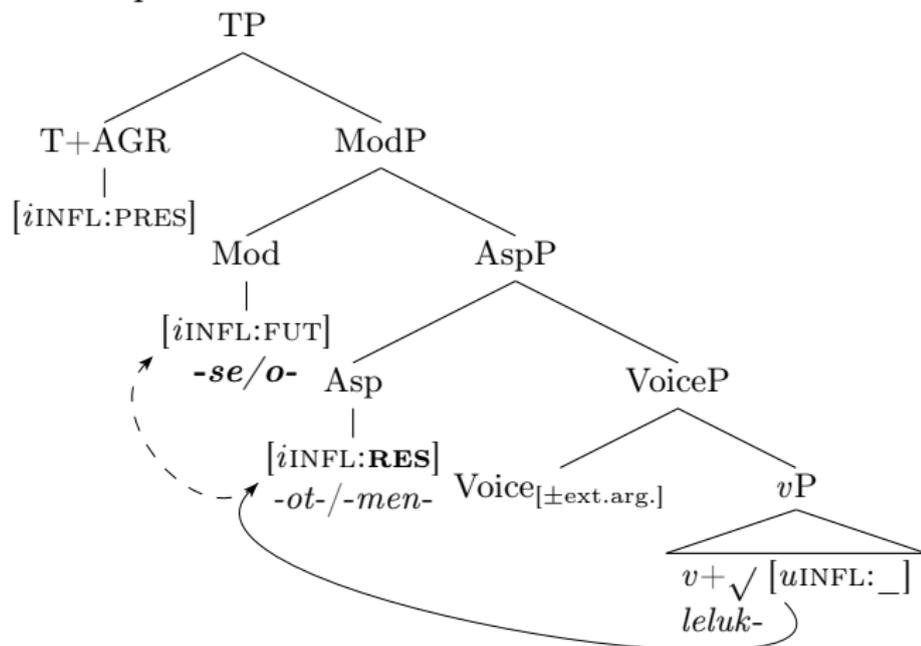
Pres.: act.	Fut.: Nonact	Meaning
<i>aeíd-ō</i>	<i>aeí-so-mai</i>	‘(will) sing’
<i>akoú-ō</i>	<i>akoú-so-mai</i>	‘(will) hear’
<i>hamartán-ō</i>	<i>hamarté-so-mai</i>	‘(will) miss, fail’
<i>baín-ō</i>	<i>bé-so-mai</i>	‘(will) walk, go’
<i>plé-ō</i>	<i>pleú-so-mai</i>	‘(will) sail’

The future perfect

le-lu-k-ot- *e-so-mai* ‘will have released’,

le-lu-men- *e-so-mai* ‘will have been released’

(26) Future perfect:



The future perfect

- ▶ [RES] on Asp blocks movement and triggers insertion of active/middle participle, depending on context (= feature of Voice)
- ▶ [BE] is inserted to pick up the stranded features on Mod and T (like in the optative and subjunctive)
- ▶ ... but FUT has its own requirements (cf. “semi-deponency” in (26)): it triggers insertion of obligatory *nonactive* endings.
 - ▶ This may be a fairly surface-y morphological requirement of Mod[FUT] \neg T/Agr; or it may be because Mod[FUT] actually modifies the verb’s argument structure (“affectedness?”). Either way works for us.

Additional evidence: The future perfect of *deponents* uses the perfect *middle*/nonactive participle + the middle/nonactive future auxiliary (Smyth & Messing 1956: 183):

- (27) *apo-le-logē-mén-os* *é-so-mai*
 PRVB-PERF-speak-PTCP.NONACT-M.SG BE-FUT-1SG.PRES.NONACT
 “I will have defended myself”

Summary

- ▶ Assuming [RES] on Asp blocks movement, the periphrastic perfect patterns can be derived assuming that
 - ▶ The participles realize Asp (contextually conditioned by Voice([±ext.arg.]])
 - ▶ The BE-auxiliary picks up stranded features on T(+Mod), using default active inflection.
 - ▶ The exception: The future perfect auxiliary uses *nonactive* inflection because of an independently attested property of the future suffix.

