

Chapter One

Introduction

1.1 General Background

Language is the most unique gift that sets human beings apart from the rest of living beings. It is the greatest accomplishment of human civilization. It is a means by which we can perform several things like communications, thinking, group solidarity, inter linguistic conflict, nation building, control, creation and so on. It is perhaps the most significant asset of human life. A language is a system of arbitrary vocal symbols by means of which a social group co-operates. Advance Learner's Dictionary (2000: 721) defines language as, "the use by humans of a system of sound words to communicate". Language is understood as the natural and universal 'human' aptitude and behavior of using words to communicate ideas by human being.

Language is a very important means of establishing and maintaining relationship with other people in society. So language is also a social phenomenon, it helps to maintain intimate relationship and influences the society. Language is not fixed entity; it is dynamic and changes over time. Knowing a language means a great deal more than simply knowing how to produce sentences; it also means knowing how to use them. All human beings normally speak at least one language and it is hard to imagine much significant, social, intellectual or artistic activity- taking place in its absence.

There are hundreds of languages in the world out of them English is most popular language. It has been a second language of billions of people worldwide and has been used as official languages in many countries. It has gained the status of an international language not only because it is used as lingua franca but also because people in different parts of the world use it as their 'other tongue'. English language is

being used in various sectors mostly in educational sector, government sector, conference, private sector, press, journals, newspaper, and sports and so on.

1.2 Maithili Language: an Introduction

Maithili belongs to the family of indo-Aryan languages under the indo-Iranian branch of the indo-European language. In Nepal, Maithili is spoken by 2.8 million people in the eastern Terai, forming second largest speech community after Nepali and in India; it is spoken by half of the population of Bihar state. Since Maithili has been classified as a mother tongue under Hindu till the recent census report of India (2001) and, only in 2003, it has gained the status of an independent language in Indian through its inclusion in the VIII schedule of the Indian constitution, there is much confusion about the exact number of Maithili speaker in India, linguistics, preferring the census report of undivided India (2001), estimate the number of Maithili speaker to be 45 million, making it one of the forty most spoken language of the world. Undoubtedly, Maithili has a large speech community with a rich literacy heritage, the history of Maithili literature is more than a millennium old, Vidyapati, a 14th century poet of Maithili, is a poet for all ages. He is acclaimed as the most celebrated literacy his love poems (songs) depicting the love of Radha-Krishna and devotional poems (songs) all contained in his Padavali are the soul of Mithila. His songs have survived in the throats of Maithili women folk and are sung on every social and religious celebration. Varna Ratnakar. Written by Jyotirishwar Thakur in 1224 A.D. , is the earliest prose in Maithili, which happens to be the oldest prose work in any of the languages of North –Eastern India. The literary tradition of Maithili has continued till modern times. Dr. Hari Mohan Jha for his satirical masterpiece, Chaudhary for his poems and short stories are some of noted literary figures of Maithili in modern times. Maithili has its own script called Mithilakshar resembling with that of Bengali, Oriya

and Nepal Bhasa and being used only in specific contexts. Devangari script is most widely used in it for its popularity and for the ease in writing and in using computer and other printing techniques.

Linguistic studies on Maithili language have been pursued since 19th century; Hoernle (1880) was the first to study the grammatical forms of Maithili to distinguish it from Hindi. It was sir G.A Grierson (1881, 1883, and 1903), an Irish linguist and civil servant, who tirelessly researched Maithili and presented a comprehensive grammar of Maithili. D. Jha (1946) was the first native grammarian to write a grammar of Maithili in Maithili medium on the model of Sanskrit grammar. S. Jha (1958) presents an exhaustive, diachronic study on Maithili language in all its aspects- phonetics, phonology, morphology, syntax and semantics. Davis and Williams (1973) have made a study of Maithili syntax, collecting data from the field work in the Terai of Nepal. Further, U.N sigh (1979), has attempted to present Maithili syntax on TG model. G.Jha's grammar (1979), written in Maithili medium, has tried to analyze the language with modern insights. R. Yadav's work (1996) makes a synchronic study of Maithili phonetics and phonology on acoustic line. His work is further pursued by S.K. Jha (2001) and by M. Mishra (1996). Another work by R. Yadav (1996) studies Maithili phonology, morphology and syntax. Y. Yadava (1998) has attempted to investigate the syntactic phenomena of Maithili and explore their bearings on Government –Binding theory proposed by N. Chomsky.

Lexicography or dictionary- making in Maithili can be traced back to Varna Ratnakar. After about seven centuries, it was resumed by the collaboration of Hoernle and Grierson (1885, 1889). D. Jha's work (1950) is the first Maithili monolingual dictionary. J. Mishra's dictionary (1973) in two volumes is a major contribution compiled on the model of Oxford English dictionary; G. Jha's dictionary (1999) of

Maithili with English equivalent is also a remarkable work. In the areas of sociolinguistics, S.K. Yadav (1989) has studied the use of some major language of Nepal including Maithili in various domains and has suggested viable language policies to be adopted by the government of Nepal.

1.3 Language Universals

Language is universal at the theoretical level of understating, in theory; there is a universally similar system of sound, structure and meaning which all human beings share all over the world. Though every language has unique words and surface forms of its own, all the human species of the world share the same basic aptitude, competence, ability, mechanisms, or a universal competence of language. At that theoretical level, there is universality in all the 'human' verbal language of the whole world.

The features of universality are perhaps the most debated features of language. The main proponent and supporter of the claim of universality is Noam Chomsky, and most modern linguists agree that there is universality in language at the theoretical level. But many other linguists like Otto Jespersen refuse to describe language as 'universal' because they regard that the subject of study of language is mainly the unique communicative systems like English, German and so on. This means that those who regard language as a universal phenomenon go deep into the underlying patterns of language which are universal, but those who focus on language as the surface form of communication claim that universality is too obstruct merely theoretical and therefore unimportant features of language. Jespersen, for instance, regards universality as non-defining and incident features of language.

1.4 The Noun Phrase Structure

A phrase can be identified on the basis of the word class membership of its most important constituent; thus a noun phrase is a phrase which has a noun as its most important constituent.

Basically, all sentences in English consist of a noun phrase and verb phrase.

This claim, about the structure of the sentences can be abbreviated as:

Sentence Noun phrase + verb phrase

Or more shortly

S NP+VP

Therefore, this rule reads, “A sentence consists of a noun phrase followed by a verb phrase”. For example

- 1) She ate an apple
- 2) Rakesh goes to the market.

Both of these sentences consist both an NP (she and Rakesh) and a VP (ate; PST and goes: PRES).

In the internal structure of the English noun phrase, three functions can be distinguished; determiner, modifier and head. The function of modifier is an optional one which may be realized more than once, may occur both in front of the head and after it, and may even be “interrupted” by the head. The function of determiner is, in the majority of cases, an obligatory one which can be realized only once, is positionally restricted to the initial slot in the noun phrase and is usually realized by items from a number of closed classes. The item realizing the function of head determines the category of the phrase as is therefore realized by a noun or pronoun; the head is, without exception, an obligatory function.

1.5 Statement of Problem

According to Chomskyan model of generative grammar, all the worlds' language shares some common features because of universal principles. But they also differ because of their parametric variations. For example, English relative clause is post-headed while Maithili one is a pre-headed.

1) a. $\left[\begin{array}{c} \text{the man} \\ \text{NP} \end{array} \left\{ \begin{array}{c} \text{who is sitting there} \\ \text{Relative Clause} \end{array} \right\} \right]$ is my uncle.

b. $\left[\left\{ \begin{array}{c} \text{ota baisal} \\ \text{Relative Clause} \end{array} \right\} \begin{array}{c} \text{aadami} \\ \text{NP} \end{array} \right]$ hamar kakaah thikaah.

1.6 Hypothesis

This study is an attempt to find out the similarities and differences between English and Maithili noun phrase structure, in terms of linguistic principles and parameters. Here we intend to substantiate with the Maithili data, the claims made about the parameters of Noun phrase structure across world's languages.

1.7 Objectives of the Study

The major objectives of this study are as follows:

- i) To study and analyze the noun phrase structure of English.
- ii) To study and analyze the noun phrase structure of Maithili.
- iii) To find out areas shared by the two language with respect to their noun phrase structure.
- iv) To discover areas of differences in connection with noun phrase structure.
- v) To identify areas of difficult in learning English noun phrase for Maithili speaking learners.

1.8 Review of Literature

Almost all the traditional grammarians of Maithili have written something about the Maithili nouns.

Yadava has written so many books and articles regarding the Maithili language. The book, *Reading in Maithili language, literature and culture, (1999)* which is edited by Yadava, discusses various aspects of the Maithili language, literature and culture. He also discusses briefly about grammar, phonology, lexicography, historical/ comparative linguistics and sociolinguistics/ pragmatics. This books also talks about the Maithili noun phrase and its characteristics, functions etc.

Likewise, his article *Maithili (2001)*' which is included in *Facts about the world's language*, discusses briefly about gender, number, honorificity and case regarding Maithili language. It takes about Maithili language and its origin and history. He mainly talks about its location, family and dialects of Maithili language. In this article he has tried to include about the number of Maithili speakers and he also discusses about those other languages which are related with Maithili language. This article also deals with orthography and basic Maithili phonology, syntax etc. from this article; we can study some common words of Maithili language. It can help us to make efforts to preserve, protect and promote the language.

