

## **Chapter One**

### **Introduction**

#### **1.1. General Background**

Language, being a voluntary vocal system of human communication, is the global medium for the conveying facts including thoughts, emotions and feelings of everyday life. The term language, however was developed later from the Latin word “Lingua”, meaning tongue. That’s why, language is still called tongue. It is the language only that differentiates human beings with other non human beings. It differs with regard to geographical, social, educational, economical, tribal, political, ethical, familial and historical boundaries. It helps the men to establish the relation with others members in the society and at the same it also helps to break the relation with the means of abusing remarks. In that sense, it can be called a social phenomenon, too.

Language is common to all and only human beings. It is the greatest accomplishment of human civilization. It is a means by which we can perform several things. Communications, thinking, group solidarity, inter linguistic conflict, nation building and so on we cannot think of any social, academic and artistic activities going on without language. It is the most significant asset of human life. The term “Language” has been defined in several ways by various linguists. Let us look at some of its definitions.

Chomsky: systematic structures (1975:13) Defines; “Language is a set ( finite or infinite) of sentences each finite in length and constructed out of a finite set of elements”. Block and Trager: outline of linguistic Analysis (1942:5) defines; “A language is system of arbitrary vocal symbols by means of which a social group co-operates”. Sapir: Language (1921:8) defines; “Language is purely human and non-

instinctive method of communicating ideas, emotions, feelings and desires by means of a system voluntarily produced symbol”. *Oxford Advanced Learners Dictionary* of current English (7<sup>th</sup> editions 2005, 862) defines; “Language as the system of communication in speech and writing that is used by people of a particular country or area.”

Nepal is a multilingual, multicultural and multiethnic country where people speak varieties of languages and dialects with respect to their geographical variation. The census of 2001 shapes Nepal as a country consisting of one hundred and two (102) ethnic groups and more than ninety two (92) languages. Among these languages, most of them do not have written scripts. So, it is obvious that Nepal is a land of ethnic diversity and linguistic plurality. The language and their innumerable dialects spoken in Nepal have genetic affiliation to at least four language –families, namely : Indo-Aryan, Austro- Asiatic, (only one language), and Dravidian ( only one language) together with one controversial language isolate Kusunda.

### **1.1.1 An Introduction to Maithili language.**

The people of Terai region generally speak more than two languages at their command. They speak Bhojpuri, Nepali, Hindi, Maithili Awadhi and so forth. Among them, Maithili is one of the prominent living languages spoken in some of the parts of Bihar, India and Nepal-two South-Asian countries. Maithili is an Indic language belonging to the group of the modern Prakrit vernaculars. Maithili was originally the language of the ancient Mithila, the kingdom of Janak, the father of Sita, who was bounded on the north by the Himalaya Mountains, on the east by the Koshi and on the south by the Ganges. In the past, Maithili was regarded either as a dialect of Bengali, or of Eastern Hindu, or as one of the three dialects of a spurious language called Bihari.

Today, however, it is recognized as a distinct language. Demographically in Nepal, Maithili is the mother tongue of 12.4 percentage of the total population and figures second in terms of the number of speakers next only to Nepali, the language of the nation. Maithili is the second most widely used language as it is spoken by 27,97,582 people sheltering in south eastern plains known as the Terai.

There are about 9 Terai districts namely Morang, Sunsari, Udaypur, Saptari, Sarlahi, Rautahat, Mahottari, Dhanusha, Sarlahi where Maithili is in vogue. It is regarded as the 16<sup>th</sup> largest language of India, according to the international P.E.N. (poets, essayists and novelists).

Maithili, which is written in Devanagari script, does have its own script variously known as 'Maithili Lipi', 'Mithilakshar' or 'Tirhuta'. The scripts of Bengali, Assamese, Oriya and Newari. In the past Maithili writers used to write in this script and we still have thousands of valuable manuscripts written in this script. It was mainly due to introducing simplicity and a sort of sameness adopted in the writing systems the most of the Indic languages that the Maithili writers later gradually started using Devanagari script of Sanskrit.

S. Jha (1941) was the first scholar to study Maithili sound system with its historical development, Lexicography or dictionary making in Maithili. Maithili has a very rich literature, the growth and development of which follows quite closely the political and cultural history of Maithila. Vidyapati Thakur (1360-1448) is the greatest and most celebrated poet of Maithila. He is the immortal singer of beauty, youth and vigour. He is also known as Mahakavi Vidyapati. Apart from being a great Sanskrit writer, he composed melodious poems in Maithili, entitled 'Vidyapati Padavali' which mainly deals with the love between Radha and Krishna.

Maithili has a very long tradition of oral story telling. Oral literature reigned in almost all genres of Maithili before the printing facility came into existence. Shri Krishna Thakur , Baidyantha Mishra Yatri, Harimohan Jha, Dr. Dhireswor Jha Dhirendra, Dr. R.P.Bimal are some renowned literary personalities in Maithili. At present there have been literary writings in all literary genres especially poetry, plays and fiction from both Nepali and Indian writers. Apart from literature, Maithili writers are contributing to another fields like culture, history, journalism, linguistics and so forth.

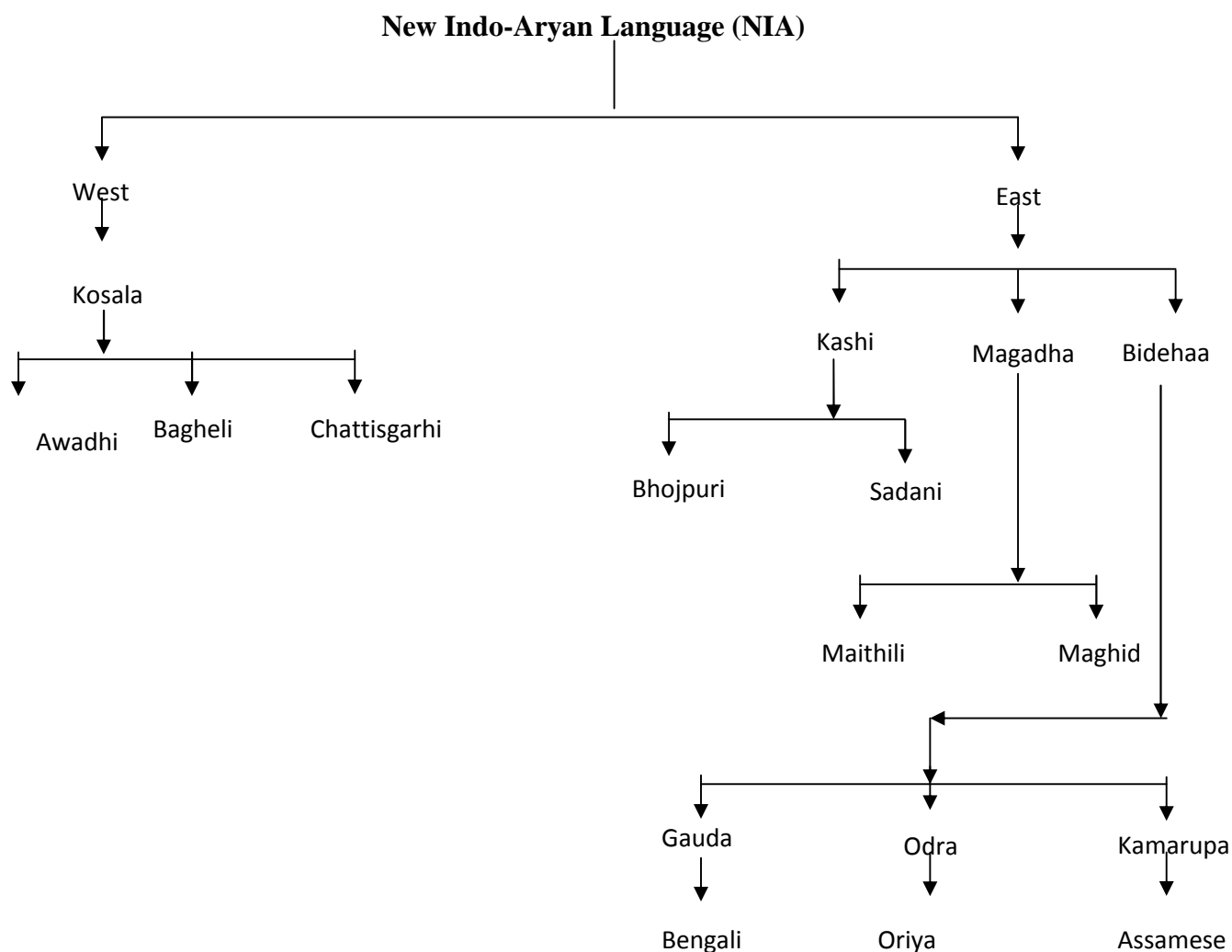


Figure 1.1:- Genetic relation of Maithili to other NIA Languages, based on Jha (1958).

### 1.1.2 An Introduction to English Language

English is termed as "West Germanic" which is one of the sub-branches of the Germanic branch of the Indo-European family. It is the most dominant language in the world. It is an international language which is a common lingua franca as well. English has played a crucial role in international communication of thoughts, ideas and sentiments. More than half of the world's books and three quarters of international mail are in English of all languages. English has the largest vocabulary perhaps as many as two millions words and one of the best bodies of literature. Therefore, the English language has become as indispensable source of knowledge for all.

English doesn't have a long history in Nepal. English entered Nepal with the foundation of the Durbar High school in 1984 A.D. by the Prime Minister Junga Bahadur Rana. It was the first English school to teach English language in Nepal (English in Nepalese education .3) since then in 1919 it was included in the higher education with establishment of Tri-chandra college in course of time SLC Examination Board (1933) and TU (1959) were established. Since then it has occupied a vital position in the educational field of Nepal. English is undoubtedly of vital importance for accelerating the modernization process in Nepal.

Having realized the importance of English language, the Government of Nepal has included English in school and higher education curriculum as a compulsory subject. Especially the NESP (1971) has brought revolutionary changes by planning curricula and text books with the provision of compulsory English of 100 marks for each grade from grade four to bachelors level including optional English at secondary level as well as higher education. Now with the proliferation of English medium schools and growing demand for more English from general mass the government reintroduced English from grade one to Bachelor's level.

Hence, English is indispensable for academic and communicative purposes.

The rapid growth of English medium schools and importance of English is very high in Nepal.

### **1.1.3 An introduction to Nepali language**

Nepali is that branch of new Indo-Aryan languages, which is spoken in Nepal as the mother tongue of 50.3 percent of the total population of the Kingdom of Nepal (CBS 1990) and also recognized as the national language. Its other names are 'Gorkhali', Parbatiya or Khaskura". The language passes under various names: Europeans call it Nepali or Naipali, i.e. the language of Nepal, but that of the Aryan ruler of the country. It is also called Gorkhali i.e. the language of the Gurkhas, owing to the fact that the Rajput rulers of Nepal came immediately from the town of the Gorkhas. Another name is Parbatiya or the language of the maintainers. Another name: pahadi also meaning mountaineers language, was given by Mr. Baines to the whole group of Aryan languages spoken in the lower Himalayas from Nepal to Chamba. (Grierson: linguistic survey of India; vol. ix, pt. I).

