

Misbehaving verbs: deponents, voice, and the properties of vP

Laura Grestenberger

Concordia University
Laura.Grestenberger@concordia.ca

Yale Department of Linguistics
Feb. 22, 2016

Introduction: the big picture

- Synchrony vs. diachrony: to what extent can synchronic language states be explained through their diachrony?
- Conversely, how does UG constrain possible diachronic developments at any given synchronic stage?
- How do *mismatches* between morphological form and syntactic function fit into this? Synchrony or diachrony?

Today's talk focuses on a *synchronic* syntax-morphology mismatch of particular voice systems — but the “bigger picture” must include their diachrony.

What are deponents?

- **Deponents:** Verbs with the “wrong” voice morphology: **non-active** morphology, **active** syntax (to be defined)

What are deponents?

- **Deponents:** Verbs with the “wrong” voice morphology: **non-active** morphology, **active** syntax (to be defined)
- **voice mismatch** verbs: mismatch between morphological form and syntactic “function” (= context)

What are deponents?

- **Deponents:** Verbs with the “wrong” voice morphology: **non-active** morphology, **active** syntax (to be defined)
- **voice mismatch** verbs: mismatch between morphological form and syntactic “function” (= context)
- Lat. *dē-pōnere* ‘lay aside’, sc. the verb’s non-active “meaning”

What are deponents?

- **Deponents:** Verbs with the “wrong” voice morphology: **non-active** morphology, **active** syntax (to be defined)
- **voice mismatch** verbs: mismatch between morphological form and syntactic “function” (= context)
- Lat. *dē-pōnere* ‘lay aside’, sc. the verb’s non-active “meaning”
- A common feature of the voice systems of older Indo-European (IE) languages: Sanskrit, Greek, Latin, Hittite, Old Irish, Tocharian ... and some modern IE languages (Modern Greek, Modern Albanian).

What are deponents?

(1) Latin alternating vs. deponent verbs:

	a. Pres.act.	b. Pres.pass.
Alternating	am- ō 'I love'	am- or 'I am (being) loved'
Deponent		hort- or 'I encourage'

- *hortor* should mean 'I am (being) encouraged' — but it means 'I encourage'
- a lexical idiosyncrasy

What are deponents?

Latin, Ancient Greek, Vedic Sanskrit, Modern Greek, etc. ... have a **bivalent voice system** in which an opposition between active and non-active voice is expressed through verbal inflection together with tense and agreement features → “Greek-type voice system”

What are deponents?

Latin, Ancient Greek, Vedic Sanskrit, Modern Greek, etc. ... have a **bivalent voice system** in which an opposition between active and non-active voice is expressed through verbal inflection together with tense and agreement features → “Greek-type voice system”

(3) Ancient Greek: Active—Non-active endings (present sg., athem.)

	Active	Non-active
1	<i>-mi</i>	<i>-mai</i>
2	<i>-si</i>	<i>-sai</i>
3	<i>-ti/-si</i>	<i>-tai</i>

What are deponents?

Latin, Ancient Greek, Vedic Sanskrit, Modern Greek, etc. ... have a **bivalent voice system** in which an opposition between active and non-active voice is expressed through verbal inflection together with tense and agreement features → “Greek-type voice system”

(3) Ancient Greek: Active—Non-active endings (present sg., athem.)

	Active	Non-active
1	<i>-mi</i>	<i>-mai</i>
2	<i>-si</i>	<i>-sai</i>
3	<i>-ti/-si</i>	<i>-tai</i>

- “non-active” is a cover term for what is usually called “middle” or “mediopassive” morphology in these languages
- Pre-theoretically, we have some notion of the syntactic contexts in which we expect active vs. non-active morphology

What are deponents?

... but it is easy to find (near-)synonyms with differing voice morphology, e.g.:

(4) Active/non-active (near-)synonyms in IE languages

Language	Non-active verb	Active verb	Meaning
Latin	<i>hortor</i> <i>fūror</i>	<i>moneō</i> <i>clepō, rapiō</i>	'encourage, incite' 'steal, rob'
Sanskrit	<i>vārdhate</i> <i>grāsate</i>	<i>bhāvati</i> <i>ātti</i>	'grows/becomes' 'devours/eats'
Hom. Greek	<i>erúomai</i> <i>érkhomai</i>	<i>phúlassō</i> <i>eĩmi</i>	'protect, guard' 'come, go'
Modern Greek	<i>eborevome</i> <i>katarieme</i>	<i>adallasso</i> <i>anathematizo</i>	'trade' 'curse'

What are deponents?

... but it is easy to find (near-)synonyms with differing voice morphology, e.g.:

(4) Active/non-active (near-)synonyms in IE languages

Language	Non-active verb	Active verb	Meaning
Latin	<i>hortor</i>	<i>moneō</i>	'encourage, incite'
	<i>fūror</i>	<i>clepō, rapiō</i>	'steal, rob'
Sanskrit	<i>vārdhate</i>	<i>bhāvati</i>	'grows/becomes'
	<i>grāsate</i>	<i>ātti</i>	'devours/eats'
Hom. Greek	<i>erúomai</i>	<i>phúlassō</i>	'protect, guard'
	<i>érkhomai</i>	<i>eĩmi</i>	'come, go'
Modern Greek	<i>eborevome</i>	<i>adallasso</i>	'trade'
	<i>katarieme</i>	<i>anathematizo</i>	'curse'

- Why do we find different voice morphology in what appear to be identical syntactic contexts?

Voice mismatches

- How can we account for voice mismatches/syntax-morphology mismatches?

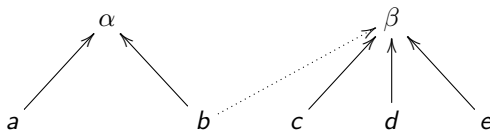
Voice mismatches

- How can we account for voice mismatches/syntax-morphology mismatches?

(5) Syntax-morphology mismatch

morphology

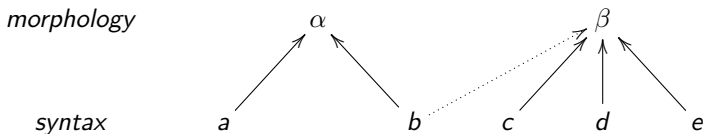
syntax



Voice mismatches

- How can we account for voice mismatches/syntax-morphology mismatches?

(5) Syntax-morphology mismatch



The broader questions:

- What governs the distribution of active vs. non-active morphology in these languages?
- Can we predict the canonical distribution of active/non-active morphology?

Outline

Goals of this talk:

- Argue that we *can* predict the occurrence of voice morphology in “Greek-type” languages

Outline

Goals of this talk:

- Argue that we *can* predict the occurrence of voice morphology in “Greek-type” languages
- Show that deponents have a unique property that causes their “misbehavior”
 - their surface subject is a *non-canonical agent* merged below vP

Outline

Goals of this talk:

- Argue that we *can* predict the occurrence of voice morphology in “Greek-type” languages
- Show that deponents have a unique property that causes their “misbehavior”
 - their surface subject is a *non-canonical agent* merged below *vP*
- Deponent behavior is contingent on the presence of *vP*
 - ... and not on finiteness, *pace* Papangeli and Lavidas 2009, Pesetsky 2009

Outline

Goals of this talk:

- Argue that we *can* predict the occurrence of voice morphology in “Greek-type” languages
- Show that deponents have a unique property that causes their “misbehavior”
 - their surface subject is a *non-canonical agent* merged below *vP*
- Deponent behavior is contingent on the presence of *vP*
 - ... and not on finiteness, *pace* Papangeli and Lavidas 2009, Pesetsky 2009
- This correctly predicts that deponent behavior surfaces in non-finite formations that include *vP*

Outline

Goals of this talk:

- Argue that we *can* predict the occurrence of voice morphology in “Greek-type” languages
- Show that deponents have a unique property that causes their “misbehavior”
 - their surface subject is a *non-canonical agent* merged below νP
- Deponent behavior is contingent on the presence of νP
 - ... and not on finiteness, *pace* Papangeli and Lavidas 2009, Pesetsky 2009
- This correctly predicts that deponent behavior surfaces in non-finite formations that include νP
- Deponency is constrained by synchronic and diachronic properties of “Greek-type” voice systems