Similarly, S. Jha's book *Formation of Maithili language (1958)* is a pioneering work in the field of Maithili linguistics. It covers everything of Maithili language – its phonetics, phonology, syntax, morphology and semantics. It is the most exhaustive diachronic description of Maithili. In it, Jha has also undertaken to trace the history of Maithili from the old Indo-Aryan (OIA) period and has labored assiduously to assign Sanskrit etymologies to practically all forms of Maithili (for a contrary view, emphasizing the Santhali, i.e Munda, influences on Maithili, See De, Vresse, 1962).

Andrew Radford's, *Transformational Grammar – A first course (1988)*, has been concerned with introducing us to the broad aims to Transformational Grammar,

and with explaining some basic concepts. This book has argued in detail that sentences are out of words and phrases assigned to various categories. It has also been concerned with examining some of the formal properties of phrase-markers, the rules generate them, and the nature of the categories used to label the non-terminal nodes of phrase- markers. The general aim of this book has been to provide empirical support for the claim that there is a type of nominal constituent which is larger than the Noun but smaller than the Noun Phrase according to Chomskyan model. In the same way, it has dealt with other phrases, clauses, the Lexicon, transformation etc.

Payne's *Describing Morphosyntax (1999)* also describes tasks, or functions, that tend to be associated with noun phrases and presents further details concerning how morpho- syntactic operations are expressed in noun phrases. This book also concerns with different linguistic approaches and grammatical aspects.

Though these grammarians have studied and explained various aspects of the grammar but still it needs some researches on the noun phrase structure of Maithili language. So this study can be helpful for the further researches.

1.9 Research Methodology

Comparison will be made first by starting with one or more simple sentences in the first language (Maithili) and their translations equivalent in the second language (English). The main source of necessary data for Maithili will be as a native speaker collected by myself. Besides, Maithili data will also be taken from other texts. As for the English data and their analysis, we would refer to various works of different linguists; Chomsky, Payne, Aarts, Quirk et al (1985) etc.

1.10 Limitation of the Study

This study will cover the structures of the noun phrase of Maithili language which is the medium of communication of Maithili speakers around the Terai region

of Nepal and the English language as well as their comparative study will also be discussed.

1.11 Organization of the Study.

- i) Introduction
- ii) English noun phrase structure
- iii) Maithili noun phrase structure
- iv) Similarities and differences between English and Maithili noun phrase.
- v) Conclusion

Chapter – Two

The noun phrase structure in English

This chapter deals with the English noun phrase structure which carries; the definition, classification, function, formation of the head which is noun. After it, it deals with the structure of the English noun phrase.

2.1 Nominalization

2.1.1 Noun

In every sentence there are nouns which are the head of the noun phrase. A noun is a word used as the name of place, person or thing for e.g.

- i. Sita is a good girl.
- ii. He lives in Kathmandu.
- iii. The sun shine bright

2.1.2 Classification of Noun

Noun is the name of an entity whether concrete or abstract, common or private.

Noun can be classified into different type on the different basis. On the functional basis; there are four kinds of noun.

i) Proper Noun: The name of any particular person, place or thing is proper noun e.g. Hari, Siraha, pen, Radha etc.

ii) Common Noun: the name of a whole class of noun is called common noun e.g. man, women, police, people, animal, bird, river, etc.

iii) Collective Noun: the name of a group of noun or the name suggesting mass of noun is called collective noun, e.g.

An army of soldiers

A class of students

A brood of chickens

A shoal of fish

A series of events

A slice of cake

iv. Abstract noun: the noun that doesn't have any physical existence or concrete forms is called abstract noun, e.g. happiness, sadness, sorrow, trouble, love, hatred etc,

Similarly, noun is divided into two types on the basis of counting.

a. Countable noun: The noun that can be counted is called countable noun, e.g. pen, table, man etc.

b. Uncountable noun: the noun that can't be counted is called uncountable or non-count noun. It is always treated as singular and doesn't take a/an e.g. Rice, water, ink etc.

These types are the basic types of noun though it can be classified into many other types which are of little use.

2.1.3 Formation of Noun:

A noun can be formed by different grammatical aspects i.e. parts of speech.

i. From verb: A verb can be changed into noun by adding following suffixes:

- **age:** carry – *carriage*
Stop - *stoppage*
Leak - *leakage*
Marry – *marriage*
- **al:** propose- *proposal*
Arrive – *arrival*
Approve- *approval*
Dismiss- *dismissal*
- **ance:** accept – *acceptance*
Allow – *allowance*
Assure – *assurance*
Appear – *appearance*
- **ion:** add – *addiction*

Elect- *election*

Operate- *operation*

Solve- *solution*

-er: dance- *dancer*

Work – *worker*

Laugh – *laughter*

Murder – *murderer*

ii. From Adjective:

A noun can be formed from adjective by adding the given suffixes into adjectives:

- acy: accurate – *accuracy*

Private- *privacy*

Urgent- *urgency*

Secret- *secrecy*

ity: able – *ability*

brief- *brevity*

Active- *activity*

National- *nationality*

- Ness: kind – *kindness*

Rich – *richness*

Careful- *carefulness*

Polite – *politeness*

- ery : brave – *bravery*

Green – *greenery*

- ship : hard – *hardship*

Friend- *friendship*

iii. From Noun

A noun can be changed into another noun by adding the below suffixes:

History – *historian*

Politics – *politician*

Electricity – *electrician*

India – *Indian*

-dom: martyr – *martyrdom*

bachelor – *bachelordom*

king – *kingdom*

-ery: fish – *fishery*

-hood: child – *childhood*

lively – *livelihood*

man – *manhood*

father – *fatherhood*

-ism: Hindu – *Hinduism*

capital – *capitalism*

human – *humanism*

social - *socialism*

2.1.4 Function of Noun

A noun can function as:

- a. the subject of a verb: Ram ate an apple
- b. the complement of the verb be, because, seem: I am a lecturer
- c. the object of a verb: Hari found a job.
- d. The object of a preposition: Priyanshu is fond of sports.
- e. The noun in the possessive case; my father, Rakesh's book.

English noun can be studied deeply in terms of:

1. Number
2. Case
3. Gender

2.1.4.1 Numbers

There are two numbers in English- singular and the plural.

A noun that denotes one person or thing is said to be in the singular number, as boy, girl, bird, and pen.

A noun that denotes more than one person or thing is said to be in the plural number; as,

Boys, girls, birds, pens

A few nouns form their plural by changing the inside vowel of the singular; as

Man, men

Women, women

Foot, feet

mouse, mice

There are a few nouns that form their plural by adding- en to the singular; as,

Ox – oxen

Child- children

Some nouns have the singular and the plural alike; as,

Pair, dozen, score, gross, hundred, thousand (When used after numerals)

Some nouns are used only in the plural

1. Names of instruments- Scissors, spectacles
2. Name of certain articles of dress; as
Trousers, drawers, breeches
3. Name of diseases; as, measles, mumps

Some nouns originally singular are now generally used in the plural; as, Alms, riches, eaves

The following plural forms are commonly used in singular:

Mathematics, physics, mechanics, politics, news

Certain collective nouns, though singular in form, are always used as plurals; as, poultry, cattle, vermin, and people.

Therefore, as a common noun 'people' means a 'nation' and is used in both singular and plural; as

- The Japanese are a hard-working and brave people.
- There are many different peoples in Nepal.

- A compound noun generally form its plural by adding-s to the principle world; as

Singular	Plural
Commander-in-chief	Commanders-in-chief
Daughter-in-law	Daughters-in-law
Passer-by	Passers-by

Many nouns taken from foreign languages keep their original plural form; as

From Latin-

Erratum, errata

Formula, formulae/formulas

From Greek-

Axis, axes

Hypothesis, hypotheses

Criterion, criteria

From Italian-

Bandit, Bandits

From French-

Madame, Madames

From Hebrew-

Cherub, Cherubim

Some nouns have two meaning in the singular but only one in the plural.

Singular	Plural
People- a) Nation	Peoples-nations
b) Men and women	

Some nouns have one meaning in the singular, two in the plural.

Singular	Plural
Physic- Medicine	Physics-natural science
Advice- counsel	Advices –information

Abstract nouns have no plural; hope, charity, love

When such words do appear in the plural they are used as common nouns; as, kindness-acts of kindness

Name of substances or materials, called material nouns, is also not used in the plural.

Copper, iron, tin, wood.

When such words are used in the plural, they become common nouns with changed meaning as,

Copper- copper coins

Woods-forests

2.1.4.2 Case

A case is a state of the noun in a sentence. In English Grammar, a case has 3 types:

- i) Nominative case:- subject
- ii) Accusative case: object: Direct object ,Indirect object
- iii) Possessive case: Possessor.

i. Nominative Case:-

When a noun or pronoun is used as the subject of verb, it is said to be in the nominative case e.g.

i) Ram threw a stone

Here, the noun Ram is the subject. It is the answer to the question, “who threw a stone?”

2) A noun which comes after a preposition is also said to be in the accusative case, as

i) The pen is on the table

The noun table is in the Accusative case, governed by the preposition on.

It will be seen that nouns in the English have the same form for the nominative and the accusative.

The nominative generally comes before the verb, and the accusative after the verb. Hence, they are distinguished by the order of words, or by the sense.

ii. Possessive Case

When the noun consist‘s’ it is possessive case. It shows ownership or possession.

2.2 The types of the head of noun phrase

In the structure of the noun phrase we can distinguish three functions; head, determiner and modifier.

2.2.1 Head

The head of a noun phrase is usually realized by a noun or pronoun, for example –

- clothes are getting more and more expensive
- they prefer mine to yours
- his parents are dead.

These examples show that, if the noun phrase consists of a head only, the head must be realized by a plural count noun, a mass noun, a proper noun or a pronoun.