The contribution for the development of Nepali language can be attributed to the role of Sinjali kings, who watered it, giving up their own Tibeto-Burman language (Pokhrel, 1990). The role of various ethnic groups such as Magars, Gurungs, Tamangs, Newars, Rais and Limbus in bringing up this language into the modern form can never be forgotten (Ibid). Now Nepali has long been established as the medium of administration, education, mass media and public affairs. Besides, it is also spoken in the district of Darjeeling in west Bengal and in the state of Sikkim India. A large number of Nepali speaking population is distributed over many parts of Eastern India, Bhutan, Burma and Malaysia as well. Recently, it has been included in the eight schedule of the Indian Constitution.

Like English, Nepali belongs to Indo-European family. But English belongs to Germanic sub-family whereas Nepali belongs to Indo-Aryan sub-family. The following tree diagram shows the position of Nepali in the Indo-Aryan sub-family.

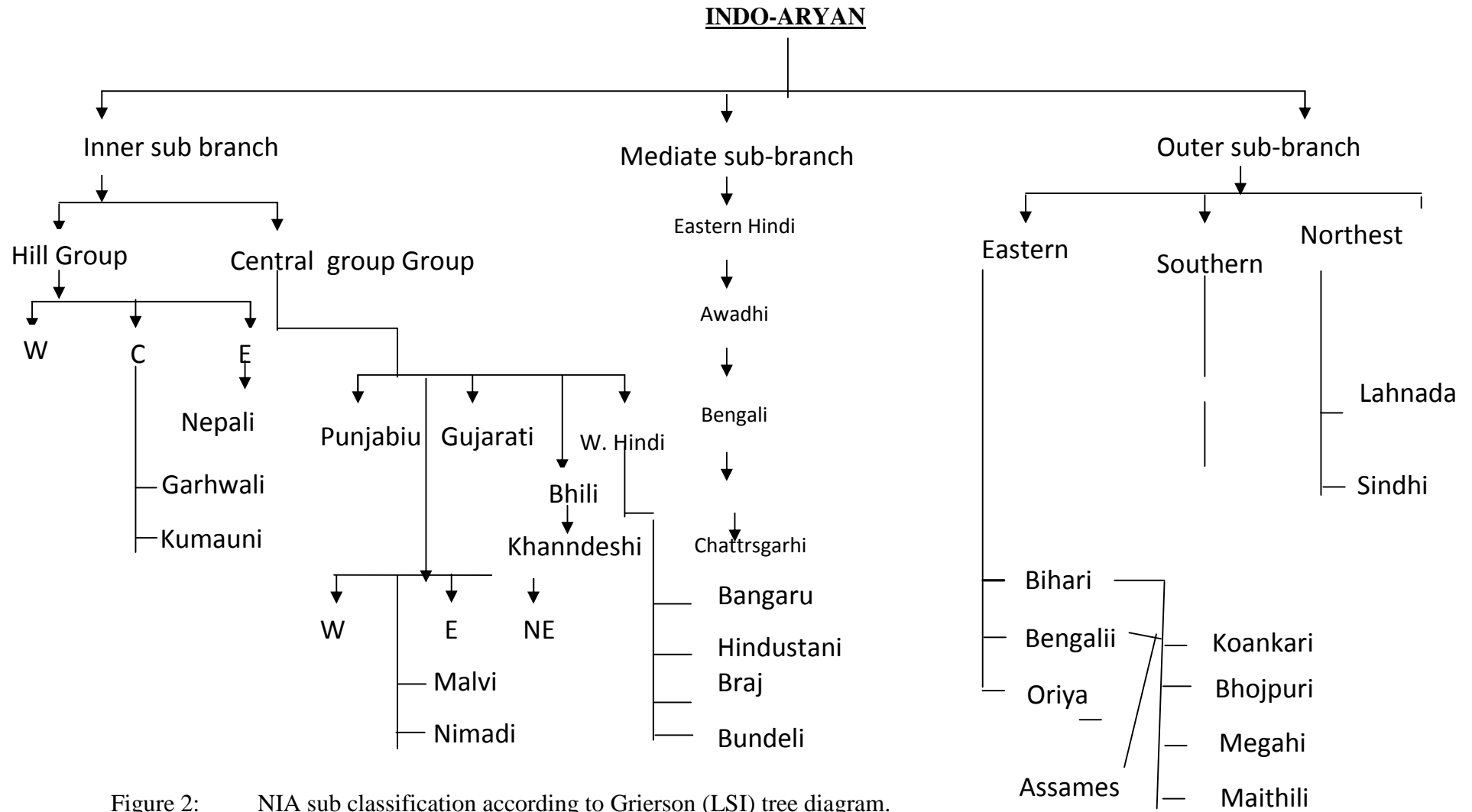


Figure 2: NIA sub classification according to Grierson (LSI) tree diagram.



Nepali has much in common with other members of the Indo-Aryan family viz. Hindi, Maithili, Gujrati, Rajasthani, Malawi, Nimadi, Kumauni and Garhwali. It has become flexible enough to borrow words from other languages like Hindi, Urdu, Awadhi, Maithili and even English as well, and has piled up thousand of books in the language. Hence it has increased its importance both from pedagogical and linguistic perspectives.

## **1.2. Importance of grammar**

Grammar is a description of the structure of language and the way in which linguistic units such as words and phrases are combined to produce sentence in a language (Richard etal 1985) "it is necessary to know grammar and it is better to write grammatically than not, but it is well to remember that grammar is common speech formulated. "Usage is the only test". (Somerset Maugham)

From above quotation, it is vividly clear that grammar is essential to produce correct form of utterances. Grammar is the backbone of language. "Grammar is a description of the structure of language and the way in which linguistic units such as words and phrases are combined to produce sentences in the language. It is usually taken into account the meaning and functions. These sentences have in the over all system of the language. It may or may not include the description of the sound of language. (Richard etal:1985)

There is a set of rules which govern how grammatical units of meaning may be constructed in any language. We may say that a learner who knows grammar is one who has mastered grammatical rules and can apply these rules to express himself or herself in what would be considered acceptable language forms. Therefore grammar has great importance and it helps learners to improve language.

A language may have different grammatical processes. Among them Relativization is found in three languages like, Maithili, English, and Nepali. The process of forming a relative clause construction is known as relativization . (Crystal 1997)

Relative clause construction is-first and foremost-a type of complex post nominal adjectival modifier used in both written and spoken English. It would be very awkward, even ungrammatical to convey the same information using an attributive adjective phrase. It would be more wordy and less elegant to express the same information as two independent clauses. To avoid these defects relative clauses are used. Relative clauses thus give us a means to encode complex adjectival modifiers that are easier to process than the complex attributive structure and that are less wordy than two independent clauses. A relative clause tells us which person or thing the speaker means.

### **1.3 Contrastive Analysis and its Importance**

Contrastive Analysis (CA) is defined as a scientific study of similarities and differences between or among languages and among them. It also predicts the areas of ease and difficulty in learning one language by the speakers of the other languages. It has general application in teaching second languages.

Later on Robert Lado made the concept more direct, clear and explicit. In 1957 his classical work entitled 'linguistic across culture' was published. In this book he provided three underlying assumptions of CA, which has significant role in language teaching.

#### **C.A. has the following assumptions:**

- I. The main difficulties in learning a new language are caused by the interference from the first language

- II. These difficulties can be predicted by C.A.
- III. Teaching materials can be made the use of C.A. to reduce the efforts of interference.

C.A. has its great importance in language teaching. There are mainly two functions of C.A. Firstly it predicts the likely errors to be committed by a particular group of learners in learning a particular language is also regarded as the primary function of C.A. Secondly, it explains the sources of errors in one's performance. This is the secondary function of the C.A. So a language teacher should have knowledge of CA to treat the learners psychologically and academically. Unless a language teacher knows the sources and types of the errors that learners commit, he/she cannot impart knowledge to the learners.

The most important thing to remember by a language teacher is basic assumption behind CA. Lados (1957) first assumption states that when we come in contact with an L<sub>2</sub> our knowledge of L<sub>1</sub> comes on the way. While learning on L<sub>2</sub> some features are easier to learn and some are difficult because of the transfer of the old habits / knowledge, if old knowledge is similar to the new knowledge there is positive transfer, which facilitates in learning an L<sub>2</sub> but if old knowledge is different from the new knowledge there is negative transfer which hinders in learning an L<sub>2</sub>.

#### **1.4. Statement of Problems**

According to Chomskyan model of generative grammar, all the worlds languages share some common features because of universal principles. But they also differ because of their parametric variations. For examples, English relative clause is post-headed while Maithili and Nepali are a pre-headed.

### **1.5. Hypothesis of the study**

This study is an attempt to find out the similarities and differences among Maithili, English and Nepali languages in regard to the relativization in terms of linguistic principles and parameters. Hence, the problem of conducting this research is to expose and analyze those specific uniqueness of Maithili relativization in terms of Nepali and English ones.

### **1.6. Objectives of the study**

The major objectives of this study are as follows:

- i. To study and analyze Maithili relativization with respect to Nepali and English ones.
- ii. To study and analyze the honorific, gender, case and number marking system of the Maithali relativization with respect to Nepali and English ones;
- iii. To find out the areas shared by the two or three languages with respect to their relativization;
- iv. To discover areas of differences in connection with their relativization;
- v. To identify the areas of difficulty in learning the different uses of Maithili relativization for Nepali and English speaking learners.

### **1.7 Review of related languages (Literature).**

Many grammarians and scholars have researched on this topic in Maithili, English and Nepali languages, but it seems that none of them has paid considerable attention towards the exploration of the relative clause formation in the Maithili, English and Nepali languages.

*A References grammar of Maithili(1997)* by Yadav is a standard grammar of Maithili language which describes, in detail, the rules and various particles such as

case, number, honorific and gender markers and so on in the Maithili language. In this grammar, Yadav has also talked about relative clause in detail, but the present researcher has discussed the Maithili relativization even in detail form by comparing and contrasting them with English and Nepali ones.

Yadava's Maithili (2001) which is included in '*Facts about the world's language*'. Yadava discusses briefly about phonetics, phonology, syntax, morphology, semantics and relative clause. But that brief discussion on Maithili relativization may not probably be taken as a sufficient one. So, this study further discusses in detail and adds information into this research work.

Similarly S. Jha's book '*Formation of Maithili Language*' (1958) also discusses the diachronic description of Maithili. In it, Jha has also undertaken to trace the history of Maithili from the old Indo-Aryan period and has labored to assign Sanskrit etymologies to practically all forms of Maithili. Jha also talks briefly about relative clause which is not sufficient. So this research will try to cover in details.

Payne's '*Describing morphosyntax*' (1999) also describes task or functions that tend to be associated with relative clause. This book also concerns with different linguistic approaches and grammatical aspects.

"*A University Grammar of English*", by Randolph Quirk and Sidney Greenbaum also classify the issues related with the relative clause formation in the English language.

