Semantics of Persian Light Verbs

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Abstract

Many researches have been done on semantics of the verbal element of complex predicates (CPr), usually referred to as light verb (LV). Most researchers have confined their studies to a few limited features of light verbs. After criticizing major views proposed by scholars on the semantics of light verbs, this article presents a hypothesis on the formation of complex predicates, arguing that all of which directly or indirectly have roots in incorporation process. This process starts with a complete sentence, incorporating two elements into it and ends in eliminating other elements. Formation of each complex predicate leads to the formation of the constructional schema $X + LV_0$ which sanctions formation of new complex predicates with the same light verb and in the same semantic field. Accordingly, the meaning of light verb in direct incorporation case is the same meaning as its heavy verb, and in indirect incorporation case is dissolved in constructional meaning of the sanctioning schema. The meaning of light verb in each of these two cases could be different and each of them is taken or similar to one of its heavy meanings. There is a third case in which the light verb plays the role of verbalizing element and makes possible for a nonverbal predicate to inflect as a verb. Thus light verbs vary from having completely schematic and non-thematic meanings to their own primary heavy meanings.

Key Words: complex predicate, light verb, incorporation, constructional schema, cognitive grammar

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1. Introduction
Different researches have been done from various viewpoints on the semantics of the verbal element of complex predicates, generally called light verbs. Apart from analyses suggesting that light verbs have no content, or those which regard complex predicates as having idiomatic meaning, most researchers have tried to confine the meaning of light verb to one or a few specific features. In such generalizations, usually made over a limited collection of data, exceptions or counter examples are frequently missing from analysis.

In our opinion, specifying syntactic and semantic properties of complex predicates and their component parts is impossible unless we develop a hypothesis about the way in which complex predicates are formed. After criticizing the most significant views on semantics of Persian light verbs, this study tries to propose a hypothesis on formation of light verb constructions rather than merely focusing on specific features of light verbs in particular. By doing this, we try to throw light on semantic features of light verbs and the way they are selected.

2. Previous works on semantics of light verb
Karimi Doostan (1997:66) argues that the lexical conceptual structure (LCS) of a light verb (LV) is partially specified, in a way that its non-aspectual part or Thematic Tier is lost or unspecified and the light verb is left with nothing more than some aspectual information or an Aspect Tier. He emphasizes that ‘an LV, having a pale LCS, lacks full a-structure and does not contribute any other semantic content, apart from its aspectual roles, to the semantic formation of an LVC [light verb construction]’ (1997:144).

The aspectual role of light verbs is divided into two main groups of stative and dynamic by Karimi Doostan, the latter of which is divided into two sub groups of transition and initiatory. These three aspectual roles show the beginning, changing state, and static state of an event respectively. He classifies 16 most frequently used Persian light verbs as follows:
1. Stative: da:štan ‘TO HAVE’
2. Transition dynamic: xordan ‘TO COLLIDE’, ya:ftan ‘TO FIND’, šodan ‘TO BECOME’,  az:madan ‘TO COME’, gereftan ‘TO TAKE, TO HOLD’, raftan ‘TO GO’, didan ‘TO SEE, TO UNDERGO’
4. Initiatory/Transition dynamic: kardan ‘TO DO’

If, however, the semantic contribution of a light verb to complex predicates is confined to its aspectual role, and if we accept Karimi-Doostan’s classification of light verbs, the following results will be obtained:
1. Complex predicates consisting the same preverb (PV) but different light verbs with the same aspect are supposed to be near synonyms. Nevertheless it is often not the case. For instance, the verbs raftan, az:madan, šodan and xordan belong to ‘transition dynamic’ and the verbs kešidan, da:dan and zadan belong to ‘initiatory dynamic’ aspectual class. But such pairs as the following can hardly be considered synonymous:
   \[
   \begin{align*}
   &\text{xis} \quad \text{xordan} \quad / \quad \text{xis} \quad \text{šodan} \\
   &\text{wet} \quad \text{collide} \quad / \quad \text{wet} \quad \text{become} \\
   &\text{‘to soak’} \quad / \quad \text{‘to get wet’} \\
   &\text{kam} \quad \text{az:madan} \quad / \quad \text{kam} \quad \text{šodan}
   \end{align*}
   \]
Complex predicates which have the same PV but different LVs with different aspects are supposed not to be synonyms, while it is not always true. For instance, although the verb da:štan has stative aspect while the verb da:dan has dynamic aspect, gušda:dan (lit. ear give) and gušda:štan (lit. ear have) both denote ‘to listen’.

