

GRAMMATICAL SKETCH OF BAJJIKA LANGUAGE

*Dissertation submitted to Jawaharlal Nehru University
in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the
award of the Degree of*

MASTER OF PHILOSOPHY

ARTI KUMARI



Centre of Linguistics & English
School of Language, Literature & Culture Studies
Jawaharlal Nehru University
New Delhi-110 067
INDIA


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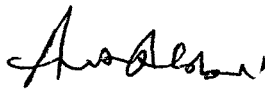
Centre of Linguistics & English
School of Language, Literature & Culture Studies
जवाहरलाल नेहरू विश्वविद्यालय
Jawaharlal Nehru University
New Delhi-110067, India

CERTIFICATE

This is to certify that the dissertation entitled “GRAMMATICAL SKETCH OF BAJJIKA LANGUAGE”, submitted by **Arti Kumari**, in partial fulfillment of the requirements of the award of the degree of **MASTER OF PHILOSOPHY** of the University, is to the best of my knowledge an original work and may be placed before the examiners of evaluation.


Prof. Vaishna Narang
(Chairperson)

Professor Vaishna Narang
Chairperson
Centre of Linguistics & English
School of Language, Literature
& Culture Studies,
Jawaharlal Nehru University
New Delhi-110067


Prof. Anvita Abbi
(Supervisor)

DECLARATION BY THE CANDIDATE

This dissertation entitled “GRAMMATICAL SKETCH OF BAJJIKA LANGUAGE”, submitted by me for the award of the degree of Master of Philosophy is an original work and has not been submitted so far in part or in full, for any other degree or diploma of any University.

Arti Kumari

Arti Kumari

Centre of Linguistics & English
School of Language, Literature
& Culture Studies
Jawaharlal Nehru University
New Delhi-110067

To
Mummy & Papa

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Abbreviation

Abl	Ablative
Acc	Accusative
AGR	Agreement
Aux	Auxiliary
Caus	Causative
Class	Classifier
Corel	Correlative
CP	Conjunctive Particle
D	retroflex d
Dat	Dative
Det	Determiner
DH	retroflex d ^h
DO	Direct Object
Emph	Emphatic maker
Fut	Future tense
Gen.	Genitive
Hab	Habitual
H	Honorific
Imper	Imperative
Impef	Imperfective
F.	Female
Inft.	Infinitive
Instr.	Instrumental
IO	Indirect object
Loc	Locative
M	Male
NH	Non-Honorific
Nom	Nominative
O	Object
P	Particle

Perf	Perfective
Pl	Plural
Prst	Present tense
Pst	Past tense
Redup	Reduplication
Refl.	Reflexive
Rel.	Relative
Sg.	Singular
T	Retroflex t
TH	Retroflex t ^h
Voc	Vocative
I	First Person
II	Second Person
III	Third Person
//	Phonemic transcription
[]	Phonetic transcription

Chapter 1: Introduction

CHAPTER 1

1.0 Introduction

Bajjika is an eastern Indo-Aryan¹ language spoken by a total of about 1.5 crore people in the Northern and Central regions of the Bihar state of India. In this research an attempt is made to present a brief account of some aspects of the phonetics, morphology and the syntax of the Bajjika language. Before we embark upon the description of the various aspects of this language, we must first see, in this introductory chapter some background notes on such issues as:

- (1) Sociolinguistic Data
- (2) Its speakers and geographical boundaries
- (3) Studies done on Bajjika language
- (4) Emergence of the language and its present-day situation

1.1 Sociolinguistic Data:

Bajjika is spoken mainly in the Central and Northern regions of the state of Bihar in India. The exact dimensions of the area have been fluctuating from age to age. Today this area is known as Bajjikanchal and the history of it is quite old. According to Shatpatha Brahmins,² when the Aryan invaders³ came to Koshal, they established their monarchy in the east of the river Sadanira. Nearly 21 kings from Nabhadisth to Trishbindu have been mentioned who had ruled in this area.

¹ The Indo-Aryan ('Arya') family of languages is one of the major language families of the world. They all utilize the Devanagari script. These languages of this category are considered the 'purest' descendants of Sanskrit, being spoken in Aryavarta, the 'pure land of the Aryans', also known as Aryadesha or Madhyadesha. Generally included as separate languages in this family are Braj Bhasa, Kannauji, Ayodhyi, Khari Boli, Bundeli, Bagheli, Bhojpuri.

² The Brahmanas associated with the Yajur Veda are The Shatapatha Brahmana. This Brahmana is associated with the white Yajur Veda. It consists of 100 lectures, which provide information on ceremonies, and the philosophy of sacrifices. After the Rig-Veda, this text is considered the most important work in the entire range of Vedic literature.

³ One of the main ideas used to interpret and generally devalue the ancient history of India is the theory of the Aryan invasion. According to this account, India was invaded and conquered by nomadic light-skinned Indo-European tribes from Central Asia around 1500-100 BC, who overthrew an earlier and more advanced dark-skinned Dravidian civilization from which they took most of what later became Hindu culture. This so-called pre-Aryan civilization is said to be evidenced by the large urban ruins of what has been called the "*Indus valley culture*" (as most of its initial sites were on the Indus river). The war between the powers of light and darkness, a prevalent idea in ancient Aryan Vedic scriptures, was thus interpreted to refer to this war between light and dark skinned peoples. The Aryan invasion theory thus turned the "Vedas", the original scriptures of ancient India and the Indo-Aryans, into little more than primitive poems of uncivilized plunderers.

Vishal, son of Trishbindu made a country here, which was named as Vaishali after his name. So many kings ruled the area including Sumati and unfortunately not much of the information is found regarding (the history of) Vaishali after him, so the historians call it as the black era. The end of this era is counted upto 725 B.C. When Lichvies came to rule in this area, the republic government was established there. This was supposedly the oldest republic of India. This republic has eight kuls in it – Briji, Lichvi, Videh, Gayatrik, Bhog, Ugra, Ichvaku and Kuru. One of these eight kuls, Ichvaku was related to the rajvansh while briji and Lichvi were more powerful. Probably that is why, this area of Vaishali was called ‘vajji sangh’.

The language spoken by common people in this Vajji Sangh is known as Bajjika. This name is supposed to be given by the scholar Rahul Sankrityayan. He used this term first in his book ‘Puratatva Nibandhavali’ under an essay titled ‘Matribhasao ki Samasya’. [A Arun, 1990). However, Grierson, before that had marked three languages spoken in Bihar, namely Maithili, Magahi and Bhojpuri. For Bajjika language, he used different terms like ‘Western Maithili or Maithili-Bhojpuri. Later, Dr. Siyaram Tiwari logically proved that Bajjika is a separate language which is obviously different from these two languages.

Scholars like Ram Padarth Sharma and Yogendra Sharma had suggested that Bajjika is a language spoken in Vaishali. Dr. Siyaram Tiwari had given the name Brijjika to this language but the name given by Rahul Sankrityayan remained popular and accepted. Some people tried calling it Vajjika instead of Bajjika, but since /w/ is pronounced as /b/ in this language, it remained Bajjika.

1.2 Its Speakers and Geographical Boundaries

The geographical boundary of Bajjika is considered as the geographical boundary of the Vajji Sangh itself. Though it can be true but only to an extent. According to Pd. Rahul Sankrityayan, the ‘Bajji Sangh’ includes today's Champaran, Muzaffarpur, most of areas of Darbhanga, some areas of Sonpur and Mirzapur and Parsa of Chapra District. Whereas Dr. Siyaram Tiwari sees the whole Muzaffarpur district Samastipur district Ghorasahan, Dhaka, Patahi, Madhuban, Pipra and Kesaria thana of Champaran district and Sonpur thana, as Bajjika

speaking areas. However, inspite of talking about old geographical areas of 'Bajji Sangh', scholars like Ram Padarth Sharma tells that the modern Bajjika speaking areas includes North Western subdivisions of Hazipur, East-Western areas of Muzaffarpur subdivision, North-Western subdivisions of Sitamarhi and Northern areas of Champaran district.

However, there has been a lot of controversies regarding the decision of exact boundary of Bajjika speaking areas. Due to its geographic location, Bajjika has been in constant contact with other varieties spoken in adjacent areas such as Maithili, Magahi and Bhojpuri. Due to language contact Bajjika definitely has undergone changes at various levels, especially in adjacent areas. Based on its contact with other varieties of Hindi, Bajjika has been divided into – standard Bajjika, Maithili affected Bajjika, Magahi affected Bajjika and Bhojpuri affected area (division based on A. Arun, 1990, p.4).

1.3 Studies done on Bajjika Language:

Whatever works were done on or in Bajjika language in past, most of them are not known to us due to the lack of the name given to this language. Pandit Ram Naresh Tripathi's 'Kavita Kaumudi' which is a collection of Bajjika songs is considered to be Maithili or Bhojpuri. There had been many instances like this, where, though the creation has been done in Bajjika, it was listed either under Maithili or Bhojpuri. In Dr. Siyaram Tiwari's book 'Bajjika Bhasha aur Sahitya', which was published by Bihar Rashtrabhasha Parishad, Dr. Shukdeo Singh's 'Bhojpuri aur Hindi' and Dr. Awadheshwar Arun's 'Hindi, Bhojpuri aur Bajjika ka Tulnatmak Adhyan', it has clearly been proved that Rahul Sankrityayan was the first one to talk about Bajjika as an independent language in his 'Puratatva Nibandhawali'. Ram Padarth Sharma and Yogendra Sharma are of the few known Scholars who had worked on this language. Ram Padarth Sharma has also used the term 'Vaishali bhasha' for it but 'Bajjika' remained in vast use. Dr. Yogendra Prasad Singh and Dr. Surendra Mohan Prasad are two names which cannot be left, if the progress of Bajjika language is being talked about. Dr. Yogendra Prasad Singh has written the first grammar of Bajjika and Dr. Surendra Mohan has made the first dictionary of it. Apart from this, one more achievement

to be counted in this regard is 'Bajjika Ramayan' which is written by Dr. Awadheshwar Arun, but is yet to be published. Harendra Singh Viplav, Devendra Singh Rakesh, Jwala Sandhya Pushpa and many more people are known today, who are working for the progress of this language.

1.4 Emergence of the language and its present day situation:

As we have already discussed in the section 1.2 Bajjika is a language used as mother tongue by the people residing in Bajjikanchal. Though its not more than two-three decades when people of this area seriously became aware of the language they speak. The present scenario is that many books and magazines are being published in this language. In Bihar Vishwavidyalay, the Post-graduation course in Hindi includes the linguistic studies of various language spoken in Bihar and Bajjika has been included in it. Also, it has got place in the Sahityalankar examinations conducted by Hindi Vidyapith, Devghar. The work ahead is divided mainly into three chapters. Chapter 2 introduces the sound system of Bajjika language. A preliminary study of phonotactic behaviours of sounds, segmental phonology and morphophonemics is done in this chapter. The third chapter is about the morphological features of the language including the inflectional and derivational features. Discussion on syntax and major sentence types has been done in the fourth chapter. Finally after conclusion, a sample text and few maps are given in the appendices.

Chapter 2:
Phonetics and Phonology

CHAPTER 2

2.0. Introduction:

In this chapter we will briefly discuss the sketch of the segmental phonology of Bajjika and will describe the consonants and vowels. Also, their phonotactic behaviour will be discussed (section 2.1-2.5). Section 2.6 is devoted to a brief discussion of the supra segmental features of stress and intonation; the next section, i.e. 2.7 deals with morphophonemic alternations. Section 2.8 deals with the syllabic structures found in Bajjika.

“The study of full range of vocal sounds that human beings are capable of making is phonetics. The study of the sounds human beings employ when speaking a language is linguistic phonetics. Phonology is the study of the system underlying the selection and use of sounds in the languages of world”. (Kisseberth and Kenstowicz, 1979:1). Articulatory phonetics is a sub-branch of phonetics which is concerned with the study of the articulation of speech sounds. Speech sounds are produced through various interactions of speech organs acting either on an outgoing, i.e. egressive or an incoming, i.e. ingressive airstream. Such articulation of speech sounds is peculiar to human beings only and is not shared by other animals. The human speech mechanism is capable of producing an infinite number of speech sounds. From this vast human repertoire of speech sounds, every language makes its own selection. The selection that a particular language makes constitutes its sound system, which itself comprises a very large number of speech sounds.

The purpose of speech, in general, is in order to be heard. So, when we produce a speech sound, we intend it to be transmitted and heard and hence a complete description of a sound must include its description in articulatory, acoustic and auditory terms. This, however, is not easy and since the purpose of the present work is to aid the teaching of pronunciation of a particular language, it should include the description of sounds mainly in articulatory terms and partly in auditory terms. Speech sounds of all languages are classified first and foremost, into vowels and consonants. In phonetic terms, ‘vowels’ are defined as the speech

sounds which are produced by no obstruction or narrowing of a degree that would cause audible friction. All other sounds are regarded as 'consonants'.

2.1 Bajjika Phonemes:

The inventory of Bajjika phonemes is set forth in Table 2.1. As shown in the table, there are 30 consonant phonemes and 8 oral vowel phonemes in Bajjika. All vowels can be nasalized and so the number of underlying vowel phonemes can be increased to 16. All underlying segments also surface as phonetic segments. Phonemes enclosed in bracket in Table 2.1 are allophones.

