

The Structure of Urdu — Case

Miriam Butt

Universität Konstanz

miriam.butt@uni-konstanz.de

1 The Language

Urdu is a South Asian language spoken in:

- Pakistan (national language)
- India (one of the 18 official languages)
- World-Wide due to South Asian Diaspora (big populations in U.K., U.S.A., Canada, etc.)

Urdu is closely related to Hindi.

Taken together these represent the second most spoken language in the world: **400 000 000**.

Properties: SOV, subject and object agreement, non-nominative case including an ergative.

2 Clause Structure

- SOV, fairly free word order.
- Everything head-final, except for some complementizers (cf. Bayer 1999), relative clauses.
- Word order determined by information structure (Butt and King 1996, 1997).
- Rampant Pro-drop. Also determined by information structure. (Butt and King 1997, Prasad 2003).

3 The Nominal Domain

- No definite determiners (demonstratives, one indefinite determiner). Specificity marked via the accusative case clitic *ko*, as in Turkish (Enç 1991).
- Adjectives agree in number and gender with the noun. Mostly preverbal.
- Quantifiers are prenominal, but can sometimes appear postnominally. *Anybody, nobody, somebody*, etc. are realized compositionally.
- There are non-nominative subjects (see Mohanan 1994 for subject tests).
- Correlatives (Dayal, Bhatt).

4 Case

This section is based on Butt and King (2005): The Status of Case. PDF file available at: <http://ling.uni-konstanz.de/pages/home/butt/>

The term case is from Latin *cāsus*, which is in turn a translation of the Greek *ptōsis* ‘fall’. The term originally referred to verbs as well as nouns and the idea seems to have been of falling away from an assumed standard form . . . [Blake 2001:18]

(1) Sample Sanskrit Declension

Number	Declination	Western name
1	<i>devas</i>	nominative
2	<i>devam</i>	accusative
3	<i>devena</i>	instrumental
4	<i>devāya</i>	dative
5	<i>devāt</i>	ablative
6	<i>devasya</i>	genitive
7	<i>deve</i>	locative

Case Forms in Middle Indo-Aryan

	Singular	Plural
Nominative	<i>-u, a, aṁ</i>	<i>-a, aī</i>
Accusative	[same as Nominative]	
Instrumental	<i>-eṁ, iṁ, he, hi</i>	<i>-e(h)ī, ehi, ahī</i>
Ablative	<i>-hu, ahu, aho</i>	<i>-hū, ahū</i>
Genitive/Dative	<i>-ho, aho, ha, su, ssu</i>	<i>-na, hā</i>
Locative	<i>-i, hi, hiṁ</i>	<i>-hī</i>

These forms were either lost or were collapsed into the modern oblique marking (Beames 1872:209). The genitive and locative forms seem to have fallen together in Apabhraṁsa, and in old (or archaic) Hindi the ablative, dative, and accusative singular were then also collapsed (Kellogg 1893:126).

The Modern Case Markers

Clitic	Case	Gram. Func.	Morph. Effect
∅	nominative	subj/obj	none
ne	ergative	subj	oblique marking on NP
ko	accusative	obj	oblique marking on NP
	dative	subj/ind. obj	oblique marking on NP
se	instrumental	subj/obl/adjunct	oblique marking on NP
k-	genitive	subj (infinitives) specifier	agrees with head noun none
mē/par/tak/∅	locative	obl/adjunct	oblique marking on NP

4.1 Ergative

The ergative is confined to subjects and must appear on transitive verbs in the perfect. Also notice the agreement pattern.

- (2) a. yassin=ne gari xarid-i
 Yassin.M.Sg=Erg car.F.Sg.Nom buy-Perf.F.Sg
 ‘Yassin bought a car.’
- b. yassin gari xarid-e-g-a
 Yassin.M.Sg.Nom car.F.Sg.Nom buy-3.Sg-Fut-M.Sg
 ‘Yassin will buy a car.’

But, there are exceptions.

- (3) nadya kitab la-yi
 Nadya.F.Sg.Nom book.F.Sg.Nom bring-Perf.F.Sg
 ‘Nadya brought a book.’

Unergative verbs generally may appear with an ergative. This depends on the semantics to be expressed.

- (4) a. ram k^hās-a
 Ram.M.Sg.Nom cough-Perf.M.Sg
 ‘Ram coughed.’ (Tuite, Agha and Graczyk 1985:264)
- b. ram=ne k^hās-a
 Ram.M.Sg=Erg cough-Perf.M.Sg
 ‘Ram coughed (purposefully).’ (Tuite, Agha and Graczyk 1985:264)

The ergative also alternates with a dative Inf+be expressions (modality).

