

The Context and Degree of De-lexicalization Hindi-Urdu

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Abstract

There are innumerable research works that have been carried out in the area of de-lexicalization, so much so that it has almost been renamed as 'grammaticalization' and it now serves as one of core areas of morphological and syntactic analysis of languages. However, not much has been reported about the contexts of de-lexicalization and the degree of de-lexicalization. The context highlights the linguistic need of justifying as to why the ontology of lexical item has to be either denied or taken away. The degree of de-lexicalization on the other hand talk about the stages of grammaticalization and it is often very interesting to see that though the distinction between de-lexicalization and grammaticalization is not maintained anymore, may be that there are certain contexts where these two mark different linguistic features on the lexical items and we may still need some room for their different usages.

Key words: lexical feature, non-lexical, de-lexicalization, grammaticalization, functional item.

Introduction:

De-lexicalization is an intrinsic property of human languages. We know that the ontology of a word in any language has to acquire its lexical properties by containing the phonological, morphological, syntactic and semantic requirements. For example, if I ask a question to anyone as to whether or not s/he knows the meaning of 'sinmariya' in English! S/he will search for the ontology of word by looking for this word in a dictionary of English language, and possibly will come up with an answer that there is not such word in English called 'sinmaria'! I will totally agree with her/him, and then will ask to read the following text,

'... my daughter has been asking me to buy a sinmariya for long. Last Saturday, we went to Landmark in the DLF mall to buy a sinmariya for her. We went to the section of Landmark where a lot of sinmariyas were kept. My daughter rushed to the corner and pulled one of the sinmariyas and sat on it. She liked the height and the comfort of the sinmariya. We bought it and brought home. My daughter placed the sinmariya near her study table and comfortably sat on it and started doing her class homework'.

If I ask any one now about the meaning of the word called 'sinmariya' in English, s/he will certainly come up with a meaning for it. How did this happen?

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We, by attributing the phonological, morphological, syntactic and semantic properties of a word, we provided the ontological basis for a word which didn't exist a minute ago in English. This is what is called 'lexicalization' process of a new word in a language. Before some fifteen years ago, the word 'Tablet' never meant what it means as an electronic device now! So, in order to acquire the ontology, a word should be pronounceable, should have singular and plural forms, should have a grammatical category and finally it should have a meaning to denote.

In a quite similar way to the process of lexicalization, the de lexicalization takes place in almost all the languages. I will discuss six different contexts in which the de-lexicalization takes place in languages like English, Hindi and some other Indian languages;

I. In the context of 'helping verbs':

In most of the languages, there seems to be a mechanism to de-lexicalize a lexical verb and make use of that de-lexicalized verb as various kinds of helping verb. For instance, the lexical verbs 'be' and 'have' in English do function as lexical verbs in various contexts:

For example:

(1)

- a. I have a sedan car.
- b. I am a linguist.

In the above examples (1a-b), the 'be' and 'have' verbs have lexical status, meaning these verbs here are used as lexical verbs because they are the main verb which make the predicates in the sentences. Contrary to this, if we examine some other contexts where these 'be' and 'have' verbs are used as helping verbs to host the '-en' and '-ing' i.e. perfective and imperfective marking of the main verbs' morphological properties, these 'be' and 'have' verbs are 'de-lexicalized' for their semantic content and therefore they can be used as helping verbs to host the perfective and imperfective morphology of the main verbs. For example;

(2)

- a. I have written a letter to the VC.
- b. I am writing a new paper for your journal.

The examples (2a-b), the 'be' and 'have' verbs are not the lexical element. They have been de-lexicalized for the purpose that has been mentioned above so that they can host the perfective and imperfective morphology of the main verbs e.g. 'write' in example (2a-b).

If we talk about Indian languages in this context, we find better context to prove that there has been a process of de-lexicalization that has taken place to convert

these ‘be’ and ‘have’ as ‘helping verbs’. For instance, in Hindi ‘honα’, ‘to be’ and ‘rəhna’, ‘to stay’ would show similar function to that of English usage of ‘be’ and ‘have’ as lexical verb in one context and ‘de-lexicalized’ in another context. See the examples given below;

(3)

- a. mē Ek ədʰapək hū
 I-1MS-Nom One teacher be-Pres-1MS
 ‘I am a teacher’.
- b. əb mē dilli-me rəhət-α Hū
 now I-1MS-Nom Delhi-Loc stay-Imp-SG be-Pres-1MS
 ‘Now, I stay in Delhi’.

In the examples given above in (3a-b), the verbs ‘honα’, ‘to be’ and ‘rəhna’, ‘to stay’ are lexical verbs as they have been used as main verbs in the above sentences. However, we can see different usages of same verbs in different context and discuss their role/function in the sentences given below:

- c. mē bʰaśa bʰiɡnan pəɽʰα-ta Hū
 I-1MS-Nom linguistics teach-Imp-MS be-Pres-1MS
 ‘I teach linguistics’.
- d. mē dilli-me bis salō- rəh rəha Hū
 I-1MS- Delhi- se stay stay- be-Pres-
 Nom Loc MS 1MS
 I have been staying in Delhi for twenty years’.