3. Since the aspect of a complex predicate is ascribed to its light verb, complex predicates with the same light verb must, in principle, have the same aspect. It is, even though, not the case at least about the aforementioned light verbs. The author himself has declared this aspectual duality regarding the verb kardan. For each of the rest of 16 light verbs, two complex predicates with different aspects are provided below:

1) da:Stan:dustda:Stan (lit. friend have ‘to love’) (stative); taydimda:Stan (lit. offer have ‘to proffer’) (initiatory)
   xordan: del xordan (lit. heart eat ‘to sorrow’) (stative); šekastxordan (lit. break collide ‘to fail’) (transition)
   ya:ftan: neja:ytftan (lit. survival find ‘to survive’) (transition); ra:hyat:ftan (lit. way find ‘to reach’) (initiatory)
   šodan: bida:śodan (lit. awake become ‘to wake up’) (transition); pa:śodan (lit. foot become ‘to stand up’) (initiatory)
   a:madan: juš a:madan (lit. boiling come ‘to boil’) (transition); kam a:madan (lit. little come ‘to be short’) (stative)
   gereftan: koštigereftan (lit. wrestling take ‘to wrestle’) (initiatory); šeklgereftan (lit. form take ‘to form’) (transition)
   raftan: a:br raftan (lit. water go ‘to shrink’) (transition); kešraftan (lit. rubber band go ‘to wash’) (initiatory)
   didan: a:sib didan (lit. hurt see ‘to be hurt’) (transition); tada:rok didan (lit. provision see ‘to provide’) (initiatory)
   zadan: latmezadan (lit. hurt hit ‘to hurt’) (initiatory); ta:waładan (lit. blister hit ‘to stunt’) (initiatory)
   šekastda:dan (lit. break give ‘to defeat’) ‘(initiatory)’; taşxis da:dan (lit. diagnosis give ‘to distinguish’) (stative)
   baxšidan: še: baxšidan (lit. healing give ‘to heal’) (initiatory); sudbaxšidan (to be profitable) (stative)
   a:vardan: juš a:vardan (lit. boiling bring ‘to boil’) (initiatory); xašma:vardan (lit. anger bring ‘to be angry’) (transition)
   kešidan: darkešidan (lit. pain pull ‘to be hurting’) (stative); a:kešidan (lit. water pull ‘to wash’) (initiatory)
   bordan: hamlebordan (lit. attack take ‘to attack’) (initiatory); peybordan (lit. footstep take ‘to find out’) (stative)
   goza:Stan: eteha:mg oza:stan (lit. respect put ‘to respect’) (initiatory); a:za: digoza:stan (lit. free put ‘to free up’) (stative)

According to Dabir-Moghaddam (1997) formation of complex predicates is the product of incorporation and combination. He believes that a verb preserves its lexical identity and semantic transparency after incorporation, while in a combination of a noun and a verb, the verb undergoes lexicalization. Indeed it changes into aktionsart-marker, ‘a sort of aspectual character’. From his point of view, alternative pairs exemplified in (2) clearly support the lexicalization of the verbs as aktionsart-markers.

2) jār zad-an jār kešid-an ‘to call (someone’s name)
   dād zad-an dād kešid-an ‘to shout"
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>sar</th>
<th>zad-an</th>
<th>sar</th>
<th>kešid-an</th>
<th>‘to pay a short visit’</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>nafás</td>
<td>zad-an</td>
<td>nafás</td>
<td>kešid-an</td>
<td>‘to breath’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dār</td>
<td>zad-an</td>
<td>dār</td>
<td>kešid-an</td>
<td>‘to string up on the gallow’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In his own words, ‘[the verbs] reflect the manner of the realization of the event as perceived and conceptualized by the speakers’. In the set (2), if language users intend to highlight the force and disconnectedness of the action, they will choose the verbs in the left column, i.e. zadan ‘to hit’ viewpoint, and if prolongation and duration of the action is to be highlighted, the alternative verbs in the right column, i.e. kešidan ‘to pull’ viewpoint will be selected. Further examples are mentioned below:

3) | otu  | zadan | otu  | kardan | ‘to iron’ |
    | telefon | zadan | telefon | kardan | ‘to telephone’ |
    | šāne | zadan | šāne | kardan | ‘to comb’ |
    | rang | zadan | rang | kardan | ‘to point’ |
    | tur | zadan | tur | kardan | ‘to capture, to make victim’ |

Both zadan and kardan imply action, but zadan viewpoint indicates a forceful, specific, and disconnected act, while kardan viewpoint indicates a general act.

