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Adverbial Clauses in English and Maithili: A Comparative Study

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Adverbial Clauses in English and Maithili: A Comparative Study

By

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April 2009

Central Department of English**Letter of Recommendation**

Mr. Jagannath Shah has completed his thesis entitled “**Adverbial Clauses in English and Maithili: A Comparative Study**” under my supervision. He carried out his research from November 2008 to March 2009. I hereby recommend his thesis be submitted to viva voce.

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Letter of Approval

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Abstract

This thesis attempts to analyze structures and functions of adverbial clauses in two languages- English and Maithili. The research writer has tried to find out the similarities and differences in their structures and functions between these languages.

The method of observation, analysis and interpretation has been applied to make a comparative and contrastive study of the adverbial clauses. For example: in order to collect the data, some authentic books have been used both in English and Maithili.

The thesis consists of four chapters. The first chapter introduces general background of the importance of English and Maithili language, and attempts to give the general introduction of sentences, clauses and the adverbial clauses. This chapter also deals with the review of the related literature and objectives of the study.

The second chapter deals with the analysis of adverbial clauses in the English and Maithili languages in terms of their structures and functions.

The third chapter, another focal point of the thesis has found out some similarities and dissimilarities in English and Maithili language in terms of adverbial clauses.

Finally, chapter four provides summary and conclusion.

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Abbreviations

ACC/DAT	Accusative/ Dative
ABS	Absolute
COMER	Comparative
CONSSV	Concessive
SEQ	Sequential
SPTL	Spatial
PROG	Progressive
V	Verb
DEM	Demonstrative
ERG	Eragative
FUT	Future
GR	Grammatical Relation
COND	Conditional
CRMS	Circumstantial
REAS	Reason
SIM	Simultaneous
PF	Perfective
S	Subject
A	Adverbial
C	Complement
OIA	Old Indo-Aryan
PRES	Present Tense
PRESPCPL	Present Participle
PST	Past Tense
PSTPCPL	Past Participle
1	First Person
2	Second Person
3	Third Person

Chapter-One

1.1 English and Maithili Languages: Origin and Scope

Language, being the medium of communication, is very important for human beings. In connection with the importance of human language, Radhey Lal Varshney (1983: 84-1) says that without language human civilization, as we know it, would have remained an impossibility.

In connection with the importance of a language, Baugh & Cable (1963) opine, “So intimate is the relation between a language and the people who speak it that the two can scarcely be thought of apart (3)”. The reasons behind the importance of a language given by Baugh and Cable seem to be worth while to mention. However, we can summarize various reasons behind the importance of a language. They claim that a language is important because the people who speak it are important- politically, economically, commercially, socially and culturally. For the reasons behind the importance of a language, Quirk et al., Sidney Greenbaum, Geoffrey Leech and Jan Svartvik (1980) present the four criteria. In this regard they say:

One criterion is the number of native speakers that a language happens to have. A second reason is the extent to which a language is geographically dispersed: in how many continents and countries it is used or is knowledge of it necessary? A third is its ‘vehicular load’: to what extent is it a medium for a science or literature or other highly regarded cultural manifestation- including ‘way of life’? A fourth is the economic and political influence of those who speak it as ‘their own’ language. (2)

There are various languages in the world. But all of them are not equally significant at the same time. At a time Sanskrit had its supremacy over all the languages written and spoken in the eastern part of the globe whereas the Latin language occupied the same position in the western world. For various reasons, the English language has now become as one of the important languages in the world.

Albert C. Baugh and Thomas Cable (1963) make the background of the importance of a language as stated above in order to claim the importance of the English language. Baugh and Cable's intention of the reasons behind the importance of a language is to prove that the English language is important in the sense that the people who speak English are important politically, economically, commercially socially and culturally.

Quirk et al. (1980: 3) claim English is the language that has ultimately been able to meet all the four criteria mentioned above and so it has been the world's most widely used language. For example, 'English is spoken as a native language by nearly three hundred million people: in the united states, Britain, Ireland, Australia, New Zealand, Canada, the Caribbean and South Africa without mentioning smaller countries or smaller pockets of native English speakers/ for example in Rhodesia and Kenya' (Quirk et al. 1980: 3). English has been used a second language in some countries like 'India, Pakistan, Nigeria, Kenya and many other common wealth countries and former British territories. This way a quarter of a century after independence, India maintains English as the medium of instruction for approximately half of its total higher education' (Ibid).

Quirk et al. (1980: 2) further say, "English is the second language in countries of such divergent backgrounds as the Philippines and Ethiopia while in other numerous countries, Burma, Thailand, South Korea and some Middle Eastern

countries, for example it has a second language status in respect of higher, education? They claim that English is one of the two ‘working’ languages of the United Nations and of the two it is by far the more frequently used both in debate and in general conduct of UN business.

Quirk et al. (1980) describes its importance as foreign language too. They say that people who are not the native speakers also had to use the English language by means of listening to broadcasts, reading books or newspapers, commerce or travel, for example. It is their claim that no language is more widely studied or used as a foreign language than English (3-4). People are inclined to learn it. According to their explanation, the United States Information Agency and the Voice of America have played a notable role in recent years with close and amicable liaison with the British Council which provides support for English teaching both in the world. (ibid)

By studying the explanation written by Quirk et al. (1980) we can conclude that the English language: The English language intimately associated with the all-round development of the modern human world.

Regarding the extension of the English language, Bhattarai (1989) says, “It has begun to permeate through the eastern hemisphere together with the expansion of the British Empire in the east” (232). Similarly, about the beginning of English in Nepal, he (Bhattarai 1989) again says, “English entered Nepal with the foundation of Durbar High School in 1889 A.D.” (232). Talking about the formal teaching and learning activities of English at higher level, he (Bhattarai 1989) expresses his view thus, “In fact, the opening of Tri-Chandra College in 1918 A.D. marks the formal beginning of English in higher education in Nepal.” (ibid). In connection with the further development of education and the importance of the English language teaching in Nepal, Bhattarai (1989) explains that the university was incorporated by

law in 1959 and many colleges were declared open throughout the kingdom. High school spread in no time. The dawn of democracy brought light of education in Nepal. Until the introduction of the NESP, all high school/ college syllabuses had occupied an important place for English because till the 1940s and 1950s even in secondary schools English language and English curriculum occupied an important place. (ibid). Bhattarai (1989) regards the New Education System Plan-2028 B.S. (NESP) as ‘a bold step towards modern approach in the field of education’ in Nepal. According to the NESP, English was given the position of one of the UN languages into the secondary school curriculum. And after the amendment of the curriculum in 2038 B.S., ‘English’ is taken ‘as one of the 10 modern languages’ (235). The revival of democracy of 2047 B.S. has given a great impetus towards the development of education even in private sector. As a result, a great number of schools and colleges have been opened in private sector. The schools opened in private sector are in the English medium because now the new generation in Nepal is inclined towards leaning English. Speaking English has been the modern fashion and prestige as well. The commonly used words “baa” and “aamaa” have been replaced by the words “daddy” and “mummy”. The culture has also been almost anglicized. In addition to the formal activities of teaching and learning of English at present, informal activities of teaching and learning of this language are also being carried out by NGOs and INGOs in Nepal. As a result, the English language has been an inevitable part of our daily life in Nepal these days.

Now the new generation in Nepal has been inclined towards bilingualism. It seems that code switching usually takes place in bilingual or multilingual situation. In such a situation educated speakers find it easy to practice code-switching. By considering this really, we can not also prevent our children from using English;

rather it has been our necessity today in Nepal. About the growing interest of bilingualism Elizabeth Closs Traugott and Mary Louise Pratt (1980) say, “Yet even in Great Britain and America, bilingualism was and is a reality for significant number of citizens... In Canada, French and English bilingualism is a major political issue. In America, bilingualism has been statistically the norm since the beginning of colonization.” (373). On the basis of the facts mentioned above we can say that Nepal is no exception to it.

The development of science and technology in various fields has brought a revolutionary change in every aspect of human life. The mobility of people has rapidly increased due to the facilities in transportation and communication, the new trends in trade and business, and so many other factors. Just a single language has not been enough to fulfill the various purposes, wishes and desires of the modern people.

Nepal is a multilingual, multiethnic and multicultural state where people speak varieties of languages and dialects according to its geographical variation. The 2001 census establishes Nepal as a country of 102 ethnic groups and 92 languages. Such figures and formulations highlight the ethnic and linguistic diversities that contribute toward the cultural mosaic of Nepal. Thus, it is obvious that Nepal is a land of ethnic diversity and linguistic plurality.

The people of the Terai region of Nepal generally speak more than two languages at their command. They understand Maithili, Bhojpuri, Nepali, Hindi, etc. Maithili is one of the prominent living languages spoken in India and Nepal—the two South Asian countries. Yadava (2001:443-4) has given many factual details about the Maithili language.

As it implies, Maithili is, properly speaking, the language of Maithili, the prehistoric ancient kingdom, which was ruled by King Janak and

was the birth place of Sita or Janaki, Lord Ram's wife .This region was also called Tairabhukti, the ancient name of Tirhut comprising both Darbhanga and Muzaffarpur district of Bihar ,India.

Maithili belongs to the Eastern subgroup of the Indo – Aryan group withing the Indo-Iranion branch of the European language family .It forms a sub-group with Bhojpuri and Maghi and linguistically close to Assamese, Bangala and Oriya than to its more contiguous language, namely, Hindi and Nepali, which belong to central and western subgroup of Indo-Aryan, respectively.

The alternative names of the Maithili language are Tirhutiya, Dehati, Abahata or Apabharamsa. It is spoken mainly in the northern part of the Indian state of Bihar and the eastern part of the Nepal's Terai region. There are also Maithili speaking minorities in adjoining Indian states like west Bengal, Maharashtra and Madhya Pradesh and the central Nepal Terai.