- (5) a. nadya=ne zu ja-na hε
 Nadya.F.Sg=Erg zoo.M.Sg.Obl go-Inf.M.Sg be.Pres.3.Sg
 ‘Nadya wants to go to the zoo.’
- b. nadya=ko zu ja-na hε
 Nadya.F.Sg=Dat zoo.M.Sg.Obl go-Inf.M.Sg be.Pres.3.Sg
 ‘Nadya has to go to the zoo.’

Butt and King (1991) and Mohanan (1994) therefore argue that the ergative is associated with volitionality or the feature [+conscious choice]. Bashir (1999), based on an examination of current usage of the ergative in modern day Urdu TV dramas, concludes that the picture is not so simple. She observes the pattern below and proposes an explanation in terms of markedness.

The Ergative and Semantic Entailments

	Tense/Aspect	Valency	Ergative	Semantic Entailment
a.	Finite, Perfect	Intransitive	No	No entailment
b.		Unergative	Yes	[+conscious choice]
c.	Finite, Perfect	Transitive	No	Exceptional, No entailment
d.			Yes	No entailment
e.	Infinitive	Any	No	[−source specified]
f.			Yes	[+source specified]

4.2 Nominative

The nominative is phonologically null. It can alternate with accusative *ko* to produce specificity effects. Notice the agreement patterns.

- (6) a. nadya=ne gari cula-yi he
 Nadya.F.Sg=Erg car.F.Sg.Nom drive-Perf.F.Sg be.Pres.3.Sg
 ‘Nadya has driven a car.’
- b. nadya=ne gari=ko cula-ya he
 Nadya.F.Sg=Erg car.F.Sg=Acc drive-Perf.M.Sg be.Pres.3.Sg
 ‘Nadya has driven the car.’

A clause may contain more than one nominative argument.

- (7) nadya gari cula-ti he
 Nadya.F.Sg.Nom car.F.Sg.Nom drive-Impf.F.Sg be.Pres.3.Sg
 ‘Nadya drives a car.’

4.3 Accusative

The accusative is form-identical with the dative *ko*. Many approaches therefore assume that Urdu/Hindi lacks an accusative and that the *ko* is an inherent dative case (e.g., Mahajan 1990, Davison 1998). However, there are two distinct distributional patterns with regard to *ko*. As shown in (6), the accusative alternates with the nominative on objects to express specificity. Furthermore, *ko* is associated with a notion of affectedness (Saksena 1982). Relevant examples come from causativization patterns.

- (8) a. anjum=ne saddaf=ko/*se k^hana k^hil-a-ya
 Anjum.F.Sg=Erg Saddaf.F.Sg=Acc/Inst food.M.Sg.Nom eat-Caus-Perf.M.Sg
 ‘Anjum made Saddaf eat food (gave Saddaf food to eat).’
- b. anjum=ne saddaf=se/*ko paoda kaṭ-a-ya
 Anjum.F.Sg=Erg Saddaf.F.Sg=Inst/Acc plant.M.Sg.Nom cut-Caus-Perf.M.Sg
 ‘Anjum had Saddaf cut a/the plant.’
- (9) a. anjum=ne saddaf=ko masala cak^h-va-ya
 Anjum.F.Sg=Erg Saddaf.F.Sg=Acc spice.M.Sg.Nom taste-Caus-Perf.M.Sg
 ‘Anjum had Saddaf taste the seasoning.’
- b. anjum=ne saddaf=se masala cak^h-va-ya
 Anjum.F.Sg=Erg Saddaf.F.Sg=Inst spice.M.Sg.Nom taste-Caus-Perf.M.Sg
 ‘Anjum had the seasoning tasted by Saddaf.’

4.4 Dative

The dative is identical in form to the accusative. It differs from the accusative in that it marks indirect objects, as in (10), and subjects, as in (11), and never alternates with nominative objects. The dative indirect object in (10) never becomes subject under passivization, unlike the accusative.

- (10) anjum=ne saddaf=ko ciṭṭ^hi d-i
 Anjum.F.Sg=Erg Saddaf.F.Sg=Dat letter.F.Sg.Nom give-Perf.F.Sg
 ‘Anjum gave Saddaf a letter.’