Mentioning some pairs and triples such as tāzadan ‘to fold’/tāxordan ‘to become folded’/qarzkardan ‘to borrow’/qarzgereftan ‘to borrow’/qarzdādan ‘to lend’, and hersdādan ‘to make angry’/hers zadan ‘to be greedy’/hers xordan ‘get angry’, Dabir-Moghaddam tries to show that the mode of activity is implied verbal element and the act itself is expressed by nonverbal element. Thus he contends that regarding the verbal element as a light verb in complex predicates is incorrect and counter-intuitive. Comparing incorporation with combination he also remarks that complex predicates formed through incorporation are referentially transparent, whereas the ones formed via combination are usually involve metaphoric extension.

Interestingly enough, Dabir-Moghaddam, though not theoretically committed to cognitive linguistic, based his semantic analysis of light verbs on such cognitive concepts as perception, conceptualization, highlighting, and viewpoint. He concludes from his observations that these viewpoints could be identified in his corpus: DO-ing viewpoint, STRIKE-ing viewpoint, GIVE-ing viewpoint, TAKE-ing viewpoint, DRAW-ing viewpoint, HAVE-ing viewpoint, and EAT-ing viewpoint. In comparison with Karimi-Doostan who confines the aspectual meanings of verbal elements to stative, transition, and initiatory, Dabir-Moghaddam’s analysis is a step forward in that he sees different meanings of light verbs as many as their number, each LV expressing one aktionsart. Nevertheless the semantic content he ascribes to LVs, like Karimi-Doostan, is nothing more than aspect. In this respect the following considerations worth mentioning:

1. Even if the verbal element in complex predicates merely indicates aktionsart, ascribing only one aktionsart to each light verb seems to be far from realistic. For instance, according to Dabir-Moghaddam, STRIK-ing viewpoint (expressed by blyight verbs zadan) and DRAW-ing viewpoint (expressed by kešidan) are choosed by speakers to highlight “force and disconnectedness” and “prolongation and duration” respectively. But in many cases these verbs do not convey those meanings. For instance in telefonzadan ‘to telephone’ and gułzadan ‘to deceive’ neither force nor disconnectedness is relevant. Also kešidanin sajkešidan (to line up) indicates length of a line not the prolongation of the action involved. Likewise, in enteya:mkešidan ‘to take revenge’ and menniskešidan ‘to belittle oneself’ prolongation and duration of an act is not at issue. This suggests that the semantic analysis of light verbs cannot be regarded as conclusive by ascribing only one kind of meaning (aspectual or something) to them.
2. The general thesis that in complex predicates ‘the activity itself is expressed by the nonverbal constituent’ is far from realistic too. For example, in clusters *gul*da*dan/gulzadan/gulxordan* and *tāzadan/tāxordan*, non-verbal elements *gul*(stupid) and *tā*: (fold (n.)) indicate no specific act by themselves. More examples are presented in DabirMoghaddam’s data (46) cited here as (4):

4) pas dādan ‘to give back; to refund; to recite as a lesson’
   pas raftan ‘to go back; to decline’
   pas zadan ‘to draw back’
   pas gereftan ‘to take back’
   pas āvardan ‘to bring back’
   pas andāxtan ‘to beget’
   pas ofādan ‘to fall behind’
   pas bordan ‘to take back’
   pas ferestādan ‘to send back’
   pas rāndan ‘to push back’

In the above mentioned data it is not clear how nonverbal element *pas* which is an “adverbial element” according to the author could express an activity. In particular, in *pas dādan*, *pas raftan*, *pas gereftan*, *pas āvardan*, *pas bordan*, *pas ferestādan*, and *pas rāndan* it is obvious that the light verbs *dādan* ‘give’, *raftan* ‘to go’, *gereftan* ‘to take’, *āvardan* ‘to bring’, *andāxtan* ‘to beget’, *ofādan* ‘to fall behind’, *bordan* ‘to take’, *ferestādan* ‘to send’ and *rāndan* ‘to repulse’ indicate the activity itself not its mode or manner. It does not seem, then, that we can reduce the variety of meanings contributed by verbal elements to aspect, aktionsart or any other single category.