There are seven regional dialects of Maithili. They are: the standard, southern, eastern, chikachiki, western, Jolhi and the central colloquial dialect .Of them, standard Maithili is spoken in the north of Darbhanga district (Bihar state, India), which now forms the part of the Madhubani district .Maithili exhibits social variations in its pronunciation, vocabulary and grammar in terms of the speaker's caste, sex, education, interpersonal relationship ,and other social factors.

The Maithili language is spoken by more than 30 million people as a first language and by many other as a second language in the north eastern part of the Indian state of Bihar and the eastern part of Nepal's Terai region .In Nepal, it is the language of

approximately 12 percent (approximately 2.3 million) of the total population and figures second in terms of the number of the speakers –next only to Nepali, the language of the nation, spoken by a little over 50 percent of the population.

Previously, Maithili had its own script, called Mithilakshar or Tirhuta, which originated from Brahmi (of the third century B.C) via the proto –Bengali script and is similar to the modern Bengali and Oriya writing system. Besides the Mithilaskshar script, the kanthi script was also used by Kayashtha(belonging to caste of writers and clerks) especially in keeping written records at government and private levels. These two scripts are now almost abandoned .For the sake of easy in learn ability and printing (and also perhaps under influence of Hindi writing system), they have been gradually replaced by the Devanagari script used in writing Hindi ,Nepali and some other languages of both Indo –Aryan and Tibeto-Burman stocks spoken in adjoining areas.

In both Nepal and India, Maithili has been taught as a subject of study from school to university levels of education. Especially in Indian, however, it has been hampered by the lack of official recognition as a medium of instruction. In Nepal, there has there has recently been made a constitutional provision for introducing all the mother tongues spoken at primary level of education. This is, no doubt, a welcome step for their promotion, but in spite of speakers' zeal, there has not been much headway in this regard in the dearth of official initiatives and basic requirement like teaching, reading materials and trained manpower. Both PEN (poets, Essayists, Novelists) and Sahitya

Academy has recognized Maithili as the 16th largest language of Indian, though it has not yet been included in the eight schedule of the Indian constitution despite the unceasing efforts made by the Maithili-speaking community in India.

1.2 Significance of Grammar

Grammar can be simply defined as the way a language manipulates and combines words in order to form larger units of meaning. There is a set of rules, which governs how units of meaning may be constructed in any language. We can say that a learner who knows the grammar is one who has mastered and can apply these rules to express himself /herself in what would be considered acceptable language forms. Thus grammar has great significance and it helps learner to improve their language. An adverbial clause is one of the grammatical topics and is included in the course from the very primary level to the upward level.

New standard Dictionary of the English Language (63) defines grammar as "The science that treats the principles that governs the correct use of language in either oral or written form".

Grammar is a description of structure of language and the way in which linguistic units such as: words and phrases are combined to produce sentences in the language. It usually takes into account the meaning and functions. These sentences are in the overall system of language. It may or may not include the description of the sounds of a language.

"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).

This quotation vividly presents that grammar is essential to produce correct forms of utterances. It is the foundation of language. This knowledge is more essential for the second language learner than the native speakers has innately internalized the grammar where as the second language learner has to make conscious effort to learn and master it. Knowledge of language as well as grammar helps person to master to it.

Therefore, the significance of grammar in the correct use of language can hardly be exaggerated.

1.3 An Overview of Some Specific Terms

1.3.1 Sentence

The definition of the sentence given by David Crystal (1992) is, "The largest STRUCTURAL UNIT in terms of which the GRAMMAR of a Language is organized." (313). Jack Richards, John Platt and Heidi (1985) define a sentence as "the largest unit of grammatical organization within which parts of speech (e.g. nouns, verbs, adverbs) and grammatical classes (e.g. word, phrase, and clause) are said to function." (255).

A modern linguist Yogendra Prasad Yadav (2004) has classified sentences on two basis: according to their form, he calls it 'formal classification' and he calls it 'functional classification'.

1.3.2 Kinds of Sentences

The study of the classification of sentences is considered to be very important to have a study of adverbial clauses in the Maithili. The clauses are the inseparable parts of sentences. They are said to be sentences themselves or smaller unit of sentences lower in ranks than sentences. By regarding clauses as sentences, Plamer (1971) writes – "Traditional grammars also talk of: clauses: which are sentences" (78). The researcher now wants to illustrate various kinds of classifications of sentences from different points of views. They can be classified in terms of their functions, their horrific senses & their structural complexities.

1.3.3 Functional Classification of Sentences

First of all let's have a study of the classification of sentences in the English language that earlier grammarians have made. The earlier traditional grammarians

like Akhanda Prasad Dhauvdel (2043:208) Choodamani Gautam (2044:343), and Prashmani Pradhan, and Rai Sahib Siddhinath Mishra, (1944:53) have divided sentences into five types. Pradhan and Mishra (1944) call this classification as a formal classification of sentences. In other words, the following five types of sentences are divided in terms of their forms or structures or patterns in which they are constructed of. For example:

- 1) Assertive Sentences,
- 2) Imperative Sentences,
- 3) Interrogative Sentences,
- 4) Exclamatory Sentences, and
- 5) Optative Sentences.

Modern grammarians and linguists however, have stated that the sentences can be divided on the basis of their form and their functions. A famous modern linguist, David Crystal (1991:314) likes to call these two kinds of classification of sentences as:

- (a) Formal Classification and
- (b) Functional Classification

As has already been mentioned that the sentences in English language are classified on the two bases (a) form and (b) function, and they are divided into four types in each classification, there is one to one relationship between these two classifications. Dr. Yadava (2004:215) calls such kind of correlation ship as a form-function interface which is given in a table below:

Table No. 1**Form – Function Interface**

Formal Classification	Functional Classification	Examples
1.Declarative	1.Statement	I like fish
2.Interrogative	2.Question	Do you like fish?
3.Impeative	3.Directive	Go out.
4.Exclamatory	4.Exclamation	What a big bore she is

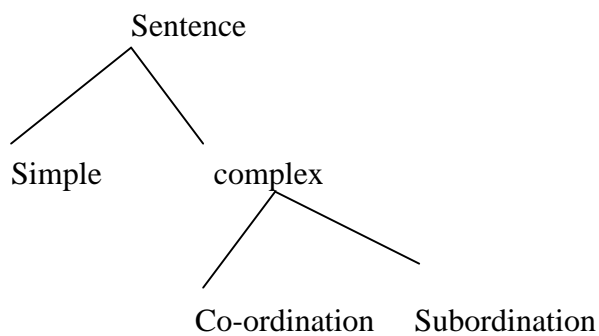
1.3.4 Classification of Sentences in Terms of the Structured Complexity

The next turn of this chapter of the study goes on to carry out the study of the classification of sentences on the basis of their structures. John Lyons,(1971) calls it the structural complexity (178) while Mennon (1993) gives the name of "grammatical structure(108) and "Nepali grammarians call it as "samrachana" of sentences.

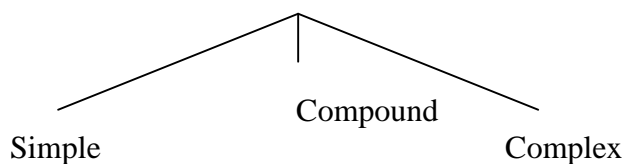
The grammarians and linguists have not come to the same opinion about the classification of sentences on the basis of their 'structures', of 'structural complexity'.

We can find the following types of classification:

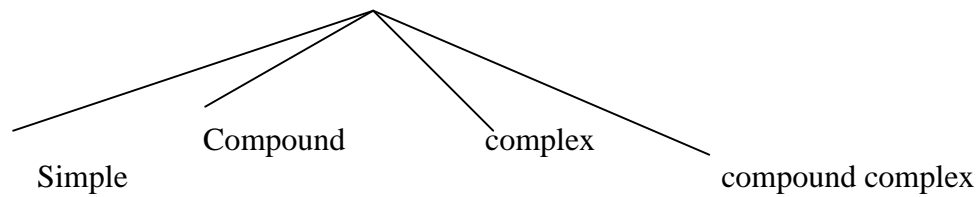
(a) The first type of classification



(b) The second type of classification



(c) The third types of sentences



It is not easy to say that there are exactly such types of sentences from the above examples. Before going to the conclusion, we can share the ideas of different grammarians and linguists for it. The two famous English grammarians Leech & Svartvik (1988) opines, "Sentences are units made up of one or mote clauses" (288). In connection with the classification of sentences they further explain, "Sentences containing just one clauses are called SIMPLE, and sentences containing more than one clauses are called COMPLEX"(ibid). About the ways of linking clauses, they say, "There are two main ways of linking clauses together, i.e. of forming complex sentences: coordination and subordination" (ibid).

The definition given by Leech & Svartvik seems to be reasonable in the sense that sentences having more than one clause are complex. The structures of such sentences are not simple and the selection of the antonymic word 'complex ' of the term 'simple' itself' seems to be appropriate.

The classification of sentences into the two types by Leech and Svartvik (1988) has been further developed into the three types by other grammarians or linguistics as simple, Complex, and compound. While observing these examples on their superficial form, they seem to be ambiguous. When we analyze the definition of these three types, we find no different in the first type, Simple. All of the grammarians or linguistics are unanimous about the definition given in terms of the grammatical structure. All of them agree that a simple sentence has just one clause. On the contrary, the latter two types – compound and complex seem to be developed

by the same complex sentence-the proposition of Leech and Svartvik. They talk about the two types of conjunctives or conjunctions (a) Co-ordinators and (b) Sub-ordinators. In this regard connection with a compound sentence Mennon (1993), that a compound sentence is that it should have more than one main clause, the second, the third (and the fourth, etc) main clauses are called co-ordinate clauses(142). Regarding the complex sentences, Mennon (1993) writes, "A complex sentence consists of a principal clause and one (or more subordinate clauses. "(118). In order to distinguish between a compound sentence and a complex sentence, Mennon (1993) further explains, "A co-ordinate clause in a compound sentence is an independent sentence. Subordinating conjunctions connect complex sentence, but coordinating conjunctions connect co-ordinate clauses to the main clauses in a compound sentence."(118).

