A Study in

Systemic Description of Hindi Grammar

and

Comparison of the Hindi and English Verbal Groups

by

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Thesis presented for the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy

of the University of Edinburgh in the Faculty of Arts

August 1964

PREFACE

This work falls into three parts. Part 1 contains a synopsis of Halliday's theory of grammar.[1] In Part II an attempt has been made to present a description of Hindi within the general framework of Halliday's theory.

The description is at the demilevel[2] of grammar. The descriptive categories used here, which are particular instances of the basic categories of the theory, are not drawn from philosophy or logic or psychology or Sanskrit or Latin or English, but from Hindi itself; they are defined and delimited in terms of the complex network of 'chain' and 'choice' relations into which the 'forms' of Hindi enter. These categories, which by definition are interrelated and mutually defining, are set up to provide a description that is comprehensive, consistent and maximally powerful. Tha aim is to analyse Hindi rigorously in its own terms, to state its patterns, and to show how it works - in short, to provide a frame within which all forms of the language may be placed.

The description of Hindi is based on an analysis of written texts supplemented by an examination of my own usage as a speaker of the language. The texts analysed are:

1. '<u>Tyagpatra</u>' by Jainendra Kumar (Published by: Hind Pocket Books Ltd., Delhi - 32)
2. '<u>Chitralekha</u>' by Bhagvati Charan Varma (Published by: Bharati-Bhandar, Leader Press, Allahabad.)
3. '<u>Navnit</u>' (Hindi Digest, no. 11, November, 1962)

In actual description a descending order of procedure - from the largest, most inclusive unit to the smallest, least inclusive unit - has been followed. This

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1. cf. Halliday's (a) <u>Categories of the theory of grammar</u> (Word, vol. 17, 1961)
   (b) <u>Class in relation to the axes of chain and choice in language</u> (Linguistics, no. 2, 1963)
2. cf. R.M.W. Dixon's "<u>Linguistic Science and Logic</u>" (The Hague, 1963)

procedure has certain advantages. In such a hierarchic progression the structures set up for each unit determine the classes that are to be set up for the unit next below.

The description is not exhaustive but it does make use of a number of processes of abstraction to relate 'observed language events' to the categories of the theory. There is no direct or indirect suggestion of the fact that this description or method of analysis is the only one accurate or sacrosanct. Every effort, however, has been made to explain comprehensively the facts of the language and to leave sufficient room for "renewal of connection" with fresh observations of data. The methods used in this description are derived from, and answerable to, the theory.

Part III presents a brief comparison of the Hindi and English verbal groups. Since all comparison presupposes description, the English verbal group has been briefly described. The actual comparison is based on an analysis of the following texts:

(a) Graham Greene's "The End of the Affair" (Penguin Books, 1962) and its translation in Hindi -

(b) "Us rat ke bad" - translator: Mohan Rakesh (Published by Rajkamal Prakashan Ltd. Delhi)

Hindi examples have been given in a form of transliteration which is close to Firth's phonetic system of spelling designed as part of an All-India system of romanic orthography (cf. Firth's Introduction to A.H. Harley's Colloquial Hindustani) English renditions of Hindi examples are given (where possible) in brackets.

I wish to take this opportunity of expressing my sincere gratitude and indebtedness to my supervisors, Mr. J.C. Catford (Director, School of Applied Linguistics, University of Edinburgh - now Professor of Linguistics and Director, English Language

Institute, University of Michigan) and Dr. J.O. Ellis (Department of English language and General Linguistics) for reading the first draft of this thesis and giving valuable criticisms and suggestions. I am also grateful to Dr. R. Huddleston, who read the work in manuscript and made a number of useful comments. In the course of the preparation of this work I have profited by discussing several problems with Professor D. Abercrombie, Mr. J. McH. Sinclair, Mr. K.H. Albrow and Dr. R. Hasan. To them also I would express my gratitude. I am indebted to Professor W.S. Allen for his comments and suggestions on the problem of defining 'Subject' in Hindi. Thanks are also due to Mr. R. Mackin for general encouragement.

It is a real pleasure to record my debt to Dr. M.A.K. Halliday for his invaluable suggestions and constant encouragement. I have had the benefit of many hours of discussion with him during the preparation of this thesis. I want to thank him specially for reading the second and third chapters of this work, making numerous valuable comments and suggestions. My appreciation for his help and guidance cannot be adequately expressed.

Whilst I have benefited from the criticisms and suggestions of my supervisors, teachers and friends, I must make it clear that the responsibility for the statement made in the chapters that follow remains my own.

I wish to express my appreciation to the University of Edinburgh for a post-graduate scholarship which made my study at the University and the completion of this thesis possible.

Finally, and by no means least, I owe a debt of gratitude to my wife Asha for her forbearance and sympathetic understanding during the period of my study (1961-1964) at the University of Edinburgh.

CONTENTS

CONTENTS (Outline)

CHAPTER II

CHAPTER III

CHAPTER IV

CHAPTER V

PART I

CHAPTER I

A SYNOPSIS OF HALLIDAY'S THEORY OF GRAMMAR

1.10 Theory and Procedures:

A general theory of linguistics is not a set of procedures or heuristic techniques.[1] It is a set of abstractions derived from a number of observations of facts. One of its primary functions is to provide a framework of logically interrelated categories from which can be derived methods of description which show how language works. "The aim of a general theory of linguistics is to be such that a particular theory can be propounded for each individual language as a special case of the general theory.[2]

1.11 Theory and Description:

Description is not theory. It is a body of methods derived from theory which involve a number of processes of abstractions. Description consists in relating the text to the categories of the theory. The best description, therefore, is that which makes maximum use of the theory to account for a maximum of data.[3]

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1. Halliday: "... Linguistics is not a Set of procedures. It is a theory, with derived methods relevant to the different levels." [Review of C. L. Ebeling's "Linguistic Units": Archivum Linguisticum vol. 13, Fascicule 1, 1961; p 94].
2. Dixon: Linguistic Science and Logic: p 18.
3. P. Strevens: "Modern descriptive linguistics operates essentially as any scientific subject does by working from data to theory and from theory to description, with the data totally accounted for in the description". [Phonetics, applied linguistics, and other components of language teaching; "In honour of Daniel Jones": p 126].

Theory and description reinforce each other. Theory controls description by providing a framework of categories into which the description is fitted. Descriptive details motivate the linguist to look back at his theory and redefine or modify his theoretical categories in the light of his observations and analysis of data.[1] The validity of a theory is to be judged by its ability to handle specific language materials.

1.12 Description and Presentation:

It is necessary to distinguish between description and presentation. Presentation is the way the linguist expounds the description. It varies according to the purpose and scope of description. For example, the presentation of facts that is best for machine analysis is unlikely to be the best for other purposes.

1.20 Grammar:

Within the framework of this theory, grammar is defined as that level of formal patterning which deals with closed systems. The grammar of a language may be said to be that part of the language that is accounted for by grammatical description.

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1. Firth: "A theory derives its usefulness and validity from the aggregate of experience to which it must continually refer in renewal of connection." [Synopsis: p 1.]
Ellis: "... Theory is not something entirely independent of the facts, ~~but~~ but is implicit in any scientific handling of the facts, and is subject to constant improvement in the light of them."
[General Linguistics and Comparative Philology, p 162 LINGUA, vol. 7, 1957 - 58].

1.21 Categories of the theory of grammar:

The theory of grammar provides a framework of four interlocking and mutually defining categories: UNIT, STRUCTURE, CLASS, and SYSTEM, and operates with three Scales of abstraction which relate the categories to one another and to the data. These scales of abstraction are: RANK, DELICACY, and EXPONENCE.

It is impossible to define a category in isolation. The categories are all interlocked, and their meaning can be understood only in the totality of the theory. The relations among the categories do not involve logical precedence or priority.

These categories do not exist in rebus. They "are ordered schematic constructs, frames of reference, a sort of scaffolding for the handling of events ... Such constructs have no ontological status and we do not project them as having being or existence. They are neither immanent nor transcendent, but just language turned back upon itself."[1] Unit, structure, class and system are not inherent in the material; they are not 'hidden things' which a linguist 'discovers', rather they are convenient tools or 'fictions' which a linguist sets up to account for how language works. "There are no facts in linguistics until the linguist has made them; they are ultimately, like all scientific facts, the products of imagination and invention: 'Experience by itself is "silent", and it requires a hypothesis in order to give it a voice ... things, events, and facts do not speak, but the scientist does."[2]

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1. Firth: Personality and Language in society: Sociological Review 42, 1950; p 42.
2. W. S. Allen: On the Linguistic Study of Languages: p 11.

1.30 UNIT:

Unit is that basic theoretical category which is set up to account for the stretches of differing extent that carry grammatical patterns. The units (from the largest, most inclusive unit to the smallest, least inclusive unit) are not 'layered in concentric, onionlike layers' rather they are related taxonomically. They are ranged on a scale called "rank scale"; each unit consists of one or more than one complete member of the unit next below. More accurately, an exponent of each unit consists of one, or of more than one, complete exponent of the unit next below it. The theory, however, allows for downward 'rank-shift' ('Rank-shift' will be discussed furter on). Apart from the possibilities of sequence, inclusion and conflation, the relation indicated by "consists of" involves going through the other categories of "structure" and "class".

1.31 Shunting:

The relation among the units on the rankscale is not a one-way relation. "The theory embodies 'shunting' (moving up and down the rankscale) as crucial to the interrelation of the categories".[1]

1.32:

Unit as a basic theoretical category is universal, but the units of a language are peculiar to that language alone. These units are the stretches into which a language text is cut when grammatical statements are being made about it. They must be recognised afresh for each language.

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1. Halliday: "Categories": p 270.

1.33 Number of Units:

The number of units to be recognised is a descriptive feature. It varies from language to language. Our model assumes a minimum of two units; for if a language has only one unit, there would be no rankscale, no structures, no classes, no systems. For our description of English and Hindi, it has been found necessary to recognise five units which we will call, in descending taxonomic order - sentence, clause, group, word, and morpheme. One of the chief features of this taxonomic arrangement is that once the largest unit is defined and structures set up for it, the remaining units are self-defining. Sentence structure defines clause classes, ~~clause structure~~, clause structure defines group classes and so on.[1] Identification of a clause or a group or a word in isolation is not possible. A clause can only be identified as a clause if a sentence can be identified as a sentence and a group as a group, and so on up and down the rankscale.

1.34 Multi-unit Grammar:

Our theory suggests a 'multi-unit' grammar in which no unit is "more unique" than any other. Although the morpheme is the smallest unit in size, it is no more or no less abstract than the sentence. The smallest and the largest units, however, have their distinguishing features. The smallest unit has classes, but no structure; the largest unit has structure but no classes. That means the smallest and the largest units can only be partially defined in terms of intra-lingual relations.

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1. Roman Jakobson and Morris Halle: "Any linguistic unit at one and the same time serves as a context for simpler units and/or finds its own context in a more complex linguistic unit ... Combination and contexture are two faces of the same operation." [Fundamentals of Language: p 60.] We would not agree with the last sentence of Jakobson and Halle. For us syntax and morphology are two interrelated but distinct operations; the former refers to a downward movement on the rankscale and the latter to an upward one.

1.35 Simple and Compound Units:

A unit which consists of only one member of the unit next below is Simple, and one that consists of more than one is Compound.

Ex: HINDI Simple Verbal group: khaya (ate)

Compound Verbal group: khaya hɵy (has/have eaten)

1.40 STRUCTURE

The category of structure is set up to account for the ways in which a particular unit can be made up of one or more complete member of the unit next below, for example the ways in which a sentence can be made up of clauses, a clause of groups, a group of words and a word of morphemes. The structure of a unit may be defined in terms of classes of the unit next below. For example, sentence structure is defined in terms of clause classes, clause structure in terms of group classes, group structure in terms of word classes, and word structure in terms of morpheme classes.[1] These classes operate as exponents of 'elements' ordered in 'places' in the structure of the unit concerned. We may now define a structure as "an ordered arrangement of elements in chain relation".[2]

Ex: Clause-structure:

English:	Predicator +	Complement
	Fetch	the ink.
Hindi:	Object +	Predicator
	roʃnai	lao

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1. The structure of a unit may be said to be a distributional matrix or a frame of reference for the description of the classes of the unit next below.
2. Halliday: Chain and choice: p 7.

A structure is always a structure of a given unit. Each unit is characterized by certain structures.

1.41 Elements of Structure:

Structures consists of elements in interior syntagmatic relation.[1] The elements of structure do not occur arbitrarily relative to each other; each element occurs in certain position relative to certain other elements.[2] Elements may be defined by (i) their relative position in sequence or by (ii) exponence. For example, in English clause structure the element S (Subject) is defined by its place in sequence relative to P (Predicator) whereas P is defined as that element which is expounded by the class "verbal" of the unit group.

1.411 Obligatory and optional:

Some of the elements may be obligatory or nodal, others optional or peripheral. For example, in English Nominal group structure the element 'h' (head) is obligatory; the other elements 'm' (modifier) and 'q' (qualifier) are optional.

1.412: Presupposition:

Some elements presuppose another element but not vice-versa, while others presuppose each other. In a compound sentence of structure $\alpha\beta$, β presupposes α but α may not presuppose β. In a subjectival clause[3] in Hindi S^{o} (nominative Subject) presupposes p^{t} (Imperfect Predicator) and vice-versa.

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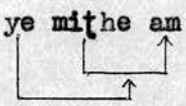
1. Firth: "A Structure is said to comprise elements or categories in mutual syntagmatic relation." ["Ethnographic Analysis and Language with reference to Malinowski's views": in Man and Culture: p 107 f.n.]
2. These elements are in no sense "permanent bricks juxtaposed in a permanent structure".
3. For the definition of the subjectival clause, see the chapter on 'the Hindi clause'.

1.4121 Co-ordination and subordination:

Presupposition relations can be glossed in traditional terms as "sub-ordination" and "co-ordination". In a structure of a unit, some elements may stand in a relation of subordination to some other elements.[1] The relation between the elements is 'non-transitive' and their order may not be reversed. The elements are usually "nested" one within the other.

Ex: Hindi - Nominal group structure:



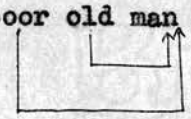
(these sweet mangoes)

1.41211 Additive and Appositive:

The elements may be in a relation of co-ordination which may be either additive or appositive.

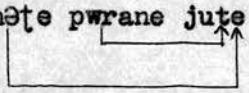
Ex: Additive:

English: poor old man



Here poor and old are co-ordinate.[2]

Hindi: phə̯te pwrane jute (old worn shoes)



Here 'phə̯te' and 'pwrane' are co-ordinate.

Appositive:

English: Mr. Smith, the greengrocer.

Hindi: Ramu, lohar. (Ramu, the blacksmith).

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1. C.E. Bazell: "One member of a syntagma is said to be subordinate to the other when the latter is characterised by such features as are also characteristic of the whole syntagm." [The Fundamental Syntactic Relations: p 11 Časopis Pro Moderni Filologii 33(1950)].
2. C. E. Bazell: "In a syntagm AB, A and B are co-ordinate if the overall environmental ranges of both A and B are similar to that of the syntagm." [Linguistic Form, p 33].

The relation between the elements in co-ordination is 'transitive'

Co-ordination and Subordination (dependence) are two facets of depth-ordering which we shall discuss further on.

1.42 'Place' in structure:

There are at least as many places in the structure of a unit as there are elements. It is, however, possible to have the same element twice in the structure of a unit.[1] The theory allows for a structure of one place or of one element only. We have simple sentences or simple clauses or simple groups or simple words. The only theoretical restriction is that each unit must carry at least one structure that consists of more than one place otherwise one of the units would be redundant. If, for example, all words consist of one morpheme, "word" and "morpheme" would be one and the same unit.

1.43 Number and sequence of elements:

The number of different elements and their sequence may be crucial in distinguishing structures. In English SP (two elements only) and SPC (three elements) represent two different structures and are exponents of two different terms in the system of transitivity. The same is true of Hindi. SP is exponent of the transitive clause and SOP of the intransitive. Again (in English) SP and PS (where S comes after the first word in P) are exponents of the affirmative and interrogative clauses respectively. That is, they mean two different things in the system of mood. SOP (mɛ̃y am khata hũ) and OSP (am mɛ̃y khata hũ) represent different structures in Hindi and expound two different terms in the system of Clause-theme - the first one neutral and the second with a thematic O[2].

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1. Robert Abernathy: "An essential trait of a language - as distinguished from certain mathematical systems, for instance that of the natural numbers - is that it admits of more than one occurrence of the same element". [The Problem of Linguistic Equivalence: p 95 (Prodeedings of Symposia in Applied Mathematics vol. XII, 1961)].

2. S = Subject; P = Predicator; O = Object.

1.45 Primary and Secondary Structures:

Primary structures are the least delicate structures. For each grammatical unit in each language we can recognise "primary" (least delicate) elements of structure. For example, for the clause in Hindi, we have set up four primary elements: Subject, Object, Adjunct and Predicator. From these we derive our primary classes. The various possible combinations of S, O, A, P are primary structures of the unit Clause in Hindi. Further differentiations yield secondary elements and secondary structures. The point to note here is that these are still structures of the same unit, not of the unit next below. We are at the same rank, but we have made a move in delicacy.

Ex:	English:	Primary clause structure:	SPC
		Secondary clause structures:	$S^{s}P^{s}C$ $S^{p}P^{p}C$
	Hindi:	Primary clause structure:	SOP
		Secondary clause structures:	$S^{o}O\ P^{Imp.}$ $S^{n}O\ P^{Perf.}$

[S^{s} = Singular Subject; S^{p} = Plural Subject; S^{o} = Unmarked Subject; S^{n} = Ergative Subject. P^{p} = Singular Predicator; $P^{Imp.}$ = Plural Predicator; $P^{Perf.}$ = Perfect Predicator].

1.46 Place-ordered and depth-ordered Structures:

We may have class-determined structures or sequence-determined structures or a mixture of both. If a structure is class-determined, each place and each element in the structure is defined with reference to class(es) of the unit next below; in such a structure each element operates with a different value. If a structure is sequence-determined, the elements of structure are sequence-expounded, not class expounded; the same element may be repeated recursively.

It is difficult to find a purely sequence-determined structure. The nominal group in English represents a mixture of the two types.

In a recent paper Halliday has made a distinction between place-ordered and depth-ordered structures. We quote: "By a place-ordered structure I mean one composed of a limited number of different elements occuring non-recursively. Such a structure may be fully class-defining, in the sense that to each element corresponds a distinct class of lower rank: for example the clause structure "Subject + Predicator", with classes respectively nominal group and verbal group, as in "my friends have arrived", or it may be only partially class-defining where two or more elements are expounded by the same class but differentiated in sequence. In this type of structure, there is no constant relation between successive (or otherwise paired) elements; for example, in the structure "subject + predicator + complement" (e.g. "John saw Mary", "my friends have invited me") it is not true that subject is to predicator as predicator is to complement.

..... Language also exhibits a different kind of structure, the "recursive" or "depth-ordered" structure. Here, as the name implies, an element of structure, or a combination of elements, is repeated "in depth", a series of such elements (or combinations) thus forming a progression ... It is a characteristic of recursive structures that they cannot be used to differentiate classes".[1]

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1. Halliday: Chain and choice: pp 11 - 12.

1.461 Recursive Structures:

Depth-ordered or recursive structures are of two types: those involving "rankshift" and those not. We give examples from Halliday's article mentioned in the previous section.

Non-rankshifted type: Sentence structure:

he might have come if you had told him when you rang him

α β γ

up while he was packing before he went away.

δ ε

Here only the first term can be distinguished by class. We can say that the alpha-element is expounded by the class "independent clause". After that, the class "dependent clause" operates at beta, gamma, delta and epsilon. In fact the same element is repeated in depth.

Rank-shifted Type: Nominal group structure and adverbial group structure, both rank-shifted (q= "qualifier" in nominal group; c= "prepositional complement" in adverbial group; [ ]= boundary of rankshifted group):

the peartree in the garden in front of the house near

[qα [cα [qβ [cβ [qγ

the bridge over the river.

[cγ [qδ [cδ]

1.50 CLASS:

The structure of a unit is made up of classes of the unit next below. But not every class of a unit can operate as an element at every place in the

structure of the unit next above. For this reason items are grouped together into classes on the basis of their operation in the structure of the unit next above. "The concept is introduced into the description of a language in order to bring together those sets of items that have the same potentiality of occurrence; in other words, sets of items which are alike in the way they pattern in the structure of items of higher rank. Thus, to take a typical instance from grammar, we may have morpheme classes defined by word structure, each such class being one set of morphemes having a given value in the structure of words: as, for example, the morphemes of inflexion in Latin nouns. Likewise we might have word classes defined by group structure, or clause classes by sentence structure."[1]

Ex: Hindi and English: class "verbal" of the unit group operates at P in clause structure.

class "nominal" of the unit group operates at S and O/C in clause structure.

We must mention here that a class is always a class of a given unit.

Another kind of classification would be morphological. Here class would be a grouping of items which are alike in the way they are made up of classes of the unit next below. Usually the two give the same results, but where there

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1. Halliday: Chain and Choice: p 5.

is a clash, priority is given to syntactic classification.[1] According to Halliday the class, defined syntactically "is crucial to the whole of linguistic theory, since it is required to give meaning to the basic concepts of 'structure' and 'system'; whereas the type or morphological set, is more a descriptive convenience whose theoretical implications are largely internal to itself."[2]

1.51 Class in relation to structure and system:

The relation of class to structure is an inter-rank relation: classes of a unit operate at 'places' in the structure of the unit next above. This relation yields "chain-classes". The relation of class to system is intra-rank relation: at particular places in the structure of a unit, we may have a choice from among a number of secondary classes. This relation yields "Choice classes".

1.52 Class in relation to place-ordered and depth-ordered structures.

Place-ordered structures are class-oriented; each element is expounded by a distinct class of the unit next below. Depth-ordered structures are sequence-oriented; the elements of this type of structure are not discrete, hence we do not have distinct classes. In fact, recursive structures cannot be used to differentiate classes.

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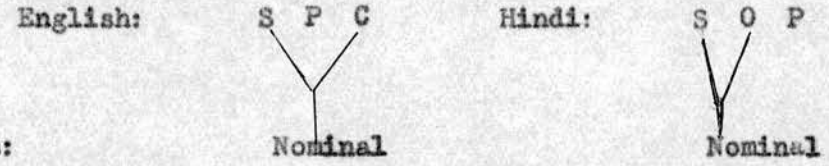
1. Pike: "We would say, rather, that each unit is classified primarily by its occurrence - its external distribution - in one or more slots of one or more higher-layered structures, and secondarily by its internal organization; both criteria are crucial, but in any clash of analysis the first gets priority." [Language III p 27].

2. Halliday: op. cit. p 7.

1.53 Primary and Secondary classes.

Class, like structure, may be ranged on the scale of delicacy. At the primary degree of delicacy we have classes which stand in one-one relation to elements of primary structures. These may be called 'primary classes'. One might deduce from this that there will be as many primary classes as there are primary elements in the structure of a unit. If x, y, z are, for example, primary elements of a structure (of a unit), there would be primary classes a, b, c of the unit next below expounding these elements. The theory does, however, allow for a single primary class derivable simultaneously from two elements of structure.

Unit: clause: Primary structure:



There is a high degree of overlap between the exponents of S and C (in English) and between S and O (in Hindi): one primary class (class 'nominal' of the unit 'group') has therefore been set up as exponent of both S and C (in the case of English), and S and O (in the case of Hindi).[1]

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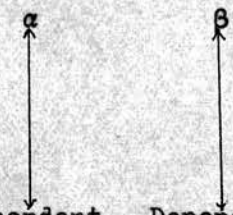
1. Halliday: "Where the sets of items operating as two or more elements of structure show more than a certain degree of overlap, as in the case of subject and complement - most items that can be subject can also be complement and vice-versa - these are conflated into a single primary class: thus the nominal group is the primary class expounding both subject and complement in English Clause Structure". [Chain and Choice: p 9].

Examples of primary classes:

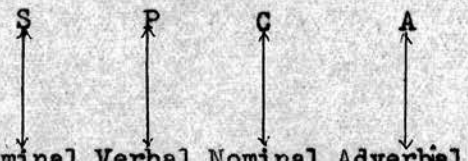
Unit: Sentence: Primary: Structure:



Hindi and English

Unit: Clause: Primary Classes: Independent Dependent

Unit: Clause: Primary Structure:

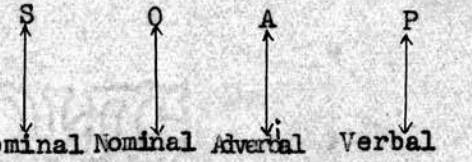


English

Unit: Group: Primary Classes: Nominal Verbal Nominal Adverbial

Hindi

Unit: Clause: Primary Structure:



Unit: Group: Primary Classes: Nominal Nominal Adverbial Verbal

[Note: we have already said that we can conflate the exponents of S and C (or S and O) into one primary class: 'Nominal' of the unit group].

Secondary classes are derived in two ways:-

i) from secondary (chain) elements of structure; secondary chain classes;

ii) from subdivisions of primary classes; secondary choice classes.

[We can say that secondary chain classes are also subdivisions of primary classes]

The same element at different places in structure may yield distinct secondary classes. For example, in English clause structure, SPCC may more delicately be represented as $SPC^{I}C^{E}$, C^{I} and C^{E} being secondary classes Intensive and Extensive nominal groups respectively.

There is yet another way of differentiating secondary elements. With increased delicacy, the elements of primary structure may be differentiated into

secondary elements. The primary structure of the nominal group in English may be represented by $\underline{m}$(modifier), $\underline{h}$ (head) and $\underline{q}$ (qualifier). These three elements are expounded by the primary classes of the unit word. The element $\underline{h}$ is expounded by the class noun and the element $\underline{m}$ by the class pre-noun of the unit word. By taking a step in delicacy $\underline{m}$ may be broken into secondary elements d, o, e, n yielding secondary chain classes: deictics, ordinatives, epithets and nominals.

Subdivisions of primary classes yield secondary choice classes, for example, active verbal group and passive verbal group are subdivisions of the primary class "verbal" of the unit group.

Certain syntagmatic relations between elements of structure might produce secondary elements, and also secondary choice classes. If, for example, there is a relation of "concord" between say S(Subject) and P(Predicator) in clause structure such that only S^s(Singular Subject) can co-occur with P^s(Singular Predicator) and S^p(Plural Subject) can co-occur with P^p(Plural Predicator), these would yield secondary choice classes.[1] expounding S^s, S^p, P^s, P^p.

1.54 Chain and Choice classes:

We have already said a few things about chain and choice classes in the previous subsections of section 1.5. Halliday has used these terms in his article: "Class in Relation to the Axes of Chain and Choice in Language." Chain classes are derived from elements of structure in syntagmatic relation, and choice classes from those in paradigmatic relation. It is important to note

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1. Sub-classes: We may arrive at these classes without reference to secondary structures. Classes derived in this way may be called "sub-classes". In fact there is no theoretical difference here, the relation between structure and class is a two-way relation, and there is no question of "discovering one "before" the other". (Halliday: Categories: p 261).

here that choice classes can never be primary classes; chain classes may be primary or secondary. In other words, primary classes are always chain classes; secondary classes may be either chain classes or choice classes.

Ex:

Primary chain classes: Nominal group, Verbal group, Adverbal group - operating at the primary elements S/C, P and A in clause structure.

Secondary chain classes: deictics, ordinatives, epithets, nominals - operating at the secondary elements d, o, e, n in Nominal group structure.

Secondary choice classes: → Active Verbal group / Passive Verbal group - choice made at P in clause structure.

Secondary chain classes, by definition, enter into structural relations, and secondary choice classes into systemic relations. Chain classes can co-occur; choice classes are mutually exclusive.

1.55 Simple and Complex secondary classification: "Microclass"

Secondary classes mentioned thus far are all products of simple secondary classifications. Complex secondary classifications based on multiple criteria - criteria which often cut across each other - yield interlocking multidimensional

secondary classes. These classes have been called "microclasses". The point which must needs be emphasized here is that in our process of complex classifications we are not only constantly sub-dividing but equally frequently re-dividing. "A given class breaks down by simple subdivisions into a system of more delicate classes, but the same original class will also subdivide in a number of different ways, so that many dimensions of classification intersect with one another. Any given item, to be fully identified, may require to be simultaneously classified on all such dimensions. In this way it can be assigned to a "microclass", this representing its value in respect of all the properties which have been found relevant to the way it patterns in the language."[1]

We give here a simple example from Hindi:-

Nominal group:
(unmarked case)

	Masculine	Feminine
Singular	ləṛka	ləṛki
Plural	ləṛke	ləṛkyɑ̃

Here we get two intersecting dimensions - those of number and gender. In other words, the masculine-feminine dimension intersects with the singular-plural dimension.

1.60 SYSTEM:

System is that abstract grammatical category which we set up at 'place(s)' in the structure of a unit to account for the occurrence of one rather than another

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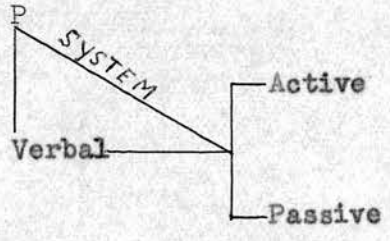
1. Halliday: Chain and Choice: p 11.

from among a number of like events. A system may be said to be a limited ('closed') set of terms in paradigmatic opposition. The terms in a system (these terms have the nature and degree of abstraction of the "class") are both collectively exhaustive and mutually exclusive.[1]

It is uneconomical to set up an over-all system of terms or classes divorced from its place of operation in structure. We maintain that systems should be appropriate to the positions for which they are established. "At the several places in a given grammatical structure one sets up appropriate systems to give value to the elements of that structure."[2]

Ex: In both English and Hindi clause structures, the primary element P is expounded by the primary class 'verbal' of the unit group. By taking a step in delicacy, we may break the class 'verbal' into active verbal group and passive verbal group which form a system of classes operating at P. In other words, at P we have a choice between active verbal group and passive verbal group. By setting up a system of Voice we not only account for this choice but also link up secondary choice classes[3] to the primary element of structure. Diagramatically:-



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1. Non-choice-exhausting systems are of marginal value only: we have not built them into the framework of our theory.
2. Allen: Zero and Panini [Indian Linguistics vol XVI, 1955, p 106]
3. This set of secondary choice classes now stands in the relation of exponent to the primary element of clause structure - P.

.61 Multidimensional systems:

Systems may interlock and affect one another in various ways. Since classes which operate as terms in a system represent the endpoints of more than one relation, systems are generally multidimensional.

1.62:

It is a defining characteristic of a system that it cannot be a cline.[1]

1.63 System in relation to structure:

Structure and system are two distinct but interrelated categories.[2] Systems operate at 'places' in structure to give mutually determined values to the elements of structure. Structures are undimensional, linear; systems are generally multidimensional, commutational.[3] The relation between structure and system is always inter-rank relation.

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1. Halliday: Categories, p 259 f.n. 44.
2. W. S. Allen: "The terms 'structure' and 'system' are used complementarily; the principle to be stressed is that systems are established at specific places in structure, and that this is the sole guarantee of their relevance. Such a principle contrasts with those varieties of 'structural' linguistics which operate with overall, compendious systems divorced from place in structure". [Structure and System in the Abaza Verbal Complex; T.P.S. 1956, p 131].
3. Firth: "My own theory of analysis requires that the terms 'structure' and 'system' be kept distinct in technical use. Structures are abstractions from utterances or parts of utterances recorded textually. Thus CVCVC and Noun-Verb-Noun might each constitute a structure specifically defined in a particular language, at the phonological and grammatical levels respectively. A structure is said to comprise elements or categories in mutual syntagmatic relation. At any given level of analysis closed systems of categories, units or terms are set up to give mutually determined value to the elements of structure. The terms of a system or of a sub-system within it commute, thus enabling account to be taken of the elements, constituents and features which are given order and place in structure."
   [Ethnographic Analysis and Language with reference to Malinowski's views: in Man and Culture: p 107 f.n.].

1.70: The Rank-scale:

The scale of rank, like the scales of Delicacy and Exponence, is a scale of abstractions. We have set it up to account for the hierarchical arrangement of grammatical units, and for the interrelation among the categories. In both Hindi and English, every sentence consists of one or more than one clause, every clause of one or more than one group, every group of one or more than one word, and every word of one or more than one morpheme. Thus in Hindi 'jao' (जाओ) may be (i.e. may be an exponent of) one sentence which is one clause which is one group which is one word which is one morpheme.

1.71: 'Rank-shift':

We have examined the operation of the rankscale in our discussion of the Units. We have also noted that the theory allows for "rank-shift". "Rank-shift" is the operation of one unit (or a class of unit) in the structure of a unit of lower rank or of the same rank (e.g. a clause by definition operates in sentence-structure, but in "the man who came to dinner", "who came to dinner" is a rank-shifted clause operating inside a nominal group).

Ex:Hindi: asman mẽ ṛti hwi cyṛyya (in-the-sky-flying bird)

Here we have a nominal group with structure - mh. The exponent of h (head) is 'cyṛyya', and that of m (modifier) is "asman mẽ ṛti hwi"; but "asman mẽ ṛti hwi" is an exponent of a dependent clause having structure A (Adjunct) P(Predicator). Normally, a dependent clause operates in sentence-structure. So we can say that here we have a rank-shifted dependent clause operating at m in nominal group structure.

"Rank-shift" is a case of departure from one/one relation between element of

structure of a unit and classes of the unit next below. "Rankshift' is in fact merely a name for that type of recursive structure which cuts across the scale of rank. That is to say: in non-rankshifted structures, whether recursive or not, classes of each rank enter into a structure of the rank immediately above: in English, morpheme classes in word structure, word classes in group structure, group classes in clause structure and clause classes in sentence structure. In rankshift this relation is broken and the classes enter into a structure of their own rank or even of lower rank than themselves ... "[1]

We must note here that our theory does not need to allow for upward rankshift in view of the unit-relation referred to in 1.70.

1.80 The Scale of Delicacy:

The scale of delicacy has been introduced to show how with increased differentiations, the network of grammatical relations becomes more and more complex. Delicacy is a cline,[2] a continuum carrying potentiality of infinite gradation. At one end of this cline, we set up the minimum number of elements and classes to account for the relationship between the components of a structure; as we move on, we become more and more delicate, the network of grammatical relations becomes more and more complex. In fact, the other end of the cline is where grammatical differentiation ceases and we are not able to make any more delicate groupings. The limit of delicacy is set not by the theory but the purpose and scope of the description. "Delicacy is a variable to which no theoretical limit can be set; nor is there yet any valid and objective means of measuring it."[3]

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1. Halliday: Chain and Choice: p 13.
2. " : Categories: p 272
3. " : The Tones of English: Archivum Linguisticum, vol. XV Fascicule I, p 2.

S, P, C, A, have been set up as primary elements of clause structure in English. Nominal group, Verbal group and Adverbal group are primary classes of the unit group operating respectively at S/C, P and A. We cannot account for the relations between the components of a clause or for the operation of group classes in clause structure with less than these four elements. Progressively more delicate differentiations of structure or class are accounted for at secondary delicacy.

DELICACY ⟷

Least delicate	Most delicate
Primary structure	Secondary structure(s) ...
Primary class(es)	Secondary class(es) ...

At the primary degree of delicacy, our description of the Hindi nominal group structure is (m) h (q) (e) (n)[1] in that order. Thus we would say, at this degree of delicacy, that the following two groups:

ə̃grez/lə̆rke (English boys)

ve tin əcche ə̃grez/lărke (those three nice English boys)

have the same primary structure: mh. But, by taking a step in delicacy, m may be broken into d (deictic), o (ordinatives), e (epithet) and n (nominal), and

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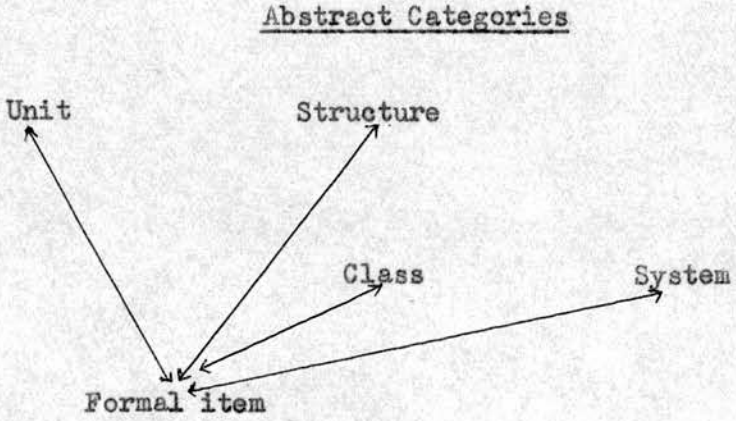
1. m = modifier; h = head; q = qualifier; e = emphasizor; n = negator.

e can say that ve tin ə̃cche əgrez/lə̤rke has the secondary structure: doenh.[1]

1.90 The Scale of Exponence:

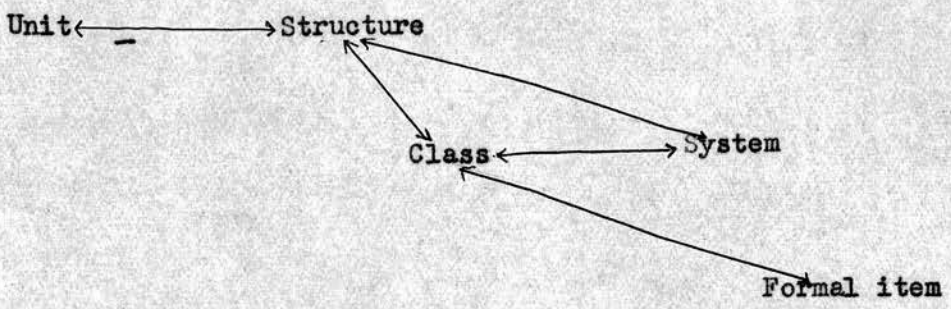
We have seen how staying in the same category and at the same rank, we can be more and more delicate. Delicacy accounts for our intra-category and intra-rank moves. The scale of exponence accounts for our move from one category to another (or from a category to the formal item). It relates our observations of data to abstract concepts (categories). At the most abstract end-point of this relation are the four basic categories - Unit, Structure, Class and System. At the other end-point within form is the formal item. The move from any category to its exponent may be made either directly or via any or all of the other categories. One can link any category directly to its formal exponent (and through this to its exponent in substance). But with a view to achieving maximum generalization and abstraction, 'one proceeds from category to exponent by the longest route that is compatible with never going over the same step twice.'[2]

DIRECT ROUTE:

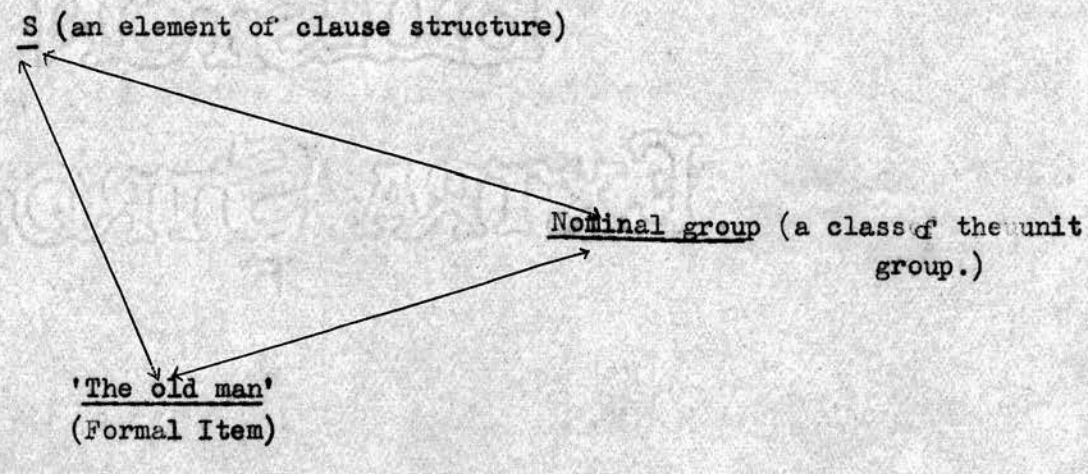


1. e = epithet.
2. Halliday: Categories, p 265.

ROUTE via THE CATEGORIES:



Exemplification:*



The formal item 'the old man' can be linked directly to S or we can move via the class 'nominal' of the unit group. If we move directly to S, we lose in generality and miss a lot of the intricate network of grammatical relations.

"A given formal item can be at one and the same time, and in the same sense, an exponent of a unit, a structure, an element of structure, a class and a term in

a system".[1] For example, the formal item "khaya jata hϑy" (is eaten) in Hindi may be exponent of: (i) the unit 'group', (ii) the element P in clause structure, (iii) the class 'verbal' and (iv) the term 'passive' in the system of voice.

1.91 The formal item:

The formal item is the boundary of grammar on the exponence scale.[2] The formal item may have substantial exponents - but this will not be a prolongation of the scale of exponence in grammar. The nature of this abstraction is different and the formal item itself is now an abstraction from substantial features.

1.92:

Exponence may be said to operate on two interrelated dimensions - on one dimension we have the formal item and the abstract categories in exponential relation, and on the other we have substantial features as exponent of a formal category or a formal item. To quote Halliday: "In this paper I have used "exponent" as indicating relative position on the exponence scale (a formal item as exponent of a formal category, and a feature of substance as exponent of a formal category or item); this departs from the practice of those who restrict the term "exponent" to absolute exponents in substance. As used here, "formal item" is a technical term for the endpoint of the exponence relation ('most exponential' point) in form ... In this formulation, exponence is the only relation by which formal category, formal item and feature of substance are linked on a single scale: hence the need for a single term to indicate relative position on the scale Two defined positions on this scale can then be distinguished as "realization"

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1. Halliday: Categories: p 265
2. Halliday: Categories: p 271

and "manifestation".[1] In fact, 'manifestation' (in substance) and 'realization' (in form) represent different degrees along the exponence scale.

1.100 Interrelation of the scales:

A shift on one scale may but need not always entail a shift on others.

1.101 Exponence and Delicacy:

Moves on the scale of delicacy imply that remaining at the same rank and in the same category, one can go on becoming more delicate. For example, if we are at the rank, clause and in the category structure, our move from primary clause structure to secondary clause structures is a move in delicacy. Again, if we are in the category class (but at the same rank, that is, of clause), our move from primary class to secondary class(es) is a move in delicacy. Exponence, on the other hand, involves inter-category relation and might (but not necessarily) also involve inter-rank relation.

A move on the scale of exponence may not entail a move on the scale of delicacy.

Ex: The formal item "this evening" is an exponent of the class 'nominal' of the unit group. The move from the formal item to the category 'class' is a move on the exponence scale; there is no move on the scale of delicacy.

A move on the scale of delicacy may not entail a move on the scale of exponence.

Ex: The formal item 'yəh'[2] (this) in Hindi is an exponent of both the primary element m (modifier) and of the secondary element d (deictic) in the structure of the nominal group. Here we have a move in delicacy, but not in exponence.

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1. Halliday: Categories p 250.
2. in'yəh lərka' (this boy)

1.102 Exponence and Rank:

Rank is often mistakenly equated with exponence. It is assumed that going down the rankscale is the same thing as going down the exponence scale. This confusion between the hierarchical ranking of units on the one hand, and the different steps on the exponence scale on the other is to a great extent due to our misunderstanding of the interrelations between the categories. When we move from element to class on the exponence scale, we are also moving down one step on the rankscale. This is not due to 'any inherent indetermination between exponence and rank' but due to a special relations between the elements of structure of a unit and classes of the unit next below.

The scales of rank and exponence represent different dimensions of abstraction.

Ex: The formal item "the old man" as an exponent of the nominal group and the structure mh as an exponent of the nominal group differ in exponence but not in rank. SPCA (exponent of clause-structure in English) and mhq (exponent of group structure in English) differ in rank but not in exponence. From the point of view of ranking, the sentence and the morpheme represent the two endpoints on the rankscale, but from the point of view of exponence the sentence stands in exactly the same relation to its exponents as does the morpheme.[1]

1.103 Rank and Delicacy:

Delicacy and rank represent two different scale types, the former is a cline and the latter a hierarchy. A move on the scale of delicacy does not involve a

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1. Halliday: "The relation of an exponent of the unit "sentence" to the category of sentence is exactly the same as that of an exponent of the unit "morpheme" to the category of morpheme".
[Categories: p 282].

move on rankscale.

Ex: Primary structure of the nominal group: mhq

Secondary structure of the nominal group: doenhq

Here we remain at the same rank (the rank of group) but we have made a move in delicacy.

A move on the scale of rank does not involve a move on the delicacy scale.

Ex: Primary clause structure: SPC

Primary group (nominal) structure: mhq

(English)

Here we have moved down from clause to group on the rankscale but there is no move on the delicacy scale.

1.104. Scale-types:

Name of the scales	Types.
RANK	HIERARCHY (TAXONOMY)
DELICACY	CLINE
EXPONENCE	CLINE*

* Delicacy and exponence are both 'clines' in the sense that they are continuous, discrete and open - but with a different kind of openness; delicacy is open in the sense of open-ended, since it is a scale of progressive differentiation and therefore can be indefinitely provected, whereas exponence is open in the sense that although the terminal points are fixed intermediate points can be indefinitely filled.

PART II

"Whatever be the country of the student, the analysis of his native tongue is his best practice in general grammar".

(Latham in the Preface to his English Grammar of 1843, p vi)

A SYSTEMIC DESCRIPTION OF HINDI

CHAPTER II

THE SENTENCE

CHAPTER TWO

2.11 Definition and delimitation:

It is a commonplace of linguistics to consider the sentence as a universal category. It is universal in the sense that all languages have one unit which operates directly in situation.

"There will always be one unit which, more than any other, offers itself as an item for contextual statement because it does the language work in situations: so it might as well always have the same name: 'sentence'". [1] This does not, however, mean that the sentence in all languages has the same formal meaning. The formal meaning of the sentence in Hindi, for example, depends upon the total network of linguistic relations into which it enters. In fact, the formal meaning of any given unit always involves reference to others, and therefore indirectly to all the others.

2.12:

We define and delimit a unit or classes of a unit by looking at the way it operates in the structure of the unit next above - morpheme in word-structure, word in group-structure, group in clause-structure and clause in sentence-structure. We can not do this in the case of sentence because we have not set up any unit higher than the sentence.

2.13:

The traditional grammarians, it seems, have had no difficulty in defining the sentence. Almost all of them are agreed on the point that the sentence is a group of words that expresses a complete thought. We find it very difficult to

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1. M. A. K. Halliday: "Categories" p 252.

to operate with such a definition of sentence. Our difficulty is not because of the fact that this definition is traditional but because it is non-grammatical; it is based not on intralingual relations but on extralingual considerations. This sort of definition is tied up with the notion of language as an expression of thought.

"If we regard language as 'expressive' or 'communicative', we imply that it is an instrument of inner mental states. And as we know so little of inner mental states, even by the most careful introspection, the language problem becomes more mysterious, the more we try to explain it by referring to inner mental happenings that are not observable." [1]

Another point is that the traditional grammarians postulated only two linguistic units - sentence and word. It may be very difficult to operate with only two linguistic units[2] because in such a description there will hardly be any room for 'shunting'.

2.14:

In our description of Hindi the sentence is taken as the largest, most inclusive unit under examination; statements about the syntagmatic relations between elements set up to describe the structure of the sentence may be said to represent 'the upper limit of systematization.'[3] Bendor-Samuel, in a similar situation in his description of Jebero, says:

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1. J. R. Firth: "Speech" pp. 38 - 9.
2. Theoretically there is no objection to setting up only two units; in fact the number of units is a descriptive feature.
3. M. A. K. Halliday: Grammatical Categories in Chinese: p 182 (TPS 1956).

"The sentence is the largest piece for which systematic statements of grammatical structure and relations are made". [1] According to Bloomfield any free form and no bound form can occur as a sentence.

"A maximum form in any utterance is a sentence."[2]

In a recent study of a Panoan language (Capanahua), Eugene E. Loos says:

"A sentence is a grammatical unit of speech potentially isolatable as a complete utterance by one speaker." [3]

2.15

The Hindi sentence is a grammatical unit (highest/largest on rankscale) which potentially occurs alone as complete utterance.[4] In a written text, the sentence may be delimited by purely graphic criteria. Any stretch of utterance written between (i) blank and any of the following punctuation marks or (ii) between the punctuation marks themselves is a sentence.

Punctuation marks:	(a) purɳ-vyram	(full-stop)	Symbol - I
	(b) prɵʃn-sucɵk cynh	(mark of interrogation)	Symbol - ?
	(c) vysmɵy-bodhɵk cynh	(mark of exclamation)	Symbol - !

In theory the sentence is unlimited in extent, and it is considered to extend until marked as closed.[5] We must make our position clear on this point. The

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1. J. T. Bendor- Samuel: The Verbal piece in Jebero: p 35.
2. (a) L. Bloomfield: A set of postulates for the science of language. p 28. [From "Readings in Linguistics" Ed. by Joos].
   (b) " : "Each sentence is an independent linguistic form, not included by virtue of any grammatical construction in any larger linguistic form." [Language: p 170].
3. Eugene E. Loos : Capanahua Narration Structure: p 700. [Texas Studies in Literature and Language; vol IV, Supplement 1963]
4. K. L. Pike ... "A sentence is by definition isolatable in its own right - isolability is a specific characteristic of the sentence itself (Bloomfield, 170). ...Isolatability must be defined structurally. Here we treat it as a potential of an item for constituting an entire utterance". (Language, vol. III pp. [illegible] - 7).
5. M. A. K. Halliday: "As in written texts in modern Chinese or in European languages (where the sentence is taken to extend until marked as closed by a full-stop"). [Secret History" p 51 f.n. 1.]

sentence in Hindi, as remarked above, is a grammatical unit and has been established in our grammar of Hindi,[1] by formal grammatical criteria - viz. (a) potentiality of occurring alone as complete utterance, (b) the way in which clause classes make up its structure. In the delimitation of exponents of sentence within our text, we would do a bit of 'squinting', that is, draw evidence from other 'levels' (phonology and graphology).

Two sentences: mə̃yne yəh kytab pəʧhi həy / ʃila yse kəl pəʧhegi /
(I have read this book) (Sheila will read it tomorrow)

One sentence: məyne yəh kytab pəʧhi həy pər ʃila yse kəi pəʧhegi /
(I have read this book but Sheila will read it tomorrow).

In spoken Hindi, we can draw evidence from phonology. Intonation might help us draw a line round sentence.

2.16:

All sentences are grammatically free;[2] but they may not be contextually free. Sentence being that unit which operates directly in situation, may be said to be contextually conditioned, and we may get some idea about it by looking at its contextual function.

The contextual function of the sentence may be systematized as follows:

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1. A. De Groot: "The sentence of a definite language belongs to the grammar of that language".
   - [Structural Linguistics and Syntactic Laws" p 3. Word vol. 5 no. 1, 1949].
2. M. A. K. Halliday: "Since no unit has been set up greater than the sentence having structure in which the forms operating are sentence classes, all are sentences are grammatically free".
   [Grammatical Categories in Chinese: p 184 TPS 1956].

Contextually determined sentence-types	Examples	
(a) Statement	ʃekhər khel rəha həy	(Shekhar is playing)
(b) Command	yəhɑ̃ ao	(come here)
(c) Question	meri kytab kəhɑ̃ həy?	(where is my book?)
(d) Answer	mez pər	(on the table)
(e) Exclamation	ag! ag!	(Fire! Fire!)

All sentences are either statements or commands or questions or answers or exclamations. We may talk more delicately about request or entreaty under 'command' or about 'surprise' under 'exclamation'. 'Conditionals' are taken care of at the clause-rank. 'Negation' and 'emphasis' are carried by different classes of the Group.

At a higher degree of abstraction one might say that a sentence is either anapocritic (i.e. it is not an answer) or apocritic (i.e. it is an answer).

2.21 The primary elements of Sentence Structure:

We are forced to approach the sentence "from below" simply because of its unique position at the top of the rankscale. It does not operate in the structure of any higher unit (as a matter of fact we have not set up any unit higher than the sentence),[1] but it does 'consist of' one or more complete member of the unit next below.[2] "A sentence is a grammatical form which is not in construction with any other grammatical form; a constitute which is not a constituent".[3]

The way clause-classes operate in a sentence might give us a fairly good idea of the structure of sentence. According to Pike

"Some, but not all, sentences are clauses; some sentences are made up of two or more clauses, whereas other sentences - especially those filling an utterance-response slot - may be made up of non-clause phrases or words (thus tomorrow is a non-clause sentence in the query-response unit when are you coming? Tomorrow")."[4]

We would not agree with Pike here. Within the framework of our model, 'tomorrow' is one sentence which is one clause which is one group which is one word. In Hindi "hã̃" (meaning yes - in answer to a question) is an exponent of one sentence which consists of one clause which consists of one group which consists of one word which consists of one morpheme.

"The relation among the units, then, is that going from top (largest) to bottom (smallest), each "consists of" one or more than one, of the unit next below (next smaller)".[5]

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1. Viola Waterhouse: "Recent analysis in some aboriginal languages, however, has made it obvious that not all sentences are independent, but that there are in fact grammatical constructions which indicate that some sentences are dependent and therefore to be included in some larger linguistic form such as paragraph or discourse". [Independent and dependent sentences: p 45 IJAL vol 29, No. 1, Jan., 1963].
2. Morpheme (the smallest unit has classes, but no structure; sentence (the largest unit) has structure, but no classes.
3. Hockett: A Course in Modern Linguistics: p 199 (1958).
4. K. L. Pike: Language, vol. III, p 7.
5. M. A. K. Halliday: "Categories": p 251.

All

That means, the theory does not allow for 'jumping'; all sentences consist of one or more than one clause, all clauses of one or more than one group ... and so on down the rankscale.

2.211:

The primary elements of the structure of sentence may be represented by α and β. α and β are expounded by the primary classes of clause. We can have a sentence with only one element, that is, a sentence which consists of only one clause.

vəh bimar həy. (He is ill).

Here we have a sentence which consists of only one clause. At this point, it is useful to make a distinction between a Simple and a Compound sentence, the former consisting of one clause only and the latter of more than one.

"The 'Simple'/'Compound' opposition is thus one of structure." [1]

2.212:

The primary structure of sentence may be said to be made up of α and β. Sequence does not play a crucial part in the definition of the elements. We may have any number of α's and β's. β may precede or follow or interrupt α; α may precede or follow or interrupt β.