Table 2.1 Inventory of Bajjika phonemes

Consonants	Bilabial		Dental		Alveolar		Retroflex		Palatal		Velar		Glottal
Places	vl	vd	vl	vd	vl	vd	vl	vd	vl	Vd	vl	vd	
Manner	vl	vd	vl	vd	vl	vd	vl	vd	vl	Vd	vl	vd	
Stops (-asp.)	p	b	t	d			T	D			k	g	
(+asp.)	p ^h	b ^h	t ^h	d ^h			TH	DH			k ^h	g ^h	
Affricates (-asp.)									c	j			
(+asp.)									c ^h	j ^h			
Nasals (-asp.)		m		n				(N)		(ɲ)		(ŋ)	
(+asp.)		m ^h		n ^h									
Trill (-asp.)						r							
(+asp.)						r ^h							
Fricatives					s								h
Lateral (-asp.)						l							
(+asp.)						l ^h							
Approximants		w								y			

Vowels	Front	Central	Back	
High	i		u	
Mid	e	ə	o	+/- ~ (nasalization)
Low	ɛ	a	ɔ	

2.2. Vowels:

Based on the articulatory features of tongue position, tongue height and lip position, the eight oral vowels in Bajjika are: /i/ high front, /e/ mid front, /ɛ/ low front, /ə/ mid central, /a/ low central, /u/ high back, /o/ mid back, and /ɔ/ low back. There are two degrees of vowel length, long and short for almost all the vowels. Lip rounding is not distinctive and only back vowels are rounded.

2.2.1. Front Vowels:

The phonological opposition between the front vowels /i e ɛ / is shown below:

Initial	Medial	Final
/i/ 'this'	/bis/ 'twenty'	/ki/ 'what'
/ek/ 'one'	/bec/ 'sell'	/ke/ 'who'
/ɛna/ 'mirror'	/bɛna/ 'gift'	

Of the front vowels, /ɛ/ is also diphthongized in Bajjika as /æ/, or /əi/, e.g.

/ɛna/ [æna]	'mirror'
/ɛsən/ [əisən]	'like this'
/pɛr/ [pəer]	'leg'
/mɛda/ [mæda]	'flour'

2.2.2. Central Vowels:

The phonological contrast between the Central Vowels /ə a/ is as shown below:

Initial	Medial	Final
/ən/ 'grain'	/kəl/ 'hand pump'	/bəiTHə/ 'sit (H)'
/an/ 'ego'	/kal/ 'time'	/bəiTHa/ 'make him sit'
/ər/ 'stick'	'rək ^h ' 'keep'	/cələ/ 'lets go (H)'
/ar/ 'pl marker or and'	/rak ^h / 'ash'	/cəla/ 'make him walk'
/as/ 'hope'	/c ^h al/ 'bark'	

/ə/ occurs primarily in non-initial positions. In the final position it appears mainly in the honorific construction where it is a form of the verbal agreement for IIIH.

2.2.3. Back Vowels:

The back vowels /u o ɔ/ are rounded and show phonological opposition in all position, e.g.

Initial	Medial	Final
/upəɾ/ ‘above’	/kus/ ‘a kind of grass’	/suru/ ‘beginning’
/opəɾ/ ‘above’	/kos/ ‘miles’	
/os/ ‘frost’	/k ^h opa/ ‘bun’	/kəhiyo/ ‘anytime’
/ɔrəɾ/ ‘woman’	/cɔla/ ‘wide’	

Of the back vowels, /ɔ/ is the least common, especially in the final position. Also, in Bajjika, /ɔ/ is diphthongized as /əu/ or /əo/, e.g.

/kɔa/ [kəua]	‘crow’
/mɔgi/ [məugi]	‘woman’
/ɔrət/ [əorət]	‘woman’
/cɔla/ [cəola]	‘wide’

2.2.4. High Vowels:

The high vowels /i u/ contrast each other in all the three positions. Example is as shown below:

Initial	Medial	Final
/i/ ‘this’	/tit/ ‘bitter’	/bali/ ‘earring’
/u/ ‘that’	/tut/ ‘kind of fruit’	/balu/ ‘sand’

2.2.5. Mid Vowels:

The mid vowels /e ə o/ also show phonological contrast in almost all positions.

For e.g.,

Initial	Medial	Final
/enna/ 'like this'	/bel/ 'kind of fruit'	/he/ 'a vocative form used for elder ladies'
/onna/ 'like that'	/bol/ 'speak'	/ho/ 'become'
/əna/ 'a coin denomination'	/bəl/ 'strain'	/helə/ 'swim (H)'

/ə/ occurs in the final position mainly in the imperative construction where it is a form of verbal agreement for IIP (H).

2.2.6. Low Vowels:

The low vowels /ε a ɔ/ show phonological contrasts as shown in the examples given below:

Initial	Medial	Final
/εs/ 'luxury'	/pεr/ 'leg'	/jε/ 'way to greet God'
/as/ 'hope'	/par/ 'across'	/ja/ 'go'
/ɔrət/ 'woman'		/jɔ/ 'a kind of grain'

2.2.7. Diphthongs:

Most commonly posited diphthongs in Bajjika are [əi], [əu] and [əe]. Somewhat depending upon the choice of speakers also, these diphthongs can be pronounced either into a real diphthong or separately as two distinct vowels used as vowel clusters. Most of these diphthongs in Bajjika are rising diphthongs, i.e. they end in high vowels /i/ and /u/, e.g.

[əi]	[əisən]	‘like this’
	[kəise]	‘how’
	[həi]	‘be’
[əu]	[əur]	‘and’
	[kəua]	‘crow’
	[həu]	‘have’ [Imper, II NH]
[əe]	[əena]	‘mirror’
	[məena]	‘a bird’
	[həe]	‘be’
[au]	[au]	‘come (Imper, IIH)’
	[jaut]	‘husband’s brother’s son’
	[lau]	‘bring (Imper, IIH)’
[ai]	[ai]	‘today’
	[kai]	‘mosses’

2.2.8. Nasalized Vowels:

As we have already discussed, all vowels can be nasalized in Bajjika increasing the number of underlying vowel phonemes to 16. The contrast between the oral and nasal vowels is as shown in the examples given below:

Initial:

/ila/ ‘because of this’

/ɪta/ ‘brick’

/ehi/ ‘only this’

/ēri/ ‘heel’

/uTH/ ‘arise’

/ũT/ 'camel'

/ɔrət/ 'woman'

/ɔTəl/ 'boiled'

/as/ 'hope'

/āt/ 'intestine'

Medial:

/c^hiT/ 'scatter'

/c^hIT/ 'kind of dye in garments'

/bel/ 'kind of fruit'

/bēt/ 'stick'

/g^hor/ 'liquid'

/g^hōT/ 'swallow'

/gun/ 'quality'

/g^hun/ 'grain bug'

/pas/ 'near'

/bās/ 'bamboo'

/kəTHgər/ 'hard'

/kəTgər/ 'thorny'

Final:

/kəhi/ 'say (Imper, II NH)'

/kehī/ 'what if'

/kəhu/ 'say (Imper, IHH)'

/kəhū/ 'somewhere'

/kəha/ 'cause to say'

/kəhā/ 'where'

Vowels are phonetically nasalized when contiguous with a nasal consonant, e.g .

/g^hum/ [g^hũm] 'turn'

/tin/ [tĩn] 'three'

/un/ [ũn] 'wool'

/d^han/ [d^hān] 'grain'

/kona/ [kõna] 'corner'

/həm/ [həm] 'I'

2.3 Consonants:

Bajjika stops, like those of most Indo-Aryan languages, show a four way contrast between voiced and voiceless and aspirated and unaspirated at bilabial, dental, retroflex, palatal, and velar places of articulation. Phonetically the trills, laterals, and nasals also show a two-way contrast between aspirated and unaspirated. Thus, we can say that, aspiration is an overriding characteristic of the Bajjika sound system.

2.3.1. Stops:

Table 2.2 shows the occurrence of and contrast between voiced and voiceless and aspirated and unaspirated stops at initial, medial and final positions.

Table 2.2

Stops	Initial	Medial	Final
/p/	/pul/ 'bridge'	/nəpa/ 'measurement'	/sãp/ 'snake'
/p ^h /	/p ^h ul/ 'flower'	/nəp ^h a/ 'profit'	/sap ^h / 'clean'
/b/	/balu/ 'sand'	/ciba/ 'chew'	/jib/ 'animal'
/b ^h /	/b ^h alu/ 'bear'	/cib ^h a/ 'suck'	/jib ^h / 'tongue'
/t/	/tari/ 'palm wine'	/poti/ 'grand daughter'	/bænd/ 'close'
/t ^h /	t ^h ari/ 'plate'	pot ^h i/ 'book'	/bænd ^h / 'tie'
/d/	/dan/ 'charity'	/udar/ 'generous'	/məd/ 'ego'
/d ^h /	/d ^h an/ 'grain'	/ud ^h ar/ 'credit'	/məd ^h / 'honey'
/T/	/Tik/ 'pigtail'	/kəTgər/ 'thorny'	/kaT/ 'cut'
/TH/	/Thik/ 'true'	/kəT ^h gər/ 'hard'	/kaTH/ 'wood'
/D/	/Do/ 'bucket'		
/DH/	/Dhol/ 'drum'		
/c/	/cor/ 'thief'	/əcar/ 'pickle'	/bic/ 'center'
/c ^h /	/c ^h or/ 'leave'	/əc ^h ar/ 'shower'	/bic ^h / 'laid'
/j/	/jal/ 'net'	/bajəi/ 'blown'	/bej/ 'blew'
/j ^h /	/j ^h al/ 'musical instrument'	/baj ^h əi/ 'entangled'	/bej ^h / 'entangled'

/k/	/kal/ 'time'	/sakra/ 'narrow'	/bik/ 'sell'
/k ^h /	k ^h al/ 'skin'	/sək ^h ra/ 'kind of snake'	/bik ^h / 'poison'
/g/	/gāo/ 'village'	/gəgri/ 'pitcher'	/bag/ 'garden/
/g ^h /	/g ^h ao/ 'wound'	/g ^h əg ^h ri/ 'skirt'	/bag ^h / 'tiger'

/D/ and /DH/ phonemes occur intervocalically and word-finally only if preceded by a nasal consonant, which is usually assimilated to the retroflex place of articulation /D/ and /DH/, e.g.

Medial

Final

/əNDa/ 'egg'

/k^həNDa/ 'palanguin'

/THəDHa/ 'cold'

/DH/ phoneme in word final position and post vocalically changes to /RH/, e.g.

/pəDH/ [pəRH] 'read'

/bəDH/ [bəRH] 'grow'

2.3.2. Nasals:

The phonological opposition between the nasals / m n/ is shown in the examples given below,

Initial

Medial

Final

/mali/ 'gardener'

/kəma/ 'earn'

/kam/ 'job'

/nali/ 'drain'

/kəna/ 'cause to weep'

/kan/ 'ear'

The contrast between aspirated and unaspirated nasals /m m^h/ and /n n^h/ can be seen word medially or word finally. For e.g.,

/ləmər/ 'stretched'

/kəna/ 'cause to weep'

/ləm^hər/ 'tall'

/kən^ha/ 'shoulder'

Voiced unaspirated dental nasal /n/ has three more voiced allophones namely palatal nasal /ɲ/ that occurs before palatal consonants, velar nasal /ŋ/, occurring before velar consonants and retroflex nasal /N/, occurring before retroflex consonants, e.g.,

	Initial		Medial		Final
/n/	/nica/	'down'	/keniyã/	'bride'	/k ^h un/ 'blood'
/ɲ/			/cirĩɲa/	'bird'	
/ŋ/			/luŋgi/	'a dress'	/Tɔŋg/ 'leg'
			/jəŋgəl/	'forest'	/jɔŋg ^h / 'thigh'
/N/			/əNDA/	'egg'	
			/iNDA/	'well'	

Like other Indo Aryan Languages, Bajjika has borrowed many words from Sanskrit, either directly or indirectly through Hindi. Most of educated speakers know this and tend to use them, which has had an impact upon the phonology of Bajjika. The literate and educated speakers try to retain the original pronunciation of the borrowed words. In less literary styles, however, they abandon it. This is highly evident in the variation that occurs, between the retroflex nasal [N] and the dental nasal [n] as shown below:

[baN] ~ [ban] 'arrow'

[praN] ~ [pran] 'life'

2.3.3. Liquids:

The liquids, i.e., trill and lateral, show phonological opposition in the following positions, e.g.

