1. Introduction

Event structure is generally defined as the formal characterization or representation of the different components of eventualities and the relations between components. Many studies have explored the components of event structure in terms of various aspects of eventualities such as incremental themes, homogeneity, causation, and change of state and have contributed to the development of an event structure theory. According to the editors of this book, Violeta Demonte and Louise McNally, a theory of event structure should answer the following questions (p. 1): (i) how our conceptualization of eventualities is encoded in language, (ii) what morphosyntactic and semantic notions and processes best characterize these different components, and (iii) what cross-linguistic variation exists in the possible structures and interpretations to describe eventualities.

Along this line, the papers of this book concentrate on the three key components of event structure—telicity, change, and stativity. The editors emphasize the importance of these components because they are closely connected with each other and are essential for an understanding of the linguistic description of eventualities.

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This book consists of twelve chapters divided into two parts. The editors begin Chapter 1 with an overview of the three components of event structure, summarize previous analyses from a cross-categorial perspective, and briefly summarize each paper in this book. Part I, consisting of four papers (Chapters 2–5), mainly addresses the foundational issues of telicity and change of state: Chapters 2–4 address the relation between the notion of incremental change and English telicity, and Chapter 5 deals with the representation of telicity in sign languages. Part II, consisting of seven papers (Chapters 6–12), presents the theoretical and empirical issues concerning telicity, change of state, and stativity, utilizing various cross-categorial data. Chapters 6–9 are concerned with the relation between verbal and non-verbal predicates. Chapters 10–11 consider typological and parametrical variations and explain the syntactic and semantic differences in resultative constructions among languages. Chapter 12 examines the contribution to the event structure of the functional and morphological categories of the Slavic languages. In this review, Sections 2 and 3 will summarize each of the papers in Parts I and II. Section 4 will highlight the book’s contributions to the study of event structure.

2. Part I: Foundational Aspect of Event Structure: Telicity, Change, and State: Chapters 2–5

Chapter 2, “Lexical Multiple Aspect and Incremental Themes,” written by John Beavers, investigates predicates with two incremental themes in a sentence, characterizing the calculation of this kind of homomorphism. Previous studies did not accurately capture the contrast between sentences (1a) and (1b) below.

(1)  
   a. The liter of wine flowed from the jug to the floor for/in five minutes.  
       (p. 34)  
   b. Wine flowed onto the floor for/??in five minutes.  
       (p. 35)  

Sentence (1a) is interpreted as telic, because the source and goal along the path specifies the locations associated with the absolute beginning and end of the path. Sentence (1b) is also expected to be telic, because the path is bounded, but the sentence is interpreted as atelic.

To account for this contrast, Beavers proposes that when a sentence has two incremental themes, the motion inherently has a three-place, mutually-constraining relation between figure $x$ and path $p$, and event $e$, called the figure/path relation (FPR) (p. 37). The figure and path correspond to the incremental theme and the participant’s trajectory along a path. FPR re-
stricts the interrelation of the figure and the path, and thereby explains the contrast between (1a) and (1b). In (1a), the volume of wine is quantized as the liter of wine, and the beginning and end of the path (from the jug to the floor) are specified. Thus, when all of the wine reaches the end of the path, the event ends, and the sentence is finally interpreted as telic. On the other hand, wine in (1b) is not quantized. Hence, even if wine reaches the floor, the event does not end, and the sentence is interpreted as atelic.

In Chapter 3, entitled “Another Look at Accomplishments and Incrementality,” Susan Rothstein ensures the validity of Vendler’s (1967) classifications of verbal predicates. Some previous studies have denied the class of accomplishments, and eat is treated as an activity verb. However, Rothstein argues that accomplishment and activity predicates should be distinguished, presenting evidence for the claim that eat differs inherently from an activity predicate. In English, even if an activity predicate takes a direct object, the sentence is interpreted as atelic (e.g. John drove a car for hours (p. 71)), and there are accomplishment predicates where a direct object is obligatory (e.g. #John repaired for hours (p. 71)).

Rothstein proposes that an accomplishment event consists of two simultaneous subevents: an activity event and an “incremental event” (p. 85). This incremental event (a BECOME event) imposes a structure on the activity via an incremental relation. Importantly, there are several possible sources for constructing the BECOME event, and accomplishment predicates are finally classified into three sub-groups. The first consists of “lexically specified accomplishments” (p. 87), whose subevent is homogeneous (e.g. read a book); the second of “prototypical accomplishments” (p. 88), which are heterogeneously constructed from a variety of subevents (e.g. build a house); the third of accomplishments involving a change of state, where the end point is an instantaneous change of state (e.g. open the window).