The dative is associated with the θ -role *goal/experiencer* (cf. Verma and K.P. Mohanan (1990) on experiencer subjects, and Mohanan 1994 and references therein). Experiencer subjects encompass modal contexts such as in (11a), psych predicates as in (11b), the alternation with the ergative as in (5), and subjects of N-V complex predicates, as in (11c).

- (11) a. nadya=ko skul ja-na paṛ-a
 Nadya.F.Sg=Dat school.F.Sg.Obl go-Inf.M.Sg fall-Perf.M.Sg
 ‘Nadya had to go to school.’
 b. nadya=ko ḍar lag-a
 Nadya.F.Sg=Dat fear.M.Sg.Nom be attached-Perf.M.Sg
 ‘Nadya was afraid.’
 c. nadya=ko kahani yad a-yi
 Nadya.F.Sg=Dat story.F.Sg.Nom memory come-Perf.F.Sg
 ‘Nadya remembered the story.’

Historical Development

The dative/accusative *ko* is generally traced to the Sanskrit locative noun *kākṣhe* ‘armpit, side’ (Kellogg 1893:130).

4.5 Instrumental

The instrumental *se* is extremely versatile. It may be used for instrumental adjuncts as in (12a), for source expressions, both locative, as in (12b), and material, as in (12c), as well as for comitatives, as shown in (12d), and for causees, as in (9).

- (12) a. nadya=ne darvaza cabi=se k^hol-a
 Nadya.F.Sg=Erg door.M.Sg.Nom key.F.Sg=Inst open-Perf.M.Sg
 ‘Nadya opened the door with a key.’
 b. nadya=ne aj lahor=se fon ki-ya
 Nadya.F.Sg=Erg today Lahore=Inst phone do-Perf.M.Sg
 ‘Nadya called from Lahore today.’
 c. sunar=ne sone=se har bana-ya
 goldsmith.M.Sg=Erg gold.M.Sg.Obl=Inst necklace.M.Sg.Nom make-Perf.M.Sg
 ‘The goldsmith made a necklace out of the gold.’
 d. nadya saddaf=se bat kar rah-i he
 Nadya.F.Sg.Nom Saddaf.F.Sg=Inst talk.F.Sg.Nom do stay-Perf.F.Sg be.Pres.3.Sg
 ‘Nadya is talking to Saddaf.’

The instrumental is also used on adjuncts that express the demoted agent (logical subject), as in the standard passive in (13). Standard passives are formed with the verb *ja* ‘go’ (in all tenses) in combination with perfect morphology on the main verb.

- (13) cor (pulis=se) pakr-a gε-ya/ja-ta
 thief.M.Sg.Nom police=Inst catch-Perf.M.Sg go-Perf.M.Sg/go-Impf.M.Sg
 ‘The thief was caught by the police.’ (adapted from Mohanan (1994:183))

The instrumental also occurs in a construction described as a passive of disability in some grammars of Urdu/Hindi (e.g., Glassman 1976, Van Olphen 1980), as in (14).

- (14) a. nadya=se yə ʊrdu=k-i ciṭṭ^hi paṛ^h-i nahĩ
 Nadya.F.Sg=Inst this Urdu=Gen-F.Sg letter.F.Sg.Nom read-Impf.F.Sg not
 ja-ti
 go-Impf.F.Sg
 ‘Nadya does not have the ability to read this Urdu letter.’
 b. ʊs=se caḷ-a nahĩ ja-e-g-a
 Pron=Inst walk-Perf.M.Sg not go-3-Fut-M.Sg
 ‘She/he can’t possibly walk.’ (in the context of a broken leg) (Glassman 1976:275)

This (dis)ability “passive” differs syntactically from the standard passive. It is possible with intransitives, as in (14b), unlike the standard passive. The instrumental NP is obligatory and exhibits subject properties with regard to control and anaphora (see Mohanan 1994 for a list of diagnostics for grammatical subjecthood in Hindi).¹

Historical Development

The instrumental *se* may either be connected with Sanskrit *sam* ‘with’ or with the locative singular noun *sañge* ‘in attachment to’ (Kellogg 1893:132).

4.6 Genitive

The genitive may be roughly characterized as marking subjects of nonfinite clauses, as in (15a), subjects of finite copula constructions, as in (15b), and specifiers of nominals, as in (15c). Like other case marked nominals in Urdu/Hindi, genitives may be scrambled. As such, they are functionally, but not phrase structurally determined. Genitives are not semantically motivated: Mohanan (1994:177) considers and discards an analysis in terms of the semantic notion possession.