Initial		Medial		Final
/rel/	'train'	/baru/	'light' (IMP, IIH)	/ber/ 'time'
/lel/	'take'	/balu/	'sand'	/bel/ 'a fruit'

/rog/ 'disease' /cera/ 'a reptile' /lar/ 'saliva'
 /log/ 'people' /cela/ 'follower' /lal/ 'red colour'

The variation between the retroflex /R/ and the dental /r/ can be illustrated on the pattern of the treatment suggested above for the retroflex and dental nasals. The retroflex /R/ can not be treated as a phoneme, e.g.,

[kəRa] ~ [kəra] 'hard'
 [pəhaR] ~ [pəhar] 'mountain'
 [bəRa] ~ [bəra] 'big'

2.3.4. Fricatives:

The fricatives /s h/ show full phonological opposition in all position, e.g.,

Initial	Medial	Final
/sat ^h / 'with'	/pəsar/ 'spread'	/rəs/ 'juice'
/hāt ^h / 'hand'	/pəhar/ 'mountain'	/rəh/ 'stay' (IMP, II NH)

2.3.5. Approximants:

The approximants (w y) are seen in Bajjika at non-initial positions, e.g.,

Medial

/iswər/ 'God'

Final

/təwa/ 'utensil on which chapatti is made'

/diya/ 'lamp'

/maya/ 'money'

2.3.6 Gemination:

Gemination is an important characteristic of Bajjika consonant system. It is phonetically conditioned, occurring only intervocally where the preceding vowel is stressed. Such geminate consonants behave like consonant clusters in

the syllabic structure of the language where the first consonant goes with the preceding vowel and the second consonant with the following one. For example,

/dd/	nəddi	‘river’
/tt/	jutta	‘shoe’
	pittər	‘metal’
/kk/	okkər	‘his’
	cəkkər	‘circle’
/ll/	bəlla	‘bangle’
	kəlləh	‘fight’
/mm/	nəmma	‘tall’
	həmmər	‘mine’
	təmma	‘copper’

2.4 Consonant Clusters:

The use of consonant clusters, especially in initial and final positions, denotes a marked degree of formality and the speaker’s knowledge of languages like Sanskrit and Hindi. Uneducated speakers of Bajjika use the least number of clusters. Examples of words containing consonant clusters occurring non-initially and non-finally by the Bajjika speakers are given below:

pT	kəpTi	‘small bowl’
	uptap	‘over full’
pk	upkar	‘debt’
pr	kəpra	‘cloth’
	uprag	‘complain’

un	læbni	‘bowl to collect palm juice
	pæbni	‘fast/festival’
br	æbri	‘this time’
	læbri	‘outspoken’
mn	tæmni	‘farming’
mr	cæmra	‘leather’
	hæmra	‘me’
tr	pætra	‘horoscope’
	jætra	‘good luck’
dm	ædmi	‘people’
md ^h	sæmd ^h i	‘son’s/daughter’s father-in-law’
nd	gænda	‘dirty’
nk	tænke	‘little’
	hunka	‘him (H)’
ng	nungær	‘salty’
ng ^h	pæng ^h or	‘watery’
cn	nocni	‘itch’
	becnai	‘to sell’
cr	kæcri	‘pækaura’
	sænicri	‘name’
cc ^h	kucc ^h o	‘something’
c ^h r	mæc ^h ri	‘fish’

c ^h h	jac ^h hi	‘are you going?’
/kk ^h	sukk ^h əl	‘dry’
	b ^h ukk ^h əl	‘hungry’
/kr/	bəkri	‘goat’
	ləkri	‘wood’
/k ^h n/	lik ^h nai	‘to write’
	ək ^h ni	‘now’
	kək ^h ni	‘when’
/gr/	j ^h əgra	‘fight’
/lh/	dulha	‘bridegroom’
	culha	‘cooking burner’
/rb/	d ^h ərti	‘earth’
/rt ^h	pərt ^h ən	‘dry flour used while making chapati’
/rd/	gərdən	‘neck’
	mərdəl	‘mashed’
/rc/	mircai	‘chilli’
/rk/	bərka	‘elder’
	ləirka	‘kid’
/rh/	sirhəнна	‘at the side of the head’
/hm/	mehman	‘guest’
/hn/	kəhna	‘saying’
	uləhna	‘complain’

/sm/ dusmən ‘enemy’

/st/ mistiri ‘technician’

Three consonants cluster:

/ɲgn/ əɲgna ‘courtyard’

/ɲgr/ nəɲgri ‘tail’

/ɲgl/ jəɲgla ‘window rod’

/ɲg^h/ oɲg^hi ‘sleepy’

 kəɲg^hi ‘comb’

2.5 Vowel Clusters:

Bajjika two-vowel clusters (that is a phonetic process of diphthongization as discussed in 2.2.7), and a few of the possible three-vowel clusters are listed below in 2.5.1 and 2.5.2.

2.5.1 Two-Vowel Clusters:

[əi] əi - /əisən/ ‘like this’

 -əi- /bəiTH/ ‘sit (Imper, IINH)’

[əe] əe- /əele/ ‘came (Imper, II NH, III NH)’

 -əe- /bəel/ ‘ox’ [əo] əo - /əokad/ limit

 -əe /həe/ ‘be’

[əu] əu /əuTəl/ ‘boiled’

 -əu- /təul/ ‘measure’

 -əu /həu/ ‘have’

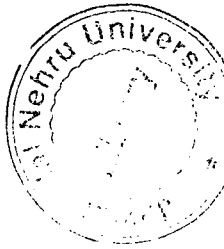
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[oi]	oi -	/oisən/	'like that'
	-oi-	/koila/	'coal'
	-oi	/koi/	'someone'
[oe]	-oe -	/d ^h oela/	'for washing'
[iə]	-iə-	/siəl/	'sewn'
	-iə	/jiə/	'(may you) live long'
[eo]	-eo-	/deor/	'husband's younger brother'
[ea]	-ea-	/bear/	'wind'
[ua]	-ua-	/juari/	'gambler'
	-ua	/jua/	'gambling'
[ai]	-ai	/lai/	'popped rice balls'
[ae]	-ae	/māe/	'mother'
	-ae-	/k ^h ael/	'eaten'
[ao]	-ao-	/bic ^h aon/	'bed'
[au]	-au	/mau/	'wife'
		/bikau/	'for sale'
[ia]	-ia	/g ^h ia/	'a vegetable'
[iu]	-iu	/g ^h iu/	'ghee'
[iə]	-iə	/k ^h aiə/	'is eating'
[io]	-io-	kəhio	'anytime'
[ie]	-ie-	/piela/	'for drinking'

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2.5.2. Three Vowel Clusters:

[əua]	/kəua/	‘crow’
	/bəua/	‘baby’
[əia]	/dəia/	‘elder sister’
[əio]	/təio/	‘then also’
[uia]	/suiə/	‘needle’
[oia]	/k ^h oia/	‘cover’
[iəu]	/diəu/	‘give (Imper IHH)’
[iaɪ]	/k ^h iaɪ/	‘(make) eat (Imper IHH)’
[aiə]	/jaiə/	‘(he) is going (Imper III NH)’

2.6 Stress and Intonation:

Stress in Bajjika is less significant and plays only a marginal role in distinguishing words, like other varieties spoken in Bihar. A very preliminary study of the position of primary word stress is given below:

All monosyllabic nouns, pronouns, adjectives and verbs are always stressed, e.g.,

[’i]	‘this’
[’ki]	‘what’
[’rak ^h]	‘ash’
[’k ^h aem]	‘(I) will eat’

A great majority of disyllabic nouns, pronouns, adjectives, and verb infinitives receive stress on their penultimate syllable, e.g.,

[’ədmi]	‘man’
[’kekra]	‘whom’
[’ləlka]	‘the red one’
[’marbəi]	‘(I) will beat’

However, inflected causative verb forms receive stress on the ultimate syllable, e.g.,

[c^ho'ra] 'cause to leave'

[nə'ha] 'cause to bath'

A number of disyllabic nouns and adjectives in Bajjika may receive stress on the ultimate syllable when it is either closed (ends in a consonant), or ends with a sequence of vowels, which is diphthongized in actual pronunciation, e.g.

[bi'lai] 'cat'

[lə'rai] 'fight'

[cə'Tor] 'food lover'

The majority of trisyllabic nouns, pronouns and adjectives receive stress on the penultimate syllable, e.g.

[un'calis] 'thirty-nine'

[kə'reja] 'heart'

[tər'hətt^hi] 'palm'

However, some of the trisyllabic nouns, and adjectives receive stress on the antepenultimate and ultimate syllables also, e.g.

Antepenultimate

['duniyā] 'world'

['bən^hiyā] 'better'

['buniyā] 'kind of sweet'

Ultimate

[hōsi'yar] 'alert'

Almost all Bajjika nouns and adjectives of four syllables have stress on the antepenultimate syllable, e.g.

[ek'pæriya] 'narrow path'

[mə'jækia] 'humorous'

[nə'cəniyã] 'dancer'

There are however, some exceptions which receive stress on the penultimate syllable, e.g.,

[əgər'bætti] 'incense'

All verbs of four syllables receive stress on the penultimate syllable, e.g.

[d^həke' læic^həi] 'pushing (IMP, IINH)'

[pəhũ'caem] '(I) will take'

2.6.2. Intonation:

Two types of intonation pattern, falling intonation and rising intonation can be seen in Bajjika language. Discussed below are the most general environments for two types of intonational patterns.

2.6.2.1. Falling Intonation

Declarative sentences (see chapter 4) in Bajjika have a falling intonation (shown by ↓):

ram g^hər mē həi.↓

Ram home Loc be-Prst-III NH

'Ram is at home'.

u a gelk^hin.↓

He come go-Prst-IIIH.

'He came'.

Information question (chapter 4, 4.1.3.1), formed with the use of question words have a falling final intonation, e.g.

u ke həi.↓?

He who be-Prst-IINH

‘Who is he?’

toh-ər nam ki həu?↓

you-Gen name what be-Prst-IINH

‘What’s your name?’

Yes-No question containing a sentence – initial question word ki ‘what’ have a falling final intonation, e.g.,

ki u ə-t-əi?↓

what he come-Fut-IINH

Will he come?

ki tu k^hə-i-hi?

what you eat-Prst-IINH

‘Did you eat?’

2.6.2.2. Rising Intonation:

Yes-No question without sentence – initial question word ki ‘what’ in Bajjika have rising final intonation (shown by↑).

For example,

əpne k^həela k^haem?↑

you (H) food eat-Fut-IIH

‘Would you like to eat?’

In disjunctive questions (Chapter 4, 4.1.3.1 (c)) all non-final yes-no question have rising intonation, while the final question has a falling intonation, e.g.,

tu cae↑ pi-b-e ki pani↑ ki kət^hi↓?

You tea drink-Fut-IIH or water or what?

‘What will you take, tea or coffee or something else?’

2.7 Morphophonemic Alternations

2.7.1. Dropping of voiced aspirated dental stop /d^h/:

The voiced aspirated dental stop /d^h/ of Hindi is dropped in Bajjika and is replaced by a voiced aspirated dental nasal stop /n^h/, when preceded by a nasal consonant and followed by a vowel. Following are the two rules for the process.

1. d^h → n^h/n ≠ ____ v

2. n → φ / ____ n^h

For example,

Hindi	Bajjika
ənd ^h era	ən ^h ar
ənd ^h a	ən ^h ra/an ^h ər
kənd ^h a	kən ^h a

2.7.2. Dropping of word final laterals:

In Bajjika, the voiced unaspirated dental lateral consonant /l/ is dropped and is replaced by voiced unaspirated dental trill /r/ when it occurs at word final position. For example,

Hindi	Bajjika
məc ^h li	məc ^h ri
cawəl	caur
kajəl	kajər/kəjra

2.7.3. Lengthening of mid central vowel /ə/:

Long vowel /ə/ is added word finally after consonantal sound in a verb to show the honorific feature, in Bajjika. For example,

bəiTHə	bəiTH
sit – H	sit-NH
(You) sit down.	(You) sit down.

lik ^h ə	lik ^h
write – H	write-NH
(You) write.	(You) write.

2.8. Syllable Structure:

A word may consist of one or more syllables. A syllable is characterized as a sequence of phonemes with one peak of sonority. In each syllable vowel has the peak of sonority, and so it is also known as the nucleus. This nucleus may be preceded and followed by one or more consonants. The preceding consonants are known as onset of the syllable and the following consonants are called coda. The syllable is considered to be open when the vowel is the final segment and it is closed when the final segment is a consonant or semi vowel. Though there may be other ways of counting the syllables in any word, the best way it could be done is by observing the way the native speakers of any particular language pronounces the words. The words in Bajjika consists of one to four syllables. Following are the different syllabic patterns of Bajjika.

2.8.1 Monosyllabic words:

(a) open syllable: (C) V (V)

V	a	‘and’
CV	pi	‘drink’
CVV	həi	‘be’

(b) Closed syllable: (C) (V) VC

V-C	am	‘mango’
VVC	aur	‘and’
CVC	səb	‘all’

2.8.2 Disyllabic Words:

(a) Open second syllable: (C) V (C) (C) (V) – CV (V)

V-CV abə ‘come’ (Honorific)

CV-CV lik^hə ‘write’ (Honorific)

VC-CV əNDa ‘egg’

CV C-CV kurta ‘shirt’

CVV-CV kəise ‘how’

CV-CVV moTai ‘fat’

CVCC-CV nəŋgri ‘tail’

(b) Closed syllable: (C) V (C) – CVC

V-CVC əcar ‘pickle’

VC-CVC Iskul ‘school’

CVC-CVC gərdən ‘neck’

2.8.3 Trisyllabic Words:

(a) Open third syllable: CV (C) – CV (C) (V) – CV (V)

CV – CV – CV kəreja ‘heart’

CV – CVC – CV pic^hutti ‘backyard’

CVC – CVC – CV tər^hətt^hi ‘palm’

CV – CVV – CVV p^hɪcəic^həi ‘washing (he)’

(b) Closed third syllable: CV (C) – CV (C) – CVC

CV – CV – CVC təregən ‘stars’

CV – CVC – CVC səmundər ‘sea’

CVC – CV – CVC cəmgadər ‘bat’

2.8.4 Four Syllable Words

(a) Open forth syllable: (V) C (V) – C V(V) (C) – CV (V) – CV (V)

VC – CVV – CV – CV ekpæriya ‘narrow path’

CV – CV – CVV – CVV d^hækəlæic^həi ‘pushing’ (he)’

CV – CVC – CV – CVV nəhəlwənai ‘to make (him) bath’

V – CVC – CV – CCV əgərbətti ‘incense’

(b) Closed forth syllable: CV – CV – CV – CV – CVC

CV – CV – CV – CVC pəniharin ‘one who brings water’

“The fluidity with which noun-ness and verbal-ness can be assumed by distinct word classes or by a single words is an interesting area of research in this part of the world”. (Abbi, 2001: 114). Having examined the segmental phonology of Bajjika, I will now discuss the word formational processes through inflection, derivation and reduplication, in the next chapter.

