

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 General Background

Human being is the supreme creature of the world. It is claimed so not because of its highest population but because of its uniqueness in itself. It has got uniqueness in different aspects. Out of many unique aspects, language is the most striking one. Language is said unique for human being because no other species in the world has got this property. Because of this reason, linguists use the term 'Language' for human being and 'Animal Communication' for animals. Language, thus, makes human being distinct from other creatures.

Language is a means of communication. It is extremely complex and highly versatile code used for human communication. It is a dynamic and open system that allows humans to communicate their thoughts, feelings, desires, emotions, experiences and ideas.

1.1.1 An Overview of the Maithili Language

Mithila in ancient time was the kingdom of Janak, the father of Sita. It was bounded on the West by the river Gandak, on the North by the Himalayan Mountains, on the East by the Koshi and on the South by the Ganges. Approximately, three quarters of this historical kingdom has gone into the administrative parts of present day India, whereas a quarter stretching towards the North is the integral part of Nepal.

Maithili is one of the branches of New Indo-Aryan (NIA) language written in the Devangari script. It is spoken in the two adjoining south Asian countries, Nepal and India. As its name implies, Maithili is the language of residents of Mithila the pre-historic ancient kingdom ruled by the then king Janak. However, modern Mithila is politically split into adjacent parts of two different nations - Nepal and India and yet it exists as an inalienable cultural entity

mainly owing to the proximity of regular interaction between the Maithili speaking communities of the two nations.

Maithili was regarded either as a dialect of Bengali or of Eastern Hindi or as one of the three dialects of a spurious language called 'Bihari' (Grierson 1883b-87b). Today, however, it is recognized as a distinct language and taught as such in the Indian Universities of Calcutta, Bihar, Patna, Bhagalupr, Darbhanga and Benaras, and the Tribhuwan University of Nepal. In Nepal, the students of Tribhuwan University 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, there is the Central Department of Maithili in Tribhuwan University. The government of Nepal has made the provision of introducing the mother tongue of students in the primary schools. Because of this provision, Maithili is being taught in primary schools of Maithili dominated areas of Nepal. This is also taught as an optional first paper in the secondary level of education in Nepal. Not only in Nepal but also in India Maithili enjoys a good position. Both PEN (Poets, Essayists, and Novelists) and the Sahitya Akademi have recognized Maithili as the 16th largest language of India (Grierson 1881a:2).

Many books and journals are published in this language in Nepal as well as in northern part of Bihar state of India. The Nepalese government has shown due interest in the Maithili language. The state owned only one radio station, 'Radio Nepal' broadcasts the news and other programs in Maithili. This language draws the attention of not only the government owned media but privately owned media houses also take it with great concern. That is why, F.M. radios in Nepal produce different programmes in this language.

The Maithili language is spoken by about 30 million people mainly residing in the eastern part of Nepalese Terai region and in the north eastern part of Indian state of Bihar. In Nepal, Maithili is the mother tongue of 12.4 percentages of the total population and figures second in terms of the number of speakers next

only to Nepali, the language of the nation, spoken by a little over 50 percent of the population.

Maithili, which is written in Devanagari script nowadays, had its own script known as Tirhuta or Mithilakshar previously. Besides Mithilakshar, Kaithi script was also used by Kayasthas (belonging to the caste of writers and clerks) especially in keeping written records at government and private levels. However, for the sake of ease, learnability and printing, they have been replaced by Devanagari which is the script used in writing some Indo-Aryan languages, e.g. Nepali, Hindi etc.

Maithili has a long rich tradition of written literature in both Nepal and India. Vidayapati Thakur is the most celebrated poet of Mithila. He is the immortal singer of beauty, youth and vigour. He is a poet of mirth and merriment. Maithili literature has a very long tradition of oral story telling. Oral literature reigned in almost all genres of Maithili before the printing facility came into existence. Shree Krishna Thakur, Baidyanath Mishra, Kali Kumar Das are some renowned story writers in Maithili.

Nepal is a multilingual country. It is very rich in terms of the number of languages spoken here. More than 90 languages are spoken here in Nepal. Among them, Maithili is the second most widely used language. The Maithili, one of the sweetest languages, is spoken by 2797582 people sheltering in South eastern plains known as the Terai. There are about 9 Terai districts namely, Saptary, Siraha, Udaypur, Morang, Sunsari, Sarlahi, Dhanusha, Mahottari and Rautahat where Maithili is in vogue.

1.1.2 Maithili in the Past

Vacaspati (Ninth Century AD) is supposed to be the first man to use at least one word of pure Maithili that is 'Hari', "a wooden box used to arrest a man", which is traced in his Bhamati, a commentary on the Sadkarabhasya of the Vedanta. It is difficult to pinpoint the fixed date of the origin of Maithili.

However, Jha (1958) mentions 1000 A.D. as the landmark in the development of the Maithili language.

According to Bimal (1986), on the basis of chronology and linguistic development, Maithili documents can be classified under three heads viz.

- a. Old Maithili
- b. Middle Maithili
- c. Modern Maithili

a. Old Maithili

It involves the period from 1000 A.D. to 1300 A.D. The language of the Caryas, Sarv nanda, sayings of Daka, some of the pieces of pr kritapalingala, Pur tana Prabandha Sangraha represent the old Maithili.

b. Middle Maithili

It includes the period from 1300 A.D. to 1700 A.D. from varnavatnakava by jyotirisvar Thakur to Krishnojanma by manabodha presents the specimens of middle Maithili. The great poet Bidhyapati dwelled in this period.

c. Modern Maithili

It starts from the 18th century especially with the Krishnajanma of Manabodha. Modern period involves the period from 18th century A.D. to the present time. In the early phase of the modern period, we find the Ramayan and the Padavali of Chanda Jha and his translation of Bidhyapati's purusapariksha, Harsansta Jha's vasaharana, Jivana Jha's Madhvananda and so on.

Maithili has literary records from nearly all the periods of development of the NIA languages. The oldest of Maithili works available are the songs of the Buddhist Saints. The name of the language has become immortal by its association with names of Bidhyapati, the famous poet who composed his songs in this language and who is popularly called as Mah kavi Vidy pati,

another famous name is Govinda Das, who is so popular in Mithila and Bengal, the each of the states claims him as a native son. Charmed at the sweetness of this language, some of the Bengali poets also composed verses in Maithili. Even the famous poet Rabindra Nath Tagore adopted this language in some of the poetic compositions of his early days.

Maithili exercised a great influence on the literature of Nepal in Malla period. The poets of this land/country imitated this language in their compositions and grew up the *Sukumra Sahitya* or belles-letters. Maithili was one of the languages of the Pandits of Nepal Darbar and they wrote several Sanskrit dramas with songs in Maithili. It also flourished as a court language in the Kathmandu valley in Malla period. Several literary works (especially dramas and songs) and inscriptions in Maithili are still preserved at the National Archives in Kathmandu. In the recent context there have been literary writings in all literary genres, especially poetry, plays and fiction from both Indian and Nepali writers. Apart from literature, Maithili writers have also been contributing to other fields like linguistics, history culture, journalism and so on. The prominent Nepalese linguists working in Maithili language are namely Prof. Dr. Y.P. Yadava, Dr. Ramawatar Yadav and S. Jha. Other repeatedly called names in the field of Maithili literature are Mahendra Malangia, Dr. Rajendra 'Bimal', Dhireswor Jha 'Dhirendra', Dhirendra 'Premarshi', Kuber Ghimire and so on. Maithili does not have only written texts but it has also an enormous stock of oral literature in the forms of folk tales in both prose and verse, ballads, songs etc.

Comparative philology maintains that languages are related to one another. Two languages are linked with one another would mean they are sister languages bearing from same mother language. Some diagrams drawn overleaf show how languages are related to one another and where the Maithili language originates from.

Figure 1.1: Based on Roy's Grammar (1995) showing genetic relation to other language originated from the same mother language 'Sanskrit'.

