Complements, adjuncts and predicator are the three main elements of the clause structure. This paper primarily aims at presenting a general classification of clause structure in Persian. In this context, transitive and intransitive structures in Modern Persian are also analyzed. In this research, five canonical Persian constructions are identified based on Valency and transitivity. The paper also discusses the ways in which complements and adjuncts are distinguished from each other.

Since the study is oriented towards comparison with English, similarities and differences between the two languages are also discussed. In both languages the basic functions of the clause are the same. However, Persian contains five canonical structures whereas as English has just four of them. While in both languages the subject is the first element of the clause, the order of the elements is different in the two languages. In canonical structures in Persian, the predicator is always the final element of the clause, while in English it always fills the second position.

In the context of valency, both languages have the same functions. Intransitive clauses are either monovalent or bivalent. Monotransitive clauses are either bivalent or trivalent. English intransitive clauses are always trivalent.

Complements in the two languages are distinguished by factors such as licensing, obligator ness, category and prepositional phrase. These factors are applicable in distinguishing complements from adjuncts.

**Key words:** Complements, adjuncts, predicator, clause structure

1. **Introduction**

Many Persian learners of English face different technical problems. Syntactic Differences between Persian and English form a significant part of such Difficulties. Following Huddleston and Pullum(2002), this paper outlines Elements of the clause structure in Persian: complements, adjuncts and the Predicator.

In the context of transitivity, concepts such as dual-transitive, monoTransitive, di-transitive, complex intransitive and complex-transitive are analyzed.
In Persian, using different types of complement in combination with transitivity, we identify five canonical Persian clause constructions. We also present a general classification of clause structure in Persian, based on valency and transitivity. Classification of clause structure in Persian, based on valency and we identify five canonical Persian clause constructions. We also present a General classification of clause structure in Persian, based on valency and Transitivity.

The ways in which one can distinguish complements from adjuncts in Persian makes an important part of this paper. Since this study is oriented towards comparison with English, we will outline similarities and differences Between Persian and English in terms of the above key concepts.

We hope that professional teachers of English to Persian speakers and Teachers of Persian to English speakers benefit from the outcome of this paper.

2. Literature review

In discussing clause elements, Quirk et al (1985: 60) divide the elements of Clause structure into two categories: 'phrases' and 'subordinate clauses'. The former include VPs, NPs, AdjPs, AdvPs and PPs. They represent clause elements in the following diagram. The broken arrows on the right indicate that the adverb phrases and prepositional phrases can exceptionally function as subjects, and that prepositional phrases can' function as complements.

Subject  verb  object  Complement  Adverbial  (subject)

In the context of functions and categories of sentence elements including predicator, complements and adjuncts. Wekker and Aarts (1987: 76) say: "Once we have established what the constituents of a Sentence is, we must specify what functions these constituents have and to what grammatical categories they belong". In sentence structure, they think of Functions as slots which we can fill by a certain range of linguistic structures.

They are of the opinion that in every language there are typical sentence patterns. They also divide the functions into 'obligatory' and 'optional'. Huddleston (1988: 49-67) goes into details of the structure of the kernel Clauses. In the first instance he divides the clause into subject and predicate. According to him, the predicate represents the function of a constituent, are dependents of the predicator which is the head of the predicate? Complements include subject, object, PCs and PCo. Van Valin and LaPolla (1997:242) write:

"Grammatical relations are a part of traditional grammar. They are important because if one thinks pretheoretically, or as pretheoretically as one can, it is obvious that there are a lot of syntactic phenomena that relate to grammatical relations."

Radford (1997:508) defines the concept function as:
Expressions such as subject, specifier, complement, object, head and adjunct are said to denote the grammatical function which a particular expression fulfils in a particular structure (which in turn relates to the position which it occupies and certain of its morphological properties - e.g. case and agreement properties).

Finch (2000: 88) regards the clause as "a term used in some grammars to refer to a grammatical unit intermediate between PHRASE and SENTENCE". According to him, "the distinctive feature of clauses is that they have subject Predicate structure." He mentions 'subject', 'predicate', 'object', complement and 'adjunct' as the 'elements of the clause. He uses the acronym SPOCA for the elements. In the context of grammatical relations, Akmajian et al (2001: 181), define some elements of the clause structure, including subject and object in English. Structurally, they regard the subject of a sentence as the NP immediately Dominated by S which appears before (Aux) VP. Similarly, they define the object as the NP immediately dominated by VP.