Now, if we compare the examples (3c-d) with earlier (3a-b) and explain the function of ‘hona’, ‘to be’ and ‘rəhna’, ‘to stay’ in (3c-d), we have to give a very different explanation for the semantic function of these verbs. They are not used as lexical verbs in the last two sentences in example (3) because they have been de-lexicalized to fulfil the function of auxiliary or helping verbs. The example (3d) is a great piece of evidence of what is understood by notion of de-lexicalization (or grammaticalization) where the same form of verb ‘rəhna’, ‘to stay’ has been used both as a lexical verb and a de-lexical verb and no Hindi speaker ever makes a mistake in getting to know the meaning of ‘stay’ and ‘progressive’ marker in this context. So, I want to conclude this section by stating that one of prominent context of de-lexicalization is usage of ‘helping’ verbs in different languages in different context.

II. In the context of ‘passivization’:

The literature on passive has been very sketchy and haphazard even on English and European language, and in the case Indian languages, there is a complete dearth of good work on passive formation or theorization on passive construction. However, what we know about passivization is that there are some

rules which are kind of universal rules for passive and some are parameterized rules of specific languages. If we talk about English, there are some six rules which have to be applied in a sequence to derive a passive sentence and they are 1. the verb should be a transitive one, 2. change the place of subject and object 3. change the verb of active sentence into participle form (V3), 4. insert a 'Be' verb after the changed object in passive sentence, 5. put the tense of the main verb of active sentence on the 'be' verb, 6. make the agreement of changed object and the 'be' verb, and 7. but a by-phrase before the changed subject in the passive sentence. See the diagram shown in the box below to understand as to how these rules apply in a sequence:

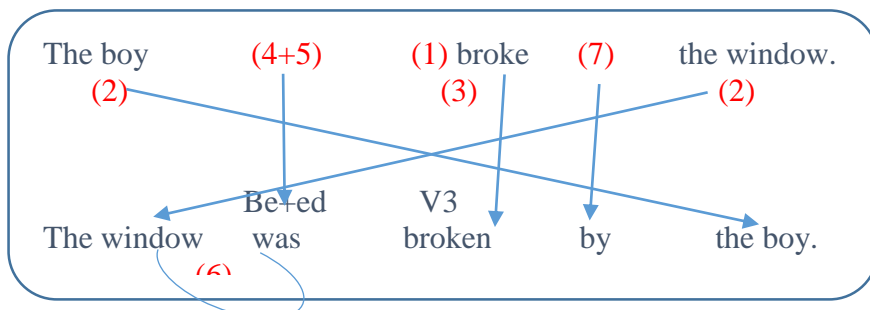


Figure-1

If we examine the numbers given in red color very carefully, we will understand that the rules that are given above for the derivation of passive sentences in English work very well and these rules not only explain as to how the derivation of passive sentences from active operates/happens but they also explain as to why the passive of all perfect continuous in every tense and the future continuous can't be changed into passive in English and many European languages.

If we want to discuss the derivation of passive in those Indian languages where derivation of passive sentences are possible, we can say that we don't need all seven rules of English in Indian languages in order to derive passive sentences. For example, rules (1) and (2) are not required in Indian languages at all, primarily because the sentences even with intransitive verbs can be transformed into passive and there is absolutely no need to change the places of subject and object for the sentences with transitive and di-transitive verbs. The rule number of passive formation i.e. (3) change the verb of active sentence into participle form (V3) seems to be universal. For the passive rule given in (4), Indian languages seem to opt for 'Go' (in Hindi also) instead of 'Be' in many Indian languages. The rules (5) & (6) apply more or less in the similar manner as in English, meaning (5) takes care of tense and aspect markings of the active sentence and (6) ensures the matching of the agreement feature of the direct object and the verb because the subject is overtly case marked with '-se' in the passive sentences.

Let us now see at least two examples of passive (one with an intransitive verb and transitive verb) in Hindi:

Passive with an intransitive verb:

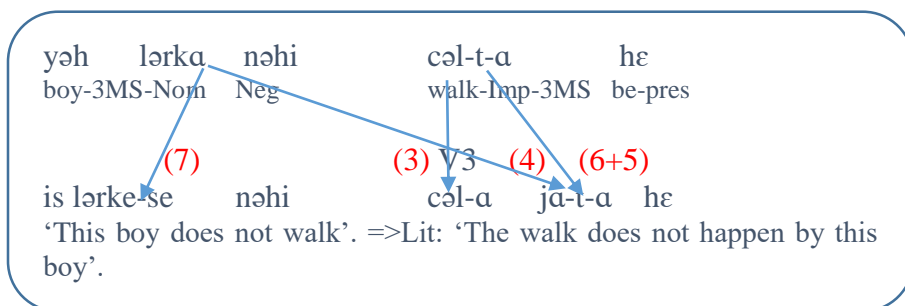


Figure-2

Now, let us see another passive sentence in Hindi with a transitive verb;

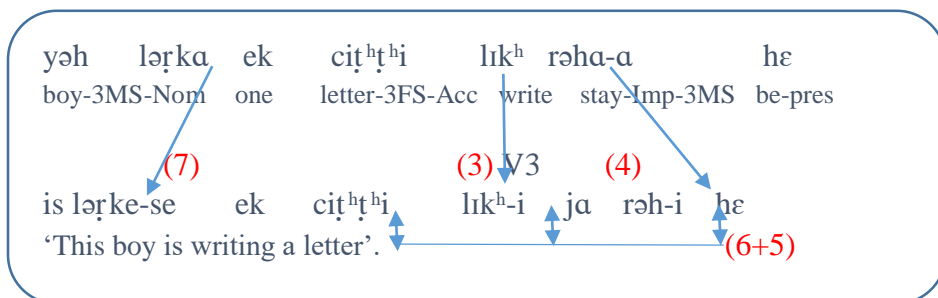


Figure-3

The main concern of the paper is that the process of de-lexicalization and whether it is English or Hindi, the passive verbs i.e. ‘Be’ and ‘Go’ in English and Hindi respectively have to be de-lexicalized in order to facilitate the passive derivation.