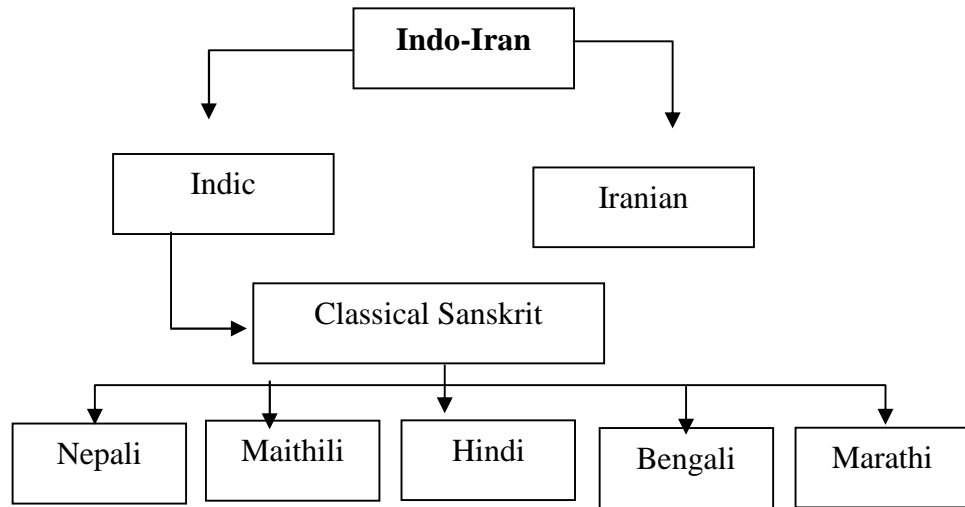
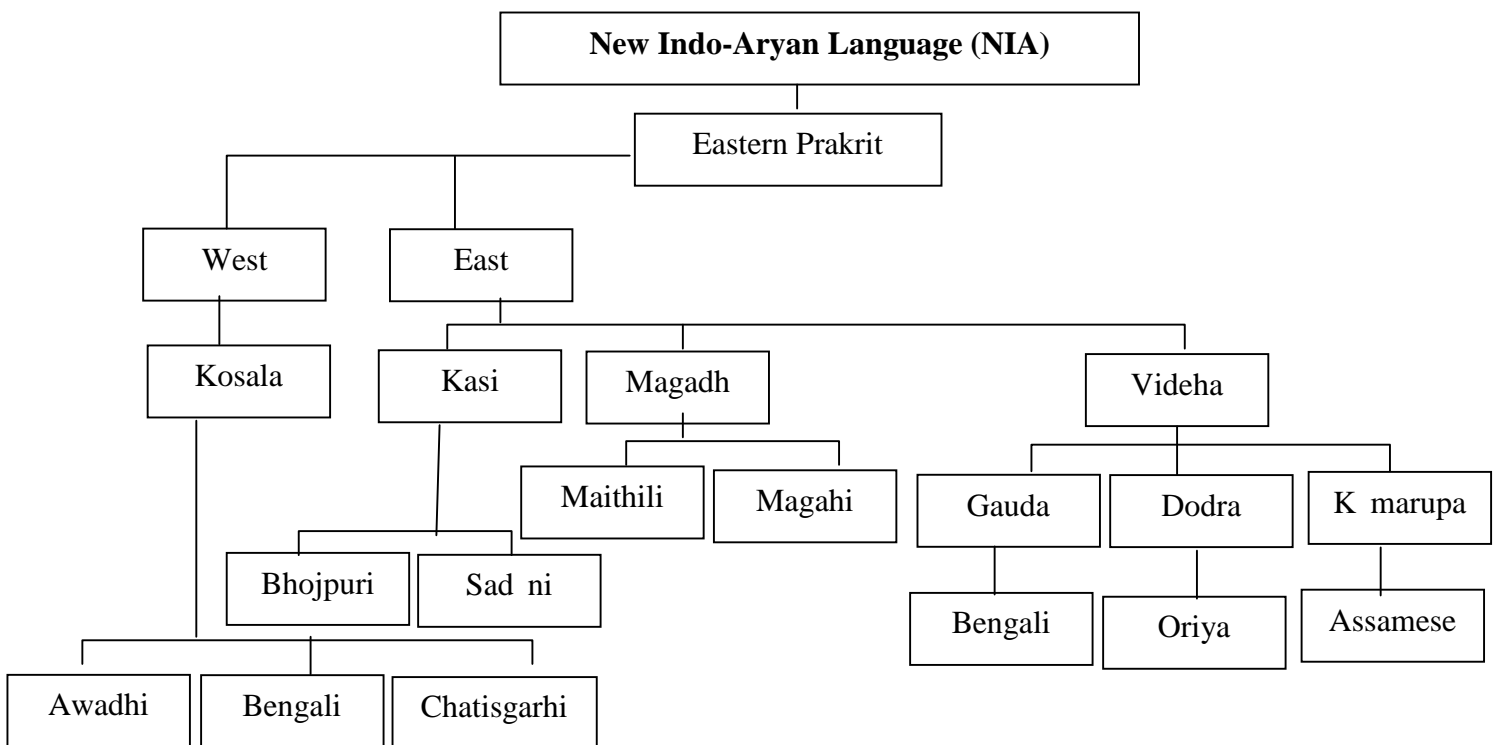


Figure 1.2: Genetic relation of Maithili to other NIA language of Eastern India, based on S.Jha (1958).



1.1.3 Maithili Script

Jha (1958) talks about four scripts employed for writing Maithili. However, according to Rajendra 'Bimal' (1986), three scripts have been used for writing Maithili in Mithila viz. Devanagari, Tirhuta or Mithilakshar and Kaithi. In ancient Mithila, we find the use of Magadhi script also. Magadhi script splitted into three forms viz. Tirhuta, Bengali and Oriya. Tirhuta was very popular in Mithila during the reign of king Akabar. But, afterwards, Kaithi became dominant with the declining powers of Maithili kings and Kayasthas holding high chairs. When Macauley introduced modern education, there was the prevalence of Kaithi script. But, Kaithi script also could not go longer. State encouraged Devanagari for Kaithi. This, Tirhut and Kaithi scripts were lagged far behind and Devanagari came into popular usage. As the time passed, Tirhut remained the script used by Bramhins and Kayastha only in certain occasion. Kaithi, on the other hand, got its recognition only amongst the semi-literate person. At the modern time, no use of Kaithi is found while Mithilakshar of Tirhut is only occasionally used, especially in the invitation letters, with the help of old persons who are being rare to be found. Tirhut script is very closely allied to Bengali and Assamese scripts. Kaithi script, on the other hand, resembles the Gujarati script to a very great extent.

1.1.4 The English Language and its Significance in Nepalese Education

English is the most widely used language in the history of our planet. Undoubtedly, it is the means of international communication and it is also the world's major language. It is one of the languages recognized by the UNO. English is the appropriate international language for Nepal and a vital tool for any student to become successful in local, national and international communication.

In the context of Nepal, English is taught as a compulsory subject right from grade one to Bachelor's degree in government schools and colleges. In the context of private schools, it is taught right from L.K.G. to higher level as a

compulsory subject as well as the medium of instruction. In addition to this, it is used as an access language or a library language and a means of instructional evaluation at the higher level of evaluation. Basically, teaching English in the schools of Nepal has the purpose of enabling the students to exchange their ideas with people of any nationality who speak or write English. Therefore, the importance of teaching English can hardly be exaggerated in Nepal. As it has become an inevitable tool for anybody to achieve their target in the academic field, Maithili speaking students are not an exception.

English is an international language. It enjoys the status of the most prestigious language of the world. It is regarded as a standard language. It is probably the native language of more people than any other except north Chinese. English language is used extensively as an auxiliary language because of its rapidly growing importance. The English language is being taught and learnt as a foreign language with great enthusiasm in many countries. It is emerging in most of the countries as the chief foreign language in schools often displacing another language. Nearly a quarter of the world's population is already fluent or competent in English. Most of the significant deeds in any discipline of the world are found in English. It has the largest body of vocabulary and the richest body of literature. It is believed that more than 50 percent books are published in the English language. It enjoys the status of an international lingua franca and one of the official languages offered by the UNO. Thus, English is not only a principal language for international communication but also the gateway to the world body of knowledge.

The history of teaching English in Nepal can be traced back to 1989 A.D. when Durbar High School was established at "Dakh Chowk" in Thapathali Durbar. Though this school was founded to educate the then Rana's children, the children from other community could not be deprived of English education. The importance of English education spread gradually with the development of time.

Present Nepal is trying to move with the time. So, Nepal is no more an isolated country; it has become an active member of many international organizations like the UNO, SAARC, etc. It has established diplomatic relations with more than 100 countries. And to deal with these countries it needs the English language. Moreover, it is also being developed as the tourism centre. For the promotion of tourism also it needs the English language. Thus, the importance of English seems omnipresent in Nepal.

1.1.5 Importance of Grammar

The term 'Grammar' has been derived from a Greek word 'Garmmatika' or 'Grammatika Techne' which means 'The art of writing'. Grammar is the rules in a language for changing the form of word and combining them into sentences.

"The rules that say how words change to show different meanings, and how they are combined into sentences are called grammar." (Thakur, K.P. 1997:9)

"Grammar is the study or science of rules for forming words and combining them into sentences." (Gautam, C. 2005)

"It is necessary to know grammar and it is better to write grammatically than not, but it is well to remember that grammar is common speech formulated. Usage is the only test" (Somerset Maugham).

From the above quotation, it is clear that grammar is essential to produce correct utterances. Grammar is the backbone of language. One admits it or not the students have to digest the grammar of the language they are learning. It is another matter whether they learn it consciously or unconsciously. It would be hard to believe that there can be a language without its grammar. Knowledge of grammar is necessary to convey ideas correctly, whether it is for the native speakers or learners of that language. This knowledge is more essential for the second language learner than the native speaker because a native speaker has innately internalized the grammar, whereas the second language learner has to make conscious effort to learn and master it. Knowledge of the language as

well as grammar helps a person to master it. Therefore, the importance of grammar in the correct use of language can hardly be exaggerated.

1.1.6 Grammar and Causativization

A language may have different grammatical processes. Among them, *causativization* is one. *Causativization* is found in both the languages English and Maithili.

The *causative* is a common structure in English. We use the *causative* when we do not carry out an action ourselves, but are responsible for the action being performed. It is used when one thing or person causes another thing or person to do something. Verbs like Get, Make and Have are known as causative verbs. These verbs are used to show that someone or something causes someone or something else to do something. In other words, the subject of a sentence causes something to happen or causes someone else (agent) to do something.