DabirMoghaddam (1397) correctly affirms that ‘semantically the verbs formed via combination and incorporation constitute conceptual wholes’. Given this fact, we cannot, at least easily and everywhere, analyse the meaning of complex predicates into two components i.e. ‘action’ and ‘aktionsart’ and ascribe each of them to one of two constituents of complex predicates. In many examples such as *dastgereftan* (lit. hand take ‘to ridicule’), *jāxordan* (lit. place strike ‘to be surprised’), and *sorāγgereftan* (lit. trace take ‘to inquire’) there cannot be found a one-to-one correspondence between the two meaning components in one side, and the two constituents of complex predicates on the other side. This becomes more obvious when the nonverbal element bear no clear meaning independently for speakers (at least at the synchronic level), in CPs like *bolgereftan* ‘to seize the opportunity’, *sokzadan* ‘to gaze’, *Gāpzadan* ‘to snatch’, and *borxordan* ‘to be shuffled’.

Vahedi-Langrudi (1996:42) regards light verb as existential bleached predicate which are bleached, empty (fully or partially), and unspecified on the thematic tire, thus lacking the ability to predicate a property. This means that the semantic relation between LV’s variables in the Lexical Conceptual Structure (LCS) is unspecified (1996:45).

He proceeds to pose the question as to what, then, the semantic contribution of the LVs is. He assumes that ‘[t]hey appear to contribute aspetual properties, (a)telicity, perfectivity, conception, completion, inception, and logical content CAUSE, BECOME, BE in a STATE/EXISTENCE, etc.’ (1996:49). These properties are called logical constants. Despite affirming the importance of aspectual properties of LVs in their choice and matching for the proper predicative nominals, Vahedi-Langrudi doesn’t approach this issue in his study (1996:49f).
Vahedi-Langrudi assumes that the lexical component is composed of Lexical conceptual Structure (LCS), a syntactic level argument structure called Lexical Relational Structure (LRS), and lexical phonological properties/formations as well as the idiosyncratic properties of lexical items. He regards both LVs and their heavy counterparts as having identical argument structures, i.e. a lexical syntactic structure that corresponds to their common logical constants (1996:48).

Elsewhere in his dissertation, he mentions that light verb dādan (lit. to give) is used in an abstract, figurative sense, and does not convey the sense of transfer of possession (p. 265). Drawing on Partee & Rooth’s (1982) Type Theory, Vahedi argues that the relation between the nominal PV in CPs in modern Persian is that of predicate modification. That is, the PVs of CPs acts as predicate modifiers irrespective of their syntactic category, i.e. NP, PP, Adj, Adv (p. 78). His general analysis of the formation of complex predicates goes like this: ‘semantically, LVs induce existential interpretation and DR within V-bar; the PVs are predicative with a weak existential reading and enter into Predicate Modification with the LVs. Syntactically, the predicative PVs count as the single complement of the LVs and substantiate them’ (p. 276).

Whereas Vahedi-Langrudi assumes a variety of semantic contributions for light verbs to have in complex predicates, his account could be criticized in following respects:

1. According to common definitions, logical consonants comprise logical connectives and quantifiers. Logical connectives include consonants such as “not”, “or”, “and”, and “if...then” are used to connect two or more sentences. Quantifiers include constants such as “every”, and “some” (and their equivalents) which are parts of the sentence involved. It is not clear, however, in what sense that the content Vahedi-Langrudi ascribes to the light verbs (such as CAUSE, EVENT, STATE, (COME to) BE EXISTENT, COME to BE in a STATE, BECOME GO TO, etc.) are logical consonants.

2. The most outstanding property of logical constants is that they can come with any sentence or variable (depending on whether the logical constant involved is a connective or a quantifier). Nonetheless there is almost no light verb that can be used with every preverbal element (PV).

3. To avoid terminological controversy on using the term “logical connective” for light verbs, we can follow the principle of charity, sympathetically interpreting it as ‘content poverty’. That is, to say, light verbs have no full meaning by themselves. For instance the meaning of ِ soda n ‘to become’ needs a noun or an adjective as its complement so that the question ‘what did it become?’ would not remain unanswered. Also the meaning of CAUSE is incomplete unless the two sides of the relation, namely the cause and the effect, are mentioned. For verbs such as raftan ‘to go and amadan ‘to come’, however, it is not the case and we cannot consider them as having incomplete content and merely logical significance.