III. In the context ‘conjunctive participle’:

The lexical verb ‘have’ as illustrated in example 1(a) in English is de-lexicalized for the formation of the conjunctive participle, where the lexical verb ‘have’ after being de-lexicalized is suffixed with a progressive marker (i.e. -ing) in order to facilitate participle morphology with the main verb. Thus, the form ‘hav-ing x-ed’ is materialized by a complex morphological process which becomes very productive in English.

For example;

Conjunctive participle in English:

4. I having washed my hand, having changed my clothes, having eaten my dinner, having prepared my bed, went to sleep.

There is no doubt that the de-lexicalization of ‘have’ is a must in order to formulate the pattern of conjunctive participle in English. It is only after the de-lexicalization process of the lexical verb ‘have’ as de-lexicalized supports the morphological requirement of the conjunctive participle construction which becomes so robust and productive to sequencing various actions in the same sentence as it is depicted in example (4).

Let us turn our attention to Indian languages (i.e. Hindi in particular) with regard to formation of conjunctive participle which is very interesting from the point of view of the degree of de-lexicalization.

If we compare the formation of conjunctive participle in Hindi to that of English, we would say that the lexical verb ‘kərna’, ‘to do’ is de-lexicalized in Hindi and the bare/root form of the verb ‘-kər’ is formulated for conjunctive participle form and we suffix this de-lexicalized form to the root of most of the verb to formulate a conjunctive participle verb such as ‘jāna’, ‘to go’ => jā-kər, ‘kʰāna’, ‘to eat’ => ‘kʰā-kər, ‘pəṛʰna’, to read/study’ => pəṛʰ-kər’ etc. Linguistically, the case/context becomes very interesting when we want to use the conjunctive participle marker with ‘kərna’, ‘to do’ itself. The result is awkward, and we get ungrammatical form i.e. ‘kər-kər’ for ‘having done’ is not allowed in Hindi. Interestingly, the language goes to another level of de-lexicalization and formulates another marker for the conjunctive participle construction i.e. ‘kərna → kər → ke’ where in case of ‘kərna’, ‘to do’, language adopts another marker i.e. ‘-ke’ and it makes this conjunctive participle marker as a universally applicable marker.

In other words, all the cases of ‘-kər’ as conjunctive participle marker can easily be replaced by ‘-ke’. Let us see some examples:

Conjunctive participle in Hindi-Urdu:

Consider the following examples:

5.	mẽ	gʰər	ɑ-kər	kʰāna	kʰā-kər	so	gəy-ɑ
	I-1MS-Nom	house	Come-CPM	food	eat-CPM	sleep-V1	Go-V2-1MS-Perf
‘Having reached home, having taken my food, I slept’.							

As the above sentence shows, most of the conjunctive participles sentences are made by putting the participle marker ‘-kər’ with the verbs and we form the sequencing of the actions by putting the conjunctive participle marker to many verbs.

However, the problem arises when we want to put this conjunctive participle marker with the verb called ‘kərna’, ‘to do’ itself. This process of putting the conjunctive participle marker bring the ungrammatical construction. Consider the following example;

*6.	mẽ	g ^h ər	ɑ-kər	əpəna kam	kər- kər	so	gəy-ɑ
	I-1MS- Nom	house	Come- CPM	self work	do- CPM	sleep- V1	Go-V2- 1MS-Perf
‘Having reached home, having done my own work, I slept’.							

In order to handle the situation like mentioned in the example (6), Hindi-Urdu devises another level of de-lexicalization of the conjunctive participle ‘-kər’ to ‘-ke’. So, after this process of second level of de-lexicalization, the conjunctive participle ‘-ke’ can make the sentence (6) grammatical. Examine the following example;

7.	mẽ	g ^h ər	ɑ-kər	k ^h ɑnɑ	k ^h ɑ-ke	so	gəy-ɑ
	I-1MS- Nom	house	Come- CPM	food	eat- CPM	sleep- V1	Go-V2- 1MS-Perf
‘Having reached home, having taken my food, I slept’.							

The example given in (7) proves the point we mentioned above. The preference of the second form of conjunctive participle ‘-ke’ over ‘-kər’, the function of ‘-ke’ becomes universally applicable to all the verbs in Hindi-Urdu and there is absolutely no exception of any kind where the conjunctive participle ‘-ke’ can’t be attached to form a conjunctive participle construction.

IV. In the context of ‘Compound Verb Construction’:

The compound verb formation in many Indian languages demands that one of the verbs i.e. popularly known as the V2 or the vector verb has to be de-lexicalized. It is a must for the vector verb to be de-lexicalized in order to be compounded with another verb where most of the important linguistic features come to dominate this compounding from the polar verb i.e. the V1. The meaning, the form of the verb, the valence of verb, all of these are decided by the polar verb or the V1 of the compound verb. However, one of the most linguistic feature i.e. the syntactic function of the compound verb has to be decided by the vector verb i.e. the V2. In another words, the syntactic value of the vector verb i.e. the ± transitivity of the vector verb decides the ± transitivity of the entire compound verb with regard to the case assignment and some other syntactic features in the compound verb construction. We will discuss more of this in the section below when we discuss about the degree of de-lexicalization. For the time being, we must settle down with the fact that the vector verb in a compound verb construction has to be de-lexicalized in order to form a compounding with then polar verb in most Indian languages.