Chapter 3: Morphology

CHAPTER 3

3.0 Introduction

Although many of us are aware of the importance of the term morphology, the study of the internal structure of words did not emerge as a distinct sub-branch of linguistics until the nineteenth century. Based on a comparative study of the grammatical endings of the words in Sanskrit, Latin, Persian and the Germanic languages, Franz Bopp supported the view of Sir William Jones given in late eighteenth century that these languages were descended from a common ancestor. In his Oxford lectures of 1899, the philologist Max Muller contended under the influence of the Darwinian theory, that the study of the evolution of words would illuminate the evolution of language, just as in biology, the study of the forms of organisms had thrown light on the evolution of species. Later, during early days of twentieth century, especially between 1920 and 1945, American structuralists grappled with the problem of how sounds are used to distinguish meaning in language. They developed and refined the theory of phoneme. Gradually with the advent of time, the focus shifted to morphology. The study of morphology occupied the center stage when structuralism was in its prime, especially between 1940 and 1960. The structuralists introduced morphology as a separate sub-branch of linguistics whose purpose was 'the study of morphemes and their arrangements in forming words' (Nida, 1949: 1). So, one of the main contributions of the structuralists' was the recognition of the fact that words may have intricate internal structures.

Certain morphological properties of words are seen by syntactic rules in linguistics and if there are inflectional properties of words that are determined by syntax, the question that arises here is that, is there a need for a separate morphological component in our grammar or not. But all morphology cannot be reduced to syntax and phonology. Chomsky (1970), Jackendoff (1975) and S.R. Anderson (1988a) have mounted a defence of the separate existence of a morphological component. These linguists claim that the principles which

regulate the internal structure of words are quite different from those that govern sentence structure, the domain of syntax.

In this chapter we will discuss mainly about the nominal morphology of Bajjika language in section 3.1 and the verbal morphology in section 3.2 and some of the commonest inherent categories of these word classes. Section 3.3 deals with the word formational process of reduplication.

3.1 Nominal Morphology: Gender, number, and case are the morphosyntactic categories by which Bajjika nouns may be classified. The gender of the noun is simply marked with inflections, number is marked periphrastically and case is also marked inflectionally on the noun.

3.1.1. Noun: In Bajjika there are two numbers, singular and plural; two genders, masculine and feminine; and eight cases which are there also in Hindi and many of its varieties.

3.1.1.1. Number: Of the three main categories of nouns, namely number, gender and case, number seems to be the most widespread. All speech communities have ways of encoding the notion of countability. Many languages like English distinguish by inflection between one and more than one. A few other languages, like Sanskrit and Greek make a triplate distinction between one dual (two) and more than two. Bajjika can be included in the list of former languages as only two numbers are distinguished in it, that is, singular and plural. Plural form of a noun can be made just by adding 'sə' or 'səb' to its singular forms, e.g.

lərika	ə-l-əi
boy	come-Pst.IIINH
'boy came'	

l̥arik s̥ə/s̥əb ə-l-əi
 boy Pl. come.Pst.IIINH
 ‘Boys came’

m̥ərəd k^ha-it h̥ə-t^hin
 man eat-Imperf be-IIIH
 ‘Man is eating’

m̥ərəd s̥ə/s̥əb k^ha-it h̥ə-t^hin
 man Pl. eat-Imperf be-IIIH
 ‘Men are eating’

kitab r̥əkk^hə-l h̥əi
 book keep-Pst. Be
 ‘book is kept’

kitab s̥ə/s̥əb r̥əkk^hə-l h̥əi
 Book Pl. keep-Pst be
 ‘books are kept’

The plural morpheme ‘s̥əb’ may also be placed before nouns. In such cases, ‘s̥əb’ functions as an adjective, and translated into English as “all the x”, e.g.

s̥əb admi cəl ge-l-k^hin
 all peoplewalk Go-Pst.-IIIH
 ‘All the people went back’

səb	lərika	pər ^h -əit	həi
all	boy	read-Imperf	be

‘All the boys are studying’

As it is clear from the above examples, Bajjika verbs do not show number agreement.

3.1.1.2. Gender / Class: Bajjika distinguishes only two grammatical genders, masculine and feminine. There are either different lexicons for masculine and feminine by various nouns or sometimes, the masculine nouns are suffixed to get feminine nouns out of it. Also some feminine nouns are derived from masculine nouns through vowel modification. Listed below are certain words having different lexicons for gender distinction,

mərəd	‘man’
məugi	‘woman’
babu	‘father’
mā:l	‘mother’
səsur	‘father-in-law’
sas	‘mother-in-law’

Suffixes like */-in/*, */-ni/*, */-ain/*, */-ani/* etc. are used to derive feminine from masculine nouns, which are discussed below.

/-in/: The suffix *-in* is added either to masculine nouns which end in a consonant and which undergo no change other than suffixation. Or to masculine noun forms which end in high front vowel */i/* and which is dropped upon the suffixation of *-in*. These most commonly refer to traditional caste profession. For example

bag ^h	‘tiger’	bag ^h in	‘tigeress’
nəT	‘a tribe’	nəTin	
teli	‘oil man’	telin	‘oil man’s wife’
d ^h obi	‘washerman’	d ^h obin	‘washerman’s wife’

/-ni/: A few masculine nouns are changed into feminines through the suffixation of *-ni*, e.g.

cor	corni	‘thief’
DakTər	DakTərni	‘doctor’
hāt ^h i	hāt ^h ini	‘elephant’

/-ain/: The suffix *-ain* is added to few masculine nouns to get feminine forms. Such nouns may end in a vowel or in a consonant. If the masculine noun ends in a low central vowel *a* it is dropped when *-ain* is suffixed e.g.

oj ^h a	oj ^h ain	‘caste name’
pənDit	pənDitain	‘priest’
THakur	THəkurain	‘landlord’

/-ani/: some masculine nouns are changed into feminine through suffixation of *-ani*. For e.g.

mehtər	mehtərani
--------	-----------

There are even certain lexicons in Bajjika language, which has feminine suffix markers at their end but there is no masculine form of it found in the language, e.g.

gab ^h in		‘pregnant’
Dain		‘witch’
sɔɪn		‘second wife’

suffixes like /-i/ and /-iya/ are used also as diminutive markers in Bajjika language, e.g.

cui ^h a	-	cui ^h i	‘cooking gas’
kəɾora	-	kəɾori	‘vessel’

Vowel modification: Some of the masculine nouns become feminine through the replacement of a word final /a/ with /i/. For example

Masculine

dada	‘grand father’
Sala	‘brother-in-law’
g ^h ora	‘horse’

Feminine

dadi	‘grand mother’
Sali	‘sister-in-law’
‘g ^h ori	‘mare’

Most of such nouns refer to kinship relations or animals.

A common practice found in Bajjika to generate informal speech forms is to add suffix */-wa/* to almost all masculine and */-ya/* to feminine nouns including the proper nouns, e.g.

Table 3.1

	Formal		Informal	
Masculine	mərəd	-	mərdəwa	‘man’
	g ^h ora	-	g ^h orwa	‘horse’
	rakes	-	rəkeswa	‘a name’
feminine	məugi	-	məugiya	‘woman’
	chəuri	-	c ^h əuriya	‘girl’

3.1.1.3. Case: Case is the fundamental crux of language, which carries cognitive, semantic and syntactic information through noun phrases. A noun phrase can be an agent, a patient or something else depending upon the role it is assumed to play in the completion of an action. The relation between the noun phrases and predicate is expressed syntactically through case markings to the noun phrases. It is assumed that every language has a well-defined case system. The only way in which they differ from each other is that they differ in their morphological realization and this realization is achieved through either inflection of noun phrases or by using adpositions to it.

Several distinct factors jointly determine a noun’s case. “It appears that cases are determined by: (a) the features of the noun itself (e.g. human vs. nonhuman; animate vs. inanimate; definite/specific vs. indefinite/nonspecific, etc); (b) the grammatical relations (e.g., subject, direct object, indirect object, etc.) that may exist between one noun and the other; and (c) the nature and

quality of the verb in the sentence, which may allow or disallow the occurrence of a particular case in the noun”. [Yadav, 1996: 72].

Case relations in Bajjika are expressed either by the absence of a case marker (e.g.; the nominative case), or by the suffixation of noun with a case marker (e.g.; the genitive case), or by the use of a postposition (e.g. the instrumental, locative, accusative-dative case etc.) The case inflections of Bajjika are briefly discussed below.

3.1.1.3.1 Nominative: The nominative case in Bajjika is indicated by the absence of any case marker. The grammatical function performed by the nouns in the nominative case is that of a subject. For example.

g^hər ϕ bən ge-l
house Nom. make Go-Pst.
‘The house is made.’

ram ϕ roTi k^hə -l-kəi
Ram Nom chapatti eat-Pst- III NH.
‘Ram ate the chapatti’

3.1.1.3.2. Accusative: In Bajjika, the accusative case is marked by the postposition *ke*. The noun phrase in the accusative case generally performs the grammatical function of an object (direct or indirect). For example,

Direct Object

əpne mohən ke bolə-l-iəi?
you (H) Mohan Acc.. call-Pst-IIH
‘Did you call Mohan?’

tu ram ke k^hiə-l-hi?
you (NH) Ram Acc. eat – Pst-III NH
‘Did you feed Ram?’

həm sohən ke kitab pər^h-ə-l-iəi.
 I Sohan Acc. Book read-caus-Pst-I
 ‘I taught Sohan the book’

3.1.1.3.3 Instrumental: The instrumental case in Bajjika is marked by the use of the post-position *se*, and optionally by the suffixation of case marker /-e/.

(a) Use of postposition *se*:

- (i) It is joined with a noun, which names the instrument by which the action described by a verb is performed. e.g.,

lairka cəkku se am kəT-l-əkəi
 boy knife Instr. mango cut-Pst..IIINH
 ‘The boy cut the mango with knife’.

log sə cōr ke DənTa se mar-l-əkəi
 person Pl. thief Acc. stick Instr. hit-Pst-III NH
 ‘People hit the thief with a stick’.

- (ii) It is used to express the cause e.g.

u b^huk^h se mər ge-l-əi
 he (NH) hunger Instr. die Go-Pst-III NH
 ‘He died of hunger’

Sita b^hut se der-ait həi
 Sita ghost Instr. fear-Imperf be-Prst
 ‘Sita is afraid of ghost’.

(iii) In passive and capability sentences, *se* is used with the agentive noun which functions as an instrument, e.g.,

əpne se i kam ho ge-l
 you(H) Instr. this work finish Go-Pst.
 ‘Th is work was finished by you’.

ləirka se k^hael nə jə-t-əi
 child Instr. eat Neg go-Fut.-III NH
 ‘The child will not be able to eat’.

(b) Suffixation of /-c/:

The instrumental case in Bajjika may be optionally marked by the suffixation of the case marker *-e* to the noun, provided that the latter is not animate, e.g.,

mehman pədl-e cəl ge-l-k^hin
 guest foot-Instr. walk Go-Pst-III H
 ‘Guest went back on foot’.

dəhina hāt^h-e k^ha-u
 right hand-Instr. eat-II H
 ‘(You) eat with (your) right hand.’

3.1.1.3.3 Dative: The dative case marker, in Bajjika is represented by the postpositions *ke* or *lel*. Dative case marks the indirect objects in a statement; e.g;

həri mohən ke rupəiya d-l-kəi
 Hari Mohan Dat. money give-Pst.-III NH
 ‘Hari gave the money to Mohan’.

sita c^hoŋ b^hai lel reDio kin-l-əkəi
 Sita small brother Dat. radio buy-Pst.-III NH
 ‘Sita brought a radio for her younger brother’.

māi jən lel k^hæla de-t-əi
 mother labour Dat. food give-Fut.-III NH
 ‘Mother will give food for the labour’.

3.1.1.3.3.1 Dative subject: In Bajjika, accusative – dative post-position *ke* is also used in those constructions which express subjective experiences, such as ‘likings and dislikings, states of health or sickness, happiness and unhappiness, dreaming, feeling, remembering, thinking, embarrassment, pity, doubt, pain, thirst, hunger, sleepiness, anger, urgency, and ‘knowing itself’ (Masica 1976: 160). Experiencing subjects, which has traditionally been called dative case, is used for such constructions. For example,

ram ke bok^har lag ge-l-əi
 Ram Acc/Dat fever attach Go-Pst-III NH
 ‘Ram caught fever’

lāirka ke bəhut buk^h lag ge-l-əi
 child Acc/Dat many hunger attach Go-Pst.-III NH
 ‘The child was very hungry’.

To show the above mentioned possessions, suffix *-ra* is used if the possessor is indicated by pronouns, to mark the dative case, e.g.,

ok-ra bəhut k^het hə-i
 he-Dat. many field be-III NH
 ‘He has many fields.’

həmra bəra təkli^h hə-e
 I-Dat many problem be-AGR
 ‘I have many problems’.

3.1.1.3.5 Ablative: The instrumental postposition *sə* is also used to express a host of ablative relationships between the two nouns, e.g.

mohən g^həila se pani nika^l-I-əkəi
 mohan pitcher Abl. water take-Pst.-III.NH
 ‘Mohan took water from the pitcher’.

bilai c^hət se kud ge-I-əi
 cat roof Abl. Jump Go-Pst.IIINII
 ‘The cat jumped off the roof’.

3.1.1.3.6 Genitive: The genitive case in Bajjika is marked by the case marker post-position *ke*. This case marker conveys the semantic notions of kinship relations, possession, source, the idea of ‘made of and for’, essence, cumulation (expressed through reduplication) etc. For example,

raja ke beTa (kinship)
 king -Gen. Son
 ‘king’s son’

babu ke koT (possession)
 father-Gen. coat
 ‘Father’s coat’

nəddi ke pani (source)
 river Gen. water
 ‘River’s water’

sona ke gəhna (idea of ‘made of’)
 gold Gen. Jewellery
 ‘The Jewellery (made) of gold’.

pie ke pani (idea of ‘for’)
 drink Gen. water
 ‘The water for drinking/drinking water’.

am ke rəs (essence)
 mango Gen. Juice
 ‘The Juice of Mango’

g^hər ke g^hər (cumulation)
 house Gen. house
 ‘A lot of house’

3.1.1.3.7 Locative: The locative case in Bajjika is marked by the use of the postpositions *mē* and *pər* to express basically the location of in and at.