4. Following Szabolcsi (1984), Vahedi-Langrudi considers light verbs as Definiteness Effect (DE) verbs. This claim is disputable for different reasons which we are not going to discuss here due to the space limitations. So we content ourselves only two one comment concerning it. The constituents of some complex predicates may come separately, in which case, the preverbal element can be used as a definite noun, contrary to Vahedi-Langrudi’s claim. He supports his hypothesis by giving the two following examples for the complex predicate sefī dādan (lit. cure give ‘to cure’) (1996:49):

5a. pezešk sārārā sefī dād
   doctor Sara-acc. cure give. Past. 3sg.
   The doctor cured Sara
b. *pezešk šefā-rā be sārā dād
docotor cure-def. art. to Sara give. Past. 3sg.

Considering, however, the CP šefāgereftan (lit. cure receive ‘to be cured’, which is the non-causativeweight counterpart of šefādādan, we observe that the preverb šefā could be definite as well:

6) a. bel Axare šefāgereftam
Ultimately cure receive - pst.1sg

b. bel Axare šefā-y-am-rā az xodā gereftam
ultimately cure-1sg-def. art. from God receive-pst.1sg

In 6(b) the 1st person singular possessive pronoun (-am) as well as postposition - rā added to šefā indicate that it is a definite noun here.

3. Formation of complex predicates
3.1. Incorporation and the compositional path

As it was mentioned before, Dabir-Moghaddam (1376) classifies the process of formation of complex predicates into two general topics of combination and incorporation. He argues that ‘despite the existence of systematic differences between compound verbs formed through combination and incorporation, there is phonological, syntactic, and semantic evidence which substantiates the categorization of the two types as compound verbs’. If incorporation is to be regarded as a product of combination of verb and its argument, complex predicates such as gazāxordan (food-eat), māhigereftan (fish-catch), and zarf šostan (dish-wash) would be typical examples of incorporational verbs. Moreover, in complex predicates which have kardan ‘do’ as their light verb, and that their preverbs denote an act or action, we can consider preverb as object of kardan and thus incorporated in it. There are many complex predicates of this sort, such as āveste-fākardan (resignation-do), pareškardan (jump-do), pazirāyikardan (service-do), nasb kardan (installation-do), rōtse kardan (caugh-do), šūkardan (shoot-do). Some examples of combinational CPs arefaryādzadadn (lit. shout hit ‘to shout’), out kardan (lit. iron do ‘to iron’), and yarzgereften (lit. loan take ‘to borrow’) whose preverbs could not being assigned theta role by light verbs.

Dabir-Moghaddam (1376) merely mentions the similar behavior of these two kinds of complex predicates and does not proceed to the identical mechanism residing behind these similarities. Shaghaghi (1386), however, adopts incorporational/combinational classification, proposing a hypothesis concerning the formation of C Ps, in which combinational complex predicates are regarded as developed form of incorporative C Ps. She contends that:

We can assume that combinational complex predicates tābāvardan (lit. endurance bring ‘to endure’), bār rāmadan (lit. fruit come ‘to grow up’), sarraftan (lit. head go ‘to overflow’), etc. are formed out of structures similar to the sentences [7-9], and it might be argued that they have evolved over time from incorporational complex predicates to combinational ones. Etymological and historical studies will help clarify the way complex predicates have emerged and their evolution process.
He endured the disaster.

8) ٌةٌن ِبَذَإ ُخْبَع ْبَه ُبَآر ُةُمآدَة ٌسَ١٠١١٠١١٠١١٠١١٠١١٠١١٠١١٠١١٠١١٠١١٠١١٠١١٠١١٠١١٠١١٠١١٠١١٠١١٠١١٠١١٠١١٠١١٠١١٠١١٠١١٠١١٠١١٠١١٠١١٠١١٠١١٠١١٠١١٠١١٠١١٠١١٠١١٠١١٠١١٠١١٠١١٠١١٠١١٠١١٠١١٠١١٠١١٠١١٠١١٠١١٠١١٠١١٠١١٠١١٠١١٠١١٠١١٠١١٠١١٠١١٠١١٠١١٠١١٠١١٠١١٠١١٠١١٠١١٠١١٠١١٠١١٠١١٠١١٠١١٠١١٠١١٠١١٠١١٠١١٠١١٠١١٠١١٠١١٠١١٠١١٠١١٠١١٠١١٠١١٠١١٠١١٠١١٠١١٠١١٠١١٠١١٠١١٠١١٠١١٠١١
complex predicate. Accordingly, the following paths of the formation of the CP rāstgoftan (lit. true say ‘to tell the truth’) could be suggested:

13) soxan-e rāst goftan > rāst goftan 
utterance-EZ true tell > true tell
‘to tell the true utterance’ > to tell the truth’

We can take the example 13 as evidence for extending NI to XI, where X indicates the instances of categories participating in the complex predicate formation, i.e. nouns and adjectives, through incorporation. More importantly, we can discern from these examples a process for specific CPs to be formed. This process is characterized by the two sequential steps of selecting a nonverbal and a verbal element out of a whole clause and leaving the rest, leading to a CP.