- (15) a. ram=ke beṭ^h-ne=par mā=ne ʊs=ko k^hana
 Ram.M.Sg=Gen.M.Sg.Obl sit-Inf.Obl=on mother.F.Sg=Erg Pron=Dat food.M.Sg.Nom
 di-ya
 give-Perf.M.Sg
 ‘On Ram’s sitting down, the mother gave him food.’ (Adapted from Mohanan 1994:78)

¹See Butt (1997), attached to the end of this handout, for an analysis of this construction as a complex predicate with dispositional semantics whose subject is an instrumental NP. Bhatt (1998) proposes an alternative analysis in terms of negative polarity. Davison (1990) examines this construction within a larger discussion on “peculiar passives”.

- b. ram=ka ek beṭa he
 Ram.M.Sg=Gen.M.Sg one son.M.Sg.Nom be.Pres.3.Sg
 ‘Ram has one/a son.’ (Adapted from Mohanan 1994:177)
- c. rani=ka b^hai
 Rani.F.Sg=Gen.M.Sg brother.M.Sg.Nom
 ‘Rani’s brother’

In general, the genitive can be analyzed as marking specifiers. Were it not for the rather complicated agreement pattern associated with it, this case would be crosslinguistically unremarkable. As can be seen from the examples in (15), the genitive inflects to agree with the head noun in terms of gender, number, and obliqueness. Payne (1995) discusses the Hindi genitive and views the agreement pattern as an instance of *Suffixaufnahme*.

Historical Development

The fact that the genitive inflects can be traced directly to its historical origin. After a fierce debate in the last century, the view espoused by Hoernle won out and was taken over by Beames (1872:285) and Kellogg (1893:129). Under this view, the genitive is analyzed as having arisen from *kṛita* ‘done by’, the Sanskrit past participle of *kṛi* ‘do’ as follows. Sanskrit *kṛita* > Prakrit *kerita* > *keriai* > modern Urdu/Hindi *k-*. The original participial inflected for agreement and the genitive case marker has not lost this property.

4.7 Pronouns

Pronoun Paradigm

	NOM	ERG	ACC/DAT	INST	LOC	GEN
1.Sg	mē	mē=ne	mōj ^h =ko mōj ^h e	mōj ^h =se	mōj ^h =par	mer-a/i/e
1.Pl	ham	ham=ne	ham=ko hame	ham=se	ham=par	hamar-a/i/e
2.Disresp.	tu	tu=ne	tōj ^h =ko tōj ^h e	tōj ^h =se	tōj ^h =par	ter-a/i/e
2.Familiar	tōm	tōm=ne	tōm=ko tōmhe	tōm=se	tōm=par	tōmhar-a/i/e
2.Resp.	ap	ap=ne	ap=ko	ap=se	ap=par	ap=k-a/i/e
3.Prox.Sg	ye	is=ne	is=ko ise	is=se	is=par	is=k-a/i/e
3.Prox.Pl	ye	in=ne inhō=ne	in=ko inhō=ko ine	in=se inhō=se	in=par inhō=par	in=k-a/i/e inhō=k-a/i/e
3.Dist.Sg	vo	ūs=ne	ūs=ko ūse	ūs=se	ūs=par	ūs=k-a/i/e
3.Dist.Pl	vo	ūn=ne ūnhō=ne	ūn=ko ūnhō=ko ūnhē	ūn=se ūnhō=se	ūn=par ūnhō=par	ūn=k-a/i/e ūnhō=k-a/i/e

- (20) billi bīstar [ke nic^he] so rah-i hε
 cat.F.Sg.Nom bed.M.Sg Gen.Obl under sleep stay-Perf.F.Sg be.Pres.3.Sg
 ‘The cat is sleeping under the bed.’

All the items in (19) correspond to a relational preposition in English. In contrast to English, they appear after the NP. The *ke* in each of these postpositions is the oblique form of the genitive, which is now invariant for most postpositions. For the native speaker, this invariant *ke* is not associated with the genitive, but is taken to be part of the postposition. Similarly, the final *-e* on some of the postpositions in (19) is presumably a reflex of the oblique marking, which indicated a locative. As shown in (21), some postpositions allow inflection and establish the link to an original genitive construction (also see Masica 1991:234) in which the postpositions of today were nouns linked to another noun via the genitive (cf. English *because of*).

- (21) mē=ne billi=ka pic^ha ki-ya
 I=Erg cat.F.Sg=Gen.M.Sg behind.M.Sg.Nom do-Perf.M.Sg
 ‘I went after the cat.’