Chapter 4, “The Composition of Incremental Change” by Christopher Kennedy, explores the source of the change scale in incremental theme verbs. Krifka (1989, 1992) noted that the incremental theme argument which has a patient role establishes a homomorphic relation to the progress of the event denoted by the incremental theme verb, successfully explaining variable telicity in incremental theme verbs.

Based on his analysis, Kennedy proposes that a nominal encodes a measure function as part of its meaning with a degree argument, and that the nominal can undergo a type shift so that it can serve as measure of change function. Thus, the change scale in incremental theme verbs is attributed to the semantics of the nominal. For example, the basic meaning of dumpling
is represented as in (2).

\[ \text{[dumpling(s)]} = \lambda d \lambda x \lambda s. \text{dumplings}(x) \land \text{NU}(\text{dumplings})(x)(s) = d \]  

(p. 116)

\( \text{NU}(\text{dumplings}) \) is a measure function relevant to dumpling-units, whose scale depends on the value in the degree argument. When \( \text{dumpling(s)} \) has an incremental meaning, the measure function innate in \( \text{dumpling(s)} \) is changed into a measure of change function as in (3):

\[ \text{[dumpling(s) inc]} = \lambda d \lambda x \lambda e. \text{dumplings}(x) \land \text{NUA}(\text{dumplings})(x)(e) = d \]  

(p. 117)

\( \text{NUA}(\text{dumplings}) \) works as a measure of change function, and the value in the degree argument specifies the size of the scale. When the degree argument is saturated by a numeral such as 10, the event description is true of the events of eating dumplings to the extent that ten dumplings are eaten up, and \textit{eat ten dumplings} is interpreted as telic. When the degree argument is a bare plural, the event description is true of any event of eating dumplings. Thus, \textit{eat dumplings} is interpreted as atelic.

Chapter 5, “Telicity Expression in the Visual Modality” by Evie Malaia and Ronnie B. Wilbur, considers the telicity of sign languages. The authors compare American Sign Language (ASL) with Croatian Sign Language (Hrvatski Znakovi Jezik, HZJ), demonstrating the kinematic correlation of event structures between the two. The telicity in ASL can be encoded at the lexical level by different verb roots. When verb signs express grammatical aspect, the morphological changes can be found.

In contrast, the telicity in HZJ can be encoded at the grammatical level. In most of HZJ verb signs, event structure and viewpoint aspect are conflated into the same morpheme. Thus the two groups of verb signs are generated from the same verb root: atelic and imperfective forms on one hand, and telic and perfective forms on the other. To show the differences in telicity between these sign languages, the authors conducted motion-capture recordings using four tests on adverbials.

The same result is seen in both ASL and HZJ, the final verb signs denoting telic events are marked with rapid deceleration following peak velocity within the sign (higher peak velocity) compared with verb signs denoting atelic events. The study showed that the event structures of sign languages are reflected in the kinematics of hand motions. The study also recognized the necessity of ascertaining the relation between non-linguistic perceptual skills, such as event segmentation, and linguistic communication.
3. Part II: Event Structure in a Cross-Categorial Perspective: Chapters 6–12

Chapter 6, “The Monotonicity Hypothesis” by Andrew Koontz-Garboden, explores the derivation involved in causative-inchoative alternations, assuming that productive word formation operations are semantically compositional. Koontz-Garboden proposes that word formation operations do not remove operators from lexical semantic representations—the monotonicity hypothesis (MH) and also tries to explain the existence of two kinds of states—resultant states, which entail an event specifying a state as a result of the action denoted by the word, and property concept states, which do not entail such an event.

MH can predict the possible derivations between words naming these two states and words naming changes of state. The decompositional representations of red, redden, and reddened are represented in (4a–c) respectively:

(4)  a. \(\lambda x \lambda s[\text{red}(s) \land \text{THEME}(s, x)]\)
    b. \(\lambda x \lambda s \lambda e[\text{BECOME}(e, s) \land \text{red}(s) \land \text{THEME}(s, x)]\)
    c. \(\lambda x \lambda s \exists e[\text{BECOME}(e, s) \land \text{red}(s) \land \text{THEME}(s, x)]\) (p. 152)

Red, a property concept, is derived from neither redden nor reddened. If red were derived from these words, the BECOME operator would be deleted from the decompositional representations in (4b, c), which violates MH. In contrast, reddened, a resultant state, is derived from either red or redden, because it contains both the meanings of red and redden. Analysis following MH is in line with the standard concept of monotonicity: when the resultant states are compositionally derived from verbs of temporal changes, they inherit the lexical meaning of their corresponding verbs, and they have event implications.