(28) Periphrastic perfect constructions in CG, summary

	Participle		Auxiliary		
	act.	nonact.	act.	nonact.	
Perf.act./nonact.	lelukōs	leluménos	eimi		‘have (been) released’
Pluperf.act./nonact.	lelukōs	leluménos	ē̄n		‘had (been) released’
Perf.subj.act./nonact.	lelukōs	leluménos	ō̄		‘shall (be) release(d)’
Perf.opt.act./nonact.	lelukōs	leluménos	eíēn		‘might (be) release(d)’
Fut.perf.act./nonact.	lelukōs	leluménos		ésomai	‘will have (been) ...’

The Sanskrit periphrastic perfect

The Sanskrit perfect: synthetic vs. periphrastic

- ▶ Inherited synthetic perfect (reduplication + special set of endings), like CG
- ▶ In addition, late Vedic/Classical Sanskrit also develops a periphrastic perfect construction using the accusative of a verbal (abstract) noun in *-ā-* plus the *finite synthetic perfect* of an auxiliary
 - ▶ Usually *kr̥* ‘do, make’ or *as* ‘be’, more rarely *bhū* ‘be(come)’ (Pāṇini: only *kr̥*); Whitney 1879: 347ff., Delbrück 1888: 426f., Macdonell 1910: 365, Gotō 2013: 123.

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- ▶ Productive in making the perfect to derived verbal (present) stems such as the causative, intensive, and desiderative, but also to vowel-initial roots in which reduplication would be phonotactically problematic.
- ▶ In some cases, it occurs besides or replaces an inherited synthetic perfect:
 - ▶ *veda* ‘knows’ : *vidām cakāra* ‘has known’; *bibhāya* ‘is afraid’ : *bibhayām cakāra* ‘has feared’

The CS periphrastic perfect

(29) Sanskrit periphrastic perfects

	Root/base	Verbal noun	Auxiliary		Meaning
			act.	nonact.	
Present	<i>vyā</i>	<i>vyayā́m</i>	<i>cakāra</i>		‘has covered’
	<i>bhī</i>	<i>bibhayā́m</i>	<i>cakāra</i>		‘was afraid’
	<i>vid</i>	<i>vidā́m</i>	<i>cakāra</i>		‘has known’
Caus.	<i>budh</i>	<i>bodhayā́m</i>	<i>cakāra</i>		‘has caused to wake up’
	<i>gam</i>	<i>gamayā́m</i>	<i>cakāra</i>		‘has caused to go’
Desid.	<i>han</i>	<i>jighā́msām</i>	<i>cakāra</i>		‘has wanted to kill’
Denom.	<i>āmantraya-</i> (<i>mantra-</i>)	<i>āmantrayā́m</i>		<i>cakre</i>	‘has addressed’
Dep.	<i>īḍ</i>	<i>īḍā́m</i>		<i>cakre</i>	‘has praised’
	<i>idh</i>	<i>indhā́m</i>		<i>cakre</i>	

- ▶ verbal stem-forming morphology on the verbal noun vs. perf., voice, tense and agreement morphology on the auxiliary.
- ▶ Crucially, this is also the case for deponent verbs: Deponents always select the *middle* perfect form of the auxiliary.

Analysis

- ▶ Kiparsky (2005): The CS periphrastic perfect is only used when the formation of the expected reduplicated synthetic perfect is prevented because of a synchronic restriction against reduplication of certain root structures, namely $\bar{V}C$ and VCC , or to stems that do not allow reduplication (like the causative).

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 - ▶ However, some $\bar{V}C$ - and VCC -roots actually have (inherited) synthetic perfects in Vedic & Classical Sanskrit:
 - ▶ *idh* ‘ignite’ has $\bar{i}dh-\acute{e}$ (cp. *indhām cakr-e* in (29))
 - ▶ $\bar{i}ḍ$ ‘praise’ has $\bar{i}ḍ-e$ (cp. *iḍām cakr-e* in (29)).
 - ▶ Roots that can be regularly reduplicated, like *vyā*, *bhī*, and *vid*, also form periphrastic perfects if the inherited perfect is not used as an anterior perfect, but as a “stative”/present: *veda* ‘knows’ : *vidām cakāra* ‘has known’; *bibhāya* ‘is afraid’ : *bibhayām cakāra* ‘has feared’

→ A morphological restriction? “Blocking”?