Outline

Structure of this talk:

① Introduction

- Background ✓
- Outline ✓
- Canonical vs. non-canonical uses of voice morphology

② Theoretical background: a post-syntactic approach to voice morphology

③ Deriving deponents

- Voice and v
- Deponency as reanalysis
- Self-benefactives

④ Evidence from non-finite contexts

- Mismatch suspended
- Mismatch continued

⑤ Conclusion

Canonical uses of non-active morphology

- Active vs. non-active endings are found in “canonical” environments (= environments where a particular type of voice morphology is expected)

Canonical uses of non-active morphology

- Active vs. non-active endings are found in “canonical” environments (= environments where a particular type of voice morphology is expected)
- Non-active morphology is found in the same syntactic environments cross-linguistically (Gonda 1979, Klaiman 1991, Kemmer 1993, Bakker 1994, Embick 1998, Allan 2003, Kaufmann 2007, 2013, Alexiadou and Doron 2012, Alexiadou 2013, Zombolou and Alexiadou 2014, etc.)

Canonical uses of non-active morphology

- Active vs. non-active endings are found in “canonical” environments (= environments where a particular type of voice morphology is expected)
- Non-active morphology is found in the same syntactic environments cross-linguistically (Gonda 1979, Klaiman 1991, Kemmer 1993, Bakker 1994, Embick 1998, Allan 2003, Kaufmann 2007, 2013, Alexiadou and Doron 2012, Alexiadou 2013, Zombolou and Alexiadou 2014, etc.)

(6) Canonical functions of non-active morphology

- a. Anticausatives
- b. Reflexives & reciprocals
- c. Self-benefactives
- d. (Dispositional/generic constructions)
- e. (Medio)passives

Canonical uses of non-active morphology

(7) Voice alternations in Ancient Greek

Function	Non-active	Active
Anti-causative	<i>daío-mai</i> 'burn, blaze' (itr.)	<i>daí-ō</i> 'burn sth.'
Reflexive	<i>loúo-mai</i> 'wash myself'	<i>loú-ō</i> 'wash sth.'
Self-benefactive	<i>phéro-mai</i> 'carry (away) for myself'	<i>phér-ō</i> 'carry, bear'
Passive	<i>theíno-mai</i> 'am struck, killed'	<i>theín-ō</i> 'kill, strike'

Canonical uses of non-active morphology

(7) Voice alternations in Ancient Greek

Function	Non-active	Active
Anti-causative	<i>daío-mai</i> 'burn, blaze' (itr.)	<i>daí-ō</i> 'burn sth.'
Reflexive	<i>louó-mai</i> 'wash myself'	<i>lou-ō</i> 'wash sth.'
Self-benefactive	<i>phéro-mai</i> 'carry (away) for myself'	<i>phér-ō</i> 'carry, bear'
Passive	<i>theíno-mai</i> 'am struck, killed'	<i>theín-ō</i> 'kill, strike'

(8) Voice alternations in Modern Greek

Function	Non-active	Active
Anti-causative	<i>sikon-ome</i> 'rise'	<i>sikon-o</i> 'raise'
Reflexive	<i>plen-ome</i> 'wash myself'	<i>plen-o</i> 'wash'
Self-benefactive	<i>promithev-ome</i> 'supply myself'	<i>promithev-o</i> 'supply'
Passive	<i>skoton-ome</i> 'am killed'	<i>skoton-o</i> 'kill'

Same morphology in different syntactic environments: **voice syncretism**
(Embick 1998)

Canonical uses of non-active morphology

- The verbs in (7) and (8) are **alternating verbs** with an active/non-active opposition

Canonical uses of non-active morphology

- The verbs in (7) and (8) are **alternating verbs** with an active/non-active opposition

BUT: *non-active morphology is also found in **non-alternating/non-oppositional** contexts* (Kemmer 1993, Zombolou and Alexiadou 2014):

- (9)
- a. Experiencer/psych verbs
 - b. Statives
 - c. (some) verbs of motion
 - d. (some) deadjectival and denominal verbs
 - e. (some) verbs of speech and communication

Canonical uses of non-active morphology

- The verbs in (7) and (8) are **alternating verbs** with an active/non-active opposition

BUT: *non-active morphology is also found in **non-alternating/non-oppositional** contexts* (Kemmer 1993, Zombolou and Alexiadou 2014):

- (9)
- a. Experiencer/psych verbs
 - b. Statives
 - c. (some) verbs of motion
 - d. (some) deadjectival and denominal verbs
 - e. (some) verbs of speech and communication

→ being non-alternating is not the same as being “deponent”, if “deponent” is defined as “laying aside the canonical function associated with non-active morphology”.

Canonical uses of non-active morphology

- The verbs in (7) and (8) are **alternating verbs** with an active/non-active opposition

BUT: *non-active morphology is also found in **non-alternating/non-oppositional** contexts* (Kemmer 1993, Zombolou and Alexiadou 2014):

- (9)
- a. Experiencer/psych verbs
 - b. Statives
 - c. (some) verbs of motion
 - d. (some) deadjectival and denominal verbs
 - e. (some) verbs of speech and communication

→ being non-alternating is not the same as being “deponent”, if “deponent” is defined as “laying aside the canonical function associated with non-active morphology”.

- Better to keep the terms *media tantum* and *deponents* distinct

Theoretical background: Voice and v

A postsyntactic approach to voice morphology

Formalizing the generalizations concerning *canonical contexts for non-active morphology*:

- (10) alternating
 - a. anti-causative
 - b. reflexive/reciprocal
 - c. self-benefactive
 - d. (medio)passive

A postsyntactic approach to voice morphology

Formalizing the generalizations concerning *canonical contexts for non-active morphology*:

- (10) alternating
 - a. anti-causative
 - b. reflexive/reciprocal
 - c. self-benefactive
 - d. (medio)passive
- (11) non-alternating
 - a. experiencer
 - b. statives
 - c. motion verbs
 - d. speech act verbs

Is there a unifying generalization for these contexts?

A postsyntactic approach to voice morphology

Formalizing the generalizations concerning *canonical contexts for non-active morphology*:

- (10) alternating
 - a. anti-causative
 - b. reflexive/reciprocal
 - c. self-benefactive
 - d. (medio)passive
- (11) non-alternating
 - a. experiencer
 - b. statives
 - c. motion verbs
 - d. speech act verbs

Is there a unifying generalization for these contexts?

→ Their surface subjects \neq agents.

A postsyntactic approach to voice morphology

- Kratzer (1996): the external argument (agent) of transitive verbs is merged in the specifier of the functional projection vP

A postsyntactic approach to voice morphology

- Kratzer (1996): the external argument (agent) of transitive verbs is merged in the specifier of the functional projection vP
- Embick 1998, 2004, Kallulli 2006, 2007, 2013: non-active morphology is sensitive to whether v has an external argument.

Spell-Out condition on non-active morphology:

- (12) $v \leftrightarrow v\text{-}X/_$ No external argument (Embick 2004: 150)
“Non-active voice is assigned when v does not introduce an external argument”
 (“-X” = morphological exponence of “non-active” in a given language)

A postsyntactic approach to voice morphology

- Kratzer (1996): the external argument (agent) of transitive verbs is merged in the specifier of the functional projection vP
- Embick 1998, 2004, Kallulli 2006, 2007, 2013: non-active morphology is sensitive to whether v has an external argument.