Chapter 7, “From Psych Verbs to Nouns” by Antonio Fábregas, Rafael Marin, and Louise McNally, examines the possible range of nominalization involved in Spanish psych verbs, in connection with the aspectual properties of psych verbs.

The authors present arguments for deriving psych nominalizations from “a partially underspecified verbal stem that is not combined with the morpheme se” (p. 174). Spanish psych verbs are classified into three groups according to their aspectual preservation: (i) verbs that are nonstative both in the se and the non-se forms, (ii) verbs that are non-stative in the se form but stative in the non-se form, and (iii) verbs that are stative in both forms. Concerning the correlation between this aspectual preservation and nominal derivation in Spanish psych verbs, the authors propose that only
stative verbal bases generate derived psych nouns (p. 182). This generalization holds true in the derivation of the psych noun from its underlying verb, which agrees with the aspectual preservation hypothesis (APH). The verbs in class (i) cannot have derived nouns due to lack of stativity, whereas the verbs in class (ii) have a stative non-*se* form, creating derived psych nouns (e.g. *indignación* ‘indignation’). The verbs in class (iii) are also predicted naturally to derive psych nouns (e.g. *preocuparse* ‘worry’).

Chapter 8, “Passive States” by Berit Gehrke, discusses the formation of adjectival passives (BE-passives) in German, consisting of a copular verb and an adjective with the past participle. Although BE-passives denote a state, event-related modifiers can occur in some cases of BE-passives, as shown in (5).

(5) a. Der Brief ist mit roter Tinte geshchieben.
   the letter is with red ink written
   ‘The letter is written with this red ink.’

b. Das Haar war schlampig gekämmt.
   the hair was sloppily combed
   ‘The hair was combed in a sloppy manner.’ (p. 186)

Kratzer (1994, 2000) assumes that a VP with modifiers like ‘with this ink’ and ‘in a sloppy manner’ can also be the base form of adjectivization, which suggests the possibility of the phrasal adjectivization of VP, as well as lexical adjectivization. Following this analysis, Gehrke assumes that the stative property has to be recovered from the event structure licensed by the underlying verb.

Gehrke proposes that BE-passives are used to refer to the instantiation of a consequent kind of event, and that only verbs that lexically specify a consequent state derive BE-passives. This predicts that either accomplishment verbs or achievement verbs can occur in BE-passives, as shown in (6).

(6) a. Die Reifen sind aufgepumpt. ‘The tires are inflated.’ (p. 185)

b. Die Tür ist geschlossen. ‘The door is closed.’ (p. 187)

Gehrke divides event-modifiers which can occur in BE-passives into two types—the state token, modifying “the (consequent) state directly” (p. 190) as in (7a), and the event kind, modifying “event participants who affect the outcome of the event in a more direct way” (p. 190) as in (7b).

(7) a. Er ist von der Musik beeindruckt.
   ‘He is impressed by the music.’ (p. 190)

b. Der Brief war mit einem Bleistift geschrieben.
   ‘The letter was written with a pencil.’ (p. 190)

The event with an event kind modifier is taken as either a new event kind
or a sub-kind out of the event associated with an underlying verb. For example, the modifier in (7b) is a particular sub-kind of the event in question—writing with pencils. This leads to the restriction on modifiers that the event of an underlying verb in BE-passives cannot be temporally or spatially modified. We can confirm this by the following three tests. First, a modifier such as geöffnet ‘recently’ cannot refer to the underlying event, but the resultant state (e.g. Die Tür war kürzlich geöffnet ‘The door was opened recently’ (p. 191)). Second, only temporal frame adverbials are permitted in BE-passives (e.g. Der Coputer ist seit drei Tagen repariert ‘The computer has been repaired for three days’ (p. 191)). Finally, a spatial adverbial specifying the location of the event cannot have a modification relation with the event in BE-passives (e.g. #Die Reifen sind in der Garage aufgepumpt ‘The tires are inflated in the garage’ (p. 191)).