The head of a noun phrase may also be realized by an adjective (in which case it is usually introduced by the definite articles and often has generic reference, by a participle or by a numeral:

-the poor	the impossible
the English	the supernatural
these two	all three

Similarly, we find noun phrases whose head is realized by a noun in the genitive or by a genitive-like noun in which the apostrophe is dropped. The traditional label for this type of genitive is 'local genitive', for example

- He is staying at his aunt's
- The bakery is at the corner of the street.

These examples should be distinguished from the genitives in the following noun phrases in which the head has been ellipted and is recoverable from the context.

- Their garden is larger than your neighbour's.
- That typewriter is o' Neil's.

2.2.2 Determiner

The functions of determiner can be realized by a wide range of stems, such as the definite article, the indefinite article, possessive pronouns, demonstrative pronouns, numerals, etc. these items occur in a fixed order with respect to each other. For example

All his friends.

His three friends.

Where all must precede his, which, in turn, must precede three. Consequently it is useful to distinguish three determiners sub-functions, pre-determiner, central determiner and post determiner. It is obvious, for example, that the choice of many as pre-determiner necessitates the choice of the indefinites article (which must be followed by a singular head). Similarly the word own as post determiner must be preceded by a genitive or a possessive pronoun. Some of the co-occurrence restrictions that obtain in noun phrases are dealt with below.

Table

Determiner			
Function	Pre-determiner	Central determiner	Post determiner
	All	Definite article	Cardinal number
	Both	Indefinite article	Ordinal number
	Double	Demonstrative pronouns	Next, last
Realization	Half	Possessive pronouns	Few, fewer, fewest
	Twice	Specifying genitives	Little, less, least
	Many (a)	Another	Many, more
	Such (a)	Any	Most
	What (a)	Each	Other
		Either	Own
		Enough	Same
		Every	Such

		Much	
		Neither	
		No	
		Some	
		What	
		Which	
		Whose	

2.2.2.1 Pre-determiner

The items, “all, double, half and twice” can combine with both singular and plural heads:

Double these high amounts

Half this cheese

Twice these sums

All those naughty boys

“Both” on the other hand, requires a plural head:

Both my brothers.

Both his last two newspaper articles

“Half” above can be followed by an indefinite article:

Half an hour.

“Many”, such and what, when realizing the pre-determiner function, are obligatorily followed by the indefinite articles:

Many years ago

Such a disgrace!

What a pity!

An exception is the combination of with a possessive, as in his (Ram's , whose) every wish.

2.2.2.3 Post Determiners

Post-determiner items exhibit such a wide range of collocation possibilities and restriction that it is very hard to formulate general rules governing their behavior. We therefore prefer to illustrate their use by means of some example:

Half his many books

Any other day

The first two pages

The same man

My own car

Some more sugar

Every other week

Not all post determiner items are mutually exclusive for example:

One more drink

Few other people

Last two weeks

Many more accidents

Little other information

The first ten arrivals

When post-determiner item co-occur, their order is usually fixed. However, there are exceptions, as appears from the following pair:

The other three men

The three other men.

The status of the item such is problematic. It may be looked upon as a pre-determiner item when followed by the indefinite article. However, it may also be classed as a post determiner item, since it may be preceded by some central determiner items and co- occurs with some post-determiner items. For example:

Any such questions

Some such concept

Two such blunders

Many such incidents.

2.2.3 Modifiers

Modifiers can occur both before and after the heads of noun phrases. If they preceded the head, they are called pre-modifiers; if they follow the head they are called post modifiers.

Premodifier.

In the structure of the noun phrase the function pre-modifiers may be realized by means of:

- i) an adjective phrase
- ii) a noun phrase
- iii) a classifying
- iv) an adverb phrase

2.2.3.i Adjective phrase

The choice of an adjective phrase in the structure of noun phrase is independent of previous choices from the pre-determiner, central determiner or post-determiner items. In other words, all the examples given to far could be expanded by adding one or more adjective phrases:

Both my brother → both my elder brother

Our next attempt → our next abortive attempt

All essays → all English essays

In the above examples the pre-modifier is realized by one-word adjective phrases the following examples show that the adjective phrase may, also contain an intensifier:

A very old lady

An extremely difficult problem

This rather expensive watch.

Apart from 'pure' adjectives we also find *-ing* participles and *-ed* participles as pre-modifiers in the noun phrase. Not all of these participles are fully adjectival in character, as appears

from the fact that some, like may ‘pure’ adjectives, can be modified by vary, where as others cannot. Some examples are given below in the table

Table

	Very	Very
<i>-Ing</i> participle	A sweeping statement an interesting proposition	Barking dogs
	A fascinating novel	Playing children
	A trying experience	A passing car the rising sun.
	A revolting man	An escaped prisoner the vanished jewels
<i>-ed</i> participle	A mined company	A fallen angle
	A respected business	A divorced couple
	A respected business man	
	An involved style isolated village	
	Irritated remarks	

Adjective phrase do not always follow items realizing the determiner functions. This deviation from normal word order, which may be called ‘shifted pre-modification’, occurs in nouns phrases containing the indefinite article as central determiner under either of the following conditions.

- a) The adjective phrase contains one of the following intensifying adverbs: as, so, how, however, every so, that, this too, enough, more, and less.
- b) The head of the adjective phrase is in the comparative degree and preceded by no, much and far, for example,

How strange a story!

Too hot a day

No worse a plan

Far cheaper a method

In the some cases there are alternative constructions, in others there are not compare:

For cheaper a method – a for cheaper method

How strange a story- a how strange story

2.2.3.ii Noun phrase

The head of the noun phrase can be pre-modified by another noun phrase, which often consists of a head only. Many of such combination are fixed and it is often hard if not impossible, to distinguish them from compound nouns. For example,

Transistor radio

Government decision

Traffic jam

Film critic

London policemen

Sports review

Laboratory test

It is not uncommon for the noun phrase head to be pre-modified by a noun phrase which in turn, is pre-modified by another noun phrase. For example

Transistor radio batteries

Stock market report

Cambridge University Press

Police patrol car

BBC world service listeners.

It is also possible for the noun phrase head to be pre-modified by coordinated nouns:

World and U.K. reports

A bread and butter letter

A blood and thunder story

A milk and fruit diet.

2.2.3.iii Classifying Genitive

The noun phrase head may be pre- modified by a noun in the genitive; for example;

A cow's life

A women's shop

A doctor's degree

Child's play

This classifying genitive is different from the specifying genitive that functions as central determiner. The later type may be separated from the head noun by an objective compare.

Ramesh's expensive shirt- a men's expensive shop.

The word preceding a specifying genitive qualifies the genitive, not the head noun; on the other hand, it is the head noun which is qualified when the genitive is classifying examples by comparing;

Those men's wives

-those wives

that men's shop

that shop

That genitives can have different functions in the structure of the noun phrase appears from the example like the following, where the first genitive is specifying, the second classifying.

John's doctor's degree

John's degree

2.2.3. iv Adverb phrase

Lastly, the noun phrase head can be pre -modified by an adverb phrase which consists of a head only. For example

An away game

An up train

The then chairman

2.2.3.1 Post modifier

In the structure of the noun phrase the function post modifier may be realized by means of

- a) an adjective phrase
- b) an adverb phrase
- c) a prepositional phrase
- d) a noun phrase
- e) a finite clause
- f) a non-finite clause

2.2.3.1. Adjective phrase

Adjective phrases may follow the noun head in the following cases;

- a) When noun head and adjective form an idiomatic expression:

Court martial

The sum total

The amount due

Solicitor general

- c) when the post modifying adjective is one of a limited number of items, including present, alive, involved, concerned, and a few adjectives in –able\ -ible:

The happiest man alive

The information available

All people concerned

The only persons responsible

The poorest miserable

- d) when the noun phrase head is pronoun:

Something interesting

Nothing useful

Somebody important

Anything original

- d) When the adjective is followed by a prepositional phrase;

Boys interested in bird-watching

Wallpaper similar to yours

A house different from Ram's

e) When the adjective is followed by an infinitive clause. The adjective may be preceded by too or followed by enough. For example;

- problem (too) difficult to solve
- Soldiers' eager (enough) to go on leave.
- A project too expensive to finance
- A man wealthy enough to foot the bill

f) When the adjective is in the comparative degree or preceded by as, more, or less, and followed by a clause of comparison example:

- a room bigger than she had imagined.
- A plan less ambitious than we expected
- A man as rich as my father
- A performance as good as I have ever seen.

g) When the adjective is preceded by so, and followed by a finite or non-finite clause:

- a cave so dark that we could not see a thing
- a light so intense as the blind the eyes.

2.2.3.1. ii Adverb phrase

The following are examples of noun phrases with heads post modified by an adverb phrase

The man outside

The people out there

The day before

The way in

The road ahead

The journey up

2.2.3.1. iii Prepositional phrase

Noun phrase heads may be post modified by a prepositional phrase, as in:

The idea of it

Friends of mine

The day before yesterday

The trees in the park

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Noun phrase may contain two or more prepositional phrases;

-the house of the corner of the street.

- the flowers in the vase on the on the table

- the book on archeology by professor Smith

in the above examples the syntactic structure is not always the same. Thus in the first example the second prepositional phrase modified all that precedes;

Whereas, in the second example the second prepositional phrase modifies only the NP of the first.

2.2.3.1. iv Noun Phrase

Post modification by means of noun phrase is rare. For example

A rock that shape

A hat this size.

