## CHAPTER ONE

## 1. General Background

Language is a medium through which we express our thoughts, emotions, ideas, and feelings. Language is the 'species-specific' and 'species-uniform' possession of man. It is God's special gift to mankind. Language is a social phenomenon, which connects people to each other. It is a means of communication; any system of communication can be called a language. Language is present everywhere- in our thoughts and dreams, prayers and meditations, relations and communications and rituals. Language cannot be spoken in a vacuum but it is spoken in a society. That is why, it serves social activity. It is our ability to communicate through words that makes us different from animal (Varshney, 1987, p. 1). Language is the most powerful, convenient and permanent means and form of communication. Non-linguistic symbols such as expressive gestures, signals of various kinds, traffic lights, road-signs, flags, emblems and many more such things as well as shorthand, morse and other codes, the deaf and dumb and braille alphabets, the symbols of mathematics and logics, etc. are also means of communication, yet they are not so flexible, comprehensive, perfect and extensive as language is. Language is the best means of self-expression. It is through language that they store knowledge, transmit messages, knowledge and experience from one person to another, from generation to another. Most of the activities in the world are carried on through or by it. It is through it that humans interact. It is language again that yokes the present, the past and the future together (ibid).

Language is a social phenomenon to establish good relation in the (human) community. Language, in brief, has been defined as a voluntary vocal system of human communication. According to Wardhaugh (1983), "Language is the medium, which is used by human beings to think in political, social, academic,
and artistic, and several other issues" (as cited in Khadka, 2006, p. 2). Different scholars have viewed language differently. According to Sapir (1921), "Language is a purely human and non-instinctive method of communicating ideas, emotions, desires by means of voluntarily produced symbols" (as cited in Lyons, 1981, p. 3). Similarly to Bloch \& Trager (1942), "A language is a system of arbitrary vocal symbols by means of which social group cooperates" (as cited in Lyons, 1981, p. 4). Likewise Wardhaugh (1983), defines language as "a system of arbitrary vocal symbols used for human communication"(p. 3). Thus, to conclude in one sentence, language is a systematic, purely human and non-instinctive means of communication.

### 1.1 Linguistic Scenario of Nepal

Nepal is a country of linguistic diversity. More than ninety-three languages are identified spoken in a small country like Nepal (CBS Report 2001). Most of these living languages do not have their written scripts they have only spoken forms. The languages spoken in Nepal are divided into four groups:

## (i) Indo-Aryan Group:

This group includes following languages:

| Nepali | Bengali |
| :--- | :--- |
| Maithili | Danuwar |
| Bhojpuri | Marwari |
| Tharu | Majhi |
| Awadhi | Darai |
| Urdu | Kumal |
| Hindi | English |
| Rajbanshi |  |

## (ii) Tibeto-Burman Group:

This group includes following languages:

| Tamang | Sherpa |
| :--- | :--- |
| Newari | Chepang |
| Rai group | Dhimal |
| Magar | Thami |
| Limbu | Thakali |
| Gurung | Jirel |

Sunuwar
(iii) Austro-Asiatic Group:

Satar is the only one language of this group. It is spoken in Jhapa district of eastern part of Nepal.
(iv) Dravidian Group:

Jhangadh is the only one language of this group, which is spoken in Nepal. It is spoken by the province of Koshi River in the eastern region of Nepal.

### 1.1.1 Status of the Maithili Language in Nepal

Maithili is an eastern Indo-Aryan language spoken by a total of about 21 million people in the eastern and northern regions of Bihar state of India and the South eastern plains, known as the Terai, of Nepal (Yadav, 1996, p. 1). According to Grierson (1883a), "Maithili was originally the language of the ancient Mithila, the kingdom of Janaka, the father of Sita, which was bounded on the west by the river Gandak, on the north by the Himālaya mountains, on the east by the Koshi, and on the south by the Ganges" (as cited in Jha, 2001, p. 2).

According to CBS (2001), Maithili is the second most widely spoken language of Nepal, as it is used by $27,97,582$ people living in south eastern part of the Terai. It is spoken by $12.3 \%$ people of total population. It has been taught as a subject of study in both the countries: Nepal and India from school to university level. In Nepal, it is used as a medium of instruction at primary level in the Terai region. It is also being taught as an optional first paper at the secondary level and as a major subject in the faculty of humanities and social sciences from intermediate to master levels (as cited in Mandal, 2008, p. 8). Today, however it is recognized as a distinct language and taught as such in the Indian universities of Calcutta, Bihar, Patna, Bhagalpur, Darbhanga, and Benares, and the Tribhuvan University of Nepal.

### 1.1.2 Grammar and its Importance

The term 'Grammar' has been derived from a Greek word 'Grammatika' or 'Grammatika Techne' which means 'the art of writing'. Grammar is the rules in a language for changing the form of words and combining them into sentences. Richards et al. (1985) define grammar as "a description of the structures of language and the way in which linguistic units such as words and phrases are combined to produce sentences in the language" (p. 107). We can define grammar as the connection of words and word groups in an acceptable structure. Grammar is one of the aspects of language that should be taught and learnt. It can be defined as how words are combined or changed to form acceptable units of meaning within a language. It is the set of formal pattern in which words of a language are arranged to convey meaning.

Thus, 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 the language. Grammar teaches us to manipulate a language in speech and writing. The main aim of grammar is to help the learners to choose structures which accurately express the meaning they want
to create. In this way, grammar is a means to improve accuracy in the use of language.

Grammar governs language. It is related to language which is an infinite number of well-formed sentences. Grammar is a set of structure of language on the basis of which different kinds of sentences are formed. The word "structure" means the arrangement of elements in their relationship to each other. By "structure of language" we mean the interrelationships of linguistic units such as sounds, morphemes, words, phrases, and sentences at various levels, namely, phonological, morphological, syntactic, semantic and discourse levels. According to Chomsky (1957), "A grammar is a model of the native speaker's competence" (as cited in Yadava, 2004, p. 105). That is to say, it contains a finite number of rules which generate (i.e. specify how to form, interpret and pronounce) the infinite number of all and only grammatial sentences in the language (ibid).

### 1.1.3 Noun Phrase Structure

According to Crystal (1980), the noun phrase can be defined as "the constructions into which nouns most commonly enter and of which, they are the HEAD word" (p. 320). In this regard, Quirk et al. (1985) have stated noun phrase as a word or group of words functioning in a sentence exactly like a noun, with a noun or pronoun as HEAD (p. 85). Different grammarians have tried to illustrate each bit of language structure. "A noun phrase is a phrase which has a noun as its most important constituent" (Aarts and Aarts, 1986, p. 60). It is characteristics of a noun phrase that it has a dominant member (the head) which can replace the entire phrase (ibid).

### 1.1.3.1 The English Noun Phrase

A phrase can be identified on the basis of the word class membership of its most important constituent; thus a noun phrase is a phrase which has a noun as
its most important constituent (Aarts and Aarts, 1986, p. 60). Noun phrases can function both as immediate constituents of sentences and as immediate constituents of other phrases. Sentence functions that are typically realized by noun phrases are those of subject, direct object, indirect object, benefective object, subject attribute and object attribute. In the internal structure of the noun phrase, three functions can be distinguished: determiner, modifier and head (ibid). The function of determiner is, in the majority of classes, an obligatory one which can be realized only once, is positionally restricted to the initial slot in the noun phrase and is usually realized by items from a number of closed classes. The function of modifier is an optional one. In this regard, Crystal (1980) has stated modifier as the structure of a noun phrase consists minimally of the noun (or noun substitute, such as a pronoun); the constructions preceding and following the noun are often described under the headings of premodification and postmodification respectively (p. 320). The item realizing the function of head determines the category of the phrase and is therefore realized by a noun or pronoun; the head is, without exception, an obligatory function. According to Celce-Murcia and Larsen-Freeman (1983), Noun phrase function in one of three ways in English: as subject, as objects, and as predicates (p. 84). Some possible noun phrase structures are given in the following way:

In the structure of the noun phrase we can distinguish three functions: head, determiner and modifier.
(a) Head

The head of a noun phrase is usually realized by a noun or a pronoun, e.g. N in the case of other NP. This is shown in the figure below:
(i) Phrases containing of only head

```
NP
    |
N
```

It is possible that a head is realized by a proper noun: John, as shown in the following figure.

```
NP
    |
    N
    |
John
```


## (b) Determiner

The determiner slot itself consists of three subcategories:
(i) predeterminer
(ii) central determiner and
(iii) postdeterminer

## (i) Predeterminer

It occurs before a head. e.g. all poetry, as shown in figure below:

$1 \quad \mid$
all poetry
In the figure above, a phrase (NP) consists of a head (N) and a second word. The second word includes the determiner 'all' in the NP.

## (ii) Central determiner

For example,
half a minute

The head (minute) is preceded by the predeterminer (half) and followed by the central determiner (a) as shown in the following figure.

(iii) Postdeterminer
for example:
half his many books
We have the following figure for above example:


## (c) Premodifier

In the structure of the noun phrase the function premodifier may be realized by means of:
(i) an adjective phrase
(ii) a noun phrase
(iii) a classifying genitive
(iv) an adverb phrase

## (i) Adjective phrase

The choice of an adjective phrase (or adjective phrases) in the structure of a noun phrase is independent of previous choices from the predeterminer; central determiner or post determiner items. For example:
all poetry - all English poetry.
In the above example the premodifier is realized by one-word adjective phrase.

## (ii) Noun Phrase

The head of a noun phrase can be premodified by another noun phrase which often consists of a head only. Many of such combinations are fixed and it is often hard, if not impossible, to distinguish them from compound nouns. Example:
garden city

## (iii) Classifying genitive

As the following example show, the noun phrase head may be premodified by a noun in the genitive:
a ladies' man.

## (iv) Adverb phrase

Finally, the noun phrase head can be premodified by an adverb phrase which consists of a head only. Example:
the then chairman

## (d) Postmodifier

In the structure of the noun phrase the function postmodifier may be realized by means of:
(i) an adjective phrase
(ii) an adverb phrase
(iii) a prepositional phrase
(iv) a noun phrase
(v) a finite clause
(vi) a non-finite clause

## (i) Adjective phrase

Adjective phrases may follow the noun head in the following cases:
(a) When noun head and adjective form an idiomatic expression:

Lords spiritual
(b) When the noun phrase head is a pronoun:
something interesting
(c) When the adjective is followed by a prepositional phrase:
people averse to hard work.