Let us see some examples;

8.	Polar verb	Vector verb	= Compound verb
	<i>pər</i> ^h <i>na</i> 'to read'	<i>lena</i> 'to take'	= <i>pər</i> ^h <i>na</i>
	(a) <i>mē-ne yəh kɪtab</i> <i>hē</i> I-1MS-Erg this book 3FS be-Prs	<i>pər</i> ^h read-V1	<i>li</i> take-V2-Pst-3FS 'I have read this book.'

The example (8) depicts what I have outlined as the requirement of the compounding of a polar verb or the V1 with the vector verb or the V2. The compounding of these verbs has been possible only after the de-lexicalization of the vector (V2), so that the semantic clash of two verbal elements don't take place. This also warrants our attention that not any combination of two verbal elements can qualify them to be the example of a compound verb. For example, see the examples given below:

9.	False Polar verb	False Vector verb	= Not a Compound verb
	<i>cəlna</i> 'to go/walk'	<i>Jana</i> 'to go'	= <i>cəlna</i>
	<i>lər ka</i> boy-3MS-Nom Pst-3MS	<i>g^hər cəla gəya</i> house walk-3MS went-3MS	<i>*lər ka g^hər cəla</i> boy-3MS-Nom house walk - Pst-3MS 'The boy went home.'

The example given in (9) shows that the two verbal elements just by being together can't qualify to be the example of a compound verb. If we examine the verbs which are in (9) and see why is it the case that they can't qualify to be a compound verb, we would realize that the foremost important criterion i.e. the de-lexicalization of the polar (V2) verb did not take place in the example (9) and thus the vector verb could not explicate the meaning of the polar verb (V1) as the meaning of the entire compound verb.

Having wondered for a while, we can also propose that it may be the case that the two verbal elements in (9) have been swapped to each other's place i.e. the phenomenon known as 'reversed compound verb'!

*9a.	False Polar verb	False Vector verb	= Not a Compound verb
	<i>Jana</i> 'to go'	<i>cəlna</i> 'to go/walk'	= <i>jana</i>
	<i>lər ka</i> boy-3MS-Nom 3MS	<i>*ja cəla</i> go-V1 walk-3MS	<i>lər ka g^hər gəya</i> boy-3MS-Nom house go-Pst-3MS 'The boy went home.'

I would like to reiterate my understanding and the explanation for the ungrammaticality of the sentence given in (9a) is that the de-lexicalization didn't take place of the vector (V1) and thus it couldn't explicate the meaning of the polar (V1) and thus couldn't qualify as the compound verb. The reason I am so

much convinced about the fact that the cases where the de-lexicalization of the vector takes place, even if we swap the original occurrences (places) of the two verbal elements and thus formulate the ‘reversed compound verb’, the intended meaning of the compound verb never gets jeopardized. Let us see three examples where we have single verb and then compound verb and then reversal of the compound verb:

10. lər ka əpni mǎ-ki god-mě bəṭ^h-a
 boy-3MS-Nom his mother-Gen lap-Loc sit-3MS-perf
 ‘The boy sat in his mother’s lap’.

10a.lər ka əpni mǎ-ki god-mě bəṭ^h gəy-a
 boy-3MS-Nom his mother-Genlap-Loc sit-V₁go-V₂-3MS-perf
 ‘The boy sat in his mother’s lap’.

10b.lər ka əpni mǎ-ki god-mě ja bəṭ^h-a
 boy-3MS-Nom his mother-Genlap-Locgo-V₂ sit-V₁-3MS-perf
 ‘The boy sat in his mother’s lap’.

These examples (10-10b) prove the point what I have been discussing regarding the de-lexicalization of vector (V2) verb in a compound verb construction. The example (10b) proves the point very clearly that the reversal of the vector verb from its original position in RCV (i.e. reversed compound verb) doesn’t affect the intended meaning of the compound verb, and this is clearly possible only if the de-lexicalization of the vector has already taken place.

V. In the context of ‘Conjunct Verb construction’:

One of the most prominent and apparent context of de-lexicalization is the formation of ‘conjunct verb construction’ in Indian languages. I prefer to call the conjunct verbs as the fillers for the purpose of ‘predication’. Let me explain it. There are predicates in English and European languages such as *‘to clean, to dirty, to love, to hate, to remember, to envy, to slap, to abuse, to praise, to insult* etc. Many Indian languages don’t have verbal element to make the parallel predication possible for the abovementioned English predicates. So, what the Indian languages do in order to fill the pattern-gap is that they put either a noun or an adjective with the verb that is highly de-lexicalized and compensate pattern-gap by creating a complex predicate where an adjective or a noun combines with the de-lexicalized verb and makes the ‘predication’ possible for the abovementioned predicates in English. Now, I believe that even the adjective or the noun which comes to form a predicate with a de-lexicalized verb is also de-lexicalized to some extent as they are no more full-fledged lexical items of their grammatical category. After all, these nouns and adjectives have to be the part of verbal paradigm and thus can’t have all the linguistic contents that they have when they pass on their meaning for the purpose of verbalization or predication. This is, however, a topic for future research and I can’t indulge in any kind of elaboration of the topic as this will certainly deviate me from my main goal i.e. context and degree of de-lexicalization.