"There is a certain category of verbs whose function is to signal that someone has caused someone/something to do something." These constructions of the verb are said as *Causative construction* by Celce-Murcia and Larsen - Freeman (1999: 480).

Murphy (1994:90) says on the use of the *causative* verb 'Have' as, "we use 'have something done' to say that we arrange for somebody else to do something for us."

Example : (Cited in Murphy : 1994:90)

Jill repaired the roof. (She repaired it herself)

Jill had the roof repaired. (She arranged for somebody else for repair it).

Likewise, commenting on the use of 'Get', Murphy (1994:90) says, "we can also say 'get something done' instead of 'have something done' (mainly in informal spoken English)"

Examples:

When are you going to get the roof repaired ? (have the roof repaired)

I think you should get your hair cut.

Causative verbs are the verbs which help to perform an action by using other agent. We use it when we do not carry out an action ourselves, but are responsible for the action being performed.

The process of *causative* formation is *causativization*. There are three basic ways in which a causative situation is expressed (Comrie, 1989:331) in terms of the linguistic devices used in language. These are *morphological causativization*, *lexical causativization*, and *syntactic causativization*. Morphological and syntactic are often called synthetic and analytical respectively.

Causative verbs in Maithili are derived through a highly productive morphological process. *Causativization* in Maithili is mainly suffixal. Causatives are classified as first, second, third, etc. degree *causative* in terms of closeness between the causing and the caused event i.e. whether the causing and caused event have direct relationship or mediative relationship.

1.2 Causativization in English

1.2.1 Causative

Causative is treated differently in linguistics by the traditional and the modern linguists. Thus, it has been a controversial term for years among them on its use. Traditional grammarians have generally used the term to refer to an overtly marked verbal category (Masica, 1976:40).

(1) dekh- dekh-au-
 see show

From Nepali in which 'au' is a causative suffix.

Whereas the modern usage refers to the inferable presence of a causative component in the deep structure of the verb whether or not it has any immediate surface manifestation. (Masica, 1976: 40).

(2) Ram slide off the roof.

In this sentence 'slide' is a non-causative verb which describes a situation 'sliding off the roof' and in (4) 'caused to slide' is a causative verb which describes a situation 'causing to slide' where the entity, person, 'Hari' brings about the situation. That is by pushing him from the roof or any other way or not preventing him to go there.

Two events can be said to constitute a causative situation if the following two conditions hold:

a. *The relation between the two events is such that the speaker believes that the occurrence of one event the, 'caused event' has been realized at t_2 which is after t_1 the time of the 'causing event'.*

(3) Hari pushed Ram.

The illustrations (2) and (3) describe two different events, (3) must be realized at t_1 as causing event and (2) must be realized at t_2 as caused event. Then it can be said that

(4) Hari caused Ram to slide off the roof.

If it is just opposite or (3) is realized at t_2 and (2) is realized at t_1 . There will not be a causative situation and the relation between (3) and (2) will not be as a 'causing event' and a 'caused event' and finally (4) will not exist.

b. *The relation between the causing and the caused event is such that the speaker believes that the occurrence of the caused event is wholly dependent on the occurrence of the causing event, the dependency of the two events must be to the extent that it allows the speaker to entertain a*

caunter factual inference that the caused event would not have taken place at that particular time if the causing event had not taken place provided that all else had remained same.

In the preceding example sentence (2) would not have taken place at that particular time if sentence (3) had not taken place.

Syntactically, one of the main differences between non-causative and causative constructions will be the increased valency (or potential valency) of the latter (Comrie, 1985: 330-31). In general, a given causative verb will be expected to have one more noun phrase argument than the corresponding non causative verb, there will be a noun phrase expressing the person or thing that causes, brings about that action (Comrie, 1989:261).

In the preceding illustrations, (4) is the corresponding causative sentence of (2) and it has one more noun phrase 'Hari' as increased valency of (2), the actant, person that caused or brought about the action described in (2).

1.2.2 Transitivity and Ergativity

One-Place and Two-Place Verbs

There is a class of verbs in English which occur in both intransitive and transitive sentences in terms of the number of nominals with which they combine in the nuclei of sentences. According to this classification, we will say that a verb like 'die' which requires only one nominal, is a one-place verb: e.g. the one 'place' associated with die is 'filled' by John to form the nucleus of the sentence 'John died'. A transitive verb, e.g. 'kill' is a two-place verb, one of the places being filled by the subject and the other by the object: John Killed Bil. Some verbs (e.g. give or put) are three place verbs, combining with a subject, a direct object and an indirect object: John gave Bill the book (where the book is the direct object and Bill the indirect object) or John put the book on the table (where the book is the direct object and on the table the indirect object).

The term 'Transitive'

The traditional 'notional' view of transitivity suggests that the effects of the action expressed by the verb 'pass over' from the 'agent' (or 'actor') to the 'patient' (or 'goal') (Crystal, 1968: 350). There is no need to emphasize the inappropriateness of the 'notional' definition of transitivity in respect of many English sentences. As Robins puts it: The weakness of semantic definitions is well illustrated here: 'hit', in 'I hit you' is syntactically a transitive verb, and is often chosen as an example because the action referred to may plausibly be said to 'pass across' via my fist to you; but 'hear' in 'I hear you' is involved in exactly the same syntactic relations with the two pronouns, and is regarded as a transitive verb.

The Term 'ergative'

There are many verbs in English which may combine with either one or two nominals in sentence - nuclei. Consider the following sentences:

- (5) The stone moved.
- (6) John moved.
- (7) John moved the stone.

In (5) and (6) move is intransitive, whereas in (7) it is transitive. Moreover, there is an important relationship between (5) and (7). With reference to the information conveyed by (5), we might well ask 'Who moved it i.e. 'Who was the 'actor' or 'agent' responsible for the movement of the stone ? And, if this question is put explicitly, the answer might be 'John did' (an utterance derived from the sentence (7) John moved the stone). The term that is generally employed by linguists for the syntactic relationship that holds between (5) and (7) is 'ergative': the subject of an intransitive verb 'becomes' the object of a corresponding transitive verb, and a new ergative subject is introduced as the 'agent' (or 'cause') of the action referred to. This suggests that a transitive

sentence, like (7) may be derived syntactically from an intransitive sentence, like (5), by means of an ergative or causative transformation.

'Object-deletion'

Apart from the class of verbs exemplified by 'move', there are various other classes of verbs in English which would seem to be used transitively or intransitively. Consider the following sentence:

(8) We never eat at five o'clock.

The verb 'eat' is here being used without an object. Whether it should be described as an intransitive verb is, however, a moot point. Many traditional grammarians would say that it is a transitive verb which may be employed either with an object or 'absolutely'. The 'absolute' usage (without an overt object) is illustrated in (8). If this sentence is compared with

(9) We never eat caviare at five o'clock.

It will be clear that the relationship between the transitive and the 'absolute' usage of 'eat' is quite different from that which holds between the transitive and the intransitive usage of move. It seems reasonable to say that 'eat' is inherently transitive, but that its object may be deleted.

Reflexives

Another class of verbs in English which, *prima facie*, are used both transitively and intransitively is illustrated by 'shave' in the following two sentences:

(10) The barber shaved ten men before lunch.

(11) He never shaves before lunch.

Of these, (10) is a straightforward transitive sentence, with an agentive', subject, the barber, and a 'non-agentive' object, or 'goal', ten men. But (11) is ambiguous: it might mean 'He never shaves (any one) before lunch' or 'He never shaves (himself) before lunch.' The first of these interpretations is accounted for under the term 'object-deletion', discussed in 3.1.2.4. It is the

second that concerns us here. Under this interpretation, (11) might well be described as implicit reflexive.

A reflexive construction is one in which the subject and object refer to the same person or thing. Many languages, like English, have a set of reflexive pronouns distinguished for person and number (myself, yourself, himself, etc.) An explicit reflexive sentence is one in which the identity of subject and object is overtly marked, either in the form of the object pronoun or in some other way (e.g. by the use of a particular suffix, prefix, or infix, attached to the verb-stem).

Thus, He killed himself (by contrast with he killed him) is explicitly reflexive.

Three-Place Constructions

The general point to be made is that, as two-place constructions can be derived from one-place constructions by means of the notion of 'causativity', so three-place constructions can be derived from two-place constructions by means of a further application of the same notion. As 'John moves the stone' is related syntactically to 'the stone moves', so (12) is related to (9): For example,

(12) John gives the book to Mary.

(13) Mary has the book.

For the present, the book may be regarded as the object of Have in the 'possessive' sentence (13). The argument of this section is unaffected by the fact that (13) is not a transitive sentence.

It will be more illuminating to discuss three-place verbs with reference to a language that has a productive causative construction applicable both to transitive and intransitive nuclei.

1.2.3 Causative Constructions

Causative constructions are those that depict one agent successfully causing another agent to perform an action. Some verbs which enter into these constructions (cause, force, get) fall syntactically into the object - control category; others (make, have) take bare infinitive complements. How do they differ in meaning ? Here, the researcher will address Have, Get and Make drawing on the work of Martin. (1992).

Have

The verb 'have' suggests a routine hiring or selecting in which a relation of authority is implied as between customer businessperson or creditor-debtor:

For example,

- (14) We had Ray mow the lawn.
- (15) I had the barber trim my hair.
- (16) Fred had John give him five dollars.