The semantic notions expressed by the postposition *mē* are location within something, price and duration of something and comparison; e.g.

to-ra g^hər mē ke həu? (location within something)
 you-Gen. house Loc. who be Imp.IINH
 ‘Who is there in your house?’

həm səb səman tis rupəiya mē kin le-l-iəi
 I all thing 30 rupees Loc buy Take-Pst.-I
 ‘I bought all the things in thirty rupees’.

həm-ra du sal mē Digri mil-l-əi (duration)
 I Gen. two year Loc. degree find –Pst.-I
 ‘I got the degree in two years’.

rakes pāc-o b^hai mē nimmān hāi
 rakesh five.emph. brother Loc. good bePrst.III NH
 ‘Rakesh is best among five brothers’.

The semantic notions expressed by the postposition pər are location at or on something, point of time and place and object of anger, mercy or faith etc. For example,

kitab Tebul pər hā-i (location on something)
 book table Loc be-Prst. IINNH
 ‘The book is on the table’.

mai g^hər pər hāi (place)
 mother house Loc be.Prst-III.NH
 ‘Mother is at home’.

sāmāe pər cāl ja-u (time)
 time Loc. walk Go-Imper IIIH
 ‘(You) go back on time’.

malik nokər pər gosā-l-āi (expression)
 master slave Loc. anger-Pst.IIINH
 ‘The master was angry with his slave’.

3.1.1.3.8 Vocative: In Bajjika, vocative case markers are *ho* and *re* for masculine nouns and, *he* and *ge* for feminine nouns. Among these case markers *ge* and *re* are supposed to be non-honorific.

re	c ^h əora	ge	c ^h əuri
Voc.	Boy (NH)	Voc.	Girl (NH)
ho	b ^h āiya	he	caci
Voc.	Brother (H)	Voc.	Aunty (H)

However, people often use non-honorific feminine vocative case marker *ge* even with the persons who are intimate to the speaker, like elder sister, mother or even grandmother, e.g.,

ge *didī*

Voc sister (elder) (+intimate)

ge *māi*

Voc. mother (+intimate)

3.1.1.3.9 Compound case Markers: Sometimes, more than one postpositional case markers are used together to mark certain cases, e.g.,

g^hər *mē* *se* *kitab* *le* *a*

house Loc Abl. book take Come

‘Bring the book from the house’.

ram *kursi* *pər* *se* *gir* *ge-l-əi*

Ram chair Loc Abl. fall Go-Pst.-IINH

‘Ram fall from the chair’.

3.1.2 Pronouns: “Pronoun morphology pertains to identifying different forms of pronouns that are encoded with various kinds of information regarding gender, number, animacy and several deictic categories. As in the case of nouns, pronouns in Indian languages also occur in a wide range of forms”. (Abbi, 2001: 124).

Bajjika distinguishes personal, demonstrative, interrogative, reflexive, relative-correlative and quantitative pronouns. The pronouns are inflected for case and post-positional ‘*sə/səb*’ are added to mark the plural numbers of pronouns. All these pronouns have all other case forms, but no vocative forms are found for them.

3.1.2.1 Personal Pronouns:

The personal pronouns are inflected for case and take post-positions to mark numbers. However, they are also distinguished for proximity and remoteness in case of third person personal pronoun.

Table 3.2

Person	Case	Pronoun	
First	Nom	həm	
	Acc./Dat.	həm-ra	
	Instr./ Ablative	həm-ra se	
	Genitive	həm-mər	
	Locative	həm-ra mē/pər	
	Second		NH
Nom		tu	əpne
Acc./Dat		to-ra	əpne ke
Instru./Ablative		to-ra se	əpne se
Genitive		to-hər	əpne ke
Locative		to-ra mē/pər	əpna mē/ pər

Bajjika speakers in some places also use ‘*əhā*’, ‘*əpne*’, ‘*ais*’, ‘*hun*’ and ‘*rāura*’: for second person honorific personal pronouns. Case and number markings are similar for them as it is for other second person personal pronouns some scholars think that ‘*rāura*’, ‘*hun*’ and ‘*ais*’ are due to Bhojpuri effect and is spoken in areas adjacent to Bhojpuri speaking areas. Similarly ‘*əhā*’ is due to Maithili effect on the language.

Third person personal pronouns as distinguished on the dimension of proximity and remoteness of the referent noun as shown below in table 3.3:

Table 3.3

Person	Case	Pronouns			
		Proximity		Remoteness	
Third		NH	H	NH	H
	Nom	i		u	
	Acc./Dat	ekra	Hinka	okra	hunka
	Instru./Ablative	ekra se	hinka se	okra se	hunka se
	Genitive	ekkər	hinkər	okkər	hunkər
	Locative	i/e mē		u/o mē	

3.1.2.2. Demonstrative Pronouns:

The third person pronoun and the demonstrative pronouns are the same. The demonstrative pronouns are of two types-proximate and remote. The proximate demonstrative pronouns refer to the person or object which is near and within sight, while the remote demonstrative pronouns refer to the person or object which is either far and within sight or not necessarily within sight.

Table 3.4

Person	Number	
	Sg.	Pl.
First	həm	həm sə/səb
Second	tu	tu sə/səb
	əpne	əpne ar
Third	i (prox)	i sə/səb
	u (remote)	u sə/səb

e.g. i/u lərki nimmən həi
 this/that girls good Aux
 'This/That girl is good'.

i/u	c ^h əora	bədməs	həi
this/that	boy	naughty	Aux

‘This/That boy is naughty’

3.1.2.3. Reflexive Pronouns: In Bajjika, reflexive pronouns can act as either agentive reflexive or non-possessive reflexives and possessive reflexives. Agentive reflexive ‘əpne’ normally occur at subject position, e.g.

dadi	əpne	se	səuse	əŋna	sap ^h	kə-l-kəi
grandmother	Refl.	Inst.	whole	courtyard	clean	do-Pst- III NH

‘Grandmother cleaned the whole courtyard herself’

u	əpne	se	pər ^h	le-t-əi
he	Refl.	Instr.	read	take-Fut-II NH

‘He will read himself’.

Agentive reflexive takes ‘se’ post-positions, as we saw in the above examples. The possessive reflexive ‘əppən/əpna’ precedes the object of the verb, e.g.

həm	əppən	kitab	pər ^h -b-əi
I	Refl.	book	read-Fut II AGR.

‘I will read my own book’.

tu	əppən/əpna	g ^h ər	jo
you	Refl.	house	go

‘You go to your house’.

Given below is the table for the markers of reflexive pronouns.

Table 3.5

Case	Number	
	Sg.	Pl.
Nom.	əpne	əpne sə/səb
Acc./Dat.	əpna ke	əpna sə/ səb ke
Instr./Abl	əpne se	əpne sə/səb se
Genitive	əppən/əpna	əppən/əpna sə/səb
Locative	əpna mē	əpna səb mē

3.1.2.4. Interrogative Pronouns: Two of the main interrogative pronouns are *ke/kon* ‘who’ and *ki/kət^hi* ‘what’. The former is used for human referents and the latter is for inhuman referents.

Table 3.6

Case	Pronouns	
	Human	Non-Human
Nom	Ke/kon	ki/kət ^h i
Acc./Dat.	kekra	kət ^h i ke
Instru./Ablative	kekra se	kət ^h i se
Genitive	kekkaṛ	kət ^h i ke
Locative	kekra mē	kət ^h i mē

Interrogative sentence with question words are formed by substituting a question word in place of the questioned constituent in the statement. The main question words in Bajjika are *kət^hi* ‘what’, *ke* ‘who’, *kon* ‘which’, *kəhā* ‘where’, *kenna* ‘how’, *kalla* ‘why’, *kanne* ‘where’ etc. Question words in a sentence is always stressed, e.g.

tohər nam ram həu (Declarative)

your name ram Aux

‘Your name is Ram’.

If 'ram' is replaced by a question word in the above example, it would be an interrogative sentence,

tohər nam ki həu?

your name what is

'What is your name?'

3.1.2.5. Quantitative Pronouns: Quantitative pronouns in Bajjika are, *səb* 'all', *tənie/tənke* 'few' and *mare* 'many'. All these quantitative pronouns are used with both singular and plural numbers. For example

səb admi cəl geləi

all people walk Go-Pst.IIINH

'All people went away'

səb log sə bəiTHəl rəhəi

all people Pl. sit Perf be-Pst. AGR

'All people were setting there'.

həmra tənie miTHai/miTHai sə dihe.

me Acc. few sweet/sweets give Fut-Perf

'Give me few (sweet) of the sweets'.

3.1.2.6. Relative Correlative Pronouns: Bajjika has the relative pronouns *je* 'who'/'what' (used for human as well as non-human with both honorific and non-honorific forms), and the correlative pronoun *se*. For example.

je lərika gir geləi se jit jətəi

Rel. boy fall Go-Pst IIINH Corel win Go-Fut III NH

'That boy who fall down will win'.

je giləs p^huT geləi rə se le a.

Rel. glass break Go-Pst-AGR Perf Corel bring come.

'Bring the glass which was broken'.

3.1.3. Quantifiers

3.1.3.1. Numerals: Numerals are also the forms of adjectives, which indicate number. The numerals in Bajjika are used as quantifiers, which give the numbers of objects. Different kinds of numerals found in this language are:

- (a) Cardinals
- (b) Ordinals
- (c) Fractions
- (d) Multiplicatives
- (e) Aggregatives

3.1.3.1.1 Cardinals: These numerals answer the question of 'how many' It can be divided into the base numerals which are,

- (i) ek 'one' c^hᵛ 'six'
- du 'two' sat 'seven'
- tin 'three' aTH 'eight'
- car 'four' nᵛ 'nine'
- pāc 'five'

(ii) The intermediate numerals that are

- egarəh '11' soləh '16'
- barəh '12' sətrəh '17'
- terəh '13' əTHarəh '18'
- cəudəh '14'
- pəndrəh '15'

(iii) The decade numerals,

- dəs '10' pəcas '50'
- bis '20' saTH '60'
- tis '30' səttər '70'
- calis '40' əssi '80'
- nəbbe '90'

(iv) The compound numerals: Lexicons for compound numerals is given in the Appendix 1.

/un-/ prefix is designated to all the numerals which are one less than decades except '80' and '99' which has 'nəwasi' and 'ninanbe' respectively for them.

(v) The hundreds – 'sɔ' is the numeral used for one hundred. While counting it is preceded by 'ek' 'one' or else it may be used alone with the a following noun, e.g.

ek sɔ
'one hundred'

u	həmra	sɔ	go	ruppəiya	delkəi
he	I. Acc	hundred	Class	rupees	give-Pst. AGR

'He gave me (one) hundred rupees'.

'sɔ' is placed after cardinal numbers to make their hundreds, e.g.

du sɔ '200'

tin sɔ '300'

unəis sɔ '1900'

c^hiyalis sɔ '4600'

(vi) The thousands: the numeral used is 'həjar' to make the thousands. As hundreds, thousands also are formed by placing *həjar* after the cardinal numbers,

e.g.

du həjar '2000'

bis həjar '20,000'

ərtis həjar '38,000'

Without any intervening conventions, the lower numeral is subjoined synthetically to the higher one to make numerals above a hundred and thousand, e.g.

ek sɔ ek '101'
 ek sɔ egarəh '111'
 du hjar calis '2,040'

Numerals for 1,00,000 is *lak^h* and '10,000,000' is *kəror*. Multiples for these are formed like those of the hundreds and thousands.

3.1.3.1.2. Ordinals: These numerals are used to answer the question of 'which one'. The ordinals are formed by suffixing /-ma/ to a cardinal numeral except for one, two, three, four and six. For these the ordinals are

pəhla / pəhila '1st'
 dusra '2nd'
 tisra '3rd'
 cɔt^ha '4th'
 c^həTTHa '6th'

for other ordinals numerals used are,

pəcma '5th'
 dəsma '10th'
 pāc sɔ egarəhma '501th'

3.1.3.1.3 Fractions: In Bajjika, the fractions used are,

car ana ¼
 aTH ana/əd^ha ½
 barəh ana ¾

səwa	1¼
der ^h	1½
ər ^h ai	2½
sar ^h e plus the number (used with 3 and above)	

All fractions don't necessarily behave like adjectives all the time. Most of them can, however, occur as adjectives, e.g.

sɔ ruppəiya ke k^hulla
 hundred rupees Gen. change.
 'Change of hundred rupees' [Noun]

3.1.3.1.4. Multiplicatives: Multiplicative numerals are formed by suffixing */-guna/* 'times' to the cardinal numerals as well as sometimes to few of the fractional numerals. In case of basic cardinal numerals one to five the ultimate vowel is shortened and [n] of multiplicative suffix is geminated, e.g.

du	–	dugunna	'twice'	dəsguna	'ten times'
tin	–	tingunna	'thrice'	sɔ guna	'hundred times'
car	–	cərgunna	'four times'	der ^h	'1½ times'
pāc	–	pəcgunna	'five times'	ər ^h ai guna	'2½ times'
c ^h ɔ		c ^h ɔguna	'six times'		
sat		satguna	'seven times'		

3.1.3.1.5. Aggregatives: */-o/* is the suffix used to form the aggregatives of cardinal numerals, in Bajjika e.g.

dunno 'both'
 tino 'all three'
 caro 'all four'
 pəcaso 'all fifty'
 həjaro 'all thousand'

3.1.3.2. Classifiers: ‘go’ and *l’o*’ are the classifiers which is used after every numerals in almost all Bihari languages including Bajjika. For e.g.,

e go lərki
 one class. girl
 ‘one girl’

sɔ go am
 hundred class. mango
 ‘hundred mangoes’

3.1.4. Adjectives: Typically adjectives are modifiers of their head nouns and hence also dependent on them” (Abbi, 2001; p. 131). Adjectives in Bajjika show no number or case distinctions. Gender distinctions are shown, but only marginally.