Chapter 9, “The Syntax and Semantics of Inchoatives as Directed Motion: The Case of Korean” by Dongsik Lim and María-Luisa Zubizarreta, conducts the morphosyntactic and semantic analysis of the Korean aspectual predicate, -eci, seeking a generalization about -eci which occurs in various patterns, where the authors take deadjectival verbs with -eci as constituting directed motion constructions. As observed in Zubizarreta and Oh (2007), -eci adjectival inchoatives, derived from gradable adjectives, are compatible with measure phrases and denote the degree of change of state. Adopting their observation, the authors propose the lexical-syntactic structure of the directed motion construction, as illustrated in (8):

$$
\begin{array}{c}
\text{D} \\
\text{v} \\
\text{v} \\
\text{v} \\
\text{X_{Path}}
\end{array}
$$

v is the head of the directed motion construction, taking a path argument as its complement. A path argument represents some change, depending on the nature of the path. If the path is physical, the participant undergoes a change of location (e.g. to the park ‘the way to the park’ (p. 218)). If the path is abstract, the participant undergoes a change of state (e.g. sour ‘from the point of less sourness to a point of more sourness’ (pp. 218–219)).

The authors apply their analysis to cases of some classes of verbs with -eci, and propose that v is spelled out as a complex verb with -eci when the event is delimited by a path argument, and it is spelled out as a complex verb with ka-/o- when the event is not delimited. With this proposal, the classes of verbs consistent with -eci are characterized as those involving the
notion of abstract or physical movement—verbs of change of state, verbs of creation, and verbs involving transfer or change of location.

In this way, the authors attribute the differences between -eci and -kal/-o to the difference of delimitedness of the event, adequately explaining the distribution of -eci and -kal/-o. As the authors themselves point out (p. 248), their analysis confirms the importance of the semantic interaction between functional categories and a root, as well as their syntactic compositionality, at the lexicon-syntax interface.

Chapter 10, “Conflation and Incorporation Process in Resultative Constructions” by Jaume Mateu, discusses the cross-linguistic distribution of resultative constructions in terms of Haugen’s (2009) distinction between conflation and incorporation. According to the author (p. 253), conflation is involved with the process of Merge (compounding), and incorporation is involved with the syntactic operation of Copy.

The distinction between conflation and incorporation can account for the contrast of formation between complex resultative constructions and simple resultative constructions. In his analysis, the adjective taken as a resultative phrase is assumed to be an abstract path at the level of the l-syntactic structure of resultative constructions. Complex AP resultative constructions like (9) involve conflation, where dance is formed after compounding a root (√DANCE) with a null light verb. On the other hand, simple resultative constructions like (10) in Spanish involve incorporation, where nerviosa ‘nervous’ is incorporated into a null verb.

(9) The boy danced his feet sore. (p. 258)
(10) Juan puso a María nerviosa. ‘Juan got María nervous.’ (p. 259)

Mateu proposes that there is a parallelism between the syntactic distinction between conflation and incorporation, and the semantic distinction between strong and weak resultatives in the sense of Washio (1997). Strong resultatives can be explained with the conflation analysis, where the verb has no relation with the adjective served as a resultative phrase. In particular, the position of a conflated verb has no syntactic relation with that of an adjective. Correspondingly, the meaning of a verb also has no semantic relation with the meaning of an adjective, which maintains the “independence of the AP in resulatives” (Washio (1997: 7)) syntactically and semantically. Weak resultatives, on the other hand, can be explained with incorporation, as shown in (11).

(11) kare-wa teeburu-o kirei-ni hui-ta.
he-Top table-Acc clean-NI wipe-Pst
‘He wiped the table clean.’ (Washio (1997: 5), p. 260)
In (11), the adjectival root *kirei* ‘clean’ and the verbal root *hui* ‘wipe’ constitute a compound, and *hui* is incorporated into the null verb. The state denoted by *kirei* is specified within the lexical meaning of *hui*. In this respect, the adjective can depend on the verb syntactically and semantically.

Chapter 11, “Parameter Theory and Motion Predicates” by William Snyder, explores the precise role of the compounding parameter (TCP) in the linguistic expression of motion events. TCP is based on the idea that languages differ parametrically in whether they allow endocentric, bare-root compounding (p. 286).