## (ii) Adverb Phrase

The following are examples of noun phrase with heads postmodified by an adverb phrase:
the way down
the way in

## (iii) Prepositional phrase

Noun phrase heads may be postmodified by a prepositional phrase, as in:
the city of Rome
a pound of sugar
(iv) a noun phrase

Postmodification by means of noun phrases is rare. Examples:
girls your age.
a rock that shape.
(v) a finite clause

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

## (vi) a non-finite clause

Three types of non-finite clause can occur in postmodification: infinitive clauses, -ing participle clauses and -ed participle clauses. As the examples show some infinitive clauses are reduced relative or appositive clauses. -ing participle and -ed participle clauses are reduced relative clause.
(e) Discontinuous modifier

1. adjective + noun + prepositional phrase
a similar wallpaper to yours
According to Chomsky (1965) "prime notation is used as N ' in all the phrases. He worked on various types of phrases and developed general schema
that captures the structure of all types of phrases" (as cited in Yadava, 2004, p.154).

Example:

## i. Noun phrase

Noun phrase is realized by three items : head, specifier and complement

## a. Head

Each phrase is built around a lexical category, e.g. an N in the case of an NP. This is shown in the figure below.
i. Phrase containing only heads.

NP

N
|
fish
i. Specifier

Although a phrase may consist of just a head, it often contains other elements also, as shown below:
i. Phrase consisting of head and specifier.


In the figure above, Phrase (NP) consists of a head (N) and a second word. The second word includes the specifier the in the NP.

## c. Complement

Consider the following example.
i. [NP the books about language]

We notice that in addition to a specifier and a head, a phrase contains a third element, viz. about language in the above example (i). Such element is called complement. In English, complements are attached to the right of their heads. The structure of noun phrase consisting of a specifier, a head and a complement is illustrated in the following format :


### 1.1.3.2 The Maithili Noun Phrase

"A noun phrase in Maithili may consist of a head which is either a noun or pronoun or a gerundial infinitive expression" (Yadav, 1996, p. 96). A noun phrase may also consist of a head preceded by a modifier. In a noun phrase construction, the head shows no agreement with the number of the modifying element. Determiners and other types of modifiers combine in Maithili to form complex noun phrases (ibid). A few examples are given below:
(a) ek - ta lal am

Numeral one- CLAS + ADJ + Head N
'A red mango'
(b) i kitab this book

### 1.2 Review of the Related Literature

Here are some research works on comparative study among different languages spoken in Nepal, e.g. Nepali, Rai, Limbu, Tharu and English in the Department of English Education. But no research is conducted on the comparison between English and Maithili noun phrase structure in our department. The related literature to the present study as follows:

Sah (2000) worked on "A Comparative Study of Subject-Verb Agreement in English and Maithili". He finds that English S-V agreement system is determined with the agreement of number between subject and verb but Maithili S-V agreement is determined by the inflectional affixes not only with the subjects but with the objects as well. The committed errors were due to overgeneralization, mother tongue interference, and hypercorrection.

Kattel (2000) has carried out research entitled "A Comparative Study on Terms of Address Used by English and Nepali Speakers". His study has compared contrasted the terms of address in English and Nepali. In this research, his findings were : In this research, his findings were: There may be just one pronoun of address (e.g. you and sometimes thou) as in case of the English, but there may be as many as eight pronouns of address in case of the Nepali language.

Mahato (2001) has carried out research entitled "A Comparative Study of the Subject-Verb Agreement in English and Tharu". The study shows that second and third person pronouns do not change for honorific forms in English whereas they do in the Tharu. Tharu verbs are marked for formal and informal forms but not in English verbs.

Bhattarai (2001) analyses different types of cases in Nepali and English showing differences and similarities between cases in two languages on his
study "Case in English and Nepali: A Comparative Study". In this research, his findings were : verb agrees with the subject in both languages. The verb plays the central role in determining cases in both languages.

Mukhia (2001) worked on "Passivization System Between English and Maithili: A Comparative Study". He finds that passivization system between English and Maithili are different in all grammatical aspects. He also finds that there are some areas which are similar in both languages.

Adhikari (2001) has carried out research entitled "Case Realization in English and Nepali: A Comparative Study". The comparison of case realization in English and Nepali has been done mainly from three angles: Semantic role, Syntactic function and morphosyntactic form.

Phyak (2004), has carried out research entitled "English and Limbu Pronominals : A Linguistic Comparative Study". He finds that the main objectives of his study were to determine pronominals in relation to English and find out similarities and differences between Limbu and English pronominals. His study shows that Limbu and English pronominals systems are different. Limbu language has more complex pronominal system than in English. Similarly, he found that Limbu personal and possessive pronouns are categorized under three numbers: singular, dual and plural but the English has only two numbers: singular and plural.

Khadka (2005) has carried out research on "Noun Phrase Structure in English and Nepali: A Comparative Study". He finds that Regarding the essential constituent of a Noun phrase head, the two languages in question are found to have similar heads, as both of them accept the three types: noun, preposition and adjective and also found that verbs get inflected according to sex and honorific grade in Nepali but English does not have such system.

Thapa (2006) has carried out research on "Noun Phrase Structures in English and Limbu Languages: A Comparative Study". He finds that in terms of structural organizations, English has at least 18 types of Nominal Head Noun Phrase Structures, 2 types of pronominal Head, 8 types of Generative Head, 4 types of Infinitival Head and 3 types Adjectival Head Noun Phrase structure. On the other hand, Limbu contains 14 types of Nominal Head Structures, 2 types of Pronominal ones, 6 types of Generative ones, 2 types of Infinitival ones and 5 types of Adjectival Head Noun phrase structures in general the distribution of the structures of different heads seems similar, but English phrase structures are slightly greater in number.

The present study is different from the above mentioned studies in the sense that it explored the noun phrase structure of the Maithili language.

### 1.3 Objectives of the Study

The present study had the following objectives
(a) to identify the noun phrase structure in the Maithili language
(b) to find out the similarities and differences between the structures of noun phrase in the Maithili and English language.
(c) to suggest the pedagogical implications of the findings of the study.

### 1.4 Significance of the Study

Being the first attempt of studying the comparative study of Noun Phrase structure between Maithili and English languages in the Department of English Education. The findings of the study will be helpful for Maithili students, linguists, teachers, and other concerning authority. It will equally be beneficial to grammarians, researchers, textbook writers, especially for those who are involved in teaching and learning the English and Maithili languages.

## CHAPTER TWO

## METHODOLOGY

The following strategies had been adopted to fulfill the above mentioned objectives:

### 2.1 Sources of Data

The study was based on both primary and secondary sources of data.

### 2.1.1 Primary Sources

The study was mainly based on the primary data, i.e. the answers from the respondents through the questionnaire distributed to them. For this source, the researcher selected his informants from a campus of Janakpur Dham.

### 2.1.2 Secondary Source of Data

The researcher consulted various books, journals, reports, articles, thesis related to the study. Some of them are Quirk et al. (1985), and Yadav (1996).

### 2.2 Sampling Procedure

The population of this research were graduate students. The sample population for the fulfilment of this research were 40 graduate students from the graduate level and 40 scholars were taken from Maithili speaking community. They were selected systematically by using simple random sampling procedure. The campus from which sample population were taken was selected non-randomly using judgemental sampling procedure.

### 2.3 Tools for Data Collection

The researcher used a questionnaire to collect the authentic data for the fulfilment of objectives. The questionnaire consisted of two type of questions. Of them, the first type of question was to identify the noun phrase and the last
was to translate the sentences into the Maithili language. In addition, as being a native speaker of the Maithili language, the researcher used his own intuition as well. The data for English noun phrase structures were obtained from secondary sources.

### 2.4 Process of Data Collection

The researcher firstly visited the selected campus to collect the authentic data from which the informants were selected. The researcher consulted the authorized persons of the campus and established a kind of rapport with the students. He also visited different scholars of Maithili community. Then the researcher administered the prepared questionnaire to them one after another their convenience.

### 2.5 Limitations of the Study

The present study had the following limitations:
(a) The study did not cover the structures of the noun phrase of any variety of Maithili other than the standard one;
(b) This study was limited to the selected words from collected data in Maithili and English from the books by different grammarians.
(c) This study was mainly concentrated to pinpoint similarities and differences between English and Maithili noun phrase structure.
(d) This study followed the descriptive method.
(e) There were only 40 imformants from a Campus and 40 from Maithili speaking community.
(f) The questionnaire consisted of only two types of questions.
(g) The research was confined to the selected campus of Janakpur.
(h) The study was further limited to the analysis of the responses obtained from the respondents only.
(i) Only the Maithili speakers were the informants for this study.

## CHAPTER THREE

## ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION

After collecting the data, the third chapter deals with the description of noun phrase structures, classification of English and Maithili noun phrase heads, and properties of the head in relation with gender, number and case were analyzed and interpreted with clear examples.

### 3.1 Noun Phrase Structure: Description

Noun phrase can be defined as a group of words with a noun as the head. Noun, accordingly, is a word which can occur as the subject or object of the verb or the object of a preposition and can be modified by an adjective or can be used with determiners. For example,

1. Girls
2. The girl
3. The blonde girl
4. The girl in blue jeans
5. The blonde girl wearing blue jeans
6. The blonde girl who is wearing blue jeans
7. She

In the above example, (1) contains only one word (noun) with suffix, (2) has a determiner and a noun, (3) a determiner, a modifier (adjective) and a noun; in (4) the noun is followed by a prepositional phrase, (5) contains a determiner, a modifier, a noun and a non-finite clause following the noun, (6) has a finite relative clause after the noun and (7) has one pronoun. This shows that a nominal word, i.e., noun, pronoun, etc. is an obligatory element in a noun phrase. This obligatory element in a noun phrase is called the 'Head' of the
phrase. Modifying elements occurring before the head are called pre-modifiers and those occurring after the head are known as post-modifiers. Determiners precede pre-modifiers in the structure. Thus, a noun phrase has the following structure:

$$
(\text { Determiner })+(\text { Pre-modifier })+\mathrm{H}+(\text { Post-modifier }) .
$$

A noun phrase without any modifier constituent is called a simple noun phrase whereas one with a modifier is called a complex noun phrase.