So, it is a given fact that an adjective or a noun¹ combines with a de-lexicalized verb and thus the meaning in a conjunct verb is derived from either an adjective or a noun. For example, ‘saf kərnɑ, ‘to clean’, ‘gəndɑ kərnɑ’, ‘to dirty’, ‘kəm kərnɑ’, ‘to reduce’,

‘g^hrɪnɑ kərnɑ’, ‘to hate’, ‘prəgati kərnɑ’, ‘to progress’, ‘awaz denɑ’, ‘to call someone’, ‘əpman kərnɑ’, ‘to insult’, ‘tərif kərnɑ’, ‘to praise’, and ‘kʃ^həmə (məf) kərnɑ’, ‘to forgive’ etc. are the examples where the verbal element in the conjunct verb construction has been de-lexicalized and thus the meaning of the predicate comes from either the adjective or the nouns.

Let’s see some examples and prove the point that I am trying to make here;

11. mohən-ne əpni premika-ko yad kiy-ɑ
Mohan-3MS- self-F girl-friend- remembrance- do-Perf-
Erg 3FS-Acc F F 3M
‘Mohan remembered his girl-friend’.

12. mohən-ko əpni premɪkɑ-ki yad ɑy-i
Mohan-3MS- self-F girl-friend- remembrance- come-Perf-
Acc 3FS-Gen F F 3F
‘Mohan remembered his girl-friend’.

These examples (11-12) prove the point that I mentioned above regarding the formation of the conjunct verbs. The de-lexicalization of the light verbs in the above examples help the light verb to execute/explicate the meaning of the nominal host of the verb and thus makes the whole process of complex predicate formation possible while the meaning come from the noun of noun + verb pair.

13. rɪyɑ-ne məd^hu-kɑ əpman kiy-ɑ
Riya-3FS-Erg Madhu-3FS-Gen insult do-Perf-3M
‘Riya insulted Madhu’.

14. dɪneʃ-ne əpnɑ kəmra saf kiy-ɑ
Dinesh-3MS-Erg slef-M room-3MS clean-Adj do-Perf-MS
‘Dinesh cleaned his room’.

These examples (13-14) also show the case of de-lexicalization of the verbal elements and thus they are often called ‘light verb²’ because the meaning of the noun/adjective has to be explicated by these verbal elements. Let’s see some more examples;

¹ The nouns of the conjunct verb construction can’t be the direct/indirect object of the verb and most importantly, the nouns are abstract nouns which form ‘conjunct verbs’ with a de-lexicalized verbal element.

² See Butt, M. (2003) *The Light Verb Jungle in Harvard Working Papers in Linguistics*, Vol-9

15. dɪneʃ-ne səmɪrɑ-ko əwɑz di
 Dinesh-3MS-Erg Sameera-3FS-Dat calling-F give-Perf-FS
 ‘Dinesh called upon Sameera’. These
16. b^harət-ne təkɪɪkɪ ke kʃetrə-mě prəgati k-i
 India-Erg technology-Gen field-Loc progress-F do-Perf-MS
 ‘India did lots of progress in the field of technology’.

examples (15-16) are the instances where case-markers with the direct object are no genitive. The dative and locative case-makers with different direct objects also help us to avoid the criticism of using mostly the genitive case which may blur the clear making of the direct object and its relationship with the verb i.e. the light verb. The agreement in conjunct verb construction is very puzzling yet interesting but the time and space does not allow me to discuss the issue here, however, the interested readers can consult Das, P.K. (2018)³ to understand the complex function of the case and agreement in conjunct verb construction in Hindi-Urdu.

VI. The notion of degree of De-lexicalization:

This is the last section of the paper and I felt the need to evoke the notion of degree of ‘de-lexicalization’ in order to discuss some of the exceptions that have just been mentioned as ‘exceptions’ with regard to the complex predicates in Hindi. I, after looked at the issue of de-lexicalization as a process in linguistic categorization, have come to the conclusion that the cases of ‘exceptions’ of the complex predicates in Hindi can be explained if we look into the matter more carefully and symmetrically.

So, the examples like ‘l n ’, ‘to bring’ and ‘b Yln ’, ‘to forget’ are clearly transitive verbs in Hindi, however, when they are used in the past tense or perfect aspect, there is no way we can allow the ergative case to be placed with the subject in the sentence. Therefore, I want to use the notion of ‘de-lexicalization’ as a process and explain that these verbs are not mono-morphemic elements but they are bi-morphemic verbal expressions and they have become mono-morphemic in the continuum due to various stages of de-lexicalization process. For example, in Hindi there is a post-position ‘Yp r’, ‘on’ which is a grammatical free word/morpheme, but this has gradually been changed to ‘Yp r>‘p r’> ‘pe’> ‘-e’ (in some varieties of Hindi) and all these mean the same thing. This is how I want to correlate the process of de-lexicalization to the verbal elements in compound verb constructions and wish to prove that ‘l n ’, ‘to bring’ is de-lexicalized (grammaticalized) form of two verbal elements ‘len ’, ‘to take’ and ‘ n ’, ‘to come’. However, I want to outline the theoretical base of the de-lexicalization process first and then take up the issue for discussion.