Get

The verb 'get' often tends to convey the sense that some difficulty was involved; perhaps the subject of the main clause used persuasion or coercion on the subject of the embedded clause. For example,

- (17) I got Ray to give me five dollars.
(He had refused earlier).

Make

The verb 'make' suggests that the subject of the main clause has coercive power over the subject of the infinitive: For example,

- (18) He made a stranger on the street give him five dollars.
(Threat was involved.)

Basic Causative Structure

There are two basic causative structures. One is like an active, and the other is like a passive. These examples use the causative verb 'Have.'.

- (19) I had John fix the car. (I arranged for the car to be fixed by John - I caused him to fix it).
- (20) I had the car fixed. (I arranged for the car to be fixed by someone. We don't know who, so this is like a passive).

The Active Causative Structure

Causative Verb 'Get'

Form: get + PERSON + to + VERB

Use: This construction usually means 'to convince to do something' or to trick someone into doing something.

Examples:

- (21) Jenny got her son to take the medicine even though it tasted terrible.
- (22) Anjana gets her son to bring a sandwich.

Causative Verb 'Make'

Form: make + PERSON + VERB

Use: This construction means 'to force someone to do something'. 'Make' in the active takes the bare infinitive. (Thomson and Martin: 1990:220)

Examples:

- (23) He made me move my car.
- (24) My teacher made me apologize for what I had said.

Causative Verb 'Have'

Form: have + PERSON + VERB

Use: This construction means 'to give someone the responsibility to do something.'

Examples:

- (25) I had the mechanic check the brakes.
- (26) Dr. Smith had his nurse take the patient's temperature.

The Passive Causative Structure

Causative Verb 'Get'

Form: get + OBJECT + PAST PARTICIPLE

Examples:

- (27) Jenny got the medicine taken even though it tasted terrible.
- (28) Anjana gets a sandwich brought.

Causative Verb 'Make'

Form: be verb + PAST PARTICIPLE + to infinitive

Examples:

- (29) I was made to apologize for what I had said.
- (30) Her children were made to do their work.

Causative Verb 'Have'

Form: have + OBJECT + PAST PARTICIPLE

Examples:

- (31) I had the brakes checked.
- (32) Dr. Smith had the temperature taken of his patient.

1.2.4 Transitive and Causative

The traditional 'notional' view of transitivity suggests that the effects of the action expressed by the verb 'pass over' from the 'agent' (or 'actor') to the 'patient' (or 'goal'). (Lyons.1968: 350). For example,

- (33) Hari killed Ram.

In this illustration the effect of the action 'kill' expressed by the verb killed 'passes over' from the agent 'Hari' to the patient 'Ram'. Therefore, the verb 'Kill' is transitive here.

Many English intransitive verbs can be used transitively (= 'causatively') (run, walk): many transitive verbs, on the other hand, can be used intransitively ('passively'). (Masica, 1976:41). For example,

(34) This book reads easily.

(35) The tickets sold briskly.

Transitivity is a purely syntactic notion in current usage. It is a category used in the GRAMMATICAL analysis of CLAUSE/SENTENCE CONSTRUCTIONS.

With particular reference to the VERB'S relationship to DEPENDENT elements of structure (Crystal: 1992). The verb which can not take object is called intransitive and the verb which can take object is called transitive.

Monotransitive or transitive and ditransitive are often used to refer to the verb which can take only direct object and the verb which can take both direct and indirect objects respectively.

In terms of valency monovalent verb is intransitive, bivalent verb is transitive and trivalent verb is ditransitive verb. Therefore, a causative verb is also a transitive verb. There is overlap between the syntactic area of a causative and a transitive verb and it is a matter of controversy. But a transitive verb is not always a causative. This is the point which facilitates to escape from the problem.

1.2.5 Causativization

The process of causative formation is causativization. There are three basic ways in which a causative situation is expressed in terms of the linguistic devices used in language. These are morphological causativization, lexical causativization and syntactic causativization. Morphological and syntactic are often called synthetic and analytical respectively.

Causatives are classified as first, second, third etc. degree causative in terms of closeness between the causing and the caused event i.e. whether the causing and caused event have direct relationship or mediative relationship. These are expressed by either or all of the devices in the language. Multiple i.e. second, third, etc. degree causatives are not necessarily found in all languages.

Morphological Causativization

Any causative situation involves two component situations, the cause and its effect (result). To the morphological causativization the prototypical case has the following two characteristics. First, the causative is related to non-causative predicate by morphological means, for instance by affixation or whatever other morphological techniques the language in question has its disposal. The second, means of relating causative -non causative predicates is productive: in the ideal type, one can take any predicate and form a causative from it by the appropriate morphological means (Comrie, 1989:167).

Lexical Causativization

Lexical causativization is such process where the causative relationship between non-causative and causative verb is established through purely lexical means. The relation between the expression of effect and the expression of causative macrosituation is so unsystematic as to be handled lexically rather than by any productive process (Comrie 1989:168). For example,

(36) Bill died.

(37) John killed Bill.

In such instances, we may say that the relationship of the transitive to the intransitive is 'lexicalized'. It is a matter of the lexical structure of English that we say John killed Bill, rather than *John died Bill.

Syntactic Causativization

Syntactic causativization is the process of causative formation where syntactic device is used i.e. causative auxiliary or causative clauses. For example,

(38) The servant caused the laborer to thatch the house.

1.2.6 Anticausativization

Anticausativization is just opposite phenomenon to causative in language. It is derived from transitive to intransitive. In morphological anticausativization morphological device is added which indicates the decrement of verbal valency as well as describes non-causative situation. So, the anticausativization is the process which derives semantically simple but morphologically complex verb. The process is applicable only once if any verb is intransitivized (anticausativized) once, the process ends. So, there is no possibility to be first, second, etc, degree anticausatives.

1.2.7 Case Hierarchy

A language can accommodate the extra noun phrase in number of ways; it can double up one of the syntactic positions of the sentence. It can create a syntactic position that was not present in the non causative sentence. It can omit one of the arguments of the causative verb.

If it is found fully applicable to a language the result would be-the embedded subject of the intransitive sentence is demoted to direct object position in its corresponding first causative sentence; the embedded subject of the monotransitive sentence is demoted to indirect object position in its corresponding first causative sentence; and the embedded subject of the ditransitive sentence is demoted to oblique object position in its corresponding first causative sentence.

The embedded subject of the first causative of the intransitive sentence is demoted to indirect object position in its corresponding second causative sentence as in first causative of the transitive sentence.

In the same way, third and other degree causatives are formed and the oblique object position is the place where more than one NPS are piled up.

Maithili follows the case hierarchy (see 3.2)

1.2.8 Causee

Causee is the term used to denote demoted subject in the *causative* sentence. It is the NP which bears the effect of the causative situation. Second and third causative sentences have more causees. In such a case, they are taken as causee₁, causee₂, and causee₃. They are the subjects of non causative sentence, first causative sentence, and second causative sentence respectively which are demoted now.

1.3 Review of the Related Literature

The research works carried out in the Department of English as well as in the Department of English Language Education are not directly related to the proposed topic. However, some researches on comparative study are reviewed as follows:

Giri (1982) carried out, a research on 'English and Nepali Kinship Terms'. It is the first dissertation in linguistic comparative study. She wanted to establish English and Nepali kinship terms and compare and contrast kinship terms of both languages. She found that more kinship terms are available in Nepali than English. She believes that this study will help the native speakers of Nepali who are learning English as a foreign language.

Pandey (1997) carried out a research on 'Apologies between English and Nepali'. He wanted to enlist the different forms of apologies used in English and Nepali and compare them in the contexts of some related situations. He found that English people are more apologetic than Nepali and women are more apologetic than their male counterparts both in English and Nepali.

Sah (2000) carried out a research on 'A Comparative Study of S-V Agreement in English and Maithili Languages'. The objective of this study was to find out the similarities and differences between Maithili and English S-V agreement system. He found that Maithili verbs take agreement according to the honorific status of the persons.

Mukhiya (2001) in his research entitled 'Passivization System between English and Maithili: A Comparative Study' aimed to analyze the English and Maithili passivization systems and to make a comparative study of this system between these two languages. He found that the passivization system between English and Maithili are different in almost all grammatical aspects. He also found that there are some areas which are somehow similar in both languages.

Pradhan (2002) carried out a research on 'Relative Clauses in Newari Language'. It is her M.A. dissertation in Central Department of Linguistics, T.U. She found that there is no distinct evidence found which distinguishes restrictive and non-restrictive clauses in Newari.

Karn (2004) carried out a research on 'A Comparative Study of Cases in Maithili and English'. The objective of the study was to identify and analyze cases in Maithili, finding the points of similarities and differences between English and Maithili case systems: He found that nominative, instrumental, ablative, locative and dative cases are common in both languages.

Thakur (2005) carried out a research on 'Relativization in English and Maithili "A Comparative Study'. The objective of this study was to find out similarities and differences between English and Maithili relativization system. He found that in Maithili language there is honorific-non honorific distinction in using relativizer whereas in English there is not such distinction.

Thakur (2006) carried out a research on 'A Study of Errors Committed by Maithili students in the Use of Present Tense in English'. The objective of this study was to find out the errors committed in English present tense aspects by Maithili students of 10th graders. He found that English tense aspect system differs from Maithili one in various aspects. However, there are some similarities as well.