2.2.3.1. v Finite clauses

Three types of finite clause can be used as post modifier: relative clauses, appositive clause and clauses introduced by temporal conjunctions. Relative clauses are introduced by relative pronouns, appositive clause by the conjunction that or by WH-words.

2.2.3.1. vi Relative Clause

It is necessary to distinguish two types of relative clauses: restrictive and non restrictive. The former supply information that is essential for the identification of the antecedent; the latter contain information that is not strictly required to identify the antecedent. Non- restrictive clauses are therefore usually omissible. Another difference is that restrictive clause follows the antecedent without a break in the intonation pattern, whereas

non- restrictive ones are clearly separated from the antecedent intonation ally and are enclosed within commas in writing.

The pronoun that can only be used in restrictive clause, which are also characterized by the fact that they may be non- introduced when the relative pronoun does not function as the subject of the relative clause. Clauses with unstressed there are non- introduced as well.

a. Restrictive

- This is the best book there is on the subject.
- Is he the man you were followed by?
- Is she the women whose house was burnt down?

b. Non- restrictive

- There were two passengers in the taxi, who were killed.
- William, whose wife left him last week, feels quite relieved.
- They moved to Paris, which had always fascinated them.

c. Appositive Clauses

We can distinguish two types of appositive clause: those introduced by *wh*- words and those introduced by that:

- The issue who should be the leader
- The news that he had been fired.

The difference between appositive clause and relative clause appears from the fact that noun phrases containing the former allow paraphrases containing the copula be, where as noun phrases containing the latter do not:

d. Appositive

- The news that he is ill
- The news is that he is ill

e. Relative

- The news that we heard on radio.
- The news is that we heard on the radio.

It is not always easy to distinguish between appositive that- clauses and relative that –clauses. They differ in the following respects.

- a) that in appositive clause is a conjunction which cannot be omitted;
- b) that in relative clauses is a pronoun which, under certain conditions, can be omitted and which, depending on the antecedent noun, can usually be replaced by either who or which;
- c) unlike relative that, which functions as subject, object, etc, appositive that has no such function in the structure of the clauses, it introduces;
- d) Whereas there are no restrictions on the antecedent nouns of relative clauses, the noun preceding an appositive clause can only be an abstract noun like fact, news, claim, rumor, suggestion. etc.

Clauses introduced by temporal conjunctions:

The third type of finite clause that can function as post modifier in the noun phrase is introduced by temporal conjunctions such as before, after, since etc.

- the days before he died
- the time since he has been director.
- The years after she was born.

2.2.3.1. vii Non- Finite Clause

Three types of non- finite clause can occur in post modification: infinitive clauses, -*ing* participle clauses and -*ed* participle clauses. As the examples show, some infinitive clauses are deduced relative or appositive clauses- *Ing* participle and -*ed* participle clauses are reduced relative clauses.

a. Infinitive Clauses

The infinitive in these clauses is always preceded by *to*:

- He is the man to talk to
- The question whether to join now or later is irrelevant.
- We have no indication where to look.
- They were the first men to land on the moon.

If the clauses have an overt subject, it is introduced by for:

- There is no cause for her to be so upset.
- That in the course for you to attend.

b. - ing Participle Clauses

- The gold was discovered by three men digging a shaft.
- The point being made here may seem to be trivial.

c. - ed participle clauses

- the evidence adduced for his hypothesis is inconclusive.
- All the candidates selected have a very high IQ.

2.2.3.3. Discontinuous modifier

We shall here exemplify structures in which part of the modifier precedes the noun head, the rest following it in post-modification. We distinguish the following cases, which, as the examples show, also allow alternative constructions with post-modification only:

1. adjective + noun + prepositional phrase:

- a different building from that
- a building different from that

2. adjective + noun + infinitive clause:

- a difficult theory to explain
- a theory difficult to explain

3. Comparative adjective + noun + than + (reduced) comparative clause or noun phrase:

- a longer distance than 5 miles
- a distance longer than 5 miles.

4. as + adjective + noun + as + (reduced) comparative clause:

- as intelligent a man as I would like to be
- a man as intelligent as I would like to be.

5. so + adjective + noun + that -clause or as to- clauses:

- So intense a light as to blind the eyes.
- A light so intense as to blind the eyes.

6. too + adjective + noun + infinitive clause:

too expensive a project to finance

a project too expensive to finance.

In summary, we can say that in the internal structure of the English noun phrase three functions can be distinguished: determiner, modifier and head. The function of modifier is an optional one which may be realized more than once, may occur both in front of the head and after, it, and may even be 'interrupted' by the head. The function of determiner is, in the majority of cases, an obligatory one which can be realized only once, is positionally restricted to the initial slot in the noun phrase and is usually realized by items from a number of closed classes. The item realizing the function of head determiners the category of the phrase and is therefore realized by a noun or pronoun; the head is, without exception, an obligatory function.

Chapter 3

The Noun phrase structure in Maithili.

3.1 Noun

A word which is used as the name of a person, place or thing: e.g. Ram, Kathmandu, table, etc.

3.1.1 Derivation of Noun

From Noun:-

pan = baca: *bacpan*

garib: *garibipa*

i=

Nepal= Nepali

Madhesh= Madheshi

iya = bharat: *bharatiya*

bad = samaj: *samajbad*

yathartha: *yatharthbad*

From verb:-

kha = *khenai* padh = *padhnai*

Sut = *sutnai* likh = *likhnai*

From Adjective

kari = *kariya* namhar = *namharka*

hariyar = *hariyarka* kitabi = *kitab*

Mot = *motai*

Gender, number and case are the morpho-syntactic categories by which Maithili nouns may be classified. The gender of a noun is simply inherent, receiving no overt expression on the noun itself, being instead expressed in the agreement of verbs. Number is marked only periphrastically, while case is marked inflectionally on the noun.

3.2 Gender

Most traditional grammars of Maithili state that the Maithili nouns have two genders masculine and feminine. A great majority of them list as many as four genders, e.g.

- i) Masculin
- ii) Feminine
- iii) Neuter, and
- iv) Both masculine and feminine, called ubhayalingi.

A few grammars even assign a Sanskrit gender system to Maithili nouns. A case in point in this regard is the following statement from Grierson (1990:43):

The noun has two genders; Masculine and Feminine. These words derived direct from the Sanskrit, which were originally neuter, generally become masculine in Maithili.

The most important exceptions to this rule are *kh*, an eye; *dah* or *dahi* curdled milk; and *pustak*, a book; which are feminine. *g*, fire; though derived from a masculine Sanskrit word is feminine in Maithili. (Examples in devnagari omitted)

In modern maithili distinctions of gender (masculine or feminine) are determined solely by the sex of the animate noun. Thus, for example, *ghora* 'horse' is masculine, while *ghori* 'mare' is feminine. Similarly *bap* 'father' is masculine, where as; *Mae* 'mother' is feminine.

Agreement between the gender of an animate subject and the verb in a Maithili sentence is of a restricted nature. For instance, in the present tense, verbs show no agreement with the gender of their subject; e.g.

- i. Badka bhaiya jait ch-aith
big brother go-IMPERF AUX-PRES-(3H)
'The elder brother is going.'
- ii. Badki bahin jait ch- aith
big sister go- IMPERF AUX-PRES-(3H)
'The elder sister is going.'

In past tense sentences, however, gender agreement between an intransitive verb and its subject does occur but mostly in formal and literary styles using honorific forms, e.g.

iii. Pundit ae-l-ah
 Pundit (m) come-PST-(3H)
 ‘The (male) Pundit came’

iv. Punditain ae-l-ih
 Pundit’s wife come-PST – (3H)
 ‘The pundit’s Wife came.’

In future tense sentences, both transitive and intransitive verbs may agree in gender with an animate subject-but again mostly in formal and literary styles using honorific forms.

The following examples are given blow

v. master parhb -a je-t-ah
 Teacher (M) teach go- FUT – (3H)
 ‘The (male) teacher will go to teach.’

vi. Masterni parhb –a je-t-ih.
 Teacher (f) teach go FUT – (3H)
 ‘The (female) teacher will go to teach.’

Some broad generalizations are possible concerning the formal similarities between feminine and the corresponding masculine.

A. Tatsama (i.e., Words borrowed from Sanskrit) masculine have the original Sanskrit feminine as their counterparts:

Masculine		Feminine
Chatr	‘student’	Chatra
Putr	‘son’	Putri
Dev	‘god’	Devi
Bramhan	‘Brahmin’	Bramhani
Putraban	‘one blessed with a son’	Putrabati
Buddhiman	‘wise’	Buddhimati

B. In the native vocabulary, a number of distinct formal correspondences exist between masculine and feminine nouns:

i) Some feminine derive from masculine nouns, either through a) suffixation or b) vowel modification.

ii) In some cases, however, the relation between a feminine noun and the corresponding masculine is purely suppletive

(ia) suffixation: the suffixes which are added to masculine noun forms in order to form feminine are *-in*, *-ain*, *-ni*, and *-ain*,
-in (ini)

The noun forms to which *-in* is added may be divided into two classes. Class 1 consists of these masculine nouns which end in a consonant and which undergo no change other than the suffixation of *-in*, e.g.

Masculine		Feminine
Bagh	‘tiger’	Baghin
Jat	‘a caste name’	Jatin
Das	‘slaves’	Dasin
Dusadh	‘a caste name’	Dusadhin
Sonar	‘goldsmith’	Sonarin
Dhobi	‘washerman’	Dhobin
Teli	‘oilman’	Telin

In the above examples, *dhobi* and *teli* can be grouped into class 2 which consist of masculine noun forms which end in a high front vowel *i* and which drop their final vowel *i* upon the suffixation of *-in*.