³ Das, P.K. (2018) Agreement in conjunct verb construction: Let's solve the problem. In Sharma, G. & Rajesh Bhatt eds. (2018) *Trends in Hindi Linguistics*. Berlin, De Gruyter Mouton.

4.1 The process of de-lexicalization: it is one of the most salient features of human languages and the way it produces new grammatical categories of different types is also very interesting to examine. It is also important to note that various processes of de-lexicalization take place in languages to facilitate us with the new grammatical constructs and these categories are demanded by different discourse and pragmatic purposes.

Some of the references such Hopper and Traugott (1993, 2003, 2008); Heine (1993); Kuteva (2001), Traugott and Heine (1991; Vol. I&II) and Heine & Kuteva (2002 (reprint 2004), 2005) etc. must be mentioned here who have written so much on grammaticalization (de-lexicalization) that it is indeed an ardent task for me to summarize the main thesis of the concept of grammaticalization here. However, in order to set out the philosophical background which I will use to prove my point later about the de-lexicalization of the second verbal element in a CVC, it is important for me to use some quotes of the above mentioned researchers on de-lexicalization. One such quote comes from Hopper and Traugott (2003) where they define it as, '*grammaticalization*' *refers to that part of the study of language change that is concerned with such questions as how lexical items and constructions come in certain linguistic contexts to serve grammatical functions or how grammatical items develop new grammatical functions* (p.1)'.

This quote sets forth the background and also the platform for my discussion of various degrees of de-lexicalization that I will propose in order to account for different types of compound verbs in Hindi.

However, it is important for me to mention two more quotes from Hopper and Traugott. They (2003) also stated that '*grammaticalization*' *refers most especially to the steps whereby particular items become more grammatical through time. Grammaticalization in this sense is part of the wider linguistic phenomenon of structuration, through which combinations of forms may in time come to be fixed in certain functions* (p.2).

The last quote from Hopper and Traugott will help me to classify a type of compound verb about which the researchers have very been sceptical with regard to the CVC in Hindi and thus there is no explanation available for such compound verb in the literature. Moreover, let me put the quote first. They (2003) again said that '...a notion of Cline that started with Halliday and followed by Lehman 1995 [1982]), and Heine (1992) which most linguists would agree that there is a "cline of grammaticality" of the following type' p-7.

**Content (Lexical) item/word>grammatical
word>clitic>inflectional affix.**

With the help of above schema of the grammaticalization proposed by Hopper and Traugott (2003), I would like to propose that with regard to the formation of ‘compound verb’ in Hindi, the second verb or the vector verb shows more than one type/degree of grammaticalization. I have termed the degree/type as ‘partial’, ‘default’ and ‘complete’ de-lexicalization. I will prove with the help of the examples that some cases of ‘complete grammaticalization’ of the vector verb, in fact, has become more like an inflectional affix, however, in case of the ‘partial de-lexicalization’, the vector verb seems to retain some of its semantic content, and this contentment of meaning is acknowledged as this brings a change of meaning of the overall ‘compound verb’ if we change the vector verb which goes against the linguistic prerequisites of the CV construction in Hindi. The ‘default’ case of de-lexicalization is the case where the vector verb has been bleached or de-lexicalized⁴ of its meaning and come to form a compound verb with the main/polar verb.

1. The degree of de-lexicalization:

It is necessary to examine the degree of de-lexicalization when we talk about the use of the vector or light verbs in different compound verb constructions in Hindi. There are at least three distinct categories of CVs which must be distinguished and separated in Hindi for the clear understanding of the CVC. It is an issue that the researchers have not taken very seriously and thus it needs some urgent attention in order to understand some of the unattended and unexplained issues such as \pm transitivity of the compound verb and the placement of the ergative case with the subject that is completely dependent on the syntactic transitivity of the CVC. I have examined the degree of de-lexicalization very carefully and have come up with three different degrees that are manifested when we evaluate the process of de-lexicalization with regard to the formation of the compound verb construction in Hindi. These three types or degrees of de-lexicalization is based on the schema outlined and suggested by Hopper and Traugott (2003) which shows that in some cases, the vector verb is at the early stage of grammaticalization, others have been

grammaticalized in a default manner and yet others have crossed all stages of de-lexicalization and has reached to the level of ‘inflectional affixation’ an idea that has been pursued and developed by Kuteva (2001) where she has called the last stage of de-lexicalization as the process of ‘auxiliation’.

1.1 The partial de-lexicalized vectors:

There are some compound verbs in which the V₂ or the vector verb has only been partially de-lexicalized. It is therefore, we may have a distinct meaning

⁴ De-lexicalization or de-lexicalized item is used frequently as a synonym of ‘grammaticalization’ or grammaticalized element.

change of the compound verb (which is optional) when the vector verb is changed, which otherwise should not have happened in case of the compound verb.

