TRIBHUVAN UNIVERSITY

Non - Finite Clauses in English and Maithili: A Contrastive Study

A Thesis Submitted to the Central Department of English

in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Degree of

Master of Arts in English

BY

Kiran Kumari Yadav

Central Department of English

Tribhuvan University, Kirtipur

2009

LETTER OF RECOMMENDATION

Date: ---------------

This dissertation paper entitled "Non-finite clauses in English and Maithili: A Contrastive study" has been prepared by Miss Kiran Kumari Yadav under my supervision in partial fulfillment of the requirements of the Master's Degree in English. I recommend this study to the expert committee for approval.

Prof. Dr. Yogendra Prasad Yadava

Central Department of Linguistics

Tribhuvan University

Kathmandu, Nepal

TRIBHUVAN UNIVERSITY

Faculty of Humanities and Social Science

Approval Letter

This thesis entitled **Non-finite Clauses in English and Maithili: A Contrastive Study** by Miss Kiran Kumari Yadav, has been approved by the undersigned members of the research committee.

Members of Research Committee

_____   _____

                                                                                            Internal Examiner

_____   _____

                                                                                            External Examiner

_____   _____

                                                                                            Head

                                                                                Central Department of English

                                                                                    Tribhuvan University

                                                                                    Kirtipur, Kathmandu

                                                                                Date: _____

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

Writing this thesis gave me a very new experience in my academic life. To accomplish this thesis, I have taken a good deal of help, suggestion and guidance from my teachers, colleagues, relatives and others. For that, I am heavily indebted to them all but I have no words to express my heartfelt gratitude.

First of all, I would like to extend my eternal gratitude to Prof. Dr. Yogendra Prasad Yadava, the former Head, Central Department of Linguistics, who, inspite of his busy time, provided me not only time but also valuable materials necessary suggestions in the development of this thesis. I am indebted to Prof. Yadava, whose inspiration encouragement, enforcement and feedback proved a boon to me for the preparation of this thesis.

I am greatful to Dr. Krishna Chandra Sharma, Head, Central Department of English, for allowing me to with the present.

I must thank Mr. Rajesh (my brother) for his brilliant computer typing for the preparation of this dissertation.

Finally, I express my deep gratitude to my late grandfather Bishnath Yadav. My parents Subash Chandra Yadav (father), Devsunair Devi Yadav (mother), Brothers (Rajesh and Rakesh),Sister Pratima (Simpy) Yadav and other family members uncle Shree Prasad,(Bharat, Sita, Prakash, Om, Manoj, Dipak, Alku)Yadav and others whose incessant blessings and support and the sole source of inspiration for me to have this position. I have no words to express my sense of gratitude to my parents who have given me all that I have. I would thank my parents for their patience and tolerance during my absence.

Kiran Kumari Yadav

ABSTRACT

Maithili belongs to the Eastern subgroups of the Indo-Aryan language group within the Indo-Iranian branch of Indo-European Family. Maithili forms a subgroup with BHOJPORI and Magahi and is linguistically closer to ASSAMESE, BANGLA, and ORIYA than to its more contiguous languages, namely HINDI, Gujrati or Marathi and NEPALI, which belong to the central and western subgroups of Indo-Aryan, respectively. Maithili has a large speech community with a rich literacy heritage, the history of Maithili literature is more than an old millennium to the present situation. In terms of vocabulary, Maithili stands close Bengali and Hindi. Words are derived mostly from common sources.

On the other hand English is an international language which is a common langua franca in most parts of the world. It has played a crucial role in an international communication of thoughts, ideas and sentiments. It is spoken as a first, second and foreign language. This work entitled "Non-Finite Clauses in English and Maithili: A Contrastive Study" attempts to describe the clause structures in both languages along with their kinds, functions and uses.

TABLES OF CONTENT

Work Cited   68-60

ABBREVIATIONS

*	:	Asterisk (it indicates an unacceptable form/expression)			
1	:	First person	NIT	:	Infinitive
2	:	Second person	NP	:	Noun Phrase
3	:	Third person	OPT	:	Optative
ACC	:	Accusative	PP	:	Postpositional phrase
AUX	:	Auxiliary	PRES	:	Present tense
COND	:	Conditional Mood	PRESPCPL:		present participle
CONV	:	Converb	PROG	:	Progressive
DAT	:	Dative	PST	:	past tense
Do	:	Direct Object	PSTPCPL	:	Past participle
e.g	:	For examples	PT	:	Past Tense
EMPH	:	Emphatic Marker	S	:	Subject
FUT	:	Future	SEQ	:	Sequential
GENIT	:	Genitive	SG	:	Singular
GER +INF	:	Gerundial infinitive	TNS	:	Tense
GER	:	Gerundial	V	:	Verb
H	:	Honorific			
IMP	:	Imperative			
IMPERF	:	Imperfective aspect			
INF	:	Infinitive			
N	:	Noun			
NEG	:	Negative			
NH	:	Non-honorific			

CHAPTER – I

INTRODUCTION

1.1 English language in language

Human being is the supreme creature of the world. It is claimed not because of its highest population but because of its uniqueness in itself and in different aspects. Out of the many unique aspects, language is the most striking one and said to be unique for human being because no other species in the world has got this property. So, linguistic use of the term 'language' for human being and Animal communication for Animals. It makes human beings distinct from other creatures.

Language is the special gift that all normal human beings acquire and it is the greatest accomplishment of human civilization. It is always present in human life. Language has been defined as a voluntary vocal system of human communication, which is the most widely used as means of communication through which humans beings communicate or express their ideas, feelings, emotions, desires to fulfill their needs. It is unique, dynamic and has open system. Language is the medium which is used by human beings to think about of political, social, academic, nation building, creation, artistic and several other issues. Language has the capacity that distinguishes human beings from the other creatures.

Etymologically, the word 'language' comes from "lingua" which literally means 'tongue' in Latin. 'Lingua' was modified into 'langue' and then 'language' in French and then came into English in the 13th century. The English people further modified it into 'Language'. According to Noam Chomsky, "*Language is the innate capacity of native speakers to understand form grammatical sentences*". As a means of communication, language is also a means by which we create, maintain, control,

change and preserve all the other social intuitions. Language plays a vital and crucial role in our daily life.

English is an international language. It celebrates the most prestigious status in the world and is regarded as a standard language. It is being taught and learnt as a foreign language with great enthusiasm in many countries. In most of the countries, it is emerging as a chief foreign language in schools often displacing other language. Nearly about 80% of the world's population use this language. Due to its largest vocabulary and richest in its literature, most of the significant works of world are found in the English language. It serves the status of an International Lingua Franca and one of the official languages offered by UN. It is a common lingua franca among the speakers of many languages of the world. Probably being the native language of so many people it is practiced, taught and learnt as a first, second and foreign language with a great enthusiasm in almost all parts of world.

The English language has changed one in five of the worlds population speaks English. Approximately 375 million people speak English as their first language and remaining people speak English as their second language. English language is used in various sectors like business, pop music, sports, academic, conferences, advertising, travel, news as well as science and technology. It is believed that more than 80 percent of the information stored in the world's computer and 85 percent of internet home pages and English is the language of 68% web users "Encarta World English Dictionary" (201).

After the visit of the Prime Minister Jung Bahadur Rana to England, Durbar high school in 1989A.D at "Dakh chowk" in Thapathali Durbar. It was the first English school to teach the English language in Nepal "English in Nepalese Education"(3). In the early days, only the Rana's children were allowed to get English

education whereas others can never think of it. The importance of education spread gradually all around the world with the development of time. It is used for the promotion of education system and tourism centers of Nepal. Now-a-days it is taught as a compulsory subject right from Grade Four to Bachelor's level and now-a-days upto Master's level ''A Course in General English" (55).Thus, the importance of English seems omnipresent in Nepal and plays a vital role in the modernization process in Nepal.

1. 2 Maithili as Language of Nepal

Maithili is one of the second largest languages of Nepal, mainly spoken in the eastern and northern regions of Nepal known as the Terai and the Bihar state of India. According to the "Population Monograph of Nepal vol.1 central Bureau of statistics'' (CBS 2003) HMG. Nepal, Maithili is the mother tongue of around 2797582 (12.30%) people of total population of Nepal. Like other Indo-Aryan languages, Maithili is believed to have evolved from Vedic and Classical SANSKRIT through several intermediate stages of Magadhi Prakit, Proto-Maithili and Apabhramshas. It emerged as a distinct modern Indo-Aryan language between 1000 and 1200 A.D. The most famous Maithili writer is Vidyapati Thakur, popularly known as Mahakavi Vidhyapati. Apart from being a great Sanskrit writer, he composed melodious poems in Maithili, named Vidyapati, Pandavali which mainly deals with the love between Radha and Krishna. It is an anthology of poems that has made him popular and immortal to the present day. Maithili also flourished as a court language in the Kathmandu valley during Malla period. Several literary works (especially dramas and songs) and inscriptions in Maithili are preserved in the National Archives in Kathmandu.

The people of the terai region of Nepal generally speak more than two languages at their command. They understand Bhojpuri, Nepali, Hindi, Maithili, 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 its name implies, Maithili is properly spoken, the language of Mithila, and the pre-historic 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 Mazuffarpur districts of Bihar, India.

Maithili belongs to the Eastern sub-groups of the Indo-Aryans group within the Indo-Iranian branch of the European language family. It forms subgroups with Bhojpuri and Magahi and is linguistically close to Assamese, Bangla and Oriya than to its more contiguous language, namely, Hindi and Nepali which belongs to central and western sub-group of Indo-Aryan respectively.

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

Previously, Maithili had its own script, called Maithilakshar or Trihuta, which originated from Br hmi (of the third century B.C) via the proto-Bengali script and is similar to the modern Bengali and Oriya writing system. Besides the M ithil kshar script, the kaithi script was also used by K yashtha (belonging to a caste of writers and clerks) especially in keeping written records at governments and private levels.