-ain (aini)

The suffix *-ain* is added to a few masculine nouns (dealing mostly with caste, and family names) to form feminine. Such masculine nouns may end in a vowel or in a consonant.

If the masculine noun ends in a low central vowel *a*, this vowel is dropped when *-ain* is suffixed, e.g.

Masculine		Feminine
Ojha	‘a family name’	Ojhain
Modi	‘confectioner’	Modiain
Pundit	‘pundit’	Punditain
Thakur	‘a family name’	Thakurain
Misar	‘a family name’	Mis(a)rain

A few masculine nouns are changed into feminine through using the suffixation of – *ni*. For example:

Masculine		Feminine
ut	‘camel’	utni
rajput	‘a caste’	rajputni
banar	‘ monkey’	banarni
mehtar	‘ a sweeper caste’	mehtarni
daktar	‘doctor’	daktarni

- *din (aini)*

a few masculine nouns ending in – *ar* lose this ending when the feminine marker *in-* is suffixed, eg.

Masculine		Feminine
Camaar	‘a caste’	camain
kumhaar	‘pot maker’	kumhain
lohaar	‘blacksmith’	loharin

(ib) vowel modification : a small set of masculine nouns become feminine through the replacement of a final *a* with *i*:

Masculine		Feminine
kaaka	‘ uncle’	kaaki
aunt’		
beta	‘ son’	beti
daughter’		

para ' young buffalo' pari ' young cow buffalo'

- i) suppletion: a few conceptually related masculine and feminine stand in a suppletive relationship, e.g.

Human masculine

bap ' father'
bar ' bridegroom'

Human feminine

mae ' mother'
kaniya ' bride'

Non human masculine

Barad 'ox'

Nonhuman Feminine

gai 'cow'

3.3 Number

Modern maithili has no grammatical number. Distinction of number into singular and plural therefore means little in the maithili nominal system. Nevertheless, periphrastic plurality is indicated by the addition of a separate word, i.e *sab* 'all' (which also occurs in written styles as *sabh*) rather than by morphological means:

i) jan ae-l
Laborer come – PST (3NH)
'The laborer came'

ii) gae sab cair rahal aich
Cow all grazes PROG AUX-
PRES- (3NH)
'Cows are grazing'

The plural morpheme *sab* may also place before nouns. In such instances, *sab* function as an adjective, and translated into English as 'all the' e.g.

iii. sab g ae cair rahal aich
All cows graze PROG AUX- PRES-
(3NH)

‘All the cows are grazing’

Optionally, a plural morpheme *lokain* ‘people’ may be used with human nouns- in order to indicate plurality as well as honorific and politeness. Unlike *sab* ‘all’ *lokain*’ people can be used only after the human nouns, e.g.

iv) Pundit	lokain	aib	ge- l- ah
Pundit	people	come	go- PST- (3H)

‘The pundits have (already) arrived.’

As is apparent from the above examples Maithili verbs do not show number agreement.

3.4 Case

Case is defined as “the functional role of a noun or phrase in relation to other words in the clause or sentence.” (Chalkar Sylvia and Edmund Weiner, 1994: 56)

Maithili recognizes eight kinds of case: nominative, accusative, instrumental, dative, ablative, genitive, locative and vocative. There are case markers, which help to identify the case of a noun or a noun substitute. But sometimes the same case endings like - sa/ ke may go with different cases; vocative and instrumental, and accusative and dative respectively.

3.4.1 Nominative Case

The nominative case in maithili is indicated by the absence of any case markers. The noun in the nominative case performs the grammatical function of a subject:

- | | | | | |
|------|---------------------|-----------------|-----------------|-------------------|
| i. | Ram | lamba | ai- ch | |
| | Ram | tall | be- PRES- (3NH) | |
| | ‘Ram is tall’ | | | |
| ii. | nokar | bhanas | ka-r-ait | ai- ch (|
| | Servant | cooks | do- IMPERF | AUX- PRES – (3NH) |
| | ‘The servant cooks’ | | | |
| iii. | Raja | daur –l- ah | | |
| | King | run – PST- (3H) | | |

‘The King ran’

3.4.2 Accusative – dative case;

The accusative – dative case in Maithili is marked by the postposition *ke*. The noun phrase in the accusative dative case generally performs the grammatical function of an object-direct or indirect. The object marking strategy of modern Maithili is to encode both the direct and the indirect object with the same postposition *ke/kě*.

Direct object

The object marking strategy in maithili is determined by a set of two extra syntactic criteria, namely animacy and definiteness. As a matter of fact, in Maithili a more relevant characteristic is not so much definiteness as specificity/ individuation. We will take up the issues below one at a time.

Animacy

Under animacy, Maithili makes finer distinctions between human versus nonhuman, and animate versus inanimate. Thus;

i. ham	nitu	ke	dekh-a l - iainh
I	Nitu	ACC/DAT	see- PST- (1+ 3H)

‘I saw Nitu’

Inanimate object nouns are not marked for the accusative – dative case:

ii. ah	nac	dekh – ait	ch-i
You (H)	dance	see – IMPERF	AUX- PRES – (2H)

‘You watch the dance’

Definiteness

Maithili has no article comparable to English ‘*a/an/ the*’. The cardinal numeral *ek* ‘one’ followed by the classifier – *ta* is used to denoted indefinite (but specific) objects. Such indefinites object nouns are not marked for the accusative – dative cases:

i. ham	ek- ta	kapda	kin- ab
I	one –CLAS	cloth	buy- FUT- (1)

‘I will buy a clothe’

ii. Babuji	puja	kě	sor	par -al- khinh
Father	puja	ACC/ DAT	noise	do- PST - (3 H+ 3

NH)

‘The father called puja’.

Indirect object

Indirect objects are more likely to be personal pronouns. Proper names and animate common noun phrases these will be obligatorily marked with the accusative – dative postposition. Needless to say, once the indirect object is case- marked, the direct, object remains unmarked:

i. aha	chandrika	ke	kitab	de-l-iaik
You (H)	chandrika	ACC/DAT	book	give- PST-

(2H+3NH)

‘You gave the book to Chandrika’

‘You gave the book to chandrika’

Animate indefinite indirect object noun phrases are also marked with the accusative – dative postposition:

ii. O	ek-ta	chōra	k	p c	rupaiya	de-
						l-khinh
He (H)	one- CLAS	boy	ACC/DAT	five	rupees	

give- PST- (3H+3NH)

‘He gave a boy five rupees’

In animate indirect objects are unusual but when they do occur, they tend to be marked with the accusative – dative postposition, as in the following example:

iii. jan	sab	khet	k	khuin	rahal
aich					
Laborer	PL	field	ACC/DAT	dig	PROG

AUX-PRES-(3NH+3NH)

‘The laborers are digging the field’.

3.4.3 Instrumental Case:

The instrumental case in Maithili is marked by the use of the postposition *sa/s* , and optionally by the suffixation of the case marker – e/ -

i. am	k	cakku s	soh-u
Mango	ACC/DAT	knife-INSTR	peel-IMP-(2H)

‘Peel a mango with a knife’

ii. Pahun	s	khae- l	nai	ge-l-ainh
Guest	-INSTR	eat-PSTPCPL	not	go-PST-(3H)

‘It could not be eaten by the guest’

3.4.4 Ablative

The instrumental postposition *sa/s* is also used to express a last of ‘ablative’ relationship between nouns, e.g.,

i. ful	gach	s	khas-al
Flower	tree	INSTR	fall-PST-(3NH)

‘The flower fell from the tree’

ii. Man	s	parh-u
Mind	INSTR	read-IMP-(2H)

‘Read with attention’

3.4.5 Genitive

The genitive case in Maithili is marked by the case marker - *ak* when the noun phrase ends in a consonant, and by- *k* when it ends in a vowel. The noun phrase in the

genitive case basically performs an adjectival function and qualifies the noun (or the noun – like adjective, or the verbal noun) to which it bears the case relationship. A few examples are given below:

- | | |
|-------------------------------|----------|
| i. ram-ak | beta |
| Ram-GENIT | son |
| ‘Ram’s son’ | |
| ii. Sona-k | har |
| Gold- GENIT | necklace |
| ‘The necklace (made) of gold’ | |
| iii. mach-ak | jhor |
| Fish- GENIT | soup |
| ‘The soup of the fish.’ | |

3.4.6 Locative

The locative case in Maithili is marked by the use of the postposition *me* and *par*. The locative case is basically the *in or at* case and expresses location. The following discussion illustrates some of the main semantic notions expressed by locative postpositions.

me ‘in’

- | | | | |
|-------------------------------|-------|-----|---------------|
| i. babuji | ghar | me | ch-aith |
| Father | house | LOC | be-PRES-(3NH) |
| ‘Father is inside the house.’ | | | |

par ‘at’, ‘on’

- | | | | |
|----------------------|-----|--------|-------------|
| ii. bhagban | par | biswas | kar-u. |
| God | LOC | faiths | do-IMP-(2H) |
| ‘Have faith on God.’ | | | |

3.5 Honorificity

To give respect somebody, we often use honorable language as well as words for them. In Maithili language, honorific falls under the grammatical categories with regard to most categories, pronoun are equally or less differentiated than verbal inflections. They are less specific with regard to the “ honorific” vs. “ high- honorific” distinction among third persons, which are registered as- *aith* and *ath- inh*, respectively, on the verb. Moreover, if third person reference is proximate, all honorific (H) distinctions are neutralized to *i*. among second persons; pronouns are equally discriminatory as verb forms. However, the distinction between honorific *aha* and high- honorific *apne* is not encoded synthetically. Rather, *apne* combines with a periphrastic passive- like construction that contrasts with the active form agreeing with *aha*;

i. *Apne padh-al ge-l-aik*
 (2HHN read P PASS. AUX- PST-3)

‘You (2H) were reading.’