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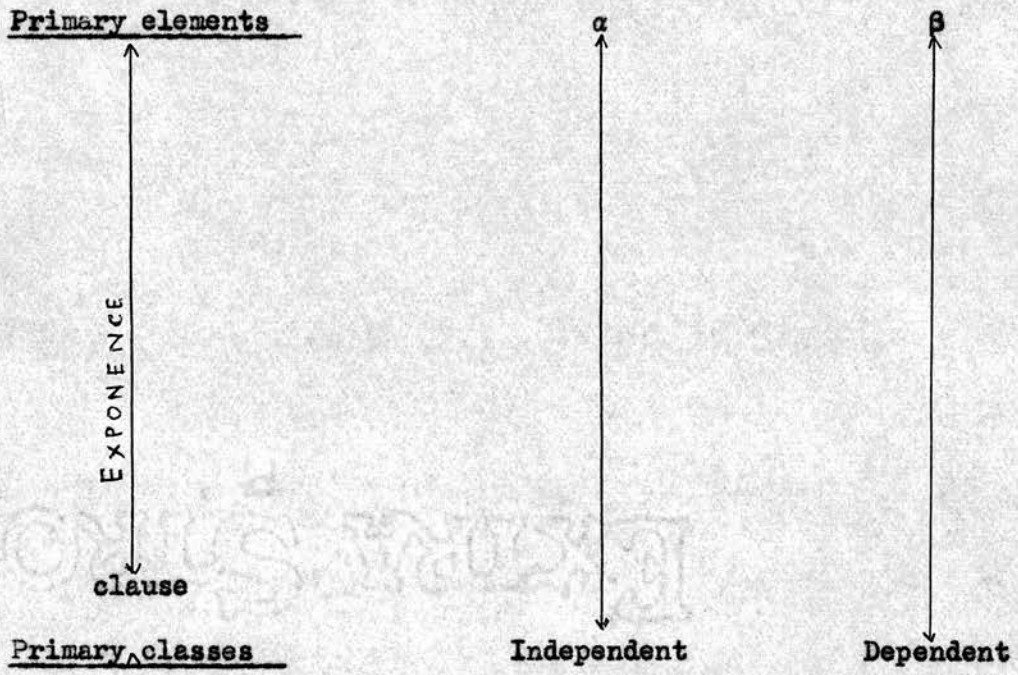
1. M. A. K. Halliday: "Categories": p 253, f.n. 31.

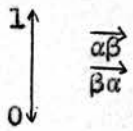
2.213 Primary elements of sentence-structure and Primary clause-classes in relation:



2.214 Possible Combination of elements:

Number of elements	Structure		Exemplification
one element	α	///swdha ga$^{\alpha}$ rəhi həy///	(Sudha is singing)
	β	///əgər$^{\beta}$ twm caho///	(If you like)
	βα	///əgər twm$^{\beta}$ ana caho// to a səkte ho$^{\partial\alpha}$///	(If you want to come, you are welcome.
	αβ	///wsne kəha$^{\alpha}$// ky vəh nəhi$^{\beta}$ aegə̃///	(He said that he wouldn't come)
two elements	αα	///ao$^{\alpha}$// cəlẽ$^{\alpha}$///	(come, let's go)
	$\overset{\curvearrowleft}{\alpha\beta}$	///məy$^{\alpha}$《khakər$^{\beta}$》aũga///	(I will come after having had my meal).
	$\overset{\curvearrowleft}{\beta\alpha}$	///rəmeʃ《mə̃y jaṇta hũ》 bəṛa hi bhəla admi həy$^{\beta\alpha}$///	(Ramesh, I know is a very nice person).

In a sentence containing both α and β, the normal sequence is that α precedes β. We might show it on a probability scale ranging from "most probable" (top) to "least probable" (bottom).



Note: &α and &β will be discussed in the section on Linkage.

The α element

2.22

α may be defined as that primary element of sentence-structure which is expounded by the primary class "Independent" of the unit clause. We might define "Independent Clause" as that primary class of clause which has the potentiality of operating at α or of making a complete sentence.[1] In other words, independent clauses are potentially complete sentences. Clauses which do not have the potentiality of operating at α are 'Dependent'. We may define α more rigorously by saying that it is the exponent of the simple structure of sentence. In other words, the class 'Independent' of the unit clause is exponentially identified with the simple sentence.[2]

///mə̃yne swə̃$^{\alpha}$a həy// ky aʃa$^{\beta}$ləndən ja rəhi həy///[I have heard that Asha is going to London.]

Here we have a sentence which consists of two clauses. The first clause (mə̃yne swna həy) is "independent" because it can expound the simple structure of sentence; the second clause (ky aʃa ləndən ja rəhi həy) cannot occur on its own. It can operate only in "Compound" structures. It may therefore be called "dependent". Usually, dependent clauses are marked by the presence of a binding element or have the potentiality of being initiated by a binding element.

---

1. L. Bloomfield: "By definition, any free form and no bound form can occur as a sentence." [Linguistic Aspects of Science, p 27.].
2. Marginal cases where dependent clauses can stand on their own as answers to questions have been discussed elsewhere.

Another important distinction between independent and dependent clauses is that only dependent clauses can be rank-shifted. The independent clause may now be defined as that primary class of clause which can expound the simple structure of a sentence and which may never be rankshifted.

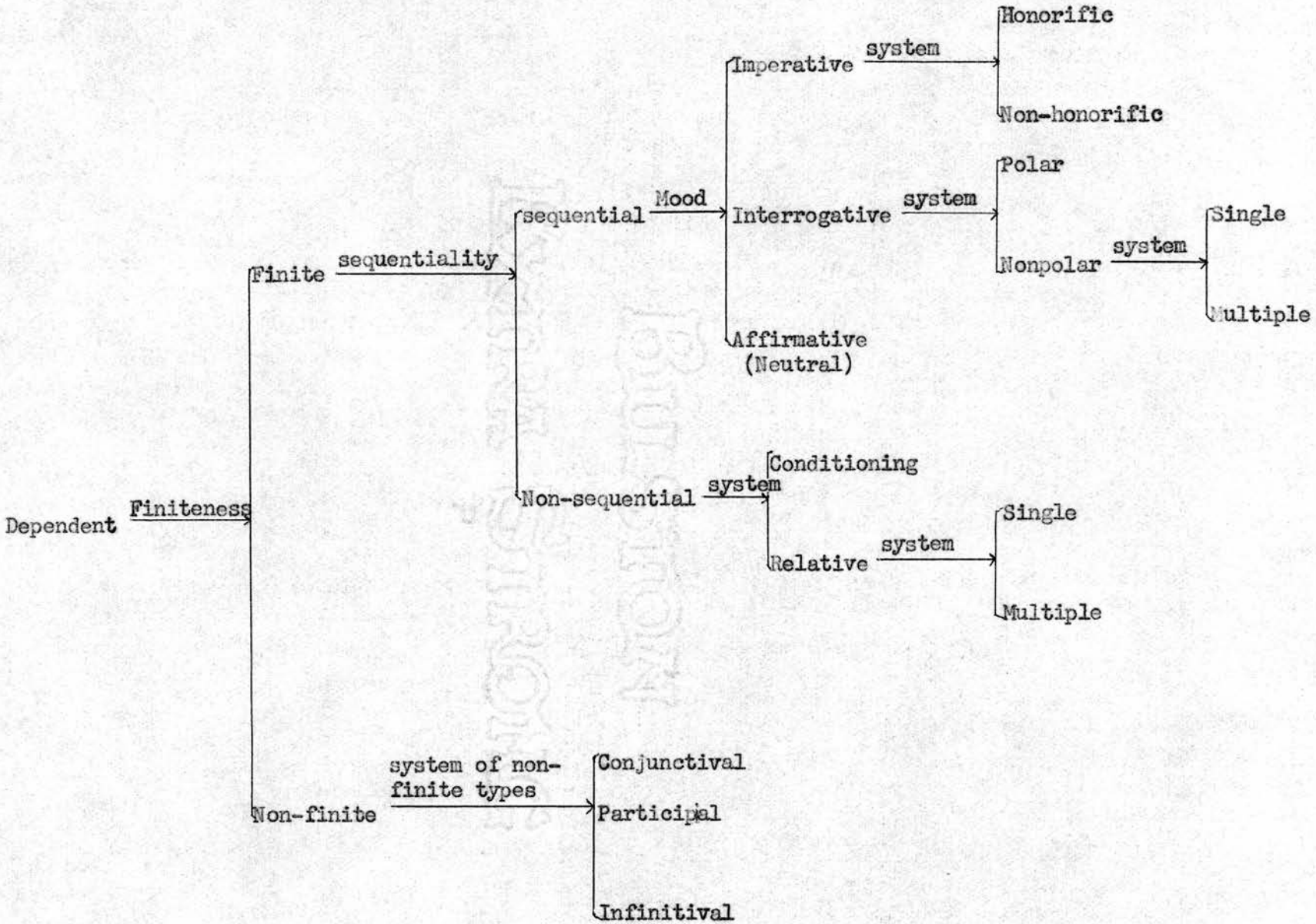
The β element

2.23:

β is the primary element of sentence structure which is expounded by the class "dependent" of the unit clause. Morphologically a dependent clause may be marked by the presence of one or more binding element(s).

2.231:

Dependent clauses in Hindi may be divided into the following secondary classes:-


Dependent
Finiteness
Finite
sequentiality
sequential
Mood
Imperative
system
Honorific
Non-honorific
Interrogative
system
Polar
Nonpolar
system
Single
Multiple
Affirmative
(Neutral)
Non-sequential
system
Conditioning
Relative
system
Single
Multiple
Non-finite
system of non-finite types
Conjunctival
Participial
Infinitival

2.232 The system of finiteness:

Early in delicacy, the class 'dependent' of the unit clause breaks into finite and non-finite dependent clauses forming a two-term system of finiteness. Of these two secondary classes, the finite one alone enters into the system of sequentiality and has a P^f (i.e. a predicator expounded by a finite verbal group).

Finite Dependent clause:

///məkan-malkyn ne bətaya// ky piche se mysez mayls ka phon aya tha/// (My landlady told me that Mrs. Miles had been on the telephone.)

///wsne jəldi se əpna mwh dusri tərəph kər lyya// jəyse dekh rəhi ho// ky koi to nəhĩ rəha/// (She turned her head sharply away, as though she were looking to see if anyone were coming ...).

Non-finite dependent clause:

///əʃat hokər,// vəh pwkar wtha/// (Being impatient he shouted out).

///cəwkidar ki akh bəcakər// vəh bhitər gəya./// (He entered, escaping the notice of the watchman).

2.2321: The system of sequentiality:

It has two terms: sequential and non-sequential. The main distinctions between them are - i) the sequentials cannot initiate a sentence; ii) they (the sequentials) may be initiated by ky (that); iii) they alone enter into the system of mood; iv) the non-sequentials alone can select from the system of conditioning and relative clauses.

Sequential

/// wnhõne α kəha həy // ky pãc β bəje tək aẽge /// (He has said that he will arrive there by 5).

Non-sequential:

/// ve nəhĩ α a səkte hẽy // kyõky wnki β təbyyət khərab həy /// (He cannot come because he is not well).

2.2322:

The system of mood will be discussed in the chapter on the clause. Here we would simply exemplify the system as carried by the dependent sequential clause.

Imperative:

Honorific: /// wsne α kəha // ky β əb jayye /// (He said (that) go now). (polite form)

Non-honorific: /// wsne α kəha // ky β əb jao /// (He said (that) go now).

Interrogative:

Polar: /// mẽyne α wsse pucha // ky kya β wse pəyse cahyye. /// (I asked him if he wanted money).

Non-polar:

Single: /// mẽy α na pucha // ky β ap kəwn hẽy /// (I asked who he was).

Multiple: /// mẽyne α ramu se pucha // ky β kəwn kya kər rəha həy /// (I asked Ramu who was doing what).

Affirmative: /// mɛ̃yne[α] kəha // ky mɛ̃y[β] ja rəha hũ /// (I said that I was going)

2.2323: Subdivisions of the non-sequentials:

The non-sequentials break into the conditioning and relative clauses.

2.23231. The conditioning clauses:

The conditioning clauses are marked by the presence of one or more non-relative binding adjuncts. The exponents are:

əgər

(if)

yədy

kyõky (because)

yədyəpy (although)

cahe (whether)

kareɳ (because of the reason)

Ex:

/// yədy[β] twm caho // to ja[α] səkte ho /// (If you like, you may go)
A[R] S P A P

///mɛ̃y nəhĩ[α] a səka // kyõky[β] mere bəcce bimar the /// (I could not come because my children were ill).
S P A[R] S O P

/// yədyəpy[β] vəh ɛ̃dha həy,// phyrbhi[α] əpna sara kam kərta həy /// (Although he is blind, he does all his work).
A[R] S O P A O P

2.23232 The relative clauses:

The distinguishing feature of a relative clause is that it makes at least one selection from the following elements:-

A^R, S^R, O^R (Relative adjunct, relative subject, relative object).

2.23231:

We may subdivide the relatives into single and multiple relatives (depending on the number of relative elements selected; see the chapter on the Hindi clause: section 3.612).

A^R ///jəhã$^{\beta}$ mɛ̃n cahe//, vəhã$^{\alpha}$ jaũ/// (Go wherever you like)
A^R S P A^R P

O^R ///jo mɛ̃y$^{\beta}$ cahta hũ,// vəh apkepas$^{\alpha}$ nəhĩ həy/// (you don't have what I
O^R S P S A P want).

S^R ///jo soṭa$^{\beta}$ həy//, vəh khoṭa$^{\alpha}$ həy/// (He who sleeps loses)
S^R P S P

2.2324 The non-finite dependent clauses:

The non-finite dependent clause is marked by the presence of a P^{NF} (A predicator expounded by a non-finite verbal group). It may be subdivided into the following types:-

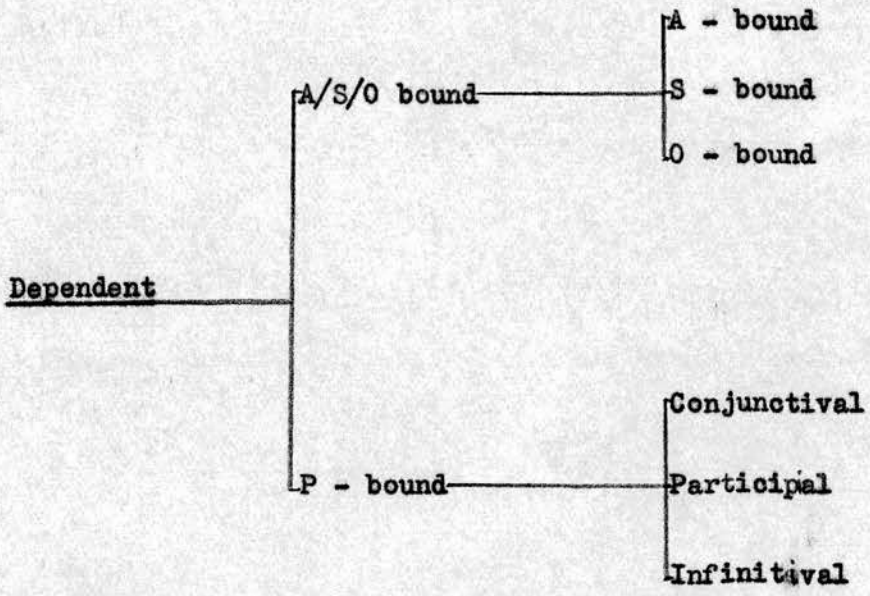
(i) Conjunctival: ///Khana$^{\beta}$ khakər,// mɛ̃y a jauga$^{\alpha}$/// (I will come after having had my meal)
0 P S P

(ii) Participial: ///dəwṛta$^{\beta}$hwa,// mɛ̃y wske$^{\alpha}$ pas pəhwca/// (I went up to him running)
P S A P

(iii) Infinital: ///vəhã$^{\beta}$ jana// məy$^{\alpha}$ əccha nəhĩ (I do not think it nice to go there.)
A P S 0 səməjhta///
0 P

2.2352:

Morphologically, dependent clauses may be of the following types:-



[P = Predicator; A = Adjunct; S = Subject; O = Object].

A-bound may be relative or non-relative, but S and O bound are all relative.

Relative:

Relative: ///jəhã$^{\beta}$ caho,// vəhã$^{\alpha}$ jao/// (Go wherever you like)
A^R P A P

A^B A-bound

Non-Relative: ///əgər$^{\beta}$ caho// to ja$^{\alpha}$ səkte ho//(If you like, you
A^R P A P may go)

S^B S-bound Relative: ///jo sotã$^{\beta}$ həy// vəh khõta$^{\alpha}$ həy///(He who sleeps loses)
S^R P S P

O^B O-Bound Relative: ///twmne jo$^{\beta}$ kəha həy// wspər$^{\alpha}$ (I will think over
S O^R P A what you have said).
mãy soc̃uga ///
S P

Conjunctival: ///bãcc̃o ko$^{\beta}$ swlakər// məy ʃighrə$^{\alpha}$ will come soon after
O P S A putting the child-
hi aũgi/// ren to bed).
ρ

P^{β} P-bound Participial: /// Khana bənate bənate // $\tilde{\text{məy}}$ (I became tired of cooking)

β over "Khana bənate bənate", α over "məy"; O P S

thək gəya ///

Infinitival: ///[khwli həva mẽ ṭəhəlna]// (It is good to walk in the open air).

P over "mẽ"; A P

O P

əccha / hota həy ///

PARATAXIS and HYPOTAXIS

2.31. Co-ordination and Subordination:

Two kinds of relation between clauses have been recognised traditionally - co-ordination (parataxis) and subordination (hypotaxis). The co-ordinate kind is a relation of presupposition between things which are alike or homogeneous, and the subordinate kind between things which are heterogeneous. To quote: A.N. Whithead:

"There are accordingly two main genera of relations to be distinguished, namely 'homogeneous' relations, which relate among themselves natural elements of the same type, and 'heterogeneous' relations which relate natural elements of different types".[1]

According to Nida hypotaxis and parataxis are two principal types of structural cohesion.

"Hypotactic constructions are those which exhibit considerable structural unity and integration. Paratactic constructions are those in which one constituent stands in a sort of 'extrapositional relationship' to the other".[2]

α α

/// wske nak-nəkʃe əcche the // əwr wska rə̃g saf tha /// (His features were quite nice and his complexion fair).

---

1. A.N. Whithead: "An Enquiry Concerning the Principles of Natural Knowledge". (CUP 1919) p 60.
2. E.A. Nida: An Outline of Descriptive Syntax; p 94.

Here we have a relation of co-ordination between the two independent clauses. 'əwr' links up the two bits. Where 'əwr' (and), 'pər' (but), 'tətha' (and), 'ya' (or) etc. join two clauses, we would consider them as linking adjuncts belonging to the clause which immediately follows them. In the example quoted above the first clause is unlinked and the second linked. This relation of co-ordination may be called LINKAGE. We would use & to show linkage for example, the second clause would now be represented by &α.

2.32 LINKAGE:

Linkage may be defined as a relation of co-ordination between two or more (like) elements. In sentence-structure linkage may be expounded by one or more of the following features:-

(a) presence of a linking adjunct (Symbol: A^{L}): The exponents of linking adjunct are:-

A-linked:

əwr
tətha
ɵvəm
və

(and)

ya
əthwa
va

(or)

vərəɳ

pər

pərəntw

kyntw (but)

məgər

lekyn

prətywt

bəlky

yslye

ətəyv (therefore)

ətəh

nə...nə (neither...nor)

nəhi tę

(otherwise, if not)

ənyətha

ya...ya (either...or)

cahe...cahe (whether...or)

phyr (again)

təwbhi (nevertheless)

to (then)

Ex:

/// mɛ̃y bol rəha tha // əwr ap swn rəhe the /// (I was speaking and you were listening).

/// əbhi tək to koi bhi nəhĩ aya həy // pər (No one has come yet, but a good many will come tonight).
rat ko bəhwt sare log aɛ̃ge ///

/// mɛ̃yne purɳ rupse pərysrəm kyya // pər (I worked hard but could not succeed).
səphəl nəhĩ ho səka ///

(b) by the absence of one or more elements present in the preceding or following clause to which it is linked and with which it has "related context":-

S-linked

absence of S: i) anaphoric:

/// wska stri thi, // bəcce the /// (He had wife, had children)
S 0 P 0 P

ii) cataphoric:

/// pəyse to dyye hɛ̃y, //bhəgvan-ne (has given money, God hasn't given peace).
0 P S

ʃanty nəhĩ di həy ///
0 P

P-linked

absence of P: i) anaphoric:

/// wska rup swndər tha, // wska (Her face was nice, her character dreadful).
S 0 P

cərytrə bhəyavəh ///
S 0

ii) cataphoric:

&α
///mə̃yne to thoṛa,// wsne (I a little, he has eaten
S 0 S a lot).

α
bəhwt khaya həy ///
0 P

A - S - P linked (c) by the absence of one or more elements and the presence of a linking adjunct.

absence of S and P:

α &α
/// pytaji do bhai the // əwr tin (Father had two brothers and
S 0 P A^L three sisters)

bəhnə̃ ///
0

Here linkage is carried by (i) the absence of both S and P, and (ii) the presence of A^L.

One of the distinguishing features of the clauses listed above is that we cannot vary their sequence. For example, we cannot say -

/// əwr tin bəhnə̃, // pytaji do bhai the ///

It is a characteristic of linkage that the sequence of clauses may not be varied. A linked clause cannot precede the clause to which it is linked.

Other exponents of co-ordination are:-

(i) juxtaposition: two independent clauses are linked together by juxaposition or by position alongside.[1]

α &α
Ex: /// der ho rəhi həy, // həme jana hoga /// (It's getting late; we've got to go).

&α α
(ii) apposition: /// dəya dhərm ki mul həy, // yəh mera vyʃvas həy ///

---

1. Nida calls this 'associative parataxis'
of E.A. Nida: Outline of Descriptive Syntax p 94.

A clause which is apposed to some other clause has an anaphoric element (an element with anaphoric reference) as its distinguishing feature.

We may now summarise different kinds of relations of co-ordination under the following headings:-

(a) Additive: Two or more independent clauses joined together by the (i) presence of a linking element (ii) absence of one or more elements present in the preceding clause, (iii) by both (i) and (ii).

Ex:

i) ///səṭyə hĩ swndər həy// əwr swndərhi sətya həy/// (Truth is beauty and beauty is truth).

ii)///mə̃y miṭhe̊ am lũga,// khəṭṭe̊ nəhĩ/// (I will have sweet mangoes, not sour ones).

In (ii) linkage is carried by absence of a number of elements in the second clause which are present in the first clause. Note that we make use of "understood" elements only when they have already appeared in the preceding clause. Nelson Francis would like to call this "elliptical structure of co-ordination."[1]

(b) Appositive: We may have two independent clauses where the second is apposed to the first.

///səṭyə hi swndər həy,// yəh sərv-manyə sətyə həy/// (Truth is beauty, this is a well-known saying).

---

1. Nelson Francis: The Structure of American English: pp 361-62: "Such a structure in which a single component is assumed to be functioning in two different positions in a structure of co-ordination (or in which it is "understood" to be repeated) can properly be called an elliptical Structure".

Theoretically, there is no limit to such structures of co-ordination.

Ex:

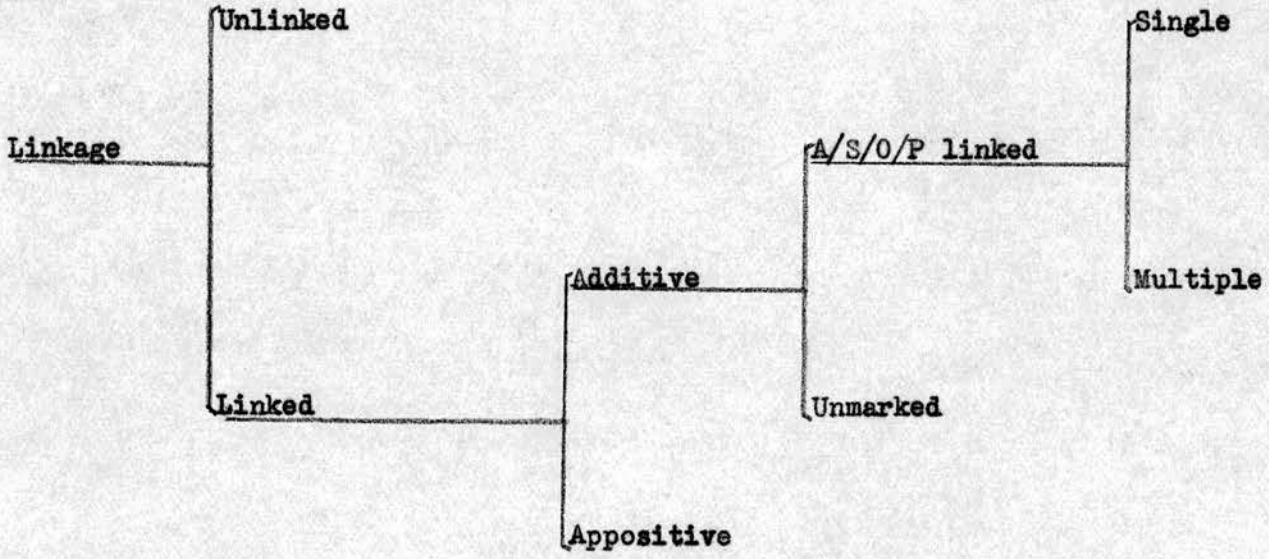
///pytaji kam kər rəhe hə̃y,// mə̃ khana bəna rəhi həy,// bəhən pəʈh rəhi hə̃y// əwr mə̃y sveʈər bwn rəhi hũ///

(Father is working, mother is cooking, sister reading and I am knitting a sweater).

Yngve rightly says:

"Sentences, clauses, phrases, and attributes can each be co-ordinated indefinitely in progressive structures."[1]

Diagrammatically, the system of linkage may be represented as below:



1. Victor H. Yngve: "A Model and an Hypothesis for Language Structure." p 456 [Proceedings of the American Philisophical Society vol. 104; 1960].

2.33 DEPENDENCE

The other kind of presupposition relation - the subordinate one, i.e. relation between things which are unlike - is a relation of DEPENDENCE.

Ex: ///jəb se her$^{\beta}$ʃ aya həy,// nənda to ɓə$^{\alpha}$ʈa ʈhi həy///(Since Harsh has arrived Nanda has gone almost crazy).
A^B S P S O P

Here we have a sentence consisting of two clauses. The first clause cannot normally stand alone. Clauses with A^B or S^B or O^B do not occur alone (except as answers to questions). They demand the presence of some other clause(s) in the sentence. They presuppose some other clause(s). This kind of syntagmatic relation where an element of structure can occur only if some other element is present may be called Dependence. In a sentence-structure of two elements $\alpha\beta$, we may omit β but we may not omit α.[1]

2.331:

Both dependence and co-ordination may be treated recursively. There is no theoretical limit to the number of clauses that may be related in dependence or in co-ordination. There is, however, one important distinction between these two kinds of relation. In co-ordination, the elements are in 'transitive' relation; in dependence, they are in non-transitive relation. If in the structure $X^1X^2X^3$, the elements are ordered in co-ordination, the relation between the elements may be shown as:

---

1. C. E. Bazell: "In a binary syntagm AB, A is subordinate to B if the overall environmental range of the syntagm is similar to the environmental range of B but not of A."

[Linguistic Form: p 33].

X^3: X^2:: X^2: X^1

and so transitively, X^3: X^1.

If the elements are ordered in dependence, then

X^3: X^2:: X^2: X^1

but there is no transitive relation between X^3 and X^1.

The relation between X^3 and X^1 is only an indirect one.

2.331*: Linked and Unlinked Dependent clauses:

Dependent clauses may be linked or unlinked. A linked dependent clause is marked by the presence of a linking adjunct.

Unlinked: ///məy jat$^{\alpha}_{a}$ hũ// kyõky vəh$^{\beta}$ əbhi tək nəhĩ (I am going because he aya həy/// hasn't arrived yet).

Linked: ///məy $^{\alpha}$jata hũ// pər yədy$^{\&\beta}$ vəh ae// to$^{\&\alpha}$ wse (I'm going but if he comes, bhej dena/// (then) send him along).

2.3311 Dependence and Linkage:

Both independent and dependent clauses can select from the system of linkage which has two terms: linked and unlinked. Thus we have the following possibilities:-

Single element:	Unlinked independent clause	α
	linked independent clause	&α
	Unlinked dependent clause	β
	linked dependent clause	&β

Combinations (two elements):

α & α ///mɛ̃yne wnse $^{\alpha}$sari batɛ̃ kəh dĩ// $^{\&\alpha}$ɛwr wnhõne mera prəstav svikar kyya///

(I told him everything and he accepted my proposal)

& α α ///ɛwr jəb tək $^{\&\alpha}$mɛ̃y yəhã nəhi hũ,// twm ys ləʈke $^{\alpha}$ki dekh-rekh kəroge///

(And so long as I am not here, you will look after this boy)

β & β ///yɛdy twmhare $^{\beta}$pas sɛmɛy ho// $^{\&\beta}$ɛwr yɛdy twm yse kərne ke lyye təyyar ho///

(If you have time and if you are willing to do this).

&β & α ///ɛwr $^{\&\beta}$yɛdy twm caho,// to ja $^{\&\alpha}$sakte ho///

(And if you like, you may go)

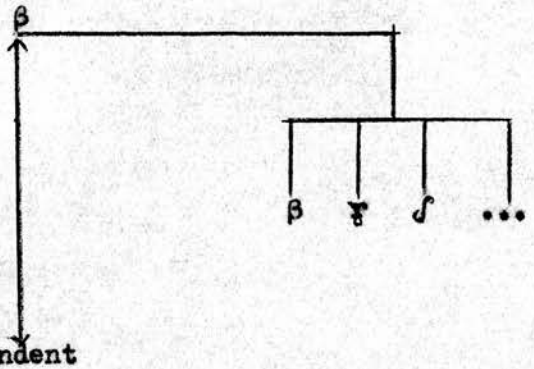
Other combinations are possible but they are of marginal value.

2.332:

The primary elements of sentence-structure α and β are class-determined; each is expounded by a primary class of the unit clause. By taking a step in delicacy β may be broken into secondary elements on the choice axis yielding secondary choice classes: sequentials, non-sequentials etc. On the chain axis β breaks not into discrete class-determined elements but into terms in a series; β repeats itself "in depth" so that we have β_1, β_2, β_3... (or β, ɾ, ʃ...). Only the first term in the series is class-expounded; others are repetitions of the first one and the terms are all ordered "in depth".

Diagrammatically: secondary chain elements

Primary element
of sentence-structure



Primary clause class: Dependent

(No relevant secondary classes)

2.333:

In Hindi we may have the following kinds of dependence-relation:-

(a) We may have a series of dependent clauses, each subordinate to the one immediately preceding it.

Ex: ///Ramu ne kəha həy// ky vəh nəhĩ a səkta// kyõky wske bəcce bimar hə̃y///

α β1 β2

[Ramu has said that he cannot come because his children are ill].

Here β_2 is subordinate to β_1 and β_1 plus β_2 is subordinate to α. There is no direct relation between β_2 and α, because we cannot say "ramu ne kəha həy kyõky wske bəcce bimar hə̃y." The normal, unmarked relation between dependent clauses is that

each presupposes the one immediately preceding it. Logically, however, β_2 is subordinate to α, but this relation of subordination is indirect.

Theoretically such dependent clauses can run on without limit.

/// ʃila $\overset{\alpha}{\text{janti}}$ həy // ky $\overset{\beta}{\text{mira}}$ ne kəha həy // ky rəmeʃ $\overset{\gamma}{\text{ko}}$ malum həy // ky $\overset{\delta}{\text{radha}}$ ki ʃadi honevali həy ///

(Sheila knows that Mira has told you that Ramesh knows that Radha is getting married or going to get married).

Here the class "dependent clause" operates at beta, gamma and delta: each item could occur at every place-β, γ and and δ are terms "in depth". δ is subordinate to γ, as γ is subordinate to β, as β is subordinate to α. This is an illustration of what Dr. Halliday calls "recursive structure".

These are a number of points worth noting in this connection:-

(1) Elements of "recursive" structure cannot be used to differentiate classes.[1]

(2) β, γ and δ do not represent discrete elements like elements in a place-ordered structure. In fact, β, γ and δ represent repetitions of the same element "in depth" - though they do symbolise different degrees of depth.

We may look upon the dependent clauses as being one inside the other:

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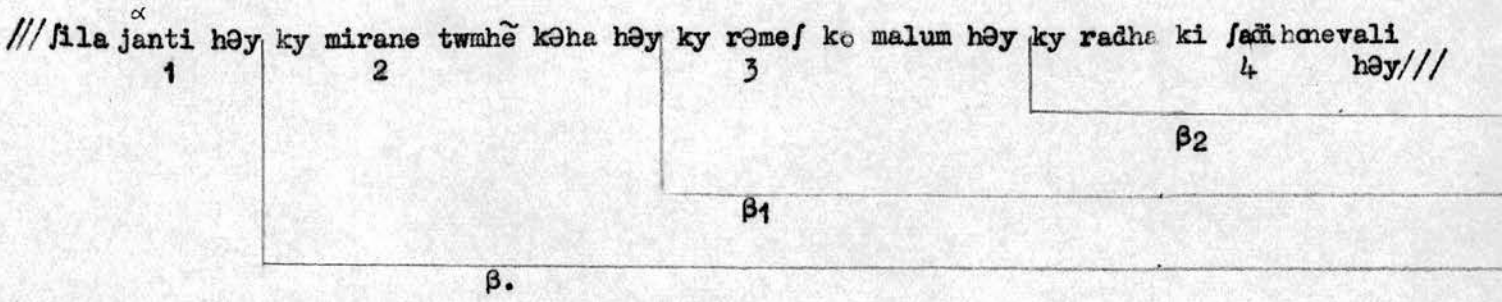
1. M.A.K. Halliday: "Chain and Choice" p 12: "It is a characteristic of recursive structures that they cannot be used to differentiate classes".



Let us say that we have four clauses here marked 1, 2, 3, 4. Number one is an exponent of "independent clause"; 2, 3, 4 are exponents of "dependent clause". There is an over-all relation between No. 1 and the rest of the sentence. The rest of the sentence is subordinate to No. 1. But within the subordinate bit there are "layers" of subordination or degrees of depth of dependence. No. 4 is subordinate to No. 3 which serves as a "principal clause". Nos. 3 and 4 (combined) are subordinate to No. 2 which serves as a "principal clause". Again Nos. 2, 3 and 4 (combined) are subordinate to No. 1 which is both the independent clause of the sentence and a "principal clause" in the relation of independence. We have used the term "principal clause" to describe a purely grammatical relation between a subordinate clause and the clause to which it is subordinated.[1]

(b) We may have a number of dependent clauses each individually subordinate to some other clause:

///əgər məy jata hũ// to twmhẽ yəhã rəhna hoga// kyoky mɛ̃y əpne bəcce ke əkela nəhĩ
β α β
choṛ səkta///

(If I go, you will have to remain here because I cannot leave my child alone).

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1. Eugene E. Loos: "One subordinate clause may have another subordinate clause as its principal clause, which in turn may have another subordinate clause as its principal clause. The limit of the number of such related subordinate clauses that may occur is undefined."
[Capanahua Narration Structure: p 712: Texas Studies in Literature and Language vol IV, Supplement, 1963].

Here each β is independently subordinate to α. Firstly, there is no direct relation between the two βs. We can have either βα or αβ, that is we can drop one of the βs out. Secondly, the two βs cannot be juxtaposed without changing the meaning of the whole utterance.

(c)///əgər $\overset{\beta_1}{\text{mə̃y}}$ jata hũ// to twmhe $\overset{\alpha 1}{\text{yəhã̃}}$ rəhna hoga// əgər $\overset{\beta_2}{\text{mə̃y}}$ nəhĩ jata hũ// to twmhẽ $\overset{\alpha}{\text{jana}}$ pəɽega///

(If I go, you will have to remain here; If I don't go, you will have to go).

Here β_1 is subordinate to α_1, and β_2 is subordinate to α_2. There is no direct relation either between β_1 and β_2 or between α_1 and α_2. We might treat the whole utterance as a case of two sentences in juxtaposition. Each sentence has all the essential structural elements. But if β_2 is changed to linked dependent i.e. $\&\beta_2$ (which it is possible to do by adding 'əwr' to it), we will have to look upon the whole utterance as an example of two linked sentences. One might want to treat it as one sentence and say that β_2 is linked to α, but subordinate to α_2, so that we have

$\beta_1\ \alpha_1 \quad + \quad \&\beta_2\ \alpha_2$

(d) We may have two clauses one inside the other - the inserted clause may be called '<u>parenthetic clause</u>'.

/// nehrwji,《məy səməjhta hũ,》ek pərypəkve rajnitygyə the///

(Nehruji, I think, was a seasoned/mature politician).

Here we have two clauses one inside the other. There may be a number of ways of describing the relation between the two. Since none of them has a binding element and each has the potentiality of expounding α, one might like to say that they are two independent clauses in co-ordination. If co-ordination can be carried by juxtaposition, it might as well be carried by parenthesis. But the situation is not exactly similar. When we have two independent clauses in juxtaposition, we can insert a linking element between the two.

Ex; ///məy həsta hũ,// twm rote ho/// (I am laughing, you are weeping)

With a linking element:-

///məy həsta hũ,// pər twm rote ho/// (I am laughing, but you are weeping)

We cannot insert a linking element between the clauses mentioned above. We cannot say:-

*/// nehrwji, əwr məy səməjhta hũ, ek pərypəkvə rajnitygyə həy///

(Nehruji, and I know, is a seasoned politician).

*/// məy səməjhta hũ əwr nehrwji ek pərypəkvə rajnitygyə həy///

(I think and Nehruji is a seasoned politician)

So we would not like to consider them as two independent clauses in additive relation.

Another solution is to consider "mɛ̃y səmǝjhta hũ" as exponent of an independent clause apposed to "nǝhrwji ek pǝrypǝkvǝ rajnitygɣ̃ǝ hɛ̃y". That would amount to saying that here we have two independent clauses in appositive relation. Again, we would not agree with this analysis because we have said earlier that all appositive clauses have one or more anaphoric element(s) as their distinguishing feature(s). Here "mɛ̃y səmǝjhta hũ" has no anaphoric element (i.e. has no element with anaphoric reference). We would not therefore like to look upon this clause as apposed to the other one.

Our solution to the problem is that here we have an independent clause (mɛ̃y səmǝjhta hũ) inserted within a dependent clause (nehrwji ek pǝrypǝkva rajnitygyǝ hɛ̃y). Our criterion is that normally we would say -

mɛ̃y səmǝjhta hũ (ky) nehrwji ek pǝrypǝkvǝ rajnitygɣ̃ǝ hɛ̃y.

(I know/understand (that) Nehruji is a seasoned politician).

In this case we would say that "mɛ̃y səmǝjhta hũ" is operating at α[1] and "nehrwji ek pǝrypǝkvǝ rajnitygyɛ̃ hɛ̃y" is operating at β. The relation between the two clauses in the given example is the same; the only difference between the two sentences is that in the former (quoted earlier), one clause is inserted within the other. If the parenthetic clause were not there, we would have described the other clause as exponent of α; but in the given linguistic environment, we would look upon the parenthetic clause as exponent of α and the other one as exponent of β.

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1. In a similar situation in English, some of the grammarians have talked about "sentence-modifiers."

Thus here too we have a relation of subordination. Another reason for analysing the given sentence in this way is that "mɛ̃y səməjhta hũ" is exponent of that kind of clause which sets up an expectation that another clause (a dependent one) will follow.

(e) ///jəb mɛ̃y pəʈne ja rəha tha// jəhɑ̃ həmare bhai rəhte hɛ̃y// mwjhe ek pwrane mytrəse bhɛ̃ʈ hwi///

(When I was going to Patna where my brother lives, I met an old friend of mine).

Here γ is subordinate to β, and β plus γ is subordinate to α. The reason for saying this is that we cannot say: "jəhɑ̃ həmare bhai rəhte hɛ̃y, mwjhe ek pwrane mytrəse bhɛ̃ʈ hwi."

2.334:

Summing up, we might say that the elements of sentence structure may be related

(a) in dependence (non-transitive depth-ordering)

e.g. ///wsne kəha// ky vəh a rəha həy// (He said he was coming)

or (b) in co-ordination (transitive depth-ordering)

i) by linking:

i) <u>by linking:</u>

α &α
///mə̃y twmhare yəhã̃ gəya// pər twm vəhã̃ nəhĩ̃ the///

(I called at your place but you were not there).

ii) <u>by apposition:</u>

α α
///sətyəhi swndər həy; // yəh ek sərv-manyə wkty həy///

(Truth is beauty: this is a well-accepted saying).

CHAPTER III

THE CLAUSE

CHAPTER III*

3.11:

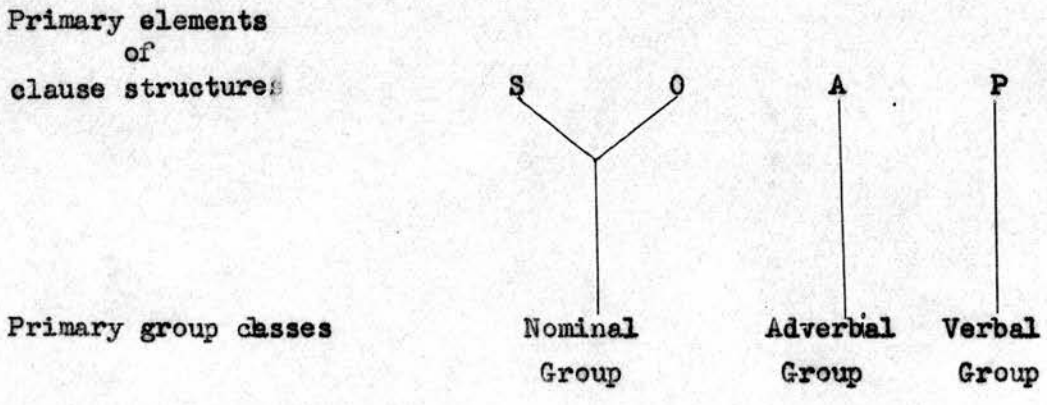
The clause is that unit which operates in the structure of the sentence, and is made up of one or more classes of the unit Group.

3.12 Primary elements of clause-structure:

In our statement of Hindi clause structure we need four primary elements which may be called S(ubject), O(bject), A(djunct), and P(redicator). These elements are defined by their relation to each other in clause structure and by their exponential relation to group classes. In thematically and emphatically unmarked clauses, P comes finally; O precedes P, and S precedes O. (Theme and emphasis are discussed elsewhere).

3.13 Primary clause structure and primary group classes in relation:

At different elements in the primary structure of clause operate different primary classes of the unit group. The exponential relation between these different elements and the primary group classes may be represented in the following way:-



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* The first half of this chapter formed part of a seminar paper read at Communication Research Centre, University College, London in January, 1964.

S and O are recognised as two elements, not one because they stand in different relationship to P. There is a high degree of overlap between the exponents of S and O; and hence one primary class (Class "nominal" of the unit "group") has been set up as exponent of both S and O. The lack of exact co-extensiveness will be stated by secondary elements and classes.

3.14 Possible combination of primary elements:

It is useful to make a distinction here between two types of clauses: major and minor. A major clause must have a P; a minor clause has no P. The structural range of the major clause can be stated in terms of combinations of S, O, A, and P.

Major Clause

Number of elements	Structure	Exemplification
one element	P	P khao (eat)
		P ata hũ (coming)
two elements	SP	S P mə̃y Khata hũ (I eat) / (I am eating)
		S P vəh pəṛhti həy (She reads) / (She is reading)
	OP	O P am kha rəha hũ (I am eating mangoes)
		O P twmhari cyṭṭhi myli ((I) received your letter)
	AP	A P yəhã ao (come here)
three elements	SOP	S O P vəh am khata həy (he eats mango)
		S O P mə̃yne roṭi khai həy (I have eaten bread)
	SAP	S A P mə̃y vəha ja rəha hũ (I am going there)
	OAP	O A P twmhari cyṭṭhi əbhi-əbhi myli həy ((I) have just received your letter).

Number of elements	Structure	Exemplification
Four elements:	SOAP	S O A P mɔ̃yne byllikɔ phwlvarĩ me dekha hɔy. (I have seen the cat in the gardən)

[Note: We may have two Os and any number of As so that we can have a structure of as many as seven or eight places - though not of seven or eight different primary elements].

3.141 The Minor Clause:

The minor clause is defined as the clause without P. In the absence of P, S and O are generally neutralized, we would use the symbol Z to represent the element resulting from the neutralization of S and O. The neutralization does not arise when the exponent is an ergative nominal group which expounds S and S alone in a clause-structure.

Number of elements	Structure	Exemplification
One element only	S	lɔɽkene (The boy. - in answer to a question like; who has done this?)
	*Z	he ram! (O Ram!)
		mira (Mira)
		aʃa (Asha)
		am (Mango)
		ye miṭhe-miṭhe am. (These sweet mangoes)
	A	phwlvari mɛ̃ (in the garden)
		mez pɔr (on the table)

* Z may be subdivided into $Z_{(non\text{-}vocative)}$ and Z^{v} (vocative). This will be discussed in the section on the Z-element.

Number of elements	Structure	Exemplification
Two elements	AZ	gəŋga ke $\overset{A}{\text{tə̃ṭ}}$ pər / səykṛ$\overset{Z}{\text{õ}}$ ki bhiṛ
		(A crowd of hundreds on the banks of the Ganges)
	AS	$\overset{A}{\text{əbhi}}$ / ws ləṛke $\overset{S}{\text{ne}}$ (just now, that boy)
	AA	yəhã $\overset{A}{\text{se}}$ / vəhã $\overset{A}{\text{tək}}$ (From here up to there)

THE ELEMENT S

3.21 The Subject:

The subject is that primary element of Hindi clause structure which is expounded by the class nominal of the unit group. But this could as well be said of the Object - the object is that primary element of the structure of Hindi clause which is expounded by the class nominal of the unit group. How do we know which is which?

3.22 Definition and delimitation of S:

There have been in the main three different approaches towards the definition and delimitation of S in Hindi:-

3.2.2.1 (a) CONDORD:

Hindu grammarians have used concord as their primary criterion for defining Subject. They say that the exponent of the element "Subject" in Hindi clause structure is that nominal group which is in number-person-gender agreement with the verbal group (exponent of the element "Predicator".) This definition works in clauses where we have a string of direct Nominal groups (i.e. Nominal groups without postpositive particles) followed by a Verbal group.

Ex:

(i) ram am khat$_a$ hɔy. N N V

(Ram eats mango)

(ii) sita am khati hɔy N N V

(Sita eats mango)

In (i) the nominal group - 'ram' is exponent of 'S' because it is in number-gender concord with the verbal group - 'khata hɔy'. This can be tested by substituting 'sita' (nominal group - feminine) in place of 'ram'. When we have 'sita' at S we have 'khati' at P (as in ii), and the two (sita and khati) are in gender-concord. The second nominal group - 'am' does not participate in any concordial relation with the exponent of P.

This definition does not help us in clauses made up of oblique nominal group(s) and verbal group. This can be checked by adding postpositive particle - ne to 'ram' and 'sita'. Clauses (i) and (ii) may now be rewritten as -

iii) ramne am khaya hɔy N N V

(Ram has eaten mango)

iv) Sitane am khaya hɔy. N N V

(Sita has eaten mango)

The primary structure (in terms of groups) of (iii) and (iv) is the same as that of (i) and (ii), i.e. N N V or Nominal group + Nominal group + Verbal group. The only remarkable difference between the two sets of clauses is that in the first set

(i and ii), P is expounded by an Imperfect Verbal group whereas in the second set (iii)and iv) P is expounded by a Perfect Verbal group. Otherwise, at the primary degree of delicacy, they are structurally alike.

In (i) and (ii) the nominal group (ram/sita) participates in concordial relation with the Verbal group but in (iii) and (iv) the second nominal group - 'am' enters into concordial relation with the verbal group. According to our criterion of concord, we would say that 'am' is the exponent of 'S' in (iii) and (iv). This might trap us into saying that clauses made up of oblique nominal group(s) and verbal group are all subjectless.

We may now add postpositive particle (ko) to the second nominal group and see what happens.

(v) ramne bylliko dekha hɘy N N V
(Ram has seen the cat)

(vi) sitane bylliko dekha hɘy N N V
(Sita has seen the cat)

The difference between (iii) and (iv) on the one hand and (v) and (vi) on the other is that in the former set the second nominal group is indefinite whereas in the latter, it is definite. Structurally (at the primary degree of delicacy), the two sets are alike - N N V. Yet, according to the criterion of concord, (v) and (vi) are subjectless clauses, because neither 'ram/sita' nor 'bylli' participates

in concordial relation with the verbal group. A large number of Hindi clauses (made up of oblique nominal groups and verbal group) do not display any concordial relation between nominal group and verbal group.

This definition of subject cannot be accepted because it helps us identify subject only in clauses where we have direct nominal group(s).

3.222 (b) CASE-ENDINGS:

According to some grammarians "subject" is expounded by that nominal group which is in the nominative case. This definition works fairly well in the case of Sanskrit where the case-endings tell us which nominal group is subject and which object. This does not, however, prove true in the case of Hindi. In a Hindi clause we may have two nominal groups in the nominative (or direct) case and then it might be difficult for us to say which nominal group is Subject and which Object. Let us consider the following example -

ram cʏʈʈhi pəʈh rəha həy (Ram is reading (a) letter)

Here both ram and cʏʈʈhi are in the nominative case. One might get round this problem by using the test of insertability. One can say that in the given linguistic environment (or co-text) one can insert ko after cʏʈʈhi without in anyway changing any other group in the clause, whereas one can not attach any postpositive particles to ram, without bringing about consequential changes in the verbal group. Hence it may be said that in the given clause ram alone is in the subjective case. Again, there may be two objections to it. Firstly, there are cases where we cannot insert ko after the second nominal group as in the following example:-

vii) ram səhayta cahta həy.

(Ram needs help).

We cannot say "ram səhayta ko cahta həy" so we are left with two nominal groups, both in the nominative case. Secondly, this criterion does not apply to oblique nominal groups.

3.223 (c) SEQUENCE:

Sequence has often been used in some languages as a criterion for defining subject. This means defining subject positionally with reference to some other element in clause structure (usually, the predicator is taken as the nucleus). One can say the exponent of "subject" is that nominal group which immediately precedes or follows the predicator or that occurs initially or finally in clause structure. In English clause structure, for example, it is a crucial criterion of the element S that it precedes P.

viii) Jack loves Jill (1 2 3) N V N

ix) Jill loves Jack (1 2 3) N V N

Here S (Subject) and C (Complement) enter into different relations with P; S comes before P, and C comes after it (except in thematic cases where C is initial). In (viii) and (ix) there are three places and three elements. The exponent of P (that is, 2) is to the verbal group - loves'. We can safely say that whatever operates at 1 is S and whatever operates at 3 is C. Although, the whole thing is

reversed in (ix) [we have Jill in place of Jack, and Jack in place of Jill], even then the elements S and C remain in the same sequence relative to P. It may now be said that in English S is crucially defined by position relative to P.

In Hindi sequence raises a very important problem. The elements of Hindi clause-structure may be arranged in all possible ways. We may, however, make a distinction between normal, unmarked sequence of elements and marked variations of the normal sequence. (This problem will be discussed at some length in the section on word-order). We like Greenberg's notion of a 'dominant' order.

"The vast majority of languages have several variant orders but a single dominant one." [1]

In the unmarked or dominant clause-structure in Hindi we may define the Object as that nominal group which precedes the verbal group with no other nominal group coming in between, and Subject as that nominal group which precedes the Object. According to Allen, the category of (positional) order plays a significant part in the structure of the Hindi sentence. We quote:

'We may take as our starting-point the observation that in the Transitive constructions of both A and B types the sentence consists of two nouns (or nominal groups) - N_1, N_2 , - and a verb (or verbal group) - V."

e.g.

	N_1	N_2	V
B(i)	lərke-ne /	bylli /	dekhi [həy]

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1. Joseph H. Greenberg: "Some Universals of Language": pp60 - 61, also, R. Jakobson: "Implications of Language Universals for Linguistics" p 212: "In declarative sentences with nominal subject and object, the only or neutral (unmarked) order is almost always one in which the subject precedes the object." [Both these papers in "Universals of Language" ed. by Joseph H. Greenberg. The M. I. T. Press 1963]
I owe this reference to Professor W. S. Allen.

The category of (positional) order plays a significant part in the structure of the Hindi sentence: and within the particular type of speech function here considered (viz. non-emphatic statement) the grammatical relationship of N_1 to N_2 in a structure b(i) will always be the same. For purposes of labelling we may, if we wish, refer to N_1 as subject and N_2 as object; but it must be remembered that these categories are set up by a criterion of order, not of logic, psychology, nor even morphology. It is incidentally a matter of practical convenience that our subject and object as thus defined generally correspond in English translations to the traditional categories bearing these titles and, "Situationally" to the categories of "Actor" and "Goal". From the historical standpoint this order closely corresponds to that of Samskrit sentence in the 'unimpassioned narration of prose.'"[1] We would agree with Allen that subject and object can be defined positionally in unmarked clause-structure, but we will have to look for some other criterion to define subject in marked structures.