Though some comparative studies have been carried out in the Department of English Education, no attempt has been made to compare English and Maithili *causativization*.

1.4 Objectives of the Study

The present study had the following objectives:

- i. To analyze Maithili *causativization* system.
- ii. To make the *contrastive* analysis of *causativization* in English and Maithili.
- iii. To suggest some pedagogical implications.

1.5 Significance of the Study

There are only eight research works conducted on the Maithili language in the Department of English Education. So, this work will be valuable work for the Department itself. The study will be significant for the interested researchers on the Maithili language. It will be significant for the people who are involved in language teaching and learning. The study will be beneficial for language teachers who are teaching the Maithili and English languages and students who are learning Maithili and English as second languages. This study will not be less significant for the researchers, textbook writers, course designers, etc. The researcher hopes this study will have global significance in language teaching and linguistics.

1.6 Definitions of the Specific Terms

Causativization : The process of causative formation is causativization.

Causative : It is used when we do not carry out an action ourselves, but are responsible for the action being performed.

Ergative : When the subject of an intransitive verb becomes the object of a corresponding transitive verb a new subject is introduced as the agent of the action. This process is called ergative.

or

The process of deriving a transitive sentence syntactically from an intransitive sentence by means of a causative transformation is called ergative.

Reflexive : A reflexive construction is one in which the subject and object refer to the same person or thing.

Causative construction : Causative constructions are those that depict one agent successfully causing another agent to perform an action.

Transitive : The effects of the action expressed by the verb from the agent to the patient is called transitive. The verb which can take object is called transitive.

Intransitive : The verb which can not take object is called intransitive, i.e. the verb which can occur on its own.

Monotransitive : It is used to refer to the verb which can take only direct object.

Ditransitive: It is used to refer to the verb which can take both direct and indirect objects.

Morphological causativization : It is the process of causative formation by affixation.

Lexical causativization : It is such process where the causative relationship between non-causative and causative verb is established through purely lexical means rather than by any productive process.

Syntactic causativization : It is the process of causative formation where syntactic device is used i.e. causative auxiliary or causative clause.

Anticausativization : It is just opposite phenomenon to causative. It is the process which derives semantically simple but morphologically complex verb.

Causee : It is the term used to denote demoted subject in the causative sentence.

Case hierarchy : It is the process in which the extra noun phrases are accommodated in number of ways.

Indirect object: It can be followed by 'to' and it can be the subject of the passive sentence.

Direct object : If there is a single complement after a transitive complement verb, it is called direct object.

Oblique object : In languages which express grammatical relationship by means of inflections. This term refers to the form taken by a noun phrase.

Direct causation : It is the process in which the causer i.e. the subject of the causative construction directly affects the causee's activity.

Mediated causation : It is the process in which the caused event is effected by a mediated causer other than by the subject causer.

CHAPTER TWO

METHODOLOGY

2.1 Sources of Data

The researcher has utilized both primary and secondary sources of data to carry out this research work.

2.1.1 Primary Sources of Data

Sixty Maithili speaking students of grade XII of Saptary and Siraha districts were the primary sources of data. Primary sources of the data were the responses provided by the XII grader Maithili speaking students of the above mentioned districts.

2.1.2 Secondary Sources of Data

In addition to his own intuition and insight to analyze the required data as the secondary sources of data, the researcher has manipulated the standard grammar of both the English and Maithili languages, for instance, Quirk et al. (1985), Lyons, J. (1968), Yadav, R. (1996). Other reference materials, related journals, reports have also been used:

2.2 Population of the Study

This study is based on the sixty Maithili speaking informants of grade XII of Saptary and Siraha districts. Sixty informants were selected from three (X+2) colleges of Saptary and Siraha districts. Twenty Students were involved in the study from each college. Rajbiraj Model Higher secondary, Saptary, Royal Softech Multiple College, Raghunathpur-3, Lahan, Siraha and Everest college, Raghunathpur-3, Lahan, Siraha were selected for the field of study.

Table 1
Population of the Study

Campuses	Rajbiraj Model Higher Secondary	Royal Softech Multiple College	Everest College	Total
No. of Students	20	20	20	60

2.3 Sampling Procedure

Firstly, three (X+2) colleges of Saptary and Siraha districts where majority of Maithili native speakers study were selected through judgemental sampling. Twenty students from each college were selected for data collection using simple random sampling procedure .

2.4 Research Tool

The researcher has used a test as a tool for data collection. The data for the study was collected with the help of the already prepared test (Appendix II) which consisted four items carrying 40 full marks. Ten sentences of English were asked to translate into Maithili and ten sentences of Maithili into English. Similarly, underline the correct verb form of ten sentences and a composition work were also asked.

2.5 Process of Data Collection

The researcher prepared the required test, visited the selected campuses and talked to the principals to get permission for the study. After getting the permission he explained to them the process i.e. administering the test. After that the researcher administered the test with pre-prepared test. The students were motivated giving instructions regarding the procedures to be followed while attempting the test. The sentences used in the test were appropriate to the informants' level. The test was given to make the contrastive analysis of causativization in the English and Maithili languages. They were given one and

half hours to answer the questions. Then, their answer sheets were collected for analysis. The researcher administered the test in his own presence. In this way, he got responses of pre-prepared test from the informants.

2.6 Limitations of the Study

1. The population of the study was confined to 60 Maithili speaking students only of three (X+2) colleges of Saptary and Siraha districts selecting only 20 students from each college.
2. The study was limited to three private (X+2) colleges namely Rajbiraj Model Higher Secondary, Saptary, Royal Softech Multiple College, Raghurathpur-3, Lahan, Siraha and Everest College, Raghunathpur-3, Lahan, Siraha.
3. The research was aimed only at comparing and contrasting causativization between the English and Maithili languages.

CHAPTER THREE

ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION

This chapter consists of the analysis and interpretation of the collected data. First the analysis of English causativization is done mainly on the basis of secondary data collected basically from Celce-Murcia. (1999) and Lyons (1968). The rules of Maithili causativization are analyzed on the basis of secondary data collected from Yadav. (1996). And then these rules were verified on the basis of written data collected from the 60 Maithili native speakers of Grade XII from Saptary and Siraha districts. Then it deals with the contrastive analysis of English and Maithili causativization.

3.1 Causativiation in Maithili

3.1.1 Causative Verbs in Maithili

Causative verbs in Maithili are derived through a highly productive morphological process. Causativization in Maithili is mainly suffixal. Basically, there are two types of causative verb forms in Maithili.

- (I) the 'first' causative which implies that the degree of closeness between the cause and effect is immediate or direct, and is formed by adding the suffix -a to the non causative verb stem; and
- (II) the 'second' causative which implies that the degree of closeness between cause and effect is mediated or less direct, and is formed by adding the suffix -ba to the non causative verb stem.

Thus, a total of three contrasting verb forms may be recognized in Maithili:

- (a) the basic non causative verb form: hōt 'move' (Intr)
- (b) the 'first' causative form: hōt-a 'remove'; and
- (c) the 'second' causative form: hōt-ba 'have someone remove'.

Similarly, (a) pōrāh 'study/read' (Tr), (b) pōrāh-a 'teach', and (c) pōrāh-ba 'have someone teach'.

As has been stated above, in Maithili both intransitive and transitive verbs can be causativized, and an intransitive verb becomes a transitive verb when the causative suffixes are added to the stem. As a matter of fact, when the direction of derivation is from intransitive to transitive, the derived transitive is often referred to as 'causative'. Thus, a few intransitive verbs first become transitive (with a 'causative' meaning) through the process of sound change and suppletion, and only then the causative suffixes are added onto them. Consequently, a total of four contrasting verb forms are realized (Yadav, 1996:186).

The process of transitivization (through stem alternation) and causativization of such intransitive verbs are illustrated below.

3.1.2 Morphological Causativization

3.1.2.1 Intransitive Verbs

- (I) A few monosyllabic intransitive verb stems are transitivized by lowering the stem vowel into a:

Intr	Tr	Caus I	Caus II
m̄r-ḍb 'to die'	mar-ḍb 'kill/cause to die'	m̄r-a-eb 'cause to kill'	m̄r-ba-eb 'have (s.o.) kill'
l̄d-ḍb 'get loaded'	lad-ḍb 'load/cause to get loaded'	l̄d-a-eb 'cause to load'	l̄d-ba-eb 'have (s.o.) load'
s̄n-ḍb 'get mixed'	san-ḍb 'mix/cause to get mixed'	s̄n-a-eb 'cause to mix'	s̄n-ba-eb 'have (s.o.) mix'
ch̄r-ḍb 'get thatched'	char-ḍb 'thatch/cause to get thatched'	ch̄r-a-eb 'cause to thatch'	ch̄r-ba-eb 'have (s.o.) thatch'
b̄t̄ṣ - ḍb 'get divided'	baṭ̄ṣ-ḍb 'divide/cause to get divided'	b̄t̄ṣ -a-eb 'cause to divide'	b̄t̄ṣ-ba-eb 'have (s.o.) divide'
s̄t̄ṣ-ḍb 'get stuck'	sat̄ṣ-ḍb 'cause to get stuck'	s̄t̄ṣ-a-eb 'cause to stick'	s̄t̄ṣ-ba-eb 'have (s.o.) stick'