VS

ii. *ah padh-ait cha-l- uh*
 (2HN read IP- AUX-PAST- 2HN)

‘You (H) were reading’.

Mid and non- honorific second persons are differentiated by *t* vs. *t̃* respectively, but this contrast is not always maintained. It is neutralized especially among lower- caste speaker (Bickel, et al. 1999).

The distinction between honorific degrees is not limited to pronouns. Proper nouns can be marked by an honorific (H) suffix (*-ji*) or by an honorific (NH) suffix (*-y , -b , -m*), triggering corresponding verb inflection; e.g.

iii. hari-ji	bhajan	gab-ait	ch-aith
[H-H	religious song	sing-IMPERF	AUX- (3NH)]

‘Hari (H) is singing a bhajan, honorific form.’

iv. Hari-y	bhajan	gab-ait	ai-ch
[H-NH	religious song	sing-IMPERF	3-AUX]

‘Hari (NH) is singing a bhajan, non- honorific form’.

Without such marking, a name has a neutral to mid- honorific value. Common nouns sometimes honorific lexical form, such as *bau* ‘boy(H)’ vs. *chaur* ‘boy(NH), or *daiy* ‘girl(H)’ vs. *chauri* ‘girl (NH)’. [Yadava: Facts about the world’s Language:2001]

3.6 The noun phrase

A noun phrase in Maithili may consist of a head which is either a noun or a pronoun or a gerundial infinitive expression:

i. Shyam	ge-l	proper noun.
Shyam	go-l PST (3NH)	

‘Shyam went’

ii. Lok	sab	ae- l	common noun
People	PL	come- PST- (3NH)	

‘The boys came’

iii. to	kah -l-e	personal pronoun.
You (NH)	say – PST – (2NH)	

‘You said’

iv. ke	ge-l	interrogative pronoun
Who	go-PST-(3NH?)	

‘Who went?’

v. tahl-ab	nik	hae-t	gerundial infinitive
Walk - INF	good	become- FUT (3NH)	

‘Walking will be good’

In above examples Shyam, *lok*, *to*, *ke*, and *tahlab* are example of noun phrases. A noun phrase may also consist of a head preceded by a modifier by a modifier:

vi. ek-ta gae

One- CLAS cow

‘A cow’

vii. i kalam

This pen

‘The pen’

viii. ok-ar kaj

He (NH) - GENIT work

‘His job’

ix. tut-al lathi

Break-PSTPTCPL stick

‘The broken stick’

Modifiers in Maithili are mostly determiners. Determiners may be definite or indefinite. The demonstrative pronouns, the relatives and correlative pronouns *je* and *se*, and the genitive inflections of the personal, pronouns function as definite determiners, whereas the indefinite pronouns *kono* ‘any’ and ‘*kich*’ ‘some, and the cardinal numeral *ek* ‘one’ followed by the classifier- *ta*, function as indefinite determiners:

Demonstrative Pronoun, deictic;

x. i kagaj (k) faru

This paper (this paper ACC (DAT) tear- IMP- (2H)

‘Tear the paper’

Demonstrative pronoun, anaphoric:

xi. Kailh	ek- ta	latam	khæe-ne
Yesterday	one-CLAS	guava	eat- PERF
rah-i	o latam	bad	mith cha-l
AUX- PST- (1)	that guava	very	Sweet be-PST -

(3NH)

‘Yesterday I ate a guava; the guava was very sweet’

Demonstrative pronoun, cataphoric:

xii. ah k	kaka	o	pahalman	ch-al-
khinh				
You (NH)-GENIT	uncle-EMPH	that	wrestler	be-PST-

(3H+2NH)

je	ok-ra	haro-l- khinh
who	he(NH)-ACC/DAT	defeat

‘Your uncle was the wrestler who defeated him’.

Genitive Pronoun:

xiii.Hun-k-ar	væe	æe-l-ainh
He (H) -GENIT	brother	come-PST-(3H+3H)

‘His brother came’

Relative and Correlative Pronouns:

xiv. je	kitab	ah	de-l-ah	se	kitab	thik
naI	ch-al					
REL	Book	you(H)	give-PST-(2H)	COREL	book	
good	not	be-PST-	(3NH)			

‘The book you gave was not good.’

Indefinite Pronoun:

xv. kich	caur	di-a	
Some	rice	give-IMP-(2H)	

‘Please (you) give (me) some rice.’

Cardinal numeral one:

xvi. ek-ta	rani	rah-athinh	
One-CLAS	queen	be-PST-(3H)	

‘(Once) there was queen.’

Other types of modifier also appear in the noun phrase; adjectives, quantifiers, limiters, numerals (from two upwards), and present and past participial expressions.

xvii. kari	kapda	naI	kin-ab	Adj.
Black	cloth	not	buys-FUT-(1)	

‘I will not buy a/the black cloth.’

xviii. Bad	admi	ae-l		Quantifier
Many	people	come-PST-(3NH)		

‘Many people came.’

xix. khali	ram	ge-l		Limiters
Only	Ram	go-PST-(3NH)		

‘Only Ram went.’

xx. ek-ta	pahun	ge-l-ah		Cardinal numeral
One-CLAS	guest	come-PST-3(H)		

‘A guest came.’

xxi. pahil	nok-ar	k	patha-u	Ordinal numeral
First	servant	ACC/DAT	send-FUT-(2H)	

‘Send the first servant.’

xxii. kha-it	gae	ke	ke	dekh-at?	Present participial
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eat-PRESPTCPL cow ACC/DAT who see-FUT-(3NH)

‘Who will see the eating cow?’

xxiii. ah buddhiman lok ch-I Past participial

You (H) wise-PSTPTCPL person be-PRES-(2H)

‘You are a wise person.’

Determiners and other types of modifiers combine in Maithili to form complex noun phrases: Examples;

xxiv. ek-ta ujjar ful

Numeral one-CLS+ ADJ+ Head N

‘A white flower’.

xxv. kono tin-ta piyar kapadia

INDEFPR+Numeral- CLAS+ ADJ+ Head N

‘Any three yellow clothes’.

xxvi. i sat darjan ka-l-am

DEMONS PR+Numeral+ collective + Head N

‘These seven dozen pens’.

xxvii. kono daur-ait ghora

INDEF PR+ PRESPCPL+ Head N

‘A running horse’.

xxviii. ham-ar i du-nu sukha-it lal sari

GENIT PR+DEMONS PR+AGGRE Numeral+PRESPCPL+

ADJ+ Head N

‘Both of the drying red saris of mine.’

Other modifiers precede adjectives in Maithili noun phrases.

Three further observations should be made about noun phrases in Maithili:

- i) In a noun phrase construction, the head noun shows no agreement with the number of the modifying element, e.g.,

xxix. i admi

'This man'

xxx. i sab admi

'These men'

The entire noun phrase may be case-marked, e.g.,

xxx. ohi h s-ait admi s ke baj-at

'Who will speak to the smiling man?'

- iii) Noun phrases may also have modifying elements coming after the head noun.

These are called 'Postmodifiers' for example, a relative clause may function as a post-modifier noun phrase in Maithili.

xxxii. i chḍ- raje kailh ae-l ch-al

This boy who yesterday come-PREF AUX-PST-(3NH)

'The boy who came yesterday.'

Chapter-4

Similarities and dissimilarities between English and Maithili Noun Phrase structure

This chapter aims at exploring the similarities and dissimilarities between English and Maithili languages in terms of the noun phrase structure.

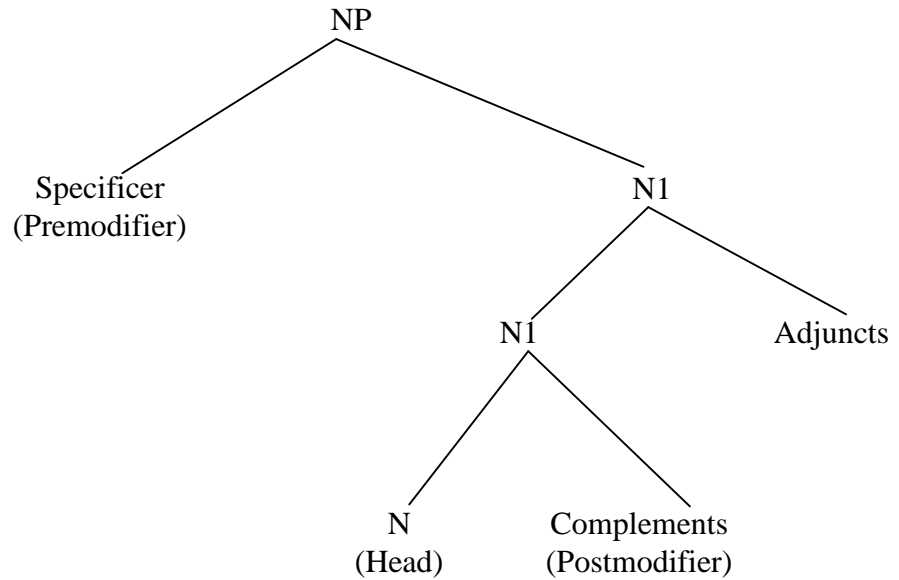
In English case system, possessive case indicates ownership which is also similar in Maithili too. In English, it is marked with apostrophe ('s); in Maithili, case marker –ak is used if NP ends in a consonant sound, and –k is used if NP ends in a vowel sound. Case marker comes as a post-modifier both in English and Maithili. Accusative case marker in Maithili is marked by –ke in Maithili if head is animate, but use no case marker if head is inanimate.