Consider the examples given below to make sense of what we are saying:

17. us-ne mer-i c t t i p r li
 he-3MS-Erg my-F letter-3FS- read- take-past-
 Acc V1 3FS
 ‘He read my letter’. <**In a sense that he should not have done it, but he did it.**>

18. us-ne mer-i c t t i p r di
 he-3MS-Erg my-F letter-3FS- read- give-
 Acc V1 past-3FS
 ‘He read out my letter for me’. <**In a sense that he did a favour to me.**>

The examples in (17-18) clearly show that the use of vector verbs, ‘len ’, ‘take’ and ‘den ’, ‘give’ have not been totally de-lexicalized. The semantic change of the meaning of the compound verbs in these examples is the fact that lends support to the core hypothesis of different degree of de-lexicalization in different linguistic constructs where two or more linguistic elements get combined to convey all together a different ‘pragmatic meaning’.

Consider other examples as well:

19. us-ne moh n-ko k n de d y (*l y)
 he-3MS- Mohan- Food-3M- give- give-V₂-past-
 Erg Dat Acc V₁ 3MS
 ‘He gave food to Mohan’.

20. us-ne pne-l ye k n le l y (*d y)
 he-3MS- himself- Food-3M- take- take-V₂-past-
 Erg for Acc V₁ 3MS
 ‘He took food for himself’.

Also the other cases:

21. us-ne moh n-k k m k r d y (*l y)
 he-3MErg Mohan-Gen work-MS-Acc do-V₁ give-V₂-past-3MS
 ‘He did Mohan’s work’.

22. us-ne pn k m k r l y (*d y)
 he-3MS-Erg self work-3M-Acc do-V₁ take-V₂-past-3MS
 ‘He did his (own) work’.

These examples (19-22) reiterate the similar things. They show that the change of the vector verbs bring the change in the meaning of the sentence. There is also an increase in the valency of the compound verb in (19-20) and this increase in the argument is solely due to the di-transitivity of the vector verb. This certainly proves the point in discussion that when the vector verb is partially de-lexicalized, it not only retains its meaning but also other semantic and linguistic properties such as the valences or arguments of its own type i.e. di-transitivity.

1.2 The default de-lexicalization of the vectors:

Literally all the compound verb construction where the vector verb has been bleached of its meaning and follows the rule (b) that has been mentioned above are the candidates of this type. Let us examine some instances of CVC to make better sense of this category:

The 23. v h kYrsi-p r b t̄ g y (=b t̄) verb
in the he-3MS-Nom Self sit-V₁ go-V₂-past-3MS above
‘He sat on the chair’.

example in (23) shows what I have called the default grammaticalization of the vector verb. In other words, the vector does not retain any other shade of meaning than marking the perfectivity of the CVC, which is what they have been synthesized or syncretized for. Let us see some more examples:

24. m) y h ky k r b t̄ (=k y)
I-FMS-Nom this what do-V₁ sit-V₂-past-3MS
‘What an awful act I did’!

In the above sentence also, the vector verb ‘b t̄ n ’ has been grammaticalized in a default way and thus it is not possible to have any semantics of this verb here in the sentence, except that it adds the perfectivity of action.

25. v h g n̄e b r-me) pYri k t b p r̄ g y
(p r̄ n)
he-3MS- hour-obl within- full book-3FS- read- go-V₂-past-
Nom Loc Acc V₁ 3MS
‘He gave food to Mohan’.

Even in the example (25), it is not possible to extrapolate any separate meaning for the vector verb ‘g y’, ‘went’ in the use of this compound verb. We can go on giving the examples of this default de-lexicalized vector verb here, but I guess the point is already made and we should close this section by saying that this is the default category of the compound verb, where the verbs i.e. both polar and vector obey the prerequisites that we mentioned in earlier section.

1.3 The complete de-lexicalized vectors:

This is the most important part of the finding of the present research work. The entire paper is an effort to prove the point with discussion and argument that the mono-morphemic compound verb 'l n ', 'to bring' is de-lexicalized linguistic item of 'bi-morphemic' compound verb i.e. 'len ⁵', 'to take' and ' n ', 'to come'. However, proving this won't be possible unless we establish some similar process of de-lexicalization in Hindi and then we will come back to the examples of 'complete de-lexicalized vectors' in Hindi.

With regard to the post-position in Hindi, there is always some disagreement and confusion amongst the researchers and I want to bring the case of 'genitive' post-position 'ke Yp r', 'on the top or on' for discussion here. It is agreed upon by the researchers in linguistics and other disciplines as well that the main job of 'genitive' is to connect two or more nouns. The genitive case is called the 'inherent case' in 'generative paradigm' as it is mediated outside the structure of the sentence. Now, let us examine the case of 'genitive case' i.e. '-ke' in the post-position of Hindi e.g. '-ke Yp r', 'upon/on'.

For example:

26.	X- ke Yp r	X-p r	X-pe	X-e ⁶	=	stages	of	de-
	>	>	>	on X		lexicalization		
	on X	on X	on X					
	stage-1	stage-2	stage-3	stage-4				

A very simple explanation of these stages of de-lexicalization enfolds the same story and confirms the stages of de-lexicalization proposed by Hopper and Traugott (2003) which we can repeat here to make better sense of the proposal.

Content (Lexical) item/word>grammatical word>clitic>inflectional affix.

⁵ See Baenpej, K. D.: 1998 *Shabdamanushashan*, Delhi, Kaushik Prakashan Shabha, for more detail. He specifically says on page 477 that until 1944 no one knew that 'l n ' is make out of 'len ' + ' n '.

⁶ bābujī g^hər-e hət^hũn = Father is at home.