Background

The field of second language research (very broadly speaking) is divided into three stages of development, roughly equitable with the 1960s, the 1970s and the 1980s, respectively. The 1960s and the flourishing period of behaviorists' habit-formation psychology and structural linguistics to the problems of foreign language teaching techniques and material; an objective model, which viewed teaching as doing and mastery of habits and actions. It was supported and informed by process-product research (a positivist view of research) towards learning difficulties. In this period, the results of linguistic and contrastive analysis research were directly applied to the field of second language teaching.

The 1970s and the abandonment of the 1960s' framework, the rebirth of cognitive psychology and upsurge of generative linguistics viewed teaching as thinking and doing combined; a cognitive model. This period was a beginning of the rift between the applied and theoretical aims of researchers in this area which saw the learner as an autonomous creator of language systems who was involved in a complex process of decision-making. This view was supported by teacher-cognition research. According to Stern (1983), second language learning as a psychological research problem was discovered at most with suddenness by several applied linguists and psycholinguists as an important and uncharted area of investigation. The upsurge of research and theorizing between 1972 and 1978 or thereabouts on the psychology of second language learning was astonishing to anyone who had been aware of the lack of proper second language learning research in the preceding decades.

The 1980s onward saw an attempt to refine current models of language learning and seek closer links between second language research and other theoretical disciplines, especially linguistics. This era mostly views teaching as knowing what to do; i.e., an interpretivist view and the teacher is viewed as an insider researcher. This period is associated with and informed by expertise research. Hereafter the debates on the relationship between research and practice, concerning the application of SLA research results to language pedagogy emerged.

3. Elements of the clause structure
In Persian, as in English, there are three basic functions in the clause: complements, adjuncts and the predicator.

\[ (1) \]

\[
\begin{array}{cccccc}
\text{ali} & \text{har rUZ} & \text{do saat} & \text{dar xane} & \text{ketab} & \text{mi-xan-ad} \\
\text{Ali} & \text{everyday} & \text{two hour} & \text{in house} & \text{book} & \text{impfr-read.nps-3s} \\
\text{Ali} & \text{everyday} & \text{books} & \text{at home} & \text{two hours} & \text{every day}.
\end{array}
\]

The most central function in the clause is the predicator. Complements are related more closely to the verb than adjuncts. One can differentiate Adjuncts on semantic grounds. \text{har rUZ, do sâ ât,} and \text{dar xane} are adjuncts of frequency, time period and location respectively.

In Persian, as in English, complements are classified as core and noneCore, which appear in the forms of NPs and PPs respectively. In the following \text{payâm} and \text{name râ} are core complements while \text{be maryam} is a noncore one:

\[ (2) \]

\[
\begin{array}{ccc}
C & C & C \\
\text{payâm} & \text{name râ} & \text{be maryam} \\
\text{Payam} & \text{lette! Comp/to Maryam} & \text{give.ps-3sg}
\end{array}
\]

Payam gave the letter to Maryam

NPs that function as core complements are directly related to the verb, but Those that function within PPs are only indirectly related to the verb. The NP \text{maryam} which is governed by a preposition is traditionally referred to as oblique. The preposition \text{be} 'to' in \text{be maryam} identifies the semantic role of \text{maryam} with regard to the verb.

In English whether a complement is core or non-core depends on the type of the category (NP vs PP) and not its position in the clause. In the following,

\text{Alice} is a core complement in (i) and \text{to Alice} a non-core one in (ii)

\[ (3) \]

a. \text{Kim gave Alice the letter} \\
b. \text{Kim gave the letter to Alice}

Similarly, in Persian the deciding factor for a complement to be core or non Core is its category rather than its position. A core complement has the form of An NP and non-core one has the form of a PP, no matter in what position of the clause they appear. Accordingly, in (4i-ii), \text{pul râ} is a core complement while \text{be Ali} is a non-core one. (4iii) is non-existent in Persian, because \text{ali} should have been preceded by the preposition \text{be} 'to'.