Snyder theorizes that TCP be understood as the availability or unavailability of a special type of semantic composition, called generalized modification (GM). English permits GM, and is set as [+TCP]. GM applies not only to individual-kind predicates like *frog* and *chair* but to eventuality-kind predicates like *wipe* and *clean*, too. Japanese is also classified as a [+TCP] language. Japanese can productively allow the novel compounds and adjectival resultatives (e.g. *John-ga teeburu-o kiree-ni hui-ta* ‘John wiped the table clean’ (Snyder (2001: 337), p. 294). However, Japanese is different from English in four points. First, adjectival resultatives are much more restricted than those in English (e.g. *boku-wa zibun-o kutakuta-ni odot-ta* ‘I danced myself tired’ (Washio (1997: 20), p. 294). Secondly, Japanese postpositions are highly limited. To make up for this, spatial nouns are used in most cases. Thus, to express the goal argument of the verb *iku* ‘go,’ a spatial noun *sita* ‘space underneath’ is marked with the dative marker -ni (e.g. *neko-wa teeburu-no sita-ni itta* ‘The cat went under the table’ (p. 295)). Thirdly, when English forms a verb-particle construction, another constituent can lie between the verb and the particle. However, the corresponding compound in Japanese cannot behave in the same manner (e.g. *kake-agaru* ‘run up’ (p. 295)). Finally, a Japanese verb expressing only a manner of motion like *oyogu* ‘swim’ cannot associate with phrases expressing a path or a destination (e.g. *Taro-ga hasi-no sita-ni oyoi-da* ‘Taro swam under the table’ (p. 295)).

Snyder proposes that these differences follow from the settings of two other parameters—[Incremental P], which is a parameter where a language permits/prohibits incremental adpositions, and [Small Clause (SC)], which is a parameter where a language allows/disallows small clause complements to V. Japanese has no Ps expressing a path through motion, and disallows a small clause, thus with the parameter settings as [−Incremental P] and [−SC].

Snyder finally discusses Italian, which is one example of a [−TCP] lan-
He points out that resultatives in Italian are far more limited than those in Japanese and English.

Interestingly, combinations of these parameters in a language show the degree of productivity of adjectival resultatives and motion-related constructions cross-linguistically. The settings of [+TCP] in English and Japanese and [−TCP] in Italian account for the fact that English and Japanese can create more adjectival resultatives and motion-related constructions than Italian. Among [+TCP] languages, Japanese cannot have many of the surface constructions that the [+TCP] setting makes possible in English. In sum, Italian is a language low in productivity, whereas English is a language high in productivity, and Japanese falls between these two languages.

In Chapter 12, “Building Involuntary States in Slavic,” María Luisa Rivero and Ana Arregui observe involuntary states (ISs) in the Slavic languages, investigating how constituents that are functional and morphological categories contribute to event structure. The ISs are divided into two groups: factual ISs in (12) and desiderative ISs in (13):

(12) Jankowi tańczyło się dobrze
John danced with pleasure.

(13) Janezu se je plesalo
John was in the mood for/danced.

Factual ISs relate such a state to an action of the dative in the actual world, where the adverb occurs in the sentence and describes the quality of the state. In contrast, desiderative ISs just report a subject’s urge to perform the action.

Rivero and Arregui propose that the stativity in factual ISs and desiderative ISs is not derived from V/VP, but from other functional and morphological categories. This suggests that the static nature of these constructions originates in the syntactic composition. The syntactic structure of factual ISs is represented as in (14):

(14) \[\text{Apppl} \text{ NP}_{\text{Dat}} [\text{Apppl} [\text{Appl} \text{ CM} [\text{TP} \text{ Tense} [\text{Asp} \text{ Aspect} [\text{Voice} \text{ Refl}_i \text{ [VP]]]}]]] \text{ [Manner P]}] \]

In this structure, a high applicative (ApplP) is headed by a CM and takes a dative subject (Dat) as its specifier, which is identified by the subject of a verb. The ApplP further includes two arguments of CM as embedded clauses: a tense phrase (TP) and a manner phrase. On the other hand, the syntactic structure of desiderative ISs is shown in (15):
Desiderative ISs include an ApplP with a dative subject as its specifier and a TP complement. However, unlike factual ISs, the TP contains an imperfective operator (IMPF), but lacks a manner phrase. In addition, a CM in a desiderative IS is aspectually restricted to a particular type of imperfective.

The difference between factual and desiderative ISs is twofold. First, CM in factual ISs has to select a manner adverb, while desiderative ISs do not. Second, aspect must be imperfective in desiderative ISs, while factual ISs need not be imperfective.