These two scripts are now almost abandoned for the sake of easy in learnability and printing (and also perhaps under the influence of Hindi writing system), they have been gradually replaced by the Devanagari script. It is the most widely used in for its popularity and for the purpose of writing, using computer and other printing techniques writing Hindi, Nepali and some other languages.

In Nepal, the students of T.U can study Maithili as their major subject and they can go for higher studies in the same discipline. For the total care of students and researchers of the Maithili language, the government of Nepal has made the provision of introducing mother tongue of students in the primary schools and a separate Central Department in Tribhuvan University. In both Nepal and India, Maithili enjoys a good position. Both PENS (poets, Essayist, Novelists) and Sathiya Academy have recognized as the 16th largest language of India, Maithili as an eastern Indo-Aryan language, today however, it is recognized as a distinct language and taught as such in Tribhuvan University of Nepal as well as Indian Universities.

1.3 Statement of problem

English and Maithili languages share many Similarities and Differences. This study has been undertaken to find out those Similarities and Differences.
For example:

    (a) to walk is healthy.

    (b) tahalnai swasthakar hoit aich.

1.4 Hypothesis

Though both languages English and Maithili have developed from the same Indo-European family, there are some similarities and differences in terms of their linguistic principles parameters and non-finite clause patterns. Here we intend to

substantiate with the Maithili data, claims made about the parameters of non-finite clauses across the world's languages.

1.5 Objectives of the Research

Less research has been done on non-finite clauses in Maithili so far. The major objectives of this study are as follows.

1. To study and analyze the non-finite clauses structures of Maithili and English.

2. To find out areas shared by the two languages with respect to their structures.

3. To identify areas of difficulty in learning English clauses for Maithili speaking learners and vice-versa.

4. To discover areas of differences in connection with non-finite clauses.

5. To identify areas of difficulty in learning English non-finite clauses for Maithili speaking learners and vice versa.

1.6 Importance of Grammar

The term 'Grammar' has been derived from a Greek word 'Grammatik a' or 'Grammatik a Techne' which means 'The art of writing'. Grammar is the rules in a language for changing the form of words and combining them into a sentence. Richards etal (1999:161) defines "grammar as a description of the structures of a language and the way in which linguistic units such as words and phrases are combined to produce sentence in the language". Similarly Funk and Wagnall's (1960:1064) defines grammar as "the science that treats of the principles that govern the correct use of language in either oral or written form".

Grammar is a mechanism of a language to produce correct sentences according to the rules of the languages. In other words learning language is learning the rules of language. Grammar teaches us to manipulate a language in speech and writing. The aim of grammar is to help the learners to choose structures which accurately express

the meanings they want to create. In this way, grammar is a means to prove accuracy in the use of language.

The importance of grammar has also been focused by great scholar Somerset Maugham as he says 'It is necessary to know grammar and it is better to write grammar but it is well to remember that grammar is common speech formulated Language is the only test'. Thus, grammar has great importance and it helps learners to improve language.

1.7 Review of Related literature

As non-finite clause is a newly developed term in both languages different researchers have tried to study different aspects and skills of English and Maithili languages: some researchers have conducted comparative study on syntactic level of English and Maithili language. The review of literature up to now can be summarized as follows.

1. In the article *'Maithili'* (2001) which is included in *'Facts about the world's language'* .Yadava discusses briefly about gender, number honoroficlty, causative verbs, clauses and case regarding Maithili language. It talks about Maithili language and its origin and history. He mainly talks about its location, family and dialects of the Maithili language. In this article he has tried to include about the number of Maithili speakers and he also discusses about other languages which are related with the Maithili language. It can help us to make efforts to preserve, protect and promote the Maithili   language.

2. Likewise, S, Jha *'Formation of Maithili language (1958)'* is a pioneering work in the field of Maithili linguistics. It covers everything of the Maithili language its phonetics, phonology, syntax and semantics. It is the most exhaustive diachronic description of Maithili language. Jha has also undertaken to trace the history of

Maithili from the Indo-Aryan period and has assigned Sanskrit etymologies to practically all forms of the Maithili language like Santhali and Munda.

3. Andrew Radford's Transformational Grammar - 'A first course' (1998) has been concerned with introducing us to the broad aims to Transformational Grammar, and with explaining some basic concepts. This book has argued in details that sentences are out of words and phrases assigned to various categories. The general aim of this book is to provide the knowledge about the different types of grammatical topics   according to Chomskyan model. In the same way, it has dealt with other phrases, clauses, the lexicon, transformation etc. It deals with non-finite clauses according to Chomskyan model.

4. Similarly 'A Reference Grammar of Maithili'(1997) by Yadav is a standard grammar of Maithili language which describes in details about the rules and various particles such as case maker, plural maker, honorific marker, post positions, non-finite forms and the verb phrases in Maithili language etc. In his book, Yadav has talked about phonology, nominals, their inflections, adjectives, verbs, adverbs, passivization, causativization and sentence types etc of the Maithili language. However some scholars have tried to study these aspects of different clauses.

  In comparison to English, some linguists have worked on the Non-Finite clauses in the Maithili language but still it needs some researches on the non-finite clauses in the Maithili language. So this study can be the guidance and helpful for the former and junior students.

1.8   Significance of the study

This study is a very interesting topic which intends to be beneficial or helpful to those who have more interest to know more about Non-finite clause structures in English and Maithili which is based on the Maithili linguistic practice in Terai districts. Although the title of this study is **Non-Finite Clauses in English and Maithili: A contrastive study**. It covers the non-finite clauses of the Maithili language which is the medium of communication of Maithili speakers around the Terai region of Nepal but it ignores its regional and social variation. Moreover, this research will be highly useful for the further researchers and translators.

1.9   Contrastive Analysis: An overview

Contrastive analysis is the comparative studies of the language. It is a branch of Applied Linguistics which compares any two languages to discover and describe the problems that the speakers of one language will have in acquiring the other. It is the scientific study of similarities and differences between languages. Contrastive study has application in finding out difficulties, problems and errors made in the learning process. James says: CA "[Contrastive analysis] has applications in predicating and diagnosing a proportion of the L2 [second language]; and in the design of testing instruments for such learners" (145).

Contrastive study can be made in different ways. There is not a single idea about which way to take. Some analysts like to make a study of the deep structure and some others of the surface structure. So, for the present purpose of this study, has been concentrated on the surface structure because the contrastive study can be well done through the surface structure. James claims: "Nowhere is there any suggestion that deep structure is to be taught" (174). He quotes Denison's remarks, "It is not the unscrambled egg [i.e. deep structure: CJ] which causes interference in L2 [second

language], it is the total scrambled leg of surface structure with the ingredients arranged precisely as they are found". (174).

The present study has been focused on the surface structures of non-finite clauses like infinitival, participial and purposive. It tries to compare the learner's first language (L1) and target language (L2) and find out similarities and differences. Comparison can be made at various linguistic levels. (I.e. phonological, grammatical and semantic) levels. Any aspects of language like tense system, sound system, can be compared and conclusion is made. Later on these findings are applied into language. There are two aspects of contrastive analysis. They are as follows.

1. **Linguistic aspect:**

It deals with the theory to find some features quite easy and some other extremely difficult. It is based on the follows facts.

(i) Language learning is a matter of habit formation.

(ii) The mind of a child at birth is a tabula - rasa (the blank sheet of paper){i.e. L1 (learner)} whereas the L2 learner mind is full of learners (L1) habits.

(iii) Language is comparable.

2. **Psychological aspect**

This aspect of contrastive analysis is also known as transfer theory. It is based on the fact that past learning affects the present learning. If it favors learning it is positive transfer. But if it hinders new learning is called negative transfer. Positive transfer indicates the facilitation whereas negative transfers mean interference "contrastive analysis" (3). CA hypothesis based on behaviorist psychology can be summarized in the following ways:-

1. Difference between the past and the present learning causes hindrance whereas the learning is facilitated by the similarity between the past learning and the present learning.

2. Hindrance leads to difficulty in learning whereas facilitation leads to ease in learning.

3. Learning difficulty, in turns leads to errors in performance whereas learning ease to errorless performance.

Contrastive analysis has two significant functions, primary and secondary function. The primary function is the predictive function whereas the secondary function explains the sources of errors committed by the secondary language learners.

1.10   Organization of the study

This study consists of five chapters. The organization will be as follows:

Chapter One   :   Introduction.

Chapter Two   :   Non-Finite Clauses in English.

Chapter Three   :   Non-Finite Clauses in Maithili.

Chapter Four   :   Similarities and Differences in Structures of Non-

                               Finite Clauses in English and Maithili.

Chapter Five   :   Summary and Conclusion.

CHAPTER – II

NON-FINITE CLAUSES IN ENGLISH

2.1 Introduction

A clause is a part of a complex sentence. The clause can be defined as ''a grammatical unit which contains a subject and a predicate." It consists of dependent and independent clauses. Dependent clauses are of two types: finite and non-finite. A non-finite clause contains a non-finite verb. The non-finite verb is a verb which does not inflect for tense, aspect, mood and or agreement with the subject. Yadava, (2007) yogendra P. Sometimes, fully infected verbs are called finite verbs, whereas dependent verbs are termed as non-finite verbs. Radford defines, '' a finite clause is one which contains a finite I (carrying tense and agreement properties); a non-finite clause is one which contains a non-finite I which is tenseless, verbless, and agreementless" (306). Bas A arts define, ''A finite verb is a verb that carries tense, while Non-finite verb is tenseless''. It can be extended to clauses, i.e. finite clauses and non-finite clauses. Finite clauses are causes that contain a finite (tensed) main verb. while non-finite clauses contain a non-finite (untensed) main verb. The non-finite forms of verb are the to-infinitive, the bare infinitive, the –ing particles and the – ed particles. (51)

As it is stated in *The Encyclopedia of language and linguistics*, one of the important features of non-finiteness is desententialization. "The non-finite clause is incomplete and comes as a complement in a sentence." The infinitive is the unmarked non-finite form, lacking the properties of particles or gerunds; often it is associated with a more hypothetical modalized meaning." (Asher, R. E and J. M.Y SIMPSON 3853).