Mariame Celce-Murcia and Dianne Larsen Freeman, in their book, '*The Grammar Book*' also deal with many issues related with the relative clause formation in the English language in a very clear-cut way.

Jay Raj Acharya, a renowned grammarian, has written a grammar of Nepali language in English language named "*A Descriptive Grammar of Nepali and an*

*Analyzed corpus*” and *“Traditional Grammar: English and Nepali”*. A study in which he fails to deal with the present topic of the study. Many Nepali grammarians have been unable to clarify the relative clause formation in Nepali language. But there are some other Nepali grammarians who have, more or less been successful to deal with the present topic. Some of them are Hemangraj Adhikari, Somnath Sharma and Hemraj Pandey who have tried to clarify the relative clause formation in Nepali language but even their works are not sufficient to understand to present topic of the study.

### **1.8 Research Methodology.**

This dissertation is mainly a descriptive one. It uses the method of synchronic one to study the three languages rather than using the method of diachronic one. It is based on library consultation and suggestions that are accumulated through consultation with different renowned related intellectuals and scholars. To meet the objectives of collecting information for literature and language review, information were received by visiting the following libraries.

- The Central Library of TU. Kirtipur, Kathmandu.
- The library of C.D. of English, TU. Kirtipur, Kathmandu.
- The library of C.D. of Linguistics TU. Kirtipur, Kathmandu.

However, this research is carried out by adopting other further methodologies. It uses the details from both the sources of data, Primary and secondary. English and Nepali relativizations are analyzed on the basis of secondary data which is collected from standard English and Nepali grammars, particularly from '*A university grammar of English*' by R. Quirk and S. Greenbaum, *A Communicative Grammar of English* by S. Leech and J. Svartvi, *Samasamyik Nepali vyakaran* by Dr. Hemangraj Adhikari, '*Nepali Rachana Darpan- I*' by Gopal Pandey. The other different books journals,

and magazines have become the secondary sources to analyze these three languages, on the other hand, Maithili relativizations are analyzed on the basis of both the primary and secondary sources of data. The main sources of necessary data for Maithali will be as a native speaker collected by myself.

### **1.9 Significance of the study**

This study is significant because it will help the new researcher and general readers to explore the pattern of the relative clause formation in among English, Nepali and Maithali languages. This study will be helpful for both Nepali and English language speakers to find and understand the different patterns and structures of the relative clause formations.

### **1.10 Limitation of the Study**

The present study is not intended to cover all the aspects of grammar among Maithili, English and Nepali languages. Some of limitations are described below:

- i. This research cannot be taken as a totally complete or universal one. Rather it has focused on the relative clause formations in (M+E+N).
- ii. Maithili words, phrases or sentences used for the analysis in this study are based on the standard written and spoken, ignoring its all the regional and social variations. This study mainly focuses around the Terai region of Maithili speakers.
- iii. The analysis of the data is more descriptive and less theoretical in the comparison of other genre's research.

### **1.11 Organization of the study.**

Chapter 1 : Introduction

Chapter 2 : Relativization in Maithili

Chapter 3 : Relativization in English

Chapter 4 : Relativization in Nepali

Chapter 5: Similarities and differences among Maithili, English and Nepali.

Chapter 6: Summary and conclusion

### 1.12 Definition of the specific Terms:-

**Relativization:-** The process of forming a relative clause construction is called relativization.

**Relative Clause:-** The term relative clause is used for various types of sub-clauses which are linked to part or all of the main clause by a back Pointing element, usually a relative pronoun. A relative clause is one that functions as a nominal modifier. E.g. (a) the girl who [0 is going to marry a man] is extremely beautiful.

**Head:-** The head is the NP that is modified by the clause. In (a) the head is 'the girl'.

**Relativized NP:-** The Relativized NP is the element within a Rc that is coreferential with the head noun. In (a) relativized NP is represented as o(a gap).

**Relativizer:-** The relativizer is the morpheme or particle that sets off the restricting clause as a relative clause. In (a) the relativizer is 'Who'.

**Restricting Clause :** The restricting clause is the relative clause itself. In example (a) the restricting clause is indicated in brackets.

**Restrictive Rc:-** The Rcs that restrict the potential referent of the NP are restrictive Rcs.

**Non-Restrictive Rc:-** The Rcs that provide an added piece of information about a NP referent which is already fully specified are non restrictive Rcs.



**Correlative:-** In grammar, referring to a construction which uses a pair of connecting words. Constructions of this kind in English include either or not only but also .... And .....if .....then.....

(Crystal,1997)

**Copying :-** when the head of relative clause is again repeated in a sentence, this process is referred to as copying.

**Chopping:-** When the head of the RC is not mentioned again, then that process in relativization is referred as chopping.

## Chapter Two

### Relativization in Maithili

#### Relative Pronouns in Maithili

The relative pronouns in Maithili are 'je' 'who' (used for humans with both honorific and non-honorific forms) and je 'what' (used for non humans with no honorific – non-honorific distinctions). A relative clause in Maithili is formed by the use of a relativizer, which is the relative pronoun je and its inflected forms.

#### 2.1.2. Restrictive and Non Restrictive RCs.

The relative clauses are of two types. Those that restrict the potential referent of the noun phrases are restrictive relative clauses and those that provide an added piece of information about a noun phrase referent which is already fully specified are non-restrictive RCs.

The following examples illustrate the restrictive (1-2) as well as non-restrictive (3-4) RCs.

1. u chara [je o kailh æ -1 ch – l]  
That boy REL yesterday come-PERF Aux-PST (34H)  
b d c lak ich  
Very clever be – PRES (3HH)  
'The boy who came yesterday is very clever'
2. h m [je kitab m h g ch- ik) se  
I REL book expensive be- PRES (3HH) COREL  
n i le-b  
not take – FUT (1)  
'I won't buy the book which is expensive.'

3. j nard n [je prophes r ch- ith] ai  
 Janardan REDL professor be PRES- (3 H) today  
 bhasan de-t-ah  
 Speech give – FUT (3 NH)

‘Janardan, who is a professor, will deliver a speech today.’

4. ha b d mehn t ka rah l ch-I [je  
 you (H) much labour do PROG Aux- PRES- 2H) REL  
 nik bat ich]  
 good matter be- PRES- (3NH)

‘You are working very hard, which is a good thing’.

#### 2.1.2.1 Restrictive RC.

In a restrictive relative clause, the relativized NP consists of the relativizer Je (in its various forms) with or without an accompanying common noun; when the latter is present the relativizer serves as a determiner. The NP of the RC is co-referential with the head NP of the main clause. The head Np consists of the correlative pronouns se (in its various forms) or the demonstrative pronoun i/u (in its various forms) either with or without an accompanying common noun. The following examples illustrate the syntactic strategy used in the formation of restrictive RCs Maithili

5. a. Khet h riy r ich  
 field green be-PRES (3HH)  
 The field is green.
- a. Khet h m r ich  
 field 1 -GENIT be – PRES (3NH)  
 ‘The field is mine.’

c. [je khet h riy r ich ] se/u h m r  
 REL field green be –PRES (3HH) Corel that I –Genit  
 ich

be- Pres (3HH+1)

‘The field that is green is mine’

6. a. u n tua rait nac- l  
 that dancer night dance –PST- (3NH)

‘The dancer danced last night’

b. u n tua ekh n sut l ich  
 that dancer now asleep be – PRES-(3NH).

‘The dancer is now asleep’

c. u n tua (je o rait nac- l] se  
 that dancer REL night dance-PST-(3NH) COREL  
 o ekhon sutal ich.

Now asleep be-PRES-(3NH)

‘The dancer who danced last night is now asleep’.

### 2.1.2.2. Non restrictive RC

Non restrictive RCs are also marked with the relativizer **je**. But, unlike the restrictive relative clauses, non restrictive clauses occur with proper nouns and personal pronouns whose potential referents are by definitions definite. Such nonrestrictive RCs are of two types-

7. radha babu, [je mukhiya ch- ith] aib  
 radha HP REL village leader be- PRES (3H) come  
 ge-l- h  
 go-PST-(3H)  
 ‘Radha babu, who is a village lender, arrived’

8. a. s mbhu pi eh di k r h l ch- ih.  
 shambhu Ph. D. do PROG Aux-Pres- (3H+3NH)  
 [je nik bat ich]  
 REL good matter be –PRES- (3NH)  
 ‘Shambhu is doing Ph.D., which is a good thing’

b. ha b d mehn t k r hal chi  
 you (H) much labour do PROG Aux- PRES (2H)  
 [je b nh iy bat ich]  
 REL good matter be PRES-(3NH)  
 ‘You are working very hard, which is a good thing’

In sentence 7, the RC provides an added piece of information about the head NP, whose reference is already specified because it is a proper noun. In sentences 8 (a) and (b), the RCs provide a comment on the entire main clause.

### 2.1.2.3. Participial Relative Clauses.

Participial verb forms used attributively to modify a noun may perform the role of a modifying relative clause-like structure and yield reduced relative clauses.

9. u sut- l b cca ke uth-a  
 he (NH) sleep – PSTPCPL child ACC/DAT rise-CAUSI  
 de-l-kai (k)  
 give –PST – (3NH + 3NH)  
 ‘He woke up a child who had fallen asleep’

10. o kh s- it am ke  
 he(H) fall-PRES-PCPL mango ACC/DAT/  
 loik le-l-khinh  
 catch ( in the air) take –PST-(3H+3NH)  
 ‘He caught the mango which was falling (from the trees).’

### Which NPs can be Relativized ?

Maithili is quite generous in its strategies for relativization. Thus, NPs functioning as subject, direct object, indirect object, possession in the possessive construction, and object of post positions are all accessible to relativization as exemplified below-

- 11 a. nokarni k pra dho r h l ich  
 maidservant cloth wash PROG Aux-PRES-(3NH)  
 ‘The maidservant is washing clothes’
- b. u nokarni [je k pra dho r h l ich]  
 that maidservant REL cloth washPROG Aux-PRES-(3NH)  
 ‘The maidservant who is washing clothes’.
- c. u kapra [je nok rni dho r h l ich)  
 that cloth REL maidservant wash PROG Aux-PRESS –(3NH)  
 ‘The clothes that the maidservant is washing.’

Example (11) a is an independent clause and 11 b and c illustrate two relative clauses. In 11b subject NP: nok rni' is relativized and in 11 c direct object NP 'kapra' is relativized.

12. [ ha j k -ra ngreji p rh u-l-i ik]  
 You (H) ReL -ACC English teach-PST- (2H+3HH)  
 se bidyarthi ai bilay t ge-1  
 COREL student today England go-PST - (3NH)  
 'The student whom you taught English left for England today'.

In example 12, indirect object NP', bidyarthi' is relativized.

13. [j k r beta mela me herage-l- ik]  
 REL-GENIT son fair in lose go-PST-(3HH+3HH)  
 se m ugi khub cicia-it ch- 1  
 COREL woman much cry- IMPERF AUX - PST. (3HH)  
 'The woman whose son got lost at the fair was crying a lot'.