Possessive case in English denotes ownership which is also similar in Maithili too.

In modern Maithili, gender are solely determined by sex of the animate of the noun such as 'ghora' that is masculine, while 'ghori' that is female. There is no regular grammatical gender in English. But in highly formal speech, there makes some distinctions in gender like 'O gelah', 'O gelih' in Maithili. Subject and verb agree with one another especially in third person and in non-present area.

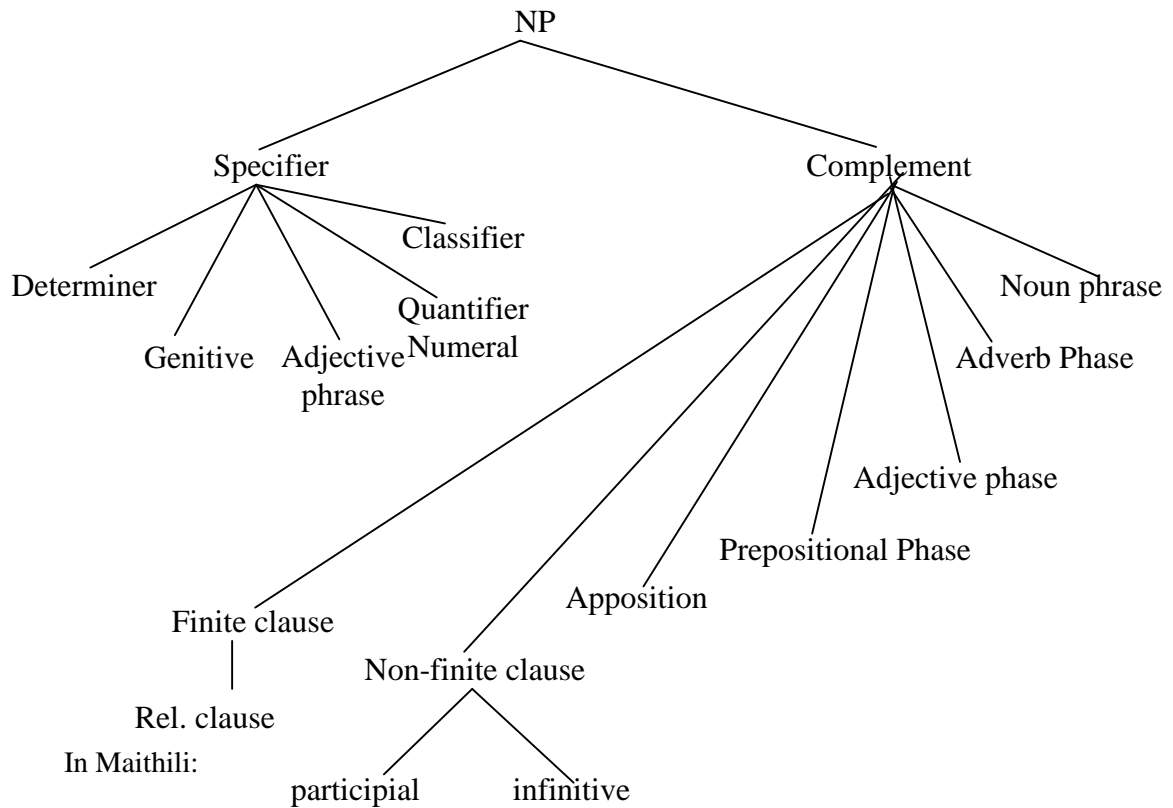
In English, Nouns have to carry inflection showing whether they are singular or plural. –s or –es are used to mark plural marker in English. Distinction of number into singular and plural means little in Maithili nominal system. Plural marker –lokain is used with human nouns to indicate plurality, honorific, and politeness in Maithili. Similarly, –sabh and –aur are used to signify the plural aspects. In Maithili, cardinal number emerges optionally. For example: 'dus kukur' and 'ten dogs'.

While making a comparative study of English and Maithili noun phrase, many similarities and differences exist between them, basically in their structure of formation. Both the languages have similar pattern of the Noun Phrase that is.

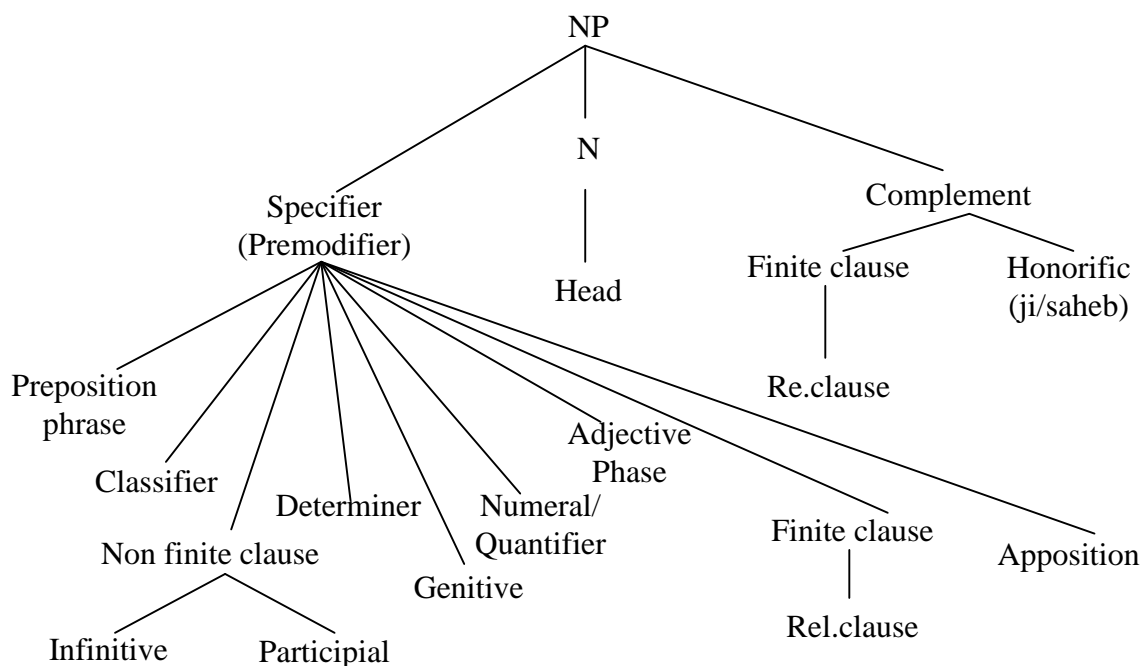


i.e. Specifier+N+Complement

In short, in both the languages, noun phrase consists of a head (N), a specifier (Pre-modifier), and a complement (Post-modifier). Let the tree diagram of the noun phrase be presented in detail separately. In English:



Along with differences, there also lie similarities between the Noun phrase structure of both Maithili and English languages. While comparing both English and Maithili Noun phrase, they both can have more than one specifier before noun. Classifier comes before head in Maithili, and so is the case in English noun phrase. For example:



- 1) Two boys are running in the street.
- 2) Du-ta kadima car par faral aich. (two pumpkin roof on grow be-AUX)

In first sentence, 'two' is numeral which comes before head word 'boy'; whereas in second Maithili sentence, 'du-ta' is determiner which comes before head word 'kadima'. The difference that lies in both of these sentences is that in English, there is plural marking i.e. 'boys', but in Maithili sentence, there is no plural marking in 'kadima'.

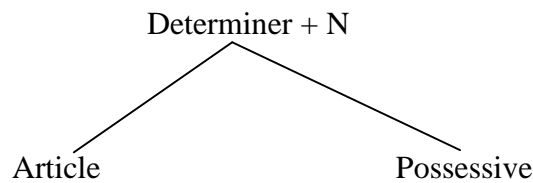
In Adjective phrase both in Maithili and English, Adjective comes before the head.

For example:

- 1) Tall man standing over there is superstar.
- 2) Lalka murai bad karu hoit aich. (Red radish very spicy be)

In first English sentence, ‘tall’ which is adjective and which qualifies the head word comes before the head. Similarly, in second Maithili sentence, ‘lalka’ is adjective word which too comes before the head word and qualifies the head word.

While analyzing the two tree diagrams, the similarities and differences while exists between them obviously. As the similarities, all the forms which play the role of specifier in English language are also identified as the specifier (pre-modifier) in Maithili language too. For example



Hamar babuji (DET + N)

My father (DET + N)

In both Maithili and in English, possessive marker comes before the head word. In Maithili sentence, ‘hamar’ is possessive marker which has come before the head word ‘babuji’. In second English sentence, *my* is possessive marker which has come before the head word ‘father’. But article does not exist in Maithili Language, whereas article like a, an, the, occur in English language.