1.4 Clauses

According to crystal (1992) a clause is a term used in some models of grammar to refer to a unit of grammatical organization smaller than the sentence, but larger than phrases, words or morphemes (55). A clause is a group of words which form a grammatical unit and which contain a subject and a finite verb. According to Richards et al (1985), a clause forms a sentence and often functions as a noun, adjective, or adverb (39).

1.4.1 Kinds of Clauses

As has already been stated that a complex in English language contains one or more dependent clauses, in addition to its independent, or main, clauses, (Richards et al 1985:52). The dependent clauses are known as subordinating clauses and the main clause is also known as principal clauses, which contains the main verb of the entire complex sentence.

There are three kinds of sub-ordinate clauses in complex sentences in both the languages, English & Maithili. They are:

- (a) The Noun clause,
- (b) The Adjective clause
- (c) The Adverb clause

A) The Noun Clause

A clause which does the work of a Noun in relation to some words in some other clause is called a Noun clause.

B) The Adjective Clause

The clauses that usually relates back to a noun whose meaning it modifies is an adjective clause.

C) The Adverbial Clause

An adverbial clause is a subordinate clause, which functions as an adverb.

1.5 Statement of Problem

Maithili language shows a rich variety of clauses combining using various connectives. Both the coordinating and subordinating ways of clause combining exist. Under the subordination, Maithili language, unlike English, has the syntactic as well as morphological (morphosyntactic) trends in the adverbial clause.

Eg. Jahiyā	ha aeb,	hamr	khabar karab
When	2 (hon) come-future	me	inform-imp

(When you come here, inform me)

eitham	abte (matra),	hamra	khabar karab
--------	---------------	-------	--------------

As soon as you come here, inform me.

The adverbial clauses of different types, e.g. time, place, manner, concession, result, purpose, etc. can be realized both syntactically as well as morphosyntactically in Maithili language.

1.6 Objectives of the Study

The major objectives of this study are as follows:-

- i) To identify and analyze the structures of adverbial clauses in English and Maithili.
- ii) To find out the similarities and differences in the adverbial clauses of these two languages.
- iii) To find out the areas of difficulties for learning English adverbial clauses by Maithili speakers, and also Maithili adverbial clauses for English speakers learning Maithili language, and
- iv) To give the pedagogical implications.

1.7 Review of Literature

Almost all the traditional grammarians of Maithili have written substantially about the adverbial clauses.

As Payne writes in describing morphosyntax (1999), subordination is a multi verb construction which involves one independent clause and one or more dependent clause is one that fully inflected and capable of being integrated into discourse on its own. A dependent clause is one that depends on some other clause for at least part of its inflectional information.

Yadava has written so many books and articles regarding the Maithili language. In this book, Reading in Maithili language, literature and culture (199), he talks about the Maithili adverbial clauses.

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.

'A Reference Grammar of Maithili (1997)' by Ramawatar Yadav is a standard grammar of Maithili language which describes, in details, the rules and various particles such as case maker, plural marker, honorific marker , postposition etc. in the Maithili language . In this book, Yadav has talked of phonology, nominals, their inflections, adjectives, verb, adverb, passization, sentences types etc. of Maithili 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, phonetics, syntax, morphology and semantics. Through these grammarians have studies and explained various aspects of the grammar but still it needs some researches on the adverbial clauses of Maithili language. So this study can be helpful for the further researches.

1.8 Research Methodology

Clause combining and the conjunction will the primary methods of analyzing the study. The main source of necessary data for Maithili will be myself (present researcher) as a native speaker of Maithili. data will be also be taken form texts , books, journals, periodicals, e-resources, from library ,internet ,Besides the help from the teacher and supervisor will be a supporting source for the research.

1.9 Limitation of the Study

The study will be limited to the adverbial clauses in Maithili and English languages ignoring its regional and social varieties. It will talk about co-ordination and subordination as a methodological introduction.

1.10 Organization of the Study

Chapter One: Introduction

Chapter Two: Adverbial Clauses in English and Maithili

Chapter Three: A Comparative Study of Adverbial Clauses in English and Maithili

Chapter Four: Summary and conclusion.

Chapter-Two

2.1 Adverbial Clauses in English and Maithili

As regards the definition of the adverbial clause Wren and Martin (2004) write, "... an adverb clause is a subordinate clause which functions as an adverb." (201). Highlighting the area of the function of the adverbial clauses they further say, "It may, therefore modify some verb, adjective, or adverb in main clause..."(ibid). In order to prove their definition and explanation, we can give some examples of mixed sentences containing adverbial clauses, which are presented below:

- i) Strike the iron while it is hot.
- ii) You are taller than I thought.
- iii) He ran so quickly that he soon overtook me.

In the above sentences, the italicized letters or parts represent the adverbial clauses. We can easily see that the adverbial clause "While it is hot" in the first sentence qualifies the verb 'strike'. The verb 'strike' indicates moment of striking, that is a verb Similarly in the second sentence the clause "than I thought." modifies the adjective "taller" in the main clause, therefore, it is also an adverbial clause. Likewise in the third sentence the dependent clause "that he soon overtook me" modifies the adverb "quickly" in the main clause so the dependent clause is an adverbial clause.

Similarly, Thomas Payne writes that adverbial clauses are those that serve an "adverbial" function (Longarace and Thomson 1985). They modify a verb phrase or a whole clause. They are not an argument of the clause. Sometimes adverbial clauses are termed "adjuncts"(as opposed to complements). This is good term since the term "complement" implies completion, and a predicate does not express a complete proposition until all its argument positions are filled, i.e., completed. On the other

hand, adverbials attach to constructions that are already complete propositions. The adverbial simply adds some information to the preposition.

Sometimes adverbial clauses look like complements:

- a. He ran to get help. (purpose)
- b. We're sorry that you feel that way. (reason)
- c. She went out, locking the door behind her. (sequence)

The adverbial clauses in these examples all have the same morphosyntax as certain complement types of English. Nevertheless, they are not complements because they do not constitute logical arguments of the main verb; rather, they simply add "adverbial" information, namely purpose, reason, and sequence respectively.

The kinds of information embodied in adverbial clauses are the same kinds of information expressed by adverbs, e.g., time, place, manner, purpose, reason, condition, etc.

The main concern of the thesis is to analyze the structural as well as functional study of adverbial clauses of the two languages, English and Maithili. Naturally, the thesis writer's attention is drawn towards the proper study of the subject matter that is the study of adverbial clauses. Therefore, certain definitions of adverbial clauses have been another and discussed. Ultimately, this will make easier to discuss and analyze the various kinds of adverbial clauses. Therefore, the thesis writer wants to draw his attention towards the study of his proposed subject matter, that is, the adverbial clause. Therefore, the definitions of the adverbial clauses given by different grammarians or linguists in both languages will be given hereby. Then various kinds of Adverbial Clauses will be discussed.

2.2 The Classification of Adverbial Clause

So many grammarians or linguists do not mention how they have classified the clauses. However, Leech and Svartvik (1988) have mentioned their criteria of classification for the clauses. Some grammarians have classified the adverbial clauses on two bases. That is, they can be classified (a) on the basis of the verb in the adverbial clauses, and (b) on the basis of the function of the adverbial clauses.

Here too the adverbial clauses in both the languages (in Maithili and English) can be divided on the following two based:

- i. On the basis of the verb in the adverbial clauses, and
- ii. On the basis of the functions of the adverbial clauses

From the point of view of the verb used in the adverbial clauses, some grammarians have classified the adverbial clauses into classes: (i) finite adverbial clauses and (ii) non-finite adverbial clauses. As regards the classification of adverbial clauses, Leech and Svartvik (1998) have their different opinion. They have grouped the adverbial clauses into three groups: In this respect, Leech Svartvik write, " A second way of classifying the clauses is on the basis of what kind of verb phrase (if any) acts as its element. The types of clauses that have to be distinguished are: a) finite clauses, b) non-finite clauses, c) verb less clauses." (213).

It is not clear in their explanation whether all the clauses can be classified in the three classes or only the adverbial clauses can be done so. But as it is clear that the adverbial clauses modify the verbs, we can claim ourselves that this explanation of Leech and Svartvik (1988) is about adverbial clauses. Quirk et al (1980) also talk about thee adverbial clauses in sub unit 11 (743). They are: Finite, non-finite and verb-less clauses. However, now at first different types of finite adverbial clauses will be discussed one after the other.

2.2.1 Kinds of Adverbial Clauses on the Basis of the Function

It is obvious that there are three kinds of subordinating clauses- the noun clause, the adjective clause and adverbial clause. Like the noun clause and the adjective clause, an adverbial clause is one which functions as an adverb in relation to some word in some other clause. Nesfield (2002) mentions the eight kinds of adverbial clauses in English language (343). They are of:

- (1) Time (2) Place (3) Purpose
 (4) Cause (5) Result (6) condition
 (7) Comparison (8) Supposition or Concession

All the grammarians are not unanimous about the classification of adverbial clauses. .

Sinclair (1994) has also divided the adverbial clauses into eight group which are given in the table below:

Table No:

S.N	kinds of clauses	usual conjunction
1	Time clauses	when, before, after, since, while, as, until
2	conditional clauses	if, unless
3	purpose clause	in order to, so that
4	Reason clauses	because, since, as
5	Result clauses	so that
6	concessive clauses	although, through, while
7	place clauses	where, wherever
8	clauses of manner	as, like, the way

In terms of the functions, there are various kinds of adverbial clauses. They are the adverbial clauses of time, place, reason, purpose, effect or result, condition, comparison or contrast, manner, proportion and preference. Let us now discuss them one by one.

2.2.1.1 Adverbial clauses of Time

It has already mentioned that adverbial clauses functions as adverbial clauses also describe it in the same way. Like adverbs, adverbial finite clauses of time in English are introduced by one of the following subordinators after , as , before , once, since, till , until, when, whenever , while , whilst (esp Br F) , directly(informal , esp Bre) , e.g.