3.224 (d) Selection:

We hold that in a Hindi clause it is the exponent of P which is crucial in identifying 'subject'. There seems to be a sort of mutual selection-relation or a relation of mutual determination between the exponent of P and the exponent of S. The subject is that nominal group which selects the form of the verbal group at P.[2]

$$N_a \; N_b \; V$$

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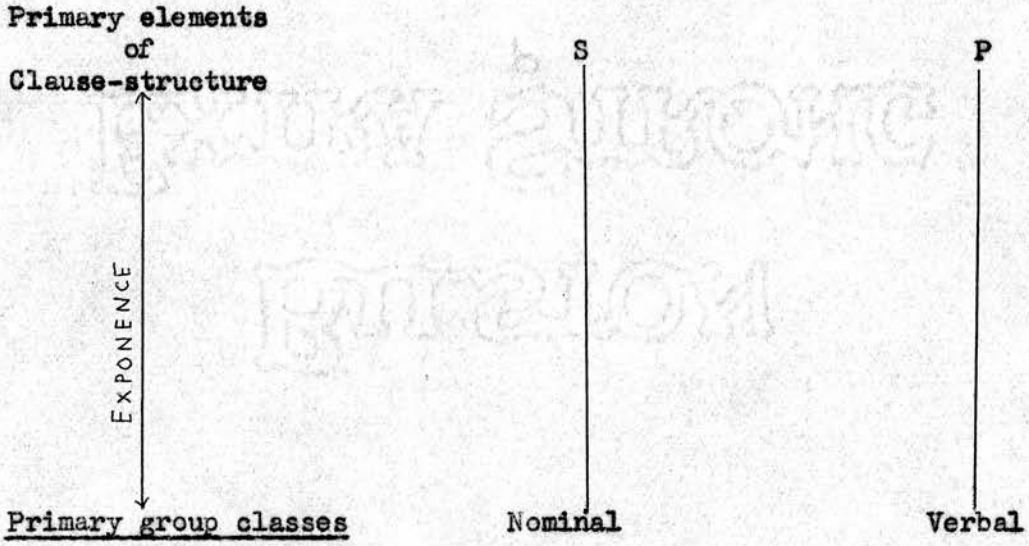
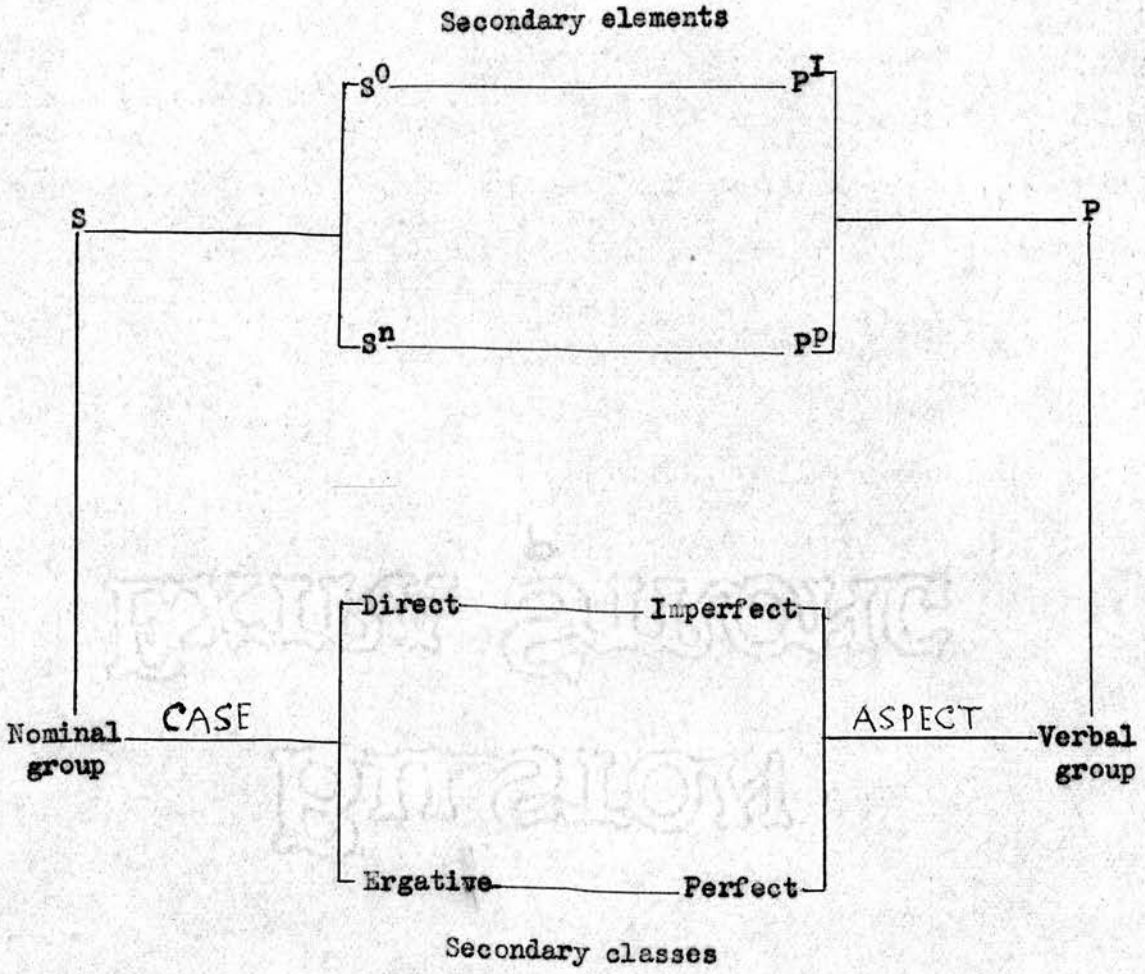
1. W. S. Allen: "A study in the analysis of Hindi sentence-structure". Acta Linguistica, 1951 pp 73 - 74.
2. A. A. Hill: "The subject is linked to the verb by the process known as selection." - [Introduction to Linguistic Structures: p 260].

If we have a clause with two nominal groups (N_a and N_b) and a verbal group - V, and if we find a sort of selection relation between N_a and V (that is, N_a presupposes a particular form of V such that V can co-occur with N_a and not N_c), this selection relation between N_a and V will remain unchanged, even when N_a , N_b and V are re-arranged in other possible ways. In order to understand this relation better, we must look at the secondary classes of the nominal group at S and of the verbal group at P.



S and P may be broken into secondary elements which would in turn be expounded by the secondary classes of the nominal and verbal groups respectively.

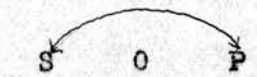


S^{direct} selects $P^{Imperfect}$ and $S^{Ergative}$ selects $P^{Perfect}$.

This selection relation is different from concord (where the nominal group, exponent of S agrees with the verbal group, exponent of P in number, gender and person). Concordial relation is a syntagmatic relation between two or more elements at which we make the same choice (e.g. 'singular' at S and 'singular' at P). Selection does not imply making the same choice at two or more places in a structure, it means mutual accompaniment of two grammatical categories [e.g. ergative

nominal group (at S) co-occurs with perfect verbal group (at P)].

In clauses where S is expounded by a direct nominal group, we have a coincidence of selection and concordial relations as shown below:-



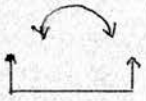
ləʈka roʈi khata həy. (The boy eats bread)

selection

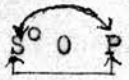
In other classes of clause where S is expounded by an Ergative nominal group the concordial relation shifts from SP to OP, that is in these clauses S does not participate in concordial relation with P. In clauses where the exponent of S is an oblique nominal group (Ergative), P enters into number-gender concord with O; if the exponent of O too is in an oblique case, P is neutral (i.e. P does not enter into any concordial relation with either S or O).

But the selection-relation is fixed.[1] If P is expounded by a perfect verbal group, it will have an ergative nominal group at S; if it is expounded by an imperfect verbal group, it will have a direct nominal group at S.

Concordial and selection relations may be schematized as below:-



concord

selection (xi) ləʈka / roʈi / khata həy 

S-P Concord (The boy eats bread)

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1. A. A. Hill's 'selection' means selection of the same category; our selection means selection of two different but mutually prehended categories.

<u>O-P Concord</u> (xii) ləɽke ne roʈi khai həy $S^n \; O \; P$

(The boy has eaten bread)

<u>No Concord</u> (xiii) ləɽke-ne bylli-ko dekha həy $S^n \; O^k \; P$

(The boy has seen the cat)

It is clear from these examples that there is always a relation of mutual determination between the exponents of S and P. We could not say this of the concordial relation, for we have S-P concord, O-P concord or no concord.
We are going to use selection as our primary criterion for the definition and delimitation of "Subject": we will, however, use concord where S is not shown by selection.[1] In clauses where we have two direct nominal groups followed by a verbal group, we will use concord to identify S. In these cases that nominal group will be the exponent of S which is in number-gender-person concord with the verbal group, as in the example given below:-

ləɽki am khati həy $S^{dir.} \; O^{dir.} \; P^{Imperfect.}$

((The) girl eats mango)

Here we have two direct nominal groups followed by an Imperfect Verbal group. The problem is: how do we know which of the two nominal groups enters into

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1. It is useful to add another distinguishing feature of the nominal group at S. The noun-word which functions as the head of the nominal group at S has the potentiality of suffixation by '-<u>ne</u>'. This cannot be said about any other nominal group in the clause.

selection-relation with the verbal group? Our answer is that in cases where two nominal groups are in the same case, that nominal group will be said to be the exponent of S which enters into concordial relation with the verbal group. The point to note here is that it is not a different statement but a more delicate one. Examined from this point of view, 'lərki' is subject in the clause cited above; if we substitute 'lərka' (nominal group, masculine) in place of 'lərki' (nominal group, feminine), we will have to change 'khati' (verbal group, feminine) to 'khata' (verbal group, masculine).

This relation of mutual determination which we have called "selection" must not be mistaken for some kind of relation between inflectional endings in noun and those in the verb. Selection relation is a chain relation, a relation of presupposition, by x of y at a specified place in the chain relative to x. It should not be confused with case-agreement - the kind of relation that Hockett talks about with reference to Latin:

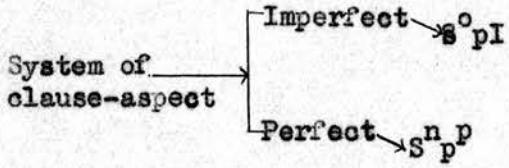
"In a Latin predicative constitute such as puer puellam amat 'the boy loves the girl', there is cross-reference between the subject puer 'boy' and the inflectional suffix -t in the verb which specifies that the subject is third person singular ... A change in the subject may entail a change in the inflectional affix in the verb: pueri puellam amant 'the boys love the girl', with third person plural subject and with inflectional affix -nt instead of -t".[1]

More examples from Hindi:

$S^{dir.}$ $P^{Imp.}$	ɣam khata həy	(Ram eats/is eating)
$S^{erg.}$ $P^{Perf.}$	ɣamne khaya həy	(Ram has eaten...)

1. C. F. Hockett: A Course in Modern Linguistics (1958) pp 217 - 18.

We may now conclude that "subject" is expounded by that nominal group which enters into selection relation with the exponent of P. In other words subject is that nominal group which enters into the system of Aspect.[1]



The system of aspect is based on selection-relation: S^o co-occurs with P^I and S^n with P^p.

3.231. What can operate at S?:

(a) One or more than one Nominal group: This is the normal, unmarked state of things:

	S	O	P	
One nominal group:	ləṛke ne /	bylli /	dekhi həy	((The) boy has seen (the)cat)
	S		A	P
Two nominal groups:	ye kytabẽ ər ve məʃinẽ /		pəṭne /	bheji ja rəhi hẽy (These books and those machines are being sent to Patna)

(b) Nominalized clause: a dependent clause rank-shifted to h in a Nominal Group:-

S	O	P	
jhuṭh bolna /	pap /	həy.	(To tell a lie is a sin)
O P			
R/s clause			

---

1. In the system of clause-aspect, perfect and imperfect are defined with reference to their potentiality of co-occurring with certain secondary classes of the nominal group at S. $P^{Imperfect}$ is expounded by that secondary class of the verbal group which co-occurs with direct nominal group at S; $P^{Perfect}$ is expounded by that secondary class of the verbal group which co-occurs with ergative nominal group at S. For further delicate subdivision of the perfect verbal group into ne-perfect and non-ne perfect see the chapter on the verbal group.

3.232 Simplex and Complex: S:

S may be expounded by one or more than one nominal group. When it is expounded by one nominal group, the exponential relation is simple - one element, one nominal group. When it is expounded by more than one nominal group, the exponential relation is complex for though there may be a number of nominal groups, exponentially they are all realized as one item-grouping. This cumulative grouping together of nominal groups has a formal explanation. When the relation between the nominal groups is additive, that is, we have a number of nominal groups in List relation with or without a linker, the concordial or selection relation does not obtain between individual nominal groups and the verbal group, but between all the nominal groups taken together and the verbal group.

Ex. S: əwr wʃa / P: ja rə̃hi hə̃y. (Asha and usha are going).

When we have two nominal groups, one apposed to the other, the postpositive particle can occur only once and that too at the end of the second nominal group. The postpositive particle coming finally unites the two groups into one whole, and together they enter into selection relation with the Verbal group.

Ex. ramu, loharne / kəha həy ky..... (Ramu, the blacksmith has said that.....)

Here we cannot say "ramu ne, lohar ne kəha həy.....". Moreover, ramu and lohar ne donnot separately enter into selection relation with the Verbal group - taken individually they would select two different classes of the Verbal group. ramu, on its own, would select an Imperfect verbal group (kəhta həy) and loharne would select a Perfect verbal group (kəha həy).

To sum up, we have two different kinds of relation of co-ordination between

the nominal groups at S: (a) Additive[1] (b) Appositive.

---

1. (a) Velma Pickett: "In contrast to the subordinate relationship, some phrases are composed of two or more constituents which are equal or COORDINATE in relationship. They may be connected with connecting words such as 'and' or place in sequence without connecter". (An Introduction to the study of Grammatical Structure) 1956; p 47

(b) E.A. Nida: "Appositional parataxis consists of a sequence of grammatically equivalent forms which are semantically related to the same referent. The appositional phrase my friend, Mr. Smith consists of two IC's the second of which is structurally equivalent to the first, and both are semantically related to the same person. We could say My friend, Mr. Smith will help you, or Mr. Smith will help you, or My friend will help you. Forms in appositional relation do not necessarily consist of the same classes, i.e. nouns in apposition to nouns. We may have pronouns and nouns in appositive arrangements, e.g. We Americans and you British". (Outline of Descriptive Syntax: pp 94-95 (1951)) We would like to have reservations on what Nida says here. We must, however, add that for us nouns and pronouns belong to the same primary word-class operating at h in nominal groups.

THE ELEMENT O

3.31. The Object:

The Object is one of the primary elements of Hindi clause-structure. It is expounded by the primary class "nominal" of the unit group. The distinguishing features of O are the following:-

(a) In a normal, unemphatic clause the Object occurs between the subject and the predicator. We may say that the Object is expounded by that nominal group which immediately precedes the Verbal group (exponent of P) with no other nominal group coming in between and which may not be replaced by pronouns in the unmarked case, such as mɔ̃y, vɔh, tu, ve.

(b) The exponent of O does not enter into selection relation with the exponent of P.

(c) The nominal group at S may be in the ergative case but the nominal group at O excludes the ergative.

(d) We have already defined our subject as that nominal group which selects the form of the Verbal group at P. We may now say that the Object is that nominal group which is not the subject and which has its normal position immediately before the predicator. To make our definition more rigorous we can say that the Object is that nominal group which in Objectival Clause enters into concordial relation with the verbal group.

(e) It is easy to identify O in a P-bound clause (i.e. a clause in which P is expounded by a non-finite verbal group). In this type of clause, O is expounded by that nominal group which always precedes the exponent of P.

3.32. Simplex and Complex Object:

The Object may be expounded by one or more than one nominal group. If it

is expounded by one nominal group, it is simplex - the exponential relation between class and element is simple. If it is expounded by more than one nominal group, it is complex - the exponential relation between class and element is complicated. When there are more than one nominal group, they may be either in a additive or appositive relation.[1] (This has already been discussed in the case of subject in section 2.3).

		S		Ngp.	O +	Ngp.	A	P
Ex:	Additive:	mə̃yne	/	cytra ko	ər wski	səhəli ko	/ cay pər	/ bwlaya həy.

(I have asked Chitra and her friend to tea)

		S	O	A	P
	Appositive:	mə̃yne	/ ramu, dhobi ko	/ caypər	/ bwlaya həy.

(I have asked Ramu, the washerman to tea).

3.33. Pronouns at O:

Of the pronouns, only those in the accusative case have the potentiality of operating at O.

	S	O	P
Ex:	ləṛke ne	mwjhe / mwjhko	dekha həy. ((The) boy has seen me)

S	O	P
ləṛke ne	wse / wsko	dekha həy. ((The) boy has seen him/her)

S	O	P
ləṛke ne	twmhẽ / twmko	dekha həy. ((The) boy has seen you)

S	O	P
ləṛkene	apko	dekha həy. (The boy has seen you - polite form)

---

1. A.A. Hill suggested a similar explanation in the case of English. He says: "The complement may also be composed of more than one phrase if the order requires a terminal. When the complement is thus complex, there is linkage by a complex contour, just as there is in a complex subject..... Like a subject, the complement may be composed of more than one noun construction, again with possible linkage by complex contour and often with connectives of the class of and".

(Introduction to Linguistic structure: pp 292-293 (1958))

S O P
ləṛke ne həmẽ / həmko dekha həy ((The) boy has seen us)

S O P
ləṛke ne wnhẽ / wnko dekha həy. ((The) boy has seen them

3.34. What can operate at O?

(a) Nominal Group: One or more than one. This is the normal, unmarked state of things.

S O P
Ex. mẽyne ləṛke ko dekha həy. (I have seen the boy)
ized

(b) Nominal/clause: a bound clause rank-shifted to h in the structure of a nominal group:

S O P
Ex. mẽy / am khana / cahta hũ. (I want to eat mango)
O P
R/S clause

THE ELEMENT P

3.41. The Predicator:

The predicator is that primary element in Hindi clause structure which is expounded by the class Verbal of the unit: Group. It may be said that P is an obligatory element in the structure of major clauses; other elements S, O, A are optional. We have defined Subject as that primary element which enters into selection relation or relation of mutual determination with the Predicator (or in other words, which selects the form of the Verbal group at P). Now we may define the Predicator as that verbal group whose form is selected

by the subject.[1]

3.42. Simplex and Complex P:

The class "verbal" of the unit "group" stands in one-to-one relation to the element P in clause structure. This does not, however, exclude the possibility of having more than one verbal group joined together by a co-ordinator as exponent of P for "what enters into grammatical relations of structure is not the item itself considered as a formal realization but the class, which is not a list of formal items but an abstraction from them".[2]

Where P is expounded by one Verbal group, the exponential relation is simple - one element, one verbal group. Where it is expounded by more than one Verbal group, the exponential relation is complex; it is complex only in the sense that an element of structure is expounded by more than one member of the same class of the unit next below. The internal relation between the members of the same class is one of co-ordination. We may have a number of verbal groups in a series joined by a linker (ɵwr, ya, tɵtha.....) - all of them/taken together function as exponent of P.

---

1. A.A. Hill has defined the Predicator in a somewhat similar way in his description of English. We quote: "The predicator is that verb material whose form is selected by the Subject". (Introduction to Linguistic Structures; p 273) We must, however, add that our use of selection is different from Hill's. Hill has conflated three ranks (group, word, morpheme) and has also brought in a sort of concordial relation. We quote again: "In defining the subject, the term "selection" means that a gender-bearing noun or pronoun requires the $\{-Z\}_4$ suffix in any verbal situation where that suffix is possible, and it is this requirement which identifies a noun or pronoun as subject". (Introduction to Linguistic Structure; p 260)
2. M.A.K. Halliday: "Categories". p 264.

One might want to set up a number of Ps (P_1, P_2, P_3.....) in the same clause and to say that these Ps are expounded by different verbal groups. We would not like to do this for two reasons: firstly, the relation between an element of structure and the class of the unit next below is more abstract than the direct relation between an element of structure and formal item(s). The class is an abstraction from formal items. So whether we have one formal item or a string of formal items as exponent of P is immaterial to the relation between the class "Verbal" and the element 'P'. After we have established this primary relation between the class "verbal" of the unit "group" and the element P in the structure of clause, we would state the relation of co-ordination between different verbal groups. Secondly, in one and the same clause, the nominal group at S cannot enter into different selection or concordial relations with the verbal groups at P. If the nominal group at S is 'ergative', then each verbal group at P in that clause must be 'perfect'.

		S	O	P	
Ex:	Simplex:	cytrane	cyṭṭhi	lykhi həy	(Chitra has written a letter)
			one verbal group		
		A	S	P	
	Complex P[1]	əgər	məy	jata əwr dekhta,	(If I had gone and seen...)
			Vgp	+ Vgp.	
			two verbal groups in co-ordination.		

3.51. The Systems of number, person, gender and case at S and O:

The interlocking systems of number, gender, person and case operate at S

---

1. Faced with a similar problem in his description of English, A.A. Hill says: "A predicator, like a subject, may be made up of more than one phrase..... As with complex subjects, complex predicators are often connected by unstressed words of the class of and or but". (Introduction to Linguistic Structures: p 275)

and 0. In the direct case the exponent of these systems is concordial relation with P (this is true of the systems at S in subjectival clauses and of the systems at 0 in Objectival clauses); in the oblique case, the exponent is intragroup concord. The terms in these systems are:-

System	Terms
Number	Singular
	Plural
Person	First
	Second
	Third
Gender	Masculine
	Feminine
Case[1]	Direct
	Oblique

The terms in these systems are combinable. So we may have the following possible combinations:-

---

1. This is an abstraction from the different systems of case operating at S and 0.

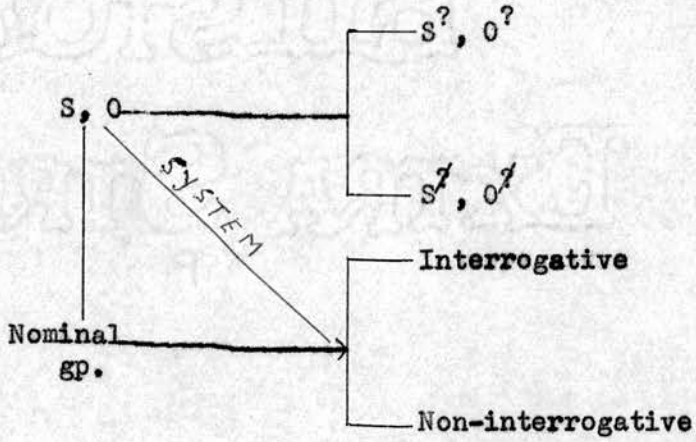
Microclasses	Exponent at S.	Exponent at O
Direct, Masculine, Singular, First	mə̃y (I)	
Direct, Masculine, Singular, Second	twm/ap (you)	
Direct, Masculine, Singular, Third	vəh (he)	
Direct, Masculine, Plural, First	həm (we)	
Direct, Masculine, Plural, Second	twm/ap (you)	
Direct, Masculine, Plural, Third	ve (They)	
Direct, Feminine, Singular, First	mə̃y (I)	
Direct, Feminine, Singular, Second	twm/ap (you)	
Direct, Feminine, Singular, Third	vəh (she)	
Direct, Feminine, Plural, First	həm (we)	
Direct, Feminine, Plural, Second	twm/ap (you)	
Direct, Feminine, Plural, Third	ve (they)	
Oblique, Masculine, Singular, First	mə̃y + (I)	mwjh + (me) mwjhe
Oblique, Masculine, Singular, Second	twm + (you) ap +	twm ± (you) twmhe/twjhe ap +
Oblique, Masculine, Singular, Third	ws + (he)	ws + (him) wse
Oblique, Masculine, Plural, First	həm + (we)	həm + (us) həmə̃
Oblique, Masculine, Plural, Second	twm + (you) ap +	twm ± (you) twmhe/twjhe ap +
Oblique, Masculine, Plural, Third	wn + (they)	wn ± (them) wnhe
Oblique, Feminine, Singular, First	mə̃y + (I)	mwjh + (me) mwjhe
Oblique, Feminine, Singular, Second	twm + (you) ap +	twm ± (you) twmhe/twjhe ap +

Microclasses	Exponent at S.	Exponent at O
Oblique, Feminine, Singular, Third	ws + (she)	ws + wse (her)
Oblique, Feminine, Plural, First	həm + (we)	həm ~ + həme (us)
Oblique, Feminine, Plural, Second	twm + (you) ap +	twm ~ + twmhe/twjhe (you) ap +
Oblique, Feminine, Plural, Third	wn + (They)	wn ~ + wnhe (them)

Note: + indicates presence of a postpositive particle.

3.52. The system of interrogatives at S and O:

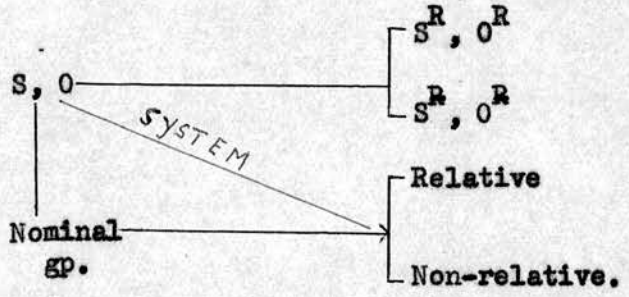
S and O may be subdivided into $S^{interrogative}$, $O^{interrogative}$ and $S^{non\text{-}interrogative}$ and $O^{non\text{-}interrogative}$ yielding a system of two terms- interrogative and non-interrogative. The basis of making this distinction is that only $S^{interrogative}$ and $O^{interrogative}$ are expounded by the secondary class: interrogative nominal group (i.e. a group containing a K-word).



	kəwn (who)
$S^?$	kysne (who)
	kynhõne (who)
	kynne (who)
	kəwn (who)
$O^?$	kyse / kysko (who / whom)
	kya (what)
	kynhẽ / kynko (who / whom)

3.53 The System of Relatives at S and O:

On a different dimension, S and O may be subdivided into $S^{relative}$ and $O^{relative}$ and $S^{non\text{-}relative}$ and $O^{non\text{-}relative}$ yielding a system of two terms - relative and non-relative.



The distinguishing feature of S^R and O^R is that they can operate only in dependent clauses.

	Exponents
S^R	jo (who, which)
	jysne (who)
O^R	jyse / jysko (who / whom)
	jo (who, what)

3.531. Subdivisions of O:

We can have a maximum of two Os in a clause. At the primary degree of delicacy, we call them all Objects. By taking a step in delicacy we break O (on the dimension of extension) into the secondary chain elements: O^I (Intensive Object) and O^E (Extensive Object). The main distinction between the two is that only the exponent of the extensive object can be suffixed by -ko. In unmarked clause-structure, O^I always follows O^E. (Contextually, the intensive object has the same referent as of some other element in the clause).

Ex:

O^I	// S: mə̃y / O^I: pagəl / P: hũ //	(I am mad).
O^E	// S: mə̃yne / O^E: yəh kytab / P: pəɽhi həy //	(I have read this book).
O^E O^I	// S: wsne / O^E: mwjhe / O^I: pagəl / P: bəna dyya //	(He drove me mad).
O^E O^E	// S: wsne / O^E: mwjhe / O^E: ek kytab / P: di həy //	(He has given me a book).

Note that we cannot have two O^Is.

By a further step in delicacy O^E may be subdivided into two choice elements $O^{definite}$ and $O^{indefinite}$. When the exponent of O^E is marked by the presence of -ko, it is definite , otherwise it is indefinite.

Ex.

O^E (Indefinite)	// S: mə̃yne / O^E: bylli / P: dekhi / həy //	(I have seen (a) cat)
O^E (Definite)	// S: mə̃yne / O^E: bylli-ko / P: dekha həy //	(I have seen the cat)

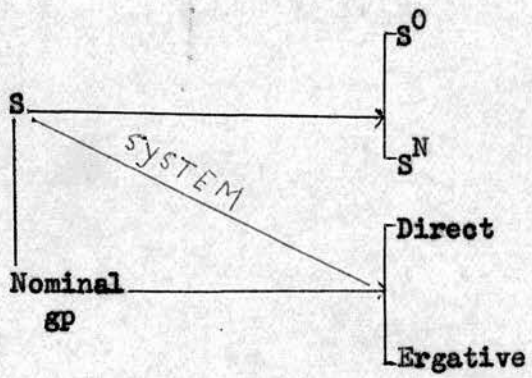
3.54 The System of Case at S, O and A:*

We would not set up one over-all system of case operating at different places in clause-structure for the choice at S is different from the choice at O which is different from the choice at A. We would set up three different systems each of two terms operating at three different places: S, O and A.

System	Terms.
At S	Direct
	Ergative
At O	Direct
	Accusative
At A	Direct
	Postpositional

3.541 The System of Case at S:

On the dimension of case, the primary element S may be subdivided into S^0 and S^n yielding two secondary choice classes of the nominal group - direct nominal group and ergative nominal group. The former is marked by the absence of postpositive particles and the latter by the presence of -ne

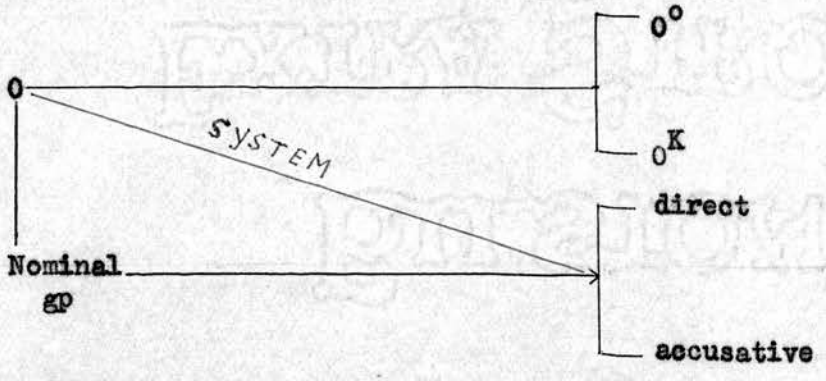


The system of case at S accounts for the relation of mutual determination between the exponents of S and those of P.

* cf. 4.58

3.542 The System of Case at O:

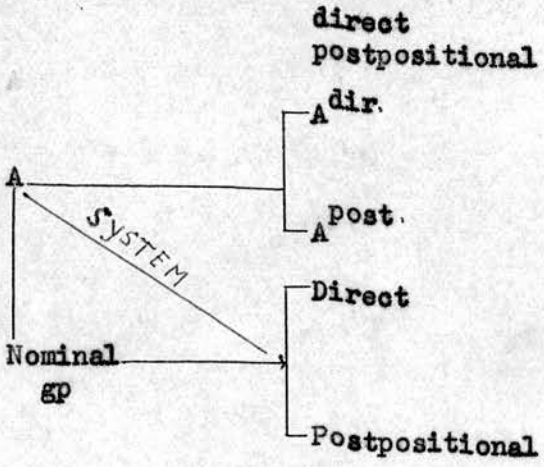
On the dimension of case, the primary element O may be subdivided into O^{o} and O^{k} yielding two secondary choice classes of the nominal group - direct nominal group and accusative nominal group. The former is marked by the absence of postpositive particles and the latterby the presence of -ko. Only O^{direct} can enter into concordial relation with P.



In clauses with two Os, O^{direct} and $O^{accusitive}$ can co-occur.

3.543 The System of Case at A:

The nominal group(s) operating at A carry the system of case having the following terms:-



3.55 Systems of Number, Person and Gender at P:

Three interlocking systems operate at P - systems of number, person, and gender. In Subjectival clauses these systems are marked by concordial relation with the exponent of S, in Objectival clauses, with the exponent of O. The exponent of P does not carry the system of person in Objectival clauses. In Impersonal clauses, the exponent of P is not affected by any of these systems.

SYSTEM	TERMS
Number	Singular and Plural
Gender	Masculine and Feminine
Person	First, Second and Third.

These terms in these systems are combinable. So we may have:-

Microclasses	Exponents in Subjectival clauses
Masculine, singular, first.	khata hũ̃ ((I) eat)
Masculine, singular, second.	khate ho ((you) eat)
Masculine, singular, third.	khata həy ((he) eats)
Masculine, plural, first.	khate hə̃y ((we) eat)
Masculine, plural, second.	khate ho ((you) eat)
Masculine, plural, third.	khate hə̃y ((they) eat)
Feminine, singular, first.	khati hũ̃ ((I) eat)
Feminine, singular, second.	khati ho ((you) eat)
Feminine, singular, third.	khati həy ((she) eats)
Feminine, plural, first.	khati hə̃y ((we) eat)
Feminine, plural, second.	khati hõ̃ ((you) eat)
Feminine, plural, third.	khati hə̃y ((we) eat)

Microclasses	Exponents in Objectival clauses
Masculine, singular:	khaya həy (has/have eaten)
Masculine, plural:	khaye hə̃y (has/have eaten)
Feminine, singular:	khai həy (has/have eaten)
Feminine, plural:	khai hə̃y (has/have eaten)

3.56. The system of finiteness at P:

Early in delicacy the primary element P may be subdivided into P^F and P^{NF} yielding secondary choice classes of the Verbal group - finite and non-finite. P^F can, but P^{NF} cannot, operate in an independent clause. We can say now that all major independent clauses are finite clauses i.e. clauses containing P^F; dependent clauses may be either finite or non-finite. Non-finite dependent clauses are of the following types:-

1. Conjunctival — Khakər (Having eaten)
2. Participial — Khata hwa (Eating)
3. Infinitival — wske lyye vəhã jana (For him to go there)

3.57. The System of Aspect at P:

The systems of mode, tense, modality, voice, contrastiveness and polarity will be discussed in the chapter on the Verbal group. Here we would take up the system of aspect which is of relevance to clause-structure inasmuch it helps us define our Subject. On the dimension of aspect, P breaks into P^P and P^I yielding secondary choice classes of the verbal group: perfect and imperfect. This system of aspect is based on relations of mutual determination with S. $P^{perfect}$ co-occurs with S^{erg} (Ergative Subject) and $P^{Imperfect}$ co-occurs with S^o (Direct Subject). Both independent and dependent clauses select from the system of Aspect.

3.61. Systems carried by the clause:

3.611. 1. The System of Aspect:

There are two terms in it - Imperfect and Perfect.

	Exponent	Exemplification
Imperfect clause	$S^{o}\ P^{I}$	S^{o} P^{I} ram khelta həy (Ram plays)
Perfect clause	$S^{n}\ P^{P}$	S^{n} P^{P} ramne chĩka (Ram sneezed)

3.612. 2. The system of the relatives:

The terms in this system are: relative and non-relative. The relative clause is that secondary class of the clause which can operate only at β in sentence-structure. Morphologically, the relative clause is marked by the presence of one or more of the following secondary elements -

$$S^{R},\ O^{R},\ A^{R}.$$

The non-relative clause is distinguished by the absence of these elements.

Non-relative: // $\overset{S}{\text{mə̃y}}$ / ws $\overset{O}{\text{ləʈke}}$ ko / $\overset{P}{\text{janta}}$ hũ // (I know that boy)

Relative: i) Single

S-relative: $S^{R}OP$ // $\overset{S^{R}}{\text{jo}}$ / ws $\overset{O}{\text{ləʈke}}$ ko / $\overset{P}{\text{janta}}$ həy // ((he) who knows that boy)

O-relative: $SO^{R}P$ // $\overset{S}{\text{mə̃y}}$ / $\overset{O^{R}}{\text{jo}}$ / $\overset{P}{\text{cahta}}$ hũ // (What I want)

A-relative: $SA^{R}P$ // $\overset{S}{\text{mə̃y}}$ / jəhã̃ $\overset{A^{R}}{\text{bhi}}$ / $\overset{P}{\text{jata}}$ hũ // (Wherever I go)

ii) Multiple:

S-O-relative: $S^{R}O^{R}P$ // $\overset{S^{R}}{\text{jo}}$ / $\overset{O^{R}}{\text{jyse}}$ / $\overset{P}{\text{cahta}}$ həy.... // (Whoever someone likes)

S-A-relative; $S^{R}A^{R}P$ // S^{R} jo / A^{R} jəhã / P rəhta həy .... // (Wherever someone lives..)

O-A-relative: $SO^{R}A^{R}P$ // S mə̃y / O^{R} jo / A^{R} jəhã / P cahta hũ // (Whatever I want at a particular place)

3.613. 3. The System of Mood-restriction:

At the primary degree of delicacy, the independent clause sub-divides into major and minor clauses. The major clauses are mood free, i.e. can freely select from the system of mood. The minor clauses are mood-restricted; they do not enter into the system of mood. Morphologically, the minor clauses are marked by the absence of P.

3.6131. a.) The System of Mood:

The terms in this system are:

1. Imperative
2. Interrogative
3. Affirmative (Neutral)

3.6132. The Imperative Clause:

The imperative clause contains an imperative predicator, i.e. a predicator expounded by the class imperative verbal group. More delicately, the imperatives may be sub-divided into two secondary classes:- Honorific and non-honorific. The former contains an honorific verbal group.

Honorific: jayye (Please go - polite form)

Non-honorific: ja (go)

3.6133. The Interrogative Clause:

The interrogative clause contains one or more of the following secondary elements:- $S^{?}$, $O^{?}$, $A^{?}$

Single Interrogative:

S- interrogative: $S^{?}OP$ // $S^{?}$ kysne / O yəh / P kəha həy? / (Who has said this?)

O- interrogative: $SO^{?}P$ // S twm / $O^{?}$ kəwn / P ho?// (Who are you)

A- interrogative: $SA^{?}P$ // S twm / $A^{?}$ kəhã / P rəhte ho ? // (Where do you live)

Multiple Interrogative:

S-O Interrogative: $S^{?}O^{?}P$ // $S^{?}$ kəwm / $O^{?}$ kyse / P cahta həy ? // (who likes who(m)?)

S-A Interrogative: $S^{?}A^{?}P$ // $S^{?}$ kəwm / $A^{?}$ kəhã / P rəhta həy ? // (who lives where?)

O-A Interrogative: $SO^{?}A^{?}P$ // S twm / $O^{?}$ kya / $A^{?}$ kəhã / P paoge ? // (what will you get where?)

3.61331. Polar and non-polar interrogative:

On a different dimension, the Interrogatives may be subdivided into polar interrogative and non-polar interrogative. The polar interrogative clause contains $A^{?}$ which is expounded by 'kya'. It cannot have $S^{?}$ or $O^{?}$. The non-polar interrogative makes at least one selection from $S^{?}$, $O^{?}$, $A^{?}$. There is, however, one restriction. In a non-polar interrogative clause $A^{?}$ cannot be expounded by 'kya'.

Polar Interrogative: // $A^{?}$ kya / S yəh / O twmhari kələm / P həy? // (Is this your pen?)

Non-polar Interrogative: // $S^{?}$ kysne / O meri kytab / P li həy ? // (who has taken my book ?)

// S twm / $O^{?}$ kəwn / P ho ? // (who are you ?)

// S twm / $A^{?}$ kəb / P jaoge ? // (when will you go ?)

3.6134. (b) The System of minor clauses:

The terms in this system are mood-linked and moodless. The mood-linked clause is linked on to the preceding clause by the non-presence of certain elements. Its elements can be identified with reference to the clause to which it is linked.

α_1 α_2

/// pytaji do bhai the, //tin bəhnẽ /// (Father had two brothers and three
- mood-linked. sisters)

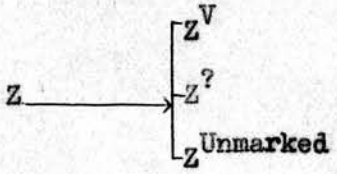
The elements missing in α_2 are present in α_1. The point to note here is that the elements missing in α_2 can be supplied from α_1. α_2 may be said to have 'related context' or better 'related cotext' with α_1. In the words of Nelson Francis, "in the elliptical structure of co-ordination, no new words are supplied; the only thing that is "understood" is a second occurrence of a word or phrase which has already appeared in an earlier part of the structure".

3.61341. The Moodless clause:

It may have z-element alone, or A-element alone or S^n alone, or permitted combinations of these elements. By a step in delicacy, the moodless clause breaks into the Vocatives and the non-vocatives; the non-vocatives subdivide into the interrogative and the unmarked.

Z may be subdivided into Z^V (vocative), $Z^?$ (interrogative) and Z (unmarked); the other elements, A and S^n, can be either interrogative or unmarked.

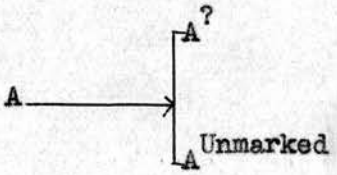
Ex:



he nath (O Lord!)

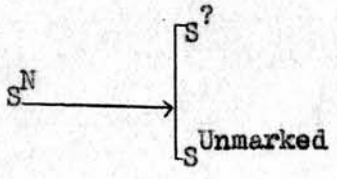
kəwn? (Who?)

radha (Radha)



kəhã? (Where?)

mezpər (on the table)



kysne? (Who?)

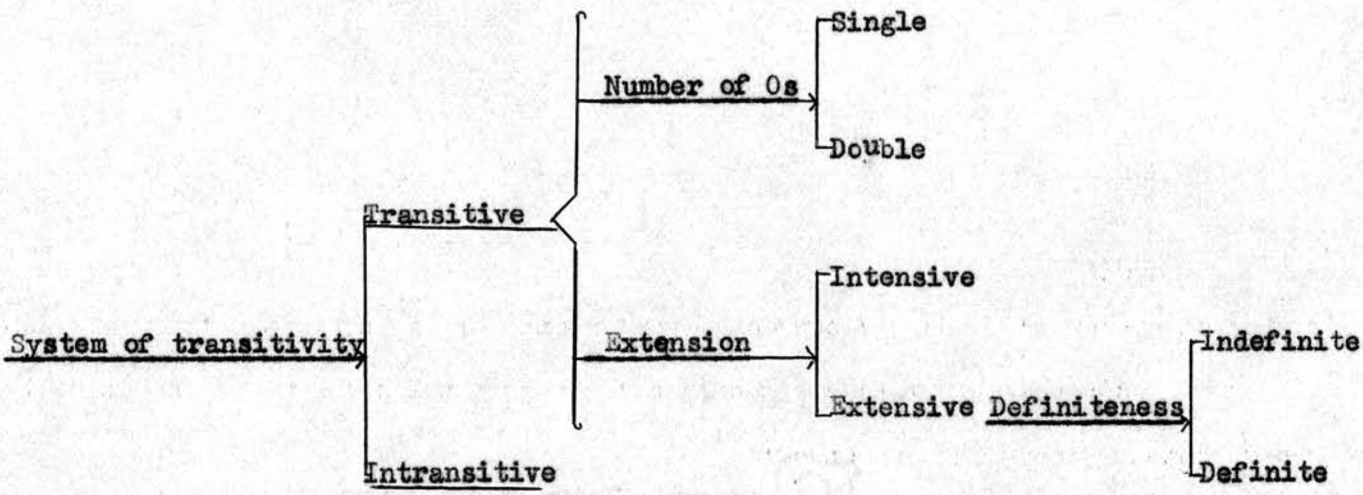
ramne (Ram)

3.614. (4) The System of transitivity:

Both independent and dependent clauses carry the system of transitivity which has two terms - transitive and intransitive. The transitive clause is

1. Nelson Francis: The Structure of American English: p: 362 f.n. 17.

marked by the presence of object(s) and the intransitive by its absence. The transitive clause may be single or double, depending on the number of objects. On the dimension of extension, it may be subdivided into transitive clause containing an intensive object and transitive clause containing an extensive object. The latter may again be subdivided into transitive extensive definite and transitive extensive indefinite. Diagrammatically:-



Ex:

S P
Intransitive: // ləɽka / dəwɽta həy // (The boy runs)

Transitive:

S O^I P
Single (intensive): // vəh / wdas / həy // (He is sad)

S O^E Indef.
Single (Extensive, Indefinite): // wsne / bylli / dekhi həy // (He has seen (a) cat)

S O^E def.
Single (Extensive, definite): // wsne / bylliko / dekha həy // (He has seen the cat)

S O^E def. O^I P
Double (Extensive definite + Intensive): // wsne / ləɽke ko / wdas / paya // (He found the boy sad)

S O^E def.
Double (Extensive definite + Extensive Indefinite): // wsne / ləɽke ko /
O^E Indef. P
səbhapəty / cwna // (He elected the boy president)

3.615. (5) The System of Concord:

Subjectival, Objectival and impersonal clauses constitute the system of concord. The subjectival clause is marked by S-P concord, the objectival by O-P concord, and the impersonal by no concord.

Ex:

		S	O	P		
Subjectival clause:	SOP	ləṛki	chavəl	khati	həy	(The girl eats rice)
		S	O	P		
Objectival clause:	SOP	ləṛkene	roṭi	khai	həy	(The boy has eaten bread)
		S	O	P		
Impersonal clause:	SOP	ləṛki ne	bylli-ko	dekha	həy	(The girl has seen the cat)

3.616. (6) The System of theme. The System of emphasis. see section 3.72.

3.71. WORD-ORDER:

It is a commonplace of linguistics to talk about word-order and also about deviations from 'normal' word-order. "The most fundamental principle of word-order in English sentences is the place of the subject and verbal predicate with regard to each other".[1] "When we hear the sentences:

John saw Henry, and

Henry saw John,

the word-order gives us the key to the right understanding. The normal word-order in English is:

Subject - Verb - Object; we may write this as an abbreviated formula:

S - V - O."[2]

"If we were asked by a foreigner for a general rule of word-order in English, we should say, I suppose: The Subject precedes the predicate. On second thoughts, we should add: That is, in a statement the subject must

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1. E. Kruisinga and P-A. Erades: An English Grammar: p 68. (vol. 1).
2. Otto Jespersen: Essentials of English grammar: p 99 (1960 Ed)

precede the predicate; any utterance in which part of the predicate, in the form of an auxiliary verb, precedes the subject is a question".[1] By word-order Nelson Francis means "the positions of words relative to each other in time".[2]

We are not interested in examining merely word-order; we are interested in examining the order of elements in the structure of each unit[3] (The morpheme, being the smallest unit on rank-scale has no structure and hence the question of order does not arise there). Within the framework of our grammar, word is a unit and it operates at 'places' in the structure of the Group. So by word-order we would mean the order in which words pattern in groups. The positional relation among Subject, Object and Predicator (which we are going to discuss here) will be accounted for by the sequence or order of elements in clause-structure. It is useful to make a distinction between sequence and order. Sequence might be used to mean that formal relation between items which is carried by linear progression. If we have, say, three items x,y,z arranged as xyz, we might say that the sequential relation between them is that y comes after x, and z comes after y; or that x is initial, y medial and z, final. Sequence is a variable. Order is at a higher degree of abstraction than sequence/Sequential relation between elements may change without in any way affecting at primary delicacy the order of elements. To quote Firth on this point: "Elements of structure..... share a mutual expectancy in an order which is not merely a sequence".[4] The dimension of order, therefore, "is very different from the

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1. K.J. Dover: Greek Word-Order: p 7 (1960)
2. W. Nelson Francis: The Structure of American English: p 423 (1958)
3. For example: the sequence of Independent and Dependent clauses in sentence-structure; of Subject, Object, Adjunct and Predicator in clause-structure; of modifier, head and qualifier in the structure of the Nominal group and soon.
4.. Firth: Synopsis: p 17.

successivity of bits and pieces in a unidirectional time-sequence".[1]

There are, however, instances "where an element of structure is identified as such solely by reference to formal sequence: where the element is defined by place stated as absolute or relative position in sequence".[2] In English one might say that the exponent of "subject" is that nominal group which precedes the verbal group with no other nominal group in between. "In English clause structure it is a crucial criterion of the element S that it precedes P in sequence."[3]

In a Latin clause sequence is not crucial to the definition of the elements. To quote Velma Pickett, "In some languages the order of the various spots is comparatively free. In Latin, for example, the meaning of the spots is indicated by distribution with bound morphemes....., and the order of the spot fillers are relatively insignificant".[4] This does not, however, imply that a difference in sequence makes no difference whatever to meaning.[5] "Rearrangements of the elements to give SPO, OSP etc, can be usefully employed to state the more delicate distinctions between "puer puellam amat", "puellam puer amat", etc."[6] Sequence and order as relational abstractions (i.e. abstractions from structural relations) are of significance in all languages. "At some point or other order asserts itself in every language as the most fundamental of relating principles".[7] "Even highly inflected languages", says H. Sweet, "observe

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1. Firth: Synopsis: p 5.
2. M.A.K. Halliday: Categories, p 257.
3. Ibid: p 258.
4. Velma Pickett: An Introduction to the study of grammatical structure: p 36 (1956 Ed.)
5. K.J. Dover: "It would be a very unusual language in which all the utterances of a given individual speaker were wholly and exhaustively determined by mutually exclusive rules belonging all to the same type". (Greek Word-Order: p 8) 1960
6. M.A.K. Halliday: "Categories": p 258 f.n. 42.
7. Sapir: Language: p 116.

general principles of syntactic order, however freely they may disregard them in special cases".[1] On the importance of sequence and order, Sapir says: "Some languages, like Latin, express practically all relations by means of modifications within the body of the word itself. In these, sequence is apt to be a rhetorical rather than a strictly grammatical principle. Whether I say in Latin hominem femina videt or femina hominem videt or hominem videt femina or videt femina hominem makes little or no difference beyond, possibly, a rhetorical or stylistic one. "The woman sees the man" is the identical significance of each of these sentences. In Chinook, an Indian language of the Columbia River, one can be equally free, for the relation between the verb and the two nouns is as inherently fixed as in Latin. The difference between the two languages is that, while Latin allows the nouns to establish their relation to each other and to the verb, Chinook lays the formal burden entirely on the verb, the full content of which is more or less adequately rendered by she - him - sees. Eliminate the Latin case suffixes (-a and -em) and the Chinook pronominal prefixes (she- him-) and we cannot afford to be so indifferent to our word-order. We need to husband our resources. In other words, word-order takes on a real functional value. Latin and Chinook are at one extreme. Such languages as Chinese, Siamese, and Annamite, in which each and every word, if it is to function properly, falls into its assigned place, are at the other extreme".[2] In Javanese shift of an element from a prehead to a posthead position leads to a remarkable change in the meaning of the utterance.[3]

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1. H. Sweet: New English Grammar Pt. II (Syntax): p 4.
2. Sapir: Language: pp 63-64.
3. A. De Groot: "In Javanese itiomah means 'this house'; bmah iti' means 'the house - it is this."
(Structural Linguistics and Syntactic Laws: p 7
WORD, vol. 5, no. 1 (1949).)

Different languages exploit sequence and order for different purposes. In certain languages sequence may be used criterially to define certain elements; in certain other languages sequence might be a crucial property of structure, that is, a change in the sequence of elements might mean a change in structure.[1] "The degree to which word-order, as a means of language, is exploited for functional purposes differs from language to language. The possibilities and the problems of functional exploitation of the word-order in the sentence concern the language structure itself".[2]

In each language it is possible to identify the normal (or unmarked) order of the elements of clause structure. This may be done either on the basis of statistics or on the basis of the 'intuitions' of native speakers of the language. And then we can study all 'abnormal' arrangements of elements. "The normal w. - o. is formed by grammatically set constructions and normal patterns (cliches). The special w. - o. is constituted by functional variants of the normal sentence patterns (cliches)."[3]

In Sanskrit the Subject and the Object are recognized not, as in English, by their respective position in the sentence but by the particular terminations - (a)s and (a)m respectively..... "Like all languages, that possess a rich store of inflections, Sanskrit affords a comparatively great freedom as to the order of words in the sentence",[4]

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1. M.A.K. Halliday: "The sequence in which items occur may or may not be a crucial property of the structure in question". (Chain and Choice: p 4).
2. Jan Šimko: Word-Order: p 7. (1957)
3. Ibid: p 7.
4. J.S. Speijer: Sanskrit Syntax: p 9. (Leyden: 1886)

As has already been said, sequence does not play a crucial part in the definition of the elements in Hindi clause structure. The elements can be arranged in all possible ways. Let us take three of the primary elements of Hindi clause structure - S(subject), O(object), and P(predicator). We are deliberately leaving A(adjunct) out because at the degree of delicacy at which the following distinctions operate A can go in anywhere. All clause structures can then be stated as combinations of these three elements in different places:

i) mə̃yne roṭi khai həy S O P (I have eaten bread)

ii) roṭi mə̃yne khai həy O S P

iii) mə̃yne khai həy roṭi S P O

iv) roṭi khai həy mə̃yne O P S

v) khai həy mə̃yne roṭi P S O

vi) khai həy roṭi mə̃yne P O S

All the clauses listed above are possible; they can be stated in probability terms and shown on a eline with common and uncommon as its two ends.

SOP OSP SPO OPS PSO POS

Common Uncommon

These combinations of S,O,P do not mean the same thing. In our view no two different arrangements of elements are exactly alike in meaning.[1] If, for example, O normally occurs medially in a clause, its front-shifting or back-shifting means (a) a change in structure and also (b) a change in meaning. Traditional grammarians were aware of this problem and they explained this shift in terms of 'emphasis'. To them all 'extrapositions' were emphatic.. To quote

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1. Velma Pickett: "Probably order variations are seldom if ever completely "free" in the sense of not making any difference in meaning. The term 'stylistic variation' is frequently applied to intangible differences of meaning between variant orders".
(An Introduction To The Study of Grammatical Structures: 1956; p 36 f.n.)

Jespersen: "Emphasis may be expressed by either of these two positions,..... or as Sweet says, by putting the word in any abnormal - that is, unexpected position".[1] "The most general way of making a word prominent is by putting it before the others - if possible, at the beginning of the sentence. But there is another more general principle of position-emphasis - that of making a word conspicuous by putting it in any abnormal - that is, unexpected position. Thus a word whose normal position is front or mid may be made emphatic by end position, as in the Latin sentence "aliud iter habēmus nūllum" 'we have no other road', where 'none' has emphatic end-position. Emphatic end-position is suspensive".[2] Sweet and Jespersen do not tell us anything about the difference between the two 'extrapositions'. Are there degrees of emphasis? Do the two positions mean two different things relative to some other element in clause? These questions have not been fully answered. Hindi grammarians too have grappled with this problem but have not produced any definite solution. Kellogg has analysed all significant deviations from, what he calls, "normal order of words". We quote: "The normal order of the parts of a simple sentence in Hindi is (1) Subject, (2) Predicate, (3) Copula, as mənuʃyə papi həy,[3] 'man is a sinner'; ramdas bwddhyman həy, 'Ramdas is wise'..... Hindi, however, allows the greatest liberty of deviating from this normal order, whether for the sake of emphasis, or to meet the necessities of metre in poetry, and of rhythm even in prose. In general, a word is rendered emphatic in proportion as it is displaced from its normal position in the sentence; as, "təjti hə̃y pəty ko əkwlani nari", 'base-born woman

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1. Jespersen: A Modern English Grammar: Part VII (Syntax) 1954 Ed: p 57.
2. H. Sweet: "A New English Grammar". Part II (Syntax) 1955 ed; p 3.
3. Our transcriptions.

desert their husbands"..... The predicate is also emphasized by placing it after the copula, last in the sentence; as, 'twmhara pwɳyə həy bəhwt əwr pap həy thoɽa", 'abundant is your merit, and your sin little'..... Or the predicate, if emphatic, may take the first place in the sentence; as 'samərthi vei hə̃y jo mã̃ bap ki seva kərte hə̃y", 'those are powerful who obey their parents'.....