Proposal

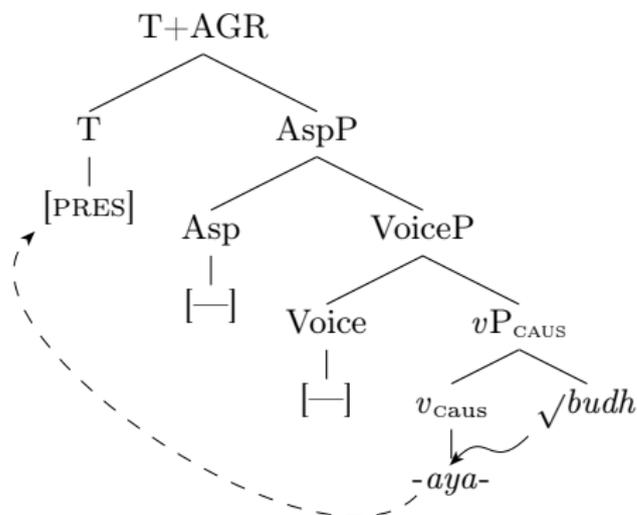
→ Like in Greek, the Sanskrit periphrastic perfect appears when movement of the verb (root) is restricted because of intervening features.

- ▶ Unlike in Greek, in CS the perfect feature alone cannot be the problem → the auxiliary itself *is* structurally a synthetic perfect.
- ▶ The fact that perfects from denominal, causative, desiderative ... stems turn up as periphrastic constructions suggests that the problem originates “lower” in the structure → *v* is the culprit.
- ▶ If “marked” *v* (causative, etc.) blocks movement of the verb, upwards Agree/Move will be potentially blocked by a higher marked feature.
Proposal: [PERF] is such a feature.

→ **overflow pattern** like in Latin: inflectional features above *v* are “stranded” and need to be picked up.

Synthetic causative

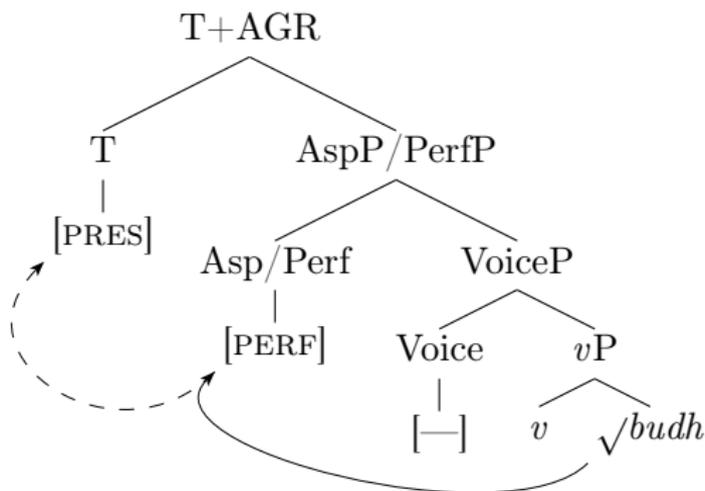
- (30) *bodh-aya-ti* 'causes to wake up; awakens'
 √-CAUS-3SG.PRES



- ▶ √ moves to *v* to form a causative verbal stem; further movement is blocked because *v_{CAUS}* is marked.
- ▶ Since no other marked features intervene, [uINFL:_] on the verb can probe upwards and agree with T → synthetic causative.

Synthetic perfect

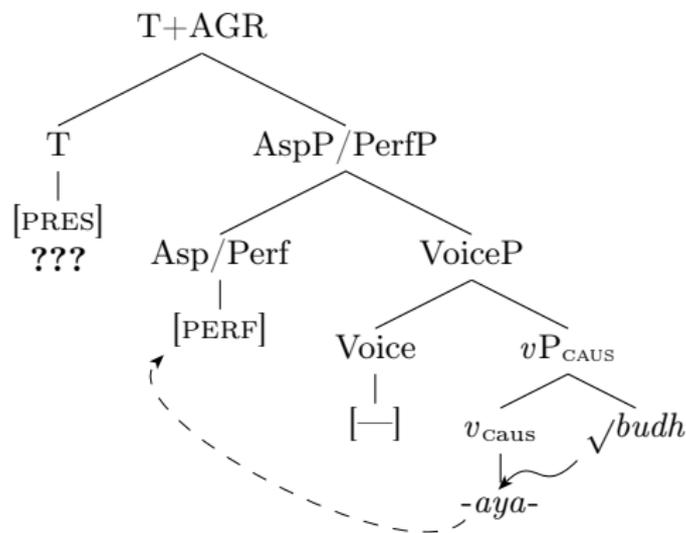
(31) *bu-bodh-a*
 PF-√/-3SG.PF



- ▶ √ can move to Asp because no marked feature intervenes
- ▶ [PERF] on Asp blocks further movement
- ▶ ... but agreement between Asp and T is possible, and we get a synthetic perfect.