3.2. Constructional schema and kardan

The concept of compositional path helps us to account for collocation of components of many complex predicates. There are many complex predicates, however, for which finding compositional path in this way is extremely difficult or almost impossible. Some examples are telefonzadan (lit. telephone hit ‘to telephone’), javābkardan (lit. answer do ‘to reject’), rang kardan (lit. paint do ‘to paint’), yaxkardan (lit. ice do ‘to get cold’), and harfzadan (lit. utterance hit ‘to speak’). In some of these CPs if we could assume a putative path, the semantic content of the omitted element(s) outweigh the residuals and our path would therefore be accusable of being unnaturally adhoc. Consider this path:

14) kasi-rā [bā] javāb-[e manfi rad] kardan> kasi-rā javāb kardan sb-DO [from] answer[EZ negative reject] do> sb-DO answer do
‘to disappoint sb with one’s negative answer > to reject’

We notice here that the meaning of the residual element javāb ‘answer’ is virtually neutral with regard to the ‘core’ of the CP’s semantic pole, namely [DISAPPOINT]. In some other cases, depicting a compositional path requires recursion, making our path unnecessarily lengthy and a bit far-fetched. For instance, if we consider metrkardan ‘to measure’ (lit. to metre do) as resulting from a compositional path like (15), then we have to assume also another compositional path for hesābkardan.

‘to measure the length of sth in metres > to measure’

That being so, it seems that we can regard kardan as a light verb proper, or a verbalizing functional element for producing verbs out of nonverbal elements. This is in keeping with Vahedi-Langrudi’s (2000) account who considers the role of kardan in CP formation as exactly the same as that of suffix –idan (which he calls ‘zero abstract light verb’) in forming Persian denominal verbs like jangidan ‘to fight’, raqsidan ‘to dance’ and fahnidan ‘to understand’ with nonverbal bases jang ‘fights’, raqs ‘dances’ and fahn ‘understandings,’ respectively. We accept this account for three reasons. First, many CPs containing kardan make little, if any, sense of action on the part of their subjects. Examples such as vafātkardan ‘to pass away’ (lit. to death-do), eftexārkardan ‘to be proud of’ (to honour-DO), and araqkardan ‘to sweat’ (lit. to sweaty-DO) can provide evidence for kardan to be a grammatical element in constructions of these sort, for no
clear contribution to their semantic pole could be attributed to *kardan*. The second evidence is provided by CPs whose PV are loanwords which are originally Arabic infinitives, like *motelebekgardan* ‘to deal’ (lit. to deal-do), *sarygardan* ‘to attempt’ (lit. to attempt-do), *tarjomegardan* ‘to translate’ (lit. to translation-do), *estezmârkardan* ‘to colonialize’ (lit. to colonialism-do), *tahrikgardan* ‘to stimulate’ (lit. to stimulation-do), *tâsâkkârkardan* ‘to thank’ (lit. to thanks-do), *eqtebâskardan* ‘to adapt’ (lit. to adaptation-do), *engelâbkardan* ‘to revol’ (lit. to revolution-do), *eqfâlkardan* ‘to deceive’ (lit. to deception-do), and *hesâbkardan* ‘to calculate’ (lit. to calculation-do). These infinitives are categorized as nouns both in Arabic and in Persian and need to be able to inflect in order to convert into verbs. Persian allows this through attaching such nouns either to a schematic light verb, namely the verbalizing suffix –*idan*, or to a specific one, which is most frequently *kardan*. According to Tabataba’i (2004) the second component of both denominal verbs and CPs is ‘a grammatical element which allows the first [nonverbal] component to function as a verb’. The former possibility which results in formation of denominal verbs is not so much productive in Persian and thus ‘during the past thousand years, not only every new verbal notion has been formed periphrastically, but also regular simple verbs have been day by day replaced by periphrastic forms’ (Sadeghi 1993).

