

“Split grammaticalization” of ‘be’ in New Indo-Aryan

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This presentation focuses on some aspects of the grammaticalization of ‘be’ as an auxiliary within the formation of New Indo-Aryan participle-based verb forms. A typologically non-obvious feature of this diachronic development lies in the fact that two among the major functions characteristically carried out by auxiliaries, i.e. 1) to act as a TAM marker and 2) to act as a Person-Agreement marker, become autonomous from each other. As we will try to show, a non-trivial property of some New Indo-Aryan periphrastic verb forms, i.e. the fact of exhibiting two instances of Person-Agreement (i.e. one on the lexical verb and another one on the auxiliary) is strictly related to this split.

The participle-based periphrastic constructions relevant to our subject are both those employing the old present participle (i.e. the imperfective participle) and those employing the old verbal adjective in *-ta* (i.e. the perfective participle) – on the typology of grammaticalization paths involving ‘be’ plus participle, see Heine (1993: 36), Krug (2011).

Crucial facts are: 1) the peculiar kind of grammaticalization undergone by ‘be’ in a series of varieties, i.e. not simply a grammaticalization of ‘be’, but the grammaticalization of the opposition between presence and absence of ‘be’ as a formal device for distinguishing different TAM categories; 2) the fact that the constructions in which the original participles figure without being accompanied by a form of ‘be’, i.e. the participial predicates with purely nominal syntax, are diachronically reanalysed as “normal” finite verb constructions – by which we do not allude, of course, to the morphological properties typically but not necessarily associated with finite verb forms (since these forms may continue not to inflect for person), but to the purely syntactic/distributional property of being able to stand in a simple declarative sentence.

From a cross-linguistic point of view, we can posit three major patterns according to which a participle-based construction is integrated into the inflectional paradigm of a verbal lexeme: Pattern A: participle with ‘be’ for all person values; Pattern B (auxiliary-less): participle without ‘be’ for all person values; Pattern C (mixed): participle with ‘be’ for 1st and 2nd persons, and participle without ‘be’ for 3rd persons. Exemplifications are provided by the past tense of the Slavonic languages: Serbo-Croatian has A, Russian has B, Polish and Czech have C (Vaillant 1966: 87-89; cf. also Andersen 1987; Hopper, Traugott 2003: 145-147).

What is remarkable in the development of a series of New Indo-Aryan languages – we will focus in particular on Hindi, Marathi and Gujarati – is that we find more than one pattern in a single verbal system. This is self-evident in Hindi, where we find both the A and the B pattern (cf. Montaut 2004, 2006): Pattern A (full auxiliary): with the present participle → present progressive (subsequently developed into a general imperfective present); with the perfective participle → present perfect; Pattern B (auxiliary-less): with present participle → conditional (counterfactual) and “past habitual”; with the perfective participle → preterite (perfective past).

Significantly, the functions associated with these four types continue uses already documented in Middle Indo-Aryan (including Late Sanskrit) and Early New Indo-Aryan (as for the present participle, cf. Sen [1953] 1965, §§ 150-153; Singh 1980: 150-151; Bubeník 1998: 108-109; Strnad 2013: 415-416; as for the perfective participle, see Bloch 1906: 66-67). In fact, the crucial Modern New Indo-Aryan innovation was to made the presence of the auxiliary either categorically required or categorically excluded according to the different functions

(or function bundles). Thus in the Hindi system (see table 1 below) the present indicative ~ conditional opposition and the present perfect ~ preterite opposition are expounded by the presence vs. absence of the auxiliary (and by the related selection of the nasalized feminine plural ending in auxiliary-less constructions). Though the auxiliary contained in these constructions does inflect for person, person-inflection is not a real requirement for Hindi finite verbs, as is shown by preterite and conditional, which are, synchronically, finite verb forms.

An interesting development is found in Marathi, a language with a dispreference for finite verbs non-inflecting for person. Marathi shows a univerbized pattern C (i.e. a resynthesized paradigm where non-third persons have person agreement endings which are the outcomes of the cliticization and univerbation of inflected forms of the auxiliary ‘be’ – cf. Bloch 1920: 246) exactly for the same functions for which Hindi has pattern B: conditional and preterite. These univerbized occurrences of ‘be’, which serve as person markers, do not prevent the simultaneous presence of autonomous non-univerbized forms of ‘be’, which serve as TAM markers, in the same periphrastic construction. This development constitutes a “grammaticalization split” in the sense that the inflected forms of ‘be’ underwent a split whereby they were grammaticalized as Person Agreement markers along one path and as TAM markers along another. Thus in Marathi, like in Hindi, the present perfect is identical to the simple preterite except for the additional presence of the auxiliary, but unlike in Hindi, it shows two occurrences of person agreement: one in the form of the lexical verbs (which is a participle with an univerbized auxiliary) and another one in the unbound auxiliary form. In fact this constructions represents a sort of C + A double pattern (see, e.g. the 2nd plural forms in tables 2 and 3 below; cf. Navalkar 1880: 158; Katenina 1983: 223, 235-238).

As for the other periphrases, the Marathi situation is complicated by the fact that this language manages to form three different verbal categories based on the gender-distinguishing imperfective participle. Indeed, in the first place, it employs the opposition between two different sets of participial endings (the first, which is the regular outcome of the *-aka-likā*-enlarged participle, with masc. sing. *-ā* ~ fem. sing. *-ī*; the second, which is probably taken from the 3rd person pronoun *to*, with masc. sing. *-o* ~ fem. sing. *-e* – cf. Bloch 1920: 247-248) to distinguish the conditional (in *-ā* ~ *-ī*) from the general imperfective present (in *-e* ~ *-o*); in the second place, it employs the presence of the auxiliary in order to formally characterize the “emphatic” present progressive, which, like the present perfect, exhibits both univerbized and unbound forms of “be” and is, therefore, a double finite verb (tables 4, 5, 6; cf. Navalkar 1880: 157, 160; Katenina 1963: 222-223, 229-230).