(1) Buy your tickets as soon as you reach the station

(ii) When I last saw you, you lived in Washington. Adverbial – ing clauses of time are introduced by one of the following subordinators: Once, till, until, when, whenever, while, whilst, e.g.

(i) He wrote his first novel while working.

kaam karte-k l u apan pahilak upanyaas likhalkai.

(ii) Be careful when crossing streets.

Rast kataita-k hosiyaar ho-u.

(i) Once published book caused a stir. Abbreviated verbless clauses may follow as soon as, once, whenever, and while e.g. in difficult, constant the manual. In Maithili language, According to Yadav, the adverbial clauses of time signal temporal as well as sequential relationships and utilize both the strategies of subordination as shown below. (Yadav 19: 36()

(i) **Temporal Relationship**

Temporal relationship is signaled by the use of subordinators which are full words with lexical content; usually these are correlatives, one of which is optionally deleted, e.g., jakhan- takhan 'when-then', 'jahiya-tahiya' 'when then', jabat-tabat 'as long as'-until then';

(a) jakhan ham pah c-l-ah (takhan) ah nai chalah

'When I arrived, you were not (there).'

(b) jakhan ah hamar ghar pahuclahu (takhan) ham phulbari me k m karait rahi.

'When you came to my house, I was working in the garden.

(c) jahiy ah jawan rahi ah kakro nai gudanlah .

'When you were young, you listened to no one.'

(d) jahiy ah baca ah bar badmas rahi.

'When you were child, you were very naughty.'

(e) jabat ham nai kahi aha gam nai chori.

'Untill I ask you, do not leave the village.'

(f) jabat sir nai kahe aha hostel nai chori.

'Untill sir tells you, do not leave the hostel.

Temporal relationship is also signaled by the use of non-finite verb forms that appear in combination with forms (postpositions) which explicitly identify temporal relationship and may also be combined with the emphatic enclitic.

(i) malik ke khaela bad aha khæb.

'You will eat after the master eats.'

(ii) master ji ke baithala per aha baithab.

'you will sit when Sir sits.'

(iii) china jae sa pahine aha chinese sikhalaib.

'Even before you went to China you learned Chinese.'

(iv) bahar jai sa pahile aha bati band kadiyau.

'Even before you went outside, you switched off the line.'

(v) parait kal me hala nai karu.

'Don't make noise while reading.'

(vi) khana khait kal me nai bolu.

'Don't speak while eating.'

(ii) Immediate Succession

The locative adverbial jah 'Where' coupled with ki 'that' signals immediate sequence of events (Yadav 1997:362):

(a) jaha school pahucalau ki ghanti laigel.

'As soon as I arrived at school, the bell rang.'

(b) jaha station pahucalau ki gari æl.

'As soon as I arrived at the station, the train came.'

(d) Sajh paral ki aha ghar chail au.

'As soon as the set, you came back to home.'

Non-finite verb forms are also used in signaling immediate succession of events (Yadav 1997:362).

nokri hoite sath ham khabar deb.

'As soon as I get the job, I will inform you.'

(iii) Cause

Occasionally, the time adverbial morpheme (either with or without the emphatic enclitic-e) may signal cause as well (Yadav 1997:362):

(a) jakhane o beta da sunlaith o khais paralah.

'When he heard about his son, he swooned.'

(b) jahiya sa babu marlain o school choir delainh.

'After his father death, he left school.'

Non-finite forms, too, convey the meaning of cause:

(a) I bat sunait o uithgelah

'When he heard it he left immediately.'

The correlative conjunctions that introduce the adverbial clauses in the Maithili language are: jakhan-takhan, jahiya-tahiya, jabat-tabat, etc.(Yadav1997:361).

The exact translation from English to Maithili or from Maithili to English is not always possible. Similarly the sub-ordinators from one language to another can not be translated.

2.2.1.2 Adverbial Clauses of Place

According to Quirk et al (1985) the adverbial clauses of place are introduced mainly by where or whenever (1087). Between these two, where is specific and whenever is non-specific, e.g.

(i) Where the fire had been, we saw nothing but blackened ruins.

(ii) They went wherever they could find work.

It is to be remembered that where and wherever also introduced –ed and verbless clauses. (ibid).

Now we can study the adverbial clauses in Maithili language from the examples illustrated as follows:

(i) jata aha pathæb ham jæb.

'I will go where you send me.'

(ii) jata aha jæb hamhu jæb.

'I will go where you will go.'

(iii) jatakatau hamra nokri bhetat ham jæb.

'I will go wherever I will find a job.'

(iv) jatakatau ram bhete hunka ghar pathadeb.

'Send Ram to home wherever you meet him.'

Usually, however, locative clauses in Maithili have the shape of a relative-correlative clause:

(i) ham ohi tham jæb jahi tham hamra kahab.

'I will go where you will ask me to.'

According to Yadav(1997) , locative adverbial clauses are introduced by the subordinators jata' where'or jatakatau' wherever'.(362).

2.2.1.3 Adverbial Clauses of Reason

As stated by Quirk et al (1980) the adverbial clauses of reason or cause in the English language are most commonly introduced by the conjunctions like 'because ', 'as',or 'since'(702).Laying emphasis on the position of the adverbial clauses of reason, they mention that 'because' has a tendency to follow the main clause, while 'as' and 'since' have tendency to precede it. e.g.

(i) I lent him the money because he needed it.

(ii) As Jane was the eldest, She looked after the others.

In Maithili language, adverbial clauses of reason are formed by the use of clusters of subordinating morphemes such as tæ'so', tahi sa (colloquially tai/tahi sa) 'due to'. tahi sa/tahi karan, tahi karne' due to'that reason', karan je 'the reason being that' or kiæk ta/ki/je 'because of' (yadav 1997:364),e.g.

- (i) gari chuit gel tahi sa ahi ota raih gelau.
 'I missed the train, due to that reason I stayed at your place.'
- (ii) ham school par nai pahuclau kiæk ta hamar cycle kharab chal.
 'I did not arrive at school on time because my bicycle was not in good
 condition.'
- (iii) o pharam nai bhara sakal karan je aphis band bha gel chalaik.
 ' He could not fill in the form because the office was closed.'
- (iv) baba burbha gelah tae roti nai kha sakala.
 'The grandfather became old so that he could not eat bread.'
- (v) dhaua saith gel tahi sa chaur nai kina sakalau.
 'I could not buy rice because my money was spent.'

Above sentences (iv-v) using *tæ* and *tahi sa* may be paraphrased as resultative sentences. For example, sentence(v) might be interpreted as meaning: As a result of lack of money, I could not buy rice; Similarly, (iv) may mean 'As a result of his old age, the grandfather can not eat break.'

Reason clauses also employ a morphological device of using verbal nouns i.e., by adding *-bak karne* or *-la sa* to the verb of the subordinate clause:

- (i) aber hoe-bak karan s gari chuit gel . 'I missed the train because I was late.'
- (ii) besi kha lela sa pet dukhait aich .
 'My stomach aches because I ate much.'

Finally, if the main clause happens to contain an adverb of quantification (e.g. even 'such' *atek / tatek* 'so much'), then the adverbial clause of reason employs the subordinating complementizer morphemes *je/ki* 'that':

- (i) o atek chalhi khalelaith je bhair rait pet dukhait chalainh.
 'He ate so much curd that his stomach ached the whole night.'

(ii) tatek bajllau ki muh dukhagel.

'I talked so much that my mouth got pain.'

(iii) ehen lathi maralkain je sap mair gel .

'He hit the snake with a club so hard that it died'.

The above examples show that the adverbial clauses or reason in the Maithili language appears either initially or finally. The "kisek ta –clause " Maithili mostly appears after the main clause as in English language . The meaning in the clauses can be realized in accordance with meaning of the sub-ordinate clauses. Therefore Quirk et al. (1985) say that there is generally a temporal sequence in such a way that the situation in the subordinate clauses precedes in time that of matrix clause (1103).

Quirk et al (1980) points out there are no abbreviated clauses of reason but non-finite and verbless can be used equivalently (752) , e.g.

(i) Being a man of ingenuity, he had soon repaired the machine.

According to Yadav (1997), the adverbial clauses of reason in Maithili are mostly introduced by the conjunctions like tae –tahi—sa, tahi karne etc.(364).

2.2.1.4 Adverbial clause purpose

In English language, the adverbial clauses of purpose are more often infinitival than finite' Quirk et al (1980:753) e.g.

(i) To improve the garden, we shall plant shrubs.

(ii) I left early to catch the train.

Adverbial clauses of purpose in English are commonly introduced by conjunctions like 'in order to ', 'so', 'So as to', 'So that' and 'to'(Sinclair, 1994).

Finite clauses of purpose may be introduced by compound subordinations in order that and so (that), e.g.

(i) She visited Washington in order that / so that she could see more senators.

- (ii) He stood on his tiptoes in order to see better.

Negative purpose is expressed by the conjunction 'lest' or by 'incase' e.g.

- (i) Lest (incase) the wall should collapse, they evacuated the building. The use of 'lest' is very formal and seems rather archaic too.

In Maithili language, the adverbial clauses of purpose typically use the different types of base infinitival verb forms as exemplified below:

- (i) dipak kapra kina Janakpur gel.
Dipak went to 'Janakpur to buy cloths'
- (ii) kalpana paraha Katmandu gel.
'Kalpana went to Katmandu to study'
ramu kam kar malasia gel.
Ramu went to Malaysia to work.

Above sentences (I-iii) illustrate examples where the main as well as the subordinate clause have the same subject and show that the same subject purpose clauses in Maithili use an infinitival verb form. The different subject clauses, however use a subordinator *jahi s ki* 'so that and have the verbs in the optative mood (Yadav 1997:367):(i) O baniya nokri khojait cahait jahis ki hunkar paribar sukhi rahiainh 'He wants to get a good job so that his family may remain happy.'

- (ii) ham Arab s baraber phon karait chi jahis ki hamer gharb li parasana rahaith.'I call from Arab regularly so that my wife may be happy.