Similarly different linguists and grammarians have defined and categorized non-finite clauses in their own ways. Most of the people prefer to divide non-finite clauses into three types. But now-a-days there is a new tendency to deal the non-finite clauses into different types. Yadava has treated non-finite clauses into three types whereas Bas Aarts; Syntax and Argumentation have treated non-finite clauses into four types in their books.

2.2 Infinitive Clause

An Infinitive clause is not marked for tense, person and mood. *The chambers Dictionary* defines infinitive as a verb that is "in the mood that expresses the verbal idea without reference to person number or time" (857). Greenbaum defines "The infinitive clause is non-factual, referring to a situation that may come into existence". Similarly, *Cambridge International Dictionary of English* writes infinitive as "the form of a verb that usually follows to" (727). So, an infinitive is a verb that does not show tense or person. The clause having an infinitive is known as an infinitival clause. Therefore an infinitive is a verb that does not show tense and person. There are two types of Infinitive clauses they are: To-infinitive and Bare infinitive clause.

2.2.1 'To'-infinitive clause

It is marked by' to' followed by a root form of verb. The infinitive is a verbal noun but it may function as an adjective or an adverb. The Infinitive is a verbal noun. It is marked by the construction of: with a few verbs only the root forms of the verb. To say in another way, English has two types of infinitives -to infinitive (with to) and bare infinitive (without 'to'). To-infinitive is marked by 'to' followed by a verb or without 'to'. Infinitive clauses function as nominal clauses in language. They may take any position in a sentence.

2.2.1.1 Functions

Infinitival clauses in sentence realize all the functions that a noun or noun phrase does and take all the three types of positions: initial, middle and final. A noun is as said by Quirk, et al; used to fill the slot of the subject of the verb, a direct object of the verb a complement of the subject, an appositive and a complement of adjective (1061).Thus an infinitive clause has above mentioned functions.

To- infinitive clauses function as a Subject

Infinitive clauses can be used as the subject in the sentences.

With a Subject of their own:

(a)   For you to come here is urgent.

(b)   For Pratima to buy that house would spell disaster.

(c)   For Rakesh to go to college would be a good idea.

In the above examples, the subject of infinitive clause is always preceded by 'for', the word 'for' has been used before the subject to introduce it. When the subject of the infinitive clause is identical with the subject. The 'for' is not needed (In American English, it is preferred though). But if the subject is not identical 'for' is obligatorily needed, or the ambiguity in the meaning is possible.

Without a Subject of their own:

To pass examination easily is difficult.

(a)   To be a good teacher is more difficult than people think.

(b)   To surrender our arms will seem cowardly.

(c)   To break down this fence could lead to a conflict with the neighbors.

Without a Subject of their own, introduced by Wh-word:

(a)   I do not know what to say.

(b)   Decide yourself when to go.

(c)   What to do in the case of emergency is fully explained in the leaflet.

The infinitive clause can be found with all kinds of question like Wh-word, which takes final position in sentence, they can be written immediately before the infinitives.

To- infinitive clauses functioning as a Direct Object

Like the Subject, to- infinitive clause can be used as the direct object of the verb,

With a Subject of their own:

(a)   Ann considers Helen to be an excellent director.

(b)   They believe the tabloid newspapers to contain nothing but smut.

(c)   She is waiting for Rita to answer.

The sentence (c) is ambiguous in that the person to answer may be either 'she' or 'Rita'. This is because the word 'for' is the phrasal constituent of the verb 'wait'. The ambiguity of such sentences is avoided only through the given context.

Without a Subject of their own:

(a)   We hope to see soon.

(b)   They expect to leave the country within twenty-four hours.

(c)   She proposed to open a restaurant in London.

Without a Subject of their own, introduced by a Wh - word:

(a)   He forgot what to say the examiners.

(b)   The dentist couldn't decide who to see next.

(c)   You should know how to do arithmetic without a calculator.

To – infinitive clauses functioning as Adjunct.

With a Subject of their Own.

(a) We need some music for us to enjoy the evening.

(b) For Simi to pass her driving test she will need to take many more lessons.

(c) Bimi will need to work harder for her to reach her life's ambition.

Without the Subject of their own

(a)   Chaman replaced the lock on the door in order to make the house more secure.

(b)   So as to more about more easily, Rishi bought himself a car.

(c)   You will need to travel to the united states to hear his lecture.

To - infinitive clauses functioning as a subject Complement

An infinitive clause functions as the complement of the subject.

(a)   A good idea is to study hard.

(b)   The proper way is to pay.

In the above sentences (a) and (b), 'to study hard' and 'to pay' are the complement of 'a good idea' and 'the proper way' respectively.

(a)   The golden chance is for Rajesh to get job.

(b)   The wonderful thing is for Rakesh to say sorry.

In the above examples (a) and (b), 'to get job' and 'to say sorry' are the complements of golden chance and the wonderful thing. They are complements because without them the sentences remain meaningless or cannot give a complete meaning.

Infinitive with Anticipatory 'It' (Anticipatory it + non-finite)

Non- finite clauses have the privilege of anticipatory 'it' which can be rewritten by using 'it' as sentence given below

(a)   It is good for health to eat in time.

(b)   It is self –evident that he is the best candidate.

(c)   It is a bit of a risk to make such a statement in public..

Object clauses are obligatorily when they occur with an object Complement: (Quirk, et al. 1062). Sentences with anticipatory it exhibit a wide range of patterns. We shall distinguish into six main types:

25

It + predicator [active] + clause

In this pattern the verb is always intransitive,

(a)   It would seem that he has been wrong all time.

(b)   It does not matter what he thinks of us.

(c)   It looks as though a visit to the zoo is out.

It + predicator [passive] + clause

In this pattern the predicator is passive.

(a)   It has been suggested that these two phenomena are related.

(b)   It is now claimed that such guarantees were never given.

(c)   It must be doubted whether he will come.

It + predicator [active] + subject attribute + clause

In this pattern the verb is intransitive (usually be). The subject attribute may be realized by a noun phrase, an adjective phrase or a prepositional phrase.

(a)   It is time you were beginning to think of your future.

(b)   It is not a case that he has lost all his money.

(c)   It is the most natural thing in the world for boys to be after girls.

It + predicator [passive] + subject attribute + clause

In this pattern the subject attribute is realized by a noun phrase or an adjective phrase.

(a)   It was considered odd that the meeting was adjourned.

(b)   It was regarded as indecent for girls to wear bikinis.

(c)   It was considered a mistake that the Ambassador had left his post.

It + predicator + direct object + clause

(a)   It surprised me that the Johnsons were in time.

(b)   It shocked the Board to hear the chairman announce his resignation.

(c)   It struck the police officer that the car had a foreign number plate.

TABLE-1

Tense	Active	Passive
Present	To love	To be loved
Present continuous	To be loving	-------
Perfect	To have loved	To have been loved
Perfect Continuous	To have been loving	-------

The infinitive may be active or passive. When active it may have a present and a perfect form and may merely name the act or it may represent progressive.

2.2.2   Bare Infinitive.

The infinitive which does not have the infinitival constituent 'to' before it is known as bare infinitive clause.

2.2.2.1   Functions

This type of infinitive clause is severely limited in its function and does have all the functions of the nominal infinitival clauses.

(a) All I did was hit him on the head.

The nominal bare infinitive clause is mostly used as a subject complement.

(b) Turn off the tap was all I did.

In this given example bare infinitive clause also be used as the subject of as a subject of variant of pseudo-cleft.

(c) Write an essay was what I did today.

The 'to' participle of the infinitive is obligatorily absent when the infinitive clause is subject but it is optionally present when the clause is subject complement. What they must do is (to) buy shoes.

Buy shoes is what they must do.

Bare infinitive clauses functioning as Direct Object.

Like to-infinitive clauses, Direct Object -ing participle clauses can occur both with and without a subject of their own.

(33) a. We saw the sun rise.

 b. Raj could hear his tutor rage with anger.

c. She made her boy friend Manoj.

d. I let the situation pass.

The verbs that take bare infinitive clauses as DO are mostly verbs of perception (see, hear) and so-called causative verbs, i.e. verbs that denote a process of causation (make, let).There are also three types of Direct Object clause:-ing participle clauses, -ed participle clauses and Small clauses.

Bare infinitive clauses functioning as Adjunct

They are very rare. Only bare infinitive clauses introduced by rather than or sooner than can function as Adjunct. They have no Subject.

Rather than sell the painting like preferred to destroy it

Ray wants to travel by train sooner than fly.

2.2.3 Negativization

The infinitival clauses are made negative by using the negative word 'not' or it's contracted form 'n't' before the 'to' particle of the infinitive.

(a) For a student not to do exercise is not a good habit.

(b) It is good not to come out in the rain.

(c) Her great mistake in her life is not to read.

2.2.4 Passivization

Passivization is an infinitival clause, which is made by putting the verb 'be' after the infinitive particle 'to'. The infinitive is changed into its third form and the introductory 'for' is replaced by 'by'.

    (a) Result is to be published in time.

    (b) Exercise is compulsory to be done by people.

    (c) The work is to be finished in time.

2.3   Gerundial clauses

Gerundial clauses can be formed by Present participles or *-ing* forms of verbs. They functions as the way infinitival clauses functions which can be described as follows.

As a Subject

(a)   Watching television keeps them out of mischief.

(b)   For them wearing school dress is a compulsory.

In the above sentences 'watching' and 'for them wearing dress' have been used as subjects.

As a Direct Object

(a)   She enjoys singing songs.

(b)   Your father does not prevent them getting married.

In the above sentences, 'singing songs' and 'getting married' have been used as the Direct Objects.

As a subject complement

(a)   It is boring sleeping here uselessly.

(b)   The most surprising thing was Binita being elected chairman.