\[ 4i \]

\[
\begin{array}{c}
\text{Payâm/ be/ ali /pul/râ/ dâd- } \phi \\
\text{Payam/ to/ Ali /money /comp/ give.ps-3sg} \\
\text{Payam gave Ali the money/ Payam gave the money to Ali}
\end{array}
\]

\[ 4ii \]

\[
\begin{array}{c}
payâm/ pul/ râ /be/ ali/ dâd- \phi \\
\text{Payam/ money /comp/ to/ Ali /give.ps-3sg}
\end{array}
\]
Payam gave Ali the money/ Payam gave the money to Ali

iii * paymâ ali pul râ dâd φ
  *paâym pul râ ali dâd- φ

The unacceptable forms in (4iii) imply a significant difference between Persian and English. It's a common practice in English to have a canonical structure containing a intransitives verb with three NPs as core complements, as in (3i).

However, to express an equivalent clause in Persian, one is obliged to use twoNPs and one PP, as in (4i-ii). Following our theoretical framework within which a non-core complement (PP) does not appear as an object, we claim that there is no ditransitive clause/verb in Persian (at least in the sense used in English).

Among the complements, the subject is external to the VP, as payam in the above, while the other complements such as be ali and pul fa are internal to the VP. Unlike English, in Persian the subject mayor may not be absent, for the person/number ending is always attached to the verb:

5) man  âmad-am
   (i)   come.ps.1sg
        I  came

However, any canonical clause has a subject (external complement). However, based on the nature of the verb a clause mayor may not contain a direct object (internal object). Accordingly, clauses are classified as transitive and intransitive. A transitive verb takes an object, while an intransitive does not. A clause which contains a transitive verb is referred to as transitive; a clause which contains an intransitive verb is called intransitive:

s   P
(6) mâ / david-im
    We  run.ps-1 pi
    We  run

S   O   P
(7) anhâ / xâne.râ / sâxt-and
    They  house comp  build.ps-3pl
    They built the house
There are verbs which appear in two patterns: in transitive and intransitive Clauses. Such verbs are referred to as dual-transitive:

(8)livân    Šekast-ϕ
     Glass     break.ps-3sg
     The glass broke
(9)puyâ  livân râ    Šekast-ϕ
     Puya   glass comp  break.ps-3sg
Puya broke the glass

Some verbs appear in patterns which contain just a direct object, while others appear in patterns with a direct object and an indirect one. They are called monotransitives and ditransitives respectively:

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{S} & \quad \text{DO} \quad \text{P} \\
(10) \quad u / \text{name} / r\text{a/xand-o} \\
& \quad S/\text{he} / \text{letter} / \text{comp/read.ps-3sg} \\
& \quad S/\text{he} \text{ read the letter} \\
& \quad S/\text{ DO / Io /} \quad P \\
(11) \quad \text{man/ sib r\text{a} / be hasan/ d\text{ad-am}} \\
& \quad I/ \text{apple comp/ to Hasan/ give.ps-1sg} \\
& \quad I \text{ gave the apple to Hasan}
\end{align*}
\]

Some verbs appear in both mono-transitive and di-transitive clauses:

\[
\begin{align*}
(12) \quad \text{nim\text{a}/ haqiqat /r\text{a}/ goft-\text{\textphi}} \\
& \quad \text{Nima /truth /comp /say.ps-3sg} \\
& \quad \text{Nima told the truth} \\
(13) \quad \text{nim\text{a}/ haqiqat /r\text{a}/be /man/ goft-\text{\textphi}} \\
& \quad \text{Nima/truth/ comp /to/ I /say.ps-3sg} \\
& \quad \text{Nima told me the truth}
\end{align*}
\]

4. Complex-intransitive and complex-transitive

There are intransitive verbs which take a predicative complement, though such complements are more like predicatores than ordinary complements; In (14), for example, \(\text{bahu\text{\textphi}}\) 'sharp I is related to the subject, \text{Hamid}. Similarly, we have transitive verbs that take a predicative complement which assigns a feature to the direct object of the clause. Such verbs and clauses are referred to as use PCs for complex-intransitives and PCo for complex-transitive.