In example (13) genitive or possessive NP : 'maugi ke' is relativized.

14. [ ha jahi kothri me r h-ait chi]  
 Your (H) REL room in live-IMPERF AUX-PRES- (2H)  
 se bad saph ich.  
 COREL much clean be-PRES-(3NH)  
 'The room in which you live is very clean.'

In sentence, 14 object of post position 'kothri' is relativized.

### Types of Restrictive relative Clauses.

Basing on the relative position of the head NP vis-à-vis the relative clause, there are three types of restrictive relative clauses in Maithili; post nominal, prenominal and internal.

#### 2.3.1. Post nominal

In a post nominal relative clause the head NP (consisting of a determiner and a common noun or a personal pronoun) occurs outside the relative clause. And the relative clause follows the head NP. The typical word order is thus: determiner + head+ relative clause. The following examples are as follows:

15. u k r m cari [je dda me nai ch- l]  
 That officer REL office in not be-PST- (3NH)  
 (se) h ta del gel.  
 COREL move –CAUS give PSTPCPL go –PST- (3NH)  
 ‘The officer who was not in the office was sacked.’
16. r mes- k babu [jin- k r ta rel me  
 ramesh-GENIT father REL (H) GENIT leg train in  
 k it gel- inh] (se) æ – l ch- ith  
 cut go –PST- (3NH+3H) COREL Come – PER AUX –PRES-(3H)  
 ‘Ramesh’s father whose leg got cut in the train has come’.
17. o [je hunk- r j mæ ch- think]  
 he (H) REH he (H)- GENIT son-in-law be (3H+3H)  
 (se) ab b j –t-ah  
 COREL now speak –FUT- (3H)  
 ‘He who is his son-in-law will now speak’.



Sentences (15-17) are all post nominal relative clauses as the head NPs u k r mcari (15) ramesak babu (16) and O (17) occur outside the relative clauses and the relative clauses followed the heads NPs. The RCs are marked by the relativizer **je** and its honorific and case-inflected forms.

The common noun which might otherwise accompany the relativizer within the relativized NP has been deleted in all sentences.

The retention of this common noun within a postnominal relative clause is generally not permissible:

18. \* toh- r                      bhai    [je    bhai    nok ri  
 You (NH)-GENIT   brother   REL   brother   job  
 k r-ait.                      ch- uk]  
 do –IMPERF    AUX-PRES (3NH + 2NH)  
 \* Your brother which brother is employed.

The deletion of the common noun of the head NP is preceded by a determiner is also not permissible.

19. \* u    [e    k r mac ri    dda me nai    ch-al]  
 that   REL   officer   office in not be –PST-(3NH)  
 \* That which officer was not (present) in the office.

In post nominal RCS, the correlative marker *se* may redundantly present as indicated within brackets in the entire sentence cited above. The regular practice is to delete the correlative marker if it is in the nominative case; otherwise it may be retained in construction of the following type.

20. u kapr [j k-ra aha p sin k e-l- hu]  
 that cloth REL-ACC you (H) select do-PST- (2H)  
 tahi kapra-k dam mahag ch- ik  
 COREL cloth-GENIT price expensive be-PRES (2NH+3NH)  
 'The cloth that you selected is expensive.'

### 2.3.2. Prenominal

In a pronominal relative clause the head NP occurs outside the relative clause and the relative clause precedes the head NP. The typical word order thus is: relative clause + determiner + head as exemplified below :

21. [je kail rait nac- l] se /u  
 REL yesterday night dance - PST (3NH) COREL/DEMONS  
 n tua ekh n sut l ich  
 dancer now asleep be-pres-(3NH)  
 'The dancer who danced last night is now asleep'
22. [je adda me nai chal] se/u  
 REL office in not be - PST (3HH) COREL /DEMON  
 k r mc ri h ta de-l ge-l  
 officer move-CAUS-I give PSTPCPL go-PST (3HH)  
 'The officer who was not (present) in the office was sacked'
23. [j k-ra ha n i r kh-l- hu] tahi/ohi  
 REL-ACC You (H) not keep-PST-(2H+3HH) COREL/DEOMONS  
 nok r ke h m raikh lel- hu  
 servant ACC i Keep take-PST (1 + 3HH)  
 'I hired the servant whom you didn't hire'

Unlike Post nominal RCs Pre nominal RCs require that their NP contains a correlative demonstrative determiner.

### 2.3.3 Internal

In an internal RC the head NP occurs inside the RC. The main clause too may have the head NP repeated in it, in which case the head NP is preceded by the correlative demonstrative; usually, however, the head NP is deleted and only a correlative demonstrative third person pronoun is used. The following examples illustrate this.

24. [je serpa ebhrest p r p hihe c rh- l]

REL sherpa Everest on First climb-PST-(3HH)

se tenjin ch- l

COREL Tengin be - PST (3HH)

'The Sherpa who climbed Mt. Everest first was Tenjing'

25. [je n tua rait nac-al] okra/ohi

REL dancer night dance-PST (3HH) he(HH) DEMON

n tua ke j nardh n p cas rup iya de-l-thin

dancer ACC Janardan Fifty rupees give-PST-(3H+3HH)

'Janardan gave fifty rupees to the dancer who danced last night'.

A fourth type of RC, termed the 'extra nominal relative clause', also exists in Maithili. In such a construction, the head NP contains an indefinite determiner, the indefinite determiner is usually the numeral ek 'one' followed by the classifier 'ta' or an indefinite pronoun-both optionally be followed by such pronominal adjectives as eh n/oh n' of such type. The RC is marked by the relativizer je, and it follows the main clause. For example,

26. ek-ta            eh n nok r            rakh-u  
 one - CLAS    such servant keep- IMP (2H)  
 [je    o            chop        n i        ho-e]  
 REL he(H) untouchable not be -OPT- (3NH)  
 'Hire (Such) a servant who is not untouchable'
27. kono    bidyarthi            æ-l ch-al  
 any    student    come-PERF AUZ-PST (3NH)  
 [je    o            ha ke            t k- it            ch- l]  
 REL he(H) You (H) ACC    look - IMPERF AUX-PST (3NH +2H)  
 'One of the student had come who was looking for you'.
28. hunka            kono eh n k niya k            d-i unh  
 he (H) ACC    any    such    bride    do    give -IMP- (2H+3NH)  
 [je    o hunka    thikthak k            d- inh]  
 REL he (H) ACC    right    do    give -OPT - (3NH+3H)  
 'Marry him to such a bride who may set him in right track'.

Note that the common noun within the relativized NP is obligatorily deleted in the extra nominal type of relative clause.

#### 2.4 Position of RC in a Sentence

Regarding the position of RC in a sentence, Comrie shows three position of RC.

##### a. Clause -Initial position

When the RC comes in the sentence initially, it is called clause initial construction. eg.

29. [je gh ri h m ha ke deli]  
 REL watch I you (H) ACC give-PST-(1+2H)  
 (se) j pani ch- ik  
 COREL Japanese be-PRES-(3NH)  
 'The watch that I gave you is Japanese'

**b. Clause - Medial Position**

When RC occurs in a sentence medial position it is called as clause medial position. eg.

30. The man [Who is tall] came.
31. u kitab [je h m kailh kinli ]  
 That book REL I yesterday buy-PST-(1+3NH)  
 (se) harimohan jha s likha- l ch- i k  
 COREL Harimohan Jha by write -PSTPCPL be -PRES - (3H +3NH)  
 'The book which I bought yesterday is written by Harimohan Jha.'

**C. Clause - Final Position**

When RC occurs in Final position in a sentence, it is called clause final position eg.

32. pulis oi admi-ke p kair le-l-k i  
 police that man-ACC catch take-PST- (3NH+3HH)  
 [je d k iti ke-l-k i]  
 REL robbery do-PST-(3NH)  
 'The police arrested the man [WHO committed robbery].

In English RC can occur only in sentence medial position and sentence final position where as in Maithili RC can occur in all the three positions. Sentence- initial position, sentence-medial position and sentence - final position.

## 2.5 Other Types of Relative Clause

### 2.5.1. Copying Vs Chopping

Comrie has also defined relative clause in terms of chopping and copying of the head of the two and he states that chopping is more common in English.

#### a. Copying construction

When head of a relative clause is again repeated in a sentence, this process is referred to as copying construction eg.

33. [je n tua r it nac -al] hi  
REL dancer night dance-PST-(3NH) DEMONS  
n tua ke h m bis rup iya de-l-i i  
dancer ACC I twenty rupees give -PST- (1+3NH)  
'I gave twenty rupees to the dancer who danced last night'.

In example, 33, the head NP n tua is again repeated.

#### b. Chopping Construction

When the head of the RC is not mentioned again then that process in relativization is referred to as a chopping construction e.g..

34. [je ch ra k ilh æ-l ch l]  
REL boy yesterday come-PERF AUX-PST (3NH)  
(se) b d c lak ich  
COREL very clever be-PRES-(3NH)

'The boy who came yesterday is very clever

The head 'ch ra' in the above example is not mentioned in the main clause of the two constructions. English has only chopping construction whereas Maithili has both copying and chopping constructions.

### 2.5.2. Correlative Construction

When the NP of a RC correlates the subject of the main clause then it is said to have correlative construction eg.

35. [je l rki s ha biyah ke-l uh]  
 REL girl 1 NS you (H) marriage do-PST- (2H+3H)  
 se l rki hamar sair ch- ith  
 COREL girl 1-GENIT sister-in-law be-PRES - (3NH)

'The girl whom you married is my sister-in-law

In example, 35, NP of the RC (je l rki) correlates the subject of the main clause (l rki) which is preceded by the correlative pronoun se. Correlative construction in reativization is not found in English.

### 2.5.3 Attributive Adjective VS Relative Pronoun

Comrie defines relative clause with respect to the presence or absence of relative pronoun. The Sentence (36) illustrates attributive adjectival RC which can also be termed as head less relative clause. e.g.

36. The good students all passed the examination.

In example, 36.'good students' is an attributive adjective which defines what kinds of student they are. It is equivalent to students who are good'.

37. The students who are good passed the examination.

Then it will be the relative pronoun type as there is the relative pronoun 'who' is used in it.

The attributive adjective is very common in Maithili syntax. e.g.

38. a. h ri dub- it b cca ke  
 hari drown -PRESPCPI child ACC  
 b ca lel-k ik  
 save take -PST (3NH+ 3NH)  
 'Hari saved the child who was drowning'.

b. [je b cca dub- it cha-l- i]  
 REL child drown-PRESPCPL be -PST (3NH)  
 t kra h ri b ca le-l-k ik  
 COREL-ACC hari save take -PST- (3NH+3NH)  
 'Hari saved the child who was drowning.'

In sentence 38. a dub- it is participial verb form used attributively to modify b cca 'child'. Sentence 38 b is the relative pronoun type as the relativizer 'je' is used in it.

Both language English and Maithili have used both attributive adjective and relative pronoun as relativizer.

#### 2.5.4. Accessibility Hierarchy

Keenan and Comrie (1972-1977) posit the 'NP accessibility hierarchy', which lists the most accessible type of NP at the top and least accessible type at the bottom.