### 3.1.1 Noun Phrase Structure in English and Maithili

The noun phrase in English consists of an obligatory head which is either nominal, pronominal, gerundive, infinitival or adjectival. They are shown (ae) below respectively.

## English

(a) Nominal Head
8. Peter arrivers soon.
(Determiner optional)
9. The boy arrives soon.
(Determiner obligatory)
(b) Pronominal Head
10. We arrive soon.
(c) Gerundive head
t
11. Walking is good.
(d) Infintival head
12. To walk is good for health.
(e) Adjectival head
13. (The) poor should be uplifted.

Maithili
(a) Nominal Head

1. Ram ge-l
(Ram went)
(b) Pronominal Head
2. to) ha)s-l-e
(you laughed)
(c) Gerundive head
3. $\mathrm{t} \leftrightarrow \mathrm{hl}-\leftrightarrow \mathrm{b} / \mathrm{t} \leftrightarrow \mathrm{h} \leftrightarrow \mathrm{l}$ - nai nik $\mathrm{h} \Theta$ -
(walking will be good)
(d) Infinitival head
(4) dhumrapan $n \leftrightarrow i$ nik $h \Theta-$ ttch $-\leftrightarrow i$
(to smoke is not good)
(e) Adjectival Head
(5) Kari gay $\mathrm{n} \leftrightarrow \mathrm{i}$ kin $-\leftrightarrow \mathrm{b}$

In addition to an obligatory head, an English noun phrase may optionally contain modifiers. These modifiers include the following word classes.
(a) Determiner
14. These Boys are coming.
(b) Adjective
15. A beautiful girl is dancing.
(c) Adverb
16. They carried a very heavy load.
(d) Relative clause
17. The girl who is coming here is my sister.
(e) Appositive clause
18. Mr. Brown, primeminister of England, won the election.
(f) Prepositional phrase
19. The population of the world is increasing.

Similarly, a Maithili noun phrase may also optionally contain modifiers: These modifiers include the following categories:
(a) Determiner
6. i kitab
(this book)
(b) Adjective
7. bahut nick log (very good man)
(c) Genitive pronoun
8. $\mathrm{ok}-\leftrightarrow \mathrm{r} \quad \mathrm{gh} \leftrightarrow \mathrm{r}$ (his house)
(d) Demonstrative pronoun
9. i gai banh-u (tie the cow)
(e) Quantifier
10. ketek caur
(How much rice)
(f) Adjective
11. Kari gai
(a black cow)
(g) Cardinal number
12. duta pahun $\Theta-1-$ an
(two guests came)

### 3.1.2 Noun Phrases Structure in English and Maithili with Various Heads

A noun phrase in Maithili may consist of a head which is either nominal head, pronominal, geruntive, infinitival or adjectival. It is shown in the following way:

### 3.1.2.1 Nominal Head Noun Phrases

A Maithili noun phrase consists of an obligatory head, like an English as:

English Noun Phrases
a. Noun only

20 John
b. Noun + Noun
21. Sing language
11.a $\mathrm{m} \leftrightarrow$ ugi $\mathrm{s} \leftrightarrow \mathrm{b}$
(women)
Maithili Noun Phrases
(w)

c. Noun + Noun + Noun

12a. zilla\# sIpahI $k \leftrightarrow$ ryalayi
22. District police Office

d. Det + Adj+ Noun

13a. u gauke $\operatorname{logs} \leftrightarrow b$
23. The tall boy


zilla\# sIpahI $\mathrm{k} \leftrightarrow$ ryalay
(those village people)


### 3.1.2.2 Pronominal Head Noun Phrases

The head of the noun phrase should not necessary be a noun, but it can be a pronoun too.

A pronoun stands for the whole noun phrase the modifying particles 'only' and 'also' can modify the pronominal head. In Maithili as well, a pronoun replaces the whole noun phrase, therefore, modifying and determining elements are nonexistent. However, the post modifying adverbial can occur with a pronoun.

## English Noun Phrases

a.
24. we

NP
|
Pro

we

Maithili Noun Phrases
14a. to)
(you)
NP


Pro

a. to)
you
b. Mod + Noun
25. only it

15.a. to)hi khali

$$
(\text { you only })=\text { only you }
$$



### 3.1.2.3 Gerundive Head Noun Phrases

A gerund is a formation of verb which functions similar to a noun in a sentence. Gerunds are formed by addition of the suffix 'ing' after a verb. A Maithili gerund, on the other hand, is formed by the addition of 'nai' suffix in a verbal root. For example,

## English Noun Phrases

a. Noun only
26. Walking will be good

b. Adj + Noun
slow walking


Maithili Noun Phrases
16a. $\mathrm{h} \leftrightarrow$ sani
(laughing)

17.a nik culnai
(good walking)

c. Det + Noun
28. This dancing
18.a i ha)snai
(This laughing)



### 3.1.2.4 Infinitival Head Noun Phrases

An infinitive is formed with the addition of 'to' particle before a verbal word. The following types of constructions are available in English and Maithili.

English Noun Phrases
a. Noun only
29. To wash

b. $\quad \mathrm{N}+\mathrm{Adj}$

30 To do good is difficult


### 3.1.2.5 Adjectival Head Noun Phrases

Adjectives are generally modifying words in a noun phrase. However, they can also function as the head of the phrase. Different types of adjectival head structures in English and Maithili are given below:

English Noun Phrases
Maithili Noun Phrases
a. Noun only
31. Rich
b. Det. + Adv. + N
32. The very rich get richer


### 3.2 Classification of English and Maithili Noun Phrase Heads

### 3.2.1 Classification of Nominal Heads

Noun is the synonymous word for a noun phrase. Because of the indefinite number of words belonging to nominal category, classification of nouns into coherent sets is a complex procedure. Basically, nouns in the English language can be classified into common nouns and proper nouns; common noun can further to subdivided into count nouns and mass nouns. Animate and nonanimate is another set which divides nouns into specific semantic categories. Animate nouns can further be divided into human and non-human classes, which then can be of either masculine or feminine category. This can be shown in diagrammatic form as follows:

## Diagram 1 : Classification of Noun in English



Some examples of various types of nouns can be shown as follows using the classificatory features.

| a) 33 | Peter | $=+\mathrm{C},+\mathrm{A},+\mathrm{H},+\mathrm{M},-\mathrm{P}$ |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| b) | 34 | Johns | $=+\mathrm{C},+\mathrm{A},+\mathrm{H},+\mathrm{M},+\mathrm{P}$ |
| c) | 35 | Peter | $=+\mathrm{C},+\mathrm{A},+\mathrm{H},-\mathrm{M},+\mathrm{P}$ |
| d) | 36 | Car | $=+\mathrm{C},-\mathrm{A},-\mathrm{H}, \mathrm{O},-\mathrm{P}$ |
| e) | 37 | Stone | $=+\mathrm{C},-\mathrm{A},-\mathrm{H}, \mathrm{O},-\mathrm{P}$ |
| f) | 38 | Birds | $=+\mathrm{C},+\mathrm{A},-\mathrm{H}, \pm \mathrm{M},+\mathrm{P}$ |
| g) | 39 | Bull | $=+\mathrm{C},+\mathrm{A},-\mathrm{H},+\mathrm{M},-\mathrm{P}$ |
| h) | 40 | Ideas | $=+\mathrm{C},-\mathrm{A},-\mathrm{H}, \mathrm{O},+\mathrm{P}$ |
| i) | 41 | Brothers | $=+\mathrm{C},+\mathrm{A},+\mathrm{H},+\mathrm{M},+\mathrm{P}$ |
| j) | 42 | Furniture | $=-\mathrm{C},-\mathrm{A},-\mathrm{H}, \mathrm{O},-\mathrm{P}$ |

(Source : Quirk, R \& Greenbaum, S, 1973)

Maithili nouns can also be classified into count and non-count nouns. Count nouns can further divided into either animate nouns or non-animate nouns. A
count animate noun can be either a proper noun or a common noun, which can further be classified into masculine, feminine or common gender categories. A non-count, on the other hand, is always non-animate, non-human and nonproper. It is also insensitive to gender categories and is always singular in number. But the count nouns can have two numbers in Maithili like English one. This can also be represented in the following 'feature diagram':

## Diagram 2 : Classification of Noun in English


(Source : Quirk, R, S. Greenbaum, G. Leech, and J. Savartvik, 1985)


The various types of nouns are illustrated below :
a. $\quad 22 \mathrm{a} . \quad$ Mohan (name of a man)
$+\mathrm{C},+\mathrm{A},+\mathrm{H},+\mathrm{P}$ singular
b. $\quad 23 \mathrm{~b} . \quad \mathrm{Ku}$ )rsi (chair)
$+\mathrm{C},-\mathrm{A},-\mathrm{H},+\mathrm{P}$ singular
c. $\quad 24 \mathrm{c} . \quad \mathrm{B} \leftrightarrow$ hut $\log$ (Many people)
$+\mathrm{C},+\mathrm{A},+\mathrm{H},-\mathrm{P}$ Plural
d. $\quad 25 \mathrm{~d} . \quad \mathrm{Pa}$ )in (water)

- C, - A, - H, - P singular
e. $\quad 26$ e. $\quad b \leftrightarrow h u t p \leftrightarrow t h \leftrightarrow r$ (more stones)
$+\mathrm{C},-\mathrm{A},-\mathrm{H},-\mathrm{P}$ plural


## A. Number

The English number system constitutes a two-term contrast: singular which denotes 'one' and plural, which denotes 'more than one'. On the basis of number contrast we can distinguish three main number classes of nouns in English.
a. Singular in variable nouns: Non-count nouns are singular invariable nouns, i.e., they have no plurals. Nouns, such as proper nouns (john) Abstract nouns (music), etc. belong to this category.
b. Plural invariable nouns: These nouns occur only in plural form. Nouns, such as, summation nouns (scissors), unmarked plurals (people), etc. belong to this category.
c. Nouns with regular/irregular plural: In this category, regular plural inflections - s/es or irregular changes are shown to the corresponding singular nouns e.g.

|  |  | Singular |  | Plural |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| a) | 43. | boy | - | boys |
| b) | 44. | box | - | boxes |
| c) | 45. | tooth | - | teeth |

Since Maithili has no grammatical number. Distinctions of number into singular and plural therefore, mean little in the Maithili nominal system.