Periphrastic perfect

- (32) *bodh-ay-ā- ca-kār-a* (perfect of causative)
 $\sqrt{-}$ -CAUS-VN PERF-AUX-3SG.PERF



- ▶ Problem: We expect $\sqrt{-v}$ -Voice-Asp on the nonfinite form and T/Agr on AUX (like in Latin).
- ▶ We actually get $\sqrt{-v}$ on the nonfinite form and Voice-Asp-T/Agr on AUX. 🤔

Periphrastic perfect: problems

- ▶ The periphrastic perfect goes back to $kr̥$ 'do, make' + verbal noun (the latter being the direct obj. of $kr̥$)
- ▶ So maybe the problem is that DO is not an auxiliary like BE and HAVE, but something else → *do*-support.
 - ▶ Cf. Bjorkman 2011: ch. 4, To appear on the difference between auxiliary constructions and *do*-support.

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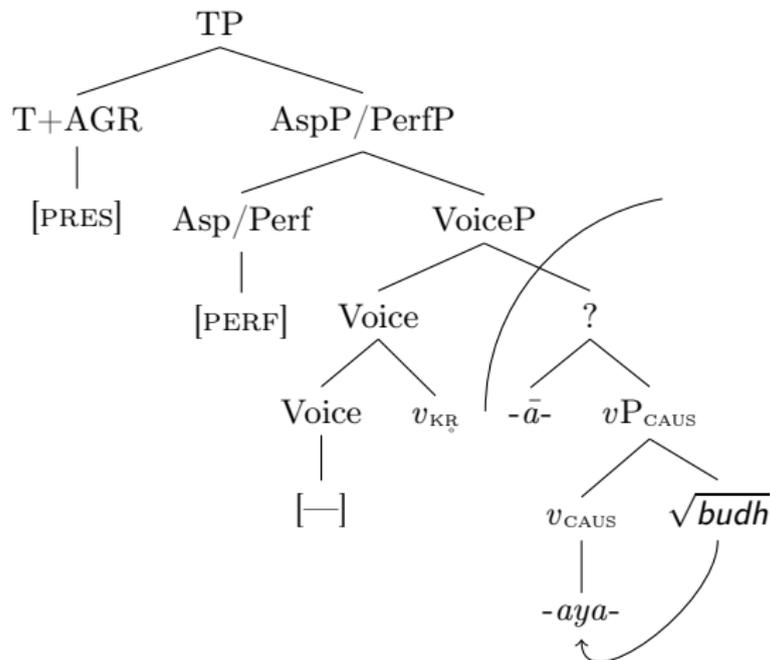
Neither will work for Sanskrit, but: if structural adjacency (or lack thereof) is the issue, then maybe what prevents the root/the stem from being realized together with higher verbal projections is the *nominal* suffix $-\bar{a}-$.

- ▶ ... but this does not prevent the root and *v* from combining, since we do see *v*-morphology on the verbal noun (e.g., causative $-ay(a)-$).

Hypothesis: “ $kr̥$ -support” adjoins to Voice

The periphrastic perfect, revised

- (33) *bodh-aya-ā- ca-kār-a* 'has caused to wake up'
 √-CAUS-VN PF-DO-3SG.PF



Summary & Conclusion

Summary & conclusion

- ▶ Synthetic verb forms in Greek and Sanskrit are built via head movement (/agreement: Sanskrit) → movement can fail/be blocked by a **marked feature**, leading to periphrastic constructions
 - ▶ In Greek: Asp[RES]
 - ▶ In Sanskrit: “marked” *v* + Asp[PERF]
- ▶ Markedness of features should follow from independently observed properties of the Greek & Sanskrit verbal system
 - ▶ E.g., changes in the semantics of the perfect from Homeric to Classical Greek; behavior of “primary” vs. “secondary” verb stems in Sanskrit, etc.