In the above sentences, 'sleeping here uselessly' and 'Binita being elected chairman' are the complements of the subjects 'it' and 'the most surprising thing' respectively. Similarly, – *ing* or gerundial clause like 'I dislike her eating rice' can be ambiguous as it has double meanings. 'I dislike her eating rice because she eats too fast' and 'I dislike her eating rice because she has sugar'. Sometimes a nominal –*ing* clause may refer to a fact or an action.

(a) Your driving a bike to bazaar was very fast. (Action)

(b) Your driving a bike to bazaar in your condition disturbs me greatly. (Fact)

If the -*ing* form occurs alone or preceded just by a genitive noun phrase, it may cause a difficult in knowing whether it is a noun phrase or a clause. In 'They liked our singing'. We are not clear whether 'our singing' refers to 'the action of singing' or to 'the mode of singing'.

When the –ing form is alone and used as the direct object, two interpretations of the implied subjects are possible. For example, 'I hate dancing' may mean 'I hate it when I dance' or 'I hate it when people dance'. Thus it shows ambiguity in the sentence.

A direct object or an adverbial may avoid the ambiguity. 'I hate dancing in the open house' does not have any ambiguity. It means, ' I hate it when I dance in the open house' does not have any ambiguity. By this we know that if the –ing form has a direct object or an adverbial, the implied subject of the embedded sentence has an implicit link to super ordinate subject. But it is not applicable to the verbs of speaking like 'She condemned attacking defence citizens,' which means she condemned that people attack defenseless citizens. The difference can be shown in following two examples:

(a)   I warned her against fast driving.

(b)   I warned her against driving fast

In the sentences (a), the –ing form of the verb is in the noun phrase from whereas in (b), it is the clausal form. In some cases, the implied subject of the –ing clause is to be understood from the context of the sentences as, 'Writing that letter was her downfall'. = 'She wrote that letter.

Sometimes, if there is no direct 'object' or 'of construction', the –ing construction may be ambiguous between the –ing clause or the –ing nominalization as in the sentences, 'There was no smoking in the corridors'. The two meanings of this sentence are:

(a)   Smoking was not allowed in the bus. (nominalization)

(b)   No one smoked in the bus. (clause)

Such ambiguity is more often in sentences. English has a choice between the gerundial and infinitival forms. The infinitive gives a sense of mere 'potentiality' for action, while the participle gives a sense of the actual 'performance'. The following examples illustrate this:

(a)   Simpy tried to write a poem.

(b)   Simpy tried writing a poem.

In these given sentences, the former implies that Simpy attempted an act of writing a poem, but did not manage it whereas the latter implies that she actually did write a poem.

2.4   Participle Clause

Participle clause is formed with participles. A participle as defined in *Cambridge International Dictionary of English*, is "a form of verb which does not show the verb the verb's tense and subject and which is used to form some tenses and as an adjective". (1029).*The Chambers Dictionary defines*, "participle is a non-finite

31

form of verb used to form compound tenses (e.g. written in the phrase had written) and as an adjective(e.g. cleaning house)(1237)". Participial clauses are marked by present participle –ing form and past participle –ed form to the verb.

2.4.1 Present participle Clause

Present participle clause or Imperfective are formed by -ing form to the verb. It is always in the active form. The participle clauses realize the function of adjectival clauses and it denotes an unfinished action and formed by adding -ing to the verb. It is to be noted that -ing forms in post modifying clauses cannot always be the abbreviated progressive forms in the relative clauses because -ing forms of those stative verbs, which cannot have the progressive forms in the finite clauses, can appear in the non -finite clauses. There is the loss of aspectual distinction in the non - finite verb phrases.

(a) I saw a hare running in the field.

(b) Give a doll, the baby is crying.

(c) She was having her dinner.

- Ing participle clauses functioning as Subject

With a Subject of their own:

(a) Pramod breaking the rules is unacceptable.

(b) Students walking on the roof pose a safety risk.

(c) Ravi fooling around embarrasses his friends.

Without a Subject of their own:

(a) Going on holiday always creates tensions.

(b) Running a business is hard work.

(c) Swimming in this lake will make you ill.

As with the to-infinitive clauses, if there is no Subject, it can be inferred from the context or from one's knowledge of the world.

- Ing participle clauses functioning as Direct Object

With a Subject of their own:

       (a) I heard Depesh singing in the bath.

       (b) The witness saw someone running away.

       (c) We could smell something burning.

Without a Subject of their own

       (a) She abhors eating meat.

       (b) Willy intended registering for the exams.

       (c) Raj regrets buying a sports car.

Direct Object clauses can also come in the form of an -ed participle clauses. Like bare infinitive DO clauses, -ed participle clauses always take a Subject.

-Ing participle clauses functioning as Adjunct

With a Subject of their own:

  (a)   The streets being completely deserted, Aman preferred to take a cab.

  (b)   Mamta started out of the window, her thoughts drifting away dreamily.

  (c) His dog scampering beside him, Sanjiv walked home.

Without a Subject of their own:

  (a) Working on his essay late, Santosh was quickly becoming tired

  (b) Dipesh talked to his girlfriend on the phone. (watching TV at the same time)

  (c) Standing on a table, Dawn addressed the crowed

The Subjects of the Adjunct clauses are understood as being the same as those of the matrix clauses.

The perfect participle clauses i.e., with having + past participle have the same semantic functions like those of participle clauses. The only difference between them is that the present participle in the Non-finite clause refers to the same time in the main clause and the perfect participle in the non-finite refers to an earlier time than the verb in the main clause. The difference is shown in the following two examples

(a)   Hearing a noise, the student went outside.

(b)   Having read for two hours, the student went out.

In the above examples, the former indicates that the action occurred at the same time whereas the latter indicates that the action of the non-finite clause occurred before the action of the main clause.

2.4.2 Past participle clause

It indicates an action that is already completed action or state of the thing spoken of and formed by adding d, ed, t, en, to, ne to the verb; as. it is used to form various Tenses.

(a) Terrified, they stood together.

(b) He was carrying a loaded gun.

(c) Sima left home.

The participle is commonly used as an Adjective, it may be used as simple qualifying adjectives in front of a noun: thus used they are called Participle Adjectives:-

(a) A burnt child dreads the fire.

(b) Education is the most pressing need of our country.

(c) He was reputed to be the most learned man of his time.

From these examples it is noticed that a Participle admits of degrees of comparison.

The Participles qualify nouns or pronouns. They may be used as :

Attributively; as

(a)   The wounded soldiers were carried to the hospital.

(b)   A rolling stone gathers no moss.

(c)   A lost opportunity never returns.

Predicatively; as,

(a)   He seems contended. (modifying the subject)

(b)   The man seems terrified. (modifying the subject)

(c)   She came weeping. (modifying the object)

Absolutely with a noun or pronoun placed before it; as,

(a)   Mary having arrived, we were freed from anxiety.

(b)   The weather being fine, I went out.

(c)   The sea being smooth, we went for sail.

In the above sentences the Participle with the noun or pronoun going before it, forms a phrase independent of the rest of the sentence. Such a phrase is called an Absolute Phrase; and a noun or pronoun so used with a participle is called Nominative Absolute.

Past participle (- ed) clauses functioning as Adjunct

With a Subject of their own:

(a)   The attacked averted the people of the town could come out of hiding.

(b)   We were all excited the plan accepted by the government.

(c)   The trees chopped down the park looked miserable.

Without a Subject of their own:

(a)   Disgusted by what he had witnessed, Frank left the party.

(b)   Formulated clearly, this statement will cause no problems.

(c)   She died in her car, suffocated by exhaust fumes.

Perfective or past participle or -ed participle clauses can be defining and non-defining both. In-ed clauses too the antecedent head is the implied subject of the postmodifying adjectival clauses. Thus -ed participles cannot be passive with intransitive verbs. There is no post modifier corresponding to the relative clause.

(a)   Letter written by my friend appeared last week.

(b)   The train which has arrived at platform 1 is from Birjung.

(c)   The train arrived at platform 1 is from Birjung.

In sentence (a) has a transitive verb. So it has the -ed participial construction but (b) has an intransitive verb and in (c) -ed participial is preceded by certain adverbs as in: 'The train recently arrived at platform 1 is from Birjung. Like -ing clauses, the -ed clauses can take any position: initial, middle or final. There is no distinction between defining and non-defining past participle clauses.

(a)   Any purse found on this site must be handed to the police.

(b)   Given a food, the beggar became happy.

(c)   I felt my curiosity roused by the result.

(d)   This is the theory discovered by Aristotle.

The above examples show the positions of the –ed adjectival clauses besides this, they show their functions too. The first and second examples have been used to qualify subjects (any coins and the beggar), the third to qualify an object (my curiosity) and the last to qualify a subject complement (the theory). They are used as post modifiers like –ing participial clauses. Also the position of an –ed participial clause may be either initial, middle or final. With an -ed participial clause, sometimes, there may arise an ambiguity as in, 'I noticed a purse hidden under the bed.' This may imply either, 'I noticed a purse which was hidden under the 'bed' or 'I noticed that a

purse was hidden under the bed.' Here the former sentence is a relative clause and latter a nominal clause.

2.5 Purposive Clause

A purposive clause has a Non-finite maker attached to the verb, when it is attached, the finite verb becomes non-finite. The finite verb no longer retains its identity; rather it becomes a non-finite verb. The purposive clauses are complement to verbs of motion and are marked by the suffix meaning 'in order to'. The purposive clause expresses intent or purpose, and translates as an infinitive (Van Driem, 213). Another linguist Karen H. Ebert defines as, "Purposive clauses are complements to verbs" (structure 113). She again says about Anthare Purposive Clauses. "They express that someone is or has moved somewhere in order to do something'' (Grammar 138). Purposive clauses are marked by infinitives in languages and functions as the complements to verbs. They have infinitival forms but are different from them in that they belong to adverbial clauses where as infinitival to nominal.

(a)   She went abroad in order to gain knowledge.

(b)   Simpy took five hundred out of her mother's purse to buy cloth.

(c)   I have come to meet you.