3.1.4.1. Definite and Indefinite Adjectives:

Two types of adjectives can be seen in Bajjika, i.e. definite and indefinite. Definite adjectives are formed by adding the definite masculine suffix – *ka* or the definite feminine suffix – *ki* to the adjectival stem. Definite adjectives modifying nouns which are animate in reference, show masculine and feminine forms. For example,

Masculine		Feminine	
c ^h oT-ka	cæcca	c ^h oT-ki	caci
‘the younger uncle’		‘the younger	aunty’
ləl - ka	g ^h ora	ləl-ki	g ^h ori
‘the red horse’		‘the red	mare’
kəriyə-ka	bɛl	kəriyə-ki	gai
‘the black	ox’	‘the black	cow’

However, this definite adjective marker is used also to show the specificity of the noun which it is modifying. For example,

kəriya gai k^het mē k^həra hə-i
 black cow [-spec.] field LoC stand be – III NH
 ‘Black cow is standing in the field’.

kəriyə-ki g ai k^het mē k^həra hə-i.
 black [+spec.] cow field LoC stand be – III NH
 ‘The cow that is black is standing in the field’.

gor c^həuri nimmən rə-hə-i
 fair girl [-spec.] good Pst.-be-III NH
 ‘Fair girl was (looking) good’.

gor-ki c^həuri ram ke beti hə-i
 fair [+spec.] girl Ram Gen. daughter be – III NH
 ‘The girl who is fair is Ram’s daughter.’

A few definite adjectives are formed by adding the definite masculine suffix /-aha/ or the definite feminine suffix /-ahi/ to the adjectival stem. This is especially used with ones which are past participial adjectives, e.g.

jər ‘burnt’
 jərI-aha ‘the burnt one (M)’
 jərI-ahi ‘the burnt one (F)’
 sərəl ‘rotten’
 sərI-aha ‘the rotten one (M)’
 sərI – ahi ‘the rotten one (F)’

Indefinite Adjectives: Indefinite adjectives, on the other hand, consist of the adjectival stems themselves, e.g.

Lal kitab ‘red book’

ujjər kəpra 'white cloth'

kəriya c^həora 'black boy'

A few of the indefinite adjectives may show gender distinctions, but, they do not vary according to gender. Rather, the nouns to which it is attached has different lexicons. For example,

Masculine

c^hoT mərəd 'a small man'

nimmən c^həora 'a good boy'

Feminine

c^hoT məugi 'a small woman'

nimmən c^həuri 'a good girl'

3.1.4.2. Predicative and Attributive uses of adjectives:

Adjectives are used both attributively and predicatively in Bajjika. For example:

Attributive –

ujjər d^hoti nə pəhin-u

white dhoti Neg. wear-Fut-IIIH

'(You) do not wear white dhoti'.

c^hoT-ki cacī kəll^he ə-t-t^hin.

small-spec. aunty tomorrow come –Fut.III H

'The younger aunty will come tomorrow'.

Predicative –

i g^hər lal hə-i

this house red be – III NH

'This house is red'

ekk-ər kəniya sundər hə-i

he-Gen. wife beautiful be – III NH

'His wife is beautiful/good looking'.

The definite adjectives cannot occur predicatively in Bajjika, e.g.,

həmm-ər	cəcca	c ^h oT	hə-t ^h in
I-Gen.	uncle	small	be – Prst III H

‘My uncle is short’.

*həmm-ər	cəcca	c ^h oT-ka	hət ^h in
I-Gen.	uncle	small-spec.	be – Prst III H

‘My uncle is short’.

u	g ^h ora	lal	hə-i
that	horse	red	be-Prst.IIINH

‘That horse is red’

* u	g ^h ora	ləl-ka	hə-i
that	horse	red-spec.	be-Prst. III NH

‘That horse is red’.

Apart from this, there are a few adjectives which do not occur attributively. For example,

c ^h əuri	k ^h us	hə-i
girl	happy	be-Prst-III NH.

‘The girl is happy’.

*k ^h us	c ^h əuri	ke	bol-au
happy	girl	Acc/Dat	call-Fut-II H

‘Call the happy girl’

sita	THik	hə-i
Sita	right	be-Prst – III NH.

‘Sita is all right’.

*THik	sita	ke	kəhə-l-iəi
right	sita	Acc./Dat.	say-Pst-AGR

‘(I) told it to all right Sita’

3.1.4.3. Adjectives of comparison: The comparative construction is formed by using the noun or pronoun which is used as the subject of the sentence and instrumental – ablative post-position *se* is used after the noun or pronoun with which the comparison is made. Normally, the adjective follows the noun or pronoun to which the post-position is suffixed; however, it may be inverted depending upon the speaker. For example,

gita	sita	se	sundər	hə-i
Geeta	Sita	from	beautiful	be-Prst. III NH

‘Geeta is more good looking than Sita’.

u	sətis	se	tej	rə-hə-i.
He	Satish	from	fast	Pst-be-III NH.

‘He was more intelligent than Satish’.

To express the degree of comparison in some specific terms, gradable items like *besi* ‘more’, and *kəm* ‘less’ are used before the adjectives. To indicate less, the use of *kəm* is, however, obligatory; while to indicate more, *besi* may be optionally dropped. For example,

gita	sita	se	kəm	pər ^h ə-l	hə-i
Geeta	Sita	from	less	read – pst.	be – III NH

‘Geeta is less educated than Sita’.

rəsmi	mira	se	besi	tej	hə-i.
Rashmi	Mira	from	more	bright	be-Prst-III NH

‘Rashmi is more intelligent than Mira’.

In case of superlative construction, the post-position *se* is suffixed to the standard lexeme *səb* against which the comparison is made, and is used before the adjective used for it, e.g.,

gəŋga	ke	pani	səb	se	səp ^h	hə-i
Ganga	Gen.	water	all	for	clean	be – Prst – III NH

‘Ganga water is the most clean of all’.

jəgd̪is	səb	se	bədm̪as	hə-i
Jagd̪ish	all	from	naughty	be-Prst – III NH.

‘Jagd̪ish is the most naughty of all’.

In superlative construction also, the gradable items like *besi* ‘more’ (optionally) and *kəm* ‘less’ (obligatorily) may be used. For example,

ok-ra	səb	se	kəm	nəmbər	ə-l-əi
he – Acc/Dat.	all	from	less	number	bring – Pst – III NH.

‘He secured the lowest marks’.

rohən	səb	se	(besi)	ləmhər	hə-i
Rohan	all	from	(more)	tall	be – Prst – III NH.

‘Rohan is the (most) tallest of all’.

3.1.5. Determiners: In Bajjika, almost all the pronouns can function as determiners. Given below are certain examples of them,

3.1.5.1. Demonstrative Pronouns: Both proximate and remote demonstrative pronouns may function as determiners, e.g.,

i	g ^h ər	həmm-ər	dost	ke	hə-i
this(Det.)	house	I-Gen.	friend	Gen.	be – Prst . III NH

‘This is my friend’s house’.

u ləirka bəra bədmas hə-i
 that (Det.) boy very naughty be – Prst – III NH.
 ‘That boy is very naughty’.

3.1.5.2. Interrogative Pronouns: The interrogative pronoun *kon* ‘which’ occurs as a determiner. For example,

toh-ər g^hər kon gāo mē hə-u?
 you.Gen (Det.) house which village Loc. be-Prst – III NH
 ‘Your house is in which village?’

tu kon kitab pər^h-l-əhi?
 You which (Det.) book read Pst. – II NH
 ‘which book did you read?’

3.1.5.3. Relative and Corrective Pronouns: The relative and correlative pronouns of Bajjika, i.e. *je*, *se*, may also occur as determiners:

je ləirka ke bok^har rəh-əi se mər ge-l-əi
 Rel. boy(Det.) Acc./Dat. fever live – III NH Corel(Det) die Go-Pst. – III NH
 ‘The boy who had fever already died’.

je g^hər səb se bər hə-i se həmm-ər hə-i.
 Rel. house(Det) all from big be- III NH Corel. I-Gen. be – III NH.
 ‘The biggest house is mine’.

3.2. Verbal Morphology

3.2.1. Verb: The word in a sentence which shows or tells about the action done or performed is known as verbs. It is supposed to be the most significant part of speech in a sentence. “It governs all other grammatical elements in the sentence. It determines how many nouns there are in a sentence, which in turn determines what kinds of modifiers accompany these nouns. In other words, the valency of

the verb determines the semantic and syntactic nature of the sentence” (Abbi, 2001, p: 139).

Bajjijka has two types of verbs – (a) transitive and (b) intransitive. Transitive verbs are those which always needs an object for its completion. Sometimes, certain verbs have two objects attached to it. This is known as ditransitive verbs where one of the objects is direct and another one is indirect object, e.g.

Transitive

ram	k ^h æla	k ^h ə-l-kəi
Ram	food (O)	eat-Pst- III NH.

‘ram ate the food’

c ^h əora	ləkri	kəT-l-əkəi
boy	wood(O)	cut-Pst- III NH.

‘boy cut the wood’

Ditransitive

Sita	ram	ke	kitab	de-l-kəi
Sita	IO (Ram)	Acc.	DO(book)	give-Pst III NH.

‘Sita gave the book to Ram’.

həm	tora	kəpra	de-b-əu
I	IO (you)	cloth (DO)	give-Fut. AGR.

I will give you the cloth.

Intransitive

həm	sut-l-iəi
I	sleep-Pst.-AGR

‘I Slept’.

3.2.1.1. Inflectional Verb:

3.2.1.1.1. Tense and Aspect: The form of verb which tells about the time of action that is taking place is known as tense. Bajjika verbs conjugate for three tenses – past, present, and future. The tense markers are listed below:

Table 3.7

	Past	Present	Future
I	-l-	Φ	-b-
II	-l-	Φ	-b-
III	-l-	Φ	-t-

No overt tense marker is used in the present tense, rather, in present tense constructions the auxiliary itself serves the function of the tense. When there are no aspect markers or auxiliaries occurring immediately after the verb stem, then the tense markers are added directly to the verb stem itself. The following examples are illustrative:

sohən k^həla k^hə-l-kəi
Sohan food eat-Pst.-III NH
'Sohan ate'.

tu pər^h-l-əhi?
you read-Pst-IINH
'Did you study?'

həm kitab pər^h-l-iəi
I book read-Pst.AGR
'I read the book'

həm jə-b-əi
I go-Fut.AGR
'I will go'

tu k^hə-b-hi
 you eat-Fut.IINH
 'Will you eat?'

ram k^hel -t-əi
 Ram play.Fut.IINH
 'Ram will play'

Bajjika verbs conjugate for two aspects - perfective and imperfective. The markers for them are added directly to the verb stem. Markers for perfective and imperfective aspects are same for all the three tenses, i.e., suffix /-it/ for perfective and /-e-le/ for imperfective. For example,

həm k^ha-it rə-hi-əi
 I eat.Imperf Pst.be-AGR
 'I was eating'

tu k^hel - it ho-bə-hi
 you play-Imperf. be-Fut.IINH
 'You would be playing (at that time)'

u ja-it hə-i
 he go-Imperf be-Prst.- III NH
 'He is going'.

silā ciTTHi lik^h-əit hə-i
 Sila letter write – Imperf be-Prst. III NH.
 'Sila is writing a letter.'

həm k^hə-ele rəhi-əi
 I eat.Perf. Pst.be.AGR
 'I had eaten'

tu pər^h-le ho-b-hi
 you read.Perf. be.Fut.IINH
 'You would have read (by then)'

u k^hə-ele həi
 he eat.Perf. be.Prst.III.NH
 'He has eaten'.

3.2.1.1.2. Mood: A grammatical category which express the degree or kind of reality of statement as perceived by the speaker is known as mood. The function of this grammatical category is to describe an event in terms of whether it is necessary, possible, permissible, desirable etc. Following are the moods found in Bajjika language:

(a) **Indicative:** This is a basic mood in Bajjika in which information is imparted.

For example.

həm ja-it hə-ti
 I go – Imperf be-Prst
 'I am going'

ram ael rəh-əi
 ram come-Perf be-Pst II NH
 'ram had come'

(b) **Imperative:** The imperative mood conveys an order or a request. The speaker commands in this mood to the addressee to realize the event. Following are the markers of imperative mood:

Table 3.8

Person	Marker
I	-u
IINH	-o
IINH	-u/ -a
IINH	-hi
IIIH	-hun

Examples are discussed below:

həm jã-u

I go-Imper.

‘(shall) I go’

tu j-o

you go-Imper.(NH)

‘you go (NH)’

əpne ja-u / tu j-a

you (H) go-Imper./you (H) go-Imper.

‘you go (H)

ram ke abe də-hi

Ram Gen. come Give-Imper

‘Let Ram come in’

babu ke kəh də-hun

father Gen. tell Give-Imper.

‘Tell this to father’

All the above examples were ordinary or present imperative. Bajjika also has future imperative constructions involving II NH & H. the full forms of the future imperative mood with person and honorific grades are:

Table 3.9

Person	Marker
IINH	-ih-e
IIIH	-ih-ə

For example,

tu	bihan	jə - ih-e
you	tomorrow	go – Fut- Imper

‘You go tomorrow’

tu	bihan	jə-ihə
you	tomorrow	go-Fut. –Imper

‘You go tomorrow’

Prohibitive Imperatives: It simply adds the ordinary negative marker *nə* to an imperative form.

húa	nə	jo.
there	Neg.	go

‘(You) don’t go there.’

enne	nə	bəiTH
here	Neg.	sit.