II. A few disyllabic intransitive verb stems also become transitivized by lowering the second vowel into a:

Intr	Tr	Caus I	Caus II
pɔ̃jɔ̃r-ɔ̃b 'get the fire lighted'	pɔ̃jar-ɔ̃b 'light fire/cause the fire to get lighted'	pɔ̃jr-a-eb 'cause to light fire'	pɔ̃jɔ̃r-ba-eb 'have (s.o.) light fire'
sudhɔ̃r-ɔ̃b 'get improved'	sudhar-ɔ̃b 'improve/cause to get improved'	sudhr-a-eb 'cause to improve'	sudhɔ̃r-ba-eb 'have (s.o.) improve'
nikɔ̃l-ɔ̃b 'come out'	nikal-ɔ̃b 'bring out'	nikl-a-eb 'cause to come out'	nikɔ̃l-ba-eb 'have (s.o.) bring out'
ughɔ̃r-ɔ̃b 'get uncovered'	ughar-ɔ̃b 'uncover/cause to get uncovered'	ughr-a-eb 'cause to uncover'	ughar-ba-eb 'have (s.o.) uncover'
usɔ̃r-ɔ̃b 'get finished'	usar-ɔ̃b 'finish/cause to get finished'	usr-a-eb 'cause to finish'	usɔ̃r-ba-eb 'have (s.o.) finish'

(III) A few irregular intransitive verb stems are transitivized through the process of vowel gradation.

Intr	Tr	Caus I	Caus II
bik-ɔ̃b 'get sold'	bec-ɔ̃b 'sell/cause to get sold'	bec-a-eb 'cause to sell'	bec-ba-eb 'cause (s.o.) to sell'
ruk-ɔ̃b 'get stopped'	rok-ɔ̃d 'stop/cause to get stopped'	rok-a-eb 'cause to stop'	rok-ba-eb 'cause (s.o.) to stop'
chut-ɔ̃b 'get left'	chorɔ̃-ɔ̃b 'leave/cause to get left'	chorɔ̃-a-eb 'cause to leave'	chor-ba-eb 'have (s.o.) leave'
tɔ̃utɔ̃ -ɔ̃b 'get broken'	torɔ̃-ɔ̃b 'break/cause to get broken'	torɔ̃-a-eb 'cause to break'	torɔ̃-ba-eb 'have (s.o.) break'
phutɔ̃-ɔ̃b 'get cracked'	phorɔ̃-ɔ̃b 'crack/cause to get cracked'	phorɔ̃-a-eb 'cause to crack'	phorɔ̃-ba-eb 'have (s.o.) crack'

3.1.2.2 Transitive Verbs

The causativization of transitive verbs is a straightforward process in Maithili and, generally speaking, there is no stem alternation of any kind.

Tr	Caus I	Caus II
likh-ḁb 'write'	likh-a-eb 'cause to write'	likh-ba-eb 'have (s.o.) cause to write'
duh-ḁb 'milk'	duh-a-eb 'cause to milk'	duh-ba-eb 'have (s.o. milk)'
gher-ḁb 'encircle'	gher-a-eb 'cause to encircle'	gher-ba-eb 'have (s.o.) encircle'
jot-ḁb 'plough'	jot-a-eb 'cause to plough'	jot-ba-eb 'have (s.o.) plough'
pḁrṣh-ḁb 'read/study'	pḁrṣh-a-eb 'teach/cause to read'	pḁrṣh-ba-eb 'have(s.o.) teach'

3.2 Syntax of Causativization

Causativization in syntax is a process of embedding of the sentence which expresses the effect within the sentence which expresses the cause. As a result, there is a presence of a causative verb which has one more noun phrase argument than the corresponding non causative verb as a causer i.e. the subject of the matrix sentence which causes the situation. In such a case the causative sentence needs readjustment of the NPs in the syntactic positions i.e. subject, direct object, indirect object and other oblique constituents; and determination of the case of the NPs.

3.2.1 Object and the Case Marker

3.2.1.1 Direct Object

(I) The direct object is marked in those transitive constructions in which the direct object noun phrase happens to be a human proper name. For example,

- (39) ḁha® Mohan ke®
 you(H) Mohan ACC/DAT
 S DO
 bḁja-u
 call-IMP-(2H)
 '(You H) call Mohan.'

(II) The direct object is marked for the accusative - dative case in those transitive constructions in which the direct object noun phrase happens to be kin terms. For example,

(40) h̄m kaka ke® sor
 I uncle ACC/DAT noise
 S DO
 par-∂l-i-∂inh
 do-PST-(1+3H)
 'I called the uncle.'

(III) The direct object is marked for the accusative - dative case in those transitive constructions in which the direct object noun phrase is personal pronoun. For example,

(41) to® h̄m-ra dekh-l-e®
 You (NH) I-ACC/DAT see-PST-(2NH+1)
 S DO
 'You saw me.'

(IV) All human proper names are marked for the accusative - dative case. For example,

(42) r̄mes moh̄n ke®
 Ramesh Mohan ACC/DAT
 S DO
 h̄s-∂l-i-∂inh
 laugh CAUSI-PST-(3H+3NH)
 'Rames caused Mohan to laugh.'

3.2.1.2 Indirect Object

(I) The indirect object is marked with the accusative-dative postposition. The indirect object takes -ke® suffix the same accusative - dative marker. In this process, once the indirect object is case - marked, the direct object remains unmarked: For example,

- (43) ∂ ha[®] j ∂ n ke[®] j ∂ lkh ∂ i de-l-i ∂ ik
 You(H) laborer ACC/DAT breakfasst give-PST-(2H+3NH)
 S IO DO
 'You gave the laborer breakfast.'

(II) Animate indefinite indirect object noun phrases are also marked with the accusative - dative postposition: For example,

- (44) jib ∂ ch ek-ta mast ∂ r ke[®]
 Jibach one-CLAS teacher ACC/DAT
 S IO
 phis de-l- ∂ k
 fees give-PST-(3NH+3NH)
 DO
 'Jibach gave the teacher the fees.'

3.2.1.3 Oblique Object

The oblique object takes-s ∂ suffix. For example,

- (45) malik thekedar s ∂ j ∂ n s ∂ it Ṣ a dho ∂ -b \square -l- ∂ inh
 master contractor INSTR laborer INSTR brick carry-CAUSII-PST-(3H)
 S OO IO DO
 'The master caused the contractor to have the bricks carried by the laborer.'

3.2.2 Causatives of Intransitives

First causative sentence takes one more argument, the causer, as a subject than its corresponding non causative intransitive sentence. In this case, the subject of the non causative sentence is demoted to the direct object position which is called causee₁ now, because the subject position is already occupied in the causative sentence; and the direct object position is the available highest position in the sentence in terms of the case hierarchy. For example,

(46) ghôr chôr-ð1
 house get thatched - PST - (3NH)
 S
 'The house got thatched.'

(47) jôn ghôr char-l-ðk
 laborer house thatch -PST-(3NH)
 S DO
 'The laborer thatched the house'.

The second causative of the intransitive sentence takes one more argument, the causer, as a subject than its corresponding first causative sentence. In this case, the subject of the first causative sentence is demoted to the indirect object position which is called causee₂ now. The subject and the direct object positions are already occupied here and it is the available highest position in the sentence. For example,

(48) nokôr jôn sð ghôr
 servant labour INSTR house
 S IO DO
 chôr - □-l-ðk
 thatch-CAUS I-PST-(3NH)
 'The servant caused the laborer to thatch the house.'

The third causative of the intransitive sentence takes one more argument, the causer, as a subject than its corresponding second causative sentence. In this case, the subject of the second causative sentence is demoted to the oblique object position which is called causee₃ now. For example,

(49) malik nokôr sð jôn sð
 master servant INSTR laborer INSTR
 S OO IO
 ghôr chôr-b□-l-ðinh
 house thatch-CAUS II-PST-(3H)
 DO
 'The master had the servant make the laborer thatch the house.'

3.2.3 Causatives of Transitives

A first causative sentence takes one more argument, the causer, as a subject than its corresponding non-causative transitive sentence with direct object. In this case, the subject of the non causative sentence is demoted to the indirect object position which is called causee₁ now, because the subject and the direct object positions are already occupied, and it is the available highest position in the sentence. For example,

- (50) nanu bhat khe-l-∂k
 Nanu rice eat-PST(3NH)
 S DO
 'Nanu ate rice'.

- (51) Janu-ji nanu ke® bhat
 Janu HP Nanu ACC/DAT rice
 S IO DO
 khu-∅-l-∂inh
 eat - CAUSII-PST-(3H+2NH)
 'Janu fed Nanu rice.'

A second causative of the transitive sentence takes one more argument, the causer, as a subject than its corresponding first causative sentence. In this case, the subject of the first causative sentence is demoted to the oblique object position which is called causee₂, now, because the subject, the direct object and the indirect object positions are already occupied; and it is the single available position in the sentence. For example,

- (52) mast∂r bhai s∂ rajesh
 teacher brother INSTR Rajesh
 S OO IO
 ke® kitab p∂r∫h-b∅-l-∂inh
 ACC/DAT book read-CAUSII-PST-(3H+3H)
 DO
 'Teacher had brother teach Rajesh book'.