Summary & conclusion

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 - ▶ Note that these are environments which are independently analyzed as “tenseless”!
- ▶ When there *is* a finite T, Agreement/movement can fail if a marked feature intervenes/blocks movement (**PFV/PASS** in Latin, **RES** in CG, marked features on *v* in CS)
 - ▶ Again, failure to Agree, upwards Agree, etc. ... have been independently motivated (Bjorkman 2011 etc.)

Open issues/future work

- ▶ Other periphrastic constructions in Greek, Sanskrit?
- ▶ Diachrony: how/why does feature markedness, movement, etc., change?
- ▶ Further typological/cross-linguistic extensions?
- ▶ Exact mechanism of movement vs. agreement in CG, CS? Closer link between movement and agreement than in Latin, English ...?
- ▶ RC structure of (pre-nominal/post-nominal) attributive & predicative participles? (cf. Lowe 2015 for Vedic Sanskrit) and participles as complements of verbs of perception & cognition?
- ▶ Other nonfinite forms? Infinitives, “verbal adjectives”, etc.

Thank you!

The CS periphrastic perfect and deponency

The CS periphrastic perfect provides further arguments against an Embick-style feature [PASS] (or [NONACT]) on deponent roots:

- ▶ If the deponent status of, e.g., *īd* were determined by a [PASS]/[NONACT] feature on the root, there is no reason why a nonactive *auxiliary* should be selected when the root itself is in a voice-neutral nominal form.
- ▶ Rather, the mismatch seems to happen when certain roots interact with the functional structure associated with Voice and T/Agr.
- ▶ In the CS periphrastic perfect of deponents, we see both the feature [PERF] and the feature [NONACT] expressed on the auxiliary → the *auxiliary* picks up whatever feature causes deponency.

The CS periphrastic perfect and deponency

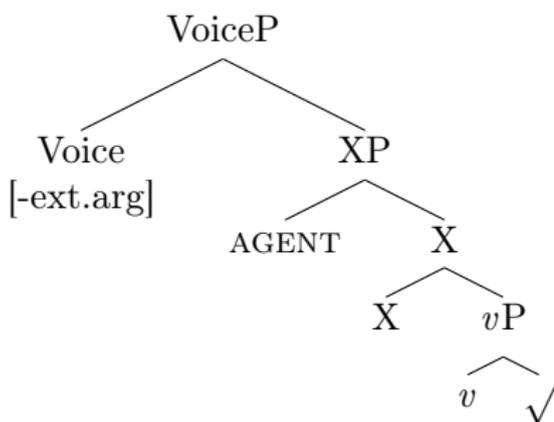
Grestenberger 2014, 2018, 2019: Deponency (in the narrow sense, (34)) is caused by a *noncanonical* agent that is merged below the canonical agent-introducing functional projection Voice \rightarrow Voice is realized as nonactive by (35).

- (34) Narrow deponency (Grestenberger 2018: 23):
In an active–nonactive voice system, a deponent is a verb with an agent subject that appears in a syntactically active context and is morphologically nonactive.
- (35) Voice \rightarrow Voice[NonAct]/_ No DP specifier

Structure of deponents

Grestenberger 2018: noncanonical agent below VoiceP = reanalyzed applicative/benefactive argument:

(36)



Structure of deponents

- ▶ Distribution of act/nonact follows from (35) (no “exceptions” needed)
- ▶ If participial morphology spells out Asp (above Voice), we expect deponent participles (in Greek, Sanskrit) to preserve the morphosyntactic mismatch → this is correct.
- ▶ We *do not* expect to see the mismatch surface in nominalizations that do not are not specified for Voice → also correct, cf. Sanskrit verbal nouns in periphrastic constructions.
 - ▶ ... also verbal adjectives in Sanskrit & Greek (Grestenberger 2018, 2020).

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- (37)
- a. de-deg-mén- ei-mi
 PF-√-PTCP.**NONACT** BE-1SG.PRES.ACT
 ‘I have accepted’
- b. īḍ-ā-m ca-kr-e
 √-VN PF-DO-3SG.PF.**NONACT**
 ‘He/she has praised’

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