In the about sentences (a, b and c) the purposive clauses are 'to gain knowledge', shows the purpose of going abroad, 'to buy cloth' shows the purpose of taking out the money and 'have come' shows the purpose of coming .The purposive clause has its own subject Simpy, which has been used before also. They are different from infinitival clauses in that infinitival clauses are nominal clauses whereas purposive clauses are adverbial.

2.5.1 Nature and Functions

Purpose like 'in order to (formal)','so as to' etc can be attached to the infinitive participle. Subordination and postpositions do not bring a change in the meaning.

(a)   I left early in order to catch the bus.

(b)   She waited to talk to him.

(c)   I will go to the market to buy cloths.

The object (direct or indirect) of the main clause can be the subject of the purposive clause.

(a)   I gave Pratima a pen to write

If the subject of the purposive clause is the same as the main clause, the purposive clause can be fronted in sentences

(a)   To buy a watch, I asked for a thousand rupees to my mother

From the above examples, it is clear that the purposive clauses are placed in initial position, whereas they are preferred in the final position in the sentence. They sometimes combine condition with other contingency relation as in the sentence given.

(a)   You must be strong in lifting that weight. (purpose)

(b)   You must be strong because you were able to lift that weight. (reason)

(c)   You must be strong if you were able to lift that weight.(condition)

Purposive clauses are also in comparative clauses containing a word or phrase expressing sufficiency or excess. Like 'enough', is the word for sufficiency and 'too' for excess.

(a)   You are old enough to get married.

(b)   I am much too tired to go out.

The words 'for' excess ('too') and all have negative meaning. The purposive clause may have its subject, which is always preceded by 'for'

(a)   It moves too quickly for most people to see.

(b)   He is old enough for you to talk seriously.

In the above sentences, it has explicit negative meaning. It rather seems to imply that it moves very fast so that more people will be able to see it (perhaps in many places). If purposive clause does not have its own subject, there is possibility for ambiguity.

(a)   He is good enough to help.

This sentence has double meaning, first 'he is a good man because he helps others, and second, 'he is a good man to be helped by others.' Such ambiguity can be avoided by using a subject in the infinitive clause.

2.5.2 Negativization

The Negativization of purposive clause is made by 'so as not to' and 'in order not to' in. It is done by using the negative morpheme before the infinitive.

(a)   I turned off the radio so as not to wake the baby.

(b)   She went out in order not to disturb her friend.

2.5.3 Passivization

The passivization of purposive clause is formed by inserting the passive marker between the infinitival marker and the base form of the verb. It is done by the use of verb 'be' in between 'to' particle and the infinitive.

(a)   He went to Saptari in order to be selected in the army.(passive)

(b)   The boy escaped to Janakpur.   (passive)

(c)   He wants to be paid by me.   (passive)

(d)   He escaped from there not to be deceived.   (passive)

(e)   He went to hospital to admit.   (Active)

(f)   He wants me to pay the fee.   (Active)

2.6   Form-Function Relationships

Table 4

Forms	Function			
	Subject	Direct object	Indirect object	Adjunct
Non-finite clause			----------	
To-infinitive clause			----------	
Bare infinite clause			----------	✓
-ing participle clause			----------	
-ed participle clause			----------	

In the 'The form- function relationship', predicate and predicator have been left out. The central concern has been to demonstrate the fact that there exists no one to one relationship between function and form in language and this is why the two notions need to be kept apart. With the exception of predicators, all grammatical functions can be performed by different form classes, and form classes can perform a variety of grammatical functions, as the table above shown;

2.7   Summary

The non-finite clause contains a non-finite verb which doesn't inflect for tense aspect, mood and or agreement with the subject. There are many types of non-finite clauses, Infinitive clause, participle clause and purposive clause. Infinitive is "the form of a verb that usually follows to". It does not inflect for tense or person. The clause having an infinitive is known as infinitival clause. They are of two types 'to' infinitive and 'bare' infinitive. 'To' infinitive clause contains 'to' whereas 'bare' infinitive does not contain 'to' in the sentence. Infinitive functions as nominal clause

40

and takes any position in sentence. It has been used as subject and object in the sentence.

The Participle is a non-finite form of a verb used to form compound tenses (e.g. broken in the phrase had broken) and as adjective (e.g. burning in the burning bush. It is marked by Present participle-ing form and past particle-ed form in the sentences. Similarly purposive clause is used to express that someone is or has moved somewhere in order to do something. It is marked by infinitives and function as the complements to verb i.e. Adverbial clause. They have infinitival forms but are different from them in that they belong to adverbial clauses whereas infinitival to nominal. Purposive clause always shows the purpose of doing something. It has its own subject, it is used after and before the clause. It has its own subject; before and after clause. It shows the purpose of the doer or the subject of the sentences. In this way, this chapter deals with the meaning and types of non-finite clauses such as Infinitive, participle and purposive clauses and also a brief discussion on their surface structures in English.

CHAPTER – III

NON-FINITE CLAUSES IN MAITHILI

3.1   Introduction

This chapter deals with the non-finite clause in Maithili. Though, a non-finite clause is like a drop of water in a vast realm of ocean in the Maithili Grammar. In Maithili there are four types of non-finite clauses .Their types, forms and functions are described below.

3.1.1   Infinitive Clause (The "full" infinitive)

The infinitive form of the Maithili verb ends in –*eb if* the verb stem ands in *a,* or *0*, and in –*eb* everywhere else. Infinitive clause has its another name called the "full" infinitive. Infinitive verb is labeled as non-finite forms in Maithili. The infinitive verb may instead end in –nai (corresponding probably to Hindi –*na,*

Hindi   *tahalnai*   *'to walk'*

Maithili   tahalnai   to walk

The infinitive constructions in Maithili differ from those in English is an important manner. Thus, an infinitive construction such as:-

It is illegal for John to leave can only be realized in the form of a gerundial (as below) construction in maithili.

J0n-ak   ja-eb   gaerkanuni aich

            ge-nai

'John-GENT go-INF illegal be PRES (3NH+ 3NH)

John's going is illegal/ it is illegal for John to go'.

Infinitive clauses in Maithili precede the finite verbs in normal utterances. There are two types of infinitive constructions in Maithili like that of English. The

first type of infinitive translates as constructions with 'to' in and second type of infinitive translates as constructions without 'to' in sentence.

3.1.2 The "bare" infinitive clause.

The "bare" infinitive clause translates as constructions without 'to' in sentences. The "bare" infinitive clause does not end in - *b, eb, -nai, it,* or - *l;* instead, they are formed by the addition of - *e-* followed by bak *lel/baste, ke*, *bak, me, ba me, b la*, or *la p r*, and so on -the exact choice of which depends on the syllabic structure of the verb stem, the nature of the following finite verb or the specific types of sentence construction. The "bare" infinitive clause may not be bare after all. The bare infinitives are never used as nominals and modifiers/ determiners. Thus, the following constructions of bare infinitive clauses are ungrammatical like as given sentences below.

(1)   a.   *d ur- b   nik   byayam*

                run- INF   good   exercise

        b   **d ur- e   nik   byayam*

                'To run is a good exercise'.

(2)   a.   *daur- it   ghora*

                Run-PRESPCPL   horse

        b.   **d ur-ae   ghora*

                run- INF horse

          'The running horse'.

(3)   a.   *o   h s- it   b j-l-ah*

                he (H) laugh-PRESPCPL   speak-PST-(3H)

        b.   **o   has-ae   bej-l-ah*

                he (H)   laugh-INF   speak-PST-(3H)

'He   spoke   laughing'.

(4)   a.   *k m*   *kha-eb*   *nik*

less   eat-INF   good

b.   **k m*   *kha-eb*   *nik*

less   eat-INF   good

'It is good to eat   less'.

The bare infinitival clause constructions may form a class by themselves; they are quite heterogeneous in character within the class itself. Different types of bare infinitival constructions which are in complementary distribution with each other may be said to exist in Maithili.

Type   1;

(i) stem+- *e-(lel)* +"finite verb"where the verb is usually a verb of motion, such as a *'come' ,ja 'go', k h 'say'*, etc.

(ii)   stem +   *-ae-bak-lel* +"finite verbs" if the stems ends in *a* or *o.*

(iii)   stem + *-0-bak-lel*   + "finite "verb" everywhere else.

Examples:

(5)   a.   *o   sinema   dekh- e   (lel) ge-l-ah*

dekh-bak   lel

*dekh-ae-bak lel

he (H) cinema   see-INF   for   go-PST-(3H)

'He went to watch a movie'.

(6)   a.   *hun-ka   kha-e   lel   k h-i unh*

Kh -e-bak   lel

*kh -bak   lel

*kha-bak   lel

he (H)-ACC|DAT eat-INF   for   say- IMP-(2H+3H)

'(Please) ask him to eat'.

(7)   a.   jumrati   s b   din   daru

jumrati every day wine

b.   *pi- e*   *(lel)   b jar   ja-it   ich*

pi-bak   lel

*pi- e-bak   lel

Drink -INF for market go-IMPERE AUX -PRES-(3NH)

'Jumrati goes to market daily to drink\for drinking   alcohol.'

There is a plenty of variation in the use of these forms. Unfortunately, no sociolinguistic analysis shows correction between social variation and linguistic form has been carried out yet. It seems to me, though, that the infinitive clauses forms having bak lel or ba me, etc., are most typical of the Brahmin caste speech (or the educated literary speech).

Comparision is shown as in the following sentences.

(8)   a.   *hã   kha-e   lel/hæ lel   i-l-i/ae-l-ah*   (non-Brahmanic)

You (H)   eat-INF   for   come-PST-(2H)

b.   *hã   kh -e-bak   lel   ae-l- h*   (Brahmanic)

You (H) eat-INF for   come-PST-(2H)

'You came to eat'.

(9)   a.   *ot   ja-eljæ   me kon   h rja* ?   (non- Brahmanic)

there   go-INF   in   what   harm

b.   *ot   ja-eljæ me kon   h rj* ?   (Brahmanic)

there   go-INF in   what   harm

'what is the harm in going there?'