Subject NP	- Mohan [Who bought the book for Mira]
Direct object NP	- The book [Which Mohan bought for Mira]
Indirect object NP	- Mira (For Whom Mohan bought the book)
Oblique object Np	- The Child [From whom you took candy] is crying.
Genetic NP	- The boy [Whose book Mohan bought for Mira]



Object of comparison - The only person that I was shorter than was Peshal.

Regarding the accessibility to the different case roles, Maithili expression shows tendency to relativize subject, direct object, indirect object, possessor in the possessive construction and object of post position e.g.

39. Mohan [ je mira lel kitab kin ilk i ]  
 Mohan REL Mira ACC book buy -PST- (3NH)  
 'Mohan who bought a book for Mira'.
40. u pen [ je mohan mira lel kin ilk i ]  
 that pen REL Mohan Mira ACC buy -PST-3NH  
 'The pen that Mohan bought for Mira'.
41. [ ha j k-ra k l m de-l-i ik ]  
 You (H) REL-ACC pen give-PST-(2H+3NH)  
 se bidyarthi ph st k -l- k  
 COREL student first do -PST-(3NH)  
 'The students whom you gave a pen stood first (in the class)'.
42. suman ekta mast r ch ith [jink- r  
 suman one teacher be-Pres-3H REL-GENIT  
 k las h ms b p s nd k r it chi]  
 class we like do-PRESPCPL AUX-PRES (1 + 3NH)  
 'Suman is a teacher whose classes we enjoy'.
43. o p ribar [j k-ra s ge h m th h r l  
 that family REL-ACC with I stay -IMPERE  
 chi]. se s h r me r h it ch ik  
 AUX-PRES (1) COREL town in live AUX-PRES (3NH)

'The family with whom I stay lives in town.

The subject in example 39, direct object in 40, indirect object in 41, possessor in the possessive construction in 42 and object of post position in 43 all are accessible to relativization.

Regarding the accessibility to the case roles, English has object of preposition whereas Maithili has object of post position. Other roles of NPs are similarly accessible to relativization in three languages Maithili, English and Nepali.

## Chapter Three

### “Analysis and Interpretation”

This chapter consists of the analysis and interpretation of the collected data. First the analysis of English relativization is done on the basis of secondary data collected basically from Celce –M and D. Larsen freeman “*The Grammar Book* (1999), Payne’s *Describing Morphosyntax* (1999) R. Quirk and S. Greenbaum “*A University Grammar of English*” and “*A communicative Grammar of English* by G.Leech and J.svartik. This chapter deals with English relativization which carries; the definition, classification, function, formation of the head which is noun phrase.

#### **3.1. Relativization in English.**

##### **3.1.1 Relative clause**

The term relative clause is a part of grammatical element that functions as a nominal modifier (Kennan 1985). And according to classical transformational grammar the process of forming a relative clause construction is known as relativization. Example: (a) “The oaf that [o trod on lady Lucretia’s toe]”. In example(a), the noun phrase “The oaf” modified by the clause. In sentence (a). The oaf is the head. The head is the noun phrase that is modified by the clause. The restricting clause is the relative clause itself, which is indicated in brackets. The relativized noun phrase (NP) is the element within the restricting clause that is co referential with the head noun. In example (a), the noun Phrase is represented as o (a gap). Similarly the relativizer is the morpheme or particle that sets off the restricting clause is a relative clause. In example (a), the relativizer is “that”. The relativizer reflects some properties of noun phrase (NP) within the restricting clause.

### 3.1.2 Use of Relative Pronoun in English.

It is the relative pronouns that introduce relative clauses. The following are the relative pronouns in English and some of their salient semantic and syntactic features.

- a) Who  $\left[ \begin{array}{l} + \textit{SubjectNP} \\ + \textit{Human} \end{array} \right]$
- b) Whom  $\left[ \begin{array}{l} + \textit{Object NP} \\ + \textit{Human} \end{array} \right]$
- c) Which  $\left[ \begin{array}{l} \pm \textit{subject NP} \\ - \textit{human} \end{array} \right]$
- d) That  $\left[ \begin{array}{l} \pm \textit{subject NP} \\ \pm \textit{human} \end{array} \right]$
- e) Whose  $\left[ \begin{array}{l} + \textit{human} \\ + \textit{possessive} \\ + \textit{determiner} \end{array} \right]$

Who/whom prescriptively, it is correct to use whom to replace a relativized human NP in object position.

For Example,

44. The girl (who/whom) peter is engaged to ....

if the 'who (m)' is replacing the object of preposition and the preposition is the fronted with the relative pronoun, 'whom' will occur much more frequently. For example,

45. This is the person to  $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \textit{whom} \\ ? \textit{who} \end{array} \right\}$  you spoke.

**That /who or which**

In informal conversational discourse; 'that' is often preferred over either 'which' or 'whom (m)'. In written discourse 'who (m)' is preferred for human antecedents; 'which' and 'that' are both used to indicate a non human head noun. Eg:

- 46. The student who studies economics is my brother.
- 47. The boat that he is building is large.
- 48. I want a watch which is waterproof.

**Whose**

'whose' generally refers to a human head noun in possessive form. If a pronoun is in a genitive relation to a noun head, the pronoun can have the form 'whose'. Eg:

- 49. a) The woman is Mrs. Brown
- b) You met her daughter.
- c) The woman whose daughter you met is Mrs. Brown.

But sometimes sentences like the following occur where 'whose' refers to an inanimate noun. Eg:

- 50. The house whose roof was damaged has now been repaired.

**Table 1:- English relative pronouns.****The choice of relative pronoun use.**

	Restrictive		Nonrestrictive	
	Personal	Non Personal	Personal	Non Personal
Subjective case	Who That	Which That	Who	
Objective case	Whom That Zero	Which That Zero	Whom	Which
Genitive case	Whose/ of which			

Quirk et.al. (1985)

**3.1.3 Topological parameters of the relative clauses**

In this section we analyze the relative clauses in terms of the three typological parameters

- i) The position of the relative clause **vis-a-vis** its head noun,
- ii) The mode of expression of the relativized NP also called (“Case recoverability strategy”)
- iii) Grammatical relations that can be relativized.

**3.1.4 The position of the relative clause with respect to head.**

In this parameter, relative clause can vary in the position of clause with respect to the head. They are classified into four groups:

- a. Pre-nominal
- b. Post nominal
- c. Internally headed
- d. Headless

**a. Pre-nominal Relative Clause:-**

The relative clause occurs before the head NP in such position the relative clause is called “pre-nominal”. Thus; relative clause + determiner + head, as exemplified below. Eg:

51. i) The cat which you had beaten died.  
 ii) The boy who came yesterday went today.  
 iii) The man whom [I gave the book is my brother]

In example 51, sentence (1), the noun phrase 'the cat' is followed by the clause 'which you had beaten died'. Here 'the cat' is relativized NP and the word 'which' is relativizer, in ex. 51 (111) the clause in brackets is correlative relative clause which is placed before the noun. This relative clause has normally modified and restricted the head noun phrase.

**a. Post nominal :-**

In post nominal relative clause the NP (consisting of a determiner and a common noun or a personal pronoun) occurs outside the relative clause and the relative clause follows the head NP. The typical word order is thus; determiner head + relative clause.

Example (52)

- i. The man who works for the welfare of the people is respected by all.
- ii. Umesh's sister whose leg broke has come.

The above examples are all post nominal relative clause as the head ‘the man’ and ‘Umesh’s sister’ occur outside. The relative clauses follow the head NPs.

**c. Internally headed combination.**

In an internally headed relative clause (traditionally known as relative correlative the head NP occurs inside the relative clause

Example 53

There are not as much fish as they were before.

In the example, the head noun phrase is ‘fish’ which is within the relative clause.

**d. Headless Relative Clause.**

Headless relative clauses are those clauses which themselves refer to the noun that they modify. We can use headless relative clauses when the head noun is non-specific:

Example 54

- ii) [Whenever I am afraid], I call her.
- iii) “Whoever goes let him go”.

In both the examples, relative clauses themselves refer to the noun that they are supposed to modify”.

**3.2 The mode of expression of the relativized NP**

The second major parameter by which relative clauses can vary is how the NP<sub>rel</sub> is expressed. This parameter is sometimes stated as a ‘case recoverability’ problem(e.g. Keenan 1985). So, the grammatical role of the relativized noun phrase can be different from the role of its head noun within the relative clause. Such role can be identified in a natural language by using different syntactic strategies. In this



section, we discuss the two main strategies which are used in the relative clauses. They include gap strategy and pronoun retention.

### 3.2.1 The gap strategy

The relativized noun phrase can be left out in a relative clause. In other words, there can be a 'gap' after the correlative pronoun in a relative clause. This is a strategy to help identify the grammatical relation of the 'left out' noun phrase within the relative clause.

Example 55

- a. The alligator [that saw me] ate Alice.
- b. The alligator [that I saw] ate Alice.

These clauses can be considered to be reductions of the following two abstract structures.

- a.  $\frac{\text{The Alligator}}{\text{Head Noun}}$  that  $\left[ \frac{\text{the alligator saw me}}{NP_{rel}} \right]$  ate Alice.
- b.  $\frac{\text{The alligator}}{H.N.}$  that  $\left[ \frac{\text{I saw the alligator}}{NP_{rel}} \right]$  ate Alice

In e.g. 55 the gap is after the relativizer 'that'. This 'gap' is for the relativized noun 'The alligator'. The grammatical role of this noun phrase is the subject.

### 3.2.2 The pronoun Retention Strategy.

In this strategy a pronoun that explicitly refers the grammatical relation of the  $NP_{rel}$  by its position, its form or both is retained within the relative clause. Pronoun retention is used in many types of relative clauses in spoken English.

Example 56

- a. That's the guy whom [I can never remember his name.]

In this clause the NP is coded by the possessive pronoun 'his'. This pronoun signals the grammatical relation of the relativized noun phrase.

### **3.3 Grammatical relations that can be relativized.**

Most of the grammatical relations such as subject, direct object, indirect object, oblique and possessive can be relativized in English.

#### **3.3.1 The Relativization of the subject in the Embedded sentence.**

##### **3.3.1.1 Subject - Subject Relatives**

The noun phrase in the subject position can be relativized. There is great diversity in English relative clause type. In SS type of relative clause subject of the embedded sentence is identical to the subject of the main clause SS relative is the type of relative clause. In which the subject of the embedded sentence becomes relativized.