The Object of a transitive verb regularly immediately precedes it: as 'vəh həmko marta həy', 'he is beating me'; but is emphasized when first in the sentence; thus, 'ys əjit ko mə̃y kəyse jitũga', 'this unconquerable one, how shall I conquer'? A less emphatic position is the last; as 'jo vyahega yse so marega mwjhe', "he who marries her, will kill me". The verb itself, whether transitive or intransitive, is emphatic in the first place; 'marə̃ kəha tchy həm', 'shall I kill thee'?, and also in the following; 'so dete kyõ nəhĩ', 'why do you not give it?"[1]

Harley, however, thinks that only front-shifting is emphatic: "The normal order of words in a sentence is: Subject; Object and adverbial expressions of time, place, and manner; Verb. Emphasis tends to bring important words towards the beginning".[2] Writing about the order of elements in Gujarati clause structure, Tisdall says: "In Gujarati, the usual order of words in a sentence is, - (1) Subject; (2) Indirect Object; (3) Direct Object; (4) Predicate: but this may be altered for the sake of emphasis".[3] "The words in a Marathi sentence are usually arranged in the following order: first, the subject, next the object, then the adverb, and lastly, the verb; thus "dusṭ pardhyanə̃ amci swndər məyna ṭhar maryli",[4] the cruel sportsman killed our pretty jay..... Note:- The order

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1. Rev. S.H. Kellogg: A Grammar of the Hindi Language (1893 Ed.) pp 537-539.
2. A.H. Harley: Colloquial Hindustani (1955 Ed.) pp 10-11.
3. Rev. Wm. ST. Clair Tisdall: "A Simplified Grammar of the Gujarati Language". (1892) p 95.
4. Our transcription.

of words is changed when a person speaks with emotion, or when any special word is to be made emphatic. The emphasized word is put as near to the beginning of the sentence as possible".[1]

It is clear from these quotations that traditional grammarians of Indian languages have been aware of this problem and have always felt that an element shifted from its normal position gains in prominence or emphasis. They have, however, produced no solution to the troublesome problem of distinguishing between 'extrapositions'. We are making an attempt here to produce a possible solution to this troublesome problem. We are going to concentrate (for illustration) on only three primary places in clause structure. The initial place is the place of the theme (or topic); the medial is that of <u>emphasis</u> and the final place is neutral.. Contextually, 'theme' would mean 'the given'; it is what the speaker is going to talk about. Whatever comes after is 'the new' or 'the comment' on the topic. It is generally thought that the subject and the topic are always identical, but infact this is not true; "for though there is often correspondence, a linguistic subject may not be <u>the</u> topic of a sentence, nor the topic be expressed by the linguistic subject".[2] Jan Šimko has explained one aspect of this problem in the following paragraph:-

"Every normal declarative sentence is built on the basis of predication, i.e. something new is stated, or predicated, of something known. This results in a basically binary form of predication. The basis of the predication, called here the theme (Th), is the usual starting point; it is something which is in the given situation either known, most at hand or most obvious. The nucleus of

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1. G.R. Navalkar: <u>The Students Marathi Grammar</u> 1880 Ed. pp 239-240.
2. Barbara M.H. Strang: <u>Modern English Structure:</u> 1962; p 71.

the predication (N) contains the new contribution, the new statement concerning Th. From this it follows that the normal order of the semantic elements in a declarative sentence is Th - N. This is the so-called objective order. The opposite order, N - Th, is the so-called subjective order. This is employed in cases when special emphasis is laid on N and this is front-shifted in order to produce a certain effect on the reader or hearer".[1]

3.72. Theme and emphasis:

We distinguish initial position as 'theme' or 'given' (in context or cotext) and non-initial as 'new'. The new may, if extrapositional, be emphatic. Thus, according to our analysis 'theme' and 'emphasis' are formally defined. Theme is marked by initial position, and emphasis by extraposition as the second element always carrying the tonic.[2] The normal order of elements in Hindi clause structure is: S(initially), O(medially) and P(finally). SOP may therefore be regarded as neutral structure.[3] Statistically it is the most frequent in occurrence. The possible combinations of thematic and emphatic elements may new be schematized in the following way:-

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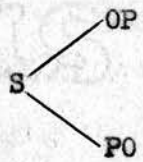
1. Jan Šimko - Word-order: p 8.
2. Note that emphasis is expounded both by sequence (non-normal) and by tonicity.
3. Jan Šimko: op-cit: p10: "Any order of the formal elements corresponding to the objective order of the semantic elements, Th - N, is unmarked, while any w.o. pattern - be it direct or inverted - corresponding to the subjective order N - Th is marked".

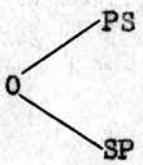
Theme	Emphasis	Structure	Exponent
			S O P
S	-	SOP (Unmarked)	ramne am khaya hɘy
			S P O
S	P	SPO (Marked)	ramne khaya hɘy am
			O P S
O	-	OPS (Unmarked)	am khaya hɘy ramne
			O S P
O	S	OSP (Marked)	am ramne khaya hɘy
			P S O
P	-	PSO (Unmarked)	khaya hɘy ramne am
			P O S
P	O	POS (Marked)	khaya hɘy am ramne

If we take S as the given or the theme (that means, if the initial place is filled by S), we have a choice between SOP and SPO.



Here (S)OP represents the normal or unmarked sequence of elements in a Hindi-clause; (S)OP represents the marked sequence of elements. P has been shifted from its normal, final position to the medial, emphatic position.

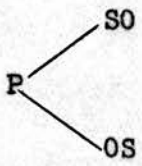
If we have an O-theme (that is, if we have O initially), we have a choice between OPS and OSP.



With place one taken by O, the normal, unmarked sequence of elements is (O)PS; (O)SP represents the marked sequence of elements and here emphasis is carried by S.

Similarly, if we have P initially (i.e. thematic), we have a choice between PSO and POS, where the former is unmarked and the latter marked. The basis for

making this statement is that with the initial place filled by P, the normal sequence of elements would be (P)SO.



Here emphasis is carried by O.

Theme and emphasis are independently variable; we can keep one constant and vary the other.

On the dimension of theme, we may have the following secondary clause-classes:-

i) S-theme clauses

ii) O-theme clauses

iii) P-theme clauses

3.81. CONCORD:

The category of concord is set up to account for a distinct kind of syntagmatic relation between two or more elements of structure. We may mention the following points as the two main prerequisities of concord:

1. that there is "more than one" exponent as opposed to "one", and
2. that these are exponents of the "same" category.

Concordial relation should not be mistaken for some sort of a relation between phonic data or word-endings. "Concord relationships are relationships between elements of grammatical structure and not between phonic data".[1] It is true that the elements which show agreement often have very great phonetic similarities, but this must not lead us to conclude that the agreement is essentially one of sounds. "It is fundamentally one of grammatical classes".[2] "Where the description

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1. W.S. Allen: "Abaza": p 159.
2. E.A. Nida: Outline of Descriptive Syntax: p 78. (1951)

does recognize concord, this concord is itself the exponent of a distinct category of relation that is different from the category of which the form is exponent, and that has its own formal meaning".[1]

We have made a distinction between Concord and Selection. By selection we mean relation of mutual determination between exponents of S and those of P. It accounts for the selection of two mutually expectant and mutually prehended categories. As in the case of concord, here we have "more than one" exponent, but these are exponents of "different" categories (and it is this feature which distinguishes it from concord). In Hindi selection relation is relevant only to clause-structure. There is no such relation between elements of group-structure or of sentence-structure. Concordial relation, on the other hand, means selection of the same "terms" at two or more places in the structure of sentence or clause or group.[2] "Concord may be defined as the complementary distribution of linguistic forms having the same syntactic function in systematic correlation with other formally distinct forms with which they are syntactically linked".[3] Traditionally, concord has been used to denote "an agreement in person, number, gender, or tense between the various parts of a sentence". For all these reasons, it has been found useful to keep these two relations distinct.[4]

3.82. Personal and non-personal Concord:

The concordial relation between O and P is non-personal, i.e. the exponent of O agrees with the exponent of P only in gender and number (not in person).

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1. M.A.K. Halliday: "Categories": p 289.
2. H.A. Gleason: "Concord is one instance of a relationship which may exist between constituents other than immediate constituents of an utterance". (An Introduction to Descriptive Linguistics: 1960, p 142)
3. W. Nelson Francis: The Structure of American English: p 330
4. M.A.K. Halliday: "Categories"; p 289 f.n. 102; "If, in Old English, a nominal group consisting of a noun alone may carry four case/number distinctions, one with adjective and noun six and one with deictic, adjective, and noun seven, how can any two case/number forms be considered exponents of "the same" category when they occur in different structures?"

The concordial relation between S and P is personal, i.e. the exponent of S agrees with the exponent of P in number, gender and person.[1]

3.83. Thread of Concord:

T.F. Mitchell thinks that glottality in Hausa is conceptually on a par with the 'thread of comcord' running through a Hindi clause. We quote:..... "It may be observed that syntagmatic relationship, usually between elements of infra-word size and involving the use of different terminology, obtains as much on the plane of phonology as these of colligation and collocation. Glottality in Hausa running through a considerable stretch of text is conceptually on a par with the 'thread of concord' running through the Hindi or Urdu wska beṭa aya tha or wski beṭi ai thi, and, moreover, neither of them differs in any way from, say, the association of vowel-quality, stress and consonant-length in such Cyrenaican Jebel Arabic forms as kasar (kə'sʌr) 'he broke' and kassar ('kʌssʌr) 'he smashed' or the association of a verbal sub-category in German with a particular nominal case".[2]

We would not like to look upon concord as a relation between phonic data. For us concord is a grammatical (descriptive) category. It is an exponent of a kind of syntagmatic relation between two or more elements in the structure of a grammatical unit. This implies (as said before) making the same kind of choice at two or more places in the structure of a unit. We would now go back to the examples of Mitchell:

1. wska beṭa aya tha (His* son had come)

---

1. W.K. Matthews: "When the object appears in the nominative case, it may be taken to be in a subjective relation to the verb, and this assumes the 'plastic' form of the pastparticiple, which demands concord between itself and the object. Such concord is nominal i.e. it extends to gender and number, and not pronominal and personal". The Ergative Construction in Modern Indo-Aryan: p 400 (Lingua vol. 3 No. IV, 1953.)
2. T.F. Mitchell: Syntagmatic Relations in Linguistic Analysis: TPS 1958: p 117
* my translation.

2. wsk<u>i</u> bet<u>i</u> a<u>i</u> th<u>i</u> (His* daughter had come)

By the 'thread of concord' Mitchell, it seems, refers to the repetition of the same sound at the end of each of the four items in the two clauses - <u>a</u> in (1) and <u>i</u> in (2). There are, infact, two layers of concord in each of the clauses - intergroup concord and intragroup concord. There is, for example, intragroup concord between 'wska' (exponent of '<u>m</u>' in the nominal group) and 'beṭa' (exponent of <u>h</u> in the nominal group): again between 'aya' (exponent of <u>l</u> in the verbal group) and 'tha' (exponent of <u>a</u> in the verbal group). Then there is inter-group concord between '<u>wska beṭa</u>' (singular masculine nominal group, exponent of S in clause-structure) and '<u>aya tha</u>' (singular Masculine Verbal group, exponent of P in clause structure).

Concord is a grammatical category and we can account for it powerfully in grammar. If we say that the exponent of concordial relation in clause (1) is repetition of the sound -<u>a</u> (as is implied by Mitchell's expression 'running through') we may find it difficult to explain the concordial relation between elements in the following clause:

3. wsk<u>a</u> hath<u>i</u> ay<u>a</u> th<u>a</u> (His elephant had come).

Here we have two different sounds or endings - <u>a</u> and <u>i</u>, and yet for us the concordial relation between the elements - both inter-group and intra-group - is the same as in (1)[1] We may conclude this discussion by saying that in Hindi we do not always have clear morphological markers as exponents of concordial relation between elements. Concordial relation is not a relation between bound morphemes

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* my translation.

1. This point may be illustrated better by clauses having personal pronouns (where we do not make gender-distinctions morphologically) at S:-

vəh jati həy. (He goes)
vəh jata həy. (She goes)

but between secondary word clauses operating in group-structure (e.g. singular noun and singular verb or singular epithet and singular 'head' and so on) or between secondary group classes operating in clause-structure (e.g. singular nominal group and singular verbal group).

THE ELEMENT: A

3.91. The Adjunct:

The adjunct is that primary element of Hindi clause-structure which is expounded by the class "adverbial" of the unit: Group. We might define the adverbial group as that primary class of the unit Group which operates at A in clause structure. We must, however, note that the relation between the class adverbial of the unit group and the element A in clause-structure is not bi-unique for we may have nominal groups operating at A.

Positionally, A is mobile; we may have A in the beginning, in the middle, at the end or between any two elements.

Concordially, A is neutral; the exponent of A does not enter into concordial relation with the exponents of any other element in clause-structure.

'Selection'-wise A is unmarked; the exponent of A does not participate in selection-relation with the exponent of P.[1]

S O A P
məy bylli ko vəhãse dekh səkta hũ (I can see the cat from there)

S O A P
mẽyne bylli ko vəhã se dekha (I saw the cat from there)

In these clauses the exponent of A does not enter into any concordial or selection relation with the exponent of P.

---

1. In his description of English, A.A. Hill defines adjuncts as "words or phrases not definable as Subject, verb or complement or as parts of those three sentence elements".
(Introduction to Linguistic Structures: p 330)

3.92.

At A we may have the following groups:-

(a) Adverbial group: the head of this group is expounded by the class 'adverbial' of the unit word. e.g. bəhwt dhirese (very slowly)

(b) Nominal group: the head of this group is expounded by the class 'noun' of the unit word. More delicately, we have two sub-classes of the nominal group at A - (a) those nominal groups which can operate at S or O or A, They are in the direct case. (b) those nominal groups which, though morphologically similar to the other nominal groups can operate only at A. They are in the postpositional case.

3.93. Simplex and Complex A:

A may be simplex or complex: a simplex A is expounded by one adverbial group, a complex A by a series of adverbial groups in list relation.

	S	A	P	
Simplex A:	məy	vəhã	rəhta hũ	(I live there)

	S	A	P
Complex A:	iʃvər / həmmẽ, twmmẽ əwr hər jiv mẽ /		ny^vas kərta həy.

(God lives in me, you and in every living creature)

3.931. Subdivisions of A:

The primary element A may be subdivided on the chain axis into A^C and A^A yielding two secondary chain classes of the adverbial group - Conjunction group and adverb group. The head of an adverb group may but the head of a conjunction group may not be suffixed by a postposition. Another important distinction between the two is that the systems of the interrogatives and relatives operate only at A^A i.e. A^A may (but A^C cannot) be subdivided into $A^{Relative}$/ $A^{Interrogative}$/ $A^{Unmarked}$.

The conjunction group subdivides into the linking and binding groups. The linking group may but the binding group may not operate at A in a major

independent clause.

The linking adjuncts (symbolized A^L - expounded by the linking group) subdivide on the chain axis into fixed-place linking adjuncts and non-fixed-place linking adjuncts. Fixed-place linking adjuncts (expounded by ɘwr, ya, pɘr, tɘtha.....) can appear only initially in a clause whereas the non-fixed-place linking adjuncts (expounded by yslyye, phyrbhi, tɘwbhi.....) are not tied to any fixed place. They may not, however, appear finally.

Ex: vɘh khub khata hɘy; A^L phyrbhi moʈa nɘhĩ hota. (He eats a lot, even then he does not put on weight)

Now we can do two things here, i) insert ɘwr (and) before phyrbhi -

vɘh khub khata hɘy; ɘwr phyrbhi moʈa nɘhĩ hota. (He eats a lot, and even then does not put on weight)

ii) replace phyrbhi by ɘwr -

vɘh khub khata hɘy, ɘwr moʈa nɘhĩ hota. (He eats a lot, and does not put on weight)

We may shift the place of phyrbhi from the initial to the non-initial position in clause-structure, and rewrite the sentence as:-

vɘh khub khata hɘy; moʈa phyrbhi nɘhĩ hota.

Here we cannot replace phyrbhi by ɘwr.

The binding adjunct (symbolized A^B - expounded by the binding group) subdivides on the choice axis into sequential binding adjunct and non-sequential binding adjunct. The sequential (binding) adjunct (symbolised A^S; it has only one exponent, ky=that) cannot be sentence-initial, i.e. it cannot occur in a sentence-initiating clause.[1] The non-sequential (binding) adjunct (expounded by yɘdy, ɘgɘr, kyõky.....) can be

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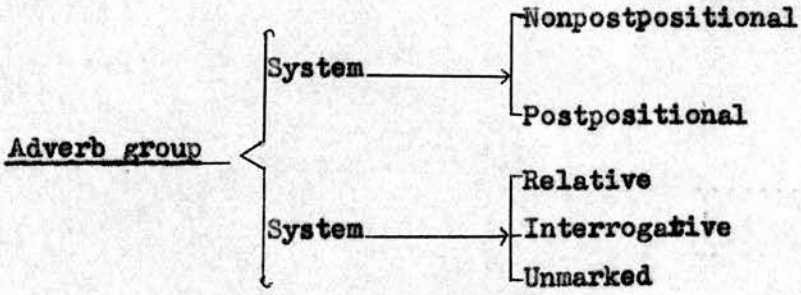
1. Note here that the sequential adjunct has a fixed-place in clause-structure; it can appear only initially in a clause but there is another restriction, i.e. it cannot occur in a sentence-initiating clause. See the section on Dependent Sequential Clauses.

sentence-initial, i.e. can occur in a sentence-initiating clause.

The adverb group may simultaneoulsy be divided into the following choice classes:-



3.932. The conjunction group:

I The Linking group

(a) Fixed[1]: ɘwr, evɘm, tɘtha, pɘr, pɘrɘntw, vɘrɘɳ, kyntw, lekyn, bɘlky, mɘgɘr, va, ya, ɘthva, nɘ.....nɘ, ya.....ya,

(b) Non-fixed: phyrbhi. tɘwbhi, yspɘrbhi, yslyye (ysilyye).....

II The Binding group

(a) sequential: ky

(b) Non-sequential: yɘdy, ɘgɘr, yɘdyɘpy, kyõky, karɘɳ, taky.....

3.933. The Adverb Group:

(a) Nonpost-positional relative: jɘyse, jyõ.....

(b) Postpositional relative: jɘbse, jɘhãtɘk, jydhɘrse.....

(c) Nonpostpositional interrogative: kɘyse, kyõ.....

(d) Postpositional interrogative: kɘbse, kɘhãse,kydhɘr se.....

(e) Nonpostpositional unmarked: ɘyse, yõ.....

(f) Postpositional unmarked: ɘbse, yɘhãse, ydhɘr se.....

3.934:

Diagrammatically, subdivisions of A may be shown as follows:-

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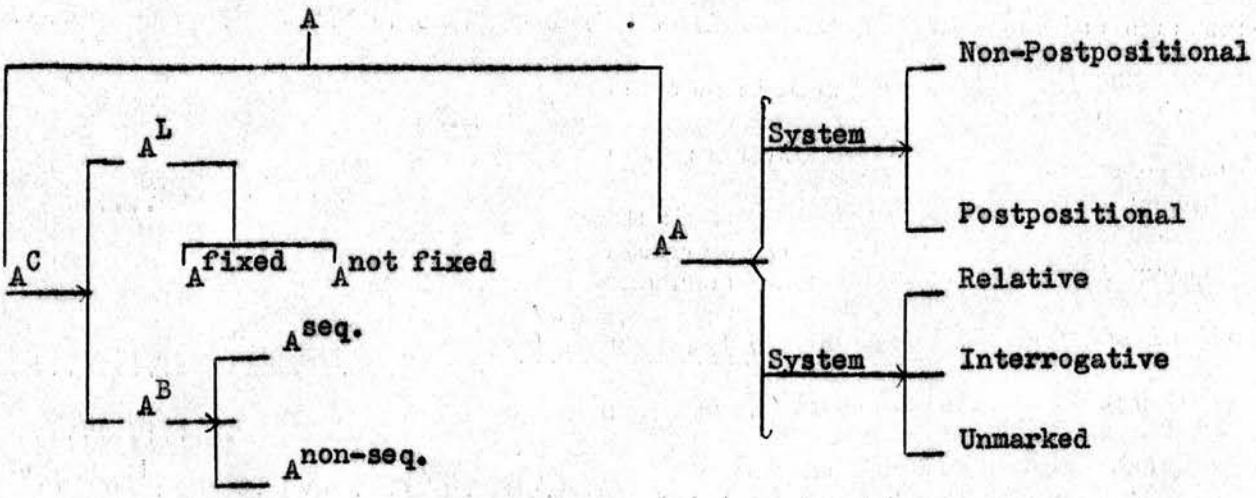
1. For translation of these items see the chapter on the adverbial group.



3.941. Thematic A:

The normal position of A^A in a clause is between O and P. When it is front-shifted, it is thematic (that is, A^A appearing initially in a clause is thematic) A^C normally appears initially, and hence does not enter into the system of theme.

Example: Non-thematic: $\underset{\sim}{S}$ məy $A^{\not T}$ kəl swbəh $\underset{\sim}{P}$ jauga (I will go tomorrow morning)

Thematic: A^T kəl swbəh $\underset{\sim}{S}$ məy $\underset{\sim}{P}$ jauga (Tomorrow morning, I will go)

The reason why A-theme has not been shown in the diagrammatization of the interlocking systems of theme and emphasis is that we have not yet found any marked emphatic position for A.

THE ELEMENT Z

3.951.

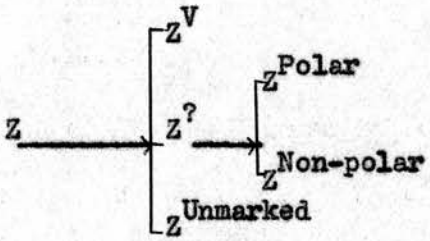
We may define the Z-element as that element which can occur only in Minor clauses (i.e. clauses which have no P) and which is expounded by the class 'nominal' of the unit: group. We have defined our S and O in relation to P.

Note: A^T = Thematic A; $A^{\not T}$ = Non-thematic A.

Since in a minor clause, there is no P, we do not know whether our nominal group is S or O; hence we use a new symbol for this: Z. It may be said to represent the neutralization of S/O distinction.[1]

3.952. The Vocative:

Z may be subdivided into Z^V, $Z^?$, $Z^{unmarked}$ yielding three secondary choice classes; the vocatives, the interrogatives and the unmarked. Z^V always forms the structure of the vocative clause (i.e. the Vocative clause has only one element, Z^V). $Z^?$ is expounded by the k-group. It may further be subdivided into polar and non-polar interrogative. Diagrammatically:-



3.953. Diagrammatization of the systems carried by the clause:

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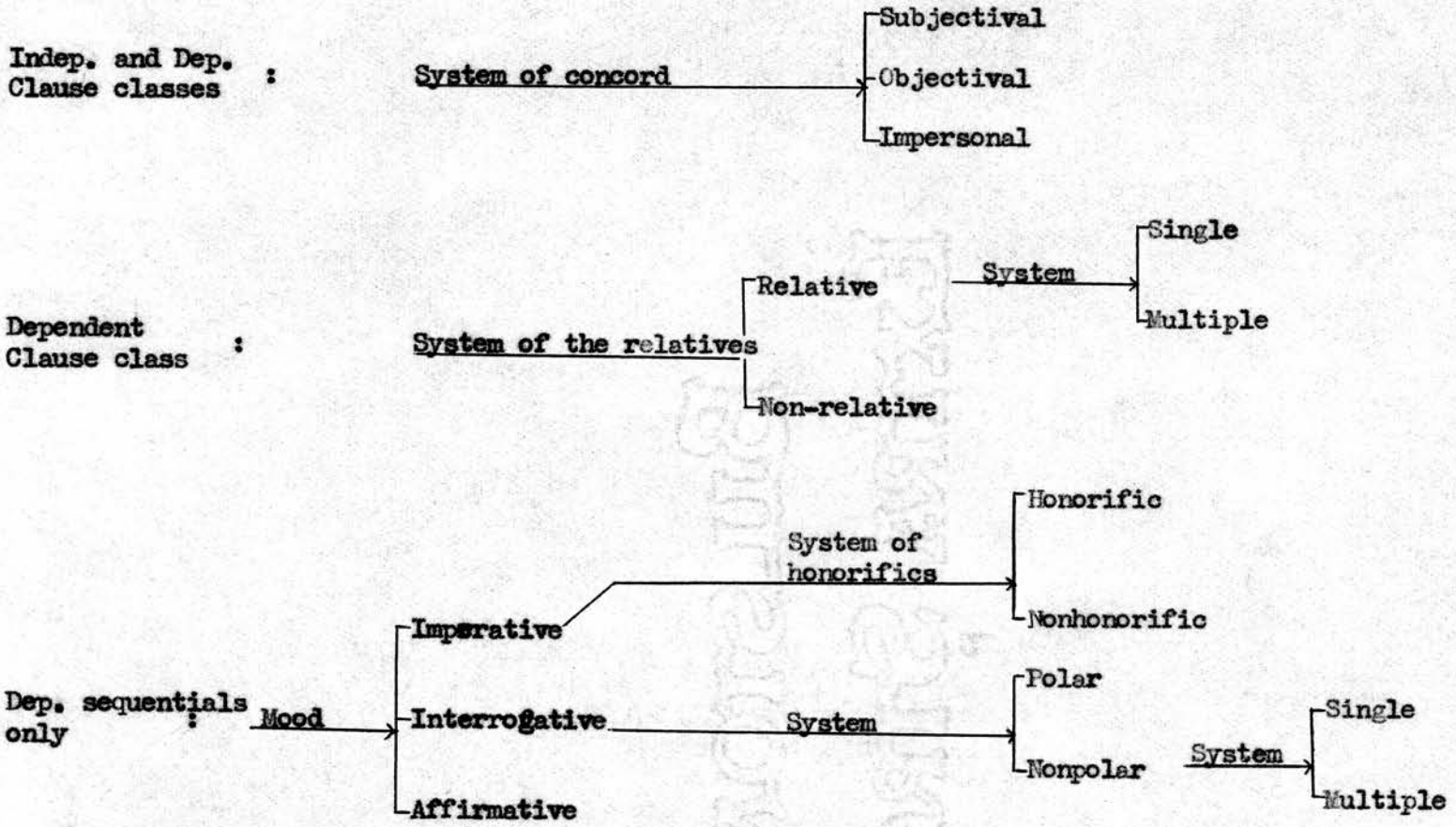
1. In a somewhat similar situation in English, Hill talks of "elementless sentences". He says: "The sentences are without a recognizable sentence element, since in the absence of a predicator, we cannot call the nominal material subject or complement".
(Introduction to Linguistic Structures: p 348)

3.953. Diagrammatization of the systems carried by the clause:



(Note: for the systems of theme and emphasis see section 3.72.)

3.954.

At both α and β we have a choice from Subjectival, Objectival and Impersonal clauses:-

SYSTEM OF CONCORD

	Independent	Dependent
Subjectival (s-p concord)	α S P sita lykhti həy (Sita writes	β A S A P ky vəh ʃighrə hi aegi that she will come soon)
Objectival (o-p concord)	α S O P sita ne yəh sucna di həy (Sita has given (us) the information	β A S ky ramu ke ləṛke ne nybəndh A O prətyyogyta mẽ prəthəm pwrəskar P paya həy. that Ramu's son has received the first prize in essay - competition)
Impersonal (No concord)	α S O P sita ne mwjhe lykha həy (Sita has written to me	β A S O ky ramu ne əpne ləṛke ko A P vydeʃ bheja həy. that Ramu has sent his son abroad)

3.955.

At both α and β we have a choice from transitive and intransitive clauses:-

	Independent	Dependent
Transitive	α S O P mira ne mwjhe lykha həy (Mira has written to me	β A S O P ky ʃilane əpna sara kam səmapt kər lyya həy. that Sheela has finished all her work).
Intransitive	α S P məy cahta hũ (I want	β A S P ky vəh ae that he should come).

System of Transitivity

3.956. Transitivity and Concord in relation:

	TRANSITIVE	INTRANSITIVE
SUBJECTIVAL	S O P ləʈka roʈi khata həy ((The) boy eats bread)	S P ləʈka dəwʈta həy. ((The) boy runs).
OBJECTIVAL	S O P ləʈke ne roʈi khai həy. ((The) boy has eaten bread)	X
IMPERSONAL	S O P ləʈke ne mə̃ ko bwlaya. ((The) boy called his mother)	S P ləʈke ne nəhaya həy.* ((The) boy has had a bath)

* W.K. Matthews; "The use of the ergative construction without an object, found in Hindustani and in some of its cognates is not found elsewhere, for the presence of an object is generally precedent to the emergence of the ergative case."
(The Ergative Construction in Modern Indo-Aryan Lingua Vol3. No.4. pp 405-406)

3.957. Rankshifted clause:

We have defined the clause as that unit which operates in sentence structure. Each place in the structure is the place of operation of a class of clause. This is the unmarked, normal relation between elements of sentence structure and classes of the unit next below (i.e. of clause). Infact, classes of each unit enter into the structure of the unit immediately above on the rankscale. But a class of a unit may, instead of moving up the rankscale, shift down it and operate in the structure of the unit next below.[1] This kind of departure from one/one relation between elements and classes may be called "rank shift". To quote Halliday: "In rankshift, this relation is broken and the classes enter into a structure of their own rank or even of lower rank than themselves....."[2] Rankshift may therefore be regarded as "a name for that type of recursive structure which cuts across the scale of rank".[3]

In Hindi there are certain dependent clauses which instead of operating in sentence structure operate in the structure of i) the nominal group, ii) the adverbial group, and iii) certain word classes.

There are three places in nominal group structure where they can operate. These places are: 'head', 'modifier', and 'qualifier'.

3.9571. Rank shifted clause at h in nominal group structure:

i) The infinitival clause:

S O P

// rat mẽ / ədhyk der tək / kam / kərna' // əccha / nəhĩ hota //

A A O P

R/s clause

(working till late at night is not good)

---

1. A.A. Hill calls this "downgrading". We quote: "Downgrading" consists in a reduction of status, for instance, from that of independent sentence to that of a sentence element within a larger sentence." (Introduction to Linguistic Structures: p 357)
2. M.A.K. Halldiay: Chain and Choice: p 13 (Linguistics: No. 2, Dec. 1963).
3. Ibid : p 13.

S O P
//məmnwsyə ka mənwsyə se ghryɳa kərna// bwri bat / həy //

R/S clause

(ii) The Participial clause:

S O P
// bhukh se / mərta// kya / nəhĩ kərta//
A P

R/S clause

(iii) The Appositive clause;

S O P
//yəh həthən // ky / sətyə hi / swndər / həy// səbõ ko / malum həy //
A S O P
R/s clause

3.9572. Rankshifted clause at m in nominal group structure:

i) The Participial clause:

m h
asman mẽ / wɽta hwa / pəkchi
A P
R/s clause

3.9573. Rankshifted clause at q in nominal group structure:

(i) The Relative clause:

m h q
cytrəlekha ka / mwkh // jo / kwch chəɳ pəhle / wllas se / cəmək rəha tha//
S A A P
R/s clause

3.9574. Rankshifted clause in adverbial group structure:

A S O P
//səməy pər / bhojən / kərne se / svasthyə / ʈhik / rəhta həy //
A O P

R/s clause

There are two layers of rankshift here and we may say that the infinitival clause is, infact, operating in word structure.

3.9575. Rankshifted clause in word structure:

O P
//rat mẽ / ədhyk der tək / kam / kərne ki adət / choɽ do // (Give up the habit of working late at night).

Here we have an Imperative clause with the structure: OP. The exponent of O is the nominal group expounded by:

$$\underset{A}{\text{"rat } \tilde{\text{me}}} \text{ / } \underset{A}{\text{ədhyk } d^{pg}\text{er tək}} \text{ / } \underset{O}{\text{kam}} \text{ / } \underset{P}{\text{kərne ki}} \text{ / } \text{adət}^{h}\text{"}$$

The structure of the nominal group at O may be represented by: $\underline{d^{pg}\ h}$. The exponent of d^{pg} is normally a class of the unit word which may be said to have F (free morpheme) and B (bound morpheme) as structural elements.[1] The exponent of the bound morpheme here is the genitival postposition 'ki'; but in place of a free morpheme, we have an infinitival clause expounded by -

$$\underset{A}{\text{// rat } \tilde{\text{me}}} \text{ / } \underset{A}{\text{ədyk der tək}} \text{ / } \underset{O}{\text{kam}} \text{ / } \underset{P}{\text{kərna //}}$$

We may, therefore, say that the infinitival clause here is rankshifted to operate in place of a free morpheme in word structure.

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1. d^{pg} = deictic (genitival). For further details see Chapter IV.

CHAPTER IV

THE NOMINAL GROUP

CHAPTER IV

4.1. Definition:

The nominal group is that primary class of the unit group which operates at S and O in clause-structure.[1] Morphologically, it is a grouping of members of the unit next below, that is, of words.

4.11. Primary elements of Structure:

The primary elements of structure of the nominal group are m (modifier), h (head), q (qualifier), e* (emphasizor). These elements are expounded by different primary classes of Word. h is obligatory; it is present in every nominal group; m, q, e* are optional: they may or may not be present. m and q are defined by position relative to h; m precedes h and q follows it.

4.12. Conflated primary structure:

The primary structure may now be generalized formulaically:-

$$(m.....^{n})\ h\ (q.....^{n})\ (e)^{*}$$

Parentheses indicate that an element may or may not be present. The arrow shows sequence. e* is outside the arrow, that means, it is not sequence-determined. $m.....^{n}$ and $q.....^{n}$ mean that theoretically we can have any number of modifiers and qualifiers.

4.121. Primary structure of the Nominal gp. and primary word-classes in relation.

At different places in the primary structure of the nominal group operate different primary classes of the unit: Word. At this primary degree of delicacy we can say that there are four places and four different elements. The exponential relation between these different elements and the different primary

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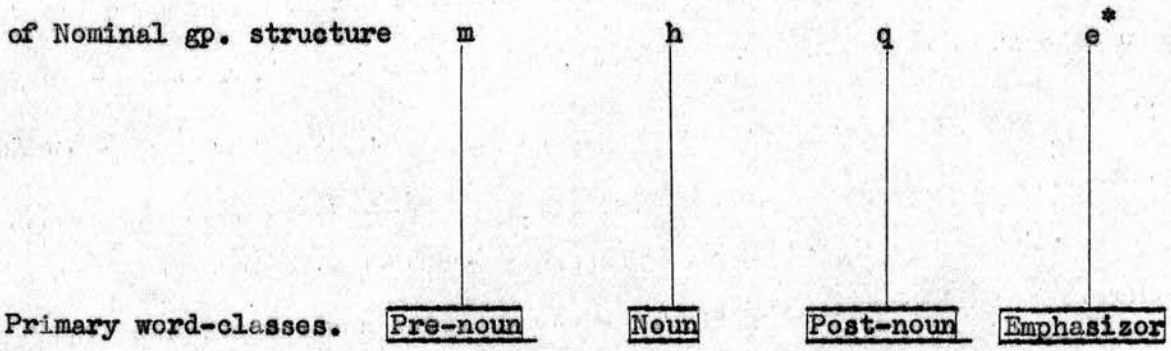
1. Note that the nominal group has also the potentiality of occurring at A and Z.

classes of the unit, Word may be represented in the following way:-



4.122. Possible combinations of primary elements:

Different combinations of primary elements give different primary structures. In this way we can have the following four primary structures (e^* will be considered later).

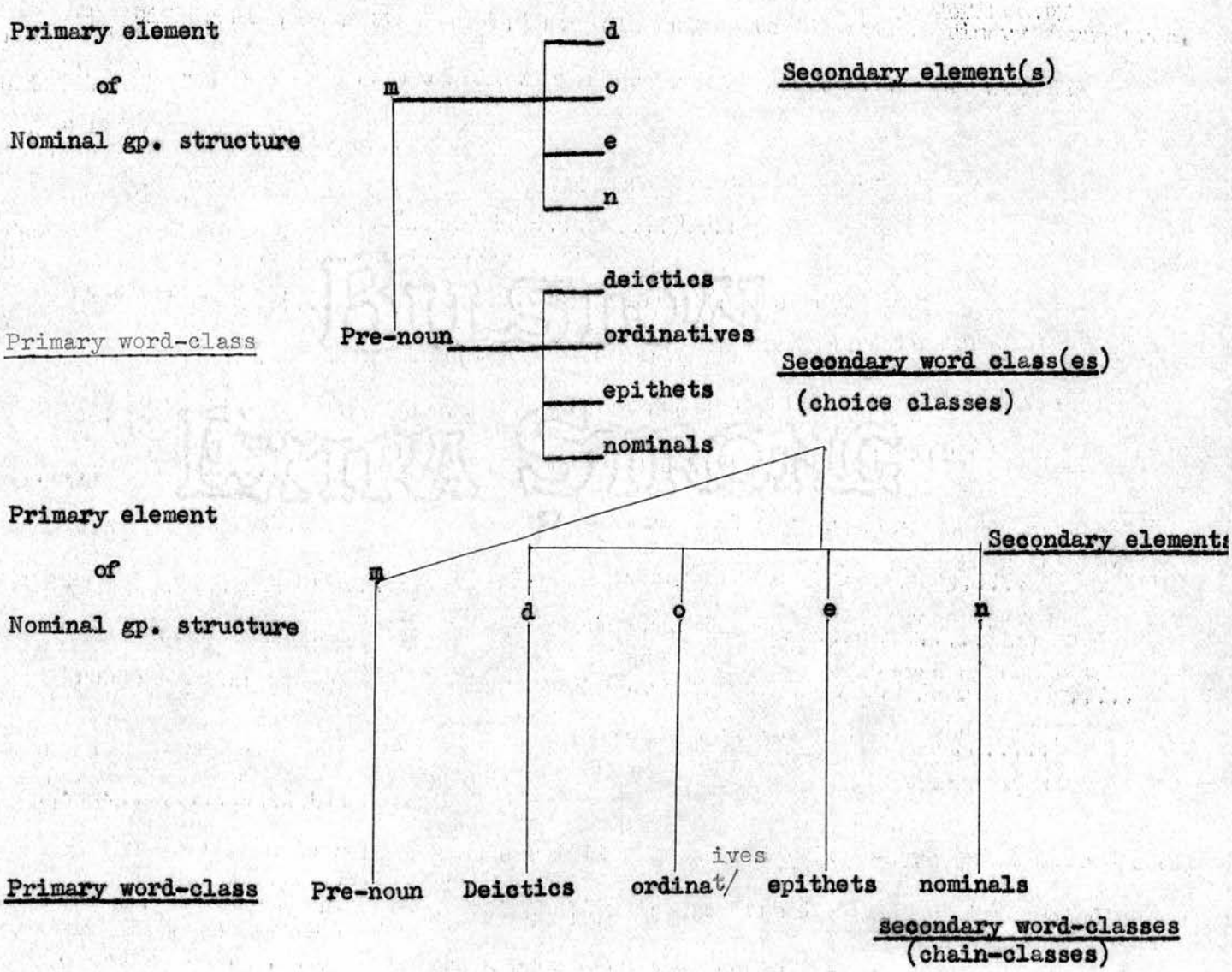
	Primary structures	Exponent
One element only:	h	h ləʈka (a/the boy)
		h aʃa (Asha)
two elements:	mh	m h əcche ləʈke (good boys)
		m h pəke am (ripe mangoes)
		m h mera bhai (my brother)
	hq	h q ramu jo pas hi rəhta həy.....
		(Ramu who lives nearby.....)
Three elements:	mhq	m h q mera ləʈka jo vydeʃ ja rəha həy.....
		(My son who is going abroad.....)

4.13. MODIFICATION:

Modification is a syntagmatic relation between the head-word and the pre-head word(s). It may be said that modification is the function of position preceding h. Contextually, the modifiers narrow down the meaning of h.

4.131. Secondary elements and secondary classes:

Each word before the head word is a modifier. By increase in delicacy, the primary class modifier is broken down into secondary classes of the same rank. These secondary classes may be chain classes or choice classes. If there is only one pre-head place, we may have a choice from among a number of secondary classes of modifiers.. If there are more than one pre-head places, we may have a co-occurrence of a number of secondary classes of modifiers. These two cases may be represented separately:-



4.132. Primary structure and secondary structure:

Now we may show how by an increasein delicacy the elements of the primary structure break down into secondary elements forming secondary structures:

		ye	do	Əcche	kayəsth	lərke
Class	Nominal of the Unit group	Primary structure: m	m	m	m	h
		(These two nice kayastha boys)				
		Secondary structure: d	o	e	n	h

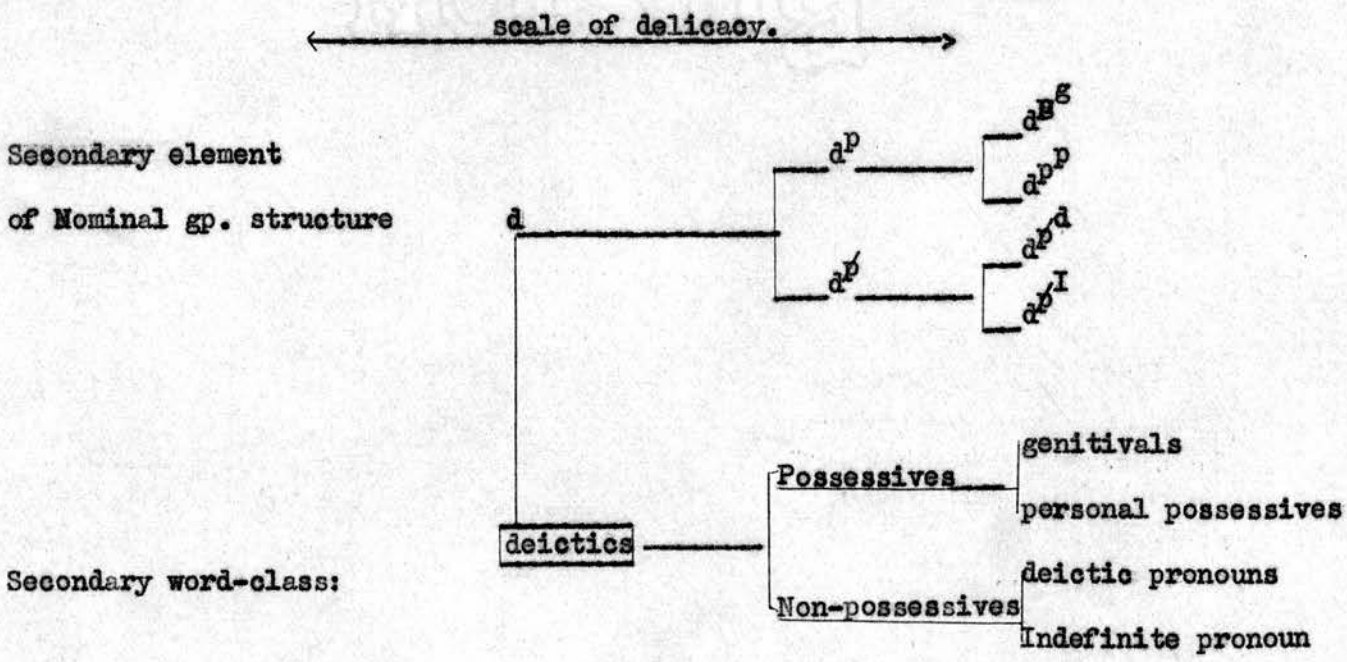
Normally deictics, ordinatives, epithets and nominals are in order doen.

4.133. DEIXIS:

Deictic is that secondary class of word which expounds the secondary element d in the structure of the nominal group. Normally, deictics precede ordinatives.

4.1331. Subdivisions of d:

Deictics may, more delicately, be broken into further secondary classes:-



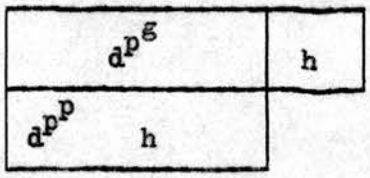
The distinction between the possessives and the non-possessives is that the latter may but the former may not be suffixed by ne or ko.

4.1332. The Genitivals:

The genitivals and the personal possessives belong to two different classes. Firstly, the exponent of d^{p^g} are different from the exponents of d^{p^p}. Secondly, they are mutually exclusive terms in the system of possessives, that means d^{p^p} and d^{p^g} cannot co-occur in one and the same nominal group. Thirdly, the genitivals are always either rank-shifted nominal groups or rank-shifted clause, i.e. they are nominal groups or clause operating within some other nominal group.

ws ləʈke ki pwstək

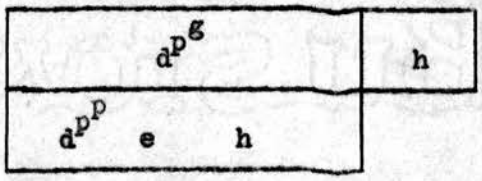
R/S Nominal gp.[1]



The structure of the whole group is $\underline{d^{p^g}\ h}$; but the exponent of d^{p^g} is also a nominal group (structure: d^{p^p} h). We may therefore say that here we have a rank-shifted nominal group operating at d^{p^g}.

mere bəʈe bhai ka ləʈka (my elder brother's son)

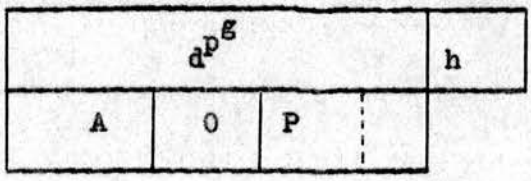
R/S Nominal gp.



Here again we have a rank-shifted nominal group at d^{p^g} in the structure of the larger nominal group.

ys tərəh kam kərne ki adət (The habit of working like this).

R/S clause.



Here we have a rank-shifted clause operating in word structure. We may say that

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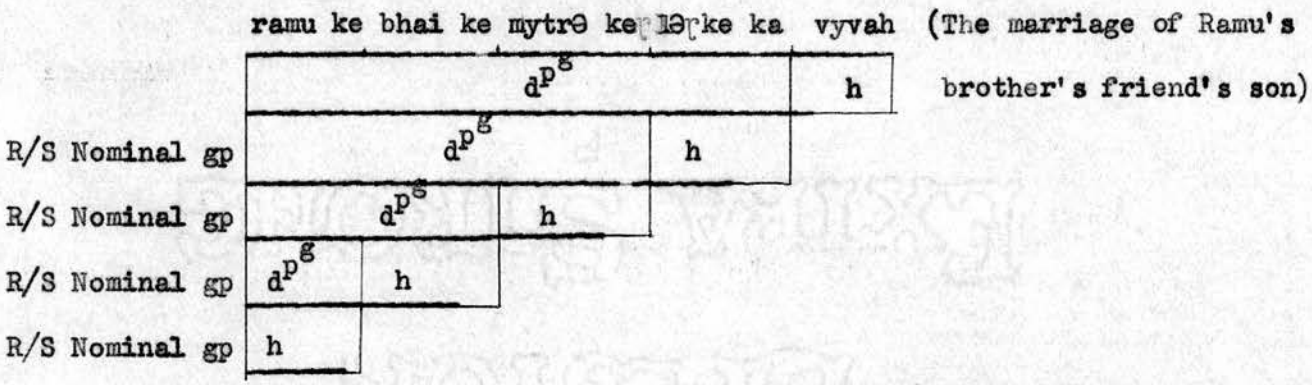
1. R/S = rank-shifted.

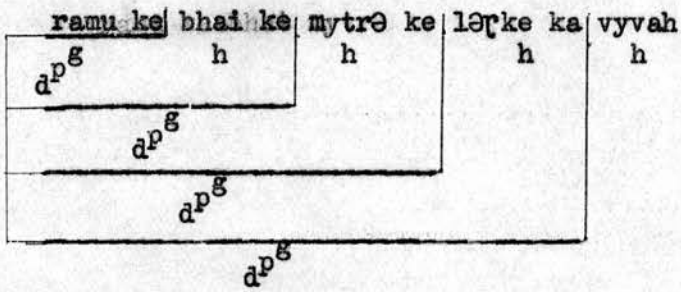
the structure of the word class: genitival is made up of a free morpheme plus a bound morpheme. The exponent of bound morpheme is ki.; but in place of a free morpheme, we have a rank-shifted clause (structure: AOP).

4.13321. Complex Genitivals:

We may get a complex of genitivals - one inside the other showing layers of rank-shift or rank-shift in 'depth'.



It may be said that here we have a "depth " of four[1]. The following diagram gives a better picture of the complex layerings:-



One of the characteristic features of this kind of structure is that an element of structure is repeated "in depth". Here we have only two elements: 'head' and 'genitival'. They have been repeated in depth, that is, we find four layers of $d^{p}{}^{g}$ h structure. Dr. Halliday has discussed this problem in his paper

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1. Victor H. Yngve: The Depth Hypothesis (pp 130-138)
(Proceedings of the Symposia in Applied Mathematics Vol. XII; 1961)

on "class in relation to the axes of chain and choice in language". We quote: "Language also exhibits a different kind of structure, the "recursive" structure. Here, as the name implies, an element of structure, or a combination of elements, is repeated in "depth", a series of such elements (or combinations) thus forming a progression".[1]

4.1333. The Personal Possessives:

The personal possessive pronouns are of two types:-

(a) Simple: e.g. mera (my/mine), wska (his/her).....

(b) Reduplicated: e.g. həmari-twmhari cizẽ (our-your things).....

The personal possessive pronouns may be shown in the form of the following matrix which is a result of the interesting systems of number, person, gender and case.

		SINGULAR				PLURAL			
		MASCULINE		FEMININE		MASCULINE		FEMININE	
		DIRECT	OBLIQUE	DIRECT	OBLIQUE	DIRECT	OBLIQUE	DIRECT	OBLIQUE
FIRST		mera (my)	mere (my)	meri	meri (my)	həmara (our)	həmare (our)		həmari (our)
SECOND		tera (your)	tere (your)		teri (your)				
		twmhara (your)	twmhare (your)		twmhari (your)	twmhara (your)	twmhare (your)		twmhari (your)
		apka (your)	apke (your)		apki (your)	apka (your)	apke (your)		apki (your)
THIRD		wska (His/her)	wske (His/her)		wski (His/her)	wnka (their)	wnke (their)		wnki (their)
		yska (His/her)	yske (His/her)		yski (His/her)	ynka (their)	ynke (their)		ynki (their)

Note: əpna-apni (own) do not belong here; they can take personal possessives and pattern like other epithets:

Ex: mera əpna bhai (my own/full brother).

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1. M.A.K. Halliday: Class in relation to the axes of chain and choice in the Language. ("Linguistics"; No. 2, Dec. 1963 p 11.)

4.1334. The Deictic Pronouns:

The deictic pronouns and the Indefinite pronouns are subdivisions of the non-possessives. They are different in a number of ways. Firstly, the exponents of d^{p^d} are different from the exponents of d^{p^I}. Secondly, they are mutually exclusive terms in the system of the non-possessives. Thirdly, Indefinite pronouns are indeclinables; they do not inflect for number, gender or person. They do not enter into any concordial relation with h. Deictic pronouns, on the other hand, participate in number-concord with h.

The deictic pronouns are of two types:-

i) Simple: yəh (this)
vəh (that)
ye (these)
ve (those)
ys (this)
ws (that)

yn (those)
wn (those)

yəhi (this boy)
vəhi (that boy)

ysi (this very)
wsi (that very)

ynhĩ (these very)
wnhd̃ (those very)

ii) Reduplicated or re-iterative:

yəh - vəh (this - that)

ye - ve (these - those)

yn - wn (these - those) oblique

4.1335. The Indefinite Pronouns:

The Indefinite pronouns again are of two types:-

i) Simple:

koi (some one, any one)

kwch (some)

kəi (several)

kysi (some one) - oblique form.

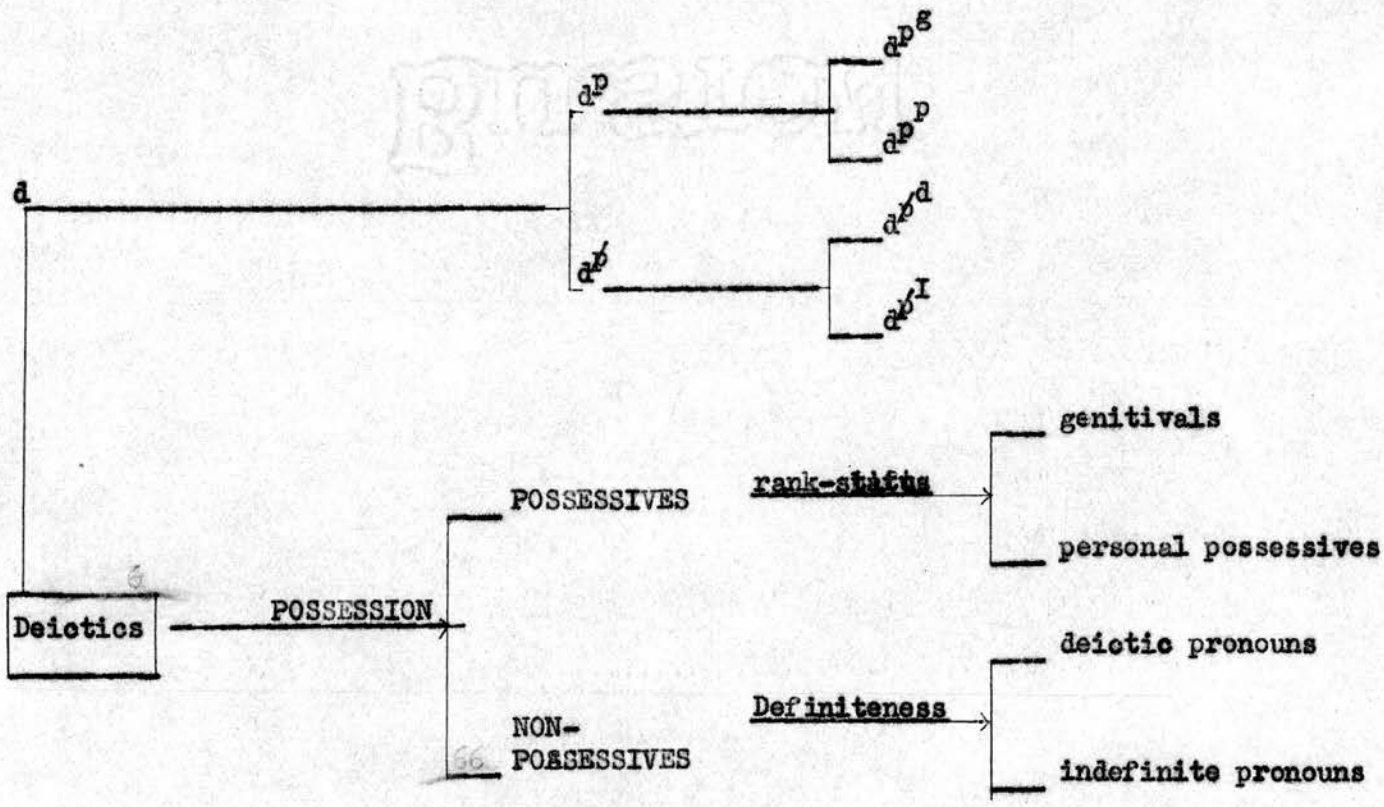
ii) Reduplicated or re-iterative:

koi koi (some)

kwoh kwoh (a little / some what)

4.1336. Systems at d:

At d we have primarly the system of possession which has two terms - possessives and non-ppssessives. Within possessives, we have a choice between genitivals and personal possessives. We may call this the system of rank-status because one of the terms (i.e. the genitivals) is marked by rank-shift. Within the non-possessives we have a choice between deictic pronouns and indefinite pronouns. We may call this the system of definiteness. It is marked by inflection (presence or absence).



(Note: A word must be added here about the genitival postpositions ka, ke, ki).