Type 2:

        (i)   stem + - *e-ke* + "finite auxiliary"

        (iia) Stem + - *e-bak* + "finite auxiliary" if the stem ends in a or 0

        (iib)   Stem + *-0-bak* + "finite auxiliary"   everywhere else.

With "dative" subjects (which may be "understood" but are retrievable by the] verbal endings), the infinitival constructions of Type 2 denote obligation, necessity, compulsion, etc.:

(10)   *h m-ra ja-e-ke*   *ich*

              j -e-bak

              **ja-bak*

              **j -bak*

            I-ACC/DAT   go-INF AUX-PRES – (3NH + 1)

            'I   have to go.'

(11)   *to- ra*   *p rh-a(e)*   *ke*   *ch-auk*

                   p rh-bak

                **p rh- e-bak*

          You (NH)-ACC/DAT   read-INF AUX-PRES-(3NH + 2NH)

           'You have to study.'

(12) *hun-ka le-bak*   *m n   ch- inh*

                1 li- -ke

             **li- e-bak*

             **li-bak*

        he(H)-ACC/DAT take-INF mind AUX –PRES-(3NH + 3H)

        'He wants to take.'

Type 3:

(i)   Stem +   *-ae-me* +   adjective

(ii) Stem +   *e-ba- me* +   adjective if the stem ends in a or o

(iii) Stem +   *-0-ba-me* +   adjective everywhere else.

Examples:

(13)   *am   kha-e-me   nik   lag- l-0*

    kh -e-ba-me

    **kh -ba-me*

    **kha-ba-me*

  mango   eat –INF in good feel-PST-(3NH+ l|2H)

  'Mango   was sweet to eat (to me|you)'.

(14)   *pa isa   di- -me   nik n i l g –a it   ch- uk*

    de-ba-me

    **di – e-ba-me*

    **di -ba-me*

  Money give-INF-in good not feel-IMPERF AUX -PRES-(3NH+2NH)

  'You don't like to give money'.

(15)   *i   kitab p rh   -a (e) –me   sug m   ich*

    p rh-ba-me

    **p rh-a (e)-ba-me*

    **p rha-ba-me*

 this book read-INF-in   easy   be-PRES-(3NH)

 'This book is easy to read'.

Type 4:

    Stem + -ae-b la   + "finite auxiliary"

Examples:

(16)   *to   li-a(e)-bela   rah-e*

                   You (NH) take-INF-about AUX-PST-(2NH)

                   'You were about to take'.

(17)   *ham   ja –e-bela   ch-al-ah*

         I   go-INF-about   AUX-PST-(1)

             ' I was about to go'.

(18)   *hã   p rh- (e) -bela   r h-it- h   t kh n*

         You (H)   read-INF - about AUX-PST-COND-(2H) then ne…NONNEG,
EMPH

        'If you were about to study then only……'

    In the above example 'about to' infinitives are built upon action verbs like 'come', 'go', 'rise', 'read', 'eat', etc. these sentences naturally convey a sense of possibility.

Type 5:

    Stem + -ae + "finite modal verb"

Examples:

(19)   *h m-h   hun-ka   bhet-ae   cah-ab*

                              *bhet-bak

          I-EMPH he(H)-ACC/DAT meet-INF   want-FUT-(1)

        'I too would want to meet him'.

(20)   *ahe   i   kaj   ka-e   sak-ait   ch-i*

                      *kar-bak

                      *kae-bak

                      *ke-bak

You (H) this work do-INF can-IMPERF   AUX-PRES-(2H)

'You can do this work'.

In order to express obligation or necessity (esp. the notion of 'ought to'), theType 2 infinitival structure is used with a finite auxiliary verb cah- b 'to want':

(21)   *ham-ra   ab   jae- (ke)   cah-i*

                    Ja-e-bak

                    *ja-e-(ke)

                    *ja-bak

                    *ja-bak

I –ACC / DAT now   go-INF   wan t-OPT-(1)

'I ought   to go now'. -i

(22)   *hun –ka   s n   mot admi   ke   d ur-ae-(ke)   cah-i*

                                *daur-ae-bak

he (H)-ACC/DAT like fat man ACC/DAT run-INF want-OPT-(3H)

'A man as fat him ought to run'.

(23)   *i   khet   li- -(ke)   cah-i*

                le-bak

              *li- -bak

              li- e-bak

              *li-bak

This field take –INF want-Opt-(1)

'I should \ought to take \buy this land'.

Type 6:

(i)   Stem + - *e-la-p r/s* ….+ "finite verb" if the stem ends in *a* or *o*.

(ii)   Stem + -*0-la-p r/s* ….elsewhere.

Examples:

(24)   *merika ae-la   p r khusi bhe-l-0*

America come –INF at   happiness become –PST-(3NH + 1)

'I was pleased to come / after coming to America.'

(25)   *h   ke   dekh-la   s   bujkae-t-o*

dekh- e-la   s

dekh- -la   s

You (H)-ACC/DAT see –INF   from feel –FUT-(3NH +   2H)

'You will understand / feel after seeing it.'

Type 7:

In constructions with je 'that' complementizer the infinitive structure is of Type

4, i.e., stem + - *e-b la* + "finite auxiliary":

(26) *bujha-it   aich   je   rames   ja-e-b la   ch- ith*

ja-e-la p r

ja-e-ke

j e-e-b la

appear- IMPERF AUX-PRES-(3NH+1) that Ramesh go-INF-about/likely AUX-

PRES (3NH)

'It appears (to me) that Ramesh is about/likely to go.'

50

(27) h m- r dharna   je r mes   r h- e-b la hoe-t-ah g l t ch- l

                                *r h-la p r

                                *r h – e ke

                                *r h-b la

I-GENIT belief that Ramesh live-INF-about AUX-FUT-(3H) wrong AUX-PST-

(3NH+1)

'My belief that Ramesh was likely/about to stay proved wrong'.

3.2 Gerundial clauses

Gerundial clauses end in –*nai*; alternatively, they may also have the "full"

infinitivial forms. They are as a matter of fact, derived nominals in the sentences.

(28) *d ur- b ~ d ur-nai*   'to run/running'

      kha-eb ~ kh e-nai   'to eat/eating'

      pi- b   ~ pi-nai   ' to/drink/drinking'

They may act as the subject of a sentence. They end in -nai: alternatively, they may

also have the infinitival clauses forms like given above examples.

(29)   *tahl-ab*   *barhiya byayam aich*

       tahal-nai

       *tahl-eb

       *tahl-ait

Walk-INF good   exercise   is -(3NH)

'To walk / walking is a good   exercise'.

(30)   *bhore bhore   muh   dho-eb   nik*

                     dhoe-nai

                     *dho-it

     early in the morning mouth wash-INF good

'To wash /washing the mouth early in the morning is good'.

Gerundial clauses may also act as: The complement of a subject,

(31) *hun-ka   pit- b   h -k   g lti   bhel-l-o*

        Pit-nai

        *pit-eb

        *pite-nai

        *pit- it

he (H)-ACC|DAT beat-INF you(H)-GENIT mistake become -PST-(3NH+2H)

'To beat him was your fault'.

3.3 Participial clauses

There are two types of participial clauses. They are

3.3.1   Present participial clauses

Present participial clauses end in –*ait* which are shown below:

(32)   *kha-it   ch- l-ah*   (aspectual- it)

    eat - IMPERF   AUX-PST-(3H)

    'He was eating |He used to eat'.

(33)   *kha-it   bej-l-ah*   (infinitival-ait)

   *khae-nai

   *kha-eb

   eat- PRESPCPL   speak-PST-(3H)

   'He spoke while eating'.

Present-participle clauses may therefore act as,

An adverbs

(34) *o   h s- it   e-l-ah*

          *h s- b

          *h s-nai

        he (H) laugh- PRESPCPL   come-PST-(3H)

      'He came laughing'.

(35) *h m   d ur- it   e-l- h*

           *d ur-eb

           *d ur-nai

          I   run - PRESPCPL   come-PST-(1)

       'He came running'

(36) *h   bimar   bujha-it   ch-i*

            *bujha-eb

            *bhuj e-nai

      You (H) ill   seem –INF   AUX_PRES-(2H)

   'You seem to be ill'.(lit…*you are seeming ill'.)

      Present-participial clauses may also act as

An   adjectival modifiers:

        In such condition they precede the noun and it modifies like:

(37) *h s- it   chõra ke   dekh-l- h -0*

       *h s- b

       *h s-nai

   Laugh- INF   boy ACC/DAT sees-PST-(1+3NH)

'I saw the boy who was laughing / I saw the laughing boy'.

But when the present-participial clauses verb precede the infinitive verb,

then it acts as **an adverb:**

3.3.2 Past participial clauses:

The past participial clauses end in – l, and it may act as

i.   An adjective (attributive),

ii.   An adverb,

iii.   A passive form.

i.   As   an   Adjective

(38)   *tut- l   khat p r   ke   sut- t ?*

*tut- t

*tut- b

*tut-nai

break - PSTPCPL cot on who sleep-FUT-(3NH)

'Who will sleep on the broken cot?'

(39)   *gae-l-e   git   ke   g e-t?*

*g b-a it-e

*ga-eb-e

*g e-nai-e

Sing-PSTPCPL-EMPH song who sing-FUT - (3NH)

'Who will sing a sung song?'

These attribute adjectival participial clauses may be modified further by such partitive

elements as b hut 'very, much', *nik j k* 'in a good manner', besi 'much, more',

b hut b si 'a lot more', etc :

(40) i   *i- khat   b hut   tut- l   ich*

besi

b hut besi

nik j k

    this cot very much break-PSTPCPL be-PRES-(3NH)

    'This cot is broken very much'.

ii.   **As an Adverb**

(41)   *tab t   h m sut- l   r h- b*

    Until then   I sleep-PSTPCPL   remain-FUT-(1)

    'Until then I will remain asleep'.

(42)   *t kh n tõ j g-l-e   ch- l-e*

    then   you (NH)   awake-PSTPCPL-EMPH be -PST-(2NH)

    'You were awake then'

iii. **As an passive**

   Comparisons between Active and Passive are as shown below.