As we will try to show, a hypothesis can be proposed about the origin of the type of double finite present shown by Gujarati (but also by other varieties of a wide western South-Asian area, including the Khari Boli dialect; cf. LSI 9/1: 65, 73, 81, 255; LSI 9/2: 26, 41, 48, 57; LSI 9/3: 13; Tessitori 1915: 74; Varma 1935: 119). Such a construction consists of the combination of the old present with the ‘be’ auxiliary (table 7). Indeed it can be thought that this kind of double finite verb owes its origin to the fact that in these varieties the old present also got sucked into the verbal subsystem marked by formal oppositions based on the presence vs. absence of ‘be’. Sanskrit uses of *asti* with meanings like “once upon a time” or “it is the case that” have been cautiously and tentatively invoked by Hock (2014) as possible precursors of the formation at issue. However, if our hypothesis holds, such an attempt at explanation will turn out to be unnecessary.

Tables:

1)	Hindi: inflection of <i>calnā</i> 'go, walk'			
	present		conditional	
	m.	f.	m.	f.
1sg.	<i>caltā hū</i>	<i>calī hū</i>	<i>caltā</i>	<i>calī</i>
2sg.	<i>caltā hai</i>	<i>calī hai</i>	<i>caltā</i>	<i>calī</i>
3sg.	<i>caltā hai</i>	<i>calī hai</i>	<i>caltā</i>	<i>calī</i>
1pl.	<i>calte hāī</i>	<i>calī hāī</i>	<i>calte</i>	<i>calī</i>
2pl.	<i>calte ho</i>	<i>calī ho</i>	<i>calte</i>	<i>calī</i>
3pl.	<i>calte hāī</i>	<i>calī hāī</i>	<i>calte</i>	<i>calī</i>
	present perfect		preterite	
1sg.	<i>calā hū</i>	<i>calī hū</i>	<i>calā</i>	<i>calī</i>
...

2)	Marathi: perfect of 'walk'		
	m.	f.	n.
1sg	<i>cālālō āhē</i>	<i>cālālē āhē</i>	<i>cālālē āhē</i>
2sg	<i>cālālā āhes</i>	<i>cālālī āhes</i>	<i>cālālē āhes</i>
3sg	<i>cālālā āhe</i>	<i>cālālī āhe</i>	<i>cālālē āhe</i>
1pl	<i>cālālō āhō</i>		
2pl	<i>cālālā āhā</i>		
3pl	<i>cālāle āhet</i>	<i>cālālyā āhet</i>	<i>cālālī āhet</i>

3)	Marathi: preterite of 'walk'		
	m.	f.	n.
1sg	<i>cālālō</i>	<i>cālālē</i>	<i>cālālē</i>
2sg	<i>cālālās</i>	<i>cālālīs</i>	<i>cālālēs</i>
3sg	<i>cālālā</i>	<i>cālālī</i>	<i>cālālē</i>
1pl	<i>cālālō</i>		
2pl	<i>cālālā</i>		
3pl	<i>cālāle</i>	<i>cālālyā</i>	<i>cālālī</i>

4)	Marathi: conditional of 'walk'		
	m.	f.	n.
1sg	<i>cāltō</i>	<i>cāltē</i>	<i>cāltē</i>
2sg	<i>cāltās</i>	<i>cāltīs</i>	<i>cāltēs</i>
3sg	<i>cāltā</i>	<i>cāltī</i>	<i>cāltē</i>
1pl	<i>cāltō</i>		
2pl	<i>cāltā</i>		
3pl	<i>cālte</i>	<i>cāltiyā</i>	<i>cāltī</i>

5)	Marathi: present of 'walk'		
	m.	f.	n.
1sg	<i>cāltō</i>	<i>cāltē</i>	<i>cāltē</i>
2sg	<i>cāltos</i>	<i>cāltēs</i>	<i>cāltēs</i>
3sg	<i>cāltō</i>	<i>cālte</i>	<i>cāltē</i>
1pl	<i>cāltō</i>		
2pl	<i>cāltā</i>		
3pl	<i>cāltāt</i>		

6)	Marathi: emphatic present progressive of 'walk'		
	m.	f.	n.
1sg	<i>cāltō āhē</i>	<i>cāltē āhē</i>	<i>cāltē āhē</i>
2sg	<i>cāltos āhes</i>	<i>cāltēs āhes</i>	<i>cāltēs āhes</i>
3sg	<i>cāltō āhe</i>	<i>cālte āhe</i>	<i>cāltē āhe</i>
1pl	<i>cāltō āhō</i>		
2pl	<i>cāltā āhā</i>		
3pl	<i>cālte āhet</i>	<i>cāltiyā āhet</i>	<i>cāltī āhet</i>

7)	Gujarati: present of 'go'	Braj (Bulandshahar): present of 'go'
1sg	<i>avū chū</i>	<i>calū hū</i>
2sg	<i>ave che</i>	<i>calae hae</i>
3sg	<i>ave che</i>	<i>calae hae</i>
1pl	<i>avie chie</i>	<i>calaē haē</i>
2pl	<i>avo cho</i>	<i>calao hao</i>
3pl	<i>ave che</i>	<i>calaē haē</i>

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