If we see carefully, Hindi genitive post-position has a lexical item ‘Yp r’ in ‘stage-1’ which must be recognized as a noun because the only job that genitive case does in the grammar of any language is to connect two or more nouns. This lexical item get de-lexicalized at ‘stage-2’ and it becomes ‘-p r’. The stage-3 has ‘-pe’ and it won’t be outrageously wrong to say that this linguistic item function as a ‘clitic’ in Hindi which has a full form in the language elsewhere. In its last stage the ‘locative post-position’ becomes a ‘case affix’ and has just ‘-e’ as the linguistic form. There is another case of de-lexicalization in Hindi for the verbal lexical item called ‘k rn ’, ‘to do’. This is used as the conjunctive participial marker in Hindi and it is de-lexicalized for that purpose and thus becomes ‘k r’, ‘having done’ or ‘after doing’. This is a very productive marker and it works fine across the board, meaning this can be attached to any verb to make a participial verbal form such as ‘j -k r, k -k r, p r -k r, so-k r, b t -k r etc. However, when we want to use this CPM with the identical verb i.e. ‘k rn ’, ‘to do’ to meaning having done something, the grammar makes it ungrammatical. The further de-lexicalization of the CPM ‘k r’ takes places and we get ‘-ke⁷’, ‘having done’. After this process of de-lexicalization Hindi has conjunctive participial maker with ‘k rn ’ which is ‘k r-ke’. However, this new de-lexicalized form of CPM can be used with any verb and there is no exception. So, Hindi has allowed the process of de-lexicalization to take place in the language in different ways and in different contexts.

27. k rn = to do -k r= ‘having done’ -ke = ‘having done’
 stage-1, lexical item stage-2:grammaticalized stage-3: cliticized

If we agree that the de-lexicalization of ‘l n ’ has happened historically and we have ‘l n ’ लाना⁸ and this has been syncretized out of ‘लेना + आना’, we will be able to solve the problem of exceptions and will also be able to account for as to why ‘l n ’, ‘to bring’, despite being transitive verb’ can’t allow the ‘ergative case’ with the subject in the sentence.

Let us see some examples:

28. l r ki pni k t b l yi => le + yi
 girl-3FS-Nom her book brought-pst-3FS V₁ V₂
 ‘The girl brought her book’.

In this

⁷ This CPM is homophonous with a variant of genitive case ‘-ke’ in Hindi and we should not mix these two.

⁸ Sharma (1994) has also mentioned twice on page 91 and 123 that ‘l n ’ is made out of ‘len ’ and ‘ n ’.

example (28), we accept the argument proposed above, we will be able to explain easily as per the prerequisite of the compound verb that the ergative case can't be licensed to the subject of the sentence as the vector verb is an intransitive one and this block the ergative case as the entire CV is syntactically intransitive.

Let us see some more examples:

29. meri beṭi mer n m b Yli b Yl g yi
=>
my-F daughter-3FS- my-M forget-pst-3FS V₁ V₂
Nom name
'My daughter forgot my name'.

30. m) b t b s m j - => s m j g y
pki
I-1MS-Nom matter understand-pst- V₁ V₂
your-f now 3MS
'Now, I understand what you said'.

However, it is also possible to reconsider these completely de-lexicalized CVC as one lexical item synchronically and put another vector verb, especially a transitive one to prove the point in discussion, and we can have the licensing the 'ergative case' with the subject of the sentence. After all, we can't deny the powerful thesis proposed by Bloomfield (1933, Pp: 19) who wrote, 'In order to describe a language, one needs no historical knowledge whatsoever'. This thesis of Bloomfield is based on his understanding and agreement of Saussurean philosophy of language change and language function in which Saussure will argue that 'although language may be organic and therefore changing, at any point of time it is a self-contained system' (Whaley, L. J. 1997, p. 22).

Let us see the examples given below:

31. m -ne pki k t b l (hi) d
girl-3FS-Nom her book bring-V₁ emp Give-V₂-pst-3FS
'I brought your book'. Or 'Finally, I brought your book'.

32. m)-ne pki b t s m j li
I-1MS-Erg your-f matter understand-V₁ take-V₂-perf-3FS
'Now, I understand what you said'.

The grammaticality of the above sentences (31-32) show that though the ergative case can't be used when we have de-lexicalized vector (V₂) verb which is an intransitive verb and it puts the constrain on the occurrence of an ergative marker with the subject, however, by the change of a transitive counterpart, the licensing of the ergative marker becomes possible and prove the point we saw in the earlier sections of the explanation.

Conclusion:

The hypothesis presented in the paper is very new. I have been observing the nitty-gritty of different kinds of functions of the complex predicate for a long time now and I have observed them very closely in all my research and teaching. The presented facts and the data regarding linguistic prerequisites and the process of de-lexicalization of linguistic items have been selected and chosen very carefully. There has been several cross-checking for almost all the semantics of individual elements of the compound verb construction. The native speakers' opinion has been taken for all the corpora that I have used as the means to prove the theoretical point in the paper. If the line of research that has been pursued here is accepted by the other researchers in the field, it will solve some of the unexplained and unsolved problems in the area of compound verb construction.

The line of argument that I have followed in the paper is already applied for several languages and Hopper and Traugott (2003) and Kuteva (2001) model of grammaticalization has already been tested and proven facts in linguistics. I also find applicable to explain some of the exceptions of compound verb construction and I guess this paper should be viewed as critical evaluation of the theory of de-lexicalization in the field of compound verb construction.

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