Nevertheless, periphrastic plurality is indicated by the addition of a separate word, i.e. 'sab' (all) rather than by morphological means:

|  | $\underline{\text { Singular }}$ | $\underline{\text { Plural }}$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 27 a | $\mathrm{j} \leftrightarrow \mathrm{n}$ (The laborer) | $\mathrm{j} \leftrightarrow \mathrm{n}$ sab (The laborers) |
| 28 a | $\mathrm{g} \Theta$ (The cow) | $\mathrm{g} \Theta$ sab (The cows) |

In the Maithili language, the plural morpheme 's $\leftrightarrow \mathrm{b}^{\prime}$ may also be placed before nouns.

29a $\quad$ sab $\mathrm{j} \leftrightarrow \mathrm{n}$ (All laborer)

A plural morpheme lok $\leftrightarrow$ in 'people' may be used with human noun - in order to indicate plurality as well as honorificity and politeness.

The examples show that addition of 's $\leftrightarrow \mathbf{b}$ ' after singular have means 'all' in Maithili.

## B. Case

Case is defied as "the functional role of noun or phrase in relation to other words in the clause or sentence. English nouns do not have inflectionally marked cases except for genitive - possessive case. However, English case markers are placed before noun for which they are used. The following case relations are shown using the following case marker prepositions.

|  | Case Relation | Case marker/preposition |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| a. | Nominative | $-/$ (man) |
| b. | Accusative | $-/$ (man) |
| c. | Dative | + (to man) |
| d. | Agentive | by (by man) |
| e. | Possessive | is + possessed (man's purse) |
|  |  | of + possessor (the purse of the man) |
| f. | Recipient | for (for a man) |
| g. | Locative | at (at man) |
| h. | Directive | to (to a man) |
| i. | Commutative | with (with a cow) |
| j. | Vocative |  |
|  |  | use of an interjection (on : man) |
|  |  | (Source : Mukhiya, 2001) |

Maithili, on the other hand, has no inflectional case system. Case relations are indicated instead by separate words which are referred to as postposition because they appear the following the noun.

Maithili language has eight cases: nominative, accusative, instrumental, dative, ablative, genitive, locative and vocative. Here is a list of the eight cases in Maithili with their respective case endings:
Case relation
Case marker/postpositions
a) Nominative

O or none
b) Accusative 'ke' (to)
c) Dative 'kelel' (for)
d) Instrumental
'lak $\leftrightarrow$ ' (by means of) or dwara (with)
e) Ablative
f) Genitive
$\mathrm{s} \leftrightarrow)$ (from)
g) Locative 'par' (on)
h) Vocative

O
(Source : Yadav, 1996)

The following examples illustrate the use of cases:

30a. ch $\square$ )ra $\Theta-1$ (Nominative case)
boy (nom.) came
'A boy came'
b) $\quad \mathrm{ra}$ m ch $\square \mathrm{ra}$ ke $\mathrm{pit} \leftrightarrow \mathrm{l} \leftrightarrow \mathrm{k}$ (Accusatives)

Ram boy (Acc) bear.
'Ram beat the boy'.
c) SIta ra $\quad \mathrm{m}$ ke-lel pen (Datives)

Sita Ram (Dat.) pen bought.
'Sita bought a pen for Ram'.
d) $\quad$ Moh $\leftrightarrow \mathrm{n} \mathrm{k} \leftrightarrow \mathrm{l} \leftrightarrow \mathrm{m}$ lak $\leftrightarrow$ likhal $\leftrightarrow \mathrm{k}$ (Instrumental)

Mohan pen (Instru) wrote
'Mohan wrote with a pen'.
e) u) ghar $s \leftrightarrow) \Theta-1$ (Ablative)

He house (ABL) came
'He came from house'.
f) $\quad \mathrm{ram}-\leftrightarrow \mathrm{k}$ bh $\Theta$ (Genitives)

Ram (GENT) brother
'Ram's brother'
g) $\quad$ kitab tebul $\mathrm{p} \leftrightarrow \mathrm{r} \leftrightarrow i \mathrm{ich}$

Book table (Loc) be - PRES
(The book is on the table)
h) No case maker is used in vocative case.

## C. Gender

Gender relates nouns into either masculine or feminine classes on the basis of sex distinction. Most English nouns have covert gender, i.e. they do not show explicit inflections for either gender. For example,

|  |  | Masculine | Feminine |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| a) | 43 | Bull | cow |
| b) | 44 | Boy | Girl |
| c) | 45 | Father | Mother |
| d) | 46 | Widower | widow |

There are also some nouns which are inflectionally marked for the change of gender, usually for the feminine gender. For example,

|  | Masculine | Feminine |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 47 | Duke | Duchess |
| 48 | Prince | Princess |
| 49 | Actor | Actress |

Some nouns, such as, baby, infant, parents, etc are gender neutral.

Inanimate nouns are regarded as gender free. However, they are attributed with human quality to show a gender distinction. For example,
a) 50 The earth (feminine)
b) $51 \quad$ Ship (feminine)

Whatever the gender of a noun in English, nouns do not have any repercussion in the selection of modifiers or in the agreement system. However, the gender distinction is marked in the selection of pronouns for human nouns in the singular form. e.g.
a) 52 Sita sold her bracelets $($ Sita $=$ Human/ singular feminine $)$
b) 53 The cow is happy with its calf. (The cow = non-human/plural feminine)
c) $54 \quad$ Brother should live in their houses. (Human/plural feminine)

The explanation above shows that gender is more a lexical feature of noun in English, rather than an inflectional one.

Only biological sex is reflected in Maithili nouns, and that only to a limited degree, primarily in animal names such as:

|  | Masculine | $\underline{\text { Feminine }}$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 31.a | Murga) 'rooster' | murgi\# 'hen' |
| 32.b | ghora 'horse' | ghori\# 'mare' |

Some of the kinship terms are also distinguished by gender marking:

|  | Masculine | Feminine |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 33.a | beta\# 'son' | beti 'daughter' |

Only if an animate noun ends in a\# can be altered to register feminine gender, as the rooster' example above. For some animals, instead of registering gender by a suffix change, an entirely different word is used. For example,
35.a ga\#y 'cow' sa\#rh 'bull'

For a few human nouns the feminine form is produced by an addition to the masculine form of the suffix written as $-\mathrm{n}=\mathrm{i}$ but usually pronounced as $-\underline{\mathrm{in}}$, for example:

|  | Masculine |
| :--- | :--- |
| 36a | dhobi 'washerman' |
| 37b | Mukhya\# 'headman' |
| 38c | na\#ti 'grandson' |

Feminine dhobini 'washerwoman' mukhya\#ni 'headman's wife' natini 'granddaughter'

The explanation above states that Maithili gender inflectionally is marked in nouns by adding suffix to form feminine form.

### 3.2.2 Classification of Pronominal Heads

## A. Classification

Pronouns in English can be classified into seven sub-classes; personal pronoun, interrogative pronoun, demonstrative pronoun, relative pronoun, possessive, reflexive pronoun and indefinite pronoun.

Maithili pronouns can also be classified into seven categories: personal pronoun, demonstrative pronoun, interrogative pronoun, relative pronoun, possessive pronoun, reflexive pronoun and indefinite pronoun.

They are described below:

## a. Personal Pronoun

Personal pronouns refer to either animate or non-animate persons. They show person distinctions of speaker ( $1^{\text {st }}$ person), hearer ( $2^{\text {nd }}$ person), reference ( $3^{\text {rd }}$ person) made in a conversation. English personal pronouns are marked for Number (singular/plural), possession, reflection and subject-object use in a sentence. This can be shown as follows:

Table No. 1 : Classification of Pronouns in English

| Number | Subjective |  | Objective |  | Possessive |  | Reflexive |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
|  | Singular | Plural | Singular | Plural | Singular | Plural | Singular | Plural |
| $1^{\text {st }}$ | I | we | we | us | my | our | myself | ourselves |
| $2^{\text {nd }}$ | you | you | you | you | your | your | yourself | yourself |
| $3^{\text {rd }}$ | He <br> She <br> It | They | him | her | hi/her | their | himself | them- |
| her |  | her | herself | selves |  |  |  |  |
| it |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |

The table shows that there are several pronouns in English with various forms for objective, possessive, reflexive and plural uses. It also shows that English personal pronouns are inflected only for reflexive use, but other uses show more or less separate lexical forms.

Maithili personal pronouns are marked for person and honorificity: first person, second person, and third person. The personal pronouns and their distinctions in number an honorificity are given below:

Table No. 2 : Classification of Pronouns in Maithili

| Personal | Singular | Plural |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| First Person | $\mathrm{h} \leftrightarrow \mathrm{m}$ | $\mathrm{h} \leftrightarrow \mathrm{m} \mathrm{s} \leftrightarrow \mathrm{b} / \mathrm{lok} \leftrightarrow \mathrm{in}$ |
| Second Person <br> High honorific <br> Honorific <br> Mid-honorific <br> Non-honorific | $\leftrightarrow$ pne <br> $\leftrightarrow h a)$ <br> to) <br> to) | $\leftrightarrow$ pne $\mathrm{s} \leftrightarrow \mathrm{b} / \mathrm{lok} \leftrightarrow \mathrm{in}$ <br> $\leftrightarrow$ na) $\mathrm{s} \leftrightarrow \mathrm{b} / \mathrm{lok} \leftrightarrow \mathrm{in}$ <br> to) $\mathrm{s} \leftrightarrow \mathrm{b} / \mathrm{lok} \leftrightarrow \mathrm{in}$ <br> to $\mathrm{s} \leftrightarrow \mathrm{b}$ |
| Third Person <br> Honorific <br> Non-Honorific | $\begin{aligned} & \mathrm{O} \\ & \mathrm{u} / \mathrm{o} \end{aligned}$ | O $\mathrm{s} \leftrightarrow \mathrm{b} /$ lok $\leftrightarrow \mathrm{in}$ <br> $\mathrm{u} / \mathrm{o} \mathrm{s} \leftrightarrow \mathrm{b}$ |

(Source : Jha, 2001)

## b. Interrogative Pronouns

Interrogative pronouns can be divided into two main classes: human and common. English has only one human interrogative pronoun which can be inflected for the following distinctions overtly.