‘(You) don’t sit here’.

(c) **Dubitative** :It shows the doubtfulness of the speaker. For e.g.

u	ael	ho-t-əi
he	come Perf	be-Fut. III NH

‘He might have come’

u g^hər-e ho-t-əi
 he house-Loc. be. Fut. III NH.
 ‘He may be at home’.

(d) **Conditional:** A conditional sentence consists of a condition and a consequent. The antecedent represents the event described by the *je/əgər* ‘if’ clause while the consequent represents the event described by *tə* ‘then’ clause. For example,

je tu əetə rə tə həm jəiti
 if you come PerfIII Fst. then I go-Pst.Perf AGR
 ‘If you had come I would have gone’

əgər ram jə-t-əi tə həm k^həbəi
 if Ram go-Fut-III NH. then I eat-Fut-AGR
 ‘If Ram goes then I’ll eat’.

(e) **Permission:** This mood is to show the taking or granting of permission. For e.g.

tu ja səkəic^hə
 you go may – Prst. Hab. AGR.
 ‘You may go’.

həm okra mar səkəc^hiəi
 I him-Acc. beat can-Prst. Hab-AGR.
 I can beat him.

3.2.1.2. Derivational Verb:

3.2.1.2.1 **Causative Verb:** Causative verbs in Bajjika are derived mainly through suffixal process, which is a highly productive morphological process. Basically, there are two types of causative verb forms in

- Bajjika: (i) the first causative, which implies that the degree of closeness between the cause and effect is direct, is formed by adding *-a* suffix to the non-causative verb stem; and
- (ii) The second causative, which implies that the closeness between the cause and effect is mediated, are formed by adding the suffix *-ba/-wa* to the non-causative verb stem.

For example:

Non-causative	first causative	second
Verb form		
Pər ^h ‘study/read’	pər ^h a ‘teach’	pər ^h ba ‘make someone teach’

As far as the second causative is concerned the use of *-ba* and *-wa* shows the difference of non and educated speakers, where an educated speaker of the language uses *-wa*, while an uneducated or less educated person will use *-ba*.

Upon addition of the causative suffix the resultant form is a single causative verb stem to which all the argument affixes may be added.

pi	‘be drink’	piya	‘drink’	piwa	‘cause x to drink’
pər ^h	‘study’	pər ^h a	‘teach’	pər ^h -ba	‘cause x to teach y’

3.2.1.2.2 Compound verbs: It is mainly a sequence of two verbs (v1+v2), where first verb is called the main or polar verb. The primary meaning of the sentence is determined by the lexical meaning of this main verb. Second verb is referred as the explicator or vector verb, which receives the tense and aspect markings of the sentence and lexical meaning of whose is dropped e.g.

u a ge-l-əi
 he come Go-Prst-III NH.
 ‘He has arrived’.

tu i Kitab pərh lihe
 you this book read Take –Fut. (Self benefactory).
 ‘You read this book’.

3.2.1.2.3. Voice: To make a passive voice from active voice in Bajjika, the subject of the active sentence is followed by the instrumental postposition */-se/* and the participial form of main verb is used with the explicator verb *ja* ‘go’ which denotes the tense-aspect agreement, e.g.

həriyərki sisa ke botəl hemra se phuT gel əi
 green glass Gen. Bottle me-Inst. by break Go.Pst.AGR
 ‘The green glass bottle was broken by me’

The most common rule of passivization occurs in this language also, where the subject of active voice becomes the object in passive sentence and the object becomes the subject.

3.2.1.2.4 Incapabilitative Sentences: Bajjika also has the examples to show incapabilitativeness of a person. Since the language has only one form of negation, i.e. */nə/*, only this is used to mark such sentences. For example,

həmra se cələl nə jaiə
 I- Dat Inst. walk Neg. go.AGR.Prst.
 ‘I cannot walk’

ram se k^hael nə jətəi
 ram Inst. eat Neg. go-Fut.-AGR
 Ram will not be able to eat.

3.3 Reduplication: This is one of the most important process of forming new words. “Words formed either by duplicating syllables, or by duplicating a single word (Phonological word), partially or completely, are known as cases of

reduplication” (Abbi, 2001, p.162). Reduplication can either be morphological or lexical).

3.3.1 Morphological Reduplication: here a morpheme which is minimally meaningful and segmentally individual is iterated to form another morpheme or lexeme. Bajjika shows these types of reduplicated structures in, kinship terminologies, e.g.

baba	‘grandfather’
mama	‘grandmother’
cəcca	‘uncle’
caci	‘aunty’

It is also seen in case of the senses of perception, as it is there in a number of Indo-Aryan languages. For example,

cəT cəT	‘sticky’
gəm gəm	‘aroma’ (can be of food/flower)
cəm cəm	‘Shine’

3.3.1 Lexical Reduplication: This type of reduplication refers to the repetition of word or lexeme either completely or partially. Bajjika shows this type of reduplication with various word classes. For example.

Noun – In this case either the lexeme is repeated to show the reduplicated structure by dropping initial consonant and replacing with a vowel or, the lexeme or ‘and’ is used with it e.g.

həm	kursi	ar	kin	kə	ləliəi
I	chair	and	buy	do	bring-Pst.AGR
‘I bought some furnitures’					

u kuch kursi ursi le ə-l-əi
 he some chair Redup bring come Pst-IINH
 'He brought some furniture'

Adverbs are reduplicated completely, eg.

u k^haite k^haite kəhə-l-kəi
 he eat Redup speak-Pst-IINH
 He spoke while eating

Adjectives are also reduplicated completely in Bajjika,

lal lal seb le a
 red Redup apple take come
 'Bring the red apples'

həriər həriər pəttə səb gir ge-l-əi
 green Redup leave Pl. fall Go-Pst.IINH
 'Green leaves have fallen'

Quantifiers can also be reduplicated completely in this language,

ram ke car car go g^hər həi
 Ram Acc. four Redup Class house be-IINH
 'Ram has four houses'

Question words are duplicated completely

b^hoj me ke - ke ə-l-əi?
 party loc. who Redup come-Pst.IINH
 'who all came to the party?'

u kət^hi kət^hi ləl-kəi?
 He what Redup bring.Pst.IINH
 'What all things did he bring?'

A few cases of partial reduplication can also be seen in Bajjika, where either the first consonant is dropped (where word has a CV construction) or it is replaced by a vowel (where the final sound of the word is a consonant) For example,

kuc ^h	k ^h a u	kə	jəihə
Something	eat-Redup	then	Go-Fut.AGR
'Eat something before going'			

ram	tale	cəl ul	ge-l	ho-t-əi
Ram	then	walk-Redup	go-Pst.	be-Fut-IIINH
Ram would have gone by then'				

This section was written, based on the study of the very preliminary data collected. Now, another important aspect of grammar that needs to be described is the syntax of Bajjika language. I have discussed the related issues in the next chapter.

Chapter 4: Syntax

CHAPTER: 4

4.0 Introduction:

In this chapter we will discuss about the three major sentence types found in Bajjika. In section 4.1 declarative, imperative and interrogative sentences are discussed. Section 4.2 deals with the word order found in the language and in section 4.3 we will discuss about the negative particles as well as the scope of negation in Bajjika. Section 4.4 discusses different types of complex sentences, and in section 4.5. Explicator Compound Verbs are talked about later section 4.6 discusses the subordination and section 4.7 deals with the particles found in Bajjika.

4.1 Sentence Types:

A sentence type is basically ‘a regular coincidence that obtains between a specific syntactic form and a specific semantic/pragmatic function’ (Gusain, 2000: 60). A declarative sentence is the one which is used to make a statement; an imperative sentence expresses an order, request, or a warning, an interrogative sentence is used to ask a question; and an exclamative sentence is typically used to express emotional comment. Let us now discuss these sentence types one by one.

4.1.1. Declarative Sentences:

As I have already discussed, it is clear that a declarative sentence is the one, which is used to make a statement. It also acts as a basis to form other sentence forms. e.g.

ram	am	k ^h ə-l-kəi
ram	mango	eat Pst.IIINH

‘Ram ate the mango?’

Sita sundər həi
 Sita beautiful be-Prst-IIINH
 ‘Sita is beautiful.’

One example to show that declarative sentences act as a basis to form other sentence type is that we can make interrogative sentences from the above examples of declaratives just by adding interrogative marker ‘ki’ either at initial or final position of a sentence. For example,

ki ram am k^hə-l-kəI?
 Intro Ram mango eat-Pst-IIINH
 ‘Did Ram eat the mango?’

Sita sundər həi ki?
 Sita beautiful be-Prst-IIINH Intro
 ‘Is sita beautiful?’

In case of a declarative sentence, the verb agreement is coindexed with honorificity of the subject. For example,

u a ge-l-əi
 he come Go-Pst.IIINH
 ‘He had come [- honorific].’

u a ge-l-k^hin/ge-l-t^hin
 he come Go-Pst.IIIH
 ‘He had come [+ honorific].’

4.1.2 Imperative Sentences:

Generally, an order, request or warning is expressed in this type of sentence. For example,

b^hag jo
 run Go-Imper.IINH
 ‘run away’ (get out)

hūa nə jo
 there Neg go-Imper.IINH
 ‘Do not go there’

4.1.2.1 Second person subject pronoun is suppressed in the case of imperative sentences, but its presence is felt systematically in the verbal category that carries the person honorific agreement affixes, e.g.

a jo
 come Go-Imper.IINH
 (you) come [- honorific]
 a jau
 come Go-Imper.IIH
 (you) come [+honorific]

4.1.2.2 Person-honorific verbal agreement is generally seen in the case of causative verbs also, e.g.

	NH	H
	pərh	pərh ^u
	read – NH	read – Imper. H
I Causative:	pərh ^a	pərh ^{au}
	tech-Imper.-NH	teach-Imper.H
II Causative:	pərh ^{wa}	pərh ^{wau}
	‘Make someone read’	

4.1.2.3. Although tense and aspectual affixes are not maintained in the individual imperative, they may appear in the verbal complement of an imperative auxiliary; for example:

ael kər
come-Perf. Do. Imper.IINH
come (regularly)

ael kəru
come-Perf. Do-Imper-IIH
come (regularly)

k^həele jo
eat-Perf. Go-Imper. IINH
'go on eating' (non honorific)

k^həele jau
eat-Perf. go-Imper.IIH
'go on eating' (honorific)

4.1.2.4. The person honorific agreement affixes for objects pronouns, which are always case-fixed, are retained in imperative sentences; e.g.

okra dəhi
he-NH Gen. give-Imper.IINH
'give him' [- honorific]

hunka dəhun
he-H-Gen. give-Imper.IIH
'give him' [+ honorific]

4.1.2.5. Imperatives usually have the inherent semantics of future. Bajjika has distinct future imperative affixes as opposed to immediate imperative affixes; e.g.

Table 4.1

Immediate Imperative	K ^h a li-u eat take- Imper H. '(you) eat' (now)	Future Imperative	K ^h a lihə eat take- Imper H. '(you) eat' (later)
	Kam kərə work do-Imper H. '(you) work' (now)		Kam kərihə work do- Imper. H '(you) work' (later)

4.1.2.6. Negative imperative sentences have/nə/ in preverbal position, and the verb is in its imperative form. For example,

hūa nə jo
there Neg go-Imper. NH
'Do not go there' [- honorific]

hūa nə j-au
there Neg go-Imper. H
'Do not go there' [+ honorific]

41.3 Interrogative Sentences:

Interrogative sentences in Bajjika, like many other languages are typically used to ask questions. For example,

tohər ki nam həu?
you-Gen what name be-Prst. IINH
what is your name?

The normal order for interrogative sentence is that the question markers ki ‘what’, kon ‘who’, kəhā ‘where’, kəlla ‘why’ etc, follow the subject of the statement. However, this order may be inverted for stylistic purposes depending upon the speaker. For e.g.

tohər nam ki heu?
 you-Gen name what be-Prst.IINH
 ‘What is your name?’

ki nam həu tohər?
 what name be-Prst.IINH. you-Gen.
 ‘What is your name?’

4.1.3.1. Three types of interrogative sentences are found in Bajjika, namely Yes-No sentences, information sentences and Disjunctive sentences.

a) Yes-No interrogative sentences are those whose answer is given with a ‘yes’ or ‘no’, e.g.

tu k^hə-b-hi ki?
 you eat-Fut-NH Intro
 ‘will you eat?’

The answer to the above question will be either ‘yes’ or ‘no’ similarly,

u ə-t-əi ki?
 He come-Fut-NH Intro
 ‘will he come?’

b) Information interrogative sentences are those which are helpful in giving some information to the speaker. For example,

hūa ke həi?
 there who be-Prst.IINH.
 ‘who is there?’

tu kəhã ja-it hətə?
 you where go-Imperf. be-Prst-II NH
 'where are you going'?

- c) Disjunctive interrogative sentences are those which helps the speaker to know about the choices of the listener, e.g.

tu am kʰəe-b-e ki əmrud?
 you mango eat-Fut-NH or guava?
 Will you eat mango or will you eat guava?

ram cae pi-t-əi ki pani ki kətʰi?
 Ram tea drink-Fut-NH or water or what?
 'What will Ram drink, tea, water or something else'

Negative disjunction is expressed in Bajjika by means of negative particles nə.... nə 'neither nor' For example,

nə ram ə-l-əi nə syam
 neither Ram come-Pst-NH nor Shyam
 'Neither Ram nor shyam came'.