- (iii) ham baca ke sabere school pathabaichi jahisaki o parah me nik rahe.
'I send my child to school in early so that he may be good in study.'

Negative purpose clauses use a subordinator *kahi* (lest) and have the verb in the optative mood (Yadav 1997:367):

- (i) dhire dhire bolu kahi o sunne lay
‘Talk slowly lest he listens.’
- (ii) rase rase calu kahi kais nai parab.
‘Walk slowly lest you fall.’
- (iii) jor s calauth kahi tren nai chauit jaih.
Let him walk fast lest he miss the train.’

With no imperative main clause, negative purpose clauses a discontinuous subordinator kahi----t (Yadav1997:368):

- (i) o khub mehnat karait chaith kahi phel nai bha jaith.
‘He is working hard lest he fails.’
- (ii) ham rase rase calait chi kahi pichair nai jai.
‘I walk slowly lest I slip.’

According to Yadav (1997), alternatively, sentences (I-iii) may be formed jahi s ki (368).

- (i) dhire dhire bolu jahi sa ki o nai sune.
‘Talk slowly so that he may not listen.’
- ii) o khub mehnat karait chaith jahi s ki phel nai hoith.
‘He is working hard so that he may not fail.’

2.2.1.5 Adverbial clause of Effect or Result

According to Sinclair (1994) result clauses begin with ‘so that’ (356) e.g.

- (i) My suit case had been damaged in the adjoining home, so that the lid would stay close.

Informally the ‘that’ of ‘so that’ is omitted. Quirk et al (1980:754), e.g.

- (i) I took no notice of him, so he flew into a range.

Throwing light on the contrastive relation between, result and ‘reason’ clauses Quirk et al (1980) say that it is an interesting fact to be remembered that the ‘result’ relation is the converse of that of ‘cause so that the same meaning can be expressed by reversing the subordinate and super ordinate clause relation and using a conjunction such as ‘because’. E.g.

- (i) He flew into a rage because I took no notice of him.

According to Yadav (1997), An adverbial clause of result is formed by the use of *jahi s* (colloquially *jai sa*) ‘so that / as a result of which e.g.

- (i) *o nokar k choir dela jahi s ham apne ghar ke k m Karachi.*

‘I had to quit my studies because father stopped sending money.’

- (ii) *babuji pai bheja-nai choir delainh jahis parhai chora paral.*

‘I had to quit my studies because father stopped sending money.’

- (iii) *dulhin choir ka chail gel jahi s ham apne khana banabaichi.*

‘I cook food myself because my wife has left me.’

- (iv) *I hamar upbas aich jahi s ham khana nai khelauh.*

‘I did not have my lunch because today is my fasting.’

According to Yadav (1997), the subordinators *ta* or *tahi s*, which are commonly used for reason clauses, may also be used for the result clause :

hamara aberbha rahal chal ta ham laut gelah .

‘It was getting late for me, as result of which I returned.’

2.2.1.6 Adverbial clauses of condition

The Adverbial clauses of condition in English are simply introduced by “if” and “unless”. The most common subordinator and the most versatile of the condition subordinators is “if”. The negative subordinator “unless” is the next common. Other

conditional subordinators are: as long as, long as, assuming (that), in case , in the event just so(that), providing(that), supposing(that).

General recurrent contingency is expressed by once, when, whenever, where and whenever. In addition, several sub ordinators combine condition with time, e.g. before , as long as , so long as , when , whenever , once the subordinators except that and only are used with exception with condition.

All these subordinators are used with finite clauses, e.g.

- (i) If you want some more, you should ask me
- (ii) Unless the strike has been called off, there will be no trains to.
- (iii) She may go, as long as he goes with her.
- (iv) Assuming that the movie starts at eight at eight, shouldn't we be leaving now?

The two subordinators “if” and “unless” introduce nonfinite clauses, mainly-
ed participle clauses and verb less clauses: They are marginally acceptable in -ing.
participle clauses, e.g.,

- (i) The grass would well if grow, if watered regularly.
- (ii) Unless otherwise introduced, you should leave by the back exit.

From the examples above it is seen that some clauses of time and place may express a general nation of a contingency relationship between the situations described in the sub ordination ship is also conveyed conditional if clause. It is also obvious that some temporal clauses may imply contrast. In this way, we can draw the make a conclusion that there is a considerable overlapping of meaning of condition, concession and contrast in the adverbial clauses.

In Maithili grammar, Yadav (1997) writes' conditional clauses are formed by adding he subordinator 'j ' (also jadi ~yadi,agar) 'if' to the clause which signals

the condition and ta ‘then’ to the main clause which states that the outcome will happen if the condition is met.’ The following examples illustrate this:

- (i) ja pain par-at ta raih jaib.
‘If it rains, please stay.’
- (ii) ja ah janakpuri ge-l rah-I ta jankiji ke darshan kenhi hoe-b.
‘If you had gone to Janakpur, then you would have worshiped janki.’
- (iii) ja ah bhoj me gel rahi ta mithai khae-na-hi hoe-b.
‘If you had gone to the feast, then you would have definitely have eaten the sweets.’
- (iv) ja ah kailh Rajbiraj jaib ta ham –hu cl-ab.
‘If you go to Rajbiraj tomorrow, I will go, too ‘
- (v) ja o ham-ra gair parah-l-ainh to buri ch-aith.
‘If he called me bad names, then he is stupid.’
- (v) ja ah kahab ta matre ham jæ -b .
‘If you say to be, then only I will go.’
- (vi) ja jagu rah-t-h ta hamh raih jæ-b.
‘If Jagu stays, I will stay, too.’

Above sentences (I-vii) illustrate the examples of so called “reality” conditionals, the main morphological distinction of which is to mark the verbs of both clauses with any combination of present, past, and future tenses.

Negation of either or both clauses is possible; syntactically, negative conditionals are ordinary conditionals (Yadav 1997:370):

- (i) ja pain par-at ta ham nai jæ –b .
‘If water it rains, I won’t go.’
- (ii) ja ah p dhaua nai deb ta hum parah nai jæ-b.
‘If you do not give money, then I will not go to study.’

(iii) ja pain nai parat ta gahum nai ubjat .

‘If it does not rain, the wheat crop won’t grow.’

(iv) ja aha hamra nauta nai deb ta hum bhoj khail nai jæ–b .

‘If you do not invite me for party then I won’t go.’

2.2.1.7 Adverbial clauses of comparison

In connection with the adverbial clauses of manner and comparison, Quirk, Payne and Green Baum (1990) write, “clauses are introduced by (exactly) as, (just) as (328) for example

(i) Please do it (exactly) as I instructed (in the way that---)

This statement does not seem to clarify the idea that definition whether this is of the adverbial clause of comparison or manner. Therefore, I think it is worthwhile to mention the idea given by Nesfield (2002:245) and Martinet (2004:204).

Who try to clarify the idea by saying “ Adverbial clauses of comparison are of two kinds:

(i) Adverbial clause of manner, and

(ii) Adverbial clauses of comparison of degree.

There grammarians further express that adverbial clauses denoting manner are introduced by sub- ordinate conjunction or relative adverb ‘as’ (ibid). To clarify this point, we can study the following examples:

(i) It happened as I told you (---in the way that--)

(ii) Do to other as you wish them to do to you.

(iii) He seemed anxious, as if he expected something to happen.

(iv) As the twing is bent, so will the tree grow.

If this type of “as –clause” is placed initially, the correlative form “so”, in formal literary English, may introduce the main clause.

About the adverbial clauses of degree, the afore mentioned grammarians express the view that adverbial clauses denoting degree, are introduced by one of the subordinate conjunctions or relative adverbs like “as”, “the”, and “then” .

- (a) The word “as” denoting degree is generally accompanied by a corresponding demonstrative word (as or so) in the main clause. e.g.,
- (i) She is as wise as she is beautiful.
 - (ii) He is not so foolish as you think.
- (b) The term “the” is always accompanied by a comparative adjective or adverb in the subordinate clauses, e.g.
- (i) The sooner it is done, the better it is.
 - (ii) The more king Midas got, the more he wanted.
 - (iii) The heavier the coin is, the more it is worth.
- (c) The term “than” is always accompanied by a comparative adjective or adverb, or by words like “other” in the main clause, e.g.
- (i) My landlady is younger than she looks.
 - (ii) No one is a better teacher than she looks.
 - (iii) I could do no other than I did.

It is to be noticed that verb of the adverbial clause of comparison is often not expressed but understood. The following sentences can the idea clear.

- (i) Nobody knows it better than I (do).
- (ii) It will happen as sure as death (is sure).

The phrases “as if” and “as if” or “as though” introduce adverbial clauses indicating comparison with some hypothetical circumstances.

Quirk et al (1980) remark that, in some cases the addition of the phrases “as if” or “as though” with the present gives the meaning of factual expression (755). The sentence below might make idea clear.

- (i) He looks as if he is sick: fetch the doctor.

In Maithili grammar only the adverbial clause of manner is described by Yadav (1997:364). Adverbial clauses of manner are introduced by “jena” (as) or “jahina” (exactly as):

- (i) kam kar jena kahne ch-al –iauk.

‘Do the work as I had instructed.’

- (ii) la an-o jena kahne ch-al-iauk.

‘Take it always as I had instructed.’

- (iii) la an-o jahina mallik kah-al –khunh.

‘Fetch it exactly as the master said.’

According to Yadav, certain manner clause in Maithili may also be paraphrased as relative –correlative clauses:

- (i) ohina la-o jena kaha-ne ch-al –iauk.

‘Bring it in exactly the way I had instructed.’

If there is “dought” or “unreality “, an optative mood is used:

- (i) o ena baj-laith jena ham-ra nai chihne ho-ith.

‘He spoke (in such away) as if he didn’t recognize me.’

- (i) o ena ch-alaith aich jena o aanhar chaith.

‘He walked (in such a way) as if he is a blind.’

In this way, we see that the adverbial clauses denoting manner are introduced by correlative conjunctions in Maithili language unlike in English.