Third, perhaps most importantly, grammatical markers (alternate terms for which include ‘grammatical morpheme’, ‘function word’, ‘empty word’, ‘formative’, and ‘closed-class element’) are characterized in CG as being specific at the phonological pole and tending at the same time to be quite schematic at the semantic pole, their meaning being tenuous, abstract, and hard to elucidate (Langacker 2008:22-3). Having this definition in mind, we observe that [*KARDAN*] (which stands for the semantic pole of *kardan*) denotes by itself none of the senses of *kardan*, nor the processes profiled in relevant CPs (e.g. in *?omrkardan* ‘to live’ (lit. to life-do) and *tajâvotkardan* ‘to differ’ (lit. to difference-do)); it evokes those processes only schematically. The schematic unit PV + *kardan* can thus be validly posited as a constructional schema that provides the basis for composition of LVCs (with PVs of different sorts).

4. lightening of other verbs

According to what wesaid in section 3 about the role of *kardan* as a verbalizing element, our general assumption in explaining the way light verbs are chosen in the process of complex predicate formation is that the default light verb for converting noun (an Arabic infinitive, a European loanword or something else) into an inflecting Persian verb is *kardan*. If, then, a complex predicate has another light verb, for example *zadan*, this light verb must be ‘inherited’ from another complex predicate with the light verb *zadan*. The latter complex predicate is either incorporational (whether via direct incorporation or through compositional path) or is descended, through one or more intermediates, from an incorporational complex predicate whose verbal element is *zadan* (with its heavy meaning) and that has handed down the constructional schema ‘*X+zadan*’ for other CPs to be formed, providing a path for combining *zadan* and a new element with which no relationship or collocation is otherwise conceivable. We clarify the point by a couple of examples.

In the complex predicate *imeylzadan* (lit. email hit ‘to email’), the PV *imeyl* could by no means be regarded as an argument or adjunct of the LV *zadan* ‘to hit’. There has already existed, however, *telegrâfzadan* ‘to telegraph’ (lit. telegraph- hit) whose LV
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(zadan) has a more clear semantic relationship with ‘telegraph’ (after all, in earlier telegraphy systems the message used to be sent actually by pressing Morse keys, construed in Persian as ‘hitting the keys’). Accordingly, this CP has handed down the schematic assembly $X + zadan$ for designating communication via systems emerged after telegraphs, like telex, telephone, [two-way] radio, facsimile, e-mail, and SMS, thus sanctioning the formation of the novel CPs [telekszadan] ‘to telex’ (lit. telex$_X$-hit), telefonzadan ‘to telephone’ (lit. to telephone-hit), bisimzadan ‘to make a radio call’ (lit. radio-hit), fakszadan ‘to fax’ (lit. fax$_X$-hit), ṡimeyizadan ‘to e-mail’ (lit. email$_X$-hit), and esemorzadan ‘to send an SMS’ (lit. SMS-hit) respectively.

Another example of this process is formation of the complex predicate harfzadan (lit. utterance hit ‘to speak’) which is a rather recent complex predicate in modern Persian and the semantic relation between whose two elements (at least for prototypical senses of zadan) is quite opaque. If we refer to the usage history of zadan as a light verb in Persian, however, we find complex predicates whose PVs (directly or metonymically) denote a kind of speech act its associates, and in which zadan denotes the act of performing that action. Here are examples:

16) PV = onomatopoeia: GahGahezadan (lit. gufflaw hit ‘to gufflaw’)
17) PV = utterance: marhabāzadan (lit. welcome hit ‘to welcome’)
18) PV = name of a sound (speech or non-speech): nilaizadan (lit. moan hit ‘to moan’); bang zadan (lit. cry hit ‘to cry’); šeyhezadan (lit. neigh hit ‘to neigh’); nařezadan (lit. roar hit ‘to roar’); xandezadan (lit. laughter hit ‘to laugh’)
19) PV = name of a locutionary act: sedāzadan (lit. voice hit ‘to call’); notGzadan (lit. speech hit ‘to speak’)
20) PV = name of an illocutionary act: taxtarzadan (lit. ridicule hit ‘to ridicule’); tařnezadan (lit. taunt hit ‘to taunt’); tāřfzadan (lit. boasting hit ‘to boast’)
21) PV = name of a discoursive-textual unit or genre: masalzadan (lit. proverb hit ‘to say a proverb’)