Spell-Out condition on non-active morphology:

- (12) $v \leftrightarrow v\text{-}X/_\text{ } _$ No external argument (Embick 2004: 150)
“Non-active voice is assigned when v does not introduce an external argument”
 (“-X” = morphological exponence of “non-active” in a given language)

(... \approx VoiceP, e.g., Harley 2013)

A postsyntactic approach to voice morphology

- [act] and [nonact] are not syntactic features, but different ways of spelling out v

A postsyntactic approach to voice morphology

- [act] and [nonact] are not syntactic features, but different ways of spelling out v
- [nonact] = a postsyntactic feature/property of v

A postsyntactic approach to voice morphology

- [act] and [nonact] are not syntactic features, but different ways of spelling out v
- [nonact] = a postsyntactic feature/property of v
- active = “elsewhere” morphology

A postsyntactic approach to voice morphology

- [act] and [nonact] are not syntactic features, but different ways of spelling out v
- [nonact] = a postsyntactic feature/property of v
- active = “elsewhere” morphology

Similar: non-active morphology indicates that an external argument has been suppressed (Kallulli 2006: 216: “Unaccusative morphology suppresses the first feature in v ”); non-active morphology binds the external argument (Oikonomou 2014, based on Bruening 2013).

- Not pursued here — difficult to explain *media tantum* under this approach (see Appendix)

Flavors of v

Further assumption: two types of v

- $v[ag]$: “agentive v ”: can merge an external argument (“agent”, “actor”, “initiator”)

Flavors of v

Further assumption: two types of v

- $v[ag]$: “agentive v ”: can merge an external argument (“agent”, “actor”, “initiator”)
- v : no specifier/external argument

Flavors of v

Further assumption: two types of v

- $v[ag]$: “agentive v ”: can merge an external argument (“agent”, “actor”, “initiator”)
- v : no specifier/external argument

E.g., Kratzer 1996, Embick 1997, 1998, 2004, Chomsky 2001, Alexiadou and Anagnostopoulou 2004, Harley 2005, Kallulli 2006, 2007, 2013...

Flavors of v

Further assumption: two types of v

- $v[ag]$: “agentive v ”: can merge an external argument (“agent”, “actor”, “initiator”)
- v : no specifier/external argument

E.g., Kratzer 1996, Embick 1997, 1998, 2004, Chomsky 2001, Alexiadou and Anagnostopoulou 2004, Harley 2005, Kallulli 2006, 2007, 2013...

- (13) Definition: canonical uses of non-active morphology: $v[ag]$ does not introduce an external argument

Active vs. non-active: basic distribution

This framework gives us the following basic distribution of voice morphology in a Greek-type voice system (cp. Kallulli 2013: 349):

(14) Distribution of active vs. non-active morphology:

	+ext.arg.	-ext.arg.
v[ag]	Act	NonAct
v	n/a	Act

Active vs. non-active: basic distribution

This framework gives us the following basic distribution of voice morphology in a Greek-type voice system (cp. Kallulli 2013: 349):

(14) Distribution of active vs. non-active morphology:

	+ext.arg.	-ext.arg.
v[ag]	Act	NonAct
v	n/a	Act

- Deponents are “mismatch verbs” because their surface subject is an agent, but they surface with non-active morphology — not predicted by (14).

Deponents

- (15) Definition of deponency (Grestenberger 2014)
“In an active—non-active voice system, a deponent is a syntactically active verb whose surface subject is an agent and whose finite forms are morphologically non-active.”

Deriving deponents

Deriving deponents

Deponents (narrow definition) have an external argument.

- They make agent nouns (examples below)
- They are compatible with agent-oriented adverbs
- They passivize (under specific circumstances) → see the Appendix

Generalization:

- (16) Deponents can passivize if passive morphology that is distinct from the morphology triggering the mismatch is available.

Deriving deponents

Observation: Voice mismatch in deponents = linked to their *verbalizing* morphology.

(17) Vedic alternating and deponent verb stems

Alternating		Deponent	
Stem	Meaning	Stem	Meaning
<i>várdh-a</i> ^{act./NAct.}	'grow'	<i>rábh-a</i> ^{NAct.}	'seize'
<i>bhár-a</i> ^{act./NAct.}	'carry'	<i>grás-a</i> ^{NAct.}	'devour'
<i>yáj-a</i> ^{act./NAct.}	'sacrifice'	<i>trā́-ya</i> ^{NAct.}	'protect'

Deriving deponents

Observation: Voice mismatch in deponents = linked to their *verbalizing* morphology.

(17) Vedic alternating and deponent verb stems

Alternating		Deponent	
Stem	Meaning	Stem	Meaning
<i>várdh-a</i> ^{act./NAct.}	'grow'	<i>rábh-a</i> ^{NAct.}	'seize'
<i>bhár-a</i> ^{act./NAct.}	'carry'	<i>grás-a</i> ^{NAct.}	'devour'
<i>yáj-a</i> ^{act./NAct.}	'sacrifice'	<i>trā́-ya</i> ^{NAct.}	'protect'

This suggests that the “trigger” of deponent behavior is located between the verbalizer V and v.

Proposal

- Deponents have an agent argument, but it's merged in the “wrong position”
— below vP

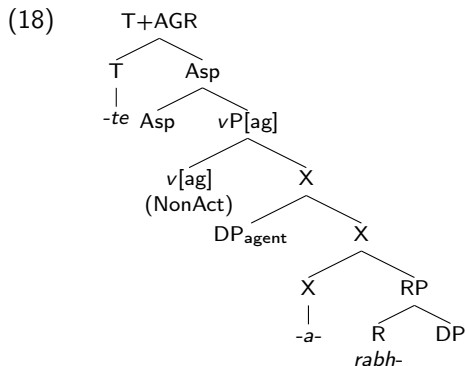
Proposal

- Deponents have an agent argument, but it's merged in the “wrong position”
— below vP
- Therefore deponents surface with non-active morphology as predicted by (14)

Proposal

- Deponents have an agent argument, but it's merged in the "wrong position" — below vP
- Therefore deponents surface with non-active morphology as predicted by (14)

Illustrated for Ved. *rābhate* 'seizes':



Proposal

- The derivation of a deponent is structurally parallel to that of an experiencer or self-benefactive verb

Proposal

- The derivation of a deponent is structurally parallel to that of an experiencer or self-benefactive verb
 - The surface subject is base-generated below vP
 - $v[ag]$ is spelled out as non-active because it does not introduce an external argument

Proposal

- The derivation of a deponent is structurally parallel to that of an experiencer or self-benefactive verb
 - The surface subject is base-generated below vP
 - v[ag] is spelled out as non-active because it does not introduce an external argument
- NB: Movement of DP to subject does *not* trigger active morphology
 - Independently needed assumption for intransitive canonical non-active verbs with nominative subjects, e.g., statives, anti-causatives ...

Proposal

- The derivation of a deponent is structurally parallel to that of an experiencer or self-benefactive verb
 - The surface subject is base-generated below vP
 - v[ag] is spelled out as non-active because it does not introduce an external argument
- NB: Movement of DP to subject does *not* trigger active morphology
 - Independently needed assumption for intransitive canonical non-active verbs with nominative subjects, e.g., statives, anti-causatives ...
- ... but deponents behave like agentive verbs (they make agent nouns, passives, have agent-oriented adverbs) because they merge a *non-canonical* agent DP.

Proposal

- The derivation of a deponent is structurally parallel to that of an experiencer or self-benefactive verb
 - The surface subject is base-generated below vP
 - $v[ag]$ is spelled out as non-active because it does not introduce an external argument
- NB: Movement of DP to subject does *not* trigger active morphology
 - Independently needed assumption for intransitive canonical non-active verbs with nominative subjects, e.g., statives, anti-causatives ...
- ... but deponents behave like agentive verbs (they make agent nouns, passives, have agent-oriented adverbs) because they merge a *non-canonical* agent DP.
- Where does this DP come from? What's "XP" in (18)?