Genitival postpositions are different from other postpositive particles like ne, ko..... Postpositive particles are indeclinables whereas genitival postpositions are declinables; they agree with the following word in number and gender. Another important question is: do the genitivals show word-inflection or group-inflection? When we say mere lərke ki cytthi" (my son's letter), does the genitival postposition refer to the word lərke or to the nominal group mere lərke? If we say that it applies to the word lərke, we cannot explain the relation of modification between the nominal groups on either side of the genitival postposition. It is true that the genitival postposition is a bound morpheme and it enters into the structure of word; but the fact remains that in such cases we have always either a nominal group or a dependent clause rank-shifted to that position (i.e. h). So we may say that the genitival postposition refers to the whole group or clause operating at h. The picture is something like -

N ka N (Here N stands for nominal group)
ke
ki

The genitivals in Hindi are, more or less, like the English genitives. The following extract from Bazell's "Syntactic Relations and Linguistic Typology" could be said to be true of the Hindi genitivals as well:- "This is the group inflection , of which the standard example is the English Genitive (e.g. The King of France's daughter). Here the position of the inflection is not fixed in relation to a word-class, but in relation to a group: the English genitival suffix is always final in the group".[1])

4.13361. Systems of number, person gender and case at d^p:

Intersecting systems of number, person, gender, and case operate at d^p. The

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1., C.E. Bazell: Syntactic Relations and Linguistic Typologies.
(Cashiers Ferdinand de Saussure 8, 1949; p 14)

exponent of these systems is concordial relation with the head word. (see 4.1333. Note that the system of person does not operate at d^{p^g})

4.13362. Systems of number and case at $d^{p'}$:

Intersecting systems of number and case operate at $d^{p'}$. The exponent of these systems is concordial relation with the head-word.

	Singular	Plural
Direct	yəh (this) vəh (that)	ye (these) ve (those) .....
Oblique	ys (this) ws (that)	yn (these) wn (those) .....

4.13363. Co-occurrence of different secondary classes of deictic:

Normally the secondary classes of deictic co-occur in the following order:-

d^{p^g} $d^{p'^d}$ mira ki yəh ədət (Mira's this habit i.e. this habit of Mira's)

d^{p^g} $d^{p'^I}$ mira ki koi adət (Mira's any habit i.e. any habit of Mira's)

d^{p^p} $d^{p'^d}$ twmhari yəh adət (Your this habit i.e. this habit of yours)

d^{p^p} $d^{p'^I}$ twmhari koi adət (your any habit i.e. any habit of yours)

4.14. The Ordinatives:

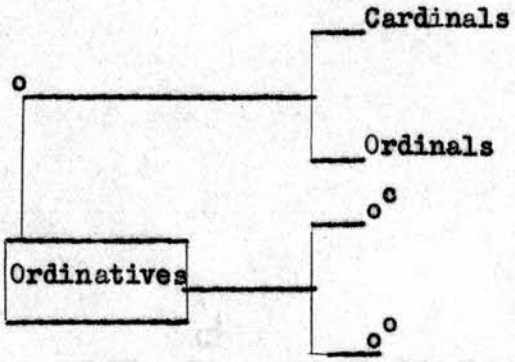
The Ordinatives is that secondary class of modifier which expounds the secondary element o in the structure of the nominal group. One means of differentiating ordinatives from deictics is the fact that we can put an emphatic particle or emphasizer between the deictic and the ordinative.

Ex: mere do bəcce (My two children)

d e* o h
mere hi do bəcce

4.141. Further secondary classes of the Ordinative:

Ordinative may be subdivided more delicately into two secondary classes:-



When there is only one occurrence of o, we have a choice between the cardinals and the ordinals; when we have more than one occurrence of o, we may have cardinals and ordinals in chain relation.

4.142. The Cardinals:

The cardinals are that secondary class of ordinatives which do not enter into gender-concord with any word. Further, they do not inflect for case. The cardinals are of three types:

(a) Simple: ek (one)
do (two)
tin (three)
car (four)
pãc (five)
chəh (six)
sat (seven)
aṭh (eight)
nəw (nine)
dəs (ten)
gyarəh (eleven)
barəh (twelve)

terəh	(thirteen)
cəwdəh	(fourteen)
pəndrəh	(fifteen)
soləh	(sixteen)
sətrəh	(seventeen)
əʈʈharəh	(eighteen)
wnnis	(nineteen)
bis	(twenty)

.....

.....1.....

ek ləʔka	do ləʔke
(one boy)	(two boys)
ek ləʔki	do ləʔkyyã
(one girl)	(two girls)

These examples show that the cardinals do not inflect for number or gender.

(b) Aggregatives:

donõ	(both)
tinõ	(all the three)
carõ	(all the four)
pãcõ	(all the five)

.....

The exponent of 'aggregation' here is addition of õ to the cardinal.

If the cardinal ends with a consonant, simply õ is added to it:-

car	(four)	Simple Cardinal
carõ (car + õ)	(all the four)	Aggregative

If the cardinal ends with a vowel, a nasal consonant plus õ is added to it:-

do	(two)	Simple Cardinal

donõ (both)

(do + n + õ) Aggregative

The aggregatives, like the simple cardinals, do not enter into any concordial relation with h.

(c) Reduplicated or reiterative type:

do-do do-do ləɽkõ ko jane do. (Let two boys go at a time)
(or Let the boys go in twos)

ek-ek ek-ek ləɽke ko do-do am do. (Give two mangoes to each boy).

.....

do-ek (one or two i.e. a few)

dəs-barəh (about ten or twelve).

.....

More examples:-

do pyale dudh	(two cups of milk)
dəs-barəh admi	(ten or twelve men)
ek gylas pani	(a glass of water)
do gəz kəpɽa	(two yards of cloth)
tin mən cavəl	(three maunds of rice)
car ser ghi	(four seers of ghee(clarified butter))

.....

4.143. The Ordinals:

The ordinals are that secondary class of the ordinatives which participate in concordial relation (number and gender) with h.

gender-concord	Masc:	o pəhla	h ləɽka	(the first boy)
	Fem:	o pəhli	h ləɽki	(the first girl)

number-concord

Sing:	pəhla	ləʈka (the first boy)
Plur:	pəhle	ləʈke (the first boys)

case-concord

Direct:	tisra	ləʈka kəhta həy.... (The third boy says....)
Oblique:	tisre	ləʈke ne kəha həy..... (The third boy has said...)

4.1431. Systems of number, gender and case at o°:

Interlocking systems of number, gender and case operate at o°. They may be shown in a tabular form:-

	SINGULAR	PLURAL
Masculine	pəhla (first): (pəhla ləʈka) (first boy)	pəhle (first) (pəhle ləʈke) (first boys)
Feminine	pəhli (first)	(pəhli ləʈki/ləʈkyyã) (first girl/girls)
Masculine	pəhle (first)	(pəhle ləʈke/ləʈkõ ne) (The first boy/boys)
Feminine	pəhli (first)	(pəhli ləʈki/ləʈkyyõ ne) (The first girl/girls)

4.1432:

The ordinals are of three different types:-

(a) Simple: pəhla (first)
dusra (second)
tisra (third)
cəwtha (fourth)
.....

(b) Reduplicated or reiterative types:

pəhla pəhla admi 'the very first man'.

pəhla dusra 'first second'.

hər tisre - cəwthe dyn 'every third or fourth day'.

.....

(c) The Fractional and the Multiplicative Type:

adha (half)

cəwthai (one fourth)

ykəhra (single)

dohra (double or two-fold)

tygwna (triple/three times/three-fold)

.....

adha am (half the mango)

Gender-Concord

adhi roṭi (half the bread)

4.144. Co-occurrence of secondary classes of Ordinatives:

There is no fixed sequence here. We can have o^c o^o or o^o o^c.

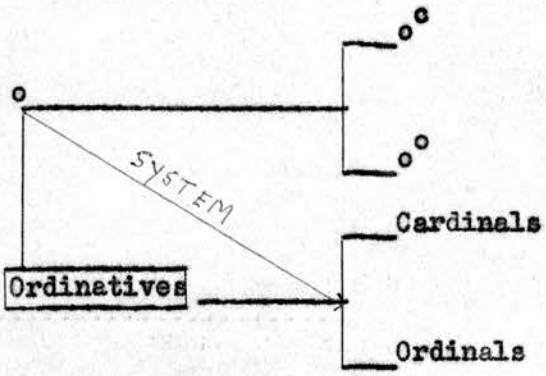
o^c o^o do pəhle ləṛke ((the) two first boys)

o^o o^c pəhle do ləṛke ((the) first two boys)

There is, however, one restriction. The fractionals and the Multiplicatives may not be followed by o^c.

4.145. System at o:

When we have only one occurrence of o, we have a choice between the cardinals and the ordinals. We can set up a system of concord to account for this choice. The Cardinals do not participate in concordial relation with h but the ordinals do.



(Note: The system set up at o is marked by presence or absence of concordial relation with h.)

One of the distinguishing features of the Ordinatives is that they modify all the elements that follow them (taken as a whole):-

do nəv-nyrmyt bhəvən (two newly-constructed buildings)

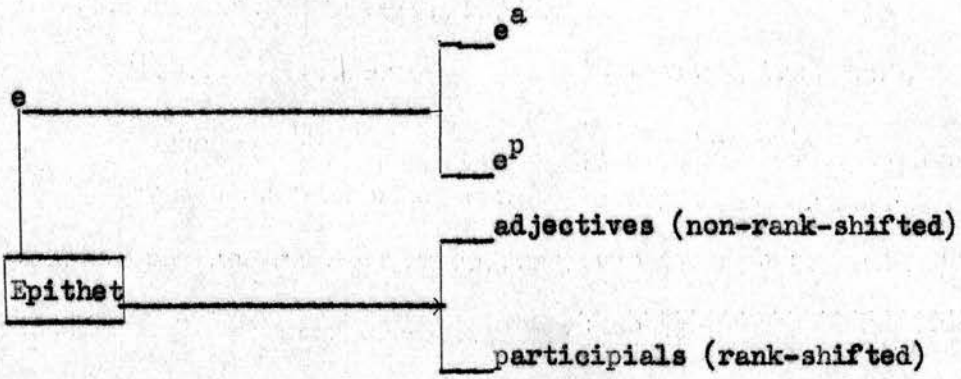
4.15. EPITHETS:

Epithet is that secondary class of modifier which expounds the secondary element e in the structure of the nominal group. One of the main distinctions between deictics and ordinatives on the one hand, and epithets and nominals on the other is that the latter classes allow of class-recurrence; that is, theoretically any number of insertions may be made in the positions e and n. Another distinction is that bound morphemes like sa, sərikha may be suffixed to exponents of e and n but not to those of d and o. Further, exponents of deictics are closed-system items but the exponents of epithets are open-set items.

ek	swndər,	swʃil,	kwʃəl,	kayəsth	ləʈki	(a beautiful, gentle, skilled
o	e	e	e	n	h	kayastha girl).
ek	bəhwt	choʈa-sa	ləʈka			(a rather smallish boy/a very
o	s/m	e	h			small boy)

4.151. Secondary classes of Epithets:

By increase in delicacy epithets break down into further secondary classes:-



4.152. The adjective:

The adjective is a subdivision of epithet. It has the following defining characteristics:-

(a) It is non-rank-shifted.

(b) It participates in number-gender concord with the 'head'.

(c) It may be preceded by sub-modifiers.

Adjectives may be grouped into the following types:-

i) Simple:

əccha	ləʈka	'(a) good boy'
əcchi	ləʈki	'(a) good girl'
əcche	ləʈke	'good boys'
kali	bylli	'(a) black cat'
lal	ʈopi	'(a) red cap'
lal	saʈi	'(a) red sari'
bwra	admi	'(a) bad man'

ii) Sa-type: sa, sərikha, mamək, rupi, bhər, jənyt, rəhyt - these bound morphemes may be added to exponents of e^a.

ləmbi-si	cyʈʈhi	'(a) longish letter'
gay-si sidhi	ləʈki	'(a) girl, gentle like a cow'.
rəvy-namək	ləʈka	'(a) boy named Ravi'.
vasna rəhyt	prem	'lust-free love'.
prem-jənyt	wnmad	'love-born passion' or 'passion excited by love'.

iii) Reduplicated or reiterative type:

swndər	swndər	ləɽkyyã̃	(very pretty girls).
ʈhə̃ndi	ʈhə̃ndi	həva	(a nice cool breeze).
bəɽe	bəɽe	peɽ	(many big trees).

4.1521. The Sub-modifiers:

Adjectives may be preceded by sub-modifiers, but there may be different degrees of sub-modification.

e	h	
əccha	ləɽka	'(a) good boy'.
s/m	e	h
bəhwt	əccha	ləɽka '(a) very good boy'.

Sub-modifiers belong/belonging to this class are:-

əty	
ətyə̃t	
ətiv	'very' or 'much'
ədhyk	
zyada	
bəhwt	
ətyədhyk	'very much'.
kəm	'less'
kevəl	
syrf	

These submodifiers may be preceded by other submodifiers:-

(a) ytna (this much)

wtna (that much/so much)

ytna ədhyk ũca məkan 'so very high a building'.

4.15211. (b) Comparatives and superlatives:

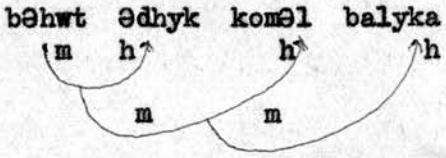
Comparatives and superlatives are adverbial group(s) rank-shifted to operate as sub-modifier or modifier of an adjective (which in its turn might be operating

as exponent of 'head' in a nominal group).

	s/m	e	h	
	mohən	se	choʈa	ləʈka ((the) boy younger than Mohan)
R/s	Adv. gp.			

	s/m	s/m	e	h	
	phulse	ədhyk	komәl	balyka	((a) girl more delicate than (a) flower)
R/s	Adv. gp.				

bəhwt ədhyk komәl balyka (a very delicate girl).



Here 'bəhwt' modifies 'ədhyk', 'bəhwt ədhyk' modifies 'komәl', and 'bəhwt ədhyk komәl' modifies 'balyka'. It is interesting to note that each item is a head to all the preceding items and a modifier to the item immediately following it. It may be said that the relation between the pre-head elements here is not a simple place-ordered relation rather it is a relation "in depth".[1] Each item is repeated "in depth".

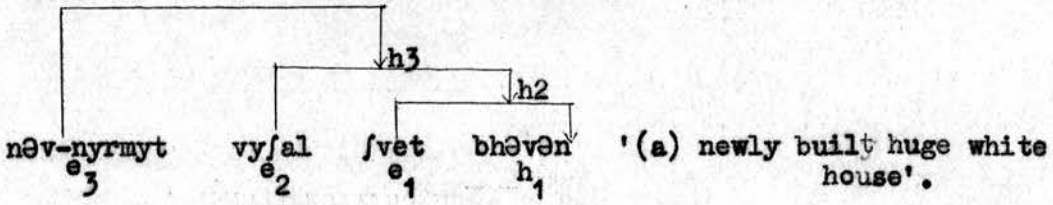
Other types are those where we have a number of adjectives either each individually modifying the head or all of them forming, what Yngve calls, "an accumulative non-coordinated pattern of modification".

i) relation of co-ordination:

swndər, swʃil, kwʃəl ləʈki ((a) beautiful, gentle, skilled girl).

We may look upon this as a case of complex e. The items bear the same relation to the head, and their positions are interchangeable.

ii) Accumulative non-coordinated pattern of modification:



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1. For 'depth' analysis, see (a) Dr. M.A.K. Halliday's: "Class in relation to the axes of chain and choice in Language". (Linguistics; No. 2, Dec., 1963.)
(b) Victor H. Yngve's: "A Model and An Hypothesis for Language Structure". (Proceedings of the American Philosophical Society vol. 104.) No. 5; 1960.

There is a relation of subordination between e and h; this relation is complex for it is a relation 'in depth'. Each item is subordinate to all that follows. What Nelson Francis has said about patterns of noun-modifiers in American English seems, to a great extent, to be true of the relation of modification in the nominal group structure in Hindi. To quote Nelson Francis: "When a structure of modification with a noun as head includes several modifiers of different sorts, the result is often quite a complex affair. But it is organized along quite strict and precise lines. The most important fact about it is that unless it contains structures of co-ordination....., it consists not of a series of parallel modifiers like a four horse team pulling a chariot, but of a series of structures of modification one within the other, in a manner that has already been compared to Chinese boxes".[1]

4.153. The Participials:

The participial is a subdivision of the epithet. It has the following defining characteristics:-

(a) It is always a rank-shifted (dependent) clause operating at e.

(b) It participates in number-gender concord with the head.

(c) It may not be sub-modified.

Examples:

	e		h	
asman mẽ	wʈ'ta hwa		pəkchi	"in-the-sky-flying bird"
A	P			
R/s	Dependent clause.			

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1. Nelson Francis: The Structure of American English: 1958: p311.

	e		h	
am	khata	hwa	ləɽka	"mango-eating boy".
O	P			

R/s Dependent clause.

e	h	
bəhta	pani	"flowing water".
P		

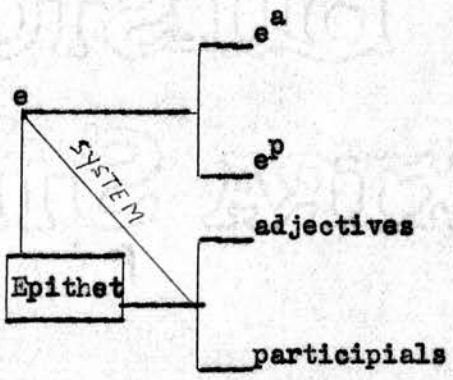
R/s Dependent clause.

e	h	
cəhti	gaɽi	"(a) running/moving train"
P		

R/s Dependent clause

4.154. Systems at c:

When we have only one occurrence of e, we have a choice between 'adjectives' and 'participials' - to be more current between an adjective and a rank-shifted clause.



This system (which we have set up to account for our choice between adjectives and participials) is marked by presence or absence of rank-shift.

4.1541. Systems of number, gender and case:

Interlocking systems of number, gender and case operate at e. They may be shown in a tabular form:-

Case ↓	Number / gender →	SINGULAR	PLURAL
Direct	Masculine	əccha ləɽka ((a) good boy)	əcche ləɽke (good boys)
	Feminine	əcchi ləɽki ((a) good girl)	əcchi ləɽkyyã (good girls)
Oblique	Masculine	əcche ləɽke ne ((a) good boy)	əcche ləɽkõ ne (good boys)
	Feminine	əcchi ləɽki ne ((a) good girl)	əcchi ləɽkyyo ne (good girls)

4.155. Co-occurrence of secondary classes of epithets:

Where we have more than one occurrence of e, adjectives may follow the participials.

asmaa mẽ$^{e^P}$ wɽta hwa$^{e^a}$ nila pəkchi^{h} (in-the-sky-flying blue bird)
A P

R/s Dependent clause.

am^{0} khata$^{e^P}$ hwa gə̃nda$^{e^a}$ ləɽka^{h} (mango-eating dirty boy)
P

R/s Dependent clause.

4.16. The pre-head nominal:

The pre-head nominal is that secondary class of modifier which expounds the secondary element n in the structure of the nominal group. There pre-head nominals are different from pre-head adjectives. We can insert a sub-modifier

like bəhwt, ədhyk, kəm, kevəl..... before an adjective but we cannot do so in the case of a nominal. We can say bəhwt əcchi sərkar (very good government) but we cannot say *bəhwt kãgres sərkar (very congress government). Another distinction is that adjectives, but not the nominals, can be reduplicated or reiterated. We can say -

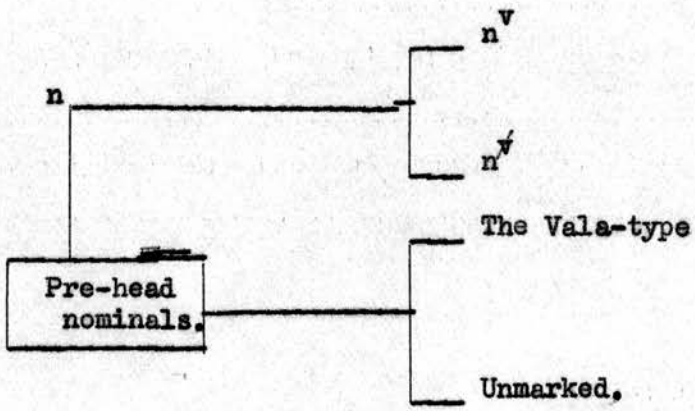
əcchi əcchi məʃinẽ (good good machines, that is, pretty good machines)

but not *uʃa uʃa məʃinẽ (USHA USHA machines)

All pre-head nominals can operate as 'head' in nominal groups at S or O, and take postpositive particles like -ne, -ko, but not all epithets can do so. Positionally, epithets always precede nominals. Another important distinction is that an epithet (when operating as 'head' in a nominal group) may not co-occur with certain personal possessives whereas a nominal may. For example: we cannot say: mera əccha (my good) but we may say: meri aʃa (my Asha).

4.161. Secondary classes of the prehead nominals:

The pre-head nominals seem to break down, more delicately, into two secondary classes: the vala-type and the unmarked. The vala-type nominals are always rank-shifted clauses.



4.162. The Vala type:

The Vala-type is a subdivision of the pre-head nominal. It has the following

characteristics:-

(a) It is suffixed to a nominal, but in place of the nominal, we may have a rank-shifted dependent clause.

(b) It participates in number-gender concord with the 'head'.

n h
kəpɽa becnevala admi (cloth-selling man)

O P
R/s Dependent clause

n
kəpɽa - becnevali əwrət. (cloth-selling woman)

O P
R/s Dependent clause

Here we have two examples of a dependent clause operating in the structure of a word whose other component is vala/vali.

n h
admi khane vala ʃer (man-eating tiger)

O P
R/s Dependent clause

This vala-type pre-head nominal is made up of two morphemes - a free morpheme plus vala/vali/vale (which is a bound morpheme). It is at the place of the free morpheme that we have a rank-shifted dependent clause. It can safely be said that whenever we have an INFINITIVE + Vala, we have a rank-shifted clause operating in the structure of a word.

n h
ane vala admi ((the) coming man)
P
R/s Dependent clause

We can expand it into:-

n
prəkaʃ mẽ ane vala admi ((The) man coming into light)
A P

R/s Dependent clause

To make this point clear we would look at word-structure. The vala-type, as we have already said, is a subdivision of the class of word: nominal operating at n in nominal group structure. The structure of this word-class may be represented in terms of two primary elements: F and B. F and B are expounded respectively by the primary classes 'free' and 'bound' of the unit morpheme. The exponent of B in this case is vala (which is a bound morpheme and cannot stand on its own; a bound morpheme, by definition, cannot form the simple structure of a word). The exponent of F is the class 'free' of the unit morpheme, but here we have a dependent infinitival clause in place of a free morpheme. We know from its morphology that it is a clause; its structure is made up of permissible combinations of O, A andP. The exponent of P in this case is an Infinitive (verbal) group. We are, therefore, justified in saying that in the case of the vala-type nominal, we have a rank-shifted clause operating at F in word-structure.

In traditional grammars this vala-type is known as "the noun of agency". "The Noun of Agency holds a middle position between the verb and the noun, and partakes of the force of both, following the government either of the verb or noun, or of both. If it be derived from a directly transitive verb and have the meaning of the Present or Future, it may take an objective complement in the Genitive or the Accusative; but if it have the meaning of the Rerfect, it approaches more nearly to the character of the noun, and is therefore construed with the Genitive alone..... It is also commonly used as the predicate of a preceding subject to express a proximate future".[1]

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1. John T. Platts; A Grammar of the Hindustani or Urdu Language: pp. 329-330, (London 1898).

4.1621: Systems of number, gender, and case at n^V:

		SINGULAR	PLURAL
DIRECT	Masculine	anevala ləʈka ((the) coming boy)	anevale ləʈke ((the) coming boys
	Feminine	anevali ləʈki ((the) coming girl)	anevali ləʈkyyã ((the) coming girls)
OBLIQUE	Masculine	anevale ləʈkene ((the) coming boy)	anevale ləʈkõne ((the) coming boys)
	Feminine	anevali ləʈkine ((the coming girl)	anevali ləʈkyyõne ((the) coming girls)

4.1622:

There is yet another variety of the vala-type where the structure of the word is Nominal group + vala, that is, we have a rank-shifted nominal group operating in place of a free morpheme.

am vala admi ((the) man selling mangoes or the man with mangoes)

It may be expanded into:-

n h
pəke am vala admi ((the) man with ripe mangoes)
m h
R/s Nominal gp.

n h
kəlkətte vali gaʈi ((the) train to/for Calcutta)
R /s Nominal gp.

In the first example listed above, 'pəke am' is exponent of a nominal group, but it is rank-shifted to operate in place of a free morpheme in word structure.

4.163. Simple nominals at n.

These simple pre-head nominals are names of nations, nationalities, trade, race, caste, communities etc. They do not participate in concordial relation with the head word.

bhumyhar ləʈka ((a) bhumihar boy)

ʃəkty sylk (Shakti silk)

uʃa məʃin (USHA machine)

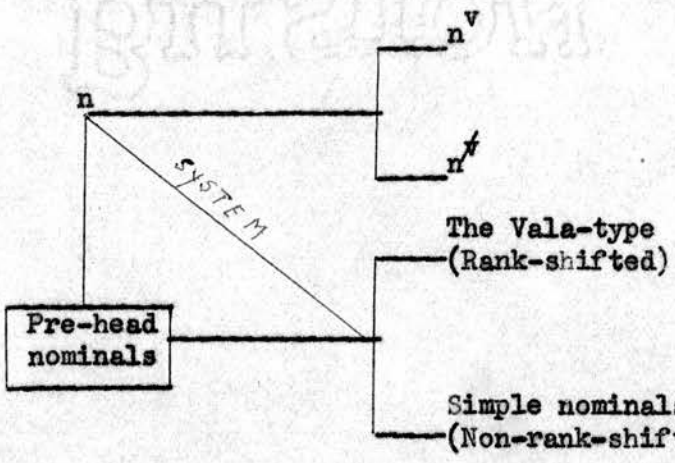
nim sabwn (Neem soap)

Some of these pre-head nominals (especially the measure nouns operating at n) are usually preceded by ordinatives:-

o	n	h	
do	gəz	kəpɽa	(two yards of cloth)
o	n	h	
tin	mən	cavəl	(three maunds of rice)
o	n	h	
do	pyale	cay	(two cups of tea)
o	n	h	
ek	gylas	pani	(a glass of water)

4.164. System at n:

When there is only one occurrence of n, we have a choice between the vala-type and the simple nominals. We can set up a system of rank-status to account for this choice:-



This system is marked by the presence or absence of (i) rank-shift and (ii) concordial relation with the head-word.

4.165. Co-occurrence of secondary classes of nominals:

Where we have more than one occurrence of the nominals, the simple nominals follow the vala-type.

	n^v		$n^{\not}$	h
pwrəʂkar	panevali		kayəsth	ləɽki
0	P			

R/s Dependent clause.

4.17. MODIFICATION:

There are different kinds of relations within the general pattern of modification.

(a) We may have a string of modifiers all ultimately modifying the same head:-

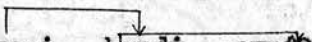
phəʈi pwrani kytabẽ (torn old books)

Here 'kytabẽ' is head; 'phəʈi/pwrani', each modify the head. The two e s are co-ordinate and represent the same 'depth' of modification. Their order may be reversed, or they may be joined by a linker. That is, we can say -

pwrani phəʈi kytabẽ (old torn books)

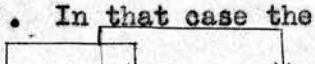
or pwrani əwr phəʈi kytabẽ (old and torn books)

(b) We may have two (or more) layers of modification, one within the other.

I 

pwrani hyndi pwstəkẽ (old Hindi books)

Here 'hyndi' is a modifier to pwstəkẽ and 'pwrani' is a modifier to 'hyndi pwstəkẽ'. It is a rather ambiguous construction for it might also mean 'books on or about Old Hindi'. In that case the analysis would be:-

II 

pwrani hyndi pwstəkẽ

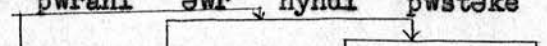
'pwrani' modifies 'hyndi' and 'pwrani hyndi' modifies 'pwstəkẽ'.

A remarkable feature of (b) I is that the order of the modifiers cannot be reversed. We cannot say -

* hyndi pwrani pwstəkẽ

Another distinguishing feature is that we cannot put any linkers between these modifiers. We cannot say:

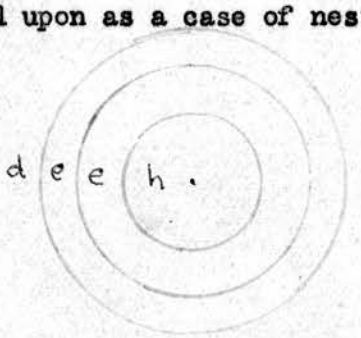
* pwrani əwr hyndi pwstəkẽ (old and Hindi books)

(c) 

ye nəv-nyrmyt gəgəncwmbi ətʈalykaẽ (These newly-built sky-kissing buildings)

Here 'gəgəncwmbi' modifies 'ətʈalykaẽ', 'nəv-nyrmyt' modifies 'gəgəncwmbi

ə††alykaẽ' and 'ye' modifies 'nəv-nyrmyt gəgəncwmbi ə††alykaẽ. Here each successive modifier has as its head whatever precedes it, or, what Nelson Francis would have said, 'the whole previous structure of modification'.[1] The example quoted above may be looked upon as a case of nesting - one modifier nesting within the other.



4.2. The Qualifier:

The qualifier is expounded by that primary class of word which immediately follows the head. Qualifiers are different from modifiers in a number of ŧther ways:-

(a) Modifiers may but qualifiers may not be sub-modified.

(b) Qualifiers cannot take nominal postpositive particles like (ne, ko.....).

Infact, the postpositive particles distinguish the qualifier from the head-word for the qualifier is that word in nominal group structure which immediately follows the postpositive particle.

4.21. Secondary Classes of qualifier:

Qualifiers may be subdivided into: rank-shifted relative clause and refelxive pronoun.

4.211. The Relative Clause:

This is a sub-class of dependent clause which may operate at q in nominal group structure.

m h q
cytrəlekha ka / mwkh / jo / kwch kchəɳ pəhle / wllas se / cəmək rəha tha.....
S A A P

Relative clause operating in the structure of a nominal group.

(Chitralekha's face which, only a few moments ago, was gleaming/shining with joy)

---

1. W. Nelson Francis: The Structure of American English: p 358 (1958)

4.212. The Reflexives:

This is a class of the unit word which operates at q.

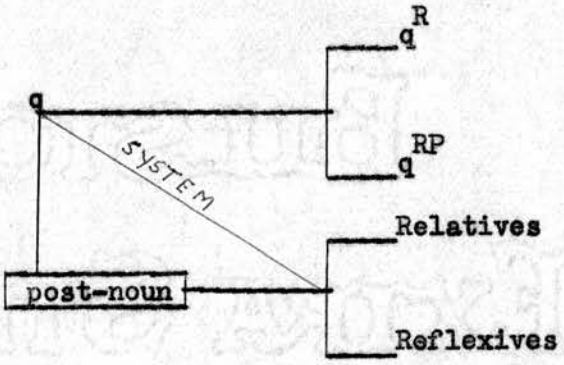
Example: m h q
ws ləʈke ne svəyəm (The boy himself)

Other reflexive pronouns operating at q are:-

ap (myself/himself/herself.....)
apneap (by...,,....,,....,,)
khwd (myself/himself/herself....)

4.22. System at q:

When there is only one occurrence of q, we have a choice between a rank-shifted clause and a reflexive pronoun.



This system is marked by the presence or absence of rank-shift.

(Note: Honorifics like ji, di, sahəb may be looked upon as components of the headward. Examples: pytaji, bymladi, masʈərsahəb. The reason for not considering them as qs is that qs come immediately after the postpositive particles (e.g. ramne svəyəm (Ram himself)) but the honorifics appear between the 'head' and the postpositive particles (e.g. pytaji ne). Infact, these honorifics are polite forms of address tagged on to the head word.)

4.23:

The following cases pose an interesting problem:

twm carõ ne (you four)
twm səbõ ne (you all)

həm tinõ ne (we three)

həm səbõ ne (we all)

.....

The problem is: what are we going to do about carõ, səbõ, tinõ ? Are they q to twm and həm ? In our description of the Hindi nominalgroup q is defined as a post-head element and is expounded by the class post-noun of the unit word. Positionally, it follows the postpositive particle. Here carõ, səbõ, tinõ precede the postpositive particle -ne, so they cannot be called exponents of q.

Another way of looking at the problem may be to consider twmcarõ, həmtinõ etc. as compound words. But again the fact that we can insert hi between twm and carõ or həm and tinõ proves that they are not compound words. Normally, we cannot insert an emphasizor between the components of a compound word.

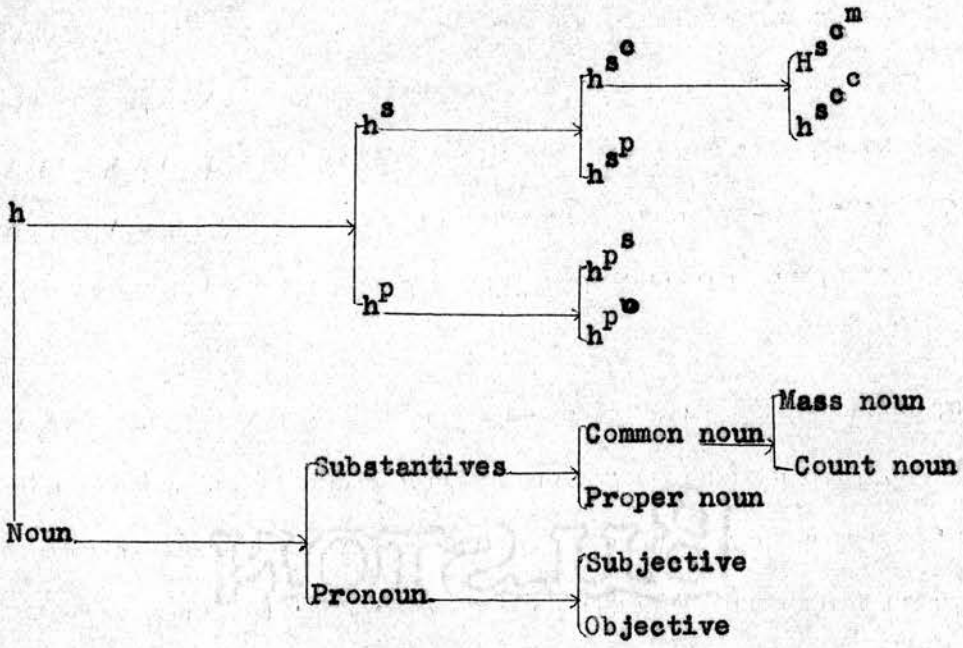
Our solution is to look upon twmcarõ, həmtinõ etc. etc. as cases of two head-words in apposition. When we have two words in appositive relation operating at h, the postpositive particle comes finally as in ramu lohar ne or raja dəsrəth ne. So we would say that carõ and tinõ are in apposition to twm and həm respectively.

4.3. The Head:

The 'head' is that primary element which has the potentiality of expounding the simple structure (i.e. one-element structure) of the nominal group. While modifiers and qualifiers are more often optional, the head is obligatory to the structure of the nominal group. In fact, modifiers and qualifiers tend to define or delimit the headword for we may say that the head is expounded by that class of the unit word which may be preceded by one or more modifiers and followed by one or more qualifiers. Another feature which pinpoints the headword is that the postpositive particle comes immediately after the headword without any other word coming in between. In fact the postpositive particle/(or the postposition) is a property of the head-word.

4.31. Secondary classes of the head-word.

The exponent of h is the primary class noun of the unit word (we may define the noun as that primary word class which operates as head of a nominal group). The primary class noun breaks more delicately into the following secondary classes:-



4.32. Primary System at h.

At h we have a choice between substantives and pronouns. We may set up a system to account for this choice. This system is marked by potentiality of modification (i.e. this choice is between a class which may and another which may not be modified). Substantives may be modified but pronouns may not be modified. Another point worth mentioning is that the substantive head is distinguished for entering into the system of gender and the pronoun head for entering into the system of person.

4.321. The Substantive.

The substantive is a secondary class of noun. It can operate as 'head' in nominal groups at S and O.

Substantives and pronouns have a very wide area of overlap and one might like to telescope them into one class. Certain formal characteristics of pronoun

however, frequently keep the overlap from being complete, requiring secondary classes substantive and pronouns. Firstly, not all pronouns can expound h in nominal groups at 0 in clause-structure. For example, we cannot have mɘ̃y (I) as exponent of a nominal group at 0. Secondly, substantives may but pronouns may never be modified. Thirdly, while the exponents of substantives are open-set items, those of pronouns form a closed system. Fourthly, the system of person is carried by the pronoun; it is not very relevant to the substantives.

4.3211. Subdivisions of the substantive:

The Substantive may be subdivided into two choice classes (common noun and proper specific noun) forming a secondary system. The difference between common nouns and proper nouns is that the former may but the latter may not be preceded by an indefinite pronoun. We can say kwch dudh (some milk) but in Hindi we cannot say kwch mɘhendrɘ (some Mahendra).

The common noun breaks into two choice classes: mass noun and count noun forming another secondary system. The count nouns may but the mass nouns may not co-occur with the cardinals. We can say ek kwrsi (one chair) but we cannot say ek dudh (one milk).

Examples: Mass Noun: dudh (milk), ʃɘkkɘr (sugar), bɘcpɘn (childhood).....

Count Noun: lɘʈka (a boy), kwtta (a dog), kwsri (a chair).....

Proper Noun: Asha, Cytra, Usha, Rɘvy, Shekhɘr, Mɘhendrɘ, Bimla,....

4.322. The pronoun:

The pronoun is a secondary class of noun. It differs from noun substantives in that it may never be modified.

We may subdivide the pronoun into the following three secondary classes:

(a) Personal pronoun

(b) Relative pronoun

(c) Interrogative pronoun

4.3221. The personal pronoun:

The personal pronoun is distinguished for carrying the system of person.

First person

Singular

direct məy/həm (I)

oblique mwjhe/mwjh + həmẽ/həm + (me)

Plural

direct həm (we)

oblique həmẽ/həm + (us)

Second person

Singular

direct tu/twm (you)/ap (Honorific form)

oblique twjhe/twjh + /twmhẽ/twm + (you)/apko (Honorific form)

plural

direct twm (you) /ap (Honorific form)

oblique twmhẽ/twmko/twmlogõ ko (you) / apko (Honorific form)

Third person

Singular

direct vəh (he/she)

oblique wse/ws + (him/her)

plural

direct ve (they)

oblique wnhẽ/wn + (them)

Note: + indicates presence of a postpositive particle.

4.3222. The relative pronoun:

The relative pronoun can operate in nominal groups in dependent relative clauses only. (In other words it cannot operate in nominal groups in independent clauses).

	Singular	
Direct		jo (who/that/which)
	plural	
	Singular	jyse/jys + (who/whom)
Oblique		
	plural	jnhẽ/jyn + (who/whom)

4.3223. The interrogative pronoun:

	Singular	
Direct		kəwm (who)
	Plural	
	Singular	kyse/kys + (whə/whom)
Oblique		
	Plural	kynhẽ/kyn + (who/whom)

4.3224. Secondary choice classes of the pronoun:

The pronoun may, on a different dimension, be subdivided into two choice classes: subjective and objective. The former can operate in nominal groups at S only; the latter can operate in nominal groups at O only.

This means that the pronoun may be subdivided on one dimension into: personal pronouns, relative pronouns, interrogative pronouns, and on another dimension into: subjective pronouns, objective pronouns. Combining the two, we have the following possibilities:

Personal subjective:	mə̃y, həm, həmne, tu, tune, twm, twmne, ap, apne, vəh, ve, wsne, wnne
Personal objective:	mwjhe / mwjhko, həmẽ / həmko, twjhe / twjhko, twmhẽ / twmko, apko, wse / wsko, wnhẽ / wnko.
Relative subjective:	jo, jysne, jynne

Relative objective:	jyse / jysko, jynhẽ / jynko
Interrogative subjective:	kəwn, kysne, kynne
Interrogative objective:	kyse / kysko, kynhẽ / kynko

4.33:

We have not so far considered the following exponents of 'head' in nominal group structure:

i) Nominalized clause

ii) Hypostasis

i) Nominalized clause: A dependent clause may be rankshifted to the status of 'head' in nominal group structure.

e.g.

	S		O	P
// rat mẽ	ədhyk der tək kam kərna /		əccha /	nəhĩ hota // (It is not good to work till late at night)
A	A	O	P	

Here the exponent of S is a nominal group having only one element: h, and the exponent of h is a rank-shifted clause (rat mẽ ədyk der tək kam kərna - structure: AAOP).

ii) 'Hypostasis'[1]: We may have 'hypostasis' as exponent of 'h'. Infact any item may be hypostatised to function as head of a nominal group.

e.g.

S	O	P	
'ne' /	karək-cynk /	həy	('Ne' is (a) case-marker).

4.331. Simplex and Complex 'head':

The element h may exponentially be either simplex or complex. If it is expounded by one member of the unit next below, it is simplex; if it is expounded by two or more members of the unit next below, it is complex. In the

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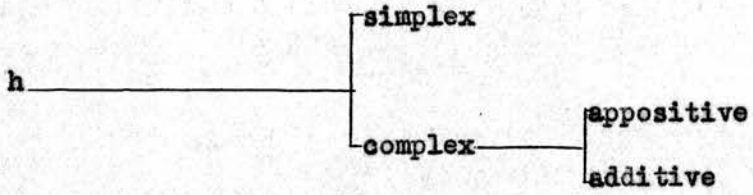
1. On the form and function of hypostasis, see Finngeir Hiorth's: "Hypostasis": pp 211-216.

case of complex h, the exponents are either in appositive or additive relation.



Example: Simplex: ləɽka ((a) boy), mohən (Mohan).....

Complex: (a) Appositive: ramu lohar ne (Raũ, the blacksmith)

(b) Additive: ram, ʃyam ɘwr mohən ne (Ram, Shyam and Mohan)

In the appositive type, the members (individually) have the same relation with the exponent of P; in the additive type the members collectively enter into relation with the exponent of P.

4.4. The Emphasizors:

The emphasizor is that class of the unit word which cannot, on its own, expound the simple structure of a nominal group. It may be regarded as a bound-word. Positionally, it follows the element it seeks to emphasize. The exponents are:-

hi

bhi

to

mohən hi aya həy (Mohan alone or Mohan only has come)

mohən bhi aya həy (Mohan too has come)

mohən to nəhĩ a səka (But Mohan could not come)

(contrzative)

The places in the nominal group where we can have an emphasizor are after m, after h and after q (only where q is expounded by a reflexive pronoun).

4.5. The system of person:

The system of person operates at h^p. It is set up to account for our choice of pronoun. It is marked by concordial relation between personal pronouns operating in nominal group(s) at S and exponents of tense-auxiliary in verbal-group(s) at P.

4.51. The system of person, number and case at h^p:

The systems of person, number and case interlock. There are three terms in the system of person; the systems of number and case have two terms each.

System of Person - First person, Second person, Third person.

System of Number - Singular and Plural.

System of Case - Direct and Oblique.

The following diagram shows the systems of number, person and gender carried by the personal pronouns:-

	FIRST		SECOND		THIRD	
	SINGULAR	PLURAL	SINGULAR	PLURAL	SINGULAR	PLURAL
DIRECT ?	mə̃y (I)	həm (we)	ap (you) / tu (you) / twm (you)		vəh (he/she)	ve (t hey)
OBLIQUE	mwjh(+) mwjhe (me)	həm(+) həme (us)	ap(+) (you) / twjhe (you) / twm(+) twmhə̃ (you)		ws(+) wse (him/her)	wn(+) wnhə̃ (them)

Note:
1. + indicates presence of postpositive particles,
2. Two or more items in the same box mean presence of two or more forms.
3. Postpositive particle may be fused with the same stem as mwjhe= mwjhko, həme= həmko, twmhə̃= twmko, wse=wsko, wnhə̃= wnko.
4. In certain varieties of Hindi ap is used to refer politely to a third person e.g. ap mere pytaji hə̃y (He is my father)
5. In the plural forms, it is quite common to add log meaning that reference is to a whole lot of people. e.g. həmlog (we people) twmlog (you people), ve log (they people), aplog (you people).

4.52.

Concordial relation between personal pronouns at h and the tense-auxiliary in the verbal group may be shown as follows:

Personal Pronoun	Tense Auxiliary	
mə̃y	hũ	(I am)
həm	hə̃y	(we are)
tu	həy)	(you are)
twm	ho)	
ap	hə̃y	(you are) Polite form
vəh	həy	(he/she is)
ve	hə̃y	(they are)

4.53. The system of number:

There are two terms in the system of number - singular and plural. This system is marked by (i) concordial relation between the head and the pre-head modifiers (chiefly the deictic pronouns)[1], and (ii) between the exponents of the nominal group and those of the verbal group. The system of number is carried by the nominal group; within the nominal group it is marked in d, e, and h.

In the oblique case, there is only one marker of the system of number, that is, concordial relation between the head and the deictic pronouns. It may, however, be added that in this case number is consistently indicated by the form of the class of the word noun operating at h. On the whole, singularity and plurality are not so consistently expounded by inflections in the noun as by concordial relation (or relation of co-occurrence) between the noun and certain classes of modifiers.

---

1. This relation may better be described as a relation of co-occurrence; that is potentiality of the head-word to co-occur with certain deictic pronouns.

		SINGULAR	PLURAL
DIRECT	Masculine	yəh ləɽka (this boy)	ye ləɽke (these boys)
	Feminine	yəh ləɽki (this girl)	ye ləɽkyyã̄ (these girls
OBLIQUE	Masculine	ys ləɽke+ (this boy)	yn ləɽkȭ + (these boys)
	Feminine	ys ləɽki+ (this girl)	yn ləɽkyyȭ + (these girls)

+ means presence of a postpositive particle.

4.54.

The system of number as carried by noun-words and other word classes has to be treated differently. There are three terms here:- Singular, Plural, Unmarked. It must be noted that at the group-rank, the system of number has only two terms but at the word rank it may be said to have three terms.

Singular ləɽka (a boy), ləɽki (a girl).....

(Note: Some of the masculine and feminine nouns have only one form, that is, singular).

Ex: Masculine:- səty̆ə (truth), bəcpən (childhood).....

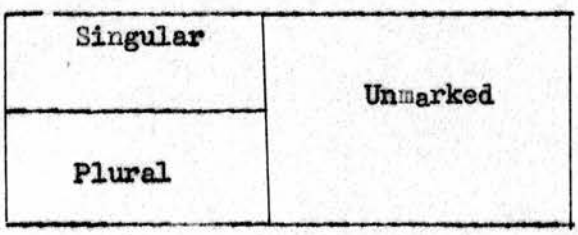
Feminine:- dəya (compassion), krypa (mercy), səhayta (help), mytrəta (friendship)

Plural: ləɽke (boys), ləɽkyyã̄ (girls).....

Unmarked: ghər (house/home), bərtən (utensils), admi (man)(all these in Direct Case only)

nani (maternal grandmother), caca (uncle), dada (grandfather).

These terms are represented diagrammatically:-



Exponents of morphemic plural (i.e. plurality expounded by bound morphemes in word structure) may be shown in a tabular form:-

	Masculine	Feminine
Direct	-e	-ã -ẽ
Oblique	-õ	

The exponent of plurality in the oblique case (masculine and feminine) is the bound morpheme - õ

Example:

	Singular	Plural
Masculine	ləɽke +	ləɽkõ + (+ presence of postpositive particle)
Feminine	ləɽki +	ləɽkyyõ +
	ləta +	lətaõ +

In the direct case, the exponent of plurality is the bound morpheme e in the case of masculine gender, and ã , ẽ in the case of feminine gender.

Examples:-

	Singular	Plural
Masculine	lərka	ləɽke
Feminine	ləɽki	ləɽkyyã
	ləta	lətaẽ

4.55. The system of case:

The system of case is carried by the whole of the group but it is marked in certain deictic pronouns and the head-word. It has two terms - direct and oblique. It is marked by (i) relation of co-occurrence between deitic pronouns and the head-word.

(ii) by the presence or absence of postpositive particles.

	Masculine	Feminine
DIRECT:		
Sing.	yəh ləɽka (this boy)	yəh ləɽki (this girl)
Plur.	ye ləɽke (these boys)	ye ləɽkyyã (these girls)
OBLIQUE:		
Sing.	ys ləɽke + (this boy)	ys ləɽki + (this girl)
Plur.	yn ləɽkõ + (these boys)	yn ləɽkyyõ + (these girls)

The form of the noun-word does not always tell us about its case. For example, feminine nouns (singular numbers) have the same form in the two cases. We know which is which by looking at the deictic pronouns and the postpositive particles. In other words, yəh/vəh are in cross-reference with (or are substitutable for) noun-word (direct) and ys and ws are in cross reference with (or are substitutable for) the noun-word (oblique).[1]

4.56 The system of definiteness:

Where there is only one occurrence of 0 in a clause, we may have a choice between definite and indefinite nominal groups. A definite nominal group is marked (i) by the presence of the postpositive particle -ko, and (ii) by non-participation in concordial relation with the verbal group at P.

Indefinite	Definite
ləɽka kwtta dekhta həy	ləɽka kwtte ko dekhta həy
((the) boy sees (a) dog)	((the) boy sees the dog)
ləɽkene bylli dekhi həy	ləɽkene bylli ko dekha həy
((the) boy has seen (a) cat)	((the) boy has seen the cat)

---

1. For a detailed discussion of the system of case, see 4.58.

4.57. The system of gender:

The system of gender is carried by the whole of the nominal group, but it is marked in d, o, e, n and h. The terms in this system are masculine and feminine. It is marked by concordial relation (i) between the head-word and certain modifiers and (ii) between the exponents of S (or of O in Objectival clauses) and those of P. In the oblique case concordial relation (ii) does not work. Inflectional endings of noun-words are not always dependable.[1] We cannot say that all nouns ending in -a are masculine and all nouns ending in -i are feminine for we may find hundreds of exceptions. For example: ghi (ending in i) is masculine and səbha (ending in a) is feminine. As a general rule we can say that the marker of the system of gender is concordial relation between the head-word and some of the modifiers (chiefly, adjectives and the possessives).

DIRECT CASE: Masculine: mera bhai (my brother)

Feminine: meri bəhən (my sister)

OBLIQUE CASE: Masculine: mere ləṛke + (my boy/son)

Feminine: meri ləṛki + (my girl/daughter)

(+ presence of postpositive particle)

4.58. Systems of person, number, gender and case (general):

It is important to mention here that the systems of person, number, gender, and case operate at 'places' in the structure of the clause and are carried by the nominal group and the verbal group (the system of case, of course, does not belong to the verbal group). These systems are marked by concordial relation between the exponent of S and that of P (in subjectival clauses) and between the exponent of O and that of P (in objectival clauses). This does not,

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1. J. Burton-Page: "Gender, as 'a concord category having meaning at the grammatical level only' remains an abstraction from the sentence, not a mystique inherent in words of any class". (The Gender of Loan-words in Hindi: Indian Linguistics vol. 20, 1959, p. 166).

however, account for everything. It does not tell us anything about the systems operating at 0 in subjectival clauses for in such clauses the exponent of 0 does not participate in concordial relation with the exponent of P. There are two ways in which this problem might be tackled:

(i) by transformation:- by changing the subjectival clause into an objectival clause and then looking at the concordial relation between the exponents of 0 and those of P.

(ii) by looking at the concordial relation between the components of the nominal group itself, for example, by looking at the concord between d and h or between e and h.

When we have an oblique nominal group as exponent of S, there is no concordial marker of the system of person. We can again get round the problem either (i) by changing the oblique nominal group into a direct nominal group or (ii) by looking at the exponents themselves. Since the system of person applies to the secondary classes of personal pronouns and since we have already identified these classes in the direct case (on the basis of concordial relation) we need not repeat the whole process all over again in the oblique case.

So far as the systems of number, gender and case are concerned, the defining criterion is not inter-group concord but intra-group concord. The reason is that inter-group concord does not operate in many cases, for example there is no inter-group concord in Impersonal clauses.

In his atricle on the analysis of Hindi sentence-structure, Allen discusses, what he calls, tha categories of Gender and Number at great length. We quote:

"The categories of Gender and Number are not invariably indicated by the form of the noun; in fact, as will be seen, the only consistent indication is that of Number in the Oblique cases. Thus the nominal suffix -a does not constitute an indication of the Masculine Singular in the Direct case - the particular example lərka is in fact Masc.Sing., but the morphological indication of this is its

paradigmatic relationship with lərke (Masc.Plur.); cəca, for instance, may be Masc. Sing. or Plur., whilst bəla is Fem.Sing.. The only place in the sentence where these categories are invariably and unambiguously marked for the Direct case is in the verb, with its regular set of suffixes -

Sing.	Masc.	-a
	Fem.	-i
Plur.	Masc.	-e
	Fem.	-iŋ

Apart from this syntagmatic criterion, Gender and Number can generally be established for the Direct case of the Noun only by invoking relationships in absentia - e.g. bat is Fem. Sing. because

(a) the paradigm contains the form bateŋ,

(b) any paradigm thus constituted regularly shows Fem. concord of the verb and,

(c) within such a paradigm the -eŋ form regularly shows the plur. concord.

On the other hand pat is Masc. because there is no form *pateŋ, and such a paradigm regularly show Masc. concord of the verb: but since the form in both numbers is pat, we cannot establish it as Sing. or Plur..

In the oblique case, moreover, any suffix other than oŋ (including zero in a word such as bat) may be considered as a mark of Singular number, in that -oŋ, unlike the other suffixes, is invariably present if the number is Plural. In the sentence types considered, the oblique case is further indicated by the pr presence of the particles -ne or -ko, and there is thus no possibility of confusion between the Masc. Sing. Oblique and the Masc. Plur. Direct in -e. An important contrast is consequently set up between the Oblique and Direct case-forms as regards their potentiality for indicating the category of "Number"[1].

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1. W. S. Allen: A study in the analysis of Hindi Sentence-structure (Acta Linguistica, 1951 pp. 75-77).

It is clear that the exponents of Gender and number are not invariably indicated by the form of the head-word. The nominal suffix -a or i may be masculine or feminine, singular or plural.

DIRECT	-a	lɔʈka (a boy)	masculine, singular
		caca (uncle)	masculine, singular/plural
		dɔya (compassion)	feminine, singular
		prɔja (subjects)	feminine, singular/plural
	-i	lɔʈki (a girl)	feminine, singular
		nani (maternal grandmother)	feminine, singular/plural
		ghi (clarified butter)	masculine, singular
		moti (pearl)	masculine,singular/plural

The system of case needs further elaboration. We have already said that it is a system of the nominal group. At primary delicacy it may be said to have two terms:

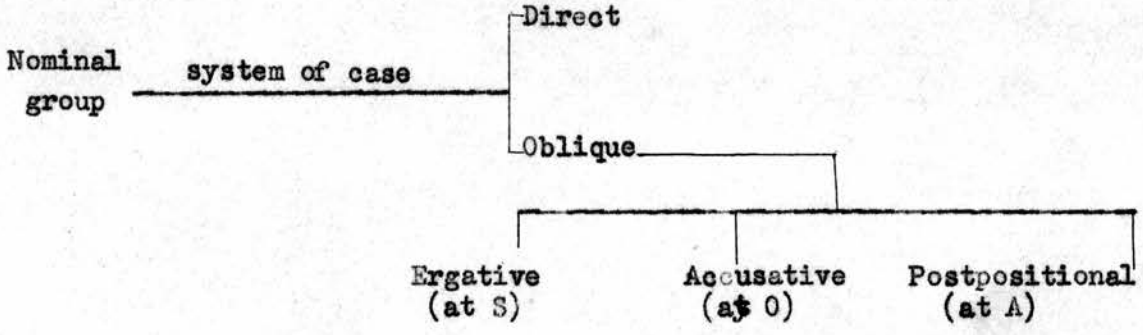
Direct

Oblique

Later in the delicacy the oblique breaks, according to its actual occurrance at different places in clause structure, into three secondary chain classes:

At S	Ergative	(morphologically marked by -ne)
At O	Accusative	(morphologically marked by -ko)
At A	Postpositional	(morphologically marked by postpositions namely mẽ, se, pɔr, tɔk, etc.)