Here the constructional schema ‘$X + zadan$’ could be abstracted from these complex CPs. We can observe the productivity of this schema in forming new complex predicates such as harfzadan (lit. utterance hit ‘to speak’); sutzadan (lit. whistle hit ‘to whistle’); čănezadan (lit. chin hit ‘to bargain’); jēzadan (lit. scream hit ‘to scream’); fakzadan (lit. jaw hit ‘to chat’), belofzadan (lit. bluff hit ‘to bluff’), befarmzadan (lit. go ahead hit ‘to welcome’), and tohnatizadan (lit. accusation hit ‘to accuse’) in all of which PV is subcategorized under one of the kinds mentioned in examples 16-21. In other words, the abovementioned complex predicates have ‘inherited’ their light verbs from the complex predicates with PVs of which they have some semantic relation.

Drawing on the notion of constructional schema, we can now give a more reasonable formulation for how the complex predicates mentioned in 10-12 have been formed as illustrated in 22-24 below. In these CPs there is no semantic or collocational relation on syntagmatic axes between PV and LV (namely exam/give, cigarette/pull, and smell/take (unless byappeal to the putative compositional paths proposed in 10-12). Now if we regard these complex predicates as being formed by filling X position with appropriate PV in the constructional schema $V_i + X$ (which is inherited from the existing complex predicates and where $V_i$ is one of the light verbs dādan, kešidan, and bordan), the syntagmatic relation between these two elements would be justified and the formation process of some other complex predicates would become more clear as well.

22) pāsɔx dādan $X + dādan$-emtehān dādan; mosābeye dādan
5. Semantics of light verbs

Based on the hypothesis suggested in sections 3 and 4 above about the formation of complex predicates, we are now in a position to say that the semantic contribution of LVS falls into one of the three following alternatives depending on how the CP in question is formed.

i) If the complex predicate is formed by incorporation (directly or through a compositional path), the meaning of the so-called LV is naturally the same as its heavy meaning. The important point here is that the heavy meaning could be objective, abstract or figurative. For example, one of the senses of geraftan is to receive, whose object argument could be either a concrete object or something abstract (jān ‘soul’, hāl ‘mood’, and bahre ‘benefit’) where in the latter case, ‘receiving’ has a metaphorical meaning. Thus, in complex predicates like ejāzegeraftan (lit. permit receive ‘to get a permit’) and darsgerdftan (lit. lesson receive ‘to take lessons’), PVS are objects incorporated into the verb geraftan. Moreover, one of the abstract meanings of geraftan is ‘to take a mood or state’, whose object is always an abstract noun. Accordingly, complex predicates such as kāstigeraftan (lit. decrease receive ‘to decrease’), mātamgerdftan (lit. grief receive ‘to mourn’), and dardgerdftan (lit. pain receive ‘to ache’) must be regarded as a product of direct incorporation of the verb argument (which denotes a state or mood) to the light verb.

ii) Alternatively, if the complex predicate is built on some constructional schema (which in turn is originally abstracted from some incorporational CP of kind (i) above), the meaning we are dealing with is not that of light verb, but the constructional meaning of the schema which, in combination with PV, yields the meaning of the whole complex predicate. For instance, as mentioned in the previous section, āmeylzadan ‘to e-mail’ is the product of combining āmeyl with constructional schema X+zadan whose constructional meaning is ‘to communicate via X’.

iii) Finally, the light verb may come to function as a verbalizing grammatical element, thus being a “light verb” in the exact sense of the term: it is virtually empty of lexical meaning and contribute a grammatical meaning. The most prominent examples of this case are many complex predicates with light verb kardan such as negāhkardan (lit. look do ‘to look’), donbhikkardan (lit. pursue do ‘to pursue’), havaskardan (lit. desire do ‘to desire’), sektekardan (lit. apoplexy do ‘to have a stroke’), and tab kardan (lit. fever do ‘to have a fever’).

6. Conclusion

In this article we argued that complex predicates, by default, could be thought of as being produced by output of XI, passing through a compositional path. In such a path, a
given verb (V₀) incorporates one of its (direct or oblique) arguments or dependants, maintaining its primary or extended ‘heavy’ sense(s). The process may yield a constructional schema PV + LV₀, which in turn sanctions V₀ (with its own literal or figurative meaning) to compound with another element, obtaining an CP whose meaning is a function of its components, rather than the sum of them. Such a constructional schema can then provide a new ‘compositional path’ for other CPs to be formed, to the extent that the meaning of LV may not be easily apprehended in the novel composite units.
References