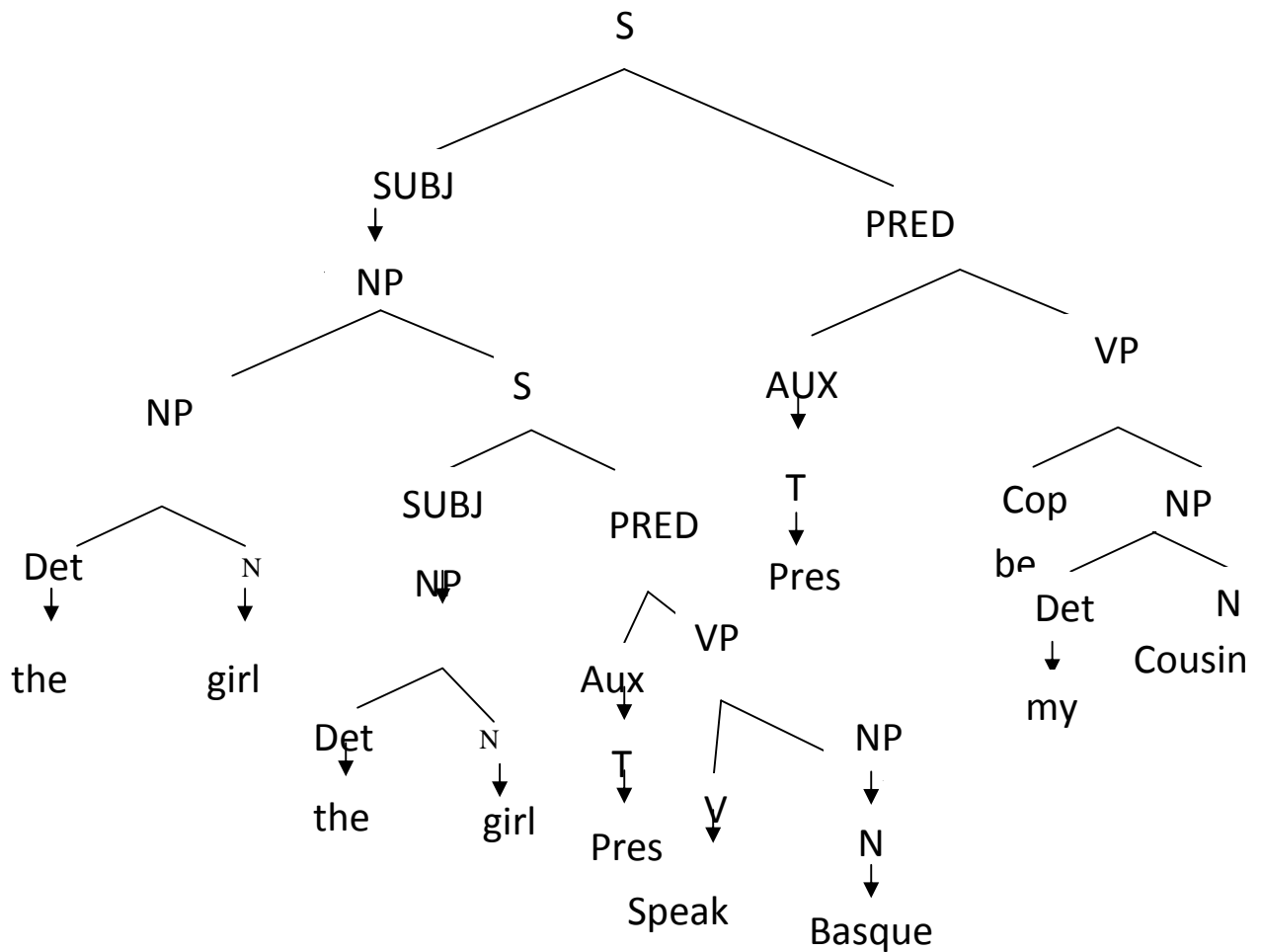
For Example;

57. a. The girl is my cousin.  
 b. The girl speaks Basque.  
 c. The girl who speaks Basque is my cousin.

Here, who refers to the 'girl', 'who' can refer to persons of either sex in the singular or plural. E.g.

58. The boy who speaks Basque is my cousin.  
 59. The girls who speak Basque are my cousins.

Thus, the basic structure for the first sentence above is.:



### 3.3.1.2 Object- Subject Relatives.

In Object - Subject relative, subject of the embedded sentence is identical to the object of the main clause. In this type subject of the embedded sentence is relativized. For example.

60. a. I know the girl.  
 b. The girl speaks Basque.  
 c. I know the girl who speaks Basque



### 3.3.2 The Relativization of the object in the embedded sentence

#### 3.3.2.1 Subject –Object Relatives.

In SO relative, object of the embedded sentence is identical to the subject of the main clause. In this type of relative clause the object NP of the embedded sentence is affected. For Example.

61. a. The man is my teacher.  
 b. You met the man.  
 c. The man whom you met is my teacher.

#### 3.3.2.2. Object-Object Relatives

In OO type of relative clause object of the embedded sentence is identical to the object of the main clause. In this type object NP of the embedded sentence is relativized. For example.

62. a. I read the book.  
 b. You mentioned the book.  
 c. I read the book that you mentioned.

One of the characteristics of embedded sentence with relativized object is that the relative pronoun may be deleted without affecting the grammaticality of the sentence. Relative pronoun deletion applies only to relativized object, it does not apply to embedded sentence with relativized subject.

For example,

63. The girl speaks Basque is my cousin.  
 64. I know the girl speaks Basque  
 65. I read that book you mentioned.

### 3.3.3. The Relativization of the Object of the preposition in the Embedded Sentences

In this type of relative clause, object of the preposition in the embedded sentences is relativized. For example

66. a. I know the place  
 b. You spoke about the place.  
 C. I know the place which you spoke about.

Another possibility, however, involves fronting the preposition along with its relativized object. If we do this we would get :

67. I know the place about which you spoke.

The relative pronoun 'that' cannot be used to replace the relativized object of a preposition if the preposition is fronted with the pronoun. For example,

68. a. The chair on that you were sitting broke.

It can be used, however, the preposition is not fronted along with the relative pronoun. e.g.

- b. The chair that you were sitting on broke.

In this type of relative clause relative pronoun deletion is possible only if the preposition has not been fronted along with the relativized object NP : For example

69. a. The place which you spoke about is Goa.  
 b. The place you spoke about is Goa.
- 70 a. The place about which you spoke is Goa.  
 b. The place about you spoke is Goa.

### 3.3.4 The Relativization of the Possessive.

Determiner in the embedded Sentence is a relative clause type that results when a noun marked for possession in the embedded sentence is the noun that refers to a noun in the main clause. For example,

71. a. The man is a wrestler.  
 b. You are admiring his wife.  
 c. The man whose wife you are admiring is a wrestler.

#### 2.3.4.1. Noun Phrases that can be Relativized.

English has a rich system of relativization with only a few restrictions on the kind of noun phrases that can be relativized or replaced by a relative pronoun. NPs functioning as subject, direct object, indirect object, oblique object, genitive and object NP of a comparison. They are exemplified below.

Subject Np- The book that is on the table was written by Shakespeare.

Direct Object (DO) NP- The authors that he mentioned are well known.

Indirect Object (IO) NP – The girl { (to) whom we gave the message.

Who we gave the message to } is not here.

Oblique object Np (i.e. Object of a preposition)

The child (from whom you took candy ) is crying.

Genitive NP – The girl whose name you wanted to know is Jenny.

Object NP of comparison –

{ ?The only person that I was shorter than was Tom. \* The only person than I was shorter was Tom. }

The only marginal NP function for relativization in English is object of comparison.

The other five functions are fully acceptable.

[Keenan and Comrie (1972 : 1977)]

## Chapter Four

### Relativization in Nepali

#### 4.1.1 Introduction

There exist traditional, descriptive and formal studies of relativization in Nepali, for example Sigdel (1919), Bhattarai (1976), Adhikari (1999) and Regmi (1978) are interesting to note. This chapter is an attempt to analyze the morph syntax of relativization in Nepali within the three typological parameters, viz. 1. The position of the relative clause vis-à-vis its head. ii. The mode of expression of the relativized NP (case recoverability strategy) and iii. Which grammatical relations can be relativized. (Noun phrase accessibility hierarchy) (Givon (1990/2001))

#### 4.1.2. Relative Pronouns in Nepali language

Nepali	English Form
--------	--------------

Jo + Human (gender )	who/whom
----------------------	----------

ex. 72. a. Jo mihinet garchha, tyo saphal hunchha.

who labour do-PRES that-DAT success be-3sNPT

b. Jas-le mah kadh-cha, tyas-le hat cat-cha

who-ERG honey hunt-3sNPT he-ERG hand lick-3sNPT

‘The man who works naturally gets more than the others.’

c. je (non human)	which
-------------------	-------

Ex. 73. (Je khan man lagcha) khau

Whatever(you) like eat-IMP

Whatever you like, eat.



Jun - human and non-human that

Ex. 74. (jun kitab hari-le kin-yo) tyo kitab ramro cha

Which book hari-ERG buy-PT that book good is

'The book that Hari bought is good.'

#### 4.1.3 The Phenomenon

There are two types of relative clauses in Nepali: participialized or non-finite and correlative or finite relative clause. Consider the following examples. in (75)

(75) a. kurci-ma                      bas-eko manche  
       chair-LOC                    sit-PP    man

'The man who is sitting on the chair'

b. ram-le    kin-eko    kalam  
       ram-ERG    buy – PP    pen

'The pen that Ram bought'.

c. [jun    kalam    ram-le    kin-yo]    tyo    kalam    ramro    cha  
       which    pen    ram-ERG    buy –PT    that    pen    good    is

'The pen that Ram bought is good.'

d. [jasko    kapal    kalo    cha]    tyo    keti    meri    bahini    ho

whose    hair    black    is-NPT    that    girl    my    sister    is -NPT

'The girl whose hair is black is my sister'.

The clause in (75 a and b) are non-finite relative clauses since the verb in each clause is suffixed with the participial marker -eko. Thus, these clauses are referred to as participialized relative clauses. They restrict or modify the head noun. But the clauses in the brackets in (75 c -d) are finite relative clauses initiated by correlative pronouns like Jas, Jun. So they are referred to as correlative relative clause. The clauses in 75 (c-d) as the clause sin 75 (a -b) modify the head noun. Both non-finite or

participialized and finite or correlative relative clauses are nominal modifiers in Nepali.

## **4.2 Typological Parameters of the relative clauses**

In this section we analyze the relative clause in terms of the three typological parameters

- i. The position of the relative clause vis-a-vis its head.
- ii. The mode of expression of the relativized NP.
- iii. Grammatical relations that can be realized.

### **4.2.1 The position of the relative clause vis-à-vis its head**

In Nepali, there are three types of relative clauses in terms of the position of the relative clause with respect to its head noun: externally headed (pre-nominal, post-nominal) internally headed and headless.

#### **4.2.1.1 External headed relative clause**

In Nepali there are two types of external headed relative clauses : pre-nominal and post-nominal relative clauses.

##### **a. Pre-nominal relative clause**

In a pre-nominal relative clause the head noun is placed after the relative clause.

For example 76,

[Jasa-lai mai-le Prasna Sodhe] tyo mero bhai ho.

Whom\_DAT I -ERG question ask -PT that my brother is

'The man whom I asked the question is my brother'.

In (76) the clause in brackets is a correlative relative clause which is placed before the head noun. This relative clause has 'normally' modified and restricted the head noun phrase 'tyo mero bhai'

**(b) Post -nominal relative clause**

In Nepali the correlative relative clause can occur after the head noun phrase.