Table No. 3 : Human Interrogative Pronouns in English

| Pronoun | Subjective | Objective | Possessive |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| who | who | when | whose |

There are two common interrogative pronouns in English: 'what' and which:
They are marked for possessive use but not for subjective/objective use.

This can be shown as follows:

Table No. 4 : Non-Human Interrogative Pronoun in English

| Pronoun | Subjective | Objective | Possessive |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| what | what | what | whose |
| which | which | which | whose |

There are two interrogative pronouns in Maithili : Human and non-human, human stands for ke 'who' and non-human stand for $\mathrm{ki} / \mathrm{k} \leftrightarrow$ thi and thus has both honorific and non-honorific forms. $\mathrm{Ki} / \mathrm{k} \leftrightarrow$ thi is used for non-human (and inanimate) objects and naturally does not have honorificity. The following examples are illustrative:
39. $\leftrightarrow$ ha) ke ch-i ?
you who are?
'who are you ?'
40. ki kh $\Theta$-ne ch-I ?
'what have you eaten'
41. $\mathrm{k} \leftrightarrow$ thi le-b ?
'what will you take'

## C. Indefinite Pronouns

English has a sufficient number of indefinite pronouns made out of 'some' and 'any' with the addition of 'body/one' and 'thing' for human and non-human references respectively. These features give six English indefinite pronouns. These pronouns are unmarked for number, as they are always singular. They are as follows:

Table No. 5 : Indefinite Pronouns in English

| Personal | Non-Personal |
| :--- | :--- |
| some + body = somebody | some + thing = some thing |
| some + one = someone |  |
| any + body = anybody |  |
| any + one $=$ anyone | any + thing = anything |

(Note : No + body = nobody, none and no + thing = nothing can also be regarded as indefinite pronouns in negative polarity. They are also gender and number neutral).

Like in English, the indefinite pronouns in Maithili are Keo 'some one, anyone' and Kichu 'something, anything'. Keo is used for human nouns alone and had honorificity distinctions, while Kichu (or ever kiuch) is used for inanimate objects and consequently does not have honorific - nonhonorific distinctions. In adddition, there are two more indefinite pronouns, $\operatorname{Ked} \leftrightarrow u$ (i.e., the interrogative pronoun $\mathrm{ke}+\mathrm{d} \leftrightarrow \mathrm{u}$ ) 'somebody unknown; an kidon (i.e., the interrogative pronoun $\mathrm{ki}+$ don) 'something unknown'.

## d. Demonstrative Pronoun

English demonstrative pronouns can be sub-classified into singular-plural and near distant categories. It can be shown as follows:

Table No. 6 : Demonstrative Pronouns in English

| Number | Near | Distant |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Singular | This | That |
| Plural | These | Those |

Maithili demonstrative pronouns are of two types-singular-plural and proximate remote like English ones.

It can be shown as following:

Table No. 7 : Demonstrative Pronouns in Maithili

| Number | Near | Distant |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Singular | i | o |
| Plural | I sab | o sab |

## e. Relative Pronoun

A relative pronoun, not only refers to some noun going before, but it also joints two sentences together. It is, therefore, a conjuctive pronoun. The noun (or its equivalent) to which the related refers to is called Antecedent.

English relative pronouns are who, which, what, that but the relative pronoun is most commonly expressed by who or which.
a. Who is used for person; such as

55a. They never fail who die in a great cause.
b. Which is used for lower animals and things without life; such as,
56.a The moment which is lost is lost for even.

In Maithili the relative pronouns 'ke' is used for human and 'ki' is used for nonhuman. For example,

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \mathrm{ke}-\text { who } \\
& \mathrm{ki}-\text { what }
\end{aligned}
$$

The relative pronoun in Mathili is most commonly expressed by ke 'who' and ki 'what".

## f. Reflexive Pronoun

In English, they are called reflexive pronoun when the action done by the object turns back (reflects) upon the subject. For example,
57.a She hurt herself

It will be noted that each of these reflexive pronouns is used as the object of a verb, and refers to the same person or thing as that denoted by the subject of the verb.

Here are some personal pronouns to which 'self' or 'selves' are added. For example,

| Pronouns | Self/selves |
| :--- | :--- |
| my | myself |
| our | ourselves |
| your | yourself |
| him | himself |
| her | herself |
| it | itself |
| them | themselves |

In Maithili, the reflexive pronoun is $\leftrightarrow$ pne 'self' is added. For example,
42. $\mathrm{h} \leftrightarrow \mathrm{m} \leftrightarrow \mathrm{pne} \leftrightarrow \mathrm{n}-1-\leftrightarrow \mathrm{hu}$
a I (refl) brought
'I bought myself'.
43. to) $\leftrightarrow$ pne ge-l.e
you (Refc) went
'You went yourself'
a. Case

English pronouns, similar to nouns, have both lexical and inflectional case markings. Case marking in English pronouns can be shown as follows.

|  | Case | Singular | Plural |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 1. | Nominative/Accusative | i/he/she | you/they/we |
| 2. | Accusative | me/him/her | you/us/them |
| 3. | Ablative | with + Accusative form | with + Accusative for |
| 4. | Agentive | by + Accusative for | by + Accusative for |
| 5. | Dative | to + Accusative for | to + Accusative for |
| 6. | Possessive | my/his/her | your/our/their |
| 7. | Locative | at + Accusative for | at + Accusative for |

In Maithili unlike the nouns, the pronouns undergo some changes in form when followed by a postposition (the usual signal of a case relationship). In the pronoun charts, three cases are shown: the subject case which is similar to the noun structure in that it is unmarked; the possessive case, which is marked either by a case suffix (without the presence of ke) or by ke, and if marked by ke may have the ke opotionally realized as $-\underline{\mathrm{k}}$ or - $\underline{\mathrm{ak}}$; and the postpositional case which is needed whenever a postposition is used, whether if be the ke marking direct or indirect objects or any other postposition. Notice, however, that in the singular, first person, second person non-honorific and third person animate postpositional forms cannot take the postposition ke. Unlike the nouns, the pronouns occurring in an object role must always be marked, whether aimate or inanimate; they are marked by the postpositional form of the pronoun plus ke, if the form allows ke. Since there is considerable alternation in the basic forms of the pronoun as the case ending are added, the entire forms will be listed below:

| 'I' | 'you' | 'you' |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
|  | honorific | non-honrific |

Singular

| Subj | $\mathrm{h} \leftrightarrow \mathrm{m}$ | aha) | to) |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| post | $\mathrm{h} \leftrightarrow \mathrm{mar}$ | ana)k, ana) ke | tohan |
| Ppal | $\mathrm{h} \leftrightarrow \mathrm{mra})^{*}$ | aha) | tora\#* |

Plural

| Subj | h $\leftrightarrow$ m sabh | aha) sabh | to) sabh |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| post | h $\leftrightarrow$ mra\# sabhak | ana), sabhak | tora\# sabhak |
|  | $h \leftrightarrow$ mra\# sabh ke** ana), sabh ke | tora\# sabh ke |  |
| Ppal | $h \leftrightarrow m r a)$ | ana) sahb | tora\# sabh |

Note: * Cannot take ke
** Fast speech often contracted to hamra\#s ke
(Source : Yadav, 1996)

## b. Number

English pronouns show two number distinctions into singular and plural. This applies for all persons.

Maithili pronouns also show two number systems like English ones. the number markers for personal, demonstrative and interrogative pronouns are similar to those used for marking nouns.

Indefinite pronouns are always singular in Maithili.

## c. Gender

Gender characteristics are made distinct only for the $3{ }^{\text {rd }}$ person pronouns in English. The form 'He' is used for masculine subject; 'she' for feminine subject
and 'it' for common subject. Gender distinction is blurred in plural even for the $3^{\text {rd }}$ person, i.e. 'they' is used for all pronouns. Gender distinction in Maithili pronoun is similar to that of noun.

### 3.2.3 Classification of Gerundive Heads

Gerunds are the present participle forms made with the addition of '-ing' suffix to a verbal root. Some examples are given follows:

|  | Verbal root |  | Gerund |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| a. | 58 | go | going |
| b. | 59 | walk | walking |
| c. | 60 | dance | dancing |
| d. | 61 | teach | teaching |

Gerunds in Maithili are formed by the addition of the fuffix '-nai' to the verbal roots. They are also present in participle forms, like in English. Some examples are given blow.

|  | $\underline{\text { Verbal root }}$ | $\underline{\text { Gerund/Present Participles }}$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 44 a. | $\mathrm{t} \leftrightarrow \mathrm{h} \leftrightarrow 1$ | $\mathrm{t} \leftrightarrow \mathrm{h} \leftrightarrow 1$-nai |
|  | (walk) | (walking) |
| 45 a. | na)c | nac)-nai |
|  | (dance) | (dancing) |
| 46 a. | pit | pit-nai |
|  | (beat) | (beating) |

## A. Case

English gerundive heads do not show inflections. They are used for nominative case relation only.

Like the nominal or pronominal category, gerunds in Maithili also have similar case system. However, possessive and vocative case relations are not possible with a gerundive noun head.

## B. Number

The number distinction of singular and plural does not present in English gerundive heads. All heads in this category are singular.

Normally, gerunds are neutral to any number distinctions in Maithili. They are regarded as singular for normal purposes.