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{S} & \quad \text{PCs} \quad \text{P} \\
(14) \quad \text{hamid bahu\text{\textphi} ast-\text{\textphi}} \\
& \quad \text{Hamid sharp be.ps.3sg} \\
& \quad \text{Hamid is sharp} \\
\text{S} & \quad \text{DO} \quad \text{PCo} \quad \text{P} \\
(15) \quad \text{mehdi hamid r\text{a} \quad bahu\text{\textphi} pend\text{\textphi}t-\text{\textphi}} \\
& \quad \text{Mehdi Hamid camp sharp consider.ps-3sg}
\end{align*}
\]

Mehdi considered in both of the above, the PC is related to \text{Hamid}, though the latter is S in (14), and 0 in (15). So PCs and PCo indicate that the PC is subject-oriented in (14), and object-oriented in (15). Obliques can also be used as predicative complements:

\[
\begin{align*}
(16) \quad \text{man to \text{r\text{a} \quad be onv\text{\textphi}n-e modir \quad bargozid-am}}
\end{align*}
\]
I you camp as-link manager elect.ps.1sg
I. elected you as the manager

5. Canonical structures

What has been discussed up to this point can be summarized as follows:

(17) \begin{tabular}{ll}
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Intransitive</th>
<th>Monotransitive</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><em>Man dâvid-am</em></td>
<td><em>ânhâ ketâb râ xând-and</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mâ qâzî hast-im</td>
<td>mân u râ karim minim-am</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
\end{tabular}

The functional structures of the above Persian clauses are as follows:

(18) \begin{tabular}{ll}
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Intransitive</th>
<th>Monotransitive</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>S P</td>
<td>S O P</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7PCS P</td>
<td>O PCO P</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
\end{tabular}

One can compare the above structures to the English canonical structures, quoted from Huddleston and Pullum (2002:218):

(19) \begin{tabular}{ll}
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Intransitive</th>
<th>Monotransitive</th>
<th>Ditransitive</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>S P</td>
<td>S P O</td>
<td>S P O</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S PCO P</td>
<td>O PCO</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
\end{tabular}

As far as intransitive and monotransitive structures are concerned, both Languages contain the same elements, though they are not of the same order. While, in English, the predicator fills the second position in the clause, that in Persian is the final element of the clause. Unlike English, Persian does not contain a intransitive structure. This is because in Persian verbs like dâd-an 'give' are obligatorily take an NP and a PP (non-core complement). According to our theoretical framework, a PP cannot function as an object.

6. Valency

The above classification is based on the objects and Predicative complements. Yet, as Huddleston and Pullum (2002:218-9) note, we can have another Classification based on the number of complements which seems more general.

They refer to this as valency. According to this classification, a verb is monovalent if it takes just one complement. In the following, we present an outline of the two classifications:

(20) \begin{tabular}{lll}
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Transitivity</th>
<th>Valency</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(i) mehdi xâbid-ø</td>
<td>intransitive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(ii) in be pâsox to bastegi dâr-ad</td>
<td>intransitive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(iii) ali dâvar Šod-ø</td>
<td>intransitive(complex)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(iv) man nâmeh râ xând-am</td>
<td>monotransitive</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
\end{tabular}
The above forms are translated as follows:

(21)
(i) Mehdi slept
(ii) It depends on your response
(iii) Ali became a referee
(iv) I read the letter
(v) We bought the book for you
(vi) Reza named the child Ali

7. Complements VS Adjuncts

Huddleston and Pullum (2002:219) propose five factors which are applicable in distinguishing complements from adjuncts: (a) licensing, (b) obligatoriness, (c) anaphora, (d) category and (e) Prepositional phrases.

Licensing

Traditionally, the verb is regarded as the decisive element of the clause. This is mainly because it is the verb which determines the permissible complements:

(22)
(i) rezâ xâne râ sâxt-ø
Reza house comp build.ps-3sg Reza built the house
(ii) rezâ xâne râ rasid-ø
Reza house comp reach.ps-3sg
Reza built the house

But not:

(23)
I *reza xane ra rasid-e
Reza house comp reach.ps-3sg
Man u ra sekiba mi-pendar-am
I s/he comp patient impfv-consider.nps-1 sg
I consider him/her patient.