In addition, the contentful part of the postposition may appear by itself, as in (22). This is not the case for any of the case clitics, including the locatives *mē*, *par*, and *tak* listed in the case table.

- (22) upar ao
 up come.Impf
 ‘Come up!’

There is thus a clear difference in distribution and form between the case markers and the *ke* postpositions. However, the locative case markers (*mē* ‘in’, *par* ‘on’, *tak* ‘towards’) do pattern with the postpositions in one respect. Although Urdu/Hindi does not normally exhibit case stacking, *se* ‘from’ (and *mē* ‘in’) may stack on top of locatives, be they case markers, as in (23a), or postpositions, as in (23b).

- (23) a. un lōgō=mē=se tin
 that.Pl.Obl people.Obl.Pl=in=from three
 ‘three from among those people’
 b. almari [ke pic^he]=se
 cupboard Gen.Obl behind=from
 ‘from behind the cupboard’

However, the relevant generalization is over locatives, not over a particular syntactic class (case clitics vs. *ke* postpositions). It would therefore be a mistake to base the identification of case clitics with postpositions on this one argument, especially as the case clitics can all appear on subject noun phrases, while noun phrases with *ke* postpositions do not mark subjects (Mohan 1994). As such, postpositions must be distinguished from case clitics. In the following section, we propose that case clitics are heads of a KP, whereas postpositions are Ps which head a PP.

4.10 Structural Representation of Case Markers

Crosslinguistically it has long been noticed that only certain types of words become clitics (see Sadock 1991 for discussion). In order to capture this generalization, it has been proposed that functional heads can be clitics, while lexical categories such as nouns cannot, unless they undergo historical development and change category along with the change in prosodic status (see Franks 2000 and references therein).

The Urdu/Hindi data support this idea, and we propose that the case endings are functional heads of a KP (KaseP). We assume that the oblique marking on masculine nouns ending in -a (singular -e in (24)) is synchronically the result of the complement-head relationship between the K and the NP. This marking is obligatory when there is an overt K head.

- (24) a. *laṛke=ne*
boy.M.Sg.Obl=Erg
- b.
-
- ```

graph TD
 KP --> NP
 KP --> K[ne]
 NP --> N[laṛke]

```

### 4.10.1 Genitives

We analyze genitives as occurring in the SpecNP position.<sup>2</sup> For a similar analysis of genitives see Davison (1998).

The agreement between the genitive *k-* and the head noun is due to the fact that this case marker originated from a participial construction. This agreement can be viewed synchronically as the result of NP internal agreement.

- (25) a. *asim=ke*  
Asim.M.Sg=Gen.Obl
- laṛke=ne*  
boy.M.Sg.Obl=Erg
- b.
- 
- ```

graph TD
  KP --> K_prime[K']
  K_prime --> NP
  K_prime --> K[ne]
  NP --> KP_inner[KP]
  NP --> N_prime[N']
  KP_inner --> asim_ke[asim=ke]
  N_prime --> N[laṛke]
  
```

4.10.2 Bare Nominatives

Bare nominatives, i.e., the nominals which have no overt case ending and no oblique inflection, distribute syntactically like KPs with overt case marking. We therefore assume that these project a KP, albeit one without an overt K head, as in (26b). Since LFG does not posit empty categories, the K head of the KP is not projected in the structure in (25b) (see King 1995 and Bresnan 2001 for

²This structure allows for coordination data such as that in (i).

(i) *asim=ke* *pitta ji* or *amir=ke* *dada ji* *ne*
Asim.M.Sg=Gen.Obl father Resp and Amir.M.Sg=Gen.Obl grandfather Resp Erg
'Asim's father and Amir's grandfather'

constraints on LFG phrase structure). Under the assumption that the oblique endings are the result of the overt K head's requirements on its complement, no oblique ending occurs in the nominative. The nominative case comes from default rules (section 4.13) which state that subject and object KPs in Urdu/Hindi require case and that if there is no other case, the nominative is assigned.

- (26) a. *lar̥ka*
boy.M.Sg.Nom
- b. KP
|
NP
|
N
lar̥ka

4.10.3 Bare Locatives

Another type of bare nominal exists in Urdu/Hindi: locatives as in (27). Since these distribute like the overtly case marked nominals, we again assume a KP in which the K head is not projected. Again, the locative case and the feature structure associated with it is associated with the KP via default rules (section 4.13).