For example.

- (77) tyo    sabai-ko    pyaro    huncha  
 that    all GEN    liked    be-3sNPT  
 [jo lok-ko kalyanka lagi kam gar-cha]

Who society-GEN benefit for work do - 3sNPT

'The man who works for the benefit of all the people is liked by all.

In (77) the relative clause in the brackets has occurred after the head noun it modifies. In Nepali, this type of relative clause is normally used for a pragmatic reason viz; focusing the 'Heavy' (focused) information is shifted to late in the clause.

**4.2.2. Internal headed relative clause**

In Nepali the head noun can occur within the relative clause. For example,

- (78) [jati    manche    aghi    thiyo] ahile chainan  
 As much    people    before    were    now    are not

'There are not as much people as they were before.'

In (78) the head noun phrase is 'manche' which is within the relative clause in the brackets.

**4.2.3 Headless relative clause**

In Nepali we find some relative clauses which themselves refer to the noun that they modify. In other words, there are headless relative clauses in Nepali. For examples.

- (79) a. [ jo    bahira    Jancha ]    kutai    khan -cha  
 whoever out    go-3sNPT    beating    get - 3s NPT

"Whoever goes out will be beaten".

- b. [jo jancha ] jaos  
 Whoever go - 3sNPT let (him) go.,  
 'Whoever goes let him go'.

In both (79a) and (79b) the relative clauses, themselves refer to the noun that they are supposed to modify.

### 4.3 The mode of expression of the relativized NP.

The grammatical role of the relativized noun phrase can be different from the role of its head noun within the relative clause. Such role can be identified in a natural language by using different syntactic strategies. In this section we discuss the main strategies which are used in the relative clauses in Nepali. They include gap, pronoun retention and the use of different correlative pronouns.

#### 4.3.1 The gap strategy

The relativized noun phrase can be left out in a relative clause. In other words, there can be a 'gap' after the correlative pronoun in a relative clause. This is a strategy to help identify the grammatical relation of the 'left out' noun phrase within the relative clause. For example.

- (80) tyo manche (jas-le ma-lai kut-yo] samat-i-yo.  
 that man who-ERG me-DAT beat -PT catch-PASS PT  
 'The man who beat me was caught.'

In (80) the gap is after the relativizer *jasle*. This 'gap' is for the relativized noun 'tyo manche'. The grammatical role of this noun phrase is the subject.

#### 4.3.2 The Pronoun retention strategy

In this strategy a pronoun that explicitly references the grammatical relation of the relativized noun phrase by its position, its form, or both is retained within the relative clause. For example

- (81). tyo tyahi manche ho  
 that the same man is  
 [jo mai-le usko nam kahile samjhanna]  
 [Who I-ERG his name never remember]  
 'That is the same man whose name I can never remember'

In (81) the relative clause in the brackets has retained the possessive pronoun *usko*. This pronoun signals the grammatical relation of the relativized noun phrase. However, this type of strategy is not that much productive in Nepali.

#### 4.3.3. The correlative pronoun strategy

The correlative relative *jo* (human singular) *jun* (human plural) and *je* (non-human) are used in the relative clauses in Nepali. e.g.

- (82) a. [jo garib cha] us-le badhi kharca gar-cha  
 Who poor is he -ERG much spend-NPT  
 'The man who is poor spends much.'
- b. [jo manche hiyo ayeka thiyo] uniharu sabai samaja sebi thiye  
 Who men Yesterday had come they all social workers were.  
 'The men who came yesterday were all social workers'
- c. [je khana man lagcha] khau  
 whatever (you) like eat - IMP  
 'Whatever you like, eat'.

In (82a) the relativizer *jo* suggest that the grammatical role of the relativized noun phrase is the subject. This subject is human and singular. Similarly in (82b) the relativizer *Jun* shows that the relativized noun phrase is the subject. It is the plural human noun. In case of (82c) *je* is the direct object of the imperative verb 'khau'.

#### 4.4 Grammatical relations that can be relativized

Most of the grammatical relations such as subject, direct object, indirect object, oblique and possessive can be relativized in Ndpali.

##### 4.4.1 Subject

The noun phrase in the subject position can be relativized. For example,

- (83) [Jas-le mah kadh-cha] tyas-le hat chat-cha  
 who –ERG honey hunt-3s NPt he-ERG hand lick 3sNPt  
 'The man who works naturally gets more than the others'.

In (83) the relativized noun phrase is Jas-le (jun manchele) it is in the subject position.

##### 4.4.2 Direct Object

In Nepali the noun phrase in the direct object position can be relativized. For example,

- (84) [Jas-lai mai-le aphno manche tha-ne] tyas-le ma-lai dhoka di-yo  
 Whom-DAT I-ERG own man consider –PT he-ERG I-DAT Cheat-PT  
 'The man whom I believed cheated me'.

In (84) the noun phrase 'Jas-lai (jun manchelai)' is relativized in the direct object position.

##### 4.4.3 Indirect Object

The noun phrase in the indirect object position can be relativized. For example.

- (85). [rames-le jas-lai, kalam di yo] tyas-lai mai-le kapi di-ye.  
 Ramesh-ERG who-DAT pen give-P he-DAT I-ERG exercise book give-PT  
 'I gave the exercise book to the person whom Ramesh gave a pen.'

In (85), the noun phrase 'Jas-lai' is the indirect object which has been relativized.

#### 4.4.4 Oblique

In Nepali the noun phrase in oblique position can be relativized. For example.

- (86) [Jo ghoda mathi cadh-cha] tysa-lai ma ghirna gar-chu  
 who horse on ride-3s NPT that-DAT I hate-1sNPT  
 'I hate the man who rides the horse'.

In (86) the noun phrase 'Jo ghoda mathi' is the relativized noun which is in oblique case.

#### 4.4.5 Possessive

In Nepali the noun phrase in the possessive position can also be easily relativized. e.g.

- (87) [jas-ka si lama chan] tyas-lai ma man Paraun-na  
 whose -poss horn long are that-DAT I like 1s NPT-NEG  
 'I do not like the cow which has long horn'.

In (87), the relativized noun phrase 'Jas-Ka si ' which is in possessive position. So, this shows that the choice of the relativized noun phrase in Nepali is not constrained by any specific grammatical relations.

## Chapter Five

### Similarities and Differences among Maithili, English and Nepali Relativization

#### Introduction

This chapter deals with the basic similarities and difference among Maithili, Nepali and English on the basis of their functioning. The purpose of the chapter is to explore the clause by showing the similarities and differences to its head noun phrase. It also shows the underline syntactic position of the relative clause and its corresponding semantic relationship with the external head.

#### 5.1 Similarities:-

1. The relative clauses function as a nominal modifiers in those three languages. For example:

88. (a) In English

(i) The boat that he is building is large.

(b) In Nepali

(i) ram-le        dekh-eko keti- lai    ma                cin-chu

Ram- ERG    see-PPT    girl-DAT    I SG NOM    know-ISG PR

‘I know the girl who Ram saw.’

(c) In Maithili



(i) [Je khet h riy r ich] se h m r ich

REL field green be-PRES(3NH) COREL that I be- PRES (3NH+1)

‘The field that is green is mine.’

In above examples, it is clear that the relative clause modifies the head noun.

Such as ‘the boat’, ‘the girl’ and ‘khet h riy r’ are the head noun which is modified by relative clause.

2. The relative clauses in these three languages are marked by relative pronouns which are given below. For example.

89. (a) In English

(i) The man who wrote Muna Madan was Devkota

(b) In Nepali

(i) [jun kalam ram-le kin-eyo] tyo kalam ramro cha

Which pen Ram- ERG buy- PT that pen good is

‘The pen that Ram bought is good.’

(c) In Maithili

u ch ura [je o kailh æ-l ch l] b d c lak  
 That boy REL yeaterday come-PERF AUX- PST (3NH) very clever  
 ich  
 be-PRES-(3NH)

‘The boy who came yesterday is very clever.’

The above examples, the relative pronouns such as in [a] who [b] jun [c] je are the same functioning in the sentence.

3. The relative clauses among Maithili, Nepali and English have been modified by two ways: - restrictive and non-restrictive clauses.

For example:

90. (a) In English

(i) Ram, whose mother you met, is not well

(ii) The boy you taught is my son.

(b) In Nepali

(i) hari-le kin-eko kitab

Hari-ERG buy PP book

‘the book that Hari bought’

(ii) jas-ko kapal kalo cha tyo keti meri bahini ho

Whose hair black is-NPT that girl my sister is-NPT

‘The girl whose hair is black is my sister.’

(c) In Maithili

(i) h m je kitab m h g ch- ik se o n i le-b

I REL book expensive be- PRES(3NH) COREL that not take-FUT-(1)

‘I want to buy the book which is expensive.’

(ii) h b d meh n t k r h l ch-I [ je nik bat

YouI(H) much laobur do PROG AUX-PRES-(2H) REL good matter

ich]

be-PRES-(3NH)

‘You are working very hard which is good thing’

The above examples clearly present the restrictive or non-restrictive clauses of these three languages which are similar.

4. The relative clauses those three languages are marked for as a headless. For examples:

91. (a) In English

(i) Whoever goes let him go.

(b) In Nepali

(i) [jo jancha] jaos

whoever go-3sNPT let(him) go

‘Whoever goes let him go.’

(c) In Maithili

h m- r kitab cor- nihar e-l- i

I-GENIT book steal-NOM come-PST-(3NH)

‘One who stole my book came’

In examples [91(a),91(b) & 91(c)] the relative clauses themselves refer to the noun that they are supposed to modify.

5. The relative clauses among three languages are marked with post-modification e.g.

92. (a) In English

(i) The man that the woman hit.

(ii) Umesh’s sister whose leg broke has come.

(b) In Nepali

(i) tyo sabai-ko pyaro huncha [jo lok ko kalyan ka lagi kam  
 that all GEN liked be-3sNPT who society-GEN benefit- for work  
 gar-cha]  
 do -3sNPT

‘The man who works for the benefit for all the people liked by all.’

(c) In Maithili

(i) o [je hunk- r j mæ ch- hinh ] (se) ab  
 He (h) REL he(h)- GENIT son-in-law be (3H+3H) COREL now  
 b j-t-ah  
 speak- FUT(3H)

‘He who is his son-in-law will now speak.’

In examples [90(a) ,92 (b) & 92(c)] the relative clauses in the brackets occur after the head noun it modifies.

6. Among those three languages major grammatical relations are relativized such as subject, direct object, indirect object, oblique and possessive and so on.

For examples

93. (a) In English

(i) The girl who speaks Basque is my cousin.

(ii) The man whom you met is my teacher.

(iii) The man that I gave the book to is over their.

(iv) The place which you spoke about is Denver.

(b) In Nepali

(i) [ja-s lai mai-le aphno manche tha-ne] tyas-le ma-lai dhoka di-yo

Whom-DAT I-ERG own man consider-PT he-ERG I-DAT cheat-PT

‘The man whom I believed cheated me.’