## C. Gender

Similar to the neutrality of number, Engish gerundive heads are also gender neutral and, so are common in reference. Because they are related to verbal category, the natural sex distinctions are not important here. The distinction of gender in gerundive head is not significant in Maithili.

### 3.2.4 Classification of Infinitival Heads

Infinitive heads in English are formed by the addition of 'to' - participle before a verbal root. Some examples are given below.

|  | Verbal root | Infinitive |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 62 | go | to go |
| 63 | walk | to walk |
| 64 | sleep | to sleep |
| 65 | teach | to teach |

The markings and distinctions of case, gender and number are not inflected or made significant for infinitival head in the English language. They are always singular. Some examples are given below:

66a. To walk is good exercise.
67b. To save money seems impossible.
68c. To learn is different.

Maithili infinitival noun heads are formed by the addition of the suffix ' $-\leftrightarrow$ it' or $' \leftrightarrow l$ ' to verbal root. Some examples are given below:

|  | Verbal root | Infinitive nouns |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 47 a. | kha | kha-it |
|  | (eat) | (to eat) |
| 48 a | $\mathrm{h} \leftrightarrow) \mathrm{s}$ | $\mathrm{h} \leftrightarrow) \mathrm{s}-\mathrm{it}$ |
|  | (laugh) | (to laugh) |

Infinitival nouns also follow the similar case system at gerundive nouns. The number distinctions of singular and plural are also blurred in Maithili, in that only singular forms are used for general purposes of communication.

### 3.2.5 Classification of Adjectival Heads

English adjectival heads can be classified into three sub-classes: generic, pronominal and derived adjectives. Generic adjectives are usually used with a determiner to refer to a class of the item specified, for example,

66 The poor is helpful.
67 The rich is selfish.

Pronominal adjectives do not take any determiners and refer to some implied noun phrase. For example,

68 Ram is first.
69 Who is stronger.

Derived adjectives are formed out of verbal roots and nominal roots with the addition of inflections. Some examples are given below:

| a. | Verbal root | Derived adjectives |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 70 | (to) amuse | amused |
| 71 | (to) satisfy | satisfied |
| 72 | (to) terrify | terrified |

In sentences,
73. Amused are never found.
74. Satisfied become happy.
75. Terrified can not think well.

|  | Verbal root | Derived adjectives |
| :--- | :--- | :---: |
| 76 | Japan | Japanese |
| 77 | Labor | Laborious |

In sentences,

78 The Japanese work hard.
79 The laborious always succeeds.

Maithili adjectival nouns can be made from nominal root, verbal root etc. For example,
$49 \mathrm{~g} \leftrightarrow \mathrm{ri}) \mathrm{b}$ s $\leftrightarrow$ hyogi ho $\leftrightarrow$ it $-\leftrightarrow$ ich
poor helpful is
'poor is helpful'

Here, $s \leftrightarrow$ hyogi 'helpful' plays the role of adjective head.

Adjectival head in Maithili shows no number or case distinctions. Gender distinctions are shown, but only in marginally.

In Maithili, Animate adjectival heads are referred to as masculine or feminine on the basis of natural gender. The definite suffix appears as 'ka' in masculine forms as - 'ki' in feminine forms:

|  | Masculine | Feminire |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 50 a | Mot-ka $\Theta .1$ | Mot-ki $\Theta-1$ |
|  | (The fatman came) | (The fat woman) |
| 51 a | uj↔r-ka gel | ujer-ki gel |
|  | (The white went) | (The white woman went) |

### 3.3 Noun Phrase Modifiers

This chapter is divided into two sections. The first section deals with the premodifiers of a noun phrase and the second section deals with the post modifiers of the same.

### 3.3.1 Pre-Modifiers

A Maithili noun head can be pre-meodified by the following items:
a. determiners
b. quantifiers
c. nouns
d. adjectives
e. numerals
f. participles

## a. Determiners

A simple noun phrase is a noun or a noun with a determiner. Below are given a pair of sentences with a simple noun phrase in each case. If the noun phrase (in $52 a$ ) has a single noun, there is a noun with a determiner (in 52b).

52a $\quad \mathrm{b} \leftrightarrow$ ua\# kaane la) $g \leftrightarrow 1$
'the child began to weep'.
b. kuch b $\leftrightarrow$ ua k k $\leftrightarrow$ nit ho $\leftrightarrow$ it
'Some child was weeping'.

The structure of the above examples can illustrate in the following tree diagrams:

In Maithili : Det +N
a) NP
 (Child) (some) (Child)
b)


In English : Det +N


In (52b) kiuch 'some' acts as an indefinite determiner. Determiners, in Maithili can be looked upon from different angles. Let us consider the degree of definiteness and its occurrence first.

53a. ek-ta bidyarthi $\leftrightarrow$ ha)-ke $\mathrm{t} \leftrightarrow \mathrm{k} \leftrightarrow \mathrm{it} \mathrm{ch} \leftrightarrow 1$
'A student was seeking you'
b. nib binaake kalam $\mathrm{s} \leftrightarrow) \mathrm{n} \leftrightarrow \mathrm{I}$ likha $\leftrightarrow \mathrm{it}$
'A pen without a nib does not write'
c. $\quad$ o s $\leftrightarrow \mathrm{b} \mathrm{h} \leftrightarrow \mathrm{mra}$ (ek-ta) fil $\leftrightarrow \mathrm{m}$ dekh $\leftrightarrow u t a)$
'they will show mea movie'

An analysis of the above examples reveals the sense difference in each case (53a) shows an 'ek-ta' 'a' correspondence for indefinite reference. (53b) evince 'a' correspondence between Maithili and English for definite reference, whereas (53c) points to the fact-that the occurrence of the determiners like 'ek-ta' and 'a' is not always beyond ambiguity. In (53c) like English the reference could be indefinite or non-definite in its sence. But the ambiguity can be overcome by resorting to the negative transformation of the same.
$54 \quad$ o s $\leftrightarrow$ b h $\leftrightarrow \mathrm{mra}$ ) fil $\leftrightarrow \mathrm{m} \mathrm{n} \leftrightarrow \mathrm{i}$ dekh $\leftrightarrow$ uta)
They will not show something

The transformation clarifies how 'a movie' is concerned with generic reference and yet its equivalent in Maithili drop the indefinite marker 'ek-ta'.

Sometimes ek-ta 'a' correspondence becomes obligatory. This is so when 'a' functions as a quantifier.
$55 \quad$ o ka $\leftrightarrow i l$ ek-ta kitaab $\operatorname{kinl} \leftrightarrow \mathrm{k}$
'he bought a book yesterday'

Here, 'ek-ta' in the above example, plays the role of quantifier.

For both the non-definite 'a' and the definite 'the' there is a phonologically zero determiner in Maithili.

56a. na\#tak $\mathrm{n} \leftrightarrow$ inik bhel / la) $\mathrm{g} \leftrightarrow 1$
'The play turned out to be bad'
b. tu) i git redios $\leftrightarrow$ ) sunna $s \leftrightarrow$ kiche
'you can listen this song on the radio'

## b. Quantifiers

Quantifiers such as 'b $\leftrightarrow$ hut', (many) kiuch (some), $\mathrm{p} \leftrightarrow$ hil (first) etc. Occur in the pre-modifying determiner position in the Maithili noun phrase. For example,
57. $\quad \mathrm{b} \leftrightarrow$ hut log
'many people'
58. $\mathrm{p} \leftrightarrow$ hil kheladi
'first player'
59. kiuch a\#lu
'some potato'

The NP structure of the above examples can be shows in the following diagrams:

In Maithili : Quan ++N
a)

b)

c)


In English: Quan ++N
a)

b)

c)


These examples show that the quantifiers in Maithili are not divisible in terms of count and mass noun determiners. They remain the same for all types of nouns.

## c. Nouns

In Maithili, the head of a noun phrase can be pre-modified by another noun phrase. For example,
60. $\mathrm{k} \leftrightarrow \mathrm{mp} \leftrightarrow \mathrm{ut} \leftrightarrow \mathrm{r} \mathrm{gh} \leftrightarrow \mathrm{r}$
'computer room'
61. sa\#Nketik bhasaa
'singh language'

Look at the structure of the above examples.

In Maithili : $\mathrm{N}+\mathrm{N}$
a)

b)


In English : $\mathrm{N}+\mathrm{N}$
a)

b)


The explanation above states that it is not uncommon for the noun phrase head to be pre-modified by a noun phrase in the Maithili noun phrase. So, the above examples shows that $\mathrm{k} \leftrightarrow \mathrm{mp} \leftrightarrow \mathrm{ut} \leftrightarrow \mathrm{r}$ and saNketik are the modifiers of $\mathrm{gh} \leftrightarrow \mathrm{r}$ and bha sa respectively.

## d. Adjectives

In Maithili, noun phrase always occurs before the nouns head it modifies. For example,
62. kari gay
'A black cow'
63. mot-ka $\mathrm{m} \leftrightarrow \mathrm{r} \leftrightarrow \mathrm{d}$
'the fat man'

The data so far studied show that Maithili has two types of adjectives occurring before a noun. They are definite and indefinite adjectives: definite adjectives are formed by adding the definite masculine suffix - 'ka' or the definite feminine suffix - 'ki' to adjectival stem. On the other hand, indefinite adjectives consist of the adjectival stems themselves. For example,
64. mot-ka $\mathrm{m} \leftrightarrow \mathrm{r} \leftrightarrow \mathrm{d}$ (the fat man) mot-ka $\mathrm{j} \leftrightarrow$ nana (the fat woman)
65. lal aam (A red mango)

The above example (64) shows that a remarkable feature of adjective modifiers in the Maithili language showing an agreement with noun heads in terms of gender.

## e. Numerals

Like in English, the numerals in Maithili are cardinals, ordinals an Aggregative numeral. For example,
66. du.ta pahun $\Theta-l-$ ah (cardinal numeral)
'Two guests came'
67. $\operatorname{dos} \leftrightarrow \mathrm{rch}$ )ra ke $\mathrm{b} \leftrightarrow \mathrm{ja}-\mathrm{u}$ (ordinal numeral)
'Call the second boy'
68 tinu ch $\square$ )ra ke a\#m di- $\leftrightarrow$ uk (Aggregative numeral)
'Give mango to all the three boys'

In Maithili, cardinal, ordinal and aggregative numbers function in the structure of the noun phrase or as constituents of the sentence.