- (27) *adnan* *ḍakxane/zu* *gε-ya* *hε*
Adnan.M.Sg.Nom post office.M.Sg.Obl/zoo.M.Sg.Obl go-Perf.M.Sg be.Pres.3.Sg
'Adnan has gone to the post office/zoo.'

- (28) a. *zu*
zoo.M.Sg.Obl
- b. KP
|
NP
|
N
zu
- c. *ḍakxane*
post office.M.Sg.Obl
- d. KP
|
NP
|
N
ḍakxane

We now need to account for the presence of the oblique inflection. In this instance, we analyze the oblique *e* as a case marker that is a bound morpheme whose surface realization is governed by the morphophonological properties of the nominal (e.g., masculine nouns ending in *a* overtly realize this morpheme, as in (28c)).

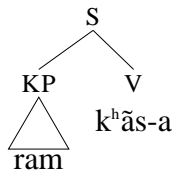
4.11 Case and Clausal Structure

In this section we provide an overview of the LFG architecture as relevant to case assignment. Section 4.16 provides analyses of particular cases, focusing on the ergative and dative.

In LFG, information from different components combines to produce a consistent and coherent analysis. The different modules of grammar (e.g., grammatical functions, semantics, and phonological information) are encoded in terms of projections from lexical entries and phrase structure rules, which in turn encode syntactic and morphological constituency. This is informally illustrated in (30) for (29).

- (29) *ram* *k^hās-a*
Ram.M.Sg.Nom cough-Perf.M.Sg
'Ram coughed.'

- (30) a. Constituent-structure: b. Functional-structure:



$$\left[\begin{array}{c} \text{PRED} \\ \text{TNS-ASP} \\ \text{SUBJ} \end{array} \right. \left. \begin{array}{l} \text{'cough<SUBJ>'} \\ \left[\begin{array}{cc} \text{TENSE} & \text{PAST} \end{array} \right] \\ \left[\begin{array}{cc} \text{PRED} & \text{'Ram'} \\ \text{CASE} & \text{NOM} \\ \text{PERS} & \text{3} \\ \text{NUM} & \text{SG} \end{array} \right] \end{array} \right.$$

A priori the role of case marking can be handled in various ways in LFG. For example, the architecture does not presuppose an intimate connection between case, agreement and structural position, although this would be one possibility.

4.12 Grammatical Functions and Mapping Theory

The association of grammatical functions with thematic roles is handled via a flexible, yet constrained theory of *Mapping* (see Bresnan and Zaenen 1990 for an overview). Arguments of a predicate are specified in the lexicon with the features [\pm r(estricted)] and/or [\pm o(objective)]. Roughly, patient-like roles are [$-r$], secondary patient-like roles are [$+o$], and other roles are [$-o$]. For example, the a rgument)-structure of the English verb *pound* would look as in (31).³ These specifications constrain the way arguments are associated with grammatical functions, which are also classified by means of these features as shown in (32).

- (31) a-structure
- pound*
- < ag pt >
-
- [
- $-o$
-] [
- $-r$
-]

Gram. Functions	Features	Gram. Functions	Features
SUBJ	[$-r, -o$]	OBL $_{\theta}$	[$+r, -o$]
OBJ	[$-r, +o$]	OBJ $_{\theta}$	[$+r, +o$]

The intrinsic role classifications of the argument structure are related to the fully specified grammatical functions by mapping principles (not discussed here), as in (33).

- | | | | | | |
|------------------|--------------|---|----------|----------|---|
| (33) a-structure | <i>pound</i> | < | ag | pt | > |
| | | | [$-o$] | [$-r$] | |
| | | | | | |
| f-structure | | | SUBJ | OBJ | |

4.13 Structural Case

Structural case involves case assigned on the basis of syntactic information. It is usually correlated with grammatical function. It may also be associated with phrase structure position.

Structural case is often an instance of default case and hence functions as the Elsewhere Case (cf. Zaenen, Maling, and Thraínsson's (1985) notion of default vs. lexically stipulated case). For languages which require that all NPs have case, this can be stated as in (34a), analogous to the Case Filter.

³This a-structure can be conceived of as an attribute-value matrix (Butt 1998).

In Urdu/Hindi the nominative is a default case. As such, there are principles which assign nominative case to subjects and objects, as in (34b,c). In languages in which all subjects have nominative case, (34b) would be obligatory; in languages such as Urdu/Hindi, in which there are non-nominative subjects, the default principles are optional and only apply if nothing else assigns case to the subject.