The authors capture the semantic properties of factual ISs by the interaction of CM and IMPF in viewpoint aspect. Factual interpretations of ISs are tied to non-intentional interpretations of IMPF. This creates an interpretation of a quality of the state, which is an uncontrollable state of the dative subject in factual ISs. In contrast, the interpretation of desiderative ISs essentially involves the intentional imperfective interpretation. Especially, CM selects a complement with an IMPF operator in the embedded clause. IMPF must be interpreted relative to a preparatory phase for a certain event. The combination of CM and IMPF results in generating urge-type interpretations.

4. Evaluation

I will explore whether each chapter of this book answers the three questions raised by the editors in Chapter 1. As for the first question concerning the encoding of conceptualization in language, all chapters seem to achieve this point well. Chapters 2–5 are helpful in understanding the telicity of events. Interestingly, telicity is determined by the correlations of two incremental themes (Chapter 2), the correlation of an activity event

(p. 319)
with a BECOME event in incremental chain (Chapter 3), and the change scale that comes from a measure function associated with an incremental theme argument (Chapter 4). In sign languages, the difference in telicity is found in the kinematic distinction in ASL and HZJ (Chapter 5). Chapters 6–7 clarify both the origin of the stativity of an adjective or a noun and the variation of states in relation to its base verb cross-linguistically. What these chapters have in common is to show that an adjective or a noun basically inherits the semantic properties of its base verb. Chapter 8 is also important, because it explores the origin of stativity in BE-passives. Chapters 9–11 make it clear that the change of state, as well as the notion of state, is determined by the compositionality of elements in constructions. The distribution of Korean aspectual markers -eci and ka-/o- depends on the class of verbs of a directed motion construction (Chapter 9), whereas the typological variation in adjectival resultatives depends on the syntactic and semantic relations of a verb with an adjective in the resultative constructions (Chapters 10–11). Chapter 12 develops the characterization of states, and sufficiently explains the variation in ISs in the Slavic languages in relation to the syntactic difference between two types of IS.

As for the second question, readers can find morphosyntactic and semantic notions and processes characterizing these different components in most chapters. Chapters 2–4 focus on the incremental relation between two elements to explain the telicity of events. Especially, Chapter 2 notes the incremental relation between two arguments, while Chapter 3 notes the incremental relation between an activity event and an “incremental event” in accomplishments. Chapter 4 also explores the role of an incremental theme argument, which encodes a measure function, in relation to an incremental theme verb. Readers can see that the lexical meaning of a verb can contribute to the derivation of an adjective or a noun—MH (Chapter 6) and APH (Chapter 7). Similarly, in Chapters 9–10, the l-syntactic structure of a verb plays an essential role in characterizing directed motion constructions (Chapter 9) and resultative constructions (Chapter 10). Combinations of parameter settings can characterize the cross-linguistic variations in adjectival resultatives (Chapter 11).

To answer the final question of cross-linguistic variation, I find Chapters 5, 10, 11, and 12 helpful. Chapter 5 examines two different sign languages, ASL and HZJ, which show a significant difference in markings of telicity. Readers can consult Chapters 10–11 concerning the cross-linguistic variation in resultatives, and see that resultatives in Japanese are much more limited than those in English. Chapter 12 is successful in explaining the
division of ISs in all the Slavic languages—factual ISs in the West Slavic languages and Russian, and desiderative ISs in South Slavic languages.

Overall, this book is worth reading, because it answers the three questions successfully, explaining the interaction between syntax and semantics beyond previous analyses, with most of the papers of this book clarifying the internal structure of words or constructions across several languages. The papers in this book show that the lexical semantics of nominals is highly important in defining the telicity of an event. Especially, the scale or function introduced by the nominal in each word or construction defines the telicity as a whole (Chapters 2–4). In addition, this book tells us that the lexical meaning of a verb and its syntactic structure contribute greatly to elaborating the stativity of nominal or adjectival predicates (Chapters 6–8), and it provides a more comprehensive account of the cross-linguistic variations in some constructions (Chapters 9–12). This strongly suggests that we should maintain a good balance between the syntactic composition and the detailed semantic description of elements which form a word or construction, irrespective of categories or languages in linguistic research. In sum, this book enriches the characterization of the notions of telicity and stativity, reassessing the previous studies on telicity, change of state, and state.

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