Diagrammatically:



This means that

at S we have a choice between

direct
and
oblique (more delicately, ergative)

at O we have a choice between

direct
and
oblique (more delicately, accusative)

at A we have a choice between

direct
and
oblique (more delicately, postpositional)

4.581.

These systems of number, gender and case, as has already been said, interlock.

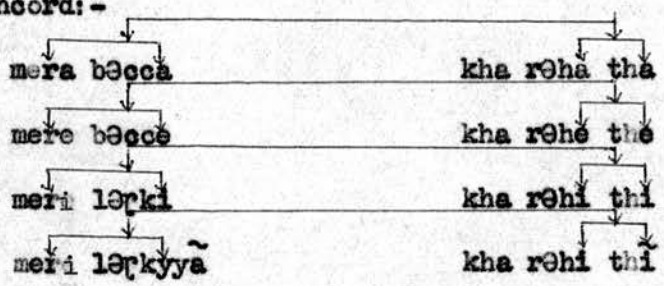
	SINGULAR		PLURAL	
	MASC.	FEM.	MASC.	FEM.
DIRECT	mera ləʈka (my boy)	meri ləʈki (my girl)	mere ləʈke (my boys)	meri ləʈkyyã (my girls)
OBLIQUE	mere ləʈke (my boy)	meri ləʈki+ (my girl)	mere ləʈkõ+ (my boys)	meri ləʈkyyõ+ (my girls)

(+ means presence of a postpositive particle)

β One can tell the oblique case from the direct on the basis of two features (i) presence of a postpositive particle in the oblique case, (ii) potentiality of h to co-occur with certain deictic pronouns, e.g. ys, ws, yn, wn. These deictics cannot operate in direct nominal groups.

4.59. Inter-group and intra-group concord:

The following examples are given to illustrate inter-group and intra-group concord:-



4.6. Co-ordination and subordination:[1]

I. Co-ordination: co-ordination may be of two kinds; additive and appositive.

(a) Additive: (i) Two nominal groups in co-ordination.

S P
// meri sari kytabẽ əwr twmhari sari kəmizẽ / cori ho gəi hẽy //

(all my books amd all your shirts have been stolen)

Here S is expounded by two nominal groups in co-ordination.

S

N + N

Structure: mh + mh

(ii) A. Two nouns in co-ordination.

S P
// meri kytabẽ əwr kəmizẽ / cori ho gai hẽy//

(MY books and shirts have been stolen)

Here S is expounded by one nominal group, and the head of the nominal group is expounded by two noun-words in co-ordination.

S

N

Structure mh

n + n (n= noun word)

---

1. For a general discussion of these two relational abstractions, see the chapter on "the Sentence".

B. Two proper nouns in co-ordination:

// rəvy əwr ʃekher / khel rəhe hə̃y //

(Ravi and Shekhar are playing)

analysis - S

N

Structure: h

n^{s^p} + n^{s^p} (two proper nouns)

C. Two epithets in co-ordination:

/swndər əwr swʃil lərki /

((a) beautiful and gentle girl)

Here we have a nominal group made up of 'modifier' and 'head'. The modifier is expounded by two epithets in co-ordination.

mh

e + e (e = epithet)

(b) Appositive:

ramu lohar (Ramu, the blacksmith).

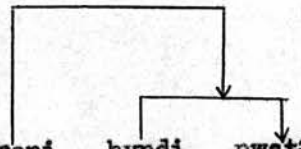
Here the two nounewords ramu amd lohar are in appositional relation; they have equipollent function. In the given example, the 'head' of a nominal group is expounded by two noun-words in apposition.

II Subordination:

i) mere bhaine (my brother).

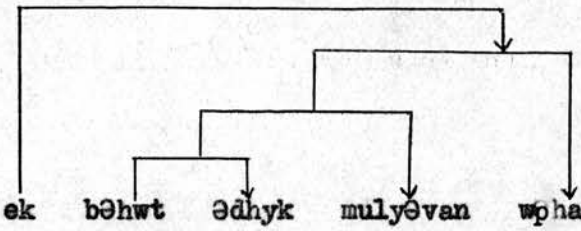
Here we have a nominal group in which bhaine is the head and mere is modifier. The relation between the two is one of subordination - mere is subordinate to bhaine. Our criterion is that bhaine alone has the potentiality of replacing the whole

group.



(ii) pwrani hyndi pwstəkẽ (old Hindi books)

Here 'hyndi' is subordinate to 'pwstəkẽ' and 'pwrani' is subordinate to 'hyndi pwstəkẽ'. The criterion is that here each modifier has as its head all that follows it; the relation between hyndi and pwstəkẽ is the same as that between pwrani and hyndi pwstəkẽ.



(iii) ek bəhwt əd̪hyk mulyəvan wphar (a very valuable gift).

Here 'bəhwt' modifies 'əd̪hyk' and 'bəhwt əd̪hyk' modifies 'mulyəvan'; 'bəhwt əd̪hyk mulyəvan' modifies 'wphar'; 'ek' modifies 'bəhwt əd̪hyk mulyəvan wphar'. One distinguishing feature of this relation is that ek (which is an exponent of ordinative) modifies all that follows it.

4.61. 'Depth' Relation:

It is useful at this point to make a distinction between 'depth relation' and relation between elements in a place-ordered structure. A place-ordered structure is composed of a limited number of different elements. The successive elements do not form a progression; depth relation obtains between elements in a recursive structure. The elements or terms in the series form a progression.[1]

4.611:

Recursive structures are of two types: those involving "rank-shift" and those not.

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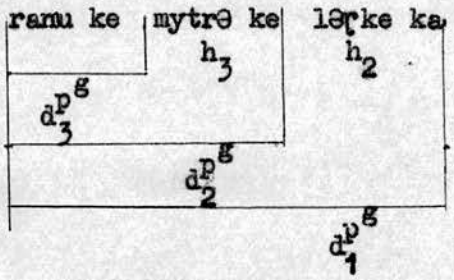
1. M.A.K. Halliday: Chain and Choice: p 11.
(Linguistics: no. 2, Dec. 1963)

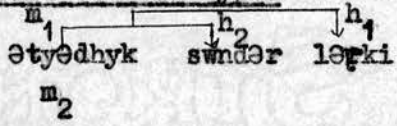
4.6111. Rank shifted type:



(The marriage of Ramu's friend's son).

One can very easily notice the repetition of one element (d^{pg}) "in depth". The structural relation between d_1^{pg} and h_1 is the same as between d_2^{pg} and h_2 or as between d_3^{pg} and h_3. (Rank-shift has already been discussed in the section on the genitivals).

4.6112. Non rank shifted type:

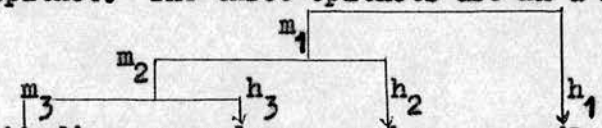
(i) 

((an) extremely beautiful girl).

Here 'ətyədhyk' is to 'swndər' as 'ətyədhyk swndər' is to 'lərki'. The structural relation between m_1 and h_1 is the same as that between m_2 and h_2.

(ii) swndər, swʃil, svəsth bəcce. (beautiful, gentle, healthy children).
e e e h

Here we have repetition of the same elements. The items preceding the head are not exponents of different elements rather they are exponents of one element only, that is, the epithet. The three epithets are in a relation of co-ordination.

(iii) 

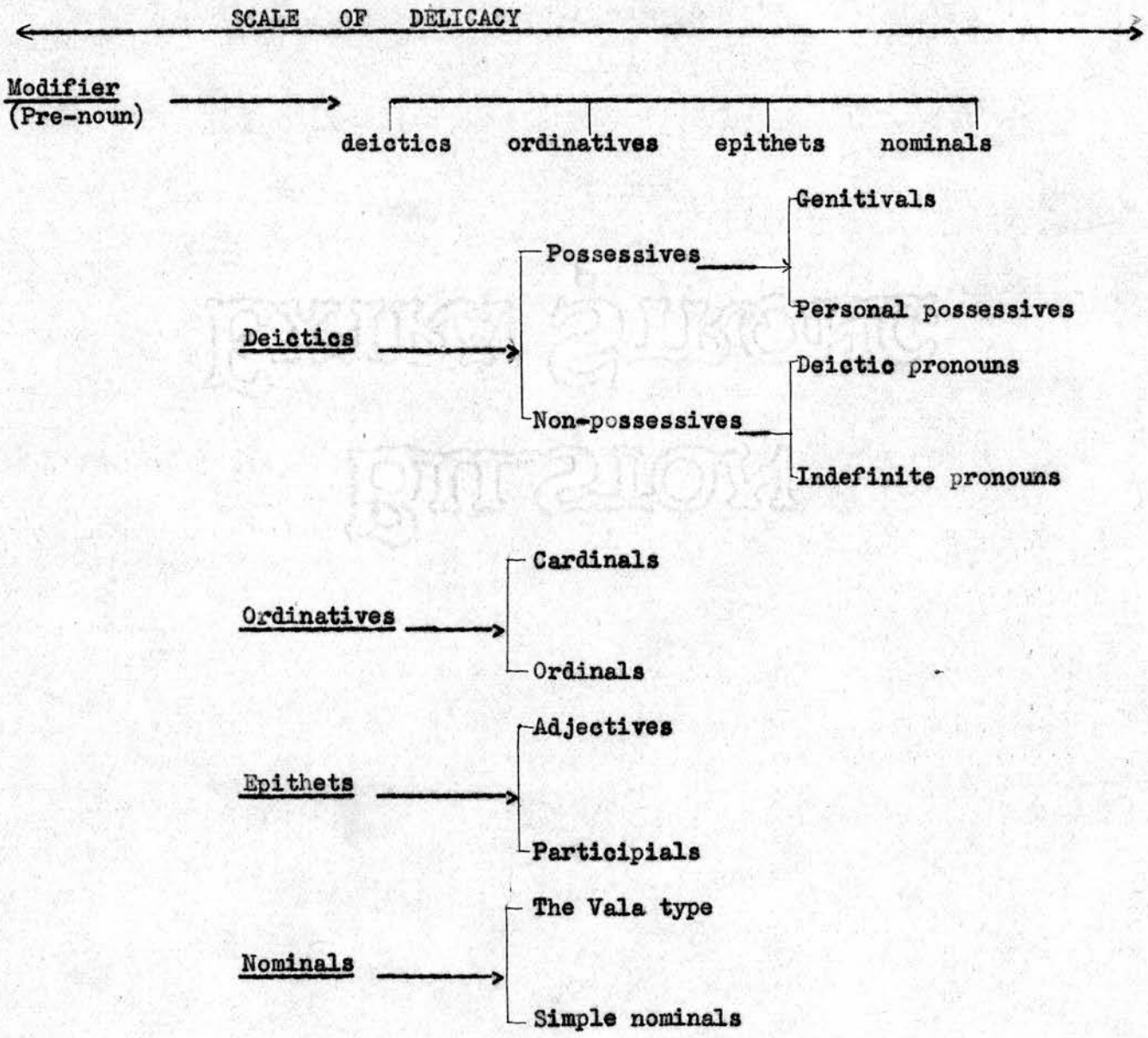
(Khadi village industry development scheme).

Here 'yojəna' is exponent of the ultimate head; all that precedes it is modifier to it; but there are two other heads (expounded by 'vykas' and 'gramodyog') nested within the ultimate group. This network of inter-relations cannot be described

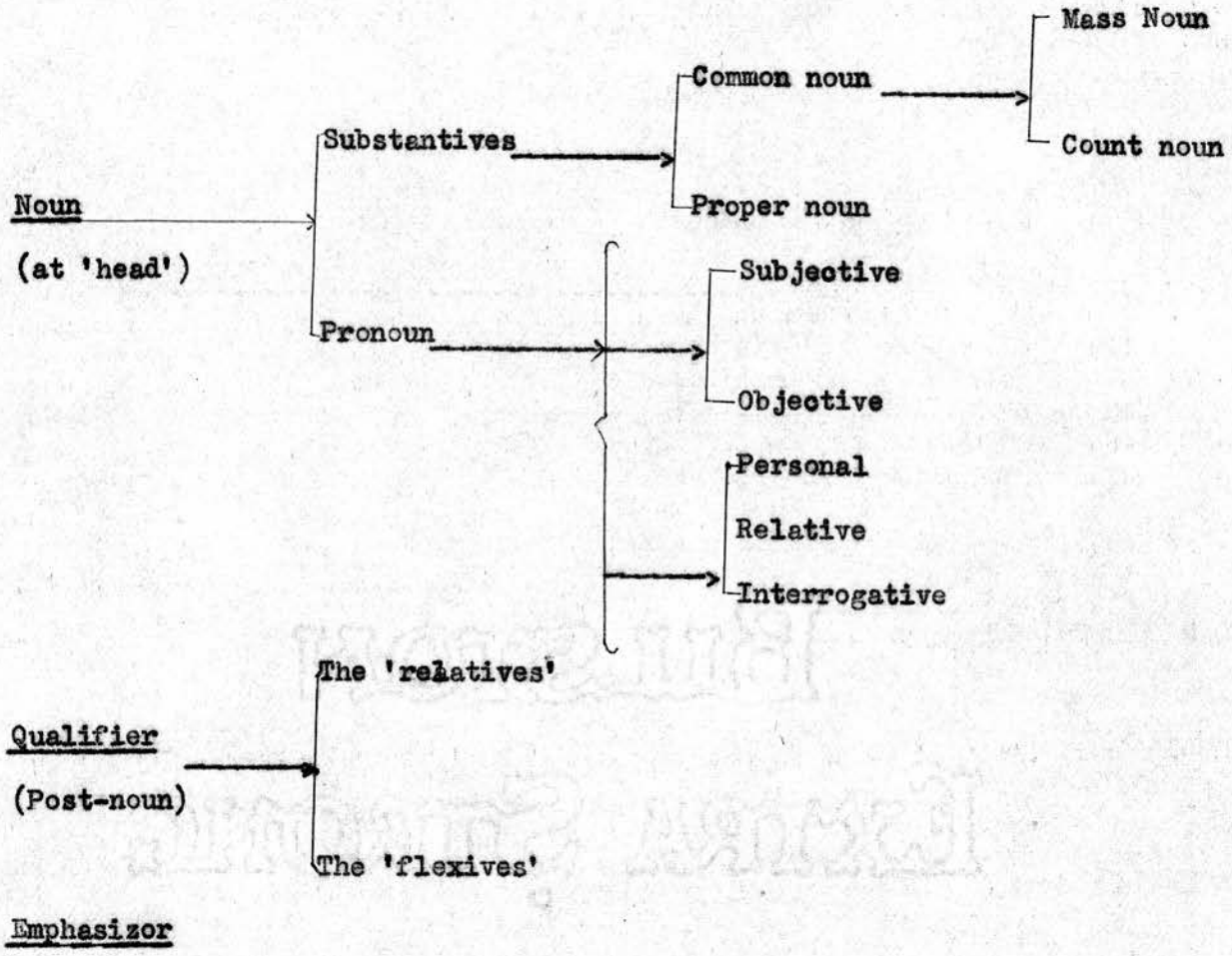
in terms of place-ordered structure or by, what R.B. Lees would say, "a superficial description of the 'physical' parts of the nominal".[1]

4.7:

Summary of the primary and secondary classes operating at different places in the structure of the nominal group (systems of number, person, gender and case are not shown here):-



1. R.B. Lees: The Constituent/of Noun Phrase Structure (American Speech vol. 36, 1961 number 3: p 159).


Noun
(at 'head')
Substantives
Common noun
Mass Noun
Count noun
Proper noun
Pronoun
Subjective
Objective
Personal
Relative
Interrogative
Qualifier
(Post-noun)
The 'relatives'
The 'flexives'
Emphasizor

4.71. Tabular representation of the primary and secondary classes: (systems of number, person, gender and case are not shown here):

SCALE OF DELICACY →

MODIFIER	Deictics	Possessives	Genitivals	Aʃa ki, cytra ke, rəvy ka .....etc.
			Personal Possessives	mera, meri, mere, tera, teri, tere, twmhara, twmhari, twmhare, həmara, həmari, həmare, wnka, wnki, wnke, wake, wska, wski, wske, yska, yski, yske, ynka, ynki, ynke, apka, apki, apke.
		Non-Possessives	Deictic Pronoun	yəh, vəh, ye, ve, ys, ws, yn, wn, yəhi, vəhi, ysi, wsi, ynhi, wnhi.
			Indefinite Pronoun	koi, kwch, kysi.
	Ordinatives	Cardinals	ek, do, tin, car, pãc.....	
		Ordinals	pəhla, dusra, tisra.....	
	epithets	Participials	roti hwi (ləɽki), məra hwa (sẽp), cəlti (gaɽi)...	
		Adjectives	əccha (ləɽka), əcchi (ləɽki), lal (saɽi)....	
	nominals	The Vala-type	anevali (gaɽi), wɽnevala (sãp).....	
		Simple nominals	uʃa (məʃin), nim (sabwn), ʃəkty (sylk).....	
HEAD	Substantives	Common Noun	Mass Noun	səty ə, bəcpən, dudh, ʃəkkər.....
			Count Noun	ləɽka, ləɽki, kytab....
		Proper Noun	aʃa, cytra, rəvy, ʃəkhər, uʃa.....	
	Pronoun	Subjective	mẽy, həm, tu, twm, vəh, ve, ap.	
		Objective	mwjh +, mwjhe, twjh +, twjhe, twm +, twmhe, həm +, həme, ws +, wse, wn +, wnhẽ, ap +.	

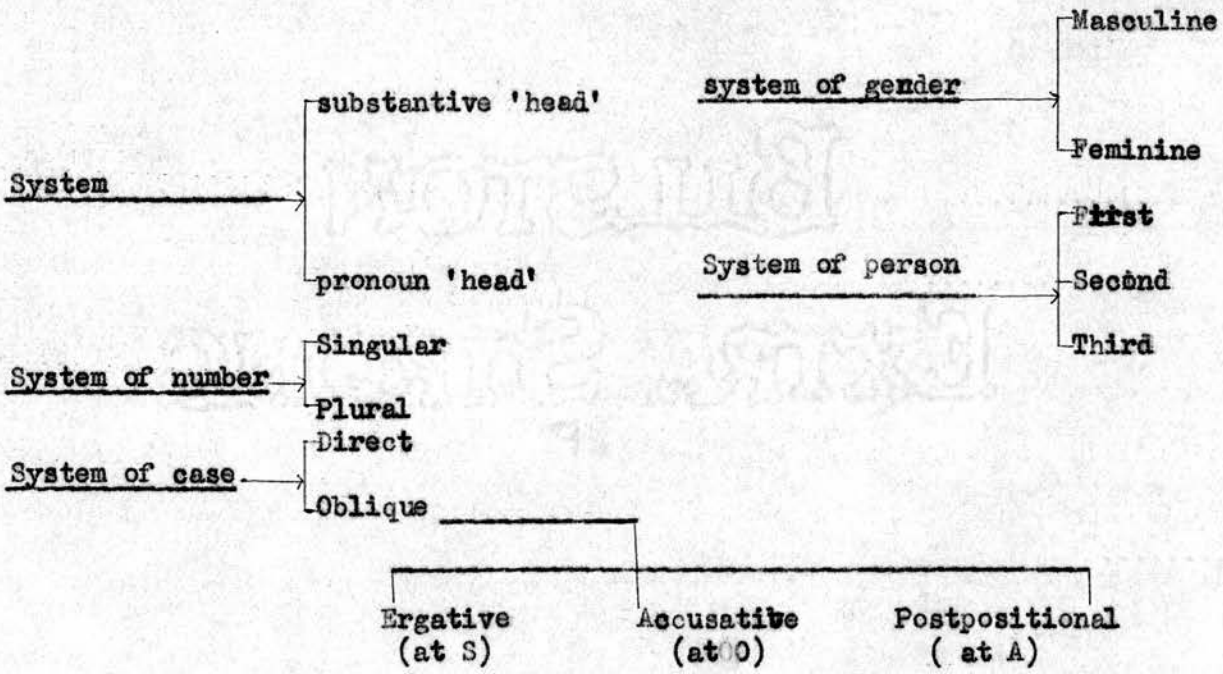
SCALE OF DELICACY →

QUALIFIER: The 'Relatives'	R/S Relative clauses beginning with jo, jyse, jysko, jysse, jynko, jynka, jynse, jəha.....
The 'Flexives'	svəyəm, khwd, ap, aphiap.....
EMPHASIZOR	hi, bhi, to.

Note: Personal, interrogative and relative pronouns are not shown here.

4.72:

Diagrammatization of the systems of number, person, gender and case as carried by the nominal group.

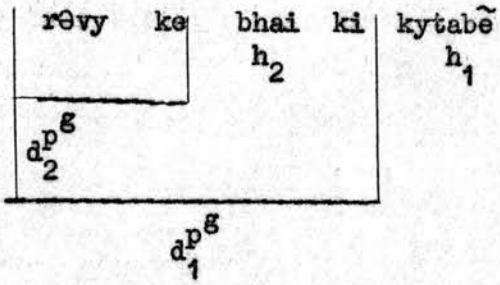


4.73. Summary of Structural Relations:

Summing up, we might say that the elements of nominal group structure may be related

(a) in dependence (non-transitive depth ordering)

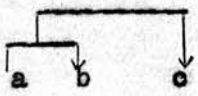
i) rank shifted type:



(Ravi's brother's book)

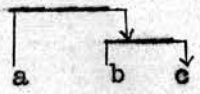
ii) Non rank shifted type:

A. ətyədhyk swndər balyka



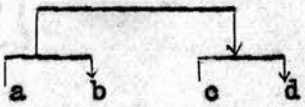
((an) extremely beautiful girl)

B. pwrani hyndi pwstəkẽ



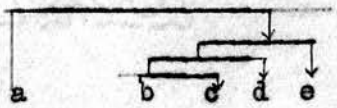
(old Hindi books)

C. ytni əcchi uʃa məʃin



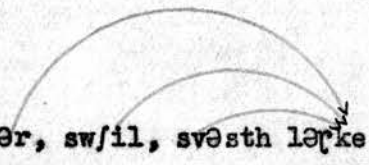
(such a nice Usha machine)

D. ek bəhwt ədhyk mulyəvan wphar



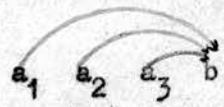
(b) in co-ordination (transitive depth ordering)

(i) by linking:



swndər, swʃil, svəsth ləɽke

(beautiful, gentle healthy boys)



(a_1, a_2, a_3 in a relation of co-ordination)

ii) by apposition:

ramu lohar

(Ramu, the blacksmith)

CHAPTER V

THE VERBAL GROUP

CHAPTER V

5.1:

The verbal group is that class of the unit group which operates at P in clause-structure. Morphologically, it is a grouping of verbal elements among which there obtain certain interior relations determining the operation of the classes of the unit next below.

5.11. Primary elements of the structure of the Verbal group:

The primary elements of the structure of the verbal group are: v, a, e, and n. These elements are expounded by different primary word-classes. v and a are both positionally and exponentially distinguished. v precedes a and is expounded by the class verb of the unit word; a may follow but may not precede v: it is expounded by the class auxiliary of the unit word. e and n are not sequence-bound. There is, however, one restriction; e must follow the element it emphasizes. n normally precedes the element it negates.[1] e and n are expounded respectively by the classes 'emphasizor' and 'negator' of the unit word.

5.12:

The primary structure of the verbal group may now be symbolized as:

$$\overrightarrow{v\ a}\ e\ n$$

The arrow shows sequence. e and n are outside the arrow, that means they are not sequence-determined.

5.13. Possible combinations of primary elements:

	Structure	Example
One element only:	v	kha (eat)
		khata
		khaya (ate)
		khae (may eat)

---

1. n may occur finally in those cases where it negates the whole of the verbal group.

		khaega (will eat)
		.....
	a	həy (is)
		tha (was)
		ho (may be)
		hoga (must be)
		hota
two elements:	va	khata həy (eats)
		khaya həy (has eaten)
		khaya tha (had eaten)
		.....
	ve	khate hi
		.....
	nv	nəhĩ cahta (does not want)
		.....
	ae	tha hi
		.....
	na	nəhĩ tha (was not)
Three elements	vae	khaya tha hi
		.....
	vea	khaya hi tha
		.....
	nva	nəhĩ khaya tha
		.....
	vna	khaya nəhĩ tha
		.....
Four elements:		
	vena	khaya hi nəhĩ tha
		.....

5.14. The v-element:

The v-element is expounded by the class verb of the unit word.

5.141. Finite and non-finite verb:

Early in delicacy the verb may be subdivided into: finite and non-finite forming a two-term system of finiteness. The main distinction between the finite and the non-finite verbs is that the former can but the latter cannot operate as a simple verbal group at P in independent clause structure.

5.142. Subdivisions of the finite verb:

The finite verb may itself be subdivided into: tensed finite verbs and non-tensed finite verbs. The former can but the latter cannot co-occur with the exponents of tense.

5.1421:

The tensed verb breaks into: indicative and infinitive. The former can but the latter cannot select for aspect. This system may be labelled Mode I

Ex:

Indicative:	khata/khaya	(eats/ate)
Infinitive:	khana	(to eat)

5.1422:

The non-tensed verb may more delicately be subdivided into: imperative and subjunctive. Of the two, the latter alone enters into the system of number. This system may be labelled Mode II.

Ex:

Imperative:	khao	(eat)
Subjunctive:	khae	(may eat), khaega (will eat).

5.14221. Honorific and non-honorific verbal forms:

The imperative verb breaks down into: honorific and non-honorific. The

former alone can co-occur with the honorific pronoun: 'ap'.

Ex: Honorific: lijye (Please take)

Non-honorific: lo, le (take)

5.14222:

The subjunctive may, by taking a step in delicacy, be subdivided into: unmarked and predictive. The main distinction between the two is that the latter is marked by the presence of -ga.

Ex: Subjunctive (Unmarked): khae (may eat)

Predictive : khaega (will eat)

More examples:

Subjunctive (Unmarked)	Predictive
mə̃y bolũ (Imay speak)	mə̃y bolũga (I will speak)
twm bolo (you may speak)	twm bologe (you will speak)
vəh bole (He may speak)	vəh bolega (He will speak)
həm bolẽ (we may speak)	həm bolẽge (we will speak)
ve bolẽ (They may speak)	ve bolẽge (They will speak)
ap bolẽ (you may speak-polite form)	ap bolẽge (you will speak)

5.143. Perfect and imperfect verb:

The indicative verb selects for aspect. The system of aspect has two terms: perfect and imperfect. The perfect may but the imperfect cannot co-occur with an ergative nominal group. Morphologically, the former is marked by the presence of the ending a/ya, and the latter by the ending ta.

5.1431. Subdivisions of the perfect verb:

We may subdivide the perfect verb into: ne-perfect and non-ne perfect. Of these two the former alone can co-occur with an ergative nominal group.

5.1432. Subdivisions of the imperfect verb:

The imperfect breaks into the habitual and the progressive. The progressives are bound verbs and cannot stand on their own.

Ex: Habitual: Khata

Progressive: ...rəha...

5.144. Modalised and non-modalised verbs:

The non-ne-perfect and the habitual enter into the system of modalisation which may be said to have two terms: modalised and non-modalised.

Ex: Non-ne-perfect modalised : səka, cwka

Non-ne-perfect non-modalised : laya, bola, aya, wʈha, bəyʈha, gəya, pəɽa.....

Imperfect modalised : səkta, cwkta

Imperfect non-modalised : kəhta, bolta, swnta.....

5.1441. The modalised verbs - 'səkna' and 'cwkna':

səkna and cwkna are bound verbs. Contextually, səkna means "to be able to" and 'cwkna' 'to have done or finished'. One of the characteristic features of these two verbs is that they always follow a verb in its base form.

Ex: mə̃y yəh kər səkta hũ̃ (I am able to do this)

mə̃y yəh kər nəhĩ̃ səka (I could not do this)

mə̃y yse pəɽh cwka hũ̃ (I have finished reading this)

kya twm mera lykha pəɽh səkte ho? (Can you read my writing?)

kya twm lykh cwke ho? (Have you finished writing?)

5.145. The non-finite Verb:

The non-finite verb subdivides into the following:-

a) the Conjunctive: e.g. khakər (having eaten)

b) the participials:

the participials further subdivide into the perfect and the imperfect participials -

perfect participial: e.g. khaya

imperfect participial: e.g. khaɨa

c) the infinitival: e.g. khana (to eat)

We have made a distinction between the infinitives and the infinitivals. The infinitives occur in finite verbal groups and inflect for number and gender. The infinitivals cannot operate at P in an independent clause and do not inflect for number and gender. The participials are characterised by their potentiality of co-occurring with hwa. The conjuntivals are marked by the suffixation of kər/ke to the stem of the verb-word.

5.146. Diagrammatically, the systems carried by the verb may be shown as follows: *

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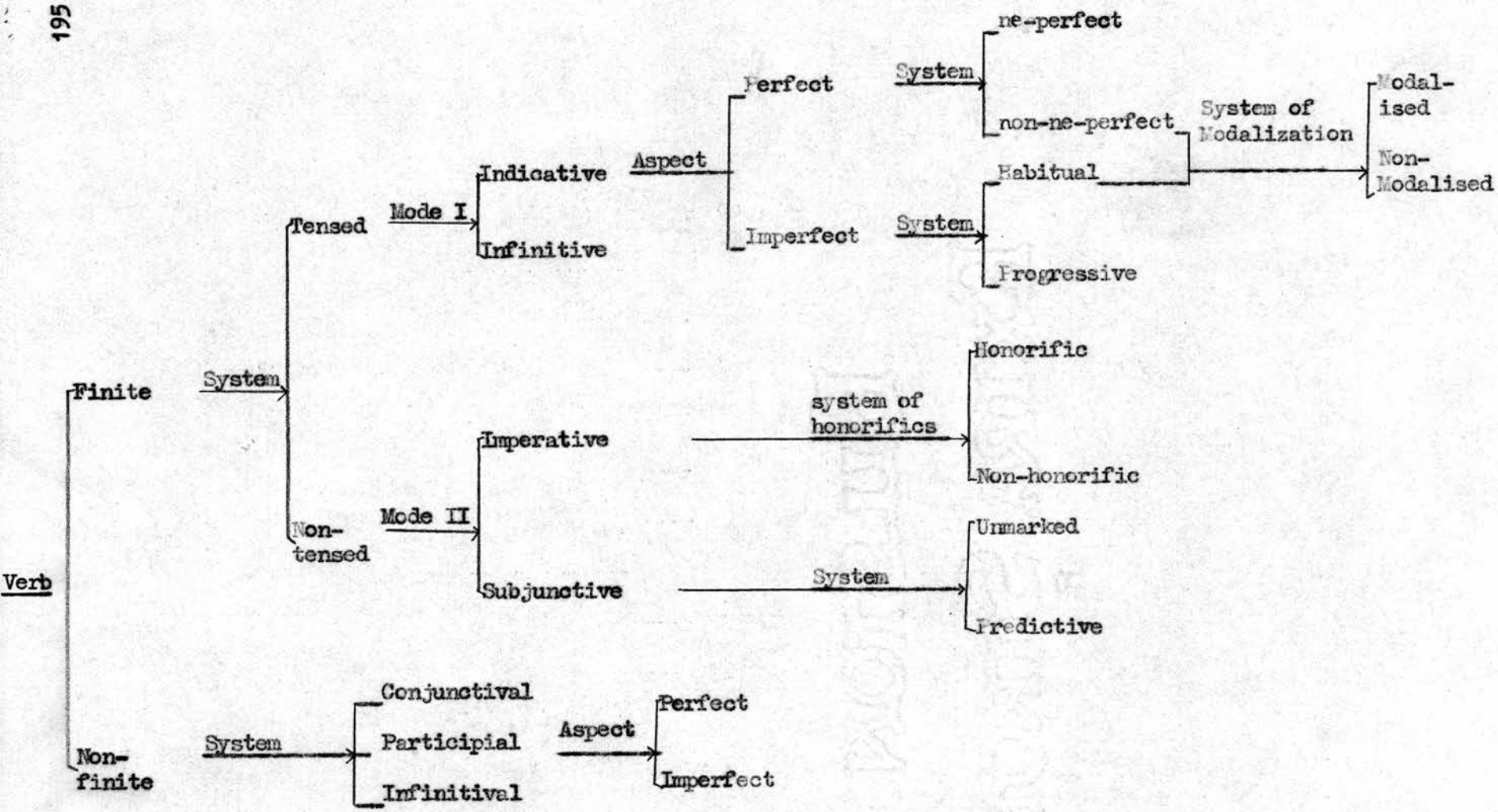
* Diagram on next page. (195).


Verb
Finite
Non-finite
System
Tensed
Non-tensed
Mode I
Indicative
Infinitive
Mode II
Imperative
Subjunctive
Aspect
Perfect
Imperfect
System
ne-perfect
non-ne-perfect
System
Habitual
Progressive
System of Modalization
Modal-ised
Non-Modalised
system of honorifics
Honorific
Non-honorific
System
Unmarked
Predictive
System
Conjunctival
Participial
Infinitival
Aspect
Perfect
Imperfect

5.1461. The verb paradigm:

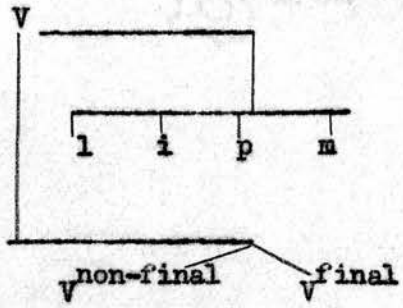
The exponent of v enters into the following paradigm (by a paradigm we mean a set of such items as are alike in their own structure):-

1.	v^{o}	base form	kha
2.	v^{n}	'infinitive'	khana
3.	v^{t}	'imperfect'	khata
4.	v^{y}	'perfect'	khaya
5.	v^{e}	'subjunctive'	khae
6.	v^{g}	'predictive'	khaega

Note: 'base', 'infinitive', 'imperfect', 'perfect', 'subjunctive' and 'predictive' have been used as labels here.

5.147.x Chain (secondary) classes of the verb:

The v-element may be subdivided simultaneously into the following secondary chain elements:



5.1471. Final and non-final V:

On one dimension, v breaks into $v^{non\text{-}final}$ and v^{final} yielding two secondary chain classes. V^{final} is distinguished for carrying the main grammatical systems of the verbal group. (It is to be noted here that we are not taking into account the auxiliaries which carry the systems of tense. V^{final} means that v which appears finally in the verbal group (excluding the auxiliary). So the presence or absence of auxiliary will not affect the status of $v^{non\text{-}final}$ and v^{final}.

5.1472:

On another dimension v subdivides into l, i, p and m yielding four secondary chain classes: the lexical verb, the intensive, the passive and the modalised verb.

5.14721. The lexical verb:

The lexical verb is that verb which appears initially in the verbal group. Almost any verb can operate as lexical verb. The modalised verbs and the pregressives, however, being bound verbs, cannot operate at l.

5.14722. The Intensives:

The intensives occur immediately after the lexical verb with no other element in between. They may not be preceded by the passive or the modalised verb. On the basis of combinatorial restrictions, we may group the intensives into the following secondary classes:-

(a) those following the lexical verb in its base form - lena, dena, ana, wʈhna, bəyʈhna, jana (non-passive), ɖalna, pəʈna, rəkhna.

(b) those following the lexical verb in -ta form - jana (non-passive), rəhna, hona.

(c) those following the lexical verb in -ya form - cahna, kərna.

(d) those following the lexical verb in -na form - pəʈna, cahna.

Examples:			
	phẽk	dena	(to throw away)
	toʈ	ɖalna	(to break to pieces)
	gyr	pəʈna	(to fall down)
	kha	jana	(to eat up)
	kaʈ	ɖalna	(to cut off)
	.....		
	hə̃sta	rəhna	(to keep laughing)
	pəʈhta	rəhna	(to continue reading)
	lykhta	jana	(to go on writing)

bola cahna (to wish to speak)

kyya cahna (to wish to do)

jana pəṛna (to have to go)

jana cahna (to wish to go)

.....

5.14723. The Passive:

The exponent of the passive is the verb jana. There is, however, one conditioner[1] - it must be preceded (with no other verb coming in between) by a verb in 'perfect' aspect.

Ex: khaya jata həy (is eaten)

khaya gəya həy (has been eaten)

kha lyya jata həy (is eaten up)

kha lyya gəya həy (has been eaten up).

We can see that in each case listed above the item immediately preceding jata/gəya (exponent of the passive) is a verb in Ya - form.

5.14724. The Modalised Verb:

The modalised verbs are: səkna and cwkna. The modalised verbs may follow but cannot precede the passive. (see 5.1441 for further details about the modalised verbs).

5.14725:

The subdivisions of v on the chain axis occur in a fixed sequence which may be shown as -

$$\overrightarrow{l\ i\ p\ m}$$

If there are four elements in a verbal group (excluding the auxiliary, the emphasizor and the negator), then m must occur finally; p must precede m, and i must precede p; l, by definition, occurs initially. In other words, we have the lexical verb followed by the intensive followed by the passive

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[1] For 'conditioner', see Nida's "A Synopsis of English Syntax".

followed by the modalised verb.

Ex:

kha	lyya	ja	səkta	həy
l	i	p	m	a
kəh	dyya	ja	cwka	həy
l	i	p	m	a
khol	dyya	gəga	həy	
l	i	p	a	
kha	lyya	həy		
l	i	a		
khaya	həy			
l	a			
khaya				
l				
khaya	gəya			
l	p			
khata	gəya			
l	i			
kha	lyya	gəya		
l	i	p		
kha	lyya	ja	səkta	
l	i	p	m	
kha	lyya	ja	səkta	həy
l	i	p	m	a

Note: a = auxiliary.

5.15. The a-element:

The a-element is expounded by the class auxiliary of the unit word. The

auxiliary may, more delicately, be broken into the following secondary classes which are terms in the system of tense:

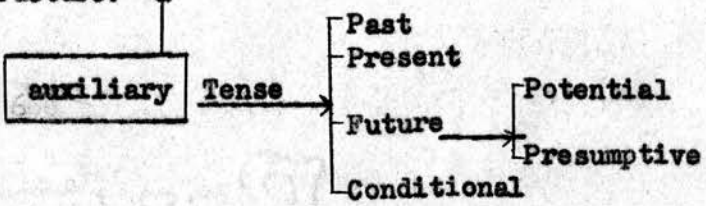
		Example
Past:		tha
Present:		həy
Future	Potential:	ho
	Presumptive:	hoga
Conditional:		hota

The future subdivides into: potential and presumptive. The presumptive is marked by the presence of -ga.

5.151. Subdivisions of the auxiliary:

Diagrammatically, the subdivisions of the auxiliary may be shown below -

Primary element of Verbal gp. structure: a



Secondary classes

5.16. Simplex and Complex 1

1 may be either simplex or complex. A simplex 1 is expounded by one lexical verb only: a complex 1 is expounded by two or more lexical verbs in a co-ordinative relationship to each other.[1]

	Example
Simplex 1	khaya (həy)
Complex 1	khaya əwr piya (həy)
	khaya - piya (həy)
	khaya ya piya (həy)

1. John T. Bendor-Samuel distinguishes two types of verbal head in his analysis of the verbal piece in Jebero. We quote: "Two types of verbal head are distinguished: simple and complex. A simple verbal head comprises one verb-form only. A compl ex verbal head comprises two or more verbs in a co-ordinative relationship to each other". - "The Verbal Piece In Jebero": Word Monograph No. 4, vol. 17 (Suppl.), 1961, p 41.

In the cases listed above we have one verbal group with a simplex or complex 1. This is different from having more than one verbal group in a co-ordinative relationship to each other.

pəɽha həy əwr lykha həy.

Here we have two verbal groups (in a relation of co-ordination) which are exponentially realized as one item operating at P in clause-structure.

5.17. The Negator:

The negator is that primary class of word which operates at n in the structure of the Verbal group. It has three exponents:

nə

nəhĩ

mət

Examples: nə jao (don't go)

nəhĩ jao (")

mət jao (")

nə appearing finally functions as exponent of a separate verbal group; it operates like the exponent of P in question-tags in English:

Examples: // twm jate ho, // nə //? (You are going, aren't you?)

In imperative clauses nə, nəhĩ, and mət normally precede the lexical verb. If the lexical verb is in the infinitive mode, the negator may follow it.

Ex: rwkna nəhĩ

rwkna mət.

mət is prohibitive, and is used only with the imperative and the infinitive. nə and nəhĩ can be used with the other modes as well.

5.18. The emphasizor:

The emphasizor is that class of word which operates at e in the structure of

the verbal group. It has three exponents:

hi

bhi

to

The emphasizors follow the element they emphasize.

Ex: mɛ̃y əbhi pəhwca hi tha ky..... (I had just arrived when.....)

mɛ̃y khata to hũ pər..... (I do eat but;;;;;;.....)

mɛ̃y gata bhi hũ (I sing too)

We can shift the place of the emphasizors:-

mɛ̃y ja hi rəha tha ky.....

mɛ̃y ja rəha hi tha ky.....

mɛ̃y ja rəha tha hi ky.....

5.19. Restrictions on the co-occurrence of the secondary classes of verb:

(a) The imperative, subjunctive (unmarked) and predictive forms cannot be followed by any other verbal form, that is, they appear finally in the verbal group.

(b) The item immediately preceding səkta, səka, cwkta, cwka and rəha (progressive) must be in the base form.

(c) The item immediately preceding cahta, caha, cahyye, pəɽta, pəɽa must be in the infinitive form.

(d) The item immediately preceding ləgta, ləga must be in the inflected infinitive form.

(e) The item immediately preceding rəhta must be in the imperfect form.

5.2. The systems of number, gender amd person as marked in v and a:

There are two terms in the system of number - singular and plural; two in that of gender - masculine and feminine; and three in that of person - first, second and third. These systems interlock and yield micro-classes. For example, tha is singular (in the system of number), masculine (in the system of

gender) and first person (in the system of person). These systems are marked by concordial relation with the nominal group at S in subjectival clause and at O in Objectival clauses.

Some of the verbal forms inflect for all the three systems, some for only two and some for none.

	Forms	Number	Gender	Person
	Imperative (base form)	x	x	x
	Infinitive	✓	✓	x
	Imperfect	✓	✓	✓
V	Perfect	✓	✓	✓
	Subjunctive (unmarked)	✓	x	✓
	Predictive	✓	✓	✓
	Past	✓	✓	✓
	Present	✓	x	✓
	Potential	✓	x	✓
A	Future			
	Presumptive	✓	✓	✓
	Conditional	✓	✓	✓

In feminine gender plurality is invariably marked in the bound morpheme (i.e. the suffix) which has nasality as its distinguishing phonological feature.

e.g.	Sing.	Plur.
	thi	thĩ
	khati	khatĩ

There is, however, one restriction. Nasality can be selected only once in the group and its carrier is the last element in the Verbal group.

Allen is right when discussing the categories of number and gender, he says: "The only place in the sentence where these categories are invariably and unambiguously marked for the direct case is in the verb, with its regular set of suffixes -

Sing.	Masc.	-a
	Fem.	-i
Plur.	Masc.	-e
	Fem.	-iŋ"[1]

The verbal forms display distinctions of number and gender without any ambiguity. All forms ending in -a are masculine singular, those ending in -i are feminine singular, those ending in -e are masculine plural and those ending in -ĩ are feminine plural.

5.3. The systems carried by the verbal group:

We have thus far examined the systems carried by the verb and the auxiliary. Now we would look at the systems carried by the verbal group as a whole.

5.31. The systems of finiteness:

There are two terms in it: finite and non-finite. The finite verbal group can but the non-finite cannot expound P in an independent clause structure. The non-finite is characterized further by its potentiality of co-occurring with hwa.

5.311. Subdivisions of the finite verbal group:

The finite verbal group may be subdivided into: tensed group and non-tensed group. The former can but the latter cannot co-occur with the exponents of tense.

5.3111:

The tensed group may, more delicately, be broken into: indicative and infinitive. Of the two, the former alone can select for aspect.

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1. W.S. Allen: A Study in the analysis of Hindi sentence-structure. (Acta Linguistica 1951, p 75)

This system may be labelled Mode I.

Ex: Indicative: khata hɵy (eats)

khaya hɵy (has eaten)

Infinitive: khana hɵy (has/have to eat)

5.3112:

The non-tensed group may be split up into: imperative and subjunctive. The main distinction between the two is that the subjunctive alone selects for 'number' and 'person'. This system may be labelled Mode II.

Ex: Imperative: khao (eat)

Subjunctive: khae (may eat), khaega (will eat)

5.31121. The system of honorifics:

The imperative verbal group breaks down into: honorific and non-honorific. The former alone can colligate with the honorific pronoun - 'ap'.

Ex: Honorific: lijye (please take)

Non-honorific: lo, le (take)

5.31122:

The subjunctive verbal group subdivides into: unmarked and predictive. The main distinction between the two is that the predictive verb operating in the predictive verbal group is marked by the presence of -ga.

Ex:

Subjunctive (unmarked): khae (may eat)

Predictive : khaega (will eat)

5.32. The system of aspect:

The indicative verbal group can select simultaneously from the systems of aspect and tense. The system of aspect has two terms: perfect and imperfect. In a perfect verbal group, v^{final} is expounded by a perfect verb; in an imperfect verbal group, v^{final} is expounded by an imperfect verb. It must be mentioned here that

the system of aspect has been set up to show selection relation or relation of mutual determination between the exponents of S and those of P in clause structure. The perfect verbal group may but the imperfect cannot co-occur with an ergative nominal group.

Ex: Perfect : khaya həy (has/have eaten)

Imperfect : khata rəh jata (goes on eating)

5.321. Subdivisions of the perfect group:

By taking a step in delicacy, the perfect may be subdivided into: ne-perfect and non-ne perfect. The distinction between the two is that the former alone can co-occur with the ergative nominal group.

Ex: ne-perfect : khaya, swna, kəha, kəh dyya.....

Non-ne-perfect: This group may be described as a group containing one or more of the non-ne-perfect verbs such as - səka, cwka, aya, bola, wʈha, bəɣʈha, gəya (non-passive), gəya (passive), hwa, rəha (non-progressive), pəʈa, laya.....

5.322: Subdivisions of the imperfect group:

The imperfect group breaks into the habitual and the progressive. The habitual is distinguished for entering into the system of modalization. The progressive is marked by the presence of the bound progressive verb - 'rəha'.

Ex: Habitual: khata (həy) (eats)

Progressive: kha rəha (həy) (is eating)

5.33. Modalised and non-modalised verbal groups:

The non-ne perfect and the habitual enter into the system of modalization which has two terms: modalised and non-modalised. Of the two secondary classes

the former is marked by the operation of a modalised verb at v^{final}.

Ex: Non-ne-perfect modalised: kha səka (could eat)
kha ɔwka (finished eating)

Non-ne-perfect non-modalised: bəytha (sat), bola (spoke/said),
aya (came), cəla gəya (went away)...

Habitual modalised: kha səkta (həy) (can eat)
kha ɔwkta (həy) (finishes eating)

Habitual non-modalised: khata (həy) (eats),
bolta (həy) (speaks).....

5.34. The system of tense:

The indicatives and the infinitives select for tense. The system of tense operates at a in verbal group structure. The terms in this system are:-

Past, Present, Future (Potential and Presumptiva), and Conditional.

Ex:

INDICATIVE

Past: khata tha, khaya tha, kha rəha tha.....

Present: khata həy, khaya həy, kha rəha həy.....

Future
- Potential: khata ho, khaya ho, kha rəha ho.....
- Presumptive: khata hoga, khaya hoga, kha rəha hoga.....

Conditional: khata hota, khaya hota, kha rəha hota.....

INFINITIVE

Past: khana tha

Present: khana həy

Future
- Potential: khana ho
- Presumptive: khana hoga

Conditional: khana hota.

5.341. The system of tense and the system of aspect in relation:

The terms in the systems of tense and aspect are combinable:

	Past	Present	Future Potential	Future Presumptive	Conditional
Perfect	khaya tha (had eaten)	khaya hɘy (has eaten)	khaya ho (may have eaten)	khaya hoga (must have eaten)	khaya hota (had (he) eaten)
Imperfect	khata tha (used to eat)	khata hɘy (eat)	khata ho (may be eating)	khata hoga (must be eating)	khata hota (had been eating)

5.35. The system of the non-finites:

The non-finite verbal group breaks down into the following secondary classes:-

(a) the Conjunctival: khakɘr (having eaten)

(b) the participial: the participial further breaks down into the perfect and the imperfect:

i) Perfect participial: khaya hwa (eaten)

ii) Imperfect participial: khata hwa (eating).

(c) the infinitival: khana (to eat)

5.36. The system of voice:

The system of voice is carried by the verbal group as a whole. It has two terms: active and passive. The former is marked by the non-presence and the latter by the presence of a passive verb. The passive verbal group is further characterized by its non-potentiality of operation at P in a perfect clause.

			Active	Passive
Indicative and Infinitive	Past:		khata tha	khaya jata tha
			khaya tha	khaya gəya tha
			kha rəha tha	khaya ja rəha tha
			khana tha	khaya jana tha
	Present		khata həy	khaya jata həy
			khaya həy	khaya gəya həy
			kha rəha həy	khaya ja rəha həy
	Future	Potential:	khana həy	khaya jana həy
		Potential:	khata ho	khaya jata ho
			khaya ho	khaya gəya ho
			kha rəha ho	khaya ja rəha ho
			khana ho	khaya jana ho
		Presumptive:	khata hoga	khaya jata hoga
			khaya hoga	khaya gəya hoga
			kha rəha hoga	khaya ja rəha hoga
			khana hoga	khaya jana hoga
	Conditional:		khata hota	khaya jata hota
			khaya hota	khaya gəya hota
			kha rəha hota	khaya ja rəha hota
			khana hota	khaya jana hota
	Imperative:		khao	khaya jao
	Subjunctive (unmarked):		khae	khaya jae
	Predictive:		khaega	khaya jaega

5.37. The system of polarity:

There are two terms - positive and negative. The former is marked by the absence and the latter by the presence of 'negator'.

Positive: khata həy, khaya həy.....

Active

Negative: nə/nəhĩ khata həy, ne/nəhĩ khaya həy.....

Positive: khaya jata həy, khaya gəya həy.....

Passive

Negative: nə/nəhĩ khaya jata həy, nə/nəhĩ khaya gəya həy.....

khaya nə/nəhĩ jata həy, khaya nə/nəhĩ gəya həy.....

With 'mət':

Positive: jao

Negative: mət jao.

5.38. The system of Contrastiveness:

The terms in the system of contrastiveness are: contrastive and non-contrastive. The contrastive is marked by the presence and the noncontrastive by the absence of emphasizor.

Ex: Non-contrastive: kha rəha tha.....

Contrastive: kha hi rəha tha.....

kha rəha hi tha.....

kha rəha tha hi.....

Non-contrastive: kha cwka tha.....

Active:

Contrastive: kha hi cwka tha.....

kha cwka hi tha.....

kha cwka tha hi.....

Passive: Non-contrastive: khaya ja cwka tha.....

Contrastive: khaya hi ja cwka tha.....

khaya ja hi cwka tha.....

khaya ja cwka hi tha.....

khaya ja cwka tha hi.....

5.4. Interlocking systems of number, gender and person:

The systems of number, gender and person are carried by the whole of the verbal group. though they are marked in v and a. These systems interlock and we have the following terms which are combinable.

Number: Singular and Plural

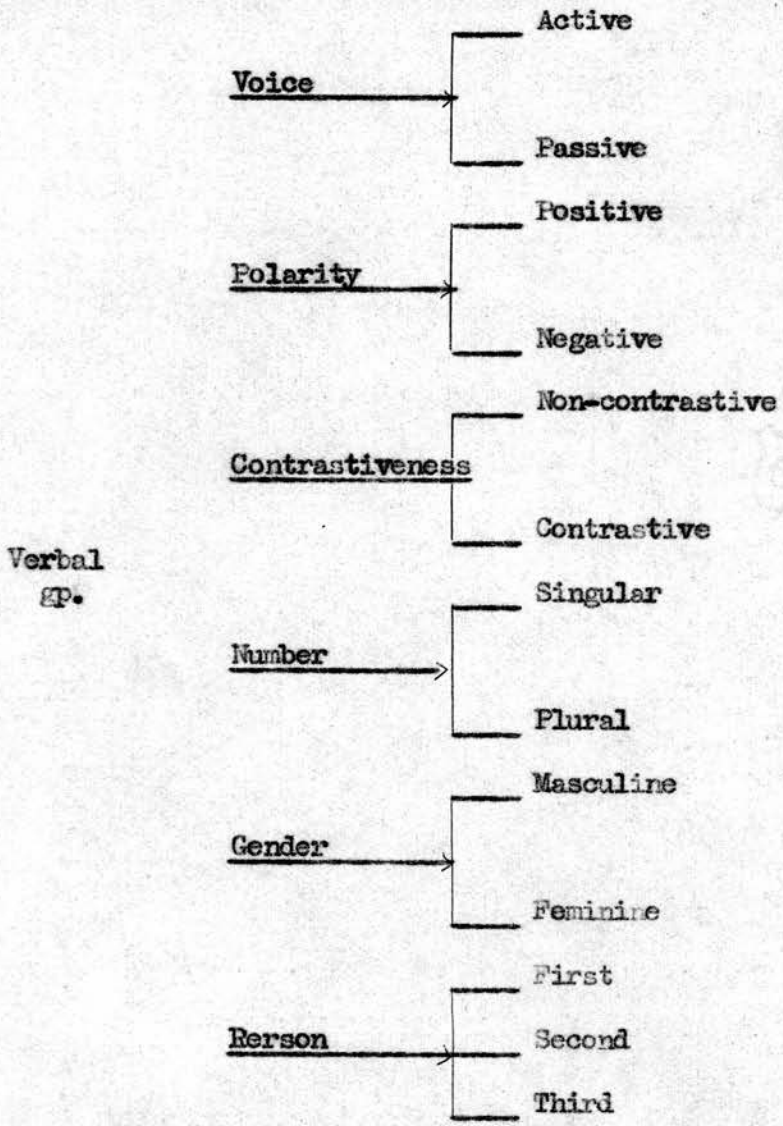
Gender: Masculine and Feminine

Person: First, Second and Third.