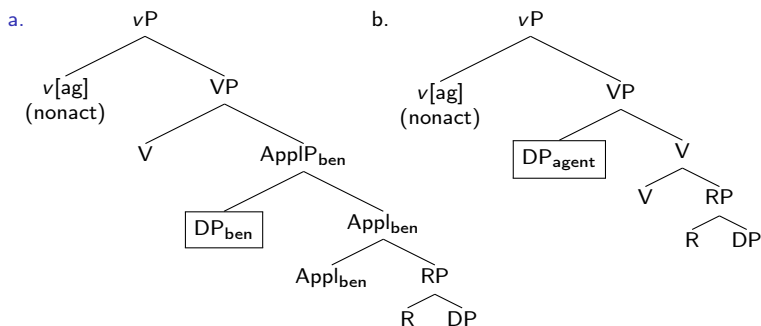
Deponency as reanalysis

“Deponent reanalysis”: a canonical non-active transitive verb in which the surface subject starts out below vP (an experiencer or self-benefactive argument) is reanalyzed as a non-active transitive verb with an agent subject by an L1 acquirer:

Deponency as reanalysis

“Deponent reanalysis”: a canonical non-active transitive verb in which the surface subject starts out below vP (an experiencer or self-benefactive argument) is reanalyzed as a non-active transitive verb with an agent subject by an L1 acquirer:

(19)



(19-a) based on Pylkkänen 2008: “low applicatives” (also Bosse et al. 2012)

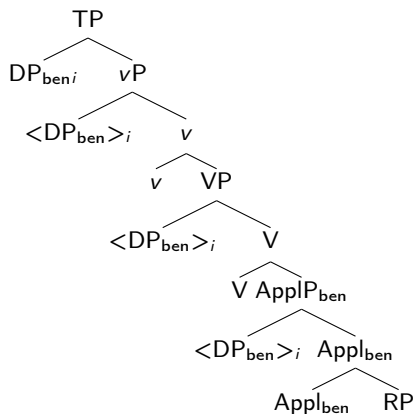
Self-benefactives

Self-benefactives in Greek-type voice systems: the surface subject = experiencer/benefactive argument merged by Appl_{ben} (**movement analysis of self-benefactives**):

Self-benefactives

Self-benefactives in Greek-type voice systems: the surface subject = experiencer/benefactive argument merged by Appl_{ben} (**movement analysis of self-benefactives**):

(20)



Self-benefactives: Greek

Benefactives and self-benefactives both have nominative subjects and accusative objects—they only differ in their voice morphology:

(21) Ancient Greek

a. Self-benefactive: Herodotus, *Histories* 4.130.1:

taûta	mén	nun	epì	smikrón	ti	ephéro-nto
therefore	part	now	in	small.acc	something.acc	bring.ipf-3pl.NAct
toũ	polémou					
this.gen	war.gen					

“Therefore they (the Persians) gained little in this war”

Self-benefactives: Greek

Benefactives and self-benefactives both have nominative subjects and accusative objects—they only differ in their voice morphology:

(21) Ancient Greek

- a. Self-benefactive: Herodotus, *Histories* 4.130.1:

taûta mén nun epì smikrón ti **ephéro-nto**
 therefore part now in small.acc something.acc bring.ipf-3pl.**NAct**
 toũ polémou
 this.gen war.gen

“Therefore they (the Persians) gained little in this war”

- b. Benefactive: Herodotus, *Histories* 4.133.2:

ándres Íōnes, eleutheriēn hēkomen humîn
 men.pl Ionian.pl freedom.acc be.present.1pl.act you.dat.pl
phéro-ntes
 bringing.pres-ptcp.nom.pl.**act**

“Ionians, we are here to bring you freedom”

Self-Benefactives: Vedic

(22) Vedic (translations from Jamison and Brereton 2014):

a. Self-benefactive: RV 1.3.11c

yajñam **dadh-e** sárasvatī
sacrifice.acc place.perf-3sg.perf. **NAct** Sarasvatī.nom

“Sarasvatī has received our sacrifice.” (< “has taken/placed for herself”)

b. Benefactive: RV 4.20.9d

<á>thā **dadhā-ti** dráviṇam jaritré
also+to.prvb place-3sg.pres. **act** wealth.acc singer.dat

“and he establishes material property for the singer.”

- The benefactive takes active morphology, the self-benefactive takes non-active morphology
- Expected if their surface subjects are merged in different positions

Reanalysis

- Starting point of reanalysis: loss of self-benefactive semantics (= Appl_{ben})

Reanalysis

- Starting point of reanalysis: loss of self-benefactive semantics (= Appl_{ben})
- Zombolou 2004, Zombolou 2015, Lavidas and Papangeli 2007, Lavidas 2009: If alternating verbs lose the morphologically active part of an alternating verb's paradigm, the non-active counterpart becomes vulnerable to reanalysis

Reanalysis

- Starting point of reanalysis: loss of self-benefactive semantics (= Appl_{ben})
- Zombolou 2004, Zombolou 2015, Lavidas and Papangeli 2007, Lavidas 2009: If alternating verbs lose the morphologically active part of an alternating verb's paradigm, the non-active counterpart becomes vulnerable to reanalysis

The acquirer is confronted with a transitive, agentive construction with *non-canonical* non-active morphology. The acquirer either

- “normalizes” the voice morphology, resulting in morphologically active transitive verbs
 - Ex.: Ancient Greek → Modern Greek: non-act. *eksēgeomai* ‘I interpret’ → act. *eksigo*; non-act. *kharizomai* ‘I present with’ → act. *kharizo*, etc.

Reanalysis

- Starting point of reanalysis: loss of self-benefactive semantics (= Appl_{ben})
- Zombolou 2004, Zombolou 2015, Lavidas and Papangeli 2007, Lavidas 2009: If alternating verbs lose the morphologically active part of an alternating verb's paradigm, the non-active counterpart becomes vulnerable to reanalysis

The acquirer is confronted with a transitive, agentive construction with *non-canonical* non-active morphology. The acquirer either

- “normalizes” the voice morphology, resulting in morphologically active transitive verbs
 - Ex.: Ancient Greek → Modern Greek: non-act. *eksēgeomai* ‘I interpret’ → act. *eksigo*; non-act. *kharizomai* ‘I present with’ → act. *kharizo*, etc.

or

- acquires a verb with non-canonical voice morphology → **deponent**

Summary

- Deponents (narrow definition) are agentive
- Their surface subject starts out as “low agent” due to reanalysis of what used to be an experiencer/benefactive argument below vP
- This reanalysis is possible because voice morphology (in Greek-type languages) is not “feature suppression”: it just marks the absence of an external argument in $v[ag$

Additional evidence: non-finite formations

Evidence from non-finite contexts: deponent participles

Variation in deponent participles

- The puzzle: some non-finite forms of deponents appear to give up the voice mismatch.

Variation in deponent participles

- The puzzle: some non-finite forms of deponents appear to give up the voice mismatch.
 - Present participles of Latin deponents use the same participial suffix as participles of formally active verbs, (23-c.)

Variation in deponent participles

- The puzzle: some non-finite forms of deponents appear to give up the voice mismatch.
 - Present participles of Latin deponents use the same participial suffix as participles of formally active verbs, (23-c.)

(23) Latin alternating vs. deponent verbs: the basic paradigm

	a. Pres.act.	b. Pres.pass.	c. Pres.ptcp.
Alternating	am-ō 'I love'	am-or 'I am (being) loved'	ama- nt - 'loving'
Deponent		hort-or 'I encourage'	horta- nt - 'encouraging'

Papangeli and Lavidas 2009, Pesetsky 2009: deponency depends on finite T.

Variation in deponent participles

- Cross-linguistic investigation of non-finite forms of deponents (focus on participles, verbal adjectives) in Hittite, Vedic Sanskrit, Homeric Greek, Latin and Modern Greek shows variation in whether or not the mismatch is preserved (Grestenberger 2014, Grestenberger 2015)

Variation in deponent participles

- Cross-linguistic investigation of non-finite forms of deponents (focus on participles, verbal adjectives) in Hittite, Vedic Sanskrit, Homeric Greek, Latin and Modern Greek shows variation in whether or not the mismatch is preserved (Grestenberger 2014, Grestenberger 2015)
- What triggers this variation? When does deponency surface in non-finite forms?