But not:

*man u ra sekiba mi-bar-am
I s/he comp patient impfv-take.nps-1sg

In (22i), the verb saxt licenses a direct object (xane ra), but in (22ii), rasid does not, though the English verb reach does. Again, in (23i), mi-pendar-am permits A direct object + PCo, but in (23ii) mi-bar-am does not. However, adjuncts such as emruz (today), zir-e miz (under the table), etc. are used with different types of verb.
Subcategorization is the term used to reflect the dependence between Complements and the verbs used with them. Accordingly, we classify verbs such as *raft-an* (to go) and *xord-an* (to eat) as intransitive and mono-transitive respectively. Some verbs may take different complementation patterns. A verb like *seda kard-an* (call) can be used in two patterns: in SOP as well as in S 0 PC P:

(24)

i  *man pesar ra seda mi-kon-am*
    I boy comp calling impfv-do.nps-1sg
    I call the boy

ii

*man pesar ra ali seda mi-kon-am*
I boy comp Ali call impfv-do.nps-1sg
I call the boy Ali

Indeed, in Persian we have verbs that are used in four different patterns: in mono-transitive pattern, complextransitive, di-transitive and in a pattern without any label: a PP + a clause as complements.

(25)

i  *Man an ketab ra mi-xah-am*
    I that book camp impfv-want.nps-1sg
    I want that book  
    [mono-transitive]

ii

*man an qatel ra zende mi-xah-am* [complex, transitive]
I that murderer camp alive impfv-want.nps-1sg
I want that murderer alive

iii

*man in xane ra baray-e to mi-xah-am* [di-transitive]
I this house camp for-link you impfv-want.nps-1 sg
I would like you to have this house

iv

*man az payam mi-xah-a ke ketab ra be-bar-ad*
I from Payam ask.nps-1sg that book camp nin-take.nps-3sg
I ask Payam to take the book

Two significant points need to be discussed in the context of forms like (iv): the choice of preposition and the choice of subordinate clause:

Choice of preposition

It is the verb which determines which preposition is permitted to be used with it. In the following pair, for example, the verb *goft-fJ* takes the preposition *be* but not *dar*:

(26) *hasan Matlab ra be reza goft-fJ*
Hasan matter camp to Reza say.ps-3sg Hasan told Reza the matter

But not:

(27) *hasan MatJab ra
    Hasan matter camp
    da, reza goft-fJ in Reza say.ps-3sg

Choice of subordinate clause

In any complex sentence, the verb of the main clause determines the type of the subordinate clause: declarative, imperative, interrogative, exclamative, finite, nonfinite, etc:

a  farid porsid ke/ hasan/ ce goft-Ø
    Farid ask.ps-3sg that /Hasan/what say.ps-3sg
    Farid asked what Hasan said

But not

b  *farid porsid-Ø ke hasan /bo-ro-Ø /xane!
    Farid ask.ps-3sg" that Hasan nin-go.nps-2sg home
    *Farid asked 'that Hasan go home!

Obligator

• In Persian, as in English, complements are sometimes obligatory, whereas adjuncts are always optional. The complement in (a) is obligatory because its absence will result in ungrammaticality of the clause, as in (b):

a  hamid ketab ra avard-Ø
    Hamid book comp bring.ps-3sg Hamid brought the book
    [Obligatory complement]

But not:

b  * hamid/aVard-Ø /
    Hamid bring.ps-3sg
    *Hamid brought

Conclusion

This piece of research reveals significant similarities as well as differences between Persian and English. In both languages the basic functions of the clause are complements, adjuncts and the predicator.
While English has five canonical structures, Persian has only four of them. In both languages, in canonical structures the subject is the first element of the clause.
However, the order of the other elements in the two languages is different. In canonical structures in Persian, the predicator is always the final element of the clause, while in English it always fills the second position.

The order of the elements in the two languages is shown in the following table. Unlike English, Persian is among pro-drop languages, so in non-canonical structures the subject is omissible. Moreover, Persian, unlike English, is so flexible in terms of word order of the clause. Unlike English where the indirect object may not preceded by a preposition, depending its position relative to the verb, in Persian the indirect object is always preceded by a preposition. As far as valency is concerned, both languages reveal the same behavior.

Intransitive clauses are either monovalent or bivalent. Mono-transitive clauses are either bivalent or trivalent. English di-transitive clauses are always trivalent. In both languages complements are distinguished by a number of factors: licensing, obligator ness, category and prepositional phrase. All these factors are successfully applicable in distinguishing complements from adjuncts.

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