In both Maithili and English language, Numerals come before the head word. For example:

1) Two cows (Numeral + N)

2) Ek-ta aadmi (Numeral +N)

One man

Both in Maithili and English language, genitive comes after the head word. For example:

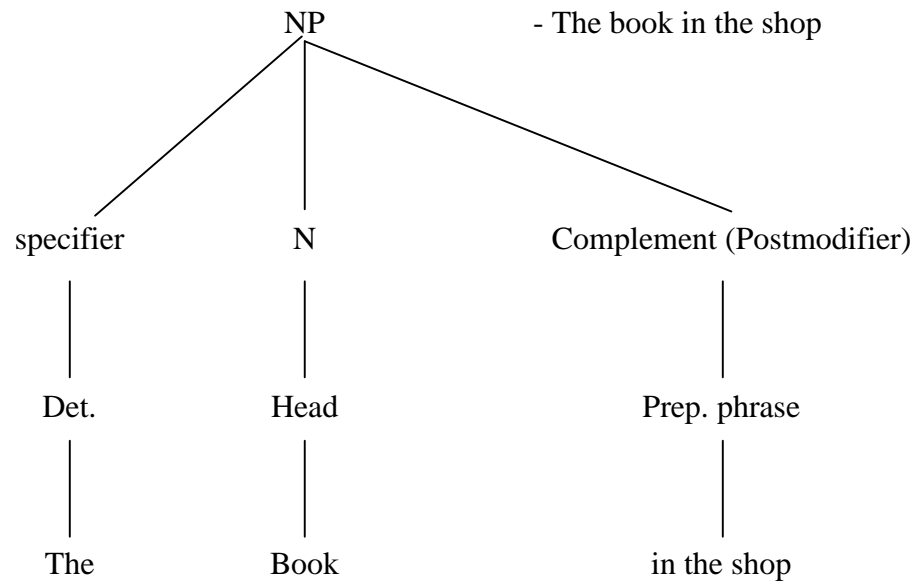
1) Neha’s dress

2) Neha ke kapada

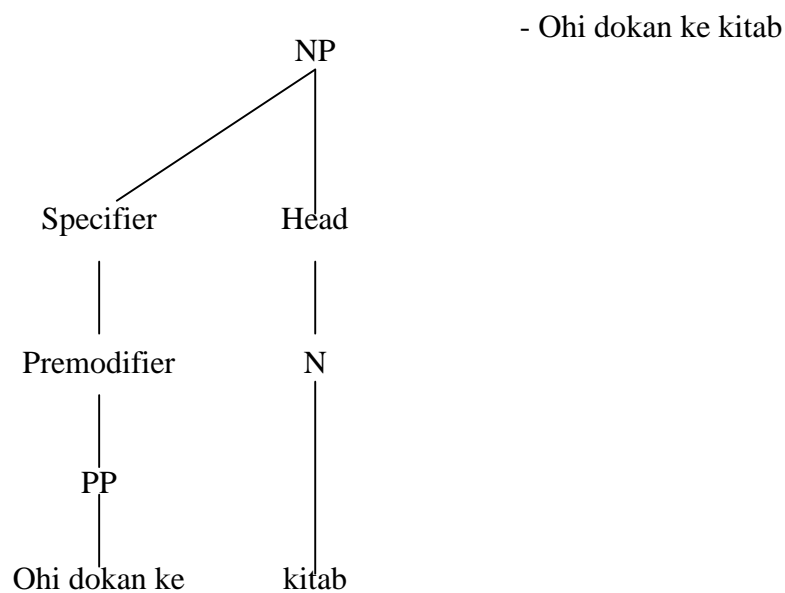
In English’s is indicating genitive which comes as post-modifier and in Maithili, ke indicates genitive which also comes as a post-modifier.

As the differences which can be lucidly observed while comparing the two tree diagrams, is that all the forms which function as the post-modifier (complement) in English Noun phrase are the other way round in Maithili Noun phrase. It means all of them act as the pre-modification in Maithili noun phrase. Like in English Noun phrase:

The book in the shop is very expensive.



Whereas in Maithili,



In the first tree diagram, the complement 'in the shop' comes after the head word that is 'The book'. But in second tree diagram, the complement 'Ohi dokan ke' comes before the head that is 'kitab'.

The prepositional phrase functions as the post-modifier in English language, whereas functions as pre-modifier in Maithili language. For example:

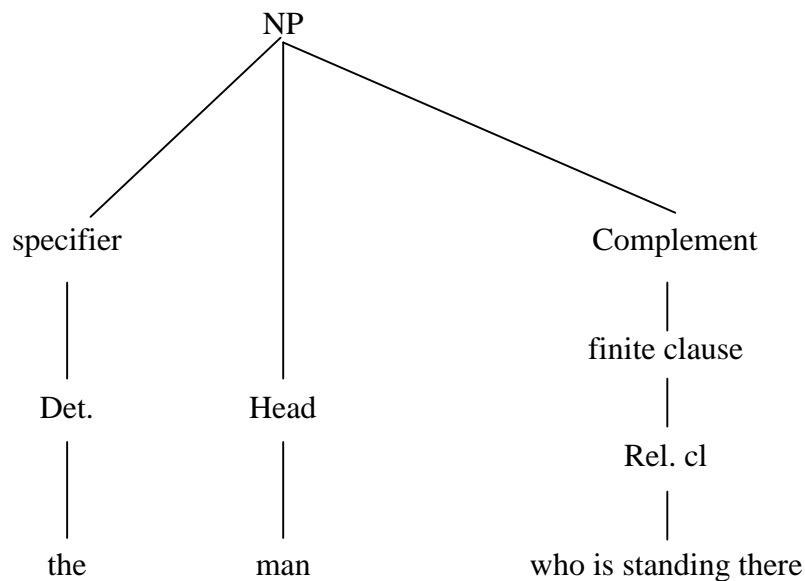
- 1) Books on the table -are attractive.
- 2) Upar matkuri me dahi raakhal aich. (Above pot in curd put be)

Preposition 'on' comes as post-modifier in the first sentence, whereas 'upar' comes as pre-modifier in the second sentence.

Similarly, other example related to relative clause can be illustrated too. Relative clause like prepositional phrase functions like the pre-modifier in Maithili but post-modifier in English language. Sometimes it can be the post-modifier in Maithili too. For example:

- 1) The man, who is standing over there is my uncle.

Diagram

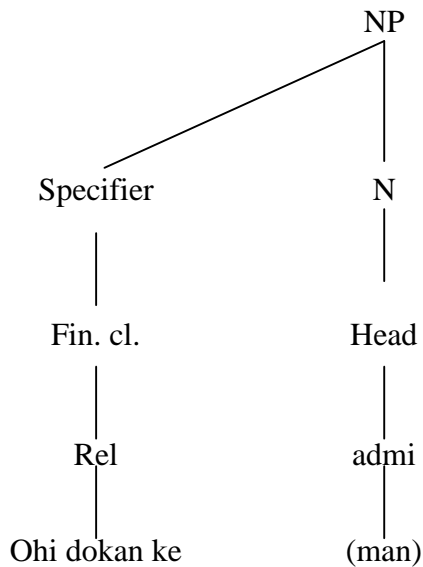


But in Maithili,

- 2) Ohi tham tharh bhel aadmi, hamar kaaka chaith.

OR

- 3) O hamar kaaka chaith je ohi tham tharh bhel chaith.



In first sentence, relative clause ‘who is standing’ comes as post-modifier; whereas in second sentence, relative clause ‘Ohi tham tharh bhel’ comes as pre-modifier. But in third sentence, relative clause ‘je ohi tham tharh bhel chaith’ comes as post-modifier. It depends on user whether he or she use relative clause before or after the head in Maithili language.

Besides, honorific is inflected as a post-modification in Maithili which does not exist in English. For example:

- 1) Bhai ji
- 2) Babu sahib
- 3) Father
- 4) Brother

‘Ji’ and ‘Sahab’ are the honorific terms in Maithili which come as the post-modifier. But such terminologies do not exist in English language which can be viewed from the examples number three and four above.

Chapter 5

Conclusion

The present research has incorporated the major findings regarding similarities and differences between English and Maithili noun phrases. All the forms including participial, numerals, and other determiners which function as the post-modifier in English noun phrase are either post-modifier or pre-modifier in Maithili.

In both the languages, a noun phrase consists of a head (N), a specifier (Pre-modifier), and a complement (Post-modifier). An adjective becomes pre-modifier in both Maithili and English noun phrase. Classifier comes before head in Maithili, and so is the case in English noun phrase. Numerals become pre-modifier both in Maithili and English noun phrase. There is similarity in terms of possessive which exists before head both in Maithili and English.

One of the differences that lie in English and Maithili noun phrase is that prepositional phrase functions as the post-modifier in English, whereas it functions as pre-modifier in Maithili. Similar case is found in relative clause. Relative clause becomes pre-modifier in Maithili, but post-modifier in English language. Another noteworthy point is that honorific is inflected as post-modifier in Maithili, whereas honorificity does not exist in English in written form though intended. In English there is no distinction in gender, but we find distinction in Maithili language. Sometimes, form plays the role of pre-modifier both in English and in Maithili. Articles like a, an, the, are the determiners that exists before the head word, but article does not exist in Maithili.

We find many similarities and differences, so we cannot claim universality or commonality between English and Maithili language. One can not claim to know English and its syntactically driven rules when he or she is Maithili speaker. Similarly, English speaker can not know the internal structure and linguistic habituation until he or she tries deliberately to learn that language. Target language has differences though have many similar resemblances. There is possibility of intervention of speaker's mother tongue in target

language. It is this intervention which makes Maithili speaker using English language differently than that of English native speakers.

For English speaker, Maithili is secondary language; whereas for Maithili speaker, English is secondary language. They can not acquire each other's language easily as there is much gap between them in terms of rules and pronunciation as well as its relevance to their cultural signification. Though there are similarities in structural pattern, it is not quite easy for Maithili speaker to learn English language. It needs great labor and devotion for Maithili speaker to learn English language and English speaker to learn Maithili language.

Maithili learners of English only tend to goof informing English noun phrase. They are influenced by the pull of the mother-tongue. The error is caused because of the influence of the mother-tongue.

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