Variation in deponent participles

- Cross-linguistic investigation of non-finite forms of deponents (focus on participles, verbal adjectives) in Hittite, Vedic Sanskrit, Homeric Greek, Latin and Modern Greek shows variation in whether or not the mismatch is preserved (Grestenberger 2014, Grestenberger 2015)
- What triggers this variation? When does deponency surface in non-finite forms?
- Prediction: deponency surfaces in deverbal formations that include vP
 - ... because that's the locus of the voice mismatch

Mismatch suspended: Agent nouns

- Deponents behave like formally active agentive verbs and form agent nouns, using the same suffix as the regular active verbs.

Mismatch suspended: Agent nouns

- Deponents behave like formally active agentive verbs and form agent nouns, using the same suffix as the regular active verbs.

(24) Vedic agent nouns, suffix *-tār-*:

alternating		deponent	
root	agent noun	root	agent noun
<i>dā</i> 'give'	<i>dā-tār-</i> 'giver'	<i>trā</i> 'protect'	<i>trā-tār-</i> 'protector'
<i>nī</i> 'lead'	<i>ne-tār-</i> 'leader'	<i>īḍ</i> 'praise'	<i>īḍi-tār-</i> 'praiser'
<i>rakṣ</i> 'protect'	<i>rakṣi-tār-</i> 'protector'	<i>kṣad</i> 'serve'	<i>kṣat-tār-</i> 'server'

Baker and Vinokurova 2009: agent nominalizations do not include the Voice head (here: *v*)

Mismatch suspended: verbal adjectives

- Vedic, Ancient Greek, Modern Greek, Hittite have “stativizers” that attach directly to the root
 - Ved. *-tá-*, AG *-tós*, MG *-tos*, Hitt. *-ant-*

Mismatch suspended: verbal adjectives

- Vedic, Ancient Greek, Modern Greek, Hittite have “stativizers” that attach directly to the root
 - Ved. *-tá-*, AG *-tós*, MG *-tos*, Hitt. *-ant-*
- Passive reading with transitive verbs, intransitive reading with intransitive verbs

Mismatch suspended: verbal adjectives

- Vedic, Ancient Greek, Modern Greek, Hittite have “stativizers” that attach directly to the root
 - Ved. *-tá-*, AG *-tós*, MG *-tos*, Hitt. *-ant-*
- Passive reading with transitive verbs, intransitive reading with intransitive verbs

The verbal adjectives of deponents pattern with active transitive verbs in having a passive reading.

Mismatch suspended: verbal adjectives

- Vedic, Ancient Greek, Modern Greek, Hittite have “stativizers” that attach directly to the root
 - Ved. *-tá-*, AG *-tós*, MG *-tos*, Hitt. *-ant-*
- Passive reading with transitive verbs, intransitive reading with intransitive verbs

The verbal adjectives of deponents pattern with active transitive verbs in having a passive reading.

(25) Vedic verbal adjectives in *-tá-*

alternating		deponent	
root	verbal adj.	root	verbal adj.
<i>han</i> ‘slay’	<i>ha-tá-</i> ‘slain’	<i>gras</i> ‘devour’	<i>gras-itá-</i> ‘devoured’
<i>vac</i> ‘speak’	<i>uk-tá-</i> ‘spoken’	<i>bādh</i> ‘beset’	<i>bādh-itá-</i> ‘beset, hemmed in’
<i>pā</i> ‘drink’	<i>pī-tá-</i> ‘drunk’	<i>labh</i> ‘take’	<i>-lab-dha-</i> ‘taken’ (< * <i>labh-ta-</i>)

Nominalizer below vP

Anagnostopoulou (2003), Alexiadou and Anagnostopoulou (2008), etc.: adjectival suffix in MG *tos*-participles (“stative participles”) takes a RootP (RP) complement.

Nominalizer below vP

Anagnostopoulou (2003), Alexiadou and Anagnostopoulou (2008), etc.: adjectival suffix in MG *tos*-participles (“stative participles”) takes a RootP (RP) complement.

- Only the internal argument is included → derives the “theme-orientedness” of these formations (intransitive subject/transitive object)

Nominalizer below vP

Anagnostopoulou (2003), Alexiadou and Anagnostopoulou (2008), etc.: adjectival suffix in MG *tos*-participles (“stative participles”) takes a RootP (RP) complement.

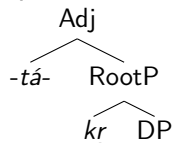
- Only the internal argument is included → derives the “theme-orientedness” of these formations (intransitive subject/transitive object)
- No verbalizing morphology, no vP → deponents are predicted to pattern with regular transitive verbs

Nominalizer below vP

Ex.: Vedic verbal adjectives in *-tá-*:

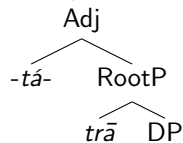
(26) a. non-deponent:

kr̥-tá- 'made'



b. deponent:

trā-tá- 'protected'



Besides MG *-tos* and Vedic *-tá-*, this is also the structure of the Ancient Greek *to*-participle and the Hittite *ant*-participle.

Mismatch continued: Vedic and Greek

- Vedic & Greek: active vs. non-active (middle) participial forms in the present, aorist, and perfect paradigm.
 - Vedic: active *-ant-/at-*, non-active *-āna-/māna-*
 - Greek: active *-(o/e/a)-nt-*, non-active *-(o/a)-menos*.

Mismatch continued: Vedic and Greek

- Vedic & Greek: active vs. non-active (middle) participial forms in the present, aorist, and perfect paradigm.
 - Vedic: active *-ant-/at-*, non-active *-āna-/māna-*
 - Greek: active *-(o/e/a)-nt-*, non-active *-(o/a)-menos*.
- Deponent participles always select the **non-active** suffix and continue the mismatch

Mismatch continued: Vedic

(27) *day* 'distribute', RV 1.130.7:

atithigvāya śāmbaram girér ugró ávābharat
 Atithigva.dat Śambara.acc mountain.abl mighty.nom down.pushed
 mahó dhānāni dāya-māna ójasā (...)
 great.acc prizes.acc distributing-**NAct**.ptcp.nom might.instr

“The mighty one pushed Śambara off the mountain for Atithigva, distributing the great prizes with might (...)”

Mismatch continued: Greek

(28) *dízēmai* 'seek sth.' : ptcp. *dizēmenos* 'seeking', Od.1.261-2:

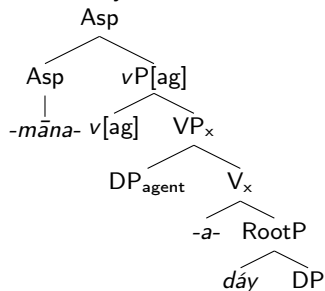
óikheto gàr kai keĩse thoês epì nēòs Odusseùs
 go.3sg.ipf part and there swift.gen on ship.gen Ulysses.nom
phármakon androphónon dízē-menos
 poison.acc man.slaying.acc seeking-**NAct**.ptcp.pres.nom

'And then Ulysses went into his swift ship, seeking (some) man-slaying poison.'

Nominalizer above vP

Structure for Vedic/Greek deponent participles (participial suffix spells out Asp if there is no verb movement to T, cf. Embick 2000, Bjorkman 2011):

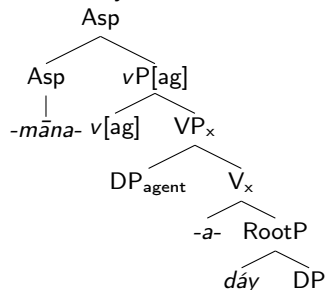
(29) Vedic: *dáy-a-māna-* 'distributing'



Nominalizer above vP

Structure for Vedic/Greek deponent participles (participial suffix spells out Asp if there is no verb movement to T, cf. Embick 2000, Bjorkman 2011):

(29) Vedic: *dáy-a-māna-* 'distributing'



Spell-Out rules for Vedic participles:

- (30) a. Asp \leftrightarrow *-(m)āna-/ _ v[ag] [-ext.arg]*
 b. Asp \leftrightarrow *-ant-* : elsewhere

Mismatch suspended? Latin

Latin deponents use the same morphology as non-deponents in some non-finite contexts. The mismatch appears to be suspended. Example: Lat. **present** participles in *-nt-* found both with deponent and with formally active verbs:

(31) Latin non-finite forms

	Present			Perfect	
	Pres.act.	Pres.pass.	Pres.ptcp.	Perf.act.	Perf.pass.
Altern.	<i>am-ō</i> 'I love'	<i>am-or</i> 'I am loved'	<i>ama-nt-</i> 'loving'	<i>am-āv-ī</i> 'I have loved'	<i>amātus sum</i> 'I was loved'
Dep.		<i>sequ-or</i> 'I follow'	<i>seque-nt-</i> 'following'		<i>secūtus sum</i> 'I have followed'

Latin

... but the **perfect** participles of deponents continue the mismatch behavior:

(32) *sequor* ‘follow’, perf.ptcp. *secūtus*: Livy, *Ab urbe condita* 4.20.5:

omnes ante me **auctores** **secu-tus** ...
all.acc before me authors.acc followed-**NAct**.perf.ptcp.nom

“Having followed all authors before me ...” (not: “having been followed”)

Latin

... but the **perfect** participles of deponents continue the mismatch behavior:

(32) *sequor* ‘follow’, perf.ptcp. *secūtus*: Livy, *Ab urbe condita* 4.20.5:

omnes ante me **auctores** **secu-tus** ...
all.acc before me authors.acc followed-**NAct**.perf.ptcp.nom

“Having followed all authors before me ...” (not: “having been followed”)

- The Latin present “active” participle cannot be used as evidence that deponency is generally suspended in non-finite contexts

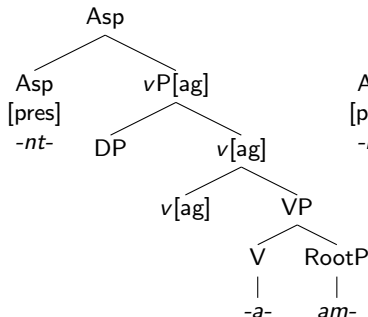
Latin

Additional assumption for Latin *-nt-*: not sensitive to whether or not $v[ag]$ has a specifier:

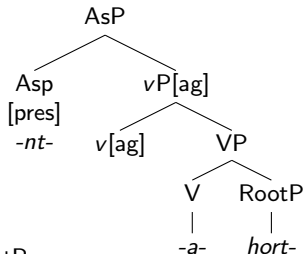
(33) $Asp \leftrightarrow -nt-/[pres]$

Syncretism: in the context of $Asp[pres]$, the nominalizer is always spelled out as *-nt-* (cp. Embick 2000: 218)

(34) a. Non-deponent: *ama-nt-*



b. Deponent: *horta-nt-*



Latin

Embick (2000): *-nt-* and *-tus* are allomorphs of Asp; *-tus* = underspecified for Voice and Asp:

- (35)
- a. *-nt-* \leftrightarrow Asp[pres]
 - b. *-t[us]-* (/ *-s-*) \leftrightarrow elsewhere

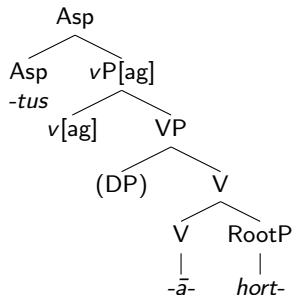
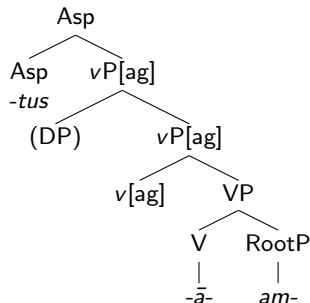
Latin

Embick (2000): *-nt-* and *-tus* are allomorphs of Asp; *-tus* = underspecified for Voice and Asp:

- (35) a. *-nt-* \leftrightarrow Asp[pres]
 b. *-t[us]-* (/ *-s-*) \leftrightarrow elsewhere

Structure of non-deponent and deponent *tus*-participles:

- (36) a. *am-ā-tus* 'loved' b. deponent *hort-ā-tus* 'exhorted'



Summary

- (37) Generalization: If a nominalizer in a given language attaches above $\nu P([ag])$, deponent behavior is preserved in the nominalization. If a nominalizer attaches below $\nu P([ag])$, deponent behavior is suspended in the nominalization.

Summary

- (37) Generalization: If a nominalizer in a given language attaches above $\nu P([ag])$, deponent behavior is preserved in the nominalization. If a nominalizer attaches below $\nu P([ag])$, deponent behavior is suspended in the nominalization.
- (38) Morphosyntax of deponent participles in “Greek-type voice systems”:

syntax	includes νP	no νP
act.	Gk. <i>-menos</i> , Ved. <i>-(m)āna-</i> , Lat. <i>-nt-/-tus</i>	
pass.		Gk. <i>-tos</i> , Ved. <i>-tá-</i> , Hitt. <i>-ant-</i>

Does this analysis also make the right predictions for a live language with the same voice system, like Modern Greek?

Summary

- (37) Generalization: If a nominalizer in a given language attaches above $vP([ag])$, deponent behavior is preserved in the nominalization. If a nominalizer attaches below $vP([ag])$, deponent behavior is suspended in the nominalization.
- (38) Morphosyntax of deponent participles in “Greek-type voice systems”:

syntax	includes vP	no vP
act.	Gk. <i>-menos</i> , Ved. <i>-(m)āna-</i> , Lat. <i>-nt-/-tus</i>	
pass.		Gk. <i>-tos</i> , Ved. <i>-tá-</i> , Hitt. <i>-ant-</i>

Does this analysis also make the right predictions for a live language with the same voice system, like Modern Greek?

- Yes! (see the Appendix)

Conclusion

Summary

- Deponency is a lexical property of certain roots/stems (no way around that)

Summary

- Deponency is a lexical property of certain roots/stems (no way around that)
- But it only surfaces in “verbal” environments (VP-vP must be included)

Summary

- Deponency is a lexical property of certain roots/stems (no way around that)
- But it only surfaces in “verbal” environments (VP-vP must be included)
- In combination with Anagnostopoulou’s analysis of Modern Greek participles, this proposal predicts the behavior of deponent participles, verbal adjectives and agent nouns in Vedic, Ancient Greek, Hittite, Latin, and Modern Greek

Summary

- Deponency is a lexical property of certain roots/stems (no way around that)
- But it only surfaces in “verbal” environments (VP-vP must be included)
- In combination with Anagnostopoulou’s analysis of Modern Greek participles, this proposal predicts the behavior of deponent participles, verbal adjectives and agent nouns in Vedic, Ancient Greek, Hittite, Latin, and Modern Greek
 - Additional assumption for Latin: syncretism in participial morphology, independent evidence

= deponency is constrained by *synchronic* principles of (Greek-type) voice morphology

Implications

- This approach predicts which kinds of predicates can potentially become deponents — deponency depends on argument structure, it is not random

Implications

- This approach predicts which kinds of predicates can potentially become deponents — deponency depends on argument structure, it is not random
 - Verbs that can potentially be “misanalyzed” as agentive: (oppositional) self-benefactives; experiencer verbs, speech verbs.

Implications

- This approach predicts which kinds of predicates can potentially become deponents — deponency depends on argument structure, it is not random
 - Verbs that can potentially be “misanalyzed” as agentive: (oppositional) self-benefactives; experiencer verbs, speech verbs.
- This explains the cross-linguistic correlations in deponent verb classes: only verbs with a certain argument structure can become deponents.