We may have the following micro-classes (as a result of the combination of terms in the three systems):-

				Examples
Masculine,	Singular,	first		khata tha
"	"	second		khata the
"	"	"	(honorific)	khata the
"	"	third		khata tha
Masculine,	Plural,	first		khata the
"	"	second		khata the
"	"	"	(honorific)	khata the
"	"	third		khata the
Feminine,	Singular,	first		khati thi
"	"	second		khati thi
"	"	"	(honorific)	khati thĩ
"	"	third		khati thi
Feminine,	Plural,	first		khati thĩ
"	"	second		khati thĩ
"	"	"	(honorific)	khati thĩ
"	"	third		khati thĩ

5.41. Diagrammatization of the systems carried by the verbal group:-



Note that the imperatives do not inflect for number, gender or person. For other restrictions see 5.2.

5.411. Exemplification:

We will analyse a few examples to illustrate some of the multidimensional secondary classes of the verbal group:

(i) khaya ja səkta həy.

Finite, Indicative, Imperfect (Habitual, modalised), present, passive, positive, non-contrastive, singular, masculine, third person.

(ii) kha hi nəhĩ rəha həy

Finite, indicative, imperfect (progressive, non-modalised), present, active, negative, contrastive (emphatic), singular, masculine, third person.

(iii) jao

Finite, imperative, non- honorific, active, positive, non-contrastive.

(iv) khani hogi

Finite, infinitive, future (presumptive), active, positive, non-contrastive, singular, feminine.

(v) khaya hi nəhĩ ja səkega.

Finite, subjunctive (predictive), passive, negative, contrastive (emphatic), singular, masculine, third person.

5.5. Concord within the verbal group:

		Past	Present	Future		Conditional
				Potential	Presumptive	
Masc.	Sing.	khata tha	khata hũ	khata hoũ	khata hoũga/hũga	khata hota
	Plur.	khate the	khate həy	khate hõ	khate hõge	khate hote
Fem.	Sing.	khati thi	khati hũ	khati hoũ	khati hũgi	khati hoti
	Plur.	khati thi	khati həy	khati hõ	khati hõgi	khati hotĩ

		Past	Present	Future		Conditional
				Potential	Presumptive	
Masc.	Sing.	khate the	khate ho	khate ho	khate hoga	khate hote
	(Honorific:	khate the	khate hə̃y	khate hõ	khate hõga	khate hote)
	Plur.	khate the	khate ho	khate ho	khate hoge	khate hote
	(Honorific:	khate the	khate hə̃y	khate hõ	khate hõge	khate hote)
Second						
Fem.	Sing.	khati thi	khati ho	khati ho	khati hogi	khati hoti
	(Honorific:	khati thĩ	khati hə̃y	khati hõ	khati hõgi	khati hotĩ
	Plur.	khati thĩ	khati hõ	khati hõ	khati hõgi	khati hotĩ
	(Honorific:	khati thĩ	khati hə̃y	khati hõ	khati hõgi	khati hotĩ
Masc.	Sing.	khata tha	khata hə̃y	khata ho	khata hoga	khata hota
	Plur.	khate the	khate hə̃y	khate hõ	khate hõge	khate hote
Third						
Fem.	Sing:	khati thi	khati hə̃y	khati ho	khati hogi	khati hoti
	Plur.	khati thĩ	khati hə̃y	khati hõ	khati hõgi	khati hotĩ.

Note that the present and the future potential do not inflect for gender.

5.6 Morphology of the lexical verb:

Since we are not going to have a separate chapter on word structure, we propose to discuss here certain aspects of verb-morphology.

5.61. Causative and non-causative verbs:

The lexical verb may be causative or non-causative. The causative may be simple or extended. It is to be noted here that the causative - non-cuasative choice can be made at 1 and at 1 alone.

Normally, the simple causative is formed by adding the bound morpheme -a to the stem of the verb, and the extended by adding va.

Ex:	Stem (Non-causative)	Simple causative	extended causative
	pəʈh	pəʈha	pəʈhva
	cəl	cəla	cəlva

Now we may write these in their infinitive forms:-

Ex:	Non-causative	Simple causative	Extended causative
	pəɽhna (to read)	pəɽhana (to teach)	pəɽhvana (to cause to be taught)
	cəlna	cəlana	cəlvana
	jəlna	jəlana	jəlvana
	ɖərna (to fear, to be afraid)	ɖərana (to frighten)	ɖərvana (to cause to be frightened)
	jəgna	jəgana	jəgvana
	kərna	kərana	kərvana

There are other forms which do not follow this normal pattern.

Ex:	Non-causative	Simple causative	Extended causative
	sona (to sleep)	swlana (to put to sleep)	swlvana (to cause to be put to sleep)
	dekhna (to see)	dykhana (to show)	dykhvana (to cause to be shown)
	khana (to eat)	khylana (to feed)	khylvana (to cause to be fed)

.....

5.62. The compound lexical verb:

The stem of the lexical verb may be simple or compound. In a compound stem, one of the components may be a nominal element (i.e. a noun or an adjective).

Simple stem: kha (eat)

Compound stem: svikar kər (accept)

The compound lexical verb may be defined as that lexical verb which has a compound stem of the type listed above. The 'nominal' member of the compound differs from the elements of nominal group structure in respect of three features:

i) it cannot take any postpositive particles,

ii) it doesnot participate in any concordial relation with the verbal elements,

iii) it cannot be preceded by d^{pp} or d^{pg}.

Ex:

	S	O	P	
(a)	mə̃yne	twmhara prəstav	svikar kyya	(I accepted your proposal)
	S	O	P	
(b)	mə̃y ne	cor ko	kchəma kyya	(I forgave the thief)
	S	O	P	
(c)	wsne	mytrəko	byda kyya	(He saw the friend off)

In (a) "svikar kyya" is exponent of a 'compound lexical verb'. 'svikar' cannot take verbal suffixes like -ta or -ya or -e or -ega or -na. It can neither be preceded by a modifier nor suffixed by a postpositive particle. Further, it does not participate in any concordial relation with the verb.

We cannot say-

*mə̃yne twmhara prəstav swndər svikar kyya.

(i.e. we cannot insert a 'modifier')

*mə̃yne twmhara prəstav svikar ko kyya.

(i.e. we cannot insert a postpositive particle).

It is clear that in the given environment 'svikar' cannot on its own expound a group. Infact, 'svikar' is a constituent of the compound stem of the lexical verb. In 'svikar kyya', 'svikar kər' is the stem and -ya is the morphemic exponent of the perfect aspect.

Bailey has explained this problem rather vaguely. He says: "The two are joined so clearly as to become one word and the gender of the noun does not matter".[1] Kellogg has explained it in notional terms. According to him, "sometimes a substantive or adjective is so combined with a verb as to form, conjointly with it, but one conception. Such combinations as these have been called Nominal Compounds".[2] It is difficult to operate with such notional explanations. We can,

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1. T. Grahame Bailey: Teach yourself Hindustani: p 80.
2. Rev. S.H. Kellogg A Grammar of the Hindi Language p 271. (1893)

however, explain these compounds formally. Let us consider the following clauses:-

	S	O	P	
i)	mə̃y ne	wski	bate̋ svikar	kĩ (I accepted his facts/words).
	S	O	P	
ii)	mə̃y ne	wski	prəʃə̃sa	ki (I praised him)
	S	O	P	
or,	mə̃yne	wski	kəhani	swni (I heard his story)

Both (i) and (ii) are objectival clauses: there is number-gender concord between the exponents of O and P. In (i) svikar cannot take any modifier or postpositive particle; it does not enter into any concordial relation with kĩ. We therefore cannot call it an exponent of O. Infact, it is a component of the verbal group. In (ii) prəʃə̃sa has a pre-head modifier: 'wski'. There is number-gender concord between wski and prəʃə̃sa. Further, there is concordial relation between prəʃə̃sa and ki. It is claar then that wski prəʃə̃sa is an exponent of O, and not a component of the verbal group. We agree with Burton-Page on this point. While discussing this problem, he says: "but if 'prəʃə̃sa kərna' is regarded as NV, how is wski to be regarded? To consider the group "wski prəʃə̃sa kərna" as NV would involve the proliferation of such verbs to the point of absurdity..... If, on the otherhand, wski were regarded as constituting N_2 by itself, this would imply that the relationship between wski and prəʃə̃sa were different from that between wski and kəhani. This cannot be justified. It is therefore suggested that the type be analysed as

N_1	N_2	V
mə̃yne /	wski prəʃə̃sa /	ki

and that the question of 'prəʃə̃sa kərna' being considered as NV does not arise".[1]

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1. J. Burton-Page: Compound and Conjunct verb in Hindi: p 477 (BSOAS, vol. 19, 1957).

Examples of the compound lexical verb:

(a) with 'kərna'

svikar kərna (to accept)

kchəma kərna (to forgive)

arəmbh kərna (to begin)

prem kərna (to love)

pyar kərna (")

yad kərna (to remember)

byda kərna (to see off)

khəɽa kərna (to stand)

prapt kərna (to obtain)

pəsə̃d kərna (to approve, to select)

səhən kərna (to tolerate)

nəʂt kərna (to destroy)

grəhəɳ kərna (to accept)

.....

(b) with 'hona'

yad hona (to happen to remember)

pəta hona (to happen to know)

sə̃toʂ hona (to feel satisfied)

dwkh hona (to feel unhappy)

səmapt hona (to be completed)

.....

(c) with 'dena' or 'pəɽna'

dykhai dena/pəɽna (to come into view, to be seen)

swnai dena/pəɽna (to be heard)

.....

5.621. Lexical verb types:

The lexical verb types may be shown in the following two-dimensional matrix (Note the imperfect form has been taken just as an illustration).

		NON-CAUSATIVE	CAUSATIVE	
			SIMPLE	EXTENDED
SIMPLE		khata	khylata	khylvata
COMP-OUND	NON-NOMINAL	khata-pita	khylata-pylata	khylvata-pylvata
	NOMINAL	svikar kərta	svikar kərata	svikar kərvata

5.7. Morphology of the "perfect verb":

This again is word-morphology - morphology of the perfect verb. The general rule is that if the stem has a final consonant, we add -a to it; if it has a final vowel, we add -ya to it.

Stem	Perfect
pəʈh (read)	pəʈha (read)
kha (eat)	khaya (ate)
bəyʈh (sit)	bəyʈha (sat)
dəwʈ (run)	dəwʈa (ran)
hə̃s (laugh)	hə̃sa (laughed)
la (bring)	laya (brought)

5.71. The Irregular verbs:

The following verbs, however, undergo internal changes before taking the

perfect suffix. (Traditionally, they are known as irregular verbs) -

Infinitive	Stem (or base form)	Perfect
jana (to go)	ja	gɵya (went)
lena (to take)	le	lyya (took)
dena (to give)	de	dyya (gave)
pina (to drink)	pi	pyya (drank)
kɵrna (to do)	kɵr	kyya (did)
ana (to come)	a	aya (came)

5.8. Morphemic exponents of number, person, gender and tense:

The following diagram shows the intersecting systems of number, person, gender and tense as marked in the structure of the verb and the auxiliary.

			VERB (alone)	AUXILIARY				
				PAST	PRESENT	FUTURE POTENTIAL	FUTURE PRESUMPTIVE	CONDITIONAL
FIRST	MAS.	SING.	-a	-a	-ũ	-ũ/oũ	-ũga	-a
		PLU.	-e	-e	-ɵ̃y	-ɔ̃	-õge	-e
	FEM.	SING.	-i	-i	-ũ	-ũ/oũ	-ũgi	-i
		PLU.	-ĩ	-ĩ	-ɵ̃y	-õ	-õgi	-ĩ
SECOND	MAS.	SING.	-e	-e	-o	-o	-oge	-e
		PLU.	-e	-e	-o	-o	-oge	-e
	FEM.	SING.	-i	-i	-o	-o	-ogi	-i
		PLU.	-ĩ	-ĩ	-õ	-õ	-õgi	-ĩ
THIRD	MASC.	SING.	-a	-a	-ɵy	-o	-oga	-a
		PLU.	-e	-e	-ɵ̃y	-õ	-õge	-e
	FEM.	SING.	-i	-i	-ɵy	-o	-ogi	-i
		PLU.	-ĩ	-ĩ	-ɵ̃y	-õ	-õgi	-ĩ

5.9. An illustration of the successor forms in the Hindi verbal group:

khao khae khaega				
khana khata khaya	həy			
khana	pəɽta hota....			
khata	rəhta jata hota			
khaya	jata gəya			
kha	lena leta lyya səkta səka cwka jata gəya rəha	həy		
khaya	ja	səkta səka cwkta cwka rəha	həy	
khata	rəh	jata gəya		
kha	lyya	ja	səkta səka cwkta cwka rəha	həy

CHAPTER VI

The Adverbial Group.

CHAPTER VI

6.1. DEFINITION:

The adverbial group is that primary class of the unit group which operates at A in clause structure. By this we do not mean that the class 'adverbial' of the unit group stands in one/one relation to the element A of clause structure; for A may be expounded by the class 'nominal' of the unit group. We have also seen in our description of the nominal group that the adverbial group may be rank-shifted to the status of submodifier in nominal group structure.

e.g. səbse swndər ləṛki ((the) most beautiful girl)

Here 'səbse' which is an exponent of an adverbial group is operating as a submodifier in nominal group structure.

6.2. Primary structure of the adverbial group:

In Hindi the adverbial group, like the nominal group, has H-type structure. We may therefore use the same symbols to describe its conflated primary structure.

6.21. The primary elements of adverbial group structure:

The primary elements of adverbial group structure may be said to be m (modifier), h (head) and e (emphasizor). These elements are expounded by different primary classes of the unit: word. The primary structure of the adverbial group may now be generalized formulaically:-

$$\overrightarrow{(m)\quad h} \quad (e)$$

m and e are optional; they may or may not be present. h is obligatory. The arrow indicates that m and h are in fixed sequence. e is outside the arrow which means that it is not sequence-bound. It can occur after m or after h. It cannot be group-initiator.

6.22. Possible combinations of primary elements:

	Structure	Example
One element	h	əb (now)
		yəhã (here)
		vəhã (there)
		phəltəh (consequently)
		əkəsmat (suddenly)
		dhire se (slowly)
		kyõ ky (because)
		ʃighrəta se (quickly)
		.....
two elements	mh	m h bəhwt jəldi (very soon)
		m h bylkwl əcanək (quite suddenly)
		m h ys peʈ ke nice (under this tree)
		m h yske bad (after this)
		m h mez ke upər (on the table)
		m h mere ləʈke ke lye (for my son)
		.....

	Structure	Example
	he	h e jəldi mẽ hi (really in haste)
		h e ʃighrəta se hi
		h e vəhã sə hi
		.....

	Structure	Example
		m e h
Three elements	meh	bəhwt hi dhirese (very slowly indeed)
		m e h
		bylkwl hi pas (very near)
		m h e
	mhe	bylkwl əcanək hi
		m h e
		bylkwl pas hi
		m h e
		wske age hi
		m h e
		mere ləṛke ke lyye bhi

6.3. The h-element:

h is that primary element of adverbial group structure which is expounded by the primary class "adverbial" of the unit word. We may define "adverbial" as that class of word which operates as head of an adverbial group. There is yet another way of defining h - h is that primary element which can expound the simple (i.e. one-element) structure of the adverbial group.

6.31. Subdivisions of the adverbials:

By taking a step in delicacy, we may subdivide the adverbials into adverbs and conjunctions. The main distinction between the two is that the former may but the latter may not be suffixed by postpositions.

Ex: adverb: dhire se (slowly), ʃighrə (soon).....

conjunction: əwr (and), kyntw (but), kyõky (because).....

6.311. Subdivisions of adverb:

Adverbs break into: substantives and pro-adverbs. Substantives may but the pro-adverbs may not be modified.

6.3111. Adverb (substantives):

Adverb (substantive) is that secondary class of adverb which can co-occur

with pre-head modifiers and be suffixed by postpositions.

Ex: h

jəldi mẽ (in a hurry)

m h
bəhwt jəldi (very soon)

m h
bəhwt jəldi mẽ (in a great hurry)

h
bad mẽ (afterwards)

m h
yske bad (after this)

m h
wske piche (behind that)

.....

The exponent of h in all these cases is adverb (substantive).

6.3112. Reduplication:

Adverb (substantives) may be reduplicated or reiterated.

Ex: jəldi-jəldi (Quickly)

ʃnəyh-ʃnəyh (gradually)

dhire-dhire (slowly)

ʈhik-ʈhik (exactly)

Reduplication is a marked feature of words in Hindi. Nouns, verbs, adverbs - may all be repeated to denote contextually repetition, distribution, variety, intensity or continuance. Words are reduplicated in two ways:

i) by repetition of the same word e.g. jəldi-jəldi

ii) by addition of a rhyming or jingling word: e.g. ʈhik-ʈhak, dhire-vire,

6.3113:

The following items have been traditionally treated as postpositions:-

əndər (within, in)

age (in front of)

piche (behind)

nice (below)

aspas (around)

bahər (outside)

pəhle (before)

par (across)

byna (without)

bədle (instead of)

vyrwdh (against)

vyprit (contrary to)

ənwsar (according to)

samne (in front of)

upər (above)

pas (near)

bic (middle)

bhitər (within, in)

bad (after)

sath (with)

karəɳ (because of)

bhãty/tərəh (like)

dvara (through, by means of)

nykəṭ (near)

lyye (for)

səman (equal to, like)

.....

One of the reasons why they have been treated as postpositions is, we guess, that they have prepositions or prepositional phrases as their translation equivalents

in English. We would, however, treat them as adverbs (substantives) on purely formal grounds. Like other adverbs (substantives), they can be suffixed by postpositions and can also be preceded by modifiers. Like other adverbs (substantives), they too do not inflect for number and gender.

For example, <u>nice</u> (below) is listed under postpositions/prepositions in traditional grammars, but it is in no way different from other adverbs. It can be preceded by a modifier:

$d^{p^{g}}$ h
peɽ ke nice (under a tree)

It may be suffixed by a postposition:

$d^{p^{g}}$ h
peɽ ke nice se (from under a tree)

We would analyse the following like other adverbial groups:-

$d^{p^{g}}$ h
məkan ke age (in front of the house)

$d^{p^{g}}$ h
kəmrẽ ke əndər (in the room)

$d^{p^{g}}$ h
ʃəhər ke nykəʈ (near the city)

$d^{p^{g}}$ h
mez ke nice (under the table)

$d^{p^{g}}$ h
gãv ke səmip (near the village)

$d^{p^{g}}$ h
əpne mytrə ke sath (with your friend)

$d^{p^{g}}$ h
nədi ke par (across the river)

d^{pg} h
dekhne ke liyye (in order to see)

d^{pg} h
ghər ke bahər (outside the house)

d^{pp} h
twmhare bad (after you)

d^{pg} h
ghər ke piche (behind the house)

d^{pg} h
twmhare məkan ki or (in the direction of your house)

d^{pg} h
twmhari agyã ke ənwsar (according to your orders)

d^{pg} h
ghər ke aspas (round about the house)

d^{pg} h
jvər ke karəɳ (because of fever)

It may be noted here that normally these adverbs are preceded by a possessive deictic (either genitival or personal possessive).

6.312. The pro-adverbs:

The pro-adverb is that secondary class of adverb which may not be preceded by submodifiers such as bəhwt, ətyət, ədhyk etc. It enters simultaneously into two different but interlinked systems:-

System (a): Postpositional and non-postpositional

System (b): Relative, interrogative and unmarked

Combining the terms in the two systems, we have:

1. Relative postpositionals (jəb) jəbse, jəbtək
(jəhã) jəhã se, jəhã tək
(jydhər) jydhər se, jydhər tək

RELATIVE

	2. Relative nonpostpositional:	jəyse
		jyõ
	3. Interrogative postpositional:	(kəb) kəb se, kəb tək
		(kəhã) kəha se, kəhã tək
INTERROGATIVE		(kydhər) kydhər se, kydhər tək
	4. Interrogative nonpostpositional:	kəyse
		kyõ
	5. Unmarked postpositional:	(əb) əbse, əbtək
		(yəhã) yəhã se, yəhã tək
UNMARKED		(ydhər) ydhər se, ydhər tək
	6. Unmarked nonpostpositional:	əyse
		yõ

6.3121. The relative pro-adverb:

The relative pro-adverb operates in adverbial groups at A^R in dependent relative clauses.

6.3122. The interrogative pro-adverb:

The interrogative pro-adverb operates in adverbial groups at $A^?$ in clause structure.

6.3123. The unmarked pro-adverb:

The unmarked pro-adverb operates in adverbial groups at $A^{\not R}$ / $A^{\not ?}$ in clause structure.

6.313. Conjunction:

Conjunction is that secondary class of the adverbials which may neither be suffixed by postpositions nor preceded by modifiers. We subdivide conjunctions

into:

Linkers
and
Binders

6.3131. The Linkers:

The linkers may be grouped into the following classes depending on whether they operate in adverbial groups at fixed place(s) in clause structure or not (see 3.931 in the chapter on the clause).

(a) Fixed-place linkers

əwr	
əvəm	(and)
təthə	
və	
ya	
əthva	(or)
va	
pər	
pərəntw	
kyntw	
vərəɳ	(but)
lekyn	
bəlky	
məgər	
to	(then)
phyr	(then)
təthapy	(yet)
ətəh	(therefore)
ətəyv	

(b) Non-fixed-place linkers

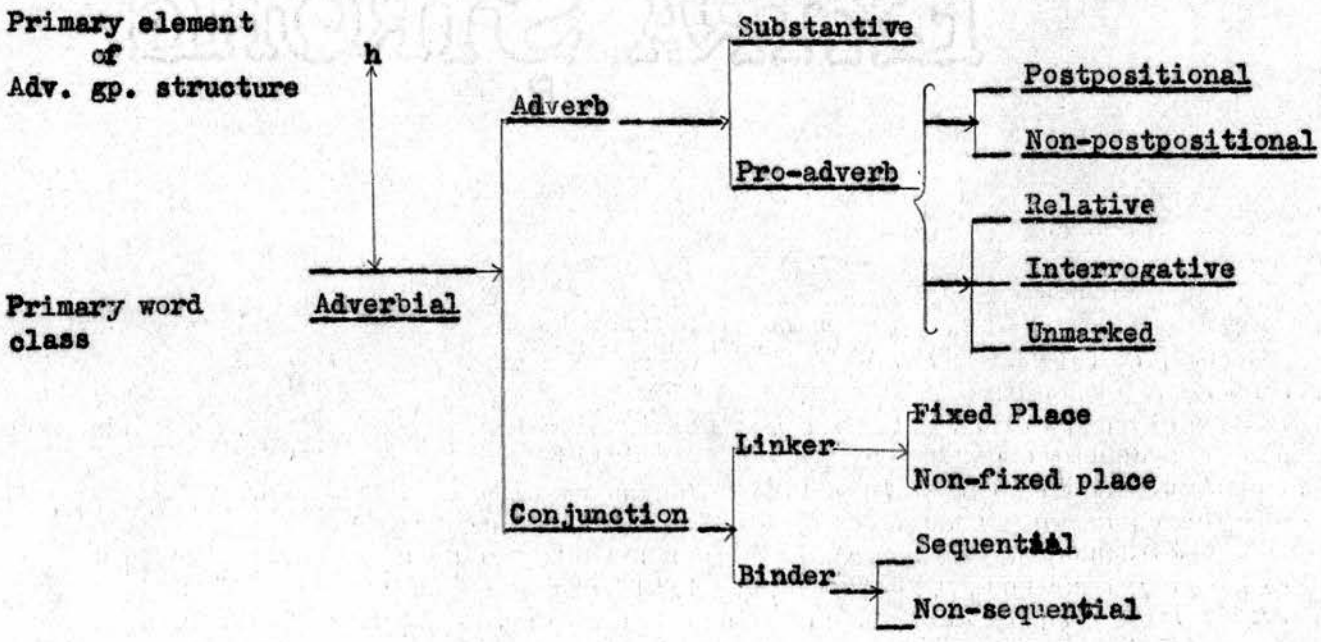
PHyrbhi	(even then)
tɘwbhi	(")
yslye	(therefore)

6.3132. The Binders:

The binders may be grouped into the following classes depending on whether they can operate in adverbial groups in sequential dependent clause or not. (see 3.931 in the chapter on the clause).

(a)	Sequential:	ky	(that)
(b)	Non-sequential:	yɘdy	(if)
		ɘgɘr	
		kyõky	(because)
		yɘdyɘpy	(although)

6.32. Diagrammatically the subdivisions of the adverbial may be shown as below:



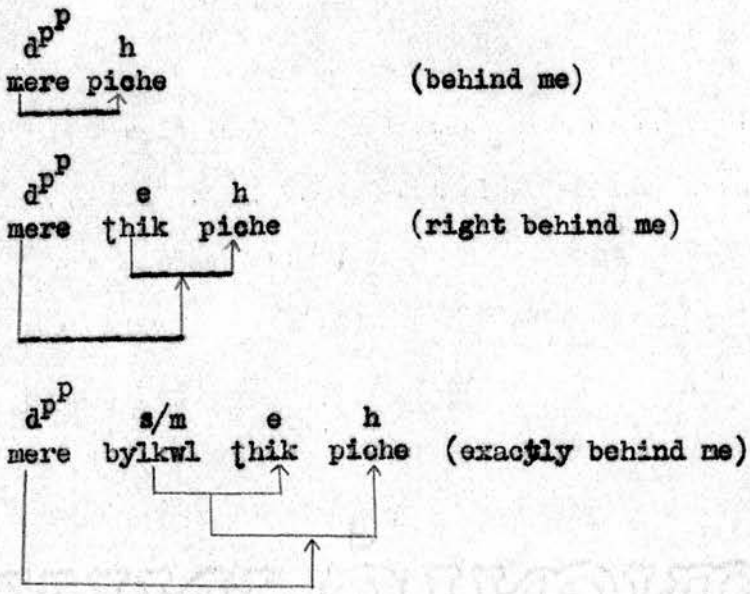
Secondary word classes

6.4. The modifier:

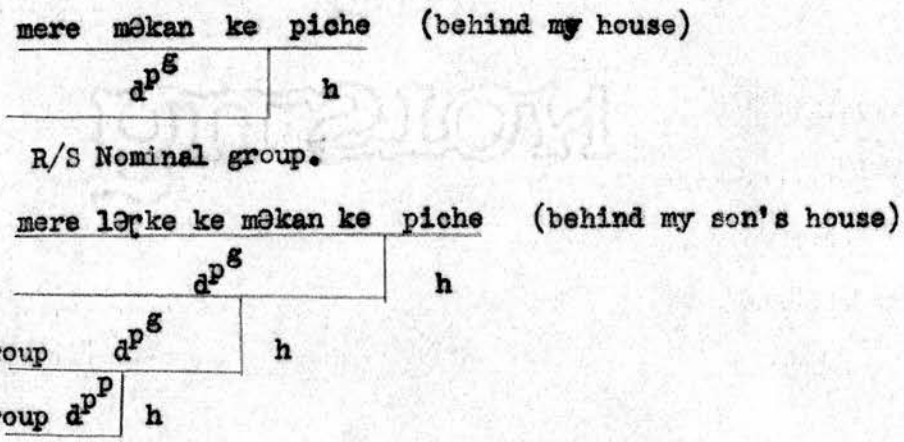
We have already discussed the modifier and its exponents in our description

of the nominal group. We have also seen how an exponent of m may be repeated 'in depth'. We would now look at a few examples of modifiers operating in adverbial group structure.

Non-rankshifted:



Rankshifted:



6.5. The emphasizor:

We have already examined the operation of the emphasizor in our description of the nominal group and the verbal group. The same formal items operate as emphasizors in adverbial group structure.

Ex:

h e
nyʃcəy hi (certainly)

h e
əvəʃyə hi (surely)

h e
phyr bhi (even then)

PART III

"The transference of grammatical categories is a dead horse no longer to be flogged".

(M.A.K. Halliday: Some aspects of systematic description and comparison in Grammatical Analysis: p 57)

CHAPTER VII

A Brief Comparison Of The Hindi And English Verbal Groups

CHAPTER VII

7.1. General:

In this part we propose to present a systemic comparison of the Hindi and English verbal groups. Such a comparison involves systematization of similarities which presupposes rigorous description of the structures, classes and systems of the verbal group in each of the two languages followed by identification of the categories set up for one language with those of the other. The term 'systemic' needs some clarification here. By systemic comparison we mean confronting via translation-equivalence systems (and consequently terms in systems) set up separately in the description of two or more languages. "Here the instantial correspondence of items (categories or exponents) in texts are generalized as potential correspondences (with or without further specifications of relative frequencies) of terms in systems, e.g. "to I as a term in a five-term system of personal pronouns corresponds je as a term in a six-term system", "to he as a term in a three-term system of natural gender (or four-term system of natural gender and number in third person) corresponds partly il as a term in a two-term system of grammatical gender (or four-term system of grammatical gender and number in third person)".[1]

7.11. Descriptive Categories:

The verbal group is a descriptive category. Descriptive categories are peculiar to each individual language. Theoretical categories (like unit, structure, class, system), on the other hand, are universal. We derive our descriptive categories - categories for describing a particular language - with reference to the theoretical categories. The clause in Hindi, for example, is a

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1. J. Ellis: Towards a theory of (general) comparative linguistics: 1.2112. (To be published by Mouton and Co.).

particular instance of the theoretical category: UNIT; the verbal group is a particular instance of the theoretical category: CLASS. The 'clauseness' of the Hindi clause does not derive form the theory of grammar; it is a peculiar feature of Hindi.[1] Every language, in this sense, is sui generis - its categories being defined in terms of relations holding within the language itself. We might find, what Nida calls, 'noun-like and verb-like' words in all languages of the world but this does not imply that the formal meaning - which by definition is always intralinguistic[2] - of the class of word 'noun' in two or more languages is the same. We may find it terminologically economical to give the same label 'verb' to a class of word in two or more languages, but this is not a universal statement. 'The verb is redefined in the description of each language".[3] Infact, no descriptive category in any one language is exactly paralleled in any other.[4] It is therefore quite illegitimate to identify a category in one language with a category in another simply because we happen to call them both 'passive' or 'perfective'. "The problem", says Allen, "is to establish a framework of grammatical analysis within which categories set up for one language can be rigorously identified with those set up for another language,

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1. R.H. Robins: "classification and categories made wholly in formal terms are of necessity peculiar to each language, and cannot of themselves lay claim to kinship with the formal categories of other languages".
(Noun and verb in Universal Grammar: Language: vol. 28, no. 3, 1952: p 293)

2. On 'formal meaning', see Halliday's Categories: p 244; also Ellis' "On Contextual Meaning" (Mimeographed)
(To be published in Firth Memorial Volume).

3. Halliday: Systematic Description and Comparison In Grammatical Analysis: p 57
(Studies in Linguistic Analysis, 1957).
" : "The naming of a grammatical category does not imply its identification with a homonymous category set up in the description of other languages".
("Secret History": p 68).

4. "Although we must draw upon a common stock of grammatical terms, that does not imply the recognition of grammatical universals. On the contrary, the grammatical forms of a language are never in strict sense precisely paralleled in another language". (Quoted by Firth in "Philology in the Philological Society: TPS 1956: p 17)

and so given the same label. Without such a framework there is the danger that the same term (e.g. "ablative" or "perfect") may be given to functionally incomparable categories (or comparable only in a vague or notional manner)".[1]

7.12. A single set of comparative descriptive categories:

Our view is that it is possible to confront the descriptive categories set up for one language with those of another. We do subscribe to the view that grammatical (descriptive) categories are abstractions from the paradigmatic and syntagmatic inter-relationships of the forms of a particular language, but once two or more languages have been separately described, and categories set up for them, we can, for purposes of comparison, draw a single set of categories from the separate description of each. According to Robins, "When word-classes have been designated noun and verb etc. in the grammatical structure of two or more languages, valid comparisons can, of course, be made between the intra-linguistic meaning of a word-class within the structure of one language and the intra-linguistic meaning of a similarly designated word-class in another language. But such comparisons must be operationally subsequent to the designation of the classes to be compared and cannot be the basis for such designation".[2]

7.13. The problem of identifying descriptive categories as comparable:

But the question arises of identifying descriptive categories as comparable. Unless we establish the comparability of these categories, We cannot conflate them into a single set of comparative descriptive categories for showing likeness and unlikeness between any two languages. According to Allen "there is the theoretical possibility of an identification via situational-contextual

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1. W.S. Allen: Statement for the Conference on Archiving: IJAL, vol. 20, no. 2, 1954, p 84.
2. R.H. Robins: Noun and Verb in Universal Grammar: Language 28, No. 3, 1952: p 297 f.n. 43.

criteria".[1] "Allen limits grammatical terms comparable by available methods to those where the identificatory function is non-grammatical (e.g. personal pronouns)",[2] but Halliday holds that Allen's method can infact be extended to other grammatical terms. He has shown "the actual possibility of comparing grammatical terms in themselves not identifiable except grammatically, by the non-grammatical identification (ultimately by context of situation, as required by Allen) of the totality, piece by piece, of their linguistic context".[3] Our view is that we give the same designation or label to categories in two different languages if they are sufficiently alike in meaning. Surely contextual meaning[4] has priority over formal meaning here. Any comparison of formal meaning(s) of items in two or more languages presupposes their relation to identical extralinguistic situation. "Comparison of formal meaning, says Ellis, "is ultimately dependent upon some identification other than formal, since this by definition is always intralinguistic, whereas contextual meaning relates to extralinguistic situation".[5]

7.14. Translation - an instance of comparative descriptive lingusitics:

Translation can provide a means of showing eqivalence between textual items in two or more languages according as they operate in similar situations and

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1. W.S. Allen: Relationship in Comparative Linguistics: TPS, 1953: p 100.
2. J. Ellis: Some Problems in Comparative Linguistics: p 55;
(Proceddings of the University of Durham Philosophical Society: Volume 1, No. 7 Series B (Arts): 1961)
3. J. Ellis: General Linguistics and Comparative Philology: p 167.
(Lingua: vol. 7, No. 2, March, 1958).
4. "Contextual meaning relates form to situation. Unlike phonological and formal meaning, then, it is a relation not within a level (or, in the case of phonology, interlevel), but between levels (across the interlevel of context) - it can ofcourse be formulated as a network of relations within context, systemic (paradigmatic) and structural (syntagmatic) ones of the formal meaning type, but what is important is that this network is determined, not within the level (or interlevel) as formal meaning is, but by the joint action of formal distinctions (independently established in the statement by formal analysis) and the situational differentiations to which they relate".
(J. Ellis: On Contextual Meaning: p 2).
5. J. Ellis: Towards A Theory Of (General) Comparative Linguistics: 2.1
(To be published by Mouton & Co.).

divide up the contextual meaning. 'Translation' has been used here to mean "the replacement of textual material in one language (SL) by equivalent textual material in another language (TL)".[1] Taken together the two texts may be said to constitute a type of comparative description of the two languages. Translation, in so far as it shows a certain type of relation between languages, may be regarded as a special instance of comparative descriptive linguistics.

7.15:

In the following sections we are going to compare via translation the verbal group categories in English and Hindi, the former being the SL, the latter the TL. We must make it clear here that we are not comparing the two languages as a whole rather we are comparing structures, classes and systems of the verbal groups. "When we compare two languages we cannot link the languages as a whole; we select for comparison items from within them - and not only items, of course, but abstract categories (classes, structures, and so on) of which the items are "exponents".[2]

7.16. Source Materials:

We are using two bodies of source material for bringing the Hindi and English Verbal groups into relation. Firstly, we have actual translation[3] - texts in the two languages, the one ("ws rat ke bad") being translated from the other ("The End of The Affair"). These texts display probabilities of equivalence between items occurring in them.[4] Secondly, we have described the

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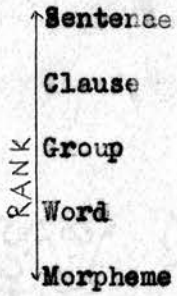
1. J.C. Catford: A Linguistic Theory Of Translation: p 26.
(Mimeographed: 1963 To be published by O.U.P.)
(Note: SL = Source language; TL = Target language)
2. M.A.K. Halliday: Linguistics and Machine Translation: p 150
(Zeitschrift für Phonetik, Band 15, 1962, Heft 1/2)
3. Our assumption is that i) the translation is adequate for purposes of comparison ii) and the translator provides (within limits) a situation common to the two languages.
4. For present purposes we assume that language a (English) translated into language b (Hindi) can be regarded as languages a and b in correspondence.

verbal group in the two languages within the general framework of the same theory. This means that the forms of the two languages have been presented in terms of the same general linguistic categories, unit, structure, class and system.

7.17. Formal correspondence between the hierarchies of units:

In our description of English as of Hindi we need to recognise five units hierarchically ranged on a rankscale. We may once again call these units, in descending taxonomic order, Sentence, Clause, Group, Word, Morpheme.



The relation among the units (in both the languages) is that, going from the top (largest) to the bottom (smallest), the structure of each unit has as elements exponents of the unit next below. "We can reasonably say that there is formal correspondence between the two hierarchies of units: each has the same number of ranks, as (taxonomic) hierarchies each has the same kind of relationship between units of the different ranks. Having established such a highly abstract correspondence, we may use this as a frame of reference for stating approximate correspondence at lower abstractional level: e.g. we may talk of formal correspondence between SL and TL elements of structure operating at 'corresponding' ranks".[1] By a formal correspondent we mean "any TL category (unit, class, structure, element of structure, etc.) which can be said to occupy, as nearly as possible, the 'same' place in the 'economy' of the TL as the given SL category occupies in the SL".[2]

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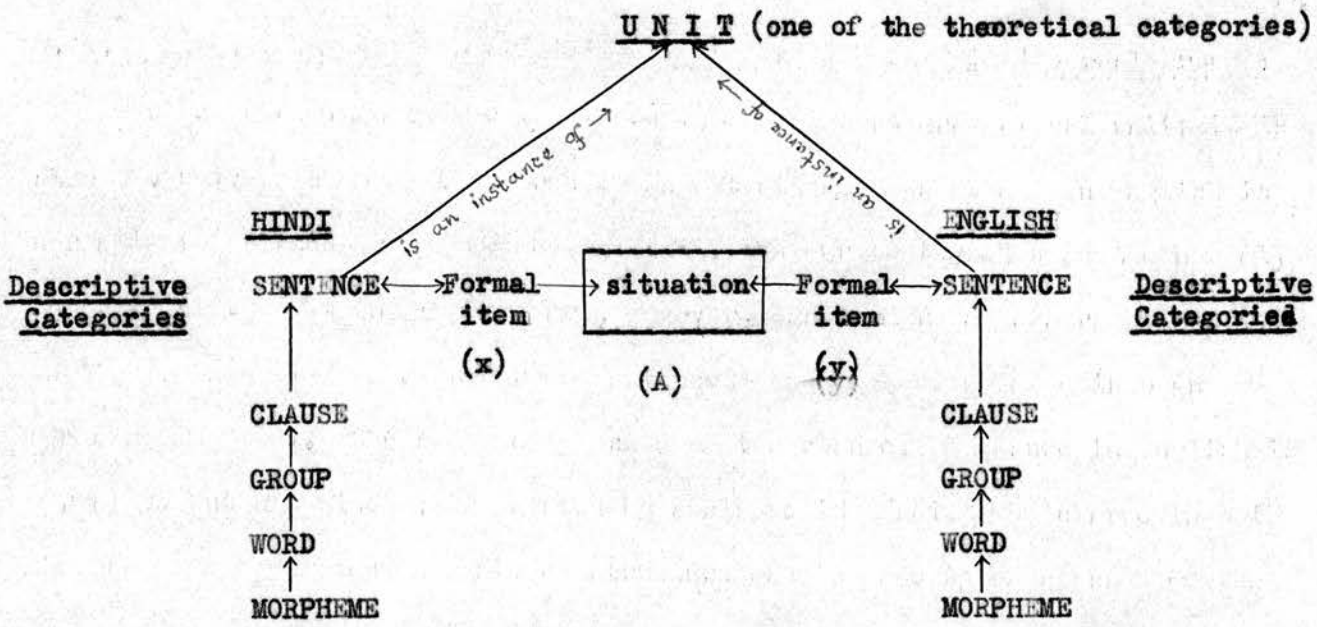
1. J.C. Catford: op. cit. pp 41-42.
2. " : op. cit. p 41.

7.18. Establishing the comparability of the English and Hindi verbal groups:

The sentence in both the languages is the highest grammatical unit; it is also the unit which operates directly in situation. A sentence in English is normally translated by a sentence in Hindi. In our texts, this is the normal, unmarked state of things; there are, however, cases where a paragraph in English (consisting of a number of sentences) has been translated into one sentence in Hindi. The same may be said of the clause. A clause in English is normally, but not always, translated by a clause in Hindi. The clause in both the languages operates in sentence structure and is made up of classes of the group. The primary elements of clause-structure in English and Hindi may be represented by the same set of symbols S(subject), O/C (object or complement), A (adjunct), P (predicator). At group-work both the languages make a class distinction between nominal group, verbal group and adverbial group. In Hindi as well as in English the class "verbal" of the unit group operates at P. The items which are the exponents of the verbal group in English are normally translated by items which are the exponents of the verbal group in Hindi. On the basis of highest probability textual equivalence, we may say that the English and Hindi verbal groups are comparable.

7.19. Diagrammatically:



The formal item, let us say, x (in Hindi) is an exponent of a Hindi sentence (which is an instance of the theoretical category Unit) and operates in the situation A; the formal item y (in English) is an exponent of an English sentence (which) is an instance of the theoretical category Unit) and operates in the situation A. That is,

$$x : A :: y : A$$

$$\therefore x = y \text{ (also } S_{H_x} = S_{E_y} \text{)}$$

Here = means that x can replace y as language activity playing a given part in situation A[1] (that is, x and y are interchangeable in the situation A). Thus these items, and the categories set up in abstraction from them, may be said to be comparable. Once we have established that x and y are comparable, we can safely say that S_H (sentence in Hindi) and S_E (sentence in English) which are expounded by x and y respectively are also comparable. We may similarly carry

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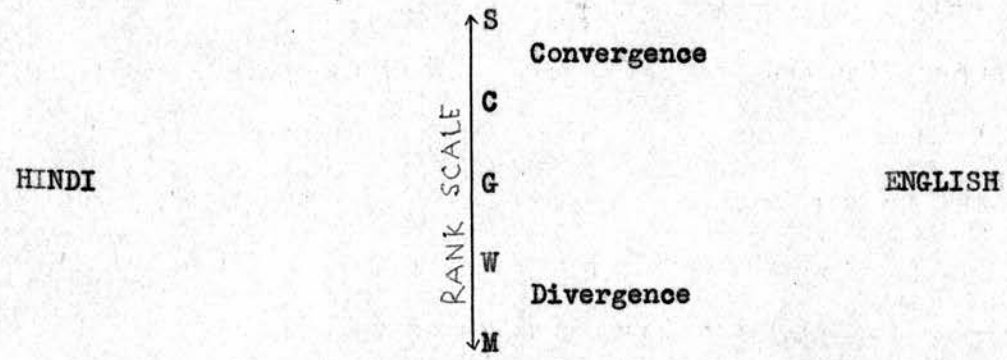
1. Here we have identical situation and the text in each language correlating with it. This situational identity enables us to equate the contextual meaning of x and y.

our comparison down the rankscale in the two languages.

7.191. Convergence and divergence:

Normally we find greater convergence at the top and greater divergence at the bottom of the rankscale.



On a different dimension of abstraction, this time of delicacy, we may say that we have greater convergence at 'primary' delicacy and greater divergence as we move on towards the other end of the cline. Diagrammatically -

Convergence		Divergence
Primary	DELICACY	Secondary...

Primary structure(s)	secondary structures
Primary class(es)	secondary classes
Primary systems	secondary systems

7.2. THE ENGLISH VERBAL GROUP:

We would give a brief description of the English verbal group in order to establish its approximate formal correspondence with the Hindi verbal group which has already been described in some detail in PartI. We must mention here that (for our present purposes) we have slanted our analysis of English to bring it more into line with Hindi.

7.21:

The verbal group in English, like the verbal group in Hindi, may be defined as that class of the unit group which operates at P in clause-structure.

7.22. Primary elements and primary classes:

The primary elements of the structure of the verbal group may be represented by l (lexical verb), v (grammatical verb), n (negator) and c (contrastive element). l occurs finally in the group; v precedes l. The exponents of v are closed-system items, but the exponents of l are open-set items. In a generalized way it might be said that both v and l are expounded by the class verb of the unit word. The exponents of n and c will be considered in the sections on the systems of polarity and contrastiveness.

7.23. Secondary elements and secondary classes:

At secondary delicacy v breaks on the chain axis into v^{m}, $v^{Perf.}$, $v^{Prog.}$, $v^{Pass.}$. These elements occur in fixed sequence and fill four pre-l places in the order in which they have been listed above. v^{m} is that secondary element of verbal group structure which may not be preceded by any other element. The system of modalization (see 7.244) operates at v^{m}. $v^{Perf.}$ is that secondary element which may follow v^{m} but may not follow $v^{Prog.}$ and $v^{Pass.}$. It is expounded by a class of words which may be labelled 'perfectives'. These 'perfectives' are has/have/had operating at post v^{m} but pre- $v^{Prog.}$ place, $v^{Prog.}$ is that secondary element which may follow $v^{Perf.}$ but precede $v^{Pass.}$. It is expounded by a class of words which may be labelled 'progressives'. These progressives are be, am, is, are, was, were operating at post- $v^{Perf.}$ but pre- $v^{Pass.}$ place. $v^{Pass.}$ is that secondary element which follows $v^{Prog.}$ but precedes the lexical verb. It is expounded by a class of word which may be labelled 'passives'. These passives are be, am, is, are, was, were operating at post - $v^{Prog.}$ but pre- l place. Here we have assigned the same set of formal items to two secondary classes. The reason is that they enter into different colligational relations with the following verb. The progressives must be followed by a verb in the '-ing' form and the passives by a verb in the 'n' form. Thus the 'perfectives',

the 'progressives' and the 'passives' expect the following verb to be in 'n', 'ing', 'n' forms respectively.

The following examples would make the point clear:

has eaten	$v^{Perf.} + 1^{n}$	(Perfect verbal group - non-passive, non-progressive)
is eaten	$v^{Pass.} + 1^{n}$	(Passive verbal group - non-perfect, non-pregressive)
is eating	$v^{Prog.} + 1^{g}$	(Progressive verbal group - non-passive, non-perfect)

It must be remarked here that the elements of the verbal group structure are not discrete and the exponential relation between elements of structure and classes of word cannot be stated as one-to-one relation. The same formal item operating at different places in the said verbal group structure may be said to belong to different secondary classes.

7.231. Choice classes: finite and non-finite verb:

On the choice axis v may be subdivided into v^{f} and v^{nf} yielding two secondary choice classes - finite and non-finite. The finite can but the non-finite cannot operate as a simple verbal group at the first P in independent (affirmative) clause structure.

7.2311:

The finite verb enters into the system of tense which has three terms - past, present, and future. The future may more delicately be subdivided into: non-modalised and modalised. The choice of tense is made at the first element in the structure of the verbal group.

Terms		Exemplification
Past		was, were, had, walked, ate.....
Present		is, am, are, has, have, walk(s), eat(s).....
Future	Non-modalised	will, shall, will/shall walk, will/shall eat.....
	Modalized	can, may, could, might, would, should ought, must

7.2312. Subdivisions of the non-finite verb:

The non-finite verb subdivides on the choice axis into the participial and the infinitival. The participials break into: 'n' type and 'ing' type.

Terms		Exemplification
Participials	'n' type	eaten
	'ing' type	eating, being.....
Infinitivals		to eat, to go.....

(Note: we may break the infinitivals into: marked (to eat, to go.....) and unmarked (eat, go in non-initial place in verbal group structure - it cannot operate at the first P in clause structure).

7.232. The element: 1:

1 is expounded by the class verb of the unit word; it may be in any of the following forms:-

		Example
i)	1^{o} - 'base' form	eat
ii)	1^{i} - 'infinitival' form	to eat
iii)	1^{p} - 'present' form	eats/eat
iv)	1^{d} - 'past' form	ate, walked.....
v)	1^{n} - 'n' form	eaten.....
vi)	1^{g} - 'ing' form	eating.....

7.2321. Simplex and Complex 1:

A simplex 1 is expounded by one lexical verb, a complex 1 by two or more lexical verbs (linked by and/but/or)

	Exponent
Simplex 1	comes, sat etc.
Complex 1	brushing and combing.....

7.24. The systems of the verbal group:

We have thus far discussed the systems carried by verb-word. Now we would examine the systems carried by the verbal group as a whole.

7.241. The system of finiteness:

Early in delicacy, the verbal group subdivides into: finite and non-finite forming a two-term system of finiteness. The non-finite verbal group is marked by the presence of a $\underline{v}^{nf}$ at the initial place; the finite verbal group is marked by the presence of a $\underline{v}^{f}$ at the initial place. Further the finite verbal group alone enters into the system of mode.

Example

Finite verbal group: must have hated, am writing, can be trusted.....

Non-finite verbal group: wandering, putting, to learn, having been eaten,....

7.242. The system of mode:

The finite verbal group may, by taking a step in delicacy, be broken into the following secondary classes which constitute the system of mode -

Indicative: go/goes, am/is/are going, has/have gone went.....

Imperative: go (exponent of P in an imperative clause)

The main distinction between the two is that the indicative alone can select from the systems of tense, aspect, modalization and progression. The imperative verbal group is distinguished for operating at P in imperative clause(s).

7.243. The system of tense:

The indicative verbal group selects simultaneously from the systems of tense, aspect and progression. The terms in these systems are combinable. In other words, the indicative verbal group may be subdivided into secondary classes on the interlocking dimensions of tense, aspect and progression.

There are three terms in the system of tense: past, present and future.

Terms	Example
Past	was/were(doing/done, being done), had(done, been doing/done), had (been being done) did.....

Present — am/is/are (doing/done,being done), has/have (done, been doing/done), has/have (been being done), do(es), eat(s).....

Future — will/shall (go, work), will/shall (have done, have been doing, have been being done)....

would/should/may/might/can/could / (go/work)...

The future may more delicately be subdivided into: non-modalized and modalized constituting the system of modalization:

7.244. The system of modalization:

There are two terms: non-modalized and modalized. The modalized verbal group is distinguished by the presence of a modal verb.

Non-modalized: will/shall, has/have, am/is/are, was/ were, had....

Modalized: can, may, would, should, could, might, must, ought.....

7.245. The system of aspect:

The system of aspect has two terms -

non-perfect (unmarked)

perfect (marked)

The perfect is expounded by has/have/had followed by a verb in 'n' participial form[1].

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1. The exponents of $\underline{V}^{perf}$, that is has/have/had may, more delicately, be grouped into the following secondary classes:-
   (a) have — can occur with the exponents of $\underline{V}^{m}$
   (b) has, had — cannot co-occur with the exponents of $\underline{V}^{m}$
   It means that the presence of $\underline{V}^{m}$ excludes has and had. Has and had may further be grouped as present perfect (has) and past perfect (had). This sort of classification, as stated earlier, is subject to the condition that these formal items are followed by a verb in 'n' form.

7.2451. Tense and aspect in relation:

		Non-perfect	Perfect
Past		ate	had eaten
Present		eats	has eaten
FUTURE	Modalised	would/should etc. eat	would/should etc. have eaten
FUTURE	Non-Modalised	will/shall eat	will/shall have eaten

7.246. The system of progession:

There are two terms:

non-progressive (unmarked)

progressive (marked)

The progressive is expounded by be (in some form) followed by 'ing' participial.

Non-progressive	Progressive
eats	am/is/are eating
ate	was/were eating
will/shall eat	will/shall be eating
was eaten	was being eaten
is eaten	is being eaten
has eaten	has been being eaten
had eaten	had been being eaten
would be eaten	would be being eaten
might be eaten	might be being eaten

7.247.

The terms in the systems mentioned above may be combined yielding the following micro-classes :

Past,	non-perfect,	non-progressive;	ate....
Past,	non-perfect,	progressive;	was eating....
Past,	perfect,	non-progressive;	had eaten....
Past,	perfect,	progressive;	had been eating....
Present,	non-perfect,	non-progressive;	eats....
Present,	non-perfect,	progressive;	am/is/are eating....
Present,	perfect,	non-progressive;	has/have eaten....
Present,	perfect,	progressive;	has/have been eating...
Future, (non-modalized)	non-perfect,	non-progressive;	will/shall eat....
Future, (non-modalized)	non-perfect,	progressive;	will/shall be eating....
Future, (non-modalized)	perfect,	non-progressive;	will/shall have eaten....
Future, (non-modalized)	perfect,	progressive;	will/shall have been eating....
Future, (modalized)	non-perfect,	non-progressive;	would/should etc eat.....
Future, (modalized)	non-perfect,	progressive;	would/should etc be eating....
Future, (modalized)	perfect,	non-progressive;	would/should etc have eaten....
Future, (modalized)	perfect,	progressive;	would/should etc have been eating.

Note: Would/should etc means would/should and other modalized forms listed in 7.244.

7.248. Systems carried by the non-finite verbal group:

The non-finite verbal group breaks into the participials and the infinitivals. The participials may be subdivided into; Perfect and Non-perfect.

The infinitivals select simultaneously from the systems of aspect and progression.

Participals:

The system of aspect: Non-perfect ('ing' type), eating

Perfect ('n' type), having eaten

Infinitivals:

The system of aspect:	Non- perfect	Perfect
	to do	to have done
The system of progression:	Non-progressive	Progressive
	to do	to be doing

We may have the following combinations:-

Non-perfect, non-progressive: to do

Non-perfect, progressive: to be doing

Perfect, non-progressive: to have done

Peffect, progressive: to have been doing

7.249. The system of voice:

The system of voice is carried by the whole of the verbal group. It has two terms:

active (unmarked)

passive (marked)

The passive which is the marked term in the system is expounded by be (in some form) followed by a verb in 'n' participial form. In a verbal group having five places, be as an exponent of 'passivity' occupies the place immediately preceding the lexical verb.

4.250. Tabular representation of the multidimensional systems carried by the verbal group:-

				ACTIVE 2.1				PASSIVE 2.2			
				NON-PERFECT 1.111a		PERFECT 1.112a		NON-PERFECT 1.111a		PERFECT 1.112a	
				NON-PROGRESSIVE 1.111b	PROGRESSIVE 1.112b	NON-PROGRESSIVE 1.111b	PROGRESSIVE 1.112b	NON-PROGRESSIVE 1.111b	PROGRESSIVE 1.112b	NON-PROGRESSIVE 1.111b	PROGRESSIVE 1.112b
FINITE 1.1	INDICATIVE 1.11	PAST 1.111		ate	was eating	had eaten	had been eating	was eaten	was being eaten	had been eaten	had been being eaten
		PRESENT 1.112		eats	is eating	has eaten	has been eating	is eaten	is being eaten	has been eaten	has been being eaten
		FUTURE 1.113	NON-MODALIZED 1.1131	will eat	will be eating	will have eaten	will have been eating	will be eaten	will be being eaten	will have been eaten	will have been being eaten
			MODALIZED 1.1132	would eat	would be eating	would have eaten	would have been eating	would be eaten	would be being eaten	would have been eaten	would have been being eaten
	IMPERATIVE 1.12			eat				be eaten		be eaten	
NON-FINITE 1.2	INFINITIVAL 1.21			to eat	to be eating	to have eaten	to have been eating	to be eaten	to be being eaten	to have been eaten	to have been being eaten
	PARTICIPIAL 1.22	'n' TYPE 1.221		eaten							
		'ing' TYPE 1.222		eating		having eaten	having been eating			having been eaten	having been being eaten

7.251. The system of contrastiveness:

The terms in this system are:

non-contrastive (unmarked)

contrastive (marked)

The contrastive verbal group is marked by the presence of a c element. In written English c appears as a group-initiator and is expounded by do/does/did. (Note that our text is a written one. That is why we have not considered phonological exponents of contrastiveness)

Non-contrastive: He eats; he ate.....