In the above examples, (66) 'du-ta' (two), (67) 'dos $\leftrightarrow r^{\prime}$ (second) and (68) 'tinu' (three) are cardinal, ordinal and aggregative numerals respectively.

## f. Participles

A Maithili noun head can be pre-modified by two types of participles; present participles and past participles.

## i. Present Participle

In Maithili, present-participle infinitive ends in - ' $\leftrightarrow i \mathrm{it}$ '. For examples,
69. $\mathrm{d} \leftrightarrow \mathrm{ur}-\leftrightarrow$ it ghora ke ke $\mathrm{p} \leftrightarrow \mathrm{kr}-\leftrightarrow \mathrm{t}$ ?
'who will catch the running person.
70. $\mathrm{h} \leftrightarrow \mathrm{m} \mathrm{d} \leftrightarrow \mathrm{ur}-\leftrightarrow$ it $\Theta-\mathrm{l}-\leftrightarrow \mathrm{hu})$
'I came running.

## ii. Past Participle

In Maithili, the past-participle infinitive ends in - ' $\leftrightarrow 1$ '. For examples,
71. tut $-\leftrightarrow 1$ khat 'the broker cot'

72 $\mathrm{p} \leftrightarrow \mathrm{rh}-\leftrightarrow 1 \log$ 'an educated person'

### 3.3.2 Post-Modifiers

Maithili noun phrases also have modifying elements coming after the head noun. There are called 'post-modifiers'. In Maithili, data have shown that only relative clause functions as a post-modifier noun phrase.

## a. Relative Clause

In Maithili, relative pronouns, 'je' (who), 'kono' (which), 'jek-ra' (when) are attached with the noun phrase in the modifying clause. For example,
73. u ch $\square$ )ra - jek-ra h $\leftrightarrow \mathrm{m}$ nik jeka) cinh- $\leftrightarrow \mathrm{it}$ ch-i $\leftrightarrow \mathrm{ik}$
'the boy whom I know well'
74. i bidyarthi je kailh $\Theta-1$
'The student who came yesterday'

In the above examples (73) 'jek-ra' (whom) and (74) 'je' (who) follow the head noun (75) u ch $\leftrightarrow$ )ra (the boy) and i bidyarthi' (the student) respectively. So, jek-ra (whom) and 'je' (who) function as the post-modifiers in the Maithili noun phrase.

## CHAPTER FOUR

## FINDINGS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

On basis of analysis and interpretation, there are both similarities and differences in the structural properties of the various types of noun phrase in the two languages. The findings drawn from the study are as follows:

### 4.1 Findings

1. Regarding the essential constituent of a noun phrase head, the English and Maithili languages in question are found to have similar heads, as both of them accept the five types. Nominal head, pronominal head, gerundive head, infinitive head, and adjectival head. For example,

Maithili
i. ram ge-1
ii. to) $\mathrm{h} \leftrightarrow) \mathrm{s}-1-\mathrm{e}$
iii. $\quad \mathrm{t} \leftrightarrow \mathrm{hl}$-nai nik $\mathrm{h} \Theta$ - t
iv. na\#c nai nik $\mathrm{n} \leftrightarrow \mathrm{i}$ hoich $\leftrightarrow \mathrm{i}$
v. kari gai $\mathrm{n} \leftrightarrow \mathrm{I} \operatorname{kin}-\leftrightarrow \mathrm{b}$

## English

Ram went
you laughed
Walking will be good
To dance is not good
I will not buy a black cow.

Both languages account for simple and complex noun phrases. In complex phrase, a clear structural break down into pre-modifier, head and post-modifier can be made. However, realization of these modifier varies as described.
a. An English noun phrase pre-modifier is realized either by adjective, noun or adverb where as Maithili noun phrase pre-modifier is realized by determiner, quantifier, noun, adjective, numerals and participles. The category of article is not found in Maithili. But relative clause follows
the head in the phrase in both languages. However, the number of items in each category may vary between them.
b. Only relative clause such as 'jek-ra' (whom), je (who) and 'kono' (which) occur in the post-modifier position in the Maithili noun phrase whereas an adjective phrase, an adverb phrase, a prepositional phrase, a noun phrase, a finite clause, and a non-finite clause often occur in the post modifier position is English noun phrase. So, the greater number of categories has made English noun phrase more complex than in the Maithili language.
2. Both English and Maithili nouns are inflected for only two categories of number: singular and plural. English system of pluralization also uses the plural suffix s/es after nouns is a common phenomenon in most cases whereas in Maithili, plurality is indicated by the addition of a separate word, i.e., sab 'all' rather than by morphological means. However, in both languages the non-count nouns are singular in grammatical behavior.
3. In Maithili, distinctions of gender marking system are determined solely by the sex of animate noun and nouns get inflected by the addition of suffix '-ain', 'ni', ' $\leftrightarrow i$ in' and vowel modification and suppletion whereas English nouns have both lexical as well as grammatical gender marking system.
4. Maithili has no-inflectional case system, instead case relations are indicated by separate words which follow the noun whereas such inflections are also not available in English, instead case relations are indicated by preposition preceding the noun.

## Maithili <br> $\operatorname{ram} \mathrm{gh} \leftrightarrow \mathrm{r} s \leftrightarrow \Theta-1$

## English

Ram came from home.
5. In the pronominal head noun phrase, both English and Maithili take same person markers: First person, second person and third person but English personal pronouns are marked for number (singular/plural), possession, refection and subject - object use in a sentence whereas Maithili personal pronouns are marked for person and honorificity. Such hnosoficity is lacking in English.
6. In the classification of pronoun, reflexive pronouns are found in both English and Maithili. Both reflexive pronouns are inflected from personal pronouns in the possessive or objective use with the addition of ' $\leftrightarrow \mathrm{r}$ ' or ' k ' (-self) as suffix (-selves in plural). These pronouns are marked for both number and gender distinctions as in other types of pronouns.
7. In English, the roles and relations of the constituents in a sentence are expressed through word order and prepositions. In Maithili, they are expressed by postpositions. Pre-positions occur before the noun and post-positions occur after the noun.

## Maithili

kitab tebul $\mathrm{p} \leftrightarrow \mathrm{r} \leftrightarrow \mathrm{ich}$ table.
8. English is an SVO patterned language where as Maithili is an SOV patterned language. In English the verb appears just after the 'actor' in initial position whereas it appears sentence finally in Maithili.

## English

The book is on the

## Maithili

tu) $\mathrm{gh} \leftrightarrow \mathrm{r} \mathrm{s}) \leftrightarrow \Theta-1$

## English

You came from home.
9. The Maithili 'tu)' can be used for both male and female but in English 'he' is used for male and 'she' is used for female.
10. Both English and Maithili languages do not show any distinction of number and gender in gerundive and infinitival head nouns. Adjectival head nouns are not inflected for number and case in Maithili but only the gender distinction is present whereas only the number category is present in English.
11. English has article system which Maithili lacks. The articles in English function as determiners. In Maithili demonstrative pronouns which agree with noun in number function of determiners.

## Maithili

pen lal $\leftrightarrow i$ ich

## English

The pen is red

### 4.2 Recommendations

The goal of language teaching is to develop the learner's knowledge and skills which enable them to play certain roles in another language and community, to turn them into performers in the target language, and to give them a communicative competence. Language learners do not teach language, they teach a particular realization or manifestation of human languages. It can be achieved through its use and the formation and speaking rules of the target language.

On the basis of the findings of the present study, some recommendations are suggested below:

1. The main aims of this comparative study is to find out similarities and differences in noun phrase structure between the English and Maithili languages. There would be no problem in the areas where the two
languages are similar but differences between the first and the target language create difficulty in learning the target language. Therefore, teaching should be focused on the areas of difficulty.
2. As the number of noun phrase structure is greater in English than in Maithili, the differences should be provided with clear examples while learning them.
3. In Maithili, distinctions of gender marking system are determined solely by the sex of animate noun and nouns get inflected by the addition of suffixes '-ain', 'ni', ' $\leftrightarrow i$ in' and vowel modification and suppletion whereas English nouns have both lexical as well as grammatical gender marking system. Therefore, adequate contrastive practice should be provided while teaching this aspect in either language.
4. The grammatical case marking (post-positional) of Maithili should be taught contrastively against the lexical (pre-positional) case marking of English, with clear structural examples.
5. English is an SVO patterned language whereas Maithili is SOV patterned language. The teachers of both the languages should concentrate well on this concept while teaching so that the 12 learners can easily understand sentence patterns of both the languages.
6. English has article system which Maithili lacks. The teacher who teaches English as a foreign language to the Maithili learners should give the concept of article system clearly associating with the function of demonstrative pronoun as determiners in Maithili.
7. The Maithili pronouns 'tu)' can be used for both male and female. Thus, the teachers of both the languages should provide clear concept of Maithili and English pronouns to the learners.
8. The Maithili noun phrase follows the structure of pre $m+N$ (aakas ke phal) and the English noun phrase follows the structure of $\mathrm{N}+$ Post . m (the fruit in the sky). Thus, the teachers of both languages should concentrate well on such structures of NP.

### 4.3 Review of the Findings

On the basis of analysis and interpretation, the researcher reviewed by stating that there are two kinds of noun phrase structures both in English and Maithili. They are simple noun phrase consisting of only head and complex noun phrase consisting of pre-modifiers preceding the head and post-modifiers following the head. Nominal, pronominal, gerundive, infinitive and adjectival play the role of head of the noun phrase in both languages. The head of the noun phrase is inflected by gender, number and case.

Complex noun phrase consists of pre-modifiers and post-modifiers. An English noun phrase pre-modifier is realized either by adjective, noun and adverb whereas Maithili noun phrase pre-modifier is realized by determiners, quantifiers, noun, adjective, numerals and participles. Only relative clause such as 'jek-ra' (whom), 'je' (who)and 'kono' (which) occur in the post-modifier position in Mathili noun phrase whereas an adjective phrase, an adverb phrase, a prepositions phrase, a noun phrase, a finite clause, and a non-finite clause often occur in the post-modifier position in English noun phrase. So, the greater number of categories had made English noun phrase more complex than in the Maithili language.