2.2.1.8. Adverbial clauses of concession

In English language, the classes of concession are introduced chiefly by “though” or its more formal variant “although”. Quirk and Greenbaum (1990) show some other conjunctions as “while”, “where as” (chiefly formal), “even if” and occasionally “if” (325).

The use of these conjunctions can be studied from the following sentences.

- (i) No goals were scored, though it was an exciting game.
- (ii) Although I enjoyed myself, I was glad to come home.
- (iii) Where as John seems rather stupid, his brother is clever.
- (iv) Even if you dislike music, you would enjoy this concert.
- (v) If he's poor, at least he's honest.

The correlative sequence “whether (-----) or ----” is a means of coordinating two subordinate clauses, combining conditional meaning with disjunctive sense. The following sentences prove this statement:

- (i) Whether they beat us or we beat them we'll celebrate tonight.
- (ii) Whether or not he finds a job in New York, he's moving there.

The sentences combined with the conjunctions like “whoever”, “whatever”, etc, indicate free choices from among any number of conditions. Such adverbial clauses have been discussed under the sub topic of “universal conditional concession clauses by Quirk and Greenbaum (1990:326).

Similarly the sentences with conjunctions like “Whether (--) or --” have been discussed under the sub- topic “ Alternations conditional-concession clauses” by them (326), In this way Quirk and Greenbaum classify the concessive clauses into two types :(a) Universal conditional concession clauses, and (b) Alternative conditional concession clauses.

In Maithili language, adverbial clauses of contrast known as Absolute clauses. Absolute clauses are formed by adding the conjunctive/absolute particle ka to the verb stem of the subordinate clause. Absolute clauses convey a number of different meanings which are illustrated below (Yadav 1997:372):

Temporal sequence

- (i) jan jalkai kha ka æ-l.
‘Having eaten the breakfast, the labors came.’
- (ii) bauwa pair ka ghar æ-l .
‘Finishing study , the boy came to home .’
- (iii) radha nah ka khana khelak.
‘Having bathed Radha ate her meal.’

Manner

- (i) nanu sab sa hais ka gap kar-ait chaith.
Nanu talks to everyone pleasantly.’
- ii) ham kainkhij ka papa ke patia leli.
‘I convinced my father by crying piteously.’

Concessive

- sidharth doso bha ka ham-ra sa jhagra kae –lak.
‘Shidharth quarreled with me even though he was my friend.’
- (ii) raju khao ka phero khaelkai.
‘Raju ate even though he had eaten.’
- (iv) damar ham-ra dekhi-o ka nai tok-lainh.
‘Damar did not speak to me.’

Causal

sita dub ka mair gel-aik.

‘Sita died of drowning.’

o jahar kha kha-ka mair gel-aik.

‘He died of eating poison.’

2.2.1.9 Adverbial clauses of Manner

Quirk et al (1980) indicate that there are major and minor kinds of adverbial clauses. They say “Amongst minor kinds of adverbial clause, four may be mentioned: those of manner, comparison, proportion and preference.” (754). It has already been mentioned under the sub topic ADVERBIAL CLAUSES OF MANNER and COMPARISON, that clauses of manner are introduced by “as”, (or often, in sub - standard English, by “how”) (ibid). The research writer, therefore, does not think it is necessary to make a separate study for it any more now.

2.2.1.10 Adverbial clauses of proportion

In relation to the adverbial clauses of proportion, Quirk et al (1980) write that “proportional clauses are an extension of the category of Adverbial clauses of comparison the proportional clauses express a ‘proportionality ‘or equivalence of tendency or degree between two circumstances like other clauses of comparison just illustrate the proportional clauses may be introduced by as (with or without the formal matching correlative form so): “(755). The structures of adverbial clauses denoting proportion can be shown and discussed as follows:

- (i) As time went on, (so) their hopes began to wane.
- (ii) As the lane got narrower, (so) the overhanging branches made it more difficult for us to keep right of quarry.

Thus the structure of clauses seem to be:

As +sub-clauses +(so) +main clause.

The second proportionality could also be expressed in another form, in which clauses are introduced – by correlative items “ the—the”.

- (i) The narrower the lane got, the more difficult the overhanging branches made it for us to keep right of our quarry.

2.2.1.11 Clauses of preference

Stated by Quirk et al (1980 &1985), the conjunctions of preferences in English are “rather than” and sooner than” and they deserve mention as the only subordinators introducing a bare infinitive clause e.g.

- (i) Rather than /sooner than travel by air.

I ‘d prefer a week on a big liner.

2.3 Kinds of Adverbial Clauses on the Basis of Verb

On the basis of the verb, the adverbial clauses can be classified into three types. They are:

- i) Finite adverbial clauses
- ii) Non-finite adverbial clauses and
- iii) Verbless adverbial clauses

2.3.1 Non-finite and Verbless Adverbial Clauses

Previously, we discussed the finite adverbial clauses, and now we will discuss the non-finite adverbial clauses and verbless clauses. As it is structurally and semantically obvious that in a finite adverbial clause, the forms of the verb is finite that is verb+ s/es, is am/ are, was/were, has/have etc. where as in a non-finite adverbial clause, the form of the verb is non-finite, that is infinitive, and both present and part participle eg. To be honest, being read, having finished/ written/ cleared etc. on the contrary a verbless adverbial clause does not have its verb.

In this sub-chapter, the comparative study of the non-finite adverbial clauses both in Maithili and English will be carried out first and the study of the verbless clauses will be carried out later. Both structural as well as functional study will also be made simultaneously.

2.3.1.1 Non-Finite Clauses

It has already been mentioned that non-finite clauses contain non-finite verbs. Laying emphasis upon the construction of the verbs in English clauses of non-finite verbal construction (...) serve to distinguish four classes non-finite clause (722). These four classes of non-finite classes are:

- i) Infinitive with 'to'
- ii) Infinitive without 'to'
- iii) 'ing' participle
- iv) 'ed' participle

Now the grammarians or linguists have coined a new term "CONVERB" for grouping the participles, 'ing' participle and 'ed' participle. They also group the former two types, into one group "INFINITIVES".

In terms of presence or absence of the verb, Yogendra Prasad Yadava (2004) has divided the classes into two groups as (1) verbal and (2) verbless. He divides these verbal classes into (i) finite clause and (ii) non-finite clause. He further divides the non-finite clauses into two types: these two types are (a) infinitives (b) participles. The infinitives are also known as (i) to infinitives and (ii) bare infinitives, and the participles are called the present participle (v-ing) and past participle (v ed) (208-9).

It is also obvious that there non-finite adverbial clauses in Maithili language functioning in different ways. However, in Maithili language, all the non-finite adverbial clauses function as converbal clauses, (the new term coined by the modern

linguists or grammarians). Either by themselves or by being combined with some post-position so unlike English infinitival clauses, Maithili infinitival clauses are converbal clauses. The Maithili converbal clauses are different types as stated by Yadav (1997: 372). They are as that are shown below:

- i) Temporal sequence
- ii) Manner
- iii) Concessive
- iv) Causal etc.

First of all the infinitival and participial clauses in English will be discussed. Then the participle clauses or the converbal clauses in Maithili will be discussed turn by turn. On the basis of the analysis made by Yadav, therefore, no separate study of these converbs will be made later.

2.3.1.2 To Infinitive Clauses

In English, the to-infinitive clauses introduced by the verb marked by “to + root”. The infinitive is not marked for tense, person and mood. The infinitive clause in Maithili has the verb marked by the suffix “a or o” and its oblique form “-ab” attached to the stem. The infinitive clauses function as nominal as well as adverbial clauses. As this section is on account of the non-infinitive clauses, the focus of the study will be laid on the ‘to-infinitival clause’ as the adverbial clause. The to infinitive adverbial clause in English are introduced by “to+stem” of a “to”; “in order to”, “as to”, etc. The to-infinitive adverbial clauses are used to express purpose in both language, Maithili and English. Therefore, these clauses function as purposive clauses that show the purpose of the action of the main clause. Such clauses are used with subject or without subject (Quirk et al. 1980: 723).

a) With Subject

i) The best thing would be for you to tell everybody. (English)

sub gota ke batadelah sa nai aha ke la giniman hoit.

b) Without Subject

i) The best thing would be to tell everybody (English)

sab jana ke bataula sa hi baniha hoit.

ii) Ram went to Janakpur to/ in order to join the campus.

kyaampas me bharti hualal ram janakpur disan gel.

2.3.1.3 Infinitive Without “to”

It has already been stated that the infinitives either with “to” or without “to” are used to refer to the purposive adverbial clauses. The infinitive adverbial clauses without “to” are also called “bare infinitive clauses”. They can also be used with or without the subject for example:

a) With Subject

Rather than Dipak do it I’d prefer to give the job to Kalapana. (English)

dipak kare sa baniya ham e kam kalpana ke deba hamra acha lagat. (Maithili)

b) Without Subject

All I did was hit him on the head.

ham esab kailau kiakta okra kaparpar marake chal.

All the infinitive adverbial clauses in the above sentences have described the purpose of the actions. The clause “to tell everybody” introduces the purpose of Ram’s action of “going to Janakpur”. The bare infinitive clause “hit him on the head”, introduces the purpose of the action verb.

2.3.1.4 The “-ing” Participle

Among the four non-finite clauses the “-ing” participle clauses are also the important clauses in English languages. According to Quirk et al (1980: 723), such clauses can also be used with subject or without subject.

a) With subject

Her aunt having left the room, I declared, I declared my passionate love for Celia.

(English)

okar kaki ghar chorlake bad, hum siliya ke lagi upan prem ke bat keli. (Maithili)

b) Without Subject

Leaving the room, he tripped on over the mat. (English)

ghar chodka, o gonair par daurlak. (Maithili)

2.3.1.5 The “ed” Participle

In English language, there is another form of participle that is the past participle or the “-ed participle” ! like the “-ing participle” also plays an important role in forming structure of the non-finite adverbial clauses in English language.