A third causative of the transitive sentence takes one more argument, the causer, as a subject than its corresponding second causative sentence. In this case, the subject of the second causative sentence is demoted to the oblique object position which is called causee₃ now.

The language can have more than one NPs in the oblique object position since there is no other position remained and it is the lowest position in the case hierarchy. Causee₃ precedes causee₂ in the third causative where both are in the oblique object position. For example,

(53)	ḍbhibhawḍk	mastḍr	sḍ	bhai	sḍ/dwara
	guardian	teacher	INSTR	brother	INSTR
	S	OO		OO	
	rajesh	ke®	kitab		pḍrḥ-bḥ-l-ḍinh
	rajesh	ACC/DAT	book		read-CAUSIII-PST(3H+3H)
	IO		DO		

'The guardian had the teacher teach a book to Rajesh by brother.'

3.2.4 Causatives of Ditransitives

A first causative sentence of the ditransitive sentence takes one more argument, the causer, as a subject than its corresponding non causative sentence. In this case, the subject of the non -causative sentence is demoted to oblique object position which is called causee₁ now, because subject, direct and indirect object positions are already occupied; and it is the only available position. For example,

(54)	mohḍn	ram	ke	pḍtr
	Mohan	Ram	ACC/DAT	letter
	S	IO		DO
	likh-l-ḍk			
	write-PST-(3NH+3NH)			

'Mohan wrote a letter to Ram.'

- (55) r̄mes mohan s̄ ram ke
 Ramesh Mothan INSTR Ram ACC/DAT
 S OO IO
 p̄tr likh--l-̄k
 letter write-CAUSI-PST-(3NH+3NH)
 DO
 'Ramesh caused Mohan to write a letter to Ram.'

A second causative sentence of the ditransitive sentence takes one more argument, the causer, as a subject than its corresponding first causative sentence. In this case, the subject of the first causative sentence is demoted to the oblique object position which is called causee₂ now. For example,

- (56) soh̄n r̄mesh s̄ moh̄n s̄/dwara
 Sohan Ramesh INSTR Mohan INSTR
 S OO OO
 ram ke p̄tr likh-b-l-̄k
 Ram ACC/DAT letter write-CAUS II-PST-(3NH+3NH)
 IO DO
 'Sohan had Ramesh write a letter to Ram by Mohan'

A third causative sentence of the ditransitive sentence takes one more argument, the causer, as a subject than its corresponding second causative sentence. In this case, the subject of the second causative sentence is demoted to the oblique object position which is called causee₃ now. For example,

- (57) didi b̄hin s̄ bhai
 elder sister younger sister INSTR brother
 S OO IO
 ke® l̄tam di--l-khinh
 ACC/DAT guava give-CAUSI-PST-(3H+3NH)
 DO

'The elder sister caused the younger sister to give guavas to the brother/The elder sister had guavas given to the brother.'

(58)	m᠐	didi	s᠔	b᠔hin
	mother	elder sister	INSTR	younger sister
	S	OO		OO
	s᠔	bhai	ke᠙	l᠔tam
	INSTR	brother	ACC/DAT	guava
		IO		DO

di᠔-b᠔-l-khinh

give-CAUS III - PST - (3H+3NH)

'The mother had the elder sister give guavas to the brother by the younger sister./The mother had the guavas given to the brother.'

3.2.5 Anticausative of the Transitives

An anticausative sentence takes one less argument than its corresponding causative sentence. In this case, the causer, the subject of the transitive sentence is deleted and the direct object of the transitive sentence is promoted to the vacant subject position in the corresponding anticausative sentence.

(59)	ram	kitab	chap-l-᠔k
	Ram	book	print-PST-(3NH)
	S	DO	

'Ram printed a book.'

(60)	kitab	chap-᠔l
	book	print - PST-(3NH)
	S	

'Book printed'.

3.3 Semantics of Causation

Maithili causative constructions perform two semantic functions if we assess the semantic parameter of the degree of closeness between the causer's action and the resultant situation of the causee. These are: direct causation and mediated causation.

b. Lexical Causatives

There are three subtypes of lexical causatives. The unifying factor behind all of these types is the fact that in each case the notion of cause is wrapped up in the lexical meaning of the verb itself. It is not expressed by any additional operator.

In the English language, there is lexical causative, whereas it is not found in the Maithili language. For example.

1. No change in verb
Non-causative : The vase broke.
Causative : Ramesh broke the vase. (i.e. Ramesh caused the vase to break).
2. Some idiosyncratic change in verb
Non-causative: The tree fell.)(Verb='to fall')
Causative : Nabin felled the tree (verb -= 'to fell')
3. Different Verb
Non-causative : Sony ate beans.
Causative : Janu fed Sony beans.

(67) kōka mōir ge-l-ōinh
Uncle die go - PSTPCPL - (3H)
S
'Uncle died.'

(68) rōnbir singh kōka ke mair-de-l-ōk
Ranbir singh uncle ACC/DAT Kill-PST-(3NH+3H)
S IO
'Ranbir Singh Killed the uncle'.

c. Syntactic Causatives

Most causatives in English are analytic because they involve a separate causative verb, e.g. make, cause, force, compel, have, get. Syntactic causatives are not considered to be valence increasing operations, even though semantically they can be interpreted as such.

In the English language, there is syntactic causative, whereas it is not found in the Maithili language. For example,

- (69) He made me do it.
- (70) Ram caused shyam to die.
- (71) Nanu forced her hairdresser to relinquish his position.
- (72) Nanu compelled Janu to dance with her.
- (73) I had john fix the car.
- (74) Anjana gets her son to bring medicine.

3.5.2 Causative I and Causative II

In the Maithili language, there is causative I and causative II, whereas in the English language there is not such distinction. There are two types of causative verb forms in Maithili. The 'first' causative is formed by adding the suffix -a and the 'second' causative is formed by adding the suffix -ba to the non-causative verb stem. For example,

- (75) h̄m s̄man l̄d-̄b
I goods load-PRES-(1)
S DO
'I load goods.'
- (76) h̄m j̄n s̄ s̄man l̄d-a-eb
I laborer INSTR goods load-CAUS-I-PRES-(1+3NH)
S OO DO
'I cause the laborer to load goods.'

- (77) h̄m j̄n s̄ s̄man l̄d-ba-eb
 I laborer INSTR goods load-CAUS-II-PRES-(1+3NH)
 S OO DO
 'I have the laborer load goods.'

3.5.3 Case Hierarchy

Case hierarchy is found in both the languages.

- (I) The embedded subject of the intransitive sentence is demoted to direct object position in its corresponding first causative sentence. For example,

- (78) gh̄r ch̄r-̄l
 house get thatched - PST-(3NH)
 S
 'The house got thatched.'

- (79) j̄n gh̄r char-l-̄k
 laborer house thatch-PST-(3NH)
 S DO
 'The laborer thatched the house.'

- (II) The embedded subject for the monotransitive sentence is demoted to indirect object position in its corresponding first causative sentence. For example,

- (80) r̄mes kitab p̄r̄h-l-̄inh
 Ramesh book read-PST-(3H)
 S DO
 'Ramesh read a book.'

- (81) Mast̄r r̄mes ke® kitab
 teacher Ramesh ACC/DAT book
 S IO DO
 p̄r̄h-̄l-̄inh
 read -CAUSI-PST-(3H+3H)
 'The teacher taught Ramesh the book.'

(III) The embedded subject of the ditransitive sentence is demoted to oblique object position in its corresponding first causative sentence. For example,

(82) mohān ram ke pātr
 Mohan Ram ACC/DAT letter
 S IO DO
 likh-l-āk
 write-PST-(3NH+3NH)
 'Mohan wrote a letter to Ram.'

(83) rāmes mohān sā ram ke
 Ramesh Mohan INSTR Ram ACC/DAT
 S OO IO
 pātr likh-□-l-āk
 letter write-CAUSI-PST-(3NH+3NH)
 DO
 'Ramesh caused Mohan to write a letter to Ram.'

3.5.4 Object and the Case Marker

(I) In the Maithili language, the direct object is marked, whereas it is not marked in the English language. For example,

(84) hām jibāch ke® dekh-ā-l-iāinh
 I Jibach ACC/DAT see-PST-(1-3H)
 S DO
 'I saw Jibach.'

(II) In the Maithili language, the indirect object is marked, whereas it is not marked in the English language. For example,

(85) āha® jān ke® jālkhāi
 You(H) laborer ACC/DAT breakfast
 S IO DO
 de-l-iāik
 give - PST-(2H+3NH)
 'You gave the laborer breakfast.'

(III) In the Maithili language, the oblique object is marked, whereas it is not marked in the English language. For example,

(86)	malik	thekedar	s̄	j̄n
	master	contractor	INSTR	laborer
	S	OO		OO
	s̄	it̄a	dhō-b̄-l-̄inh	
	INSTR	brick	carry -CAUS II-PST-(3H)	
		DO		

'The master caused the contractor to have the bricks carried by the laborers.'

3.5.5 Causatives of Intransitives

(I) In the causative of an intransitive sentence of 'first' causative construction, the extra noun phrase (causer) appears as the subject, while the subject of an intransitive sentence functions as direct object (causee) in both the languages. For example,

(87)	gh̄r	ch̄r-̄l
	house	get thatched-PST-(3NH)
	S	

'The house got thatched.'