- (34) a. Wellformedness principle: KP: (\uparrow CASE)
 b. Default: ((\uparrow SUBJ CASE)=NOM)
 c. Default: ((\uparrow OBJ CASE)=NOM)

While the identification of grammatical functions is not necessarily tied to positional information within Mapping Theory, some languages may restrict a position to a particular case-marked grammatical function. Thus, non-thematic grammatical relations and their corresponding case marking may be licensed by structural position (King 1995). We have not found an example of positional case in Urdu/Hindi.⁴

4.14 Semantic Case

We take semantic case to be the most general type of case marking in Urdu/Hindi. The defining characteristics of semantic case are: (i) predictability via the formulation of generalizations across predicates and constructions; (ii) a subjection to syntactic restrictions (such as only appearing on certain grammatical functions). The association of case morphology with grammatical functions can be restricted by the case markers themselves. This is in line with Nordlinger (1998), who proposes the notion of *constructive case* for Australian languages whereby the case morphology provides information as to grammatical relations.

4.15 Quirky Case

Finally, quirky case is used only when there is no regularity to be captured: the case assignment is truly exceptional to the system. For example, consider the Urdu/Hindi transitive verb *la* ‘bring’ in (35). The subject should be ergative since this is a perfect transitive verb. However, it is nominative; this requirement must be stipulated in the lexical entry, as in (36).

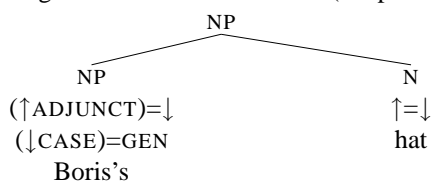
- (35) *nadya* *kıtab* *la-yi*
 Nadya.F.Sg.Nom book.F.Sg.Nom bring-Perf.F.Sg
 ‘Nadya brought a book.’

- (36) *la* ‘bring’ (\uparrow PRED)=< ag[-o] th[-r] >
 (\uparrow SUBJ CASE) = NOM

Our notion of quirky case is extremely restricted. Quirky case only occurs when *no* generalizations can be made about the choice of case with the predicate in question.

⁴A canonical example is the assignment of adnominal genitive in English.

- (i) English Adnominal Genitives (simplified structure)



4.16 Sample Analyses

4.16.1 Lexical Entries for Case Markers

The analysis for Urdu case is closely related to Nordlinger's *Constructive Case* idea for Australian languages and incorporate Bashir's (1999) analysis of the ergative (see section 4.1).

- (37) a. *ne*
 (↑CASE) = ERG
 (SUBJ↑)
 [(↑SEM-PROP CONTROL) = INT
 ∨
 ((SUBJ ↑) OBJ)
 ((SUBJ ↑) VFORM) = PERF]
- b. *ko*
 [(↑CASE) = ACC
 (OBJ↑)
 (↑SEM-PROP SPECIFIC) = +
 ∨
 (↑CASE) = DAT
 (OBJ_{go}↑) ∨ (SUBJ_{exp}↑)
 (↑SEM-PROP CONTROL)]

The skeletal f-structures resulting from the entry for *ne* are shown in (38).

- (38) a.
$$\left[\begin{array}{l} \text{SUBJ} \left[\begin{array}{l} \text{CASE} \quad \text{ERG} \\ \text{SEM-PROP} \quad \text{CONTROL} \end{array} \right] \\ \text{OBJ} \left[\begin{array}{l} \\ \text{SEM-PROP} \quad \text{CONTROL} \end{array} \right] \\ \text{VFORM} \quad \text{PERF} \end{array} \right]$$
- b.
$$\left[\begin{array}{l} \text{SUBJ} \left[\begin{array}{l} \text{CASE} \quad \text{ERG} \\ \text{SEM-PROP} \quad \text{CONTROL} \quad \text{INT} \end{array} \right] \end{array} \right]$$

The skeletal f-structures for *ko* are shown in (39).

- (39) a.
$$\left[\begin{array}{l} \text{OBJ} \left[\begin{array}{l} \text{CASE} \quad \text{ACC} \\ \text{SEM-PROP} \quad \text{SPECIFIC} \quad + \end{array} \right] \end{array} \right]$$
- b.
$$\left[\begin{array}{l} \text{OBJ}_{go} \left[\begin{array}{l} \text{CASE} \quad \text{DAT} \\ \text{SEM-PROP} \quad \text{CONTROL} \end{array} \right] \end{array} \right]$$
- c.
$$\left[\begin{array}{l} \text{SUBJ}_{exp} \left[\begin{array}{l} \text{CASE} \quad \text{DAT} \\ \text{SEM-PROP} \quad \text{CONTROL} \end{array} \right] \end{array} \right]$$

4.16.2 Ergative/Nominative

Intransitive

Consider (40) which shows an alternation with respect to volitionality.