According to Quirk et al (1980) this type also can be introduced with inclusion or the exclusion of the subject, eg.

a) With Subject

We left the room and went home, the job finished. (English)

hokari khatam velake bad hamsab dera choirka ghar chailgelau.

b) Without Subject

Covered with confusion, I left the room. (English)

dodharme pairka, ham dera choir deli. (Maithili)

Sinclair (1994) shows that there is a “being+past participle” form of an adverbial.

i) Anton being dead, the whole affair must now be laid before colonel Brawne.

The English converbs function in two ways. The –ing form performs as the simultaneous function of the converbs whereas the having +ed form functions as the sequential converbs. The converb is said to be simultaneous if the action denoted by the converbs (-ing) happens almost at the same time as that of the matrix clause. The study of the examples given by Quirk et al (1980) shows that they are not only sequential but regulative, because in the sentence, we left the room and went home the job finished. The speaker’s action of departing of the room and going home seems to be the result of the finishing of his job. In terms of semantic roles of adverbial clauses, it is therefore, to be noticed that such clauses have a deficiency of the complication of meaning. It is also in this context, stated by Quirk et al. (1985) in this way, “semantic analysis of the adverbial clauses is complicated by the fact that many subordinators introduce clauses with different meaning...” (1077).

2.3.1.6 Verbless Clauses

Regarding the verbless clauses Quirk et al (1980) opine, the verbless clause, apart from being verbless, is also (like the non-finite clause) commonly subject less; it therefore, takes the ellipsis of clause elements one stage further than the non-finite clause. Once again, the omitted finite verb can generally be assumed to a form of the verb BF, and the subject when omitted can be treated as recoverable from context” (725).

We can illustrate the sentences to prove the statement as follows:

i) Whether right or wrong, he always comes off worst in argument.

The clause can be rewritten thus: whether he is right or wrong.

ii) One should avoid taking a trip abroad in August where possible. The clause can be rewritten thus: “where it is possible.”

Besides this Quirk et al (1980) further say “verb-less clauses can also, on occasion, be treated as reductions of non-finite clauses” (725). For example:

i) Too nervous to reply, he started at the floor.

The clauses can be rewritten as “being too nervous”. Here the verbless clause itself contains a non-finite clause, “to reply”. It is to be noticed that when the subject is already there, it is the verb alone that has to be supplied (726).

For example:

i) Seventy three people have been drowned in the area, many of them children.

The clause “many of them children” can be rewritten, “many of them being children.”

But as with participle clause, the subject is often introduced by “with” !

For example:

i) With the tree now tall, we get more shade.

The clause can be extended like “with the tree grown/ growing tall”. The verbless “grown” or “growing” are elliptical in English.

On account of the number of structures of the verbless clauses, Quirk et al (1980) remark that as the verbless clause is basically an elliptical intensive verb clause, that is, type SVC or SVA. The variations of the verbless adverbial clauses are somewhat limited (726).

The following are among possible combinations given by them, eg.

i) Suddenly the creature reared up on its hind legs behind the bars teeth bared, jaws

wide upon and started to scratch. S [Vintem] Cs

ii) The marched briskly up the slope. The blanket across her shoulder. S [Vintem]

iii) When ripe these apples will be delicious. Sub (SV intem) Cs

iv) While at college, he was a prominent member of dramatic society. Sub [SV Intem]

A

v) His gace traveled round, irresolute. [Sv intem] Cs

In Maithili language the verb should be included in the clauses that are called verbless clauses in the English language.

By analyzing the sentences given by Quirk et al (1980) the structures of verbless clauses in English language can be summarized in the following ways:

i) S [v intem] Cs ii) S [v intem] A, (iii) Sub (S vintem)

iv) Sub (Sv intem) A v) [Sv intem] Cs

Leech and Svartic (1988: 214) have also given the structures of the adverbial clauses in a simple manner that the common readers also can understand.

It is to be considered that when the verbless clauses becomes reduced to its bare minimum of a single complement or adverbial, however, it may not be easy to distinguish from an appositional construction, non-restrictive relative clause, or an adverbial which is a direct constituent of the main clause.

2.4 Con-Verbal Clauses

The tern 'con-verb' is made up of two morphemes they are 'con' and 'verb'. The first morpheme 'con' seems to be the short form of 'conjunction' and the second morpheme is itself clear that it is a 'verb'. Therefore, it is obvious for us from the facts that the combination of the two morphemes is the con-verb. Then, from the point of view of its structure, we can infer that the word 'con-verb' can function both as a verb and a conjunction. It has also been proved from the experience that it can function as a sub-ordination in a non-finite adverbial clause. One of the modern linguists Noonan (1999) defines the con-verb thus, "the verbal noun, in association with an appropriate case critic, can also be used for adverbial subordination, but

adverbial sub-ordination can also be accomplished by means of a set of specialized non-finite form referred to a con-verb” (401).

The definition shows that con-verbs are verbal conjunctive elements and are used to join clauses. They display the function of adverbials in a complex sentences.

The studies made on the con-verbs till now have indicated that and a con-verb is the participial form of the verb in an adverbial clause which can function both as a conjunctive and as a non-finite verb. Therefore, not a conjunction is used to join the con-verbal clauses to the matrix clause. About the features of the con-verbal clause, Yadava points out the following three features:

- i) It must have a participial form a verb.
- ii) It must be an adverbial clause, and
- iii) There is no conjunction to join the sub-clause to the main clauses as the con-verb itself functions as a conjunction.

In connection with the con-verbs in English language some linguists show two verb forms which can function as con-verbs. These two forms are:

- i) Present participle or v-ing, eg. Sitting, speaking, etc.
- ii) Perfect participle or the having+v-ed eg. having eaten, having spoken, etc.

Some grammarians call this “v-ed” form as “v-en” form also because it is the perfect form “v3” form of the verb. However, it has been used as “having+v-ed” form for our convenience.

Some linguists have shown only two forms but Quirk et al (1980: 724-6) & (1985 1120-7) have illustrated more in the context of the explanation of finite non-finite and verbless clauses.

2.4.1 Kinds of con-Verbal Clauses

There are two kinds of con-verbal clauses in English. They are: the present participle and the perfect participle.

3.4.1.1 The Present Participle

The “ing” form functions as the simultaneous converb whereas the “having +ed” form functions as the sequential converb. The clause is said to be simultaneous if the action denoted by the converb “ing” happens almost at the same time as that of the matrix clause. For example:

i) Hari ate his food sitting on the chair.

In this example, the two actions of “eating” and sitting are occurring almost at the same time. The English verbs “eating” and “sitting” refer to the progressive actions. We in Maithili language use the “-ka/ke” form that is “baithaka” here for “sitting”.

2.4.1.2 The Perfect Participle or the Having +ed Form

Similarly, the converb becomes sequential if the action in the sub-clause happens before the action in the principle clause happens. For example:

i) Having washed his clothes, Hari went home.

In some circumstances, the past participle or the “v-ed” form also conjunctions as a converb. For example:

Lady Clare went to Lord Ronald following by the doe.

This sentence seems to contain “being + v3” form instead of “v3” form, that Quirk et al (1980) have already stated in the verbless clause. Here the “being + v3” form gives the meaning of passive voice. For example, in this above sentences, the clause can be rewritten as “Lady Clare was following by the doe”. Therefore, we can say that the action are simultaneous but not sequential. So the next sub-title or

category in this regard should be developed. Thus we can the three form forms as in the following ways:

- i) The present participle or the v-ing form. (At the being+ v-ed form).
- ii) The perfect participle or v-ed form.

2.5 Converbs in Maithili

According to Yadava, most of the South Asian languages (including Indo-Aryan, Tibeto-Burman, Dravidian and Austric language) typically employ non-finite clauses instead of finite clauses to realize clause linkage (cf. Masica 1976).

Yadava has tried to analyze sequential converbal construction in Maithili into three ways. They are morphologically, semantically and syntactically through typological perspectives.

2.5.1 The Morphology of Sequential Converbs

The sequential converb in Maithili is “-ka/ -ke” which follows the verb stem:

Snaan ka-ka/-ke khaa-it ch-aith.

‘Having taken bath, he eats.’

2.5.2 The Semantics of Sequential Converb

Semantically, Maithili, Nepali and Hindi employ sequential converbal constructions, apart from simultaneous converbal construction. The sequential converb basically refers to ‘anteriority’ (to use Givon’s term), i.e. the event occurring immediately prior to the event encode in the following verb, which may be another sequential converb or a finite verb in the matrix clause:

khanna khaa-ka/ ke sab aadmi suit rah-al.

‘Having eaten meal, everyone went to sleep.’

2.5.3 The Syntax of Sequential Converb

2.5.3.1 Position

A sequential converb clause is normally joined to the left of the matrix clause in Maithili. They can be also postponed in marked constructions as a discourse strategy to express after thought or focus:

Sab aadmi suit rahal khanna khaa-ka/ ke.

‘All had slept after eating.’

2.5.3.2 The Scope of TAM

The tense and mood of the matrix verb have broad scope which extends to the sequential verb: consider the following Maithili example in which the sequential verb agrees with the simple past tense in the matrix verb:

Mohan chitthi likh-ka daak me giraulak.

In this sentence the tense of equential converbs matches with the past tense of the verbs in the matrix clause.

2.5.3.3 The Scope of Negation and Question

In sequential converbal constructions both negation and question have narrow scope; i.e. their scope remains restricted to the matrix clause and do not extend to sequential converbal constructions:

o snaan ka ke bhojan nahi kaelak.

‘Having taken bath, he did not eat.’

o snaan ka ke bhojan kaelak (ki)?

‘Having taken bath, did he eat?’

2.5.3.4 The Subject of Sequential Converb

The subject of a sequential converb in Maithili language under consideration can be either a null NP, viz. Pro or a lexically overt NP.

a) *Pro*; ! *ghar aaib ka/ke raam, sutul.*

b) toraa kaail nahi aaib-kalke kuc kaam nahi hoyat.