English system of pluralization makes use of plural suffix s/es after nouns but in Maithili, plurality is indicated by the addition of a separate word, i.e., sab 'all' rather than by morphological means. In Maithili, distinctions of gender marking system are determined by the sex of animate noun and nouns get inflected by the addition of suffix '-ain', 'ni' ' $\leftrightarrow$ in' and vowel modification and suppletion whereas English nouns have both lexical as well as grammatical gender marking system. At last, in English, the roles and relations of the constituents in a sentence are expressed through word order and prepositions but in Maithili, they are expressed by postpositions.

So, this is the first research carried out on the comparative study of noun phrase structure between Maithili and English in the Department of English Education. The findings of the study will be helpful for Maithili students, linguists, teachers, researchers and other concerning authority.

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## APPENDIX - I

## Genetic Affiliation of Language in Nepal

## Diagram 1



Source: CBS Report, 2002, Population Census, 2001 HMG/CBS.

## Diagram 2



Source: CBS Report, 2002, Population Census, 2001 HMG/CBS.

## Diagram 3



## Diagram 4



Source: CBS Report, 2002, Population Census, 2001 HMG/CBS.

## APPENDIX - III

## QUESTIONNAIRE

This questionnaire has been prepared to have the authentic data/information to achieve the objectives of the study or research work entitled "Noun Phrase Structure in the English and Maithili Languages" which is conducted under the supervision of Dr. Govinda Raj Bhattarai, professor, Department of English Education, Faculty of Education, T.U. Kirtipur, Kathmandu. So, the researcher hopes that you all provide him the authentic data for his objectives of the research work by solving the problems that are in your hands. Your provided data will be very precious contribution to accomplish this research work.

Expecting your kind co-operation and participation in it.

Thank you!<br>Researcher: Vijay Kumar Ray<br>M.Ed. $2^{\text {nd }}$ Year<br>University Campus, Kirtipur,<br>Kathmandu

Name:
Level:
Roll No:
Sex: Male ( ) , Female ( )
College:
(A) Identify each of the noun phrase in the following sentences:

1. ओ हमर धनिक काका छथि। (He is my rich uncle.)
$\qquad$
$\qquad$
$\qquad$
$\qquad$
$\qquad$
$\qquad$
$\qquad$
$\qquad$
$\qquad$
2. ओ हमरा सबके उपाय बतौलथि । (He showed us the way out.)
$\qquad$
$\qquad$
$\qquad$
$\qquad$
$\qquad$
$\qquad$
$\qquad$
$\qquad$
3. ऊ अपना साथमे के सभे पैसा हेरेलक । (He lost all the money he had.) ................... $\qquad$
$\qquad$
$\qquad$
$\qquad$
$\qquad$
$\qquad$
$\qquad$
$\qquad$
$\qquad$
4. आँहक काकी हमरा सबके एकटा दुखद आ जीवन्त कथा सुनलथि । (Your aunt told us a sad and moving tale.)
$\qquad$
$\qquad$
$\qquad$
$\qquad$
$\qquad$
$\qquad$
$\qquad$
$\qquad$
5. जनवरी स हमसब ई दुनु बरका रकम बुकाद्वे्व परतै । (From January we'll have to pay both these high amounts)
$\qquad$
$\qquad$
$\qquad$
$\qquad$
$\qquad$
$\qquad$
$\qquad$
$\qquad$
$\qquad$
$\qquad$
6. ओकर माँ बाबु ई बरका रकम तिरबाक लेल बहुत बढ़का धनिक आदमी अछि । (His parents are people rich enough to pay that amount of money.)
$\qquad$
$\qquad$
$\qquad$
$\qquad$
$\qquad$
$\qquad$
$\qquad$
$\qquad$
$\qquad$
$\qquad$
7. हमरा सभक अनुमान सँ किछु बेसीसे नमहर कोठा छल । (It was a bigger room than we had imagined.)
$\qquad$
$\qquad$
$\qquad$
$\qquad$
$\qquad$
$\qquad$
$\qquad$
$\qquad$
8. हमरा सबमेस ककरो नै मालुम भेलछलै जे ऊ नोकरीस हटादेलगेलै । (None of us had heard the news that he had been fired.)
$\qquad$
$\qquad$
$\qquad$
$\qquad$
$\qquad$
$\qquad$
$\qquad$
$\qquad$
$\qquad$
9. हमरा सबलग ऐहन कोनो संकेत नहि अछि जे कहाँ खोजु । (We have no indication where to look.)
$\qquad$
$\qquad$
$\qquad$
$\qquad$
$\qquad$
$\qquad$
$\qquad$
$\qquad$
10. अहा सभक उमेरके लड़कीसबके एहन कपड़ा नै लगावक चाहि । (Girls your age shouldn't wear that kind of dress.)
$\qquad$
$\qquad$
$\qquad$
$\qquad$
$\qquad$
$\qquad$
$\qquad$
$\qquad$
$\qquad$
11. अपना सबके बाहरक दुनियास सम्पर्क जोड़ बाला माध्यम समाचार छल जे अपनासब रेडियोपर सुनै छलहुँ । (Our link with the outside world was the news we heard over the radio.)
$\qquad$
$\qquad$
$\qquad$
$\qquad$
$\qquad$
$\qquad$
$\qquad$
$\qquad$
$\qquad$
$\qquad$
12. घर जे ओ किनलक से हमर काकाके रहित छल । (The house he bought used to the my uncle's)
$\qquad$
$\qquad$
$\qquad$
$\qquad$
$\qquad$
$\qquad$
$\qquad$
$\qquad$
$\qquad$
$\qquad$
13. जे हम आशा कैलौ ताहिस कहि बेसी एकटा निक निबन्ध आहा लिखनेछि। (You have written a much better essay than I expected.)
$\qquad$
$\qquad$
$\qquad$
$\qquad$
$\qquad$
$\qquad$
$\qquad$
$\qquad$
$\qquad$
14. उ दिन जहिया ओ गेला से शनिचर छल । (The day before he left was a Saturday.)
$\qquad$
$\qquad$
$\qquad$
$\qquad$
$\qquad$
$\qquad$
15. ऊ केनाक अपन अवसर प्राप्त केलैथ ताहिके बारेमा विभिन्न प्रकारक टिकाटिपनी हमसब सुननेछि । (We have heard so may speculations about how he acquired fortune.)
$\qquad$
$\qquad$
(B) Translate the following sentences in to Maithili language.
16. I went through all poetry that was available to me.

Maithili: $\qquad$
$\qquad$
2. That tall black man was standing in the corner.

Maithili: $\qquad$
3. The book that I need is very interesting.

## Maithili:

$\qquad$
$\qquad$
4. A mother stabbed all her three children to death.

Maithili: $\qquad$
$\qquad$
5. The government made double the amount.

## Maithili:

$\qquad$
6. It's really tough to answer this last question.

## Maithili:

$\qquad$
$\qquad$
7. You have to consult the fourth chapter.

## Maithili:

$\qquad$
$\qquad$
8. Our next attempt will be to analyze these data.

## Maithili:

$\qquad$
$\qquad$
9. He has lost half his many books.

## Maithili:

$\qquad$
10. I gave beautiful gifts to both my younger sisters.

Maithili: $\qquad$
$\qquad$
11. Banglore is a garden city of India.

Maithili: $\qquad$
$\qquad$
12. John and Jimy are friends of mine.

Maithili: $\qquad$
$\qquad$
13. All the men face court martial.

## Maithili:

$\qquad$
$\qquad$
14. This is the sum total of my achievement so far.

Maithili: $\qquad$
$\qquad$

## 15. I want something interesting.

## Maithili:

$\qquad$
$\qquad$
16. This is the best book there is on the subject.

Maithili: $\qquad$
17. John lacks the energy to write such a book.

Maithili: $\qquad$
18. He is the man to talk to.

Maithili: $\qquad$
$\qquad$
19. Mine is a similar wallpaper to yours.

Maithili: $\qquad$
$\qquad$
20. My brother is as intelligent a man as I would like to be.

Maithili: $\qquad$
$\qquad$
21. There were two passengers in the taxi, who are killed.

Maithili: $\qquad$
$\qquad$
22. I received a letter asking me to return to Janakpur.

Maithili: $\qquad$
$\qquad$
23. The general impression given by this book is favourable.

Maithili: $\qquad$
$\qquad$
24. Some of the stories that were published by him are unreliable Maithili: $\qquad$
25. I am not interested in the fact that he is a millionaire.

Maithili: $\qquad$

Thanks for your kind co-operation and participation in it !

## APPENDIX - III

## QUESTIONNAIRE

This questionnaire has been prepared to have the authentic data/information to achieve the objectives of the study or research work entitled "Noun Phrase Structure in the English and Maithili Languages" which is conducted under the supervision of Dr. Govinda Raj Bhattarai, professor, Department of English Education, Faculty of Education, T.U. Kirtipur, Kathmandu. So, the researcher hopes that you all provide him the authentic data for his objectives of the research work by solving the problems that are in your hands. Your provided data will be very precious contribution to accomplish this research work.

Expecting your kind co-operation and participation in it.

Thank you!<br>Researcher: Vijay Kumar Ray<br>M.Ed. $2^{\text {nd }}$ Year<br>University Campus, Kirtipur,<br>Kathmandu

Name:
Education:
Occupation: Sex: Male ( ), Female ( )
(A) Identify each of the noun phrase in the following sentences:

1. ओ हमर धनिक काका छथि। (He is my rich uncle.)
$\qquad$
$\qquad$
$\qquad$
$\qquad$
$\qquad$
$\qquad$
$\qquad$
$\qquad$
$\qquad$
$\qquad$
2. ओ हमरा सबके उपाय बतौलथि । (He showed us the way out.)
$\qquad$
$\qquad$
$\qquad$
$\qquad$
$\qquad$
$\qquad$
$\qquad$
$\qquad$
$\qquad$
$\qquad$