(43)   *dokan b nd   bhe-l   r h- ik*   (active)

    Shop closed become -PSTPCPL AUX-PST-(3NH)

    'The shop was closed /The shop was (in a state of being) closed'.

(44)   *dokan b nd   k e-l   ge-l- ik*   (passive)

                *k r- b

                *k e-nai

                *k r- it

    Shop closed do-PSTPCPL go-PST-(3NH+3NH)

    'The shop was closed (by someone)'.

 Comparisons between Gerundial or participial can be shown as below:

(45) a. *i chõra –k deur- b   h m-ra   nsoh t lag-el-0*

           d ur – nai

        *d ur- it

55

*d ur- l

this boy - GENIT run - GER INF I –ACC/DAT unpleasant feel – PST- (3NH+1)

'I didn't like this boy's running'.

b.   s bdin   h m   i   chõra ke   d ur- it   dekh- it   ch-i-o

*d ur- b

*d ur-nai

*d ur- l

every day I this boy ACC\DAT run-GER INF see-IMPER AUX –PRES

(1+3NH)

'I see this boy running everyday'.

(46) a.   hun- k- ar   h s-nai   nik   lag- l-o

h s- b

*h s- it

*h s- l

he (H)-GENIT   laugh-GER INF   good   feel - PST-(3NH+1)

'I liked his smiling/laughing'.

b.   hun-ka   *h s- it   dekh– l – i inh

*h s- b

*h s-nai

*h s- l

he (H)-ACC\DAT laugh-PRESPCPL see-PST-(1+3H)

'I saw him laughing'.

(47) a.   h m   ok – r   n k l   k r- b   dekh-l- h -0

k e-nai

*k r- it

<div align="center">*k e-l</div>

' I he (NH)-GENIT imitation do-GER INF see-PST-(1+3NH)

'I saw him imitating\I saw his act of imitation'.

b. *h m ok- r   n k l   k r- it dekh- l-i ik*

<div align="center">*k r - b*</div>

<div align="center">*k e –nai*</div>

<div align="center">*k e -l*</div>

I he (NH)-ACC/DAT imitation do-PRESPCPL see-PST-(1+3NH)

I saw him imitating'.

(48) a. *h m-ra   ok- r b is- b   nik   lag- l-0*

<div align="center">*b is -nai*</div>

<div align="center">*b is- it*</div>

<div align="center">*b is- l*</div>

I –ACC\DAT   he (NH)-GENT   sit-PSTPCPL   good feel –PST-(3NH+1)

'I liked his (style of) sitting'.

b.   *h m   ok-ra   b is- l   dekh- l-i ik*

<div align="center">*b is- b*</div>

<div align="center">*b is –nai*</div>

I   he (NH)-ACC/DAT   sit-PSTPCPL see-PST-(1+3NH)

'I   saw him (in a state of) sitting'.

In the above examples it is clearly shown that the syntactic difference between the gerundial clauses and the participial clauses constructions: In (a) sentence is gerundial clause, while (b) sentence is participial clause. In other words, the object of gerundial clauses is always marked by the genitive case marker or postposition,

whereas the object of participial clauses is always marked by the genitive case marker or postposition.

3.4 The Converb Clause

Maithili employs Sequential Converbial clauses constructions which is different from simultaneous Converbial construction. The converb basically refers to 'anteriority' (to use Givon's term) i.e. the event occurring immediately prior to the event encoded in the verbs, which may be converb or a finite verb in the matrix clause, which is shown below.

(49)   *Khaana   kha-ka\ ke sab admi suit rah-al*

         Meal   eat-CONV all people remain -3NH.PT

         'Having eaten meal, everyone went to sleep'.

This sentence contains a sequence of events. i.e. 'Everyone ate meal and then went to sleep. As pointed out by Peterson (1999.358ft) the Sequential Converbial clauses in Maithili is marked by *–ka/ke*, which follows the verb stem like.

(50)   *Snaam   ka –ka/ke 0   khaa-itch* (Jha, 1971.74)

          Bath   do   CONV   he eat –HAB AUX-PRES.3.HON

          (Having   taken   bath, he eats).

The converbial clauses forms in Maithili is listed as V-ka/ke as given above. A sequential converbial clause is normally joined to the left of the matrix clause in Maithili. They can be also postponed in constructions as a discourse strategy to express after thought or focus

(51)   *Sab   aadmi suit rahal khaana khaa –ka /ke*

         'All had slept after eating'.

In sequential converb both negation and question have narrow scope.

Like as :

(52)   *0   snaan   ka ke bhojan nahi kaelak*

       He takes bath conv meal NEG do. PT 3NH

       'Having taken bath'he did not eat'.

(53)   *0   snaan ka ke bhujan kae lak (ki)*

       He takes bath CONV meal did eat

     (Having taken bath, did he eat?'

Sometimes the subject of a Converbial clause in Maithili language can be either a null

NP , vis PRO or a lexically overt NP as given below.

     (54)   *[pro; ghar aaib kake] raam ; sutal*

          Home come CoNV Ram sleep went

       'Having come home, Ram went to sleep'.

(58)   [*toraa kaail nahi aaib-ka \ ke] kuc kam nahi ho-yat* 2mh GEN tomorrow not

come -CONV much work (sm) Nom nahi *ho-yat* not be 3SFUTSM

(schumacher'1977: 202; Bickel and Yadava'2000).

 'If you don't come tomorrow, there won't be much work'.

 The NULL PRO

  It is one of the behavioral properties of subject hood, widely accepted in syntactic

theory is that the converbial are nominative in subjects.

    For example.

     [PRO; okar baat suin ke] ham –raa; taamas bhel

     'Having heard him, I got angry'.

In a paper by Bickel and Yadava (2000)' it has however' been shown that the

controller of the gap or PRO in a sequential Converbial clauses in the Maithili

language cannot be only the matrix subject, object ,Location or possessor for

pragmatic reasons. It is however 'to be noted that lexical subjects occur only in such Converbial clauses which express cause and effect relation, temporal clauses. They are banned from sequential Converbial clauses.

To sum up, the Converbial clauses in language tend to have the same subject as their main clause. In addition to the referential coherence (Givon, 1990:838), they also have temporal coherence with their main clauses: i.e. they tend to exhibit temporal – aspectual relation vis-à-vis their main clauses.

3.5 Summary

In Maithili there are two types of infinitive forms of verb which is labeled as non-finite forms they are: The "bare" infinitive and the "full" infinitive clauses. The "bare" infinitive is without 'to' in sentences, they do not end in - b, eb, -nai, it, or - l; instead, formed by the addition of - e- followed by *bak lel/baste, ke , bak, me, ba me, b la,*or *la p r*. The "bare" infinitive clauses are never used as nominals and form a class by themselves. They are quite heterogeneous in character with in the class itself. The "full" Infinitive clauses used 'to' in the sentences. The Infinitival clauses form of verb ends in *–eb* if the verb stem ends in *a,* or *0,* and in *–ab*. They have the form as: verb stem + *baak-lel (to "v")*, they precede finite verbs in normal utterances. Gerundial clauses which end in *–nai*. an infinitive clause construction such as 'It is illegal for John to leave' can only be realized in the form of a gerundial clauses construction in Maithili .e.g*., j n- k ja-eb g erkanuni ich.*('John's going is illegal\It is illegal for John to go'). Similarly participial clauses are also of two types they are present participle and past participle. The present participle clause end in *–ait* and past participle clause ends in *–al*. Thus, the Maithili have Converb clause which basically refers to 'anteriority' i.e. the event occurring immediately prior to the event encoded in the verbs, which may be converb or a finite verb in a clause or sentence.

The sentence contains a 'sequence of events'. They are marked by *v-ka/ke* which follows the verb stem. They can be postponed as a discourse strategy to express after thought .It has both negation and question. Lexically the subjects occur only in Converbial clauses which express cause, effect relation, temporal coherence and the clauses with opposite verbs.

CHAPTER – IV

SIMILARITIES AND DIFFERENCES IN STRUCTURE OF NON-FINITE CLAUSES IN ENGLISH AND MAITHILI

4.1 Introduction

This study attempts to raise some points regarding the structure and functions of the non-finite clauses in the two languages viz. Maithili and English dividing the study in five chapters. The main focus is to find the areas of similarities and differences between the two languages regarding their types, nature, positions and functions.

4.1.1 Similarities

Though the two languages are from the same origin, there is not much similarity between them. A few similarities have been found, which are given below.

(1) English has two types of infinitive clauses: 'to'-infinitive clause and 'bare' infinitive clause and Maithili has also of two types: The 'bare' infinitives and 'full' infinitives and their sentence structures are also the same.

(2) The present participial clauses in English and Maithili both function as adjectival and adverbs in the sentences and in terms of past participial both clauses function as an adjective (attributive), an adverbs, or as a passive form.

(3) In both languages the infinitive clauses can form the participial clauses.

(4) Participial clause in English language represents an action as going on or incomplete whereas in the Maithili language also represents the same action.

(5) In both languages the Gerundial clauses are of fact, derived nominals, and they may act as the Subject and also as the Complement of the subject in the sentences.

4.1.2 Dissimilarities

Both English and Maithili languages, being two different languages, there are many dissimilarities in the two languages, which can be listed as follows:

(1) The subject of an infinitive clause in English is introduced by for whereas in Maithili it is introduced by *–eb, -ab, -nai,* and *aich*.

(2) Infinitival clauses in Maithili have the form: verb stem + *baak – lel* (to "V"). They precede finite verbs as shown in the Jon cael *jae –baak –lel prayaas kaelak*, whereas in English infinitival clauses are marked by the construction of : to + the base form of the verb.

(3) In the infinitival clause, it does not have all the nominals but in Maithili bare infinitives are never used as nominals and modifiers/determiners.

(4) English allows infinitival clause with anticipatory 'it' but not in Maithili.

(5) In Maithili participle clauses are modifiers but in English participles are post modifiers.