2.5.3.4.1 The Null PRO

As discussed in Keenan (1975) and Mohanan (1994), one of the behavioural properties of subjecthood, widely accepted in syntactic theory, is that the controllers of obligatorily null control sites PROs in the sequential constructions are Gominative/ergative subjects. For example:

[PRO; okar baat suinke] ham-raa taumas bhel.

‘Having heard him, I got angry.’

2.5.3.4.2 The Lexically Overt Subject

As discussed in Bickel and Yadava (2002), the sequential converb in Maithili is constrained by specific type of GR.

According to Yadava, be made of certain expressions such as time whether expressions where subject identity constrain is violated.

ghar khais ke dasaadmi mairgel.

‘The house having collapsed, the ten person died.’

It is, however to be noted that lexical subjects occur only in such converbal clauses which express cause and effect relation, temporal clauses and clauses with opposite verbs. They are banned from sequential converbal clauses.

Chapter Three

A Comparative Study of Adverbial Clause in English and Maithili Languages

3.1 Introduction

This chapter aims at exploring the similarities and dissimilarities between English and Maithili languages in terms of adverbial clauses. An adverb clause is a subordinate clause which function as an adverb. It may modify some verb, adjective, or adverb in main clause. For example:

- i) Strike the iron while it is hot.
- ii) You are taller than I thought.
- iii) He ran so quickly that he soon overtook me.

In the above sentences, the italicized letters or parts present the adverbial clause. We can see that the adverbial clause ‘while it is hot’ in the first sentence qualifies the verb strike. Similarly, in the second sentence the clause “than I though” modifies the adjective “taller” in the main clause, therefore, it is also an adverbial clause.

Similarly, in Maithili language too, we have its own adverbial clauses.

eg.

- i) jakhan ham pahuclau aha nai chelau.

‘When I arrived, you were not (there).’

- ii) jabat han nai kahi aha nai khau.

‘Until I ask you, do not eat.’

Both of above sentences are examples of time of adverbial clauses in Maithili.

In Maithili language, adverbial clauses can be divided into following types: time, location, manner, reason, purpose etc. like English language.

Similarities and Dissimilarities

The similarities and dissimilarities between English and Maithili adverbial clauses can be explored basically at the level of syntax and semantics. The similarities and dissimilarities between them as follows:

Similarities in adverbial clauses:

i) On the basis of their structures, the adverbial clauses in English and Maithili have the following similarities.

a) In both languages, there are finite and non-finite adverbial clauses, eg.

(in English)

- i) The goat entered the pen, jumping. (non-finite)
- ii) Having washed his clothes, John went out. (non-finite)
- iii) He looks as if he is sick. (finite)
- iv) Nobody knows it better than I do. (finite)

(in Maithili)

- i) saansad bhelasa, O gari paulkhin. (non finite)
- ii) jate-jate kahaichi, ote-ote sab keddeau. (finite)

b) Both languages have converbial clauses, eg.

(in English)

- i) Celia ate her food, sitting on the chair.
- ii) Lady Clare went to Lord Ronald, followed by doe.
- iii) Having finished his work, Holmes went out.

(in Maithili)

- i) ramu daurte ata ael.
- ii) o bauwa ghusaikka calaia.

c) In both languages, converbal clauses are introduced by participle forms of a verb

eg.

i) Hari came here, laughing. (-ing participle)

ii) Let's go shopping. (-ing participle)

(in Maithili)

i) gaele git ke gaot? (-al participle)

ii) hunka has ait dekhala. (-ka participle)

d) The purposive clauses are introduced by the use of infinitival form of a verb. (to infinitive in English and –na in Maithili)

e) Both the languages have simple, compound and correlative subordinators, eg.

i) Simple subordinators

(in English)

after, (although, as, because, if, however, like, since, that, etc.)

(in Maithili)

jenaorjahina, tahi sa, aagu, pachu, ki, jo, ager, etc.

ii) Compound subordinators

(in English)

in that, so that, in order that, such that, except that, for all that, save that etc.

(in Maithili)

tahi karan sa, tahi karane, karan je etc.

iii) Correlative subordinators

if...then, although...yet/ nevertheless, as.....so, more/lesser/...than etc.

ohina...jena/jahina, kitak...ta, etc.

2) From the functional point of view the adverbial clause in both the languages have some similarities as stated below:

a) The adverbial clauses modify the principle clauses by denoting time, place, manner, reason, etc. eg.

(in English)

- i) Strike the iron while it is hot. (time)
- ii) He ran so quickly that he soon overtook me. (manner)
- iii) Although he is poor, he is honest. (contrast)

(in Maithili)

- i) gari chuit gel tahisa ah iota raih gelau.
'I missed the train, due to that reason I stayed at your place.'
- ii) la jo jena kahne chaliauk. (manner)
'Take it away as I had instructed.'
- iii) ja pain parat ta rain jab. (condition)

'If it rains, please stay.'

b) The converbial clauses also function as adverbial clauses in both languages because they also modify the principle clause, eg.

- i) The girl went there crawling. (English)
- ii) khaka/ ke jaao (Maithili)

c) In both languages one type of adverbial clause does not limit its meaning in its narrow area, but it has its coverage of different meaning according to the context, eg.

- i) jata maaya devike mandir chal, ohiya gautam budha janmal chal.
'Gautam Buddha was born in the place where there is the temple of Maya Devi.'

ii) jata akhan baabaree masjid chai, tahija raam janaki ke mandir chal.

'The temple of Ram Janaki was in the place where there is now the Babari Mosque.'

The first sentence gives the meaning of location and time. Similarly, the second sentence gives the meaning of time and contrast although the structure is almost similar to the first sentence.

Differences in Adverbial Clauses

i) From the structural and functional points of views, the adverbial clauses have the following different characteristics between these two languages.

a) The adverbial clauses in Maithili normally appear before or in between the main clause but in English, the clause can occur initially, medially (rare) or finally. eg.

(in English)

i) If you want to succeed, you should work hard.

ii) He behaves me as if I am a stranger.

iii) As time went on, (so) their hopes began to wane.

iv) I left early to catch the train,

v) Suddenly the creature reared up on its hind legs behind the bars teeth bared, jaws wide open, and started to scratch.

(in Maithili)

i) o chaura skul nai gel kiak ta okra bokhar chal.

ii) *bauwa, ghusai k-ka, chahal.*

b) Sometimes Maithili non-finite adverbial clauses can be changed into finite clauses in English after translation. For example:

i) uth-ka praathanaa karu (non-finite)

‘stand up and pray.’ (finite)

ii) hamar janam ke ghar chaacha. (non-finite)

‘This is the house where I was born. (finite)

When we suppose he subject, the plural form of the verb is used. In this sense, the verb in English has been used as a finite verb. The converb 'janamke' has been translated as "was born" in which the "be" verb has been used in the past tense in the singular form "was", that is the finite verb.

There only two types of converbs (ing) and having (-ed) in English, but in Maithili there are five basic, two complex and many other derivative converbs.

c) The verbless clauses in English can not be translated into Maithili without a verb, eg.

i) When ripe, these apples will be delicious.

pakal abasthame i seausab swadist hoit.

ii) With the tree now tall, we get more shade.

gach namhar bhelasa, apnasab besi chahair paeb.

d) Sometimes the single adverbs of English give the meaning of two word phrases containing "noun+converb" or "adjective+converb" in the Maithili language, eg.

i) Noisily- halla ka-ka

ii) Carefully- hosiya bhaka/ ke

iii) Silently= shaant bhaka/ ke

iv) gently= bhaladmi bha-ka/ ke

e) The complex converbs of the Maithili language can also be translated into a single word into English, eg.

i) o dulhin kainte-kainte apan ghar gelkhin. (Maithili)

'The bride went to her (groom's) house, weeping.' (English)

ii) paidhate thaikgelau.

'We got tired of reading.'

f) The complex converbs in Maithili language can be translated into “while clauses” in the English language, eg.

i) Saddam was announced the capital punishment while he was in prison. (English)

jelme hoitekal saddam ke mrityu danda sunail gel. (Maithili)

g) In Maithili, purposive clauses are converbal clauses but in English they are not converbal clauses. For example:

He bought a machine to sew clothes (English)

‘O kapra siabala masin kinlaith.’ (Maithili)

Chapter-Four

Summary and Conclusion

Summary

This chapter aims at summarizing the whole thesis and presenting a brief conclusion of it. The introductory chapter of the present thesis had shed light on the all the issues to be dealt in the whole thesis. It has introduced both English and Maithili languages along with their importance and historical facts. It has given an outline of the whole thesis giving information about objectives of the study, the methodology, the related literature review, the limitation of the study and organization of the whole study.

The second chapter which is one of the focal point of this thesis deals with the adverbial clauses in English and Maithili. This chapter also talks about converbs in English and Maithili languages. This chapter has made syntactic analysis of the adverbial clauses in English and Maithili language. This chapter also dealt with the kinds and the meaning of the adverbial clauses in detail in both languages.

The third chapter which is also a focal point of this thesis has founded out some similarities and dissimilarities in English and Maithili languages in terms of adverbial clauses.

Since Maithili and English two different languages, the dissimilarities between them in the terms of structural and functional points of views are natural. This chapter has presented some similarities and dissimilarities between the in terms of the adverbial clauses.

Conclusion

The present research has incorporated the major findings regarding similarities and differences between English and Maithili adverbial clauses. English and Maithili,

in spite of being two different languages, are more similar at the semantic level.

However, they are different at syntactic level.

Both English and Maithili adverbial clauses of different types of time, place, manner show when, where and how respectively. In both languages, adverbial clauses modify the sentence, verb, adverb and adjective.

The differences that lie in English and Maithili adverbial clauses is that the adverbial clauses in Maithili normally appear before in between the main clauses but in English, the clauses can occur initially, medially (rare) or finally.

We find many similarities and differences, so we can not 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 habitation until he or she tries to learn that language. Target language has differences though have many 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 and English speaker to learn Maithli language.

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