(88)	j̄n	gh̄r	char-l-̄k
	laborer	house	thatch-PST-(3NH)
	S	DO	

'The laborer thatched the house.'

(II) In the causative of an intransitive sentence of 'second' causative construction, the subject of the first causative sentence functions as an indirect object in both the languages. For example,

(93)	mast̄r	bhai	s̄	rajesh	ke®
	teacher	brother	INSTR	Rajesh	ACC/DAT
	S	OO		IO	
	kitab	p̄r̄ṣh-b̄-l-ḍinh			
	book	read-CAUS II-PST-(3H+3H)			
	DO				

'The teacher had brother teach Rajesh book.'

3.5.7 Causatives of Ditransitives

(I) In the causative of a ditransitive sentence of 'first' causative construction, the extra noun phrase (causer) appears as the subject, while the subject of a non causative ditransitive sentence functions as an oblique object (causee) in both the languages.

(94)	moh̄n	ram	ke	p̄tr	likh-l-ḍk
	Mohan	Ram	ACC/DAT	letter	write-PST-(3NH+3NH)
	S	IO		DO	

'Mohan wrote a letter to Ram.'

(95)	r̄mes	moh̄n	s̄	ram	ke	p̄ta
	Ramesh	Mohan	INSTR	Ram	ACC/DAT	letter
	S	OO		IO		DO

likh-□-l-ḍk
write - CAUSI-PST-(3NH+3NH)

'Ramesh caused Mohan to write a letter to Ram.'

(II) In the causative of a ditransitive sentence of 'second' causative construction, the subject of the first causative sentence functions as an oblique object in both the languages. For example,

(96)	Soh̄n	ramesh	s̄	moh̄n	s̄/dwara
	Sohan	Ramesh	INSTR	Mohan	INSTR
	S	OO		OO	
	ram	ke	p̄tr	likh-b̄-l-ḍk	
	Ram	ACC/DAT	letter	write-CAUS II-PST-(3NH+3NH)	
	IO				

'Sohan had Ramesh write a letter to Ram by Mohan.'

3.5.8 Semantics of Causation

Regarding the degree of closeness between the causer's action and the resultant situation of the cause, causative constructions perform two semantic functions

- a. Direct causation
- b. Mediated causation

In English, the same causative construction is used for both direct and mediated causations. For example,

(97) The clown had the children laugh. (DC)

(98) Niru had Ram bring her sari. (MC)

But in Maithili, direct causation is marked by the accusative-dative.

postposition 'ke', whereas mediated causation is marked by the instrumental postposition 's̄'. For example,

(99)	jok̄r	dhiyaputa	ke	h̄s̄-□-l-̄k
	Clown	children	ACC/DAT	laugh-CAUSI-PST-(3NH+3NH)
	Causer	Causee		

'The clown had the children laugh.'

(100)	niru	ram	s̄	̄p̄n	sari
	Niru	Ram	INSTR	REFL	sari
	S	OO			DO

ma -b̄-□-l-̄inh

bring-CAUS II-PST-(3H)

'Niru had Ram bring her sari'.

CHAPTER FOUR

FINDINGS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

4.1 Findings

From the analysis of the data, the following points have been discovered.

1. English causativization differs from Maithili one in various aspects. However, there are some similarities as well.
2. In the Maithili language, there is morphological causative, whereas it is not found in the English language.
3. In the English language, there is lexical causative, whereas it is not found in the Maithili language.
4. In the English language, there is syntactic causative, whereas it is not found in the Maithili language.
5. In the Maithili language, there is causative I and causative II, whereas there is not such distinction in the English language. There are two types of causative verb forms in Maithili. The 'first' causative is formed by adding the suffix -a and the 'second' causative is formed by adding the suffix -ba to the non-causative verb stem.
6. Case hierarchy is found in both the languages.
7. In the Maithili language, the direct object is marked, whereas it is not marked in the English language.
8. In the Maithili language, the indirect object is marked, whereas it is not marked in the English language.
9. In the Maithili language, the oblique object is marked, whereas it is not marked in the English language.
10. In the causative of an intransitive sentence of 'first' causative construction, the extra noun phrase appears as the subject, while the subject of an intransitive sentence functions as direct object in both the languages.
11. In the causative of an intransitive sentence of 'second' causative construction, the subject of the first causative sentence functions as an indirect object in both the languages.

12. In the causative of a transitive sentence of 'first' causative construction, the extra noun phrase appears as the subject, while the subject of a non-causative transitive sentence functions as an indirect object in both the languages.
13. In the causative of a transitive sentence of 'second' causative construction, the subject of the first causative sentence functions as an oblique object in both the languages.
14. In the causative of a ditransitive sentence of 'first' causative construction, the extra noun phrase appears as the subject, while the subject of a non-causative ditransitive sentence functions as an oblique object in both the languages.
15. In the causative of a ditransitive sentence of 'second' causative construction, the subject of the first causative sentence also functions as an oblique object in both the languages.
16. In the English language, the same causative construction is used for both Direct and Mediated causation but in the Maithili language direct causation is marked by the accusative-dative postposition 'ke' and mediated causation is marked by the instrumental postposition 'sō'.

4.2 Recommendations

The study has the following pedagogic implications with some recommendations made by the researcher.

1. This research is a comparative study between two languages English and Maithili. It helps the language teachers who are teaching English as a second or foreign language because a comparative study helps the teacher to predict the areas of difficulty that the learners face and possible errors that the learners commit.
2. As there are a number of differences between English and Maithili causativization, the teachers teaching Maithili speaking students learning the English language should pay special attention while teaching causative formation.

3. A language teacher should analyze what are the similar and different points between the native language of learners and the target language they are going to learn.
4. The Maithili speaking students should be made careful with the fact that the same causative construction is used for both direct and mediated causation in English.
5. In the Maithili language, there is accusative dative 'ke' and instrumental 'sḍ' postposition distinction in using direct and mediated causation which is not in English. Therefore, Maithili speaking students learning English should be provided with many examples having different functions of direct and mediated causation.
6. Maithili speaking students should be informed that morphological causative is not found in English causativization which is commonly used in Maithili causativization.
7. Causative verbs in Maithili are derived through a highly productive morphological process, whereas it is not so in English. Therefore, the teacher should give special emphasis on this point.
8. While teaching language a language teacher should see what difficulties the learners are facing because of the mother tongue influences in learning second language.
9. Without having linguistic knowledge language teaching is an impossible task. Therefore, this research work i.e. dissertation gives a teacher linguistic knowledge who is teaching Maithili and English languages.
10. The researcher hopes that this study will provide detailed information about English and Maithili causativization and it helps the teacher to teach causative construction of both languages. This work will also be helpful for the course designers to design the courses of both languages.
11. Last but far from the least, the concerned bodies are urged to carry out further research concentrating on other areas of grammar to test the validity of the findings of the present research work.

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APPENDICES

Appendix I

Name of Informants with their Roll No. and Campuses

a. Rajbiraj Model Campus

S.N.	Name of Informants	Roll No.
1	Anil Kumar Sah	18
2	Arun Kumar Yadav	170
3	Babil Shribastav	54
4	Chakradhar Pattel	10
5	Debkant Mehta	48
6	Devika Giri	41
7	Dharm Dev Khang	98
8	Dhirendra Mandal	99
9	Gayatri Jha	52
10	Krishna Kumar Mandal	114
11	Pooja Singh	36
12	Poonam Gupta	51
13	Poonam Yadav	60
14	Punam Kumari Yadav	39
15	Raj Prakash Mandal	197
16	Ranjana Jha	127
17	Sulochana Chaudhary	35
18	Sunil Kumar Thakur	50
19	Tarkeshwor Yadav	42
20	Tirthananda Yadav	17

b. Royal Softech Multiple College

S.N.	Name of Informants	Roll No.
1	Ani Kumar Sah	3
2	Deepika Chaurasiya	10
3	Dhirendra Mandal	21
4	Indal Kumar Mandal	5
5	Jeewan Yadav	31
6	Kashindra Mandal	50
7	Mahesh Kumar Ram	20
8	Mahima Yadav	13
9	Pramod Yadav	33

10	Pratima Yadav	12
11	Priyanka Chaudhary	7
12	Ram Bhuvan Yadav	30
13	Ram Niroj Thakur	2
14	Rohindra Sharma	27
15	Sangita Lama	45
16	Sarita Chaudhary	6
17	Shankar Sah	47
18	Sharwan Kumar Bhagat	4
19	Shrijana Jha	8
20	Surendra Yadav	41

c. Everest College

S.N.	Name of Informants	Roll No.
1	Anita Sah	23
2	Anjana Singh	56
3	Arbind Gupta	21
4	Ashok Chaudhary	1
5	Bhagbandat Sharma	12
6	Deepak Sah	17
7	Kashindra Mochi	7
8	Mamta Yadav	2
9	Mukesh Yadav	32
10	Muni Jha	40
11	Neelam Kumari Yadav	52
12	Neelam Yadav	8
13	Pinkey Mahato	57
14	Pinkey Raut	4
15	Pradip Chaudhary	5
16	Rekha Mandal	3
17	Rekha Yadav	10
18	Renu Shrestha	13
19	Sudip Kushwaha	6
20	Sunita Das	9