Contrastive: He does eat; he did eat

7.252. The system of polarity:

There are two terms:

Positive (unmarked)

Negative (marked)

The negative verbal group is marked by the presence of an n-element which is expounded by n't/not. The following points are worth noting in this connection:

i) The exponent of negative is normally n't (in the dialogues in out text), and the fused forms (will-) won't, (shall-) shan't, (can-) can't.

ii) the negative exponent is not (unstressed) with am ('m not), with the alternative aren't in interrogative clauses (aren't I going? or am I not going?), and usually with may (He may not go)

iii) n't is always suffixed to the group initiator.

Examples: /

		Past	Present	Future	
				Non-modalized	Modalized
POSITIVE	Active	ate	eats	will eat	would eat
	Passive	was eaten	is eaten	will be eaten	would be eaten
NEGATIVE	Active	didn't eat	doesn't eat	won't eat	wouldn't eat
	Passive	wasn't eaten	isn't eaten	won't be eaten	wouldn't be eaten

---

			Non-perfect		Perfect	
			Non-progressive	Progressive	Non-progressive	Progressive
INFINITIVAL	POSITIVE	Active	(to) eat	(to) be eating	(to) have eaten	(to) have been eating
		Passive	(to) be eaten	(to) be being eaten	(to) have been eaten	(to) have been being eaten
	NEGATIVE	Active	not (to) eat	not (to) be eating	not (to) have eaten	not (to) have been eating
		Passive	not (to) be eaten	not (to) be being eaten	not (to) have been eaten	not (to) have been being eaten
'n' PARTICIPIAL	POSITIVE	Active				
		Passive			eaten	
	NEGATIVE	Active				
		Passive			not eaten	
'ing' PARTICIPIAL	POSITIVE	Active		eating	having eaten	having been eating
		Passive		being eaten	having been eaten	having been being eaten
	NEGATIVE	Active		not eating	not having eaten	not having been eating
		Passive		not being eaten	not having been eaten	not having been being eaten

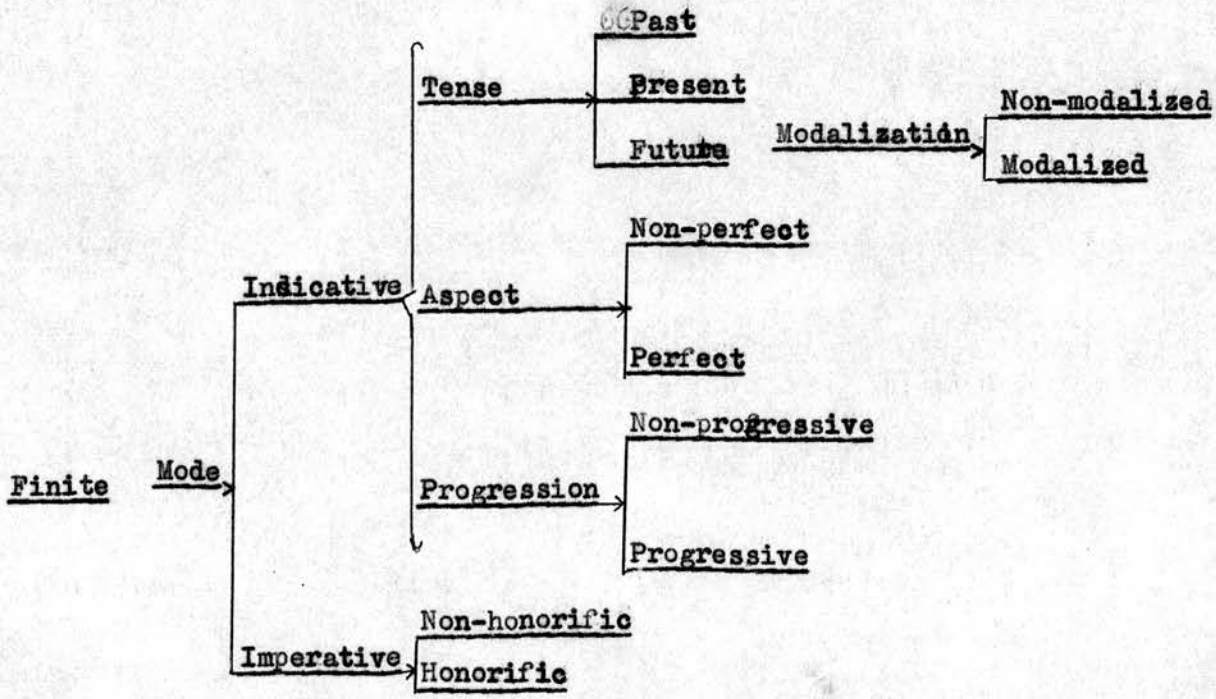
7.253:

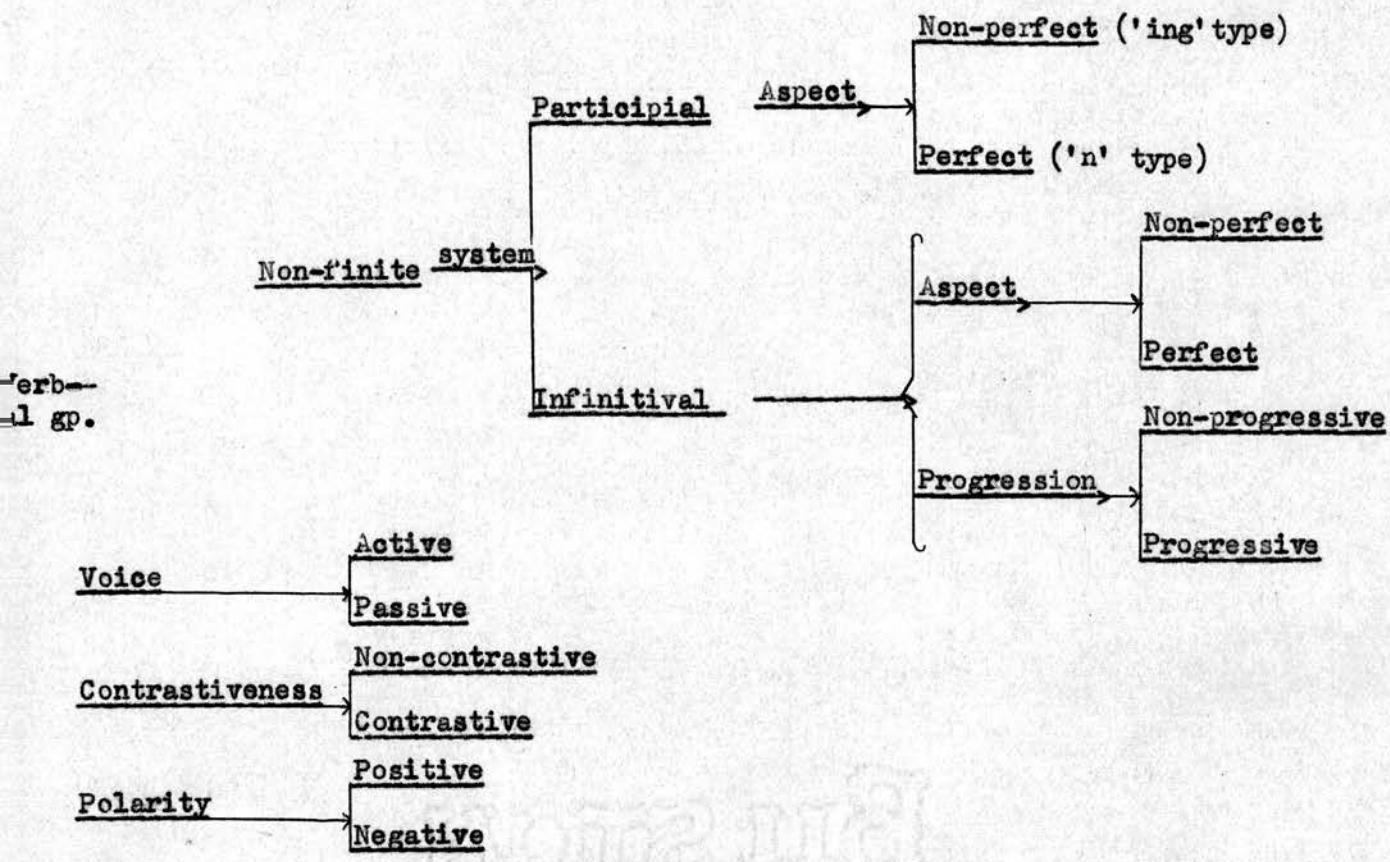
We have already said that there are certain restrictions on the co-occurrence of the different verbal forms. It is the selection of the exponent of the first element in the verbal group that is crucial in determining the particular form of the item next in succession. The 'successor forms' may be tabulated as below:

V	IV	III	II	I
V^{m}	$V^{perf.}$	$V^{prog.}$	$V^{pass.}$	1
will/would				eat
shall/should			be	eaten
may/might		be		eating
can/could		be	being	eaten
must	have			eaten
ought to			been	eaten
		been		eating
			being	eaten

7.254:

Diagrammatically the systems carried by the verbal group may be shown as below:





7.3. Formal correspondence and textual equivalence:

There is a large measure of formal correspondence between the verbal groups in English and Hindi. This formal correspondence is paralleled by textual equivalences in that the items which are exponents of the verbal group in English are normally translated by items which are the exponents of the verbal group in Hindi.

We have extracted 6080 verbal groups for purposes of comparison: we have not considered the verbal groups occurring in the following cases:-

i) Where a whole paragraph in English (consisting of a number of sentences) has been translated into one sentence ɸn Hindi.

ii) Where non-understanding of the contextual meaning of certain formal items (grammatical and/or lexical) has trapped the translator into misinterpreting a whole clause. The following examples will make the point clear:

(a) English: I looked in the small bookshop near Charing Cross Underground. (p 64)

Hindi: Kwch der ke lyye mə̃yceyərỹg krəws se nice pwstəkõ̃ ki dukan mẽ cəla gəya. (p 81).

Apparently, the translator has no idea of "Underground Railway Stations";

he has taken 'Undergroumd' in its usual lexical meaning, and hence he uses 'nice' (for Underground) which simply means 'below or under'. The Hindi clause may be translated into English as: "For sometime he went down Charing Cross into a bookshop".

(b) English: 'Then we'd begin to make this world like heaven'. (p.81)

Hindi: 'ɔwr tɔb hɔm ysi dwnyya ko ɔpne lyye svɔrg nɔhĩ bɔna sɔkẽge?' (p.103)

Here the translator has quite arbitrarily turned a statement into a question and a positive verbal group into a negative verbal group. He has no contextual or co-textual justification for doing this. The Hindi clause translated into English would read something like : "And then can't we make this very world a heaven for us?"

(c) English: ('I ascertained its nature sir,) and from one entry judged she wasn't of the cautious type.' (p.83)

Hindi: ('mẽyne yɔh dekh lyya tha ky kys tɔrɔh ki ɖayri hɔy) ek jɔgeh pɔʈh kɔr mwjhe lɔga ky vɔh yse savdhani se lykhti rɔhi hɔy". (p. 105)

One of the reasons why there is no formal correspondence between the verbal groups in the underlined clauses is that the contextual meaning of the Hindi clause is just the reverse of the contextual meaning of the English clause. It is difficult to explain in this case why the translator has made this kind of mistake.

More examples:

(a) English: the old man feeding sparrows (p.64)

Hindi: ek bwɖɖha admi tha jo vɔhã bɔyʈha cyʈyyã wʈa rɔha tha (p.81)

The English verbal group 'feeding' has been translated by the Hindi verbal group "[illegible] tha" which means "flying".

(b) English: I asked Mr. Parkis (who had met me by appointment in an A.B.C. ..... (p.74)

Hindi: parkys se sɔmɔy nyʃcyt kɔrke mẽy ek choʈe-se restɔrã mẽ wsse myla to mẽyne wsse pucha..... (p.93)

There are two remarkable features of this translation. Firstly, the English text means that Mr. Parkis had met the speaker in an A.B.C. but the Hindi text means that the speaker had met Mr. Parkis in a small restaurant. Secondly, A.B.C. has been rendered into "ek chote-se" (a smallish). Again, the translator has no co-textual or contextual justification for mistaking an A.B.C. for "a smallish restaurant". The simple reason, we guess, is his unacquaintance with the socio-cultural life in London. We are surprised by the fact that the translator has completely ignored the value of the graphological marker - we mean the use of the capitals: A.B.C.. There are several other examples of such 'cross-cultural misinformation'[1].

Note: By contextual we refer to such "extratextual" features as are linguistically relevant; by co-textual we refer to items in the text which accompany the item under discussion

1. Lado: Linguistics Across Culture : p.114

7.31. The system of polarity (English and Hindi):

TABLE 1

ENGLISH	HINDI
POSITIVE (5655) 93.00%	POSITIVE (5600) 99.03%
	NEGATIVE (55) .97%
NEGATIVE (425) 7.00%	POSITIVE (8) 1.88%
	NEGATIVE (417) 98.12%

Examples:

	ENGLISH		HINDI
POSITIVE	1. I thought.. (p 95)	POSITIVE	1. soca..... (p 118)
	2. He explained that... (p 101)		2. wsne səmjhaya ky..... (p 124)
	3. Life was going to be happy again (p 87)		3. ləgta tha jiven phyr swkhi hone ja rəha həy (p 110)
	4. ... and if I come to say anything in favour of of Henry and Sarah I can be trusted (p7)	NEGATIVE	4. yslyye ysmẽ koi bat məy henri ya səyra ke pəkch mẽ bhi kəhũ tɔ vəh gələt nə hogi (p 8)
	5. I am so muddled (p 90)		5. meri kwch səmejh mẽ nə̃hi aata (p 113)
NEGATIVE	1. I wouldn't mind a whisky (p 9)	POSITIVE	1. vhyski ţkik rəhegi (p 11)
	2. .. but it wasn't far to Henry's (p 13)		2. məgər henri ka ghər pas hi tha (p 15)
	3. I won't be a moment (p 69)		3. mə̃y əbhi pəl bhər mẽ aya (p 87)
	4. ... but wouldn't wear glasses with strangers (p 12)	NEGATIVE	4. vəh ajnəbyyõ ke samne cəʃma nəhi ləgata (p 15)

Note: 1. Figures in brackets indicate number of occurrences.

2. (p.-) indicates page number.

β 3. Positive (5655) and Negative (425) listed under English mean that out of a total of 6080 verbal groups "under attention", 5655 are positive and 425 negative, that is 93% of the total number of verbal groups is positive and 7% is negative. The right hand side of the table displays Hindi correspondences to the English 'terms'. Out of 5655 occurrences of the English positive verbal groups, 5600 translate into positive verbal groups and 55 into negative verbal groups in Hindi; that is, in 99.03% of occurrences, the English positive verbal group has as translation equivalent the Hindi positive verbal group but in .97% of occurrences it has the Hindi negative verbal group as translation equivalent. Again out of 425 occurrences of the English verbal groups , 417 translate into negative and 8 into positive verbal groups in Hindi: that is, in 98.12% of occurrences, the English negative verbal group has as translation equivalent the Hindi negative verbal group but in 1.88% occurrences it has the Hindi positive verbal group as translation equivalent.

4. The bottom table shows formal exponents of terms in system (in this case, of terms in the system of polarity) - listed under English, and their textual equivalents - listed under Hindi.

5. This explanation of the lay-out applies to all the following tables.

7.311. Notes on : Table 1:

There is a very high measure of formal correspondence between the English and Hindi verbal groups so far as the system of polarity is concerned. This is borne out by a high degree of textual equivalence between exponents of terms in t the system of polarity in the two languages. This is expectedto be so because the contextual meaning of positive and negative verbal groupsin the two languages is nearly always alike. There seems to be close correlation here between the for mal categories (in the two languages) and the contextual categories of (positive) reference and excluded reference. There are marginal cases where an English positive is rendered into Hindi negative and an English negative into a Hindi positive. These cases are few and far between, and are tied up with things like 'greetings', 'partings' and other courtesies. For example, in a situation in which one would normally say (in English): 'I won't be a moment', one would in Hindi say 'I'll be back in an moment'. One must, however, note that the most probable translation equivalent of a positive verbal group (in English) with a negative-carrying adjunct included in it is a negative verbal group in Hindi.

Example: English: It may never be finished (never exponent of A inserted in the (p.23) verbal groupp)

Hindi: ho səkta həy karyəvahi puri hone ki nəwbət hi nə ae (p.30).

It is important to note that whereas in an English clause there may be more than one marker of negation, in a Hindi clause we can select for negation only once and it is marked in one of the groups. In English one can say -

'He isn't not drinking'

In Hindi one cannot have two occurrences of the negator.

7.32. The system of contrastiveness (English and Hindi):

TABLE 2

ENGLISH	HINDI
NON-CONTRASTIVE (6026) 99.11%	NON-CONTRASTIVE (5956) 98.84%
	CONTRASIVE (70) 1.16%
CONTRASTIVE (54) .89%	CONTRASTIVE (NIL)
	NON-CONTRASTIVE (54) 100%

Examples:

	ENGLISH		HINDI
NON-CONTRASTIVE	1. To-day I saw Maurice (p 113) 2. I paid for the drinks (p 13) 3. At least he had really scented love (p 59)	NON-CONTRASTIVE	1. aj mɔ̃ynemɔwris ko dekha (p 138) 2. mɔyne rɔm ke pɔyse ɔda kyye (p 15) 3. akhyr wse prɔm ki gɔ̃dh myl gɔi thi (p 75)
	4. But then the raid went on and on (p 92) 5. I doubted whether the set of Gibbon had once been opened (p 53)	CONTRASTIVE	4. mɔgɔr hɔvai akrɔmɔɳ cɔlta rɔha (p 115) 5. vɔhi gybbɔn ka seṭ tha jo ʃayɔd khola hi nɔhi gɔya tha (p 16)
CONTRASTIVE	1. you do think I am a fool..... (p 15) 2. ..... and this time he really did hold the letter to the gas flame (p 17)	NON-CONTRASTIVE	1. twmhara yɔhi khɔyal hɔy ky ɔysi bat socnabhi meri murkhɔta hɔy (p 19) 2. ɔwr ys bar sɔcmwchi wsne cyṭṭhi gɔys ki lɔpṭõ ke samne kɔr di (p 22)
		CONTRASTIVE	Nil.

7.321. Notes on Table 2:

The contrastive verbal group in English is normally translated by the non-contrastive verbal group in Hindi. This does not, however, mean that the Hindi clause-structure (which is a translation equivalent of an English clause-structure having a contrastive verbal group) does not reflect this feature of contrastiveness. The fact is that this feature, if not marked in the verbal group, is marked in some other group, nominal or adverbial.

English: and this time he really did hold the letter to the gas flame (p 17)

Hindi: ɘwr ys bar sɘcmwchi wsne cyʈʈhi gɘys ki lɘpʈõ ke samne kərdi (p 22)

The Hindi verbal group in the above example is non-contrastive, non-emphatic. Contrastiveness, however, is marked elsewhere in the clause - in the adverbial group expounded by sɘcmwchi. In fact the Hindi clause means: "and this time he really held the letter to the gas flame" (emphasis carried by really). This example simply shows how certain situational features may be reflected by different elements of clause-structure in English and Hindi - i.e. certain contextual features reflected in P in English may be reflected in A in Hindi.

There is an important structural difference between the English and Hindi contrastive verbal groups. In the former (in written texts) the exponent of contrastiveness (do, does, did) always appears as group initiator: i) in Hindi there is no close equivalent of these items, ii) the emphasizors in Hindi cannot occur initially.

/.33. The system of Voice (English and Hindi):

TABLE 3

ENGLISH	HINDI
ACTIVE (5970) 98.19%	ACTIVE (5900) 98.83%
	PASSIVE (70) 1.17%
	ACTIVE (35) 31.81%
PASSIVE (110) 1.81%	PASSIVE (75) 68.19%

Examples:

	ENGLISH		HINDI
ACTIVE	1. I dialled her number (p 29)	ACTIVE	1. mẽyne jhəʈse phyr wska nəmbər mylaya. (p 36)
	2. We lose our identity (p 49)		2. həm əpna əstytvə wsmẽ kho dete hẽy. (p 58)
	3. He is jealous of the past and the present and the future. (p 89)		3. wse vərtman, ətit əwr bhəvyşyə səbse ghryɳa hoti hẽy (p 111)
	4. I had meant to make everything well again (p 11)	PASSIVE	4. meri yccha yəhi thi ky əb jhəgɽe ko səmapt kyya jae. (p 12-13)
	5. It is not necessary to catch the party in the act (p 59)		5. yəh avəʃyək nəhĩ ky ʈhik ws karyə ke səməy hi wse pəkɽa jae. (p 76)

PASSIVE	1. His eyes <u>were blinded</u> with the rain (P 8)	ACTIVE	1. vərsa ke mare wse ʈhik <u>dykhai nəhĩ de rəha tha.</u> (p 9)
	2. ..... the steps that <u>had been blasted</u> in 1944. (p 8)		2. ve siqhyya ~ <u>ʈuʈ-phuʈ gəi thĩ</u> (p 8)
	3. It <u>had been taken</u> at about the same age, the middle forties... (p 14)		3. vəh ləgbhəg wsiki wmrə mə~, calis əwr pəʈtalis ke bic <u>lyya gəya tha</u> (p 17)
	4. The scrap <u>had been salvaged</u> from the waste paper basket (p 52)	PASSIVE	4. ws pwrne ka wddhar rəddi ki ʈokri se kyya gəya tha (p 65)
	5. I doubted whether the set of Gibbon <u>had</u> once <u>been opened</u> (p 13)		5. vəhĩ gybən ka seʈ tha jo kəyəd kəbhi <u>khola hi nəhĩ gəya tha.</u> (p 16)

7.331. Notes on Table 3:

There is a high degree of equivalence between the English and Hindi active verbal groups. The passives, however, pose a problem. In 31.8% of the cases the passive verbal group (English) translates into the active verbal group (Hindi). One of the reasons for this is that the passive form is very rarely used in Hindi. Another reason is that the use of the passive implies exclusion of S^n (i.e. subject in the ergative form).

There is one point which is worth mentioning here. A shift from active to passive or vice-versa implies contextually a shift of attention from one situational element to another. So, to say that a passive verbal group (English) is translated by an active verbal group (Hindi) is to say that the English and Hindi texts select different features of the situation as linguistically (contextually) relevant.

7.34. The system of progression (English and Hindi):

TABLE 4

ENGLISH	HINDI
NON-PROGRESSIVE (5740) 94.41%	NON-PROGRESSIVE (5525) 96.25%
	PROGRESSIVE (215) 3.75%
PROGRESSIVE (340) 5.59%	NON-PROGRESSIVE (115) 33.82%
	PROGRESSIVE (225) 66.18%

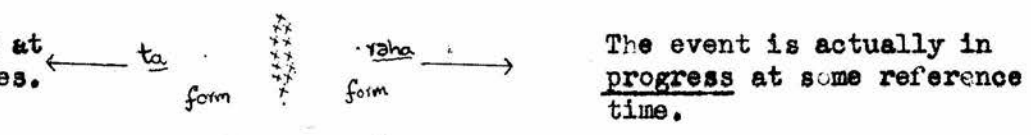
	ENGLISH		HINDI
NON-PROGRESSIVE	1. She hadn't liked my last book (p 35)	NON-PROGRESSIVE	1. səʃra ko meri akhyri pwstək pəsənd nəhi ai thi (p 44)
	2. So I went out after breakfast (p 95)		2. yslyye naʃte ke bad ghumme ke lyye gəi (p118)
	3. Henry's got a cold. He's staying at home (p 47)		3. henri ko sərdi ləg gəi həy. wse aj ghər pər hi rəhà həy. (p 60)
	4. Henry drank his rum quickly (p11).....	PROGRESSIVE	4. henri jəldi-jəldi rəm ke ghuṭ bhər rəha tha (p 13)
	5. There was something very queer about his voice....(p 131)		5. wski avaz ws səmay kwch vycytrə-si ləg rəhi thi (p 161)

PROGRESSIVE	1. I haven't been sleeping well lately (p 16)	NON-PROGRESSIVE	1. ajkəl mwjhe ʧhik se nid nəhĩ ati (p 20)
	2. I was going to throw no stones at any phantom she believed she loved (p 129)		2. jys chaya ke prem mẽ səyra ko vyʃvas tha, wspər mẽy kiɔəʧ nəhi wchal səkta tha (p 159)
	3. I called to him that I was coming (p 87)	PROGRESSIVE	3. mẽyne wse avaz di ky məy a rəha hu (p 148)
	4. Life was going to be happy again (p 87)		4. ləgta tha jiven phyr swkhi hone ja rəha həy. (p 148)
	5. For a moment I really thought he was going to set it alight (p 16)		5. kchəɳ bhər ke lyye mwjhe ləga ky yəh səcmwc hi wse ag me jhokne ja rəha həy (p 28)

7.341. Notes on Table 4:

There is, as is to be expected, a fairly high measure of equivalence between the non-progressive verbal groups in the two languages. In 3.75% of the cases the non-progressive (English) has been translated by the progressive (Hindi). This is pure idiosyncrasy of the translator for there is nothing in the context or co-text to justify the selection of the progressive in place of the non-progressive.

In 33.82% of the cases the progressive verbal group in English has the non-progressive as translation equivalent in Hindi. One of the reasons for this is the fact that there is an area of overlap between the contextual meanings of the progressive and the non-progressive in Hindi.



An example will make this point clear. In English we say: "He has been living here for five years". In a similar situation, in Hindi one would normally say: "vəh pãc vərsõ se yəha rəhtã həy". Here the Hindi non-progressive form is translationally equivalent to the English progressive form.[1]

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1. On further discussion of such examples cf. S. K. Verma, "A Study of errors in English made by Hindi speaking students in Bihar:" pp 38-39. (School of Applied Linguistics Dissertation, 1962)

7.35. The system of Aspect (English and Hindi):

TABLE 5

ENGLISH	HINDI
NON-PERFECT (5130) 84.38%	NON-PERFECT (5010) (Imperfect) 97.66%
	PERFECT (120) 2.34%
PERFECT (950) 15.62%	NON-PERFECT (525) (Imperfect) 55.26%
	PERFECT (425) 44.74%

	ENGLISH		HINDI
NON-PERFECT	1. I hated Henry (p 7)	NON-PERFECT	1. mɛ̃y hanri se ghryna kərta tha (p 7)
	2. But I suppose there are different kinds of desire (p 14)		2. məgər kamna ke kəi rup həy (p 52)
	3. .... but there was nobody there (p 69)		3. məgər vəhɑ̃ koi nəhĩ tha (p 88)
	4. He looked up at me with those red-rimmed eyes ..... (p 14)	PERFECT	4. wsne əpni lal-lal ɛ̃kh̃ɛ̃ wʈhakər meri tərəph dekha (p 17)
	5. A week ago, I revisited the terrace (p 44)		5. əbhi ek səptah hwa, mɛ̃y phyr ws jəgəh pər gəya tha (p 55)

PERFECT	1. If I had believed in a God. (p 7)	1. yədy iʃvərmɛ̃ vyʃvas hota... (p 7)
		NON-PERFECT
	2. Why should I have spoken to him? (p 7)	2. mɛ̃y wsse batɛ̃ kyõ kərta (p 7)
	3. He wouldn't have seen me (p 9)	3. vəh mwjhe mə dekh pata (p 9)
	4. I suppose the ripples may have disturbed Sarah for a week, a month.....(p 9)	4. upər ki ləhrõ ne, ho səkta həy məhina dəs dyn səyra ko kwch əsthyr kyya ho (p 10)
		PERFECT
	5. He must have seen through the pretence (p 15)	5. vəh admi sərur səməjh gəya hoga ky asli bat kya həy. (p 18)

7.351. Notes on Table 5:

We can say that in 98 out of 100 cases the English non-perfect verbal group has the Hindi non-perfect verbal group as translation equivalent. But in only 45 cases out of 100 the English perfect verbal group is translated by the Hindi perfect verbal group. There are certain co-textual factors responsible for this. If the 'perfect' aspect in English co-occurs with any of the following,

(i) past tense in a bound conditioning 'if' clause (e.g. If I had believed..)

(ii) modalized would form in a dependent conditioned clause following a dependent conditioning 'if' clause (e.g. If he had believed in God, he would have..) there is a very high degree of probability that it will be translated by a -ta form (Imperfect Verbal Group) in Hindi.

Ex.

English	Hindi
If I had believed in a God...(p 7)	yədy iʃvər mẽ vyʃvas hota....(p 7)
If he had arrived in time, he would have met her.	yədy vəh səməy se pəhw̃ ca hota, to wsse myl leta.

/.361. The system of tense: (a) PAST: (English and Hindi):

TABLE 6

ENGLISH	HINDI
PAST (2770) 45.56%	PAST (1443) 52.10%
	PERFECT (918) 33.14%
	PRESENT (381) 13.75%
	OTHER FORMS (28) 1.01%

	ENGLISH		HINDI
PAST	1. It <u>was</u> very hot to-day (p 107) 2. The film <u>was</u> not a good film (p 43)	PAST	1. dyn mẽ bəhwt gərmi <u>thi.</u> (p 131) 2. phylm əccha nəhĩ <u>tha</u> (p 53)
	3. We <u>caught</u> a taxi by Charing Cross (p 44) 4. I <u>knelt</u> down on the floor (p 93) 5. <u>Caught</u> the 8.30 with Henry	PERFECT	3. həmne ceyərỹg krəws se ʈəyski pəkʈi (p 55) 4. məy ghwʈne ke bəl phərʃ pər <u>bəyʈh gəi</u> (p 116) 5. henri ke sath sadhe aʈh ki gaʈi <u>pəkʈi.</u> (p 117)
	6. I said this <u>was</u> a story of hatred (p 55) 7. Henry Miles <u>was holding</u> a cocktail party - so Mr Parkis had reported (p.116) 8. I really thought that he <u>was going to hit</u> me. (p 62)	PRESENT	6. mẽyne kəha tha ky yəh meri ghryɳa ki kəhani <u>həy</u> (p 70) 7. parkys ne bətlaya tha ky henri ws dyn ek kəwkʈel parʈi <u>de rəha həy.</u> (p 95) 8. mwjhe ləga ky vəh mere mwh pər thəppəʈ marne <u>ja rəha həy</u> (p 79)

7.3611. Notes on Table 6:

There is a high measure of equivalence between 'Past' in English (expounded by was/had) operating as simple verbal group at P in independent clause structure) and 'Past' in Hindi (expounded by 'tha'). When the exponent of P in an independent clause is a simple verbal group in past tense (excluding was/had), there is a high probability of its being translated by perfect verbal group in Hindi. If we have a verbal group (Past tense) in English operating at P in a dependent reported clause bound to the precedingclause, there is a high probability of its being translated by a present verbal group, in Hindi (i.e. Verbal group, present tense). In Hindi there is no tense-concord (or sequence of tense) between exponents of P in reporting and reported clauses. (In English one might find it useful to set up two systems of tense - System I and System II - carried by the verbal groups operating at P in independent and [certain classes of] dependent clauses.).

7.362: (b) PRESENT (English and Hindi):

TABLE 7

ENGLISH	HINDI
PRESENT (2402) 39.51%	PRESENT (2362) 98.33%
	IMPERFECT (40) 1.67%

	ENGLISH	HINDI
PRESENT	1. Insecurity <u>is</u> the worst sense that lovers feel (p 54)	1. prem mẽ əny∫eytəta hi səbse bwri ciz <u>həy</u> (p 68)
	2. His love <u>is</u> like a medieval chastity belt (p 89)	2. wska prem mədhyəkalin pəvytrəta ki peţi ki tərəh <u>həy</u>. (p 111)
	3. But happiness <u>annihilates</u> us (p 46)	PRESENT 3. pərəntw swkh ys əhẽphav ko <u>myţa deta həy</u> (p 58)
	4. Jealously, or so I <u>have always believed</u>, <u>exists</u> only with desire (p 42)	4. irsəya kamna ke ənder se hi jənm <u>leti həy</u>, kəm se kəm mẽy yəhi <u>manta hu</u> (p 52)
	5. Sometimes I <u>don't recognize</u> my own thoughts (p 46)	5. kəbhi-khəbi mwjhe svəyəŋ əpne vycaro ka pəta nəhi <u>cəlta</u>. (p 58)
	6. I <u>don't</u> even want to lose a husband. (p 89)	IMPERFECT 6. mẽy to əpne pəty ko bhi khona <u>nəhi cahti</u> (p 112)

7.3621. Notes on Table 7:

Normally, an English verbal group (present tense) is translated by a Hindi verbal group (present tense). But if the English verbal gruup (Present tense) is negative, the probability is that it will be translated by the imperfect verbal group (without any exponents of tense) in Hindi.

Ex.

English: I don't even want to lose a husband (p 89)

Hindi: mə̃y to əpne pəty ko bhi khona nə̃hi cahti. (p 112)

7.3631: (c) FUTURE (NON-MODALIZED) (English and Hindi):

TABLE 8

ENGLISH	HINDI
FUTURE (201) (will/shall) 3.31%	PREDICTIVE FORMS (168) (uga) 83.58%
	NON-PREDICTIVE FORMS. (33) 16.42%

	ENGLISH		HINDI
FUTURE (shall/will)	1. Then I'll meet you at the Cafe Royal at one (p 29)	PREDICTIVE (-ga form)	1. to ws dyn ek bəje məy twmhe kəyphe royəl me myl jauga (p 36)
	2. You will see, sir, if you read on (p 38)		2. ap age pəɽhe to apke pəta cəl jaega (p 48)
	3. I'll write to Maurice (p 103)		3. məy məyinis ko cyʈʈhi lykh duga
	4. Will you marry me? (p 119)		4. twm mwjhse byah kərogi? (p 146)
	5. Shall I see you this afternoon? (p 71)		5. to aj ʃam ko mylogi? (p 90)
	6. Will you let me go now? (p 63)		6. kya twm mwjhe ab yəhã se jane doge? (p 80)
	7. "I'm wondering where I shall be drafted from the Ministry of Home Security (p 103)		7. "məysoc rəha hũ", vəh bola "ky əb gryh-rəkcha məntraləy se mwjhe kəha bheja jaega (p 126)
	8. I'll bring down some sheets and blankets (p 136)	NON-PREDICTIVE FORMS.	8. məy twmhe cadre əwr kəmbəl la deta hu (p167)
	9. Nothing will make you leave Henry? (p 119)		9. twm kysi bhi tərəh henri ko choɽ nəhi səkti? (p 146)

7.36311. Notes on Table 8:

There is a high measure of equivalence between the English future non-modalised forms (will/shall) and the Hindi predictive forms (morphologically marked by the presence of -ga). We have noted 201 occurrences of will/shall: the textual equivalent of this in the Hindi translation is the -ga form (predictive mode) in 168 occurrences. There are 33 occurrences of will/shall where the equivalent is not a predictive form. In terms of percentage we can say that in about 84 percent of cases the non-modalized (future) verbal group in English has as its translation equivalent the 'predictive' verbal group in Hindi.

7.3632. (d) FUTURE (MODALIZED) : (i) WOULD (English and Hindi):

TABLE 9

ENGLISH	HINDI
WOULD (151) 2.48%	-ga form (73) 48.34%
	-ta form (Imperfect)(66) 43.71%
	Other form(s) (12) 7.95%

ENGLISH		HINDI
WOULD	1. Would you want the reports weekly? (p23)	1. əccha yəh bətayye ky ap hər səptah ryport cahege? (p 30)
	2. I imagined in those days that any suffering she underwent would lighten mine. (p 8)	-ga form 2. wndyno mwjhe ləgta tha ky səyra ko jytna hi kəgtho mwjhe wtna hi swkh mylega (p 9)
WOULD HAVE+	1. I would have welcomed the open fight (p 14)	1. məybəlky wsse khwle me ləṛne ke lyye təyyar bhi ho jata (p 17)
	2. He wouldn't have known what it was (p 48)	-ta form (Imperfect) 2. wse pəta hi nəhi cəlta ky vəh kəysi avaz thi (p 62)
	3. If we had believed in sin our behaviour would hardly have differed (p. 55)	3. yədy həm dono ko pap me vyʃvas hota to bhi həmara vyəvhar ysse bhynnə nə hota (p.70)
	4. He would have felt no surprise or irritation.. (p 23)	4. wse aʃcərya ya jhwjhlahəṭ nəhi hoti (p 29)
WOULD	1. Would you mind initialling the expenses, sir, if you approve them? (p 41)	Other Form(s) 1. to yəh khərc apke khyal se ṭhik ho to yspər həstakchar kər dijye (p 51)

7.36321. Notes on Table 9:

When a verbal group in English is expounded by would $+V^{o}$ (i.e. verb in its base form), its most probable translation equivalent in Hindi is a simple verbal group in the predictive mode (i.e. -ga form). But when it combines with the perfect aspect (i.e. would have $+V^{n}$), its most probable translation equivalent is the Hindi imperfect verbal group (i.e. -ta form).

There is nothing corresponding to would (you) mind v^{g} form in Hindi. In an identical situation, the appropriate Hindi form would be an imperative verbal group (honorific).

e.g. English: Would you mind initialling the expenses, sir, if you approve them? (p 41)

Hindi: to yəh khərc apke khyal se †hik ho to yspər həstakchər kər dijye (p 51)

7.3633., (d) FUTURE (MODALIZED): (ii) SHOULD (English and Hindi):

TABLE 10

ENGLISH	HINDI
SHOULD (101) 1.66%	CAHYYE (83) 82.18%
	OTHER FORMS (18) 17.82%

	ENGLISH	HINDI
SHOULD	1.'You shouldn't have fetched that yourself', she said (p 49)	1."twmhẽ botəl lane khwd nəhĩ jana cahyye tha", səyra boli (p 62)
	2. I should have given it to Mr. Savage (p 85)	2. mwjhe yəh ciz mysṭər səyvej ko de deni cahyye thi (p 108)
	3. You shouldn't have run away from me like that (p 127)	3. twmhẽ ys tərəh mwjhse dur nəhĩ həṭna cahyye tha (p 157)
	4. If a woman is in one's thoughts all day, one should not have to dream of her at night (p 19)	4. dyn bhər kysi stri ki bat dymag pər chai rəhe to rat ko wske səpne nəhĩ ane cahyye (p 24)
	5. For why should I have spoken to him ? (p 7)	5. nəhĩ to mẽy wsse bat kyõ kərta? (p 7)
	6. I think I should have been overjoyed (p 14)	6. mẽy səməjhta hũ ky mwjhe khwʃi hi hoti (p 17)

CAHYYE

OTHER FORMS

7.36331. Notes on Table 10:

English should + V^{o} (verb in base form) and Hindi -na (infinitive) + cahyye may be regarded as translation equivalents. But when should is followed by have +V^{n} (i.e. we have, should+ have+ V^{n}), there is a very high probability of its being translated by -na (infinitive) + cahyye + tha. We may, therefore, say that:

English		Hindi
should + V^{o}	=	-na + cahyye
should + have + V^{n}	=	-na + cahyye + tha.

7.3634. (d) FUTURE (MODALIZED): (iii) COULD (English and Hindi):

TABLE 11

ENGLISH	HINDI
COULD (111) 1.82%	səkna (101) (Perfect or Imperfect) 90.99%
	OTHER FORMS (10) 9.01%

	ENGLISH		HINDI
COULD	1. I couldn't read any more (p122)	səkna (Perfect)	1. mɛ̃yəwr nəhĩ pərh səka (p 150)
	2. I could so easily have avoided him (p 8)	səkna (Imperfect) + Past	2. mɛ̃y cahta to wski nəzər bəcakər bhi ja səkta tha (p 8)
	3. I couldn't bring down that curtain round the moment, I couldn't forget and I could not fear (p 50)		3. mɛ̃y ek kohən ko wski tərəh yəvnykao ke ghere me hi nəhĩ la səkta tha, əpne ko vysmryty me nəhĩ kho səkta tha, nyhʃək nəhi ho səkta tha (p 63)
	4. Could I speak to Mrs Miles then ? (p 122)	səkna (Imperfect) + Present	4. to kya mɛ̃y mysez mayls se bat kər səkta hu ? (p 151)
	5. I couldn't sleep(p 136)	Non-səkna forms	5. mwjhe der tək nĩd nəhĩ ai (p 168)
	6. I couldn't leave her alone in pain(p125)		6. mɛ̃y wse ws kəʂţ mẽ əkeli nəhĩ rəhne dena cahta tha (p 154)

7.36341. Notes on Table 11:

An English verbal group containing could normally translates into a Hindi verbal group containing səkna. Could + have + V^n has V^o + səkta + tha as equivalent When could + have + V^n operates at P in a dependent reported clause, it may have V^o + səkta * həy , as equivalent in Hindi. The non-səkna forms shown in the table are a result of idiosyncratic translation. For example, normally one would translate : "I couldn't sleep" into "mə̃y so nəhĩ̃ səka/ nəhĩ̃ so səka".

7.3635. (d) FUTURE (MODALIZED) :(iv) CAN (English and Hindi):

TABLE 12

ENGLISH	HINDI
CAN (147) 2.42%	səkta ± həy (135) 91.84%
	OTHER FORMS (12) 8.16%

	ENGLISH		HINDI
CAN	1. You can trust me(p 14)	səkta ± həy	1. twm mwjhpər pura vyʃvas kər səkteho (p 18)
	2. I can't do without you (p116)		2. mə̃y twmhare byna nəhĩ rəh səkta (p 142)
	3. I can never think of you as a friend (p 117)		3. mə̃y twmhẽ kəbhi kevəl ek mytrə nəhĩ səmejh səkta (p 143)
	4. Can you give me any facts about the household (p)		4. kya ap ws ghər ke bare mẽ kwch bat bəta səkte hə̃y?
	5. Can I fetch your little boy a glass of water ? (p 77)	Other form(s)	5. mə̃y ləṛke ke lyye pani la dũ? (p 97)

7.36351. Notes on Table 12:

The most probable translation of can + V^{o} (English) is səkta ± həy (Hindi). We must however note the following facts:

1. 'can' can stand on its own and form a simple verbal group; səkna cannot stand on its own.

2. 'can' can co-occur with V^{g} e.g. 'can be doing'; but səkna and rəha (exponent of the progressive) are mutually exclusive.

3. Hindi has no discrete equivalent of can operating in 'question-tag clauses'.

Ex. English: 'It can do no harm, can it ? ' (p 78)

Hindi: "əwrẽj skvəyʃ se nwksan to nəhĩ hoga ?" (p 98)

There is nothing in the Hindi equivalent corresponding to the (English) exponent of P (which is can) in the 'question-tag clause'.

7.3636. (d) FUTURE (MODALIZED) (v) MAY, MIGHT, OUGHT TO, MUST:

TABLE 13

ENGLISH	HINDI
MAY(67) 1.10%	FUTURE (Potential) (39) 58.20%
	SUBJUNCTIVE (28) 41.80%
MIGHT (56) .92%	FUTURE (Potential) (45) 80.36%
	SUBJUNCTIVE(11) 19.64%
MUST (37) .61%	FUTURE (Presumptive) (28) 75.68%
	OTHER FORMS (9) 24.32%
OUGHT TO (37) .61%	CAHYYE (30) 81.08%
	OTHER FORMS (7) 18.92%

	ENGLISH	HINDI	
MAY	1. It may never be finished (p 23)	Subjunctive (unmarked)	1. ho səkta həy karyəvahi puri hone ki nəwbət hi nə ae (p 30)
	2. ...if I may say so..(p 39)	Future (Potential)	2. ..əgər səcmwc əysa ho..(p 48)
MIGHT	1. I thought I might be of some use (p138)	Subjunctive (unmarked)	1. mə̃yne soca ky ʃayəd mə̃y ws səməy kwch səhayta kər səkũ (p 170)
	2. he might even be one of my few readers (p 31)	Future (Potential)	2. ho səkta hə̃y becara mere thoɽe se paɽhəkõ me se ho (p 38)
MUST	1. He must have seen through the pretence (p 15)	Future (Presumptive)	1. vəh admi zərur səmə̃jh gəya hoga ky əsli bat kya həy (p 18)
	2. I must have wanted him.(p102) (p102)		2. wndynõ mwjhe zərur wsse prem rəha hoga.. (p125)
	3. I suppose something must have made her take it out to read (p 83)	Other forms(s)	3. ho səkta həy kysi vəjəh se pəɽhne ke lyye nykali ho (p 1
OUGHT TO	1. you ought to be in bed(p127)	-nə + cahyye	1. twmhe cəlkər bystər me aram k ərna cahyye (p 157)
	2. I really ought to be going (p 147)		2. əccha to əb məy cəlũga (p 181
	3. I said' I ought to introduce myself (p 77)	Other form(s)	3. "məy əpna pəryceəy de dũ" məyne kəha (p 98)

7.36361. Notes on Table 13:

There is a high measure of correspondence between must have $+V^n$ form and the future presumptive in Hindi. It is interesting to note that may is translated by subjunctive (unmarked) form which presupposes ho səkta həy as exponent of P in a preceding presupposed clause. The most frequent translation equivalent of 'ought to + V^o' is '-na + cahyye'.

One of the contextual meanings of 'may' and 'might' may be described as 'probability'/'possibility'. Translationally, this meaning is reflected either in A (adjunct) of the equivalent clause or in P of the preceding presupposed clause.

Ex. English: I thought I might be of some use (p 138)

Hindi: mə̃yne soca ky ʃayəd mə̃y ws səməy kwch səhayta kər səkũ (p 170)

ʃayəd which is an exponent of A in the sequential dependent clause in the sentence quoted above carries the meaning of 'probability'/'possibility'.

Ex. English: It may never be finished (p 23)

Hindi: ho səkta həy karyəvahi puri hone ki nəwbət hi nə ae (p 30)

Here 'ho səkta həy' which expounds P carries the meaning of 'probability'/'possibility'.

7.37. The systems of finiteness (English and Hindi):

TABLE 14

ENGLISH		HINDI
FINITE (4940) 81.25%		FINITE 100% Correspondence
NON-FINITE (1140) 18.75%	INFINITIVAL (645) 56.58%	INFINITIVE (FINITE) (35) 5.43%
		INFINITIVAL (610) 94.57%
	PARTICIPIAL (495) 43.42%	CONJUNCTIVAL (93) 18.79%
		PARTICIPIAL (402) 81.21%

	ENGLISH		HINDI
FINITE	1. Sometimes I don't recognise my own thoughts (p 46)	FINITE	1. kəbhi-kəbhi mwjhe ʂvəyə̃ əpne vyɔaro ka pəta nəhi cəlta (p 58)
NON-FINITE (INF.)	1. I wanted ta ask you something (p 29)	INFINITIVE (FINITE)	1. mwjhe twmse kwch bat kərni həy (p 36)
	2. It is my profession to imagine, to think in images (p 72)	INFINITIVAL (NON-FINITE)	2. kəlpna kərna əwr hər ʈis̃ko rup dekər wske bare me soɔna to mera peʃa hi həy (p 92)
NON-FINITE (PART.)	1. I went out of the pub, leaving the girl with her whisky to finish. (p 57)	CONJUNCTIVAL	1. ləɽki abhi vhyski pi hi rəhi thi ky məywse chɔɽkər ʃərabkhane se bahər cəla aya (p 73)
	2. 'sar-ah', spacing the syllables with unbearable falsity (p 18)	PARTICIPIAL	2. "səy-ɽa! səy-ra!! "henri ne bio me toɽte hwe kəha (p 22)

7.371. Notes on Table 14:

The finite verbal group does not pose any problems. There is 100% correspondence between the finite verbal group in the SL and that in the TL.

The infinitival verbal group needs to be examined carefully. In Hindi we have made a distinction between the infinitives(finite) which inflect for number and gender, and the infinitival (non-finite) which do not. On the basis of our present statistical study, the percentage of the non-finite infinitival verbal group (in English) having finite infinitive verbal group (in Hindi) as translation equivalent may be said to be 5.43.

The participial (when expounded by having/being + V^n) has the conjunctival (kər form) as the most frequent translation equivalent.

Ex. English: ...being whirled away towards the north side (p 8)

Hindi: ...həyt ɱrkər wttər ki tərəph jane ləga (p 9)

7.4. Summary:

(1) By looking at the descriptions of the English and Hindi verbal groups and the translation equivalents, one may say that there is a fairly high degree of convergance between formal correspondence and textual equivalence so far as the primary systems of the verbal groups are concerned (i.e. at the 'primary' end of the delicacy cline), but in the case of the secondary systems, there is considerable divergence between formal correspondence and textual equivalence.

(2) One of the structural differences between the English and Hindi verbal groups is that whereas in the former the lexical verb appears initially in the group and is followed by the grammatical verb(s), in the latter the lexical verb occurs finally preceded by the grammatical verb(s).

(3) The exponents of contrastiveness appear as 'initiators' in the English verbal group; the exponents of contrastiveness cannot be 'group-initiators' in Hindi. Do, does, did as exponents of contrastiveness have nil equivalent in Hindi. Usually in such cases, contrastiveness (or emphasis) is

carried by some other element of clause structure.

(4) There is no formal correspondent in Hindi to the English 'perfect progressive' (active). In fact the 'perfect' and the 'progressive' forms cannot co-occur in the Hindi active verbal group. So, we get the following translation equivalents:

English		Hindi
to be + V^g	———	V^o + rəha + tense
has/have/had + been + V^g	———	V^t + tense

(5) Hindi does not make any distinctions corresponding to 'ought to' and 'should'.

(6) The concordial categories are not so important in English as in Hindi. In fact the English verbal group displays number and person only in the case of the verb 'to be'. The Hindi verbal group displays a complex network of intragroup and intergroup number, gender and person concord.

(7) To the 'ing' form in the English finite verbal group corresponds 'rəha' in the Hindi finite verbal group (for cases of non-correspondence see point 4); to the 'ing' form in the English non-finite verbal group corresponds 'kər' in the Hindi non-finite verbal group (for co-textual restrictions cf 7.371)

(8) Some of the other correspondences may be shown in the following way -

ENGLISH	HINDI
(a) Past, (non-progressive, non-perfect)	Past (Non-progressive, non-perfect)
	Perfect (Non-progressive)
(b) Past progressive (non-perfect)	Past progressive (non-perfect)
	Past imperfect (habitual)

(c) Present (non-progressive, nonperfect)
- Present, Habitual (Non-progressive, non-perfect)
- Present progressive (non-perfect)

(d) Present Progressive (non-perfect)
- Present progressive (non-perfect)
- Present Habitual (non-progressive, non-perfect)

(e) the verb 'to be' + V^n (Passive)	V^y + the verb 'ja' + tense-exponents (Passive)
(f) (do etc) n't/not e.g. don't/ do not	nə, nə̃hi, mət

END OF PART III

APPENDIX

I Explanation of symbols, abbreviations and conventions used

A.

sentence boundary ///

clause boundary //

group boundary /

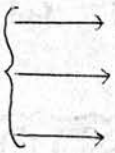
boundary of rankshifted clause [[ ]]

boundary of rankshifted group [ ]

rankshift R/S

inserted clause ⟪ ⟫

delicacy →

simultaneous systems 

B.

"Categories" = Halliday's "Categories of the theory of grammar"

"Chain and Choice" = Halliday's "Class in relation to the axes of chain and choice in language".

"Secret History" = Halliday's "The language of the chinese 'Secret History of the Mongols'".

"Abaza" = Allen's "Structure and system in the Abaza verbal complex".

II SPECIMEN ANALYSIS

(a) /// cytrəlekha ne$^{\alpha}$ əpneko ʈəʈola //wsne əpne mẽ$^{\&\alpha}$ ek vycytrə prəkar ka pəryvərtən paya ///

Unit: Sentence (compound)

Structure: α & α

$$\overset{S}{\text{cytrəlekhane}} \;/\; \overset{O}{\text{əpne ko}} \;/\; \overset{P}{\text{ʈəʈola}}$$

Unit: Clause (Independent)

Structure: SOP

$$\overset{S}{\text{wsne}} \;/\; \overset{A}{\text{əpnemẽ}} \;/\; \text{ek vycytrə prəkar ka pəryvərtən} \;/\; \overset{O}{\text{paya}} \;/\; \overset{P}{\text{}}$$

Unit: Clause (Independent)

Structure: SAOP

$$/\; \overset{h}{\text{cytrəlekhane}} \;/$$

Unit: Group (Nominal)

Structure: h(ergative case)

$$/\; \overset{h}{\text{əpne ko}} \;/$$

Unit: Group (Nominal)

Structure: h(accusative case)

$$/\; \overset{1^{y}}{\text{ʈəʈəla}} \;/$$

Unit: Group (Verbal)

Structure: 1^{y} (Perfect aspect)

$$/\overset{h}{\text{wsne}}\;/$$

Unit: Group (Nominal)

Structure: h (ergative case)

$$/\; \overset{h}{\text{əpne mẽ}} \;/$$

Unit: Group (Adverbial)

Structure: h (postpositional case)

d^{p^g} h

/ ek vycytrə prəkar ka pəryvərtən /

Unit: Group (Nominal)

Structure: d^{p^g} h

Here we have a nominal group rankshifted to operate in word structure, i.e. in the structure of the exponent of d^{p^g}. It may be shown as below:

ek vycytrə prəkar ka / pəryvərtən
o e h | h

R/S Ngp.

d^{p^g}

l^y

/ paya /

Unit: Group (Verbal)

Structure: l^y (Perfect aspect)

(b) /// $\overset{\alpha}{\text{məyne}}$ ⟪ $\overset{\beta}{\text{bystər pər leṭkər}}$ ⟫ ãkhẽ mũd lĩ ///

Unit: Sentence (Compound)

Structure: $\alpha \langle \beta \rangle$

S O P

// mə̃yne / ãkhẽ / mũd / lĩ //

Unit: clause (Independent)

Structure: SOP

h

/ mə̃yne /

Unit: Group (Nominal)

Structure: h (ergative case)

h

/ãkhẽ /

Unit: Group (Nominal)

Structure: h (direct case)

1 i
/ mud̃ lĩ /

Unit: Group (Verbal)

Structure: li

A P
// bystər pər / leʈkər //

Unit: Clause (Dependent)

Structure: AP

h
/ bytər pər /

Unit: Group (Adverbial)

Structure: h (Postpositional case)

1
/leʈkər /

Unit: Group (Verbal)

Structure: 1 (More delicately, 1^{c} i.e. conjunctival non-finite verb).

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