= deponency is *diachronically* constrained by possible reanalysis paths of (Greek-type) voice systems

(39) Deponents: verb class correlations in IE

Vedic	Hittite	Latin	AGreek	MG	Meaning
<i>trá̌yate</i>	<i>paḥšari</i>	<i>tueor</i>	<i>erúomai</i>		'protect'
<i>bá̌dhate</i>			<i>íptomai</i>	<i>epititheme</i>	'attack, be-set'
		<i>imitor</i>		<i>mimume</i>	'imitate'
		<i>ulcīscor</i>	<i>tínūmai</i>	<i>ekdikume</i>	'take revenge on, avenge'
<i>ráb̌hate, pá̌tyate</i>		<i>adipīscor, nancīscor</i>	<i>aínūmai, dékhomai</i>	<i>sfeterizome, karponome</i>	'take, appropriate'
		<i>comminīscor, māchinor</i>	<i>médomai</i>	<i>skarfizome</i>	'contrive, devise'
<i>ī̌tte, vá̌ndate</i>			<i>eúkhomai</i>		'praise'
		<i>ūtor</i>		<i>metahirizome, kapilevome</i>	'use'
<i>kṣá̌date</i>		<i>fungor</i>	<i>titúskomai</i>		'prepare, carry out'
	<i>ḥannari</i>	<i>perīclitor</i>	<i>aitiáomai, prokalízomai</i>		'challenge, contest, test'

Implications

- This analysis also explains why languages with a voice system like, e.g., English and French do not have deponents: deponency depends on voice syncretism
 - ... because voice syncretism generally allows acquirers to interpret non-active forms in different ways (anti-causative, reflexive, passive ...)

Implications

- This analysis also explains why languages with a voice system like, e.g., English and French do not have deponents: deponency depends on voice syncretism
 - ... because voice syncretism generally allows acquirers to interpret non-active forms in different ways (anti-causative, reflexive, passive ...)
- It predicts how deponency interacts with non-finiteness in participial formations and nominalizations

Implications

- This analysis also explains why languages with a voice system like, e.g., English and French do not have deponents: deponency depends on voice syncretism
 - ... because voice syncretism generally allows acquirers to interpret non-active forms in different ways (anti-causative, reflexive, passive ...)
- It predicts how deponency interacts with non-finiteness in participial formations and nominalizations
 - A diagnostic for the internal structure of participles in voice syncretism-languages

Thank you!

Acknowledgments

Many thanks to Elena Anagnostopoulou, Isabelle Charnavel, Hannes Fellner, Sabine Iatridou, Jay Jasanoff, Craig Melchert, Despina Oikonomou, Jeremy Rau, Michael Weiss and the Concordia linguistics faculty and students for comments and criticism.

Appendix

Media tantum

Sanskrit grammarians distinguish between three types of verb classes w.r.t. voice morphology:

- *ubhayapadin*-verbs (U): can take both active and middle endings (*ubháya*- 'both'), = *alternating verbs*, e.g., *vṛdh* 'grow', *kṛ* 'make', *bhṛ* 'carry'.
- *parasmaipadin*-verbs (P): *activa tantum* (*parasmai* 'for somebody else'), e.g., *as* 'be', *ay* 'go', *ad* 'eat'.
- *ātmanepadin*-verbs (Ā): *media tantum* (*ātmāne* 'for oneself'), e.g., *āste* 'sits', *śāye* 'lies', *bádhate* 'fends off'

(40) Sanskrit P-, Ā-, and U-verbs, ca. 500 BCE (*Dhātupaṭha* of Pāṇini and Candra, from Liebich 1922)

	# of roots	%
P	1,038	51.9
Ā	485	24.9
U	478	23.9
Total	2,001	100

Media tantum

- Zombolou and Alexiadou 2014: 1,348 verbs out of approx. 5,500 verbs in Modern Greek are “deponent” (= take only middle endings”), = ca. 20%
 - Reflexive & reciprocals: 33% (*aftoeksipiretume* ‘serve oneself’, *adelfoskotonome* ‘brother-kill each other’, ...)
 - anticausatives/inchoatives: 19% (*ekrignime* ‘explode’, *enilikionome* ‘become an adult’...)
 - cognitive verbs: 13% (*fovame* ‘fear’, *esthanome* ‘feel’ ...)
 - unaccusatives: 9% (*erhome* ‘come’ ..)
 - passives: 8% (*iliokeome* ‘be burnt by the sun’)
 - statives: 7% (*ironevome* ‘be ironic’, *tsigunevome* ‘be stingy’ ...)
 - **active-like** (= agentive): 11%, e.g., *metahirizome* ‘use’, *ekmetalevome* ‘exploit’ ...

→ Non-alternating canonical media tantum are a stable feature of syncretic voice systems

- Not clear which arguments were “suppressed” in, e.g., Ved. *śáye* ‘lies’, MG *erhome* ‘comes’, *esthanome* ‘feel’, etc.

Passivization

Generalization: Deponents can passivize if passive morphology that is distinct from the morphology triggering the mismatch is available.

Vedic: bivalent system, but a distinct passive suffix is available in the present stem, (41-c).

(41) a. Present active:

bhár-a-ti

carry-V-3sg.nonpast.**act**

“carries sth.”

b. Present middle:

bhár-a-te

carry-V-3sg.nonpast.**NAct**

“carries oneself/for one’s own benefit/*is being carried”

c. Present passive:

bhri-yá-te

carry-pass-3sg.nonpast.**NAct**

“is being carried”

Passivization

Deponent verbs show that it is the suffix *-yá-* that passivizes, and not the middle morphology. Deponents behave like active transitive verbs in being able to form a *yá*-passive in their imperfective stem.

(42) Vedic deponent passives

Root	Deponent	Passive
<i>īḍ</i>	<i>īṭ-te</i> 'praises'	<i>īḍ-yá-te</i> 'is being praised'
	praise-3sg.nonpast. NAct	praise-pass-3sg.nonpast. NAct
<i>idh</i>	<i>ind-dhé</i> 'kindles'	<i>idh-yá-te</i> 'is being kindled'
	kindle-3sg.nonpast. NAct	kindle-pass-3sg.nonpast. NAct
<i>rabh</i>	<i>rábha-te</i> 'seizes'	<i>rabh-yá-te</i> 'is being seized'
	seize-3sg.nonpast. NAct	seize-pass-3sg.nonpast. NAct

Passivization: Greek

- Greek: bivalent system, but the aorist stem forming suffix **-thē-** develops into a passive marker in (post-Homeric) Greek
- Deponents make passive aorists using this suffix:

(43) Deponent *dōréomai* 'give, endow with', Herodotus, *Histories* 8.85.3:

Phúlakos	dè	euergetēs	basiléos
Phulakos.nom	part	benefactor.nom	king.gen
an-e-gráph-ē		kai	khōrēi
down-past-write-3sg.aor.pass	and	land.dat	past-endow-3sg.aor. pass
pollēi			
much.dat			

"Phulakos was recorded as benefactor of the king and endowed with much land."

→ deponent passive *edōrēthē* 'was endowed' : non-deponent passive *anegráphē* 'was recorded'

Modern Greek

Deponent participles, both in *-tos* and in *-menos*, behave like the participles of non-deponent transitive verbs. *-tos* occurs in negated participles of deponent and non-deponent verbs (ex. from Papangeli and Lavidas 2009: 201):

- (44) a. Non-deponent *pleno* 'wash':
 pli-menos — a-pli-tos
 washed unwashed
- b. Deponent *metahirizome* 'use':
 metahiris-menos — a-metahirist-tos
 used unused

Behavior of *-tos* = expected given Anagnostopoulou's analysis.

Modern Greek

(Potential) Problem: *menos*-participles of deponents are passive.

(45) Non-deponent *grafo* 'write':

- a. To gramma ine grammeno
The letter.nom is written
"The letter is written"
- b. To grammeno gramma
The written letter

(46) Deponent *metahirizome* 'use':

- a. To lexiko ine metahirismeno
The dictionary.nom is used
"The dictionary is used"
- b. To metahirismeno lexiko
The used dictionary

Anagnostopoulou 2003: some *menos*-participles contain Voice; the mismatch should surface.

Modern Greek

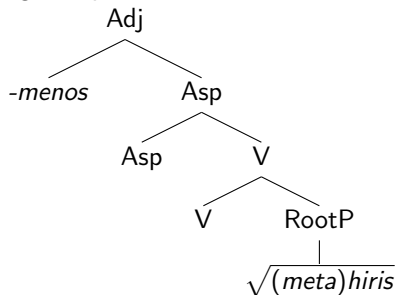
Anagnostopoulou 2003: *target state* participles in *-menos* do not contain Voice and are incompatible with agentive *by*-phrases and agent-oriented adverbs, but can be used with *parameno* ‘remain’ and *fenome* ‘appear’. These diagnostics hold for deponent participles.