- (40) a. ram k^hās-a
 Ram.M.Sg.Nom cough-Perf.M.Sg
 'Ram coughed.'
- b. ram=*ne* k^hās-a
 Ram.M.Sg=Erg cough-Perf.M.Sg
 'Ram coughed (purposefully).'

- b. nadya=ko zu ja-na hε
 Nadya.F.Sg=Dat zoo.M.Sg.Obl go-Inf.M.Sg be.Pres.3.Sg
 ‘Nadya has to go to the zoo.’

We analyze this construction as an instance of functional control: the verb ‘be’ acts as a modal which predicates an event of the subject. The subject of the modal controls the PRO subject of the embedded clause. The entry for this form of the verb ‘be’ is given in (45). Again, the verb makes no direct specifications as to case. It does, however, require that some notion of CONTROL be involved. Thus, dative and ergative subjects are compatible with this entry, but nothing else.

- (45) hε (↑PRED)=‘be<ag/go[-o],Ev[-r]>’
 (↑SUBJ SEM-PROP CONTROL)
 (↑SUBJ)=(↑XCOMP SUBJ)
 (↑TNS-ASP TENSE) = PRES
 (↑XCOMP VFORM) = INF

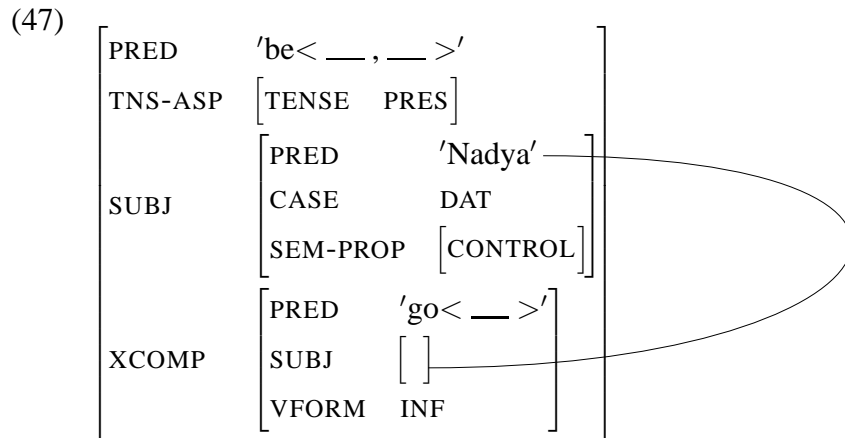
With respect to the disjunction in the entry of the ergative marker in (37), only one of the possibilities is viable: because the VFORM of the embedded XCOMP is INF, and because the lexical entry of the verb requires the feature SEM-PROP CONTROL, only the first disjunct applies (i.e, the f-structure in (38b)).⁵ The resulting f-structure analysis is shown in (46).⁶

- (46)
- | | |
|---------|--|
| PRED | ‘be< __ , __ >’ |
| TNS-ASP | [TENSE PRES] |
| SUBJ | [PRED ‘Nadya’
CASE ERG
SEM-PROP [CONTROL INT]] |
| XCOMP | [PRED ‘go< __ >’
SUBJ []
VFORM INF] |
-

Now consider the dative version in (44b). The entry for the dative case in (37b) allows for the three cases in (39). The disjunctions for the marking of object ((OBJ↑)) and indirect object ((OBJ_{go}↑)) will not result in a well formed analysis for (44) as the argument structure of *hε* can only be linked to a subject and a clausal complement by the mapping theory. The only viable option is a dative subject ((SUBJ↑)) with the feature SEM-PROP CONTROL. This feature in the f-structure in (47) tells the semantic component that there is something to be said about the control the subject had over the action. Context-dependently this can give rise to a modal interpretation such as □ ‘must’ (external control), as in (43b), but it need not.

⁵The locative oblique ‘zoo’, not shown in the f-structure, functions like the ergative and dative case markers in that it is associated with information specifying that it must be an OBL_{loc}, etc.

⁶Event arguments link to an XCOMP or COMP; see Butt (1995) for discussion.



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