(6) Maithili does not have full infinitives like in the sentence; It is illegal [s for John to leave]: instead it used gerund phrases as their Counterparts as *Jon –ak cael jaeb* (John to leave).

(7) Gerundial clauses end in *–nai*, they may also have the "full" infinitival form but in English it ends in *–ing* form.

CHAPTER – V

CONCLUSION

5.1   Summary

This chapter aims at summarizing the whole dissertation and presenting a brief conclusion of it. This dissertation consists of five chapters. The chapter one deals with the introduction of the topic, it is subcategorized into ten sub-sections. It has shed light on all the issues to be dealt in the whole thesis. It has introduced both English and Maithili languages along with their importance, origin and historical facts. It has given an outline of the whole thesis giving information about the objectives of the research, importance of grammar, review of the related literature, significance of the study, contrastive analysis. Similarly, the last section contains the objectives of the study and the organization of the whole study.

The Second chapter which is one of the focal points of this dissertation deals with the framework of universally accepted definitions of non-finite clause their types like Infinitive, participle, Gerundial and purposive clauses structures and their functions. The infinitive clause is marked by the construction of: to + the base form of a verb and are like nominal clauses. Being nominal clauses, they work like a noun or noun phrase. The infinitival clauses function as a subject, as an object, as a adjunct and as a complement of the subject. Similarly Gerundial clauses are marked by –*ing* form of a verb e.g. run +*ing*= running, come+ *ing* = coming etc. which are also translated by infinitival clauses. The passivization of infinitival clause is done by placing 'be' between the infinitive and the 'to' particle. If there is a subject of the infinitival clause it becomes the object of 'by', which replaces the subject introducer 'for'. Infinitival clauses may take any position: initial, medial or final. Participial clauses are made by –*ing* and –*ed* forms of the verbs. It realizes the function of

64

adjectival clauses. Participial clauses have both defining and non-defining functions. They are identified by the use of commas and take any position in a sentence. Purposive clauses are formed by the use of infinitives. It has been seen that the purposive clauses are different from the infinitival clauses in the sense that infinitival clauses are nominal clauses whereas purposive clauses are adverbial clauses. The function of purposive clause is to show the purpose of the doer or the subject of the sentence. Negativization of purposive clauses is done by adding the negative particle 'not' in front of the infinitive whereas the passivization is done by the use of the verb 'be' in between 'to' participle and infinitives form function relationship and in the end it concludes the chapter.

The third chapter specially focuses a non-infinitive clause in the Maithili language. This chapter is subcategorized into their sub-sections. First part is about Introduction and types of non-finite clauses like infinitive,(i.e. bare and full), Gerundial, participial, converb clauses and their structures. There are two kinds of infinitive verb recognized in Maithili they are the "bare" infinitive and the "full" infinitive. The "bare" infinitive is without 'to' in sentences, they do not end in - *b, eb, -nai, it,* or - *l*; instead, formed by the addition of - *e-* followed by *bak lel/baste, ke , bak, me, ba me, b la*,or *la p r..* They differ from the full infinitives; the bare infinitives are never used as nominals and form a class by themselves: they are quite heterogeneous in character with in the class itself. The "full" Infinitive which uses 'to' in the sentences. The Infinitive form of the Maithili verb ends in *–eb* if the verb stem ends in *a*, or *O*, and in *–ab* everywhere else. The infinitive verb may instead end in *–nai*. Infinitive clauses in Maithili have the form: verb stem + *baak-lel* (to "v"), they precede finite verbs. They are also of two types gerundial and participle infinitive, gerundial infinitive ends in *–na*i; whereas participial infinitive ends in *-ait* and *al*.

Similarly participial infinitive are also of two types they are present participle and past participle. The present participle infinitives end in –*ait* and the past participle ends in –*a*l. Thus, an infinitive construction such. 'It is illegal for John to leave' can only be realized in the form of a gerundial construction in Maithili. Infinitives in Maithili precede the finite verbs in normal utterances.

The fourth chapter which is also a focal point of this dissertation, has founded out some similarities and dissimilarities in English and Maithili languages in terms of the non- finite clause structures and functions. Since English and Maithili languages are two different languages, there are some similarities and dissimilarities between them in terms of the structures. This chapter has presented some similarities, and dissimilarities that both English and Maithili languages are more similar in their structures, types and functions. This dissertation is organized in the way that it has orientation, evaluation, complication and resolution.

The fifth chapter gives the synopsis of the entire dissertation and concludes with the hypothetical solution to the statement of the problem that the non-finite clauses are formed through the attachment of affixes to the finite verbs.

5.2   Conclusion

Since, English is the medium of this research; I have made a maximum use of English clauses. I have made a keen study on the infinitive verbs which are recognized in Maithili. I have consulted the guide and experts every time wherever I came across problem with the analysis of different clauses.

A clause is a vast realm, therefore unsuitable for the topic for this research. As the thesis is to explore and invent unknown facts that lie within a trifle and neglected matter which when uncovered may expose many things of worth. Having realized this fact, I have a chosen Non-finite clause as a topic for this thesis assuming that it would

be specific, I have tried my best to alter my outlook at the non -finite clauses from the way linguists have been treating them traditionally. The research therefore, has been confined to non-finite clauses structure in English and Maithili. This has been concentrated on the surface structure because it is the surface structure that causes difficulty in acquiring the second language. It has not gone to the deep structure. While contrasting the surface structure of the non-finite clauses of the two languages, many similarities and differences have been found as mentioned above. Because of these factors both English learning Maithili speakers and Maithili learning English speakers are suffering a lot. A Maithili learning English language may have much difficulty in the choice between the infinitival and Gerundial forms. In Maithili, one can use either but in English there is a choice. There will be difficulty in the case of participial clauses for both English speakers learning Maithili and Maithili speakers learning English because of the positional and functional differences. Participial clauses in Maithili may realize the functions of nominals too, but not in English. The position of English participial may be any but not that of Maithili. Especially for an English speaker learning Maithili Converbial clauses is difficult because Maithili has mainly Converbial language. Maithili allows complex Converbial constructions which contains a 'Sequence of events'. Maithili Converb have different functions like cause effect relation, temporal coherence more than indicating only time relation in a sentence with opposite verbs. It is important that such factor that causes difficulty is to be clearly shown and illustrated in the course of language pedagogy so that the groups will benefit a lot. Similarly, the translation process will be easier and more appropriate. Thus, if the course designers keep this point in mind and design the course that illustrates such factors, the learning process will be easier and more effective. The central focus, therefore, has been given on non-finite clauses.

67

Work Cited

Aarts, Flor and Jan Aarts. *English Syntactic Structures*. Pargamon: Oxford, 1986.

Arts, B. *English Syntax and argumentation*, London: Macmillan press, 1997.

Asher, R.E. and J.M.Y. Simpson, eds. *The Encyclopedia of Language and Linguistics*.10 vols. Oxford etc. Pergamon Press, 1994.

Chomsky N. *Aspects of the Theory of Syntax*. Cambridge: M.A. MIT press, 1965.

Central Bureau of Statistics. *Population Census. National Planning Commission. Kathmandu*, 2003.

Chopra, *Candid High School English Grammar Composition*: Evergreen Publication, New Delhi; 1968.

Close, R.A. *A Reference Grammar of Students of English*. Hong Kong: Longman, 12th ed. 1988.

Crystal, David. *A Dictionary of Linguistics and Phonetics*. London: Blackwell, 1996.

Davis, A. I "*Maithili Sentences*". In Hale, A. (ed), Clause, Sentences and Discourse patten Vol.1. Ktm: SIL T.U press. 1973.

Ebert, Karen H *A Grammer of Athpare. Munchen*: Lincom, 1997.

Greenbaum, Sidney. *The Oxford English Grammar*. New York: Oxford University Press, 1996.

James. Carl. *Contrastive Analysis*. Ed. C.N Candlin. Singapore: Longman, 7th ed.1987.

Jha, D. *Maithili Bh s Kos* ('the Dictionary of Maithili Language),1950.

Jha, Govinda *Uchttar Maithili Vyakarana*, Patna: Maithili Sahitya Academy.1979

Jha, Y. *Maithili Vyakarana Aur Rachana* 'Patna'. Bharati Bhawan, 1979.

Jha, S. ' *The Formation of Maithili Language'*. London: Luzac and co, 1958.

Payne, Thomas E. *Describing Morpho Syntax*. Cambridge University Press, 2003.

Peterson, John, *"The Sequential Converb in Maithili"*. Eds. Y.P Yadava and W.W Glover. Kathmandu. Royal Nepal Academy.1999.

Procter, Poul, ed. *Cambridge International Dictionary of English*. Cambridge University press,1995.

Quirk, Randolph, and Sidney Greenbaum. *A University Grammar of English.* Pearson Education Ltd., 1973.

Quirk, Randolph, et al. *Comprehensive Grammar of the English Language*. London: Longman, 1985.

Radford, A. *'Transformational Grammar'*. Cambride: Cambridge university press, 1988.

Sthapit, S.K Address Lec on Coll. *Contrastive Analysis*. T.U.1998.

Schwarz, Catherin, ed. *The Chamber Dictionary*. New Delhi: Allied Chambers, 1998.

Van Driem, George. *A Grammar of English Language*: Mouton de Gruyter, 1987.

Williams, J. *"Clause patterns in Maithili"*.I Trail, ed patterns in Clause, Sentence and Discourse in Selected Languages of Nepal and India, Oklahoma: SIL. 1973.

Yadav, R.A. *'A Reference Grammar of Maithili'*. Berlin, New York, and Amsterdam Moutcude Griyier, 1997.

Yadava, Y.P and Warren W. Glover, eds. *Topics in Nepalese Linguistics.* Kathmandu: Royal Academy, 1999.

Yadava, Y.P Maithili: *'Facts about the world's language'*, 2001. *Linguistics*. Kathmandu: Royal Academy, 1999.

Zandvort, R. W and J. A Van EK. *A Handbook of English Grammar*. London: Longman 1957.