- (47)
- a. To lexiko fenete metahirismeno
the dictionary appears used
‘The dictionary seems used’
 - b. ? O ergatis paramene ekmatalevmenos
the worker remains exploited
‘the worker remains exploited’

Acceptability seems to depend on whether speakers use *-menos* with non-productive verbs

Structure of *-menos*

(48) Based on Anagnostopoulou 2003:



→ The mismatch is not expected to surface in target state participles:
menos-participles to deponents are syntactically *passive*

References I

- Alexiadou, Artemis. 2013. Where is non-active morphology? In *Proceedings of the 20th International Conference on Head-Driven Phrase Structure Grammar*, ed. S. Müller, 244–62. CSLI publications.
- Alexiadou, Artemis, and Elena Anagnostopoulou. 2004. Voice morphology in the causative-inchoative alternation: evidence for a non-unified structural analysis of unaccusatives. In *The Unaccusativity Puzzle*, ed. A. Alexiadou, E. Anagnostopoulou, and M. Everaert, 114–36. Oxford University Press.
- Alexiadou, Artemis, and Elena Anagnostopoulou. 2008. Structuring participles. In *Proceedings of the 26th West Coast Conference on Formal Linguistics*, ed. Ch. B. Chang and H. J. Haynie, 33–41. Somerville, MA: Cascadilla.
- Alexiadou, Artemis, and Edit Doron. 2012. The syntactic construction of two non-active voices: passive and middle. *Journal of Linguistics* 48:1–34.
- Allan, Rutger J. 2003. *The Middle Voice in Ancient Greek*. Amsterdam: Gieben.
- Anagnostopoulou, Elena. 2003. Participles and voice. In *Perfect Explorations*, ed. A. Alexiadou, M. Rathert, and A. von Stechow, 1–36. Berlin/New York: Mouton de Gruyter.
- Baker, Mark, and Nadya Vinokurova. 2009. On agent nominalizations and why they are not like event nominalizations. *Language* 85/3:517–556.

References II

- Bakker, Egbert. 1994. Voice, aspect and Aktionsart: middle and passive in Ancient Greek. In *Voice: Form and Function*, ed. B. Fox and P. Hopper, 23–47. Amsterdam: John Benjamins.
- Bjorkman, Bronwyn. 2011. BE-ing Default: The Morphosyntax of Auxiliaries. Doctoral Dissertation, MIT.
- Bosse, Solveig, Benjamin Bruening, and Masahiro Yamada. 2012. Affected experiencers. *Natural Language and Linguistic Theory* 30:1185–230.
- Bruening, Benjamin. 2013. By-phrases in passives and nominals. *Syntax* 16/1:1–41.
- Chomsky, Noam. 2001. Derivation by phase. In *Ken Hale: a Life in Language*, ed. M. Kenstowicz, 1–52. Cambridge, MA: MIT Press.
- Embick, David. 1997. Voice and the Interfaces of Syntax. Doctoral Dissertation, University of Pennsylvania.
- Embick, David. 1998. Voice systems and the syntax/morphology interface. In *Papers from the UPenn/MIT Roundtable on Argument Structure and Aspect*, ed. H. Harley, 41–72. MIT Working Papers in Linguistics 32.
- Embick, David. 2000. Features, syntax, and categories in the Latin perfect. *Linguistic Inquiry* 31/2:185–230.

References III

- Embick, David. 2004. Unaccusative syntax and verbal alternations. In *The Unaccusativity Puzzle*, ed. A. Alexiadou, E. Anagnostopoulou, and M. Everaert, 137–58. Oxford University Press.
- Gonda, Jan. 1979. *The Medium in the R̥gveda*. Leiden: Brill.
- Grestenberger, Laura. 2014. Feature Mismatch: Deponency in Indo-European. Doctoral Dissertation, Harvard University.
- Grestenberger, Laura. 2015. Participles and voice mismatches: deponency in non-finite contexts. Forthcoming.
- Harley, Heidi. 2005. How do verbs get their names? Denominal verbs, manner incorporation, and the ontology of verb roots in English. In *The Syntax of Aspect: Deriving Thematic and Aspectual Interpretation*, ed. N. Erteschik-Shir and T. Rapoport, 42–64. Oxford University Press.
- Harley, Heidi. 2013. External arguments and the Mirror Principle: on the distinctness of Voice and v. *Lingua* 125/1:34–57.
- Jamison, Stephanie W., and Joel P. Brereton. 2014. *The R̥gveda: The Earliest Religious Poetry of India, vol. I-III*. Oxford University Press.
- Kallulli, Dalina. 2006. Argument demotion as feature suppression. In *Demoting the Agent: Passive, Middle and Other Voice Phenomena*, ed. B. Lyngfelt and T. Solstad, 143–66. Amsterdam/Philadelphia: John Benjamins.

References IV

- Kallulli, Dalina. 2007. Rethinking the passive/anticausative distinction. *Linguistic Inquiry* 38/4:770–80.
- Kallulli, Dalina. 2013. (Non-)canonical passives and reflexives: deponents and their like. In *Non-Canonical Passives*, ed. A. Alexiadou and F. Schäfer, 337–58. Amsterdam/Philadelphia: John Benjamins.
- Kaufmann, Ingrid. 2007. Middle voice. *Lingua* 117:1677–714.
- Kemmer, Suzanne. 1993. *The Middle Voice*. Amsterdam: John Benjamins.
- Klaiman, Miriam H. 1991. *Grammatical Voice*. Cambridge University Press.
- Kratzer, Angelika. 1996. Severing the external argument from its verb. In *Phrase Structure and the Lexicon*, ed. J. Rooryck and L. Zaring, 109–37. Dordrecht: Kluwer.
- Lavidas, Nikolaos. 2009. *Transitivity alternations in diachrony: Changes in argument structure and voice morphology*. Cambridge Scholars Publishing.
- Lavidas, Nikolaos, and Dimitra Papangeli. 2007. Deponency in the diachrony of Greek. In *Deponency and Feature Mismatches*, ed. M. Baerman, G. G. Corbett, D. Brown, and A. Hippisley, 97–126. Oxford University Press.
- Liebich, Bruno. 1922. *Materialien zum Dhātupāṭha*. Sitzungsberichte der Heidelberger Akademie der Wissenschaften 1921/7. Heidelberg: Universitätsverlag Winter.
- Oikonomou, Despina. 2014. In the middle of passive: middle voice in Modern Greek vs. passive voice in English. Ms., MIT.

References V

- Papangeli, Dimitra, and Nikolaos Lavidas. 2009. Deponents and non-finite constructions in Greek. In *Proceedings of the 2007 Workshop in Greek Syntax and Semantics at MIT*, ed. C. Halpert, J. Hartman, and D. Hill, MIT Working Papers in Linguistics 57, 197–211.
- Pesetsky, David. 2009. Passive, deponency, and tense: comments on the paper by Papangeli and Lavidas. In *Proceedings of the 2007 Workshop in Greek Syntax and Semantics at MIT*, ed. C. Halpert, J. Hartman, and D. Hill, 213–19. MIT Working Papers in Linguistics 57.
- Pylkkänen, Liina. 2008. *Introducing Arguments*. Cambridge, Mass.: MIT press.
- Zombolou, Katerina. 2004. Verbal alternations in Greek: a semantic analysis. Doctoral Dissertation, University of Reading.
- Zombolou, Katerina. 2015. 'Special' verbal classes: Parallels between Greek deponents and German inherent reflexives. Paper presented at the 22nd International Conference on Historical Linguistics, Naples, 27–31 July 2015.
- Zombolou, Katerina, and Artemis Alexiadou. 2014. The canonical function of the deponent verbs in Modern Greek. In *Morphology and Meaning. Selected Papers from the 15th International Morphology Meeting, Vienna, February 2012*, ed. F. Rainer, F. Gardani, H. C. Luschützky, and W. U. Dressler, 331–44.