(ii) [jo ghoda mathi cadh-cha] tyasa-lai ma ghrina gar-chu

Who horse on ride-3sNPT that-DAT I hate- 1sNP

‘I hate the man who rides the horse’

(c) In Maithili

(i) [je gh ri h m h ke de-l - uh] se j pani

REL watch I you(H)ACC give-PST-(1+2H) COREL Japanese be-

ch i

PRES-(3NH)

‘The watch that I gave you is Japanese.’

(ii) i khissa ohi bykti ke ch ik

This story DEMONS person ACC be-PRES(3NH)

[j k r k niya okra choir del-k i]

REL-GENIT wife he(NH) leave give-PST-(3NH+3NH)

‘The story is of a person whose wife left him.’

The above examples in [93(a) ‘the girl’ 93(b) ‘jas- lai mai –le’ 93(c) ‘je ghari’] are relativized in the position of subject, direct object, oblique and so on.

## 5.2 Differences:-

(1) We can show differences among English, Nepali and Maithili languages on the basis of finite and non-finite clauses. In English there is only finite and both Nepali and Maithili have finite and non-finite relative clauses. For example:

94. (a) In English

(i) Ram [who cried yesterday] came

The relative pronoun is accompanied by a finite verb ‘cried’ which is referred to as finite verb construction.

(ii) [Walking in the park everyday] is good for health.

The verb ‘walking’ has no tense, hence the non-finite verb construction

(b) In Nepali

(i) [jasko kapal kalo cha] tyo keti meri bahini ho

whose hair black is NPT that girl my sister is NPT

‘The girl whose hair is black is my sister.’

(ii) ram-le kin-eko kalam

ram-ERG buy-PP pen

The pen that Ram bought.

The clause in (94b), I is a finite relative clause initiated by correlative pronouns like *jus, jun*, and the clause in (94b)ii is non-finite since the verb is with participial marker-eko

(C) In Maithili

(i) [ Je o dda me n i ch- i ]

REL he(H) office in not be-PST(3NH)

se o kr mcari hata de-l ge-l

COREL that officer move- CAUST give-PSTPCPL go-PST(3NH)

(The officer who was not presenting the office was sacked.)

(ii) j nard n [ je professor ch- ithe] ai bhasan de – t – ah

Janardan REF professor be-PRES-(3H) today speech give – FUT – (3H)

Janardhan , who is a professor, who delivered speech today.

The clause in (94 C), I and II clearly present the finite and non-finite relative clauses.

(2) We can show differences among three languages on the basis of use of relative pronouns which are used in the formation of relativization. For example-

(95) (a) In English

(i) We can use relative pronouns such as who, which , whose , that etc.

(ii) The book which is on the table is mine.



## (b) In Nepali

(i) We can use correlative pronouns such as jo, jun, jasle, tyo and so on.

(ii) [ jo bahira janch] kutai khan-ch

whoever go -3s NPT beating get-3s NPT

‘Whoever goes out will be beaten.’

## c. In Maithili

(i) We can use relative pronouns such as je, se, jinka, jesab and so on.

(ii) ok – ra p k ir la

He(NH) ACC catch bring – IMP (2NH+3NH)

[jek- r mahis h m r khet c r- l]

REL-GENIT buffalo I-GENIT field graze PST-(3NH+3NH)

‘Go fetch him whose buffalo grazed my field.’

The clauses (95a, b, and c) clearly present the differences of using relative pronouns in the relative clauses such as who, which, jo, jun, je, se, and so on.

3. We can show the differences in the relative clauses in terms of the position of the relative clause with respect to its head noun.

## 96. (a) In English

(i) There is only post-modification of relative clause

(ii) My brother who is doctor went to hospital.

## (b) In Nepali

(i) In Nepali language, there are pre, post, internally and headless relative clauses.

(ii) [jas -lai mai-le prasna sodhe ] tyo mero bhai ho

Whom- DAT I –ERG question ask –PT that my brother is

‘The man whom I asked the question is my brother.’

(iii) tyo sabai-ko pyaro huncha [ jo lok-ko kalyanka lagi kam

That all GEN liked be- 3sNPT Who society –GEN benefit for work-

gar-cha ]

do-3sNPT

‘The man who works for the benefit of all the people is liked by all.’

## (c) In Maithili

(i) In Maithili language, too, there are pre and post modifications of relative clauses.

(ii) u k pra [j k-ra h p sin k e-l- hû]

That cloth REL-ACC/DAT you (H) select do-PST–(2H)

tahi k pra-k dam m h g ch- ik

COREL GENIT-COREL cloth-GENIT price expensive be-PRES-(3NH+3NH)

‘The cloth that you selected is expensive.’

The clauses in the example [96 (a) (b) (c)] vividly present the modification of the head.

4. The differences among these three languages pointed out regarding the order of the head noun phrase in the relative clause.

For example,

97. (a) In English

(i) In English, RC can occur only in sentence medial and final positions, which are fixed.

(ii) The police arrested the man [who committed robbery ]

(b) In Nepali

(i) In Nepali, RC can occur in all the three positions: sentence-initial, medial and final positions. So, it is flexible

(ii) [je khana man lagacha ] khau

whatever (you) like eat-IMP

‘Whatever you like, eat.’

(c) In Maithili

(i) In Maithili also RC can occur in all three positions: sentence- initial, medial and final positions. So, it is flexible.

(ii) u kitab [je h m kailh kinli] (se) mohan jha s

That book REL I yesterday buy-PST(1+3NH) COREL Mohan Jha by

likhal- I cha- ik

write- PSTPCPL be- PRES-(3H+3NH)

‘The book which I bought yesterday written by Mohan Jha.’

5. We can show the differences on the basis of the grammatical role of the relativized noun phrase can be different from the role of the its include gap, pronoun retention and the use of different correlative pronouns. For example-

(98) (a) In English

(i) There is only the gap strategy and the pronoun retention strategy in English

(ii) The snake [that I saw] ate frog.

(iii) That’s the guy who [I can never remember his name]

(b) In Nepali

(i) In Nepali, there is gap strategy, the pronoun retention strategy and the correlative pronoun strategy.

(ii) tyo manche [jas - le ma-lai kut-yo] samat-i-yo

That man who – ERG me –DAT beat – PT catch-PASS PT

‘The man who beat me was caught.’

(iii) tyo tayhi manche ho [jo mai-le usko nam kahile samjhana].

That the same man is who I-ERG his name never remember

‘That is the same man whose name I can never remember.’

(iv) [jo garib cha] us-le badhi kharca gar-cha

Who poor is he -ERG much spend- NPT

‘The man who is poor spends much.’

(c) In Maithili ,

(i) In Maithili , there is not the gap strategy and the pronoun retention strategy but there is only one correlative construction, which is not found in English.

(ii)[je l rki s ha biyah ke-l ûh] se l rki h m r

REL girl I NS you(H) marriage do -PST- (2H+3H) COREL girl I -  
GENIT sair ch- ith

sister-in- law be -PRES-(3NH)

‘The girl whom you married is my sister-in-law.’

The relative clauses in (98a, b and c) clearly present the mode of expression of the relativized in these three languages.

In the similar way, we can find the similarities and differences on the basis of honorific, non-honorific distinction in using relative pronoun which is not in English. The Maithili speakers should be made careful with the fact that the same relativizer is used for both singular and plural NPs in English whereas in Maithili and Nepali languages, there are different relativizers are used in singular and plural.

## **Chapter Six**

### **Summary and Conclusion**

#### **6.1. Summary**

Maithili belongs to the Eastern subgroup of the Indo-Aryan group within the Indo-Iranian branch of the European language family. The main focus of these study is to analyze the relative clause of s Maithili language with respect to Nepali and English ones. Here, Maithili language refers to the standard language which is mainly spoken in the north eastern part of the Indian state of Bihar, and the eastern part of Nepal's Terai region namely the district – Sarlahi, Mahottari, Dhanusha, Siraha, Sapatari, Sunsari and Morang. The whole thesis research is divided into six chapters which can be summarized as below:

The chapter one is the general introduction of the whole thesis. Firstly, it defines the language and gives the general background of language. Then, it gives the linguistic scenario of Nepal. By and by, it gives the background and origin of the Maithili, English and Nepali languages. After that, it talks about the significance of grammar and also it gives a sketchy remark to the relative clause. Later, it talks about the problem of conducting this research, hypothesis, and the objectives of this research early and recent review of works on the related language and research methodology. At the end of this chapter, it talks about the limitations of the study and the organization of the study. All in all, this chapter is the presentation of the outline of this work.

The second, third and fourth chapters are the main chapters of this work. This part is the heart of this research in which the relativizations in Maithili, English and Nepali languages have been presented, analyzed and interpreted in details. In these three chapters at first, there is general introduction about relative clause and relative

pronouns which are used in the formation of relativization. After that, there is an analysis of relativization in Maithili, English and Nepali with relation to its typological parameters. Firstly in terms of its position with respect to its head the relative clauses can be pre-nominal, post-nominal, internally headed and headless. The post nominal relative clauses in Nepali are pragmatically motivated. Secondly, the role of the relativized noun phrase can be different from the role of its head noun within the relative clause. Such role can be identified using different strategies like gap, pronoun, retention and use of correlative pronouns. However, the use of correlative relativizers seem quite significant in Nepali. We cannot find gap and pronoun retention strategies in Maithili language. Thirdly, most of the grammatical relations such as subject, direct object, and indirect object, oblique and possessive can be relativized in these three languages of relative clauses. In addition we also find various kinds of relative clauses in Maithili languages.

The fifth chapter deals with the similarities and differences among Maithili, Nepali and English relative clauses. There is also analysis of the correlative clauses among those three languages. Maithili relative ‘Je’ Nepali relative pronoun ‘Jo’ and English relative pronoun ‘who’ and ‘what’ seem same, but something ‘Je’ means human is used for ‘who’ and same ‘je’ means non-human is used for ‘that’ and ‘which’ Maithili relative pronouns are marked for human, non-human, number, honorification non-honorification and correlative pronouns. On the other hand, Nepali and English relative pronouns are not-marked for number and honorificity but it has human and non-human relativizers. These three languages have correlative relativizer which are analyzed on the basis of similarities and differences in the comparative way. Thus, from the above clarification, it is said that Maithili relative clauses have

specific and unique aspect in the case of relativization with respect to Nepali and English relative clauses.

## **6.2 Conclusion**

To conclude this study is a preliminary attempt to analyze Maithili relativization with respect to Nepali and English ones. From this research, it has become apparent that Maithili relativizations have really something specific and unique aspect in itself in relation to Nepali and English ones; and also they (Maithili relativizations) have a great link with Nepali relativizations and have a great variation with English ones. The adopted hypothesis the idea that there are both areas of similarities and differences among Maithili, English and Nepali languages with respect to their relativizations have also become true from his research work. So, it can be said that Maithili language also shows the influence of many other languages like Nepali and Sanskrit on themselves. Although this work itself is limited and has not covered the whole area, it will certainly as I hope, be helpful for further works in Maithili including other languages in future.



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