4.2 Word Order:

Like standard Hindi, even Bajjika has SOV word order. Usually SOV languages have post-positions than prepositions. This generalization is true for Bajjika also, e.g.

ram ke gʰər
 Ram Gen house
 'Ram's house'

iskul tək
 school upto
 ‘upto school’

4.2.1. In case of comparative constructions, the standard of comparison precedes the comparative, e.g.

u tora se bər admi həi
 he you.Acc/Dat from big person be.Prst.IIINH.
 ‘He is much bigger (person) than you’

mohən ram se ləmma həi
 Mohan Ram from tall be.Prst.IINH
 ‘Mohan is taller than Ram’.

4.2.2. Typically, the auxiliary verb follow the main verbs in Bajjika, For example,

Sita k^ha-it həi
 Sita eat – Imperf be.Prst.IIINH
 ‘Sita is eating’

u sutəl rəhəi
 he sleep-Imperf. Pst- be.Prst.IIINH.
 ‘He was sleeping’.

4.2.3. In Bajjika, the adverbial modifiers and the negative particle are preverbal, however, the position of negative particle is changed when the scope of negation changes. For example,

u gəmmə cə-l-ə it həi
 he slowly walk –Imperf be.Prst.IIINH
 ‘He walk: slowly’

tu kitab nə pər^hbə-hi.
 you book Neg. . read-Fut-NH
 ‘You will not read the book’

Changing scope of negation and the movement of negative particles based on it, is discussed later in detail in 4.3.

Adverbials can also be used at initial position in a sentence, e.g.

hali-hali u sə səũse k^həela k^ha ge-l-k^hin
 quickly they whole food eat Go-Pst-H
 ‘They ate the whole meal quickly.’

4.3. Negation:

In Bajjika only one negative particle ‘nə’ is used to express the sentence negation.
 e.g.

həm nə jəbəi
 I Neg. go-Fut-AGR.
 ‘I will not go’.

Sita kəll^he iskul nə geləi rə.
 Sita yesterday school Neg. go- Pst. AGR.
 ‘Sita did not go to the school yesterday’.

The above examples show that the negative particle ‘nə’ can appear in preverbal position in a negative sentence. However, the movement of this negative particle shows the change in the scope of negation. The scope shifts towards the form to which negative particle is following, e.g.

Sita kəll^he nə iskul gələi rə.
 Sita yesterday Neg. school go- Pst.IIINH
 ‘Sita did not go to the school (only) yesterday’.

Sita nə kəl^he iskul geləi rə.
 Sita Neg. yesterday school go- Pst.IIINH
 ‘(It was) Sita (who) did not go to the school yesterday.’

Negative disjunction:

nə sita kəl^he iskul ge-l-əi a nə mira
 Neg. Sita yesterday school go-Pst.IIINH and Neg. Mira.
 ‘Neither Sita nor Mira went to the school yesterday.’

The negative particle *nə* is used as a tag at the end of a sentence to express the meaning of request and interrogation, e.g.

tu k^ha le nə.
 you eat Take Neg.
 ‘You (please) eat’.

ram ai ətəi nə?
 Ram today com-Fut.IIINH Neg.
 ‘Will Ram come today?’

4.4. Complex Sentences:

4.4.1 Coordination:

Coordination is the linking of two or more categories of expression with the use of coordinates or co-ordinate conjunctions at the phrasal levels as well as the sentential levels. Bajjika has the following types of co-ordinations:

4.4.1.1. Conjunction a /ar ‘and’

It occurs both at phrasal as well as sentential levels, e.g.

babuji k^hə-l-k^hin a g^hume ge-l-k^hin
 father eat -Pst.-H and walk Go-Pst.-H
 ‘Father went for walk after eating’.

ram cəl ge-l-əi a əpna bəhin-o ke le geləi
 Ram walk Go-Pst-NH and Reflex. Sister –Emph. Acc. take Go-Pst-NH
 ‘Ram went and also took his sister along’

4.4.1.2. Adversative Conjunction *lekin /bāki* ‘but’

A contrast or an opposition exists between the two conjuncts when two expressions are coordinated by an adversative conjunction *lekin/bāki*. Mostly, they occur at the sentential level, e.g.

Sita sundər həi lekin bədməs həi
 Sita beautiful be-Prst.IIINH but naughty be-Prst.IIINH
 ‘Sita is beautiful but naughty’.

u k^hə-l-kəi bāki həm nə k^hə-b-əi
 He eat-Pst-NH but I Neg. eat –Fut.AGR
 ‘He has eaten but I will not eat’.

4.5 Explicator Compound Verbs: “An ECV construction refers to a sequence of two verbs V_1 and V_2 , in which the main verb of the sentence, generally V_1 in SOV languages, is followed by another verb, i.e. V_2 , which is de-lexicalised in the construction”. (Abbi 2001. P.188).

In Bajjika, the first form or the preceding verb in the sequence of two verbal forms, is the main or predicating verb and the second one does not appear in its primary lexical meaning. The latter is rather, morphologically marked for person, tense, aspect and modality. For example (type v2 in small caps):

k^həla kh^a le
 food eat Take
 ‘(you) eat the food’

botəl p^huT. ge-l-əi
 bottle break Go-Pst.IIINH
 ‘The bottle broke’

In examples given above, /le/ 'take' is V₂ which is used to mark the benefaction of the hearer and is not used in its literal meaning. Similarly, /gəya/ 'go' in the next sentence is used to mark the perfective aspect of the action of breaking of the bottle.

Like many other languages in which ECV's are found, in Bajjika also, the most significant semantic functions played by the ECV's are that of Aspectual, Adverbial and Attitudinal. The aspectual function mainly exhibits the meaning of perfectivity. Most commonly, in all the languages the action verbs and the verb 'Go' in particular is used for indicating perfectivity. For example,

sita k^həla k^ha ge-l-əi.

Sita food eat Go-Pst-NH

'Sita ate the food'. [perfective]

babuji k^hana k^ha kə g^hume cəl ge-l-k^hin.

father food eat CP walk-Inf. walk Go-Pst. H

'After eating his food, father went for a walk'.

u həmra lel k^həla bəna de-l-kəi.

He I-Dat. food make give-Pst.NH

'He made the food for me'.

In the above two examples, the verb /gəya/ 'go' is used as ECV and it is exhibiting the semantic function of perfectivity. On the other hand, in the case of the last example, the verb /de/ 'give' is used as an ECV and is exhibits the meaning of 'others' benefaction'.

The adverbial functions of ECV's in Bajjika is to indicate various manners of an action or non-manner actions that indicate the characteristic of benefaction, anticipation etc.

Ki tu hāmra la ego siuTər bin de-b-hi.

Will you I Dat. one Class Sweater knit Give-Fut.-NH.

‘Will you knit a sweater for me?’ [benefactive]

4.6 Subordination: The conjunction of two clauses with the help of subordinators or subordinating conjunctions is known as subordination. In this process, out of the two clauses, one may use a finite and the other a non-finite verb. Subordinate finite clauses generally follow the main clause, for example,

a) u kəhə-l-kəi je u jə-t-əi.
he said – Pst.IIINH that he go-Fut..IIINH
He said that he will go.

b) sita kəh-l-kəi je okra k^həla bənanai əcc^ha ləg-əit həi.
Sita said-Pst.IIINH that she-Dat food make.Inft good feel.Perf be-Prst.IIINH
Sita said that she likes cooking food.

In the above examples, the finite forms ‘he said’ and ‘Sita said’ are the main clauses in (a) and (b) respectively and are followed by the subordinate clauses.

The exception to the above statement is found in case of relative clauses and adverbial relative clauses where the subordinate marker or complementizer generally occupies the initial position in the subordinate clause and they precede the main clause.

4.6.1 Relative Correlative Clauses:

The Primary relative marker ‘je’ is placed at the beginning of the relative clause, whereas the correlative marker ‘se’ is placed in front of the head noun. For example,

je ləirka gilas tor-lə-kəi hə səkra bolo.
Rel. boy glass break-Pst-NH be Cor. Dat. Call.
‘Call the boy who has broken the glass’

je lārki dilli mē hai se hāmmar bāhin hai.

Rel. girl Delhi Loc be.Prst.IIINH. Cor. I-Dat sister be.Prst.IIINH.

‘The girl who is in Delhi is my sister’

As it is clear from the above examples, the second identical and co-referential noun phrase undergoes optional deletion. Following are the two clauses sharing identical and coreferential NP in above examples:

Main clause:

lāirka ke bolo

boy Acc. call

‘Call the boy’

lārki hāmmar bāhin hai

girl I-Dat sister be.Prst.IIINH.

The girl is my sister.

Relative clause:

lāirka gilās tor-lā-kāi

boy glass break-Pst..IIINH

‘The boy has broken the glass’.

lārki dilli mē hai

girl Delhi in be.Prst.IIINH.

‘The girl is in Delhi’

4.6.2 Adverbial Clauses:

They are marked by, both finite and non-finite forms of verbs. Adverbial subordinate clauses in Bajjika can be divided into following types:

4.6.2.1 Adverbial Clause of Time:

Temporal relationship is usually marked by correlatives, one of which is optionally deleted. For example

jale hām g^hum kə əliəi (tale) u cəl geləi rə.
When I walk. CP Come-Pst (then) he walk Go-Pst-IINH Perf
'When I came after a walk he had gone'.

4.6.2.2 Adverbial Clause of location: Locative adverbial clauses are marked by the subordinator jəhā 'where' or jəhā kəhi 'wherever', eg.

jəhā tu jə-b-hi hām φ jə-b-əi
Where you go-Fut-IINH I φ go-Fut.AGR
'I will go where you will go'.

jəhākəhi u hotəi φ hām milbəi.
Wherever he be-Pst-IINH φ I meet-Fut.AGR
'I will meet him wherever he is'.

4.6.2.3 Adverbial Clause of Manner: They are not usually expressed by the infinitival constructions. Relative clause-like marker jenna 'as' is used to render the manner. For example,

Jenna u kəh-lə-kəi (tenna) hām kəlīəi.
as – Rel. he tell-Pst-IINH same way.(Cor.) I do-Pst.AGR
'I did as he told me to do'.

4.7 Particles:

There is a class of words in Bajjika, which have not fixed place of occurrence. These may go with a word, phrase or a clause. The element related to these is brought into prominence.

4.7.1 Emphatic particles:

Emphatic particles like ‘hi’, ‘bhi’ of Hindi are completely substituted in Bajjika by a morphological change in the form of the root word associated with it. For example:

Hindi

vəh rat-mē b^hi yəhā tha
he night-Loc Emph here be.PST-AGR

'He was here at the night also'

Bajjika

u rat-o mē hīyā rəhāi
he night-Emph Loc here Pst.be.IINH

'He was here at the night also'

When the root word is a verb, there is ‘-be’ suffixation with the root verb in V₁ position and compounding of ‘kər’ (do) verb in V₂ position, e.g.

Hindi

us-ne jəwab diya hi nəhi
he-Erg answer give-Pst-Agr Emph Neg

'He did not give the answer'

Bajjika

u jəwab de-be nə kəlkəi
he answer give-Emph Neg do-Pst.IINH

'He did not give the answer'

4.7.2 Equivalent to Hindi /to/, Bajjika has /tə/. It may occur with nouns, pronouns, adjectives or verbs. When it comes after a noun or noun phrase, adjective, verb or pronoun the meaning of the same is emphasized. e.g

Noun

ram tə nimmən ləirka həi

Ram Emph. good boy be.Prst.IINH

‘Ram is a good boy’.

ram nimmən ləirka həi

Ram good boy be.Prst.IINH

‘Ram is a good boy.’

Adjective

sohən kəriya tə həi lekin sundər həi.

Sohan black Emph. be.Prst.IINH but beautiful be.Prst.IINH.

‘Sohan is black but beautiful’.

Verb

u gel tə həi.

he go-Pst. Emph. be.Prst.IINH

‘He had gone’

4.7.3 The particle /sən/ is used after noun or adjective in a noun phrase construction. It makes a comparison of the subject with the noun or adjective after which it is placed, e.g.

u ləirka ram sən həi

that boy Ram like (P)be. Prst.IINH

‘That boy is like Ram’.

u kəriya sən həi

he black like (P)be. Prst.IINH

‘He is somewhat black (black like).

The above example shows that the boy about whom the speaker is talking is like Ram and not Ram, or not black but like black.

Conclusion

CONCLUSION

This research gives an account of some phonetic, morphological and syntactic aspects of the Bajjika language, which is a variety of Hindi and is spoken by more than 1.5 million people in the northern regions of the state of Bihar in India.

This work is divided into four chapters and appendices. Chapter 1 introduces the language by taking about its sociolinguistic data, its speakers and geographical boundaries, studies done on the language and its present day situation. A knowledge of all these aspects is very essential before probing into other features of any language. The second chapter is about the sound system of Bajjika language. A discussion of the phonotactic behaviour of different sounds, segmental phonology and morphophonemics could be relevant. The third chapter is concerned with the elicitation of major morphological topics of the Bajjika language, which constitute a significant part of the following chapter. Elicitation and discussion on syntax constitute the fourth chapter in which, apart from the major sentence types, word order, complex sentences, explicator compound verbs, subordinates and particles are discussed. Finally, after this conclusion, a sample text, list of compound numerals and maps are given in the appendices. Even though the study has been done on the study of very preliminary data collected by me, I have made every effort to verify that the description applies to the speakers whose responses and judgments have been noted throughout, and they have been quite positive.

The main purpose of this study is three-fold. First, it aims to provide some materials on a number of phonetic, morphological and syntactic aspects of the Bajjika language. Secondly, the analysis and description put forward in this piece of work may, it is hoped, be helpful for the linguistic comparison across various languages in India. Thirdly, this study may provide some useful hints to other researchers on different methods for beginning the linguistic analysis and description of various other languages.

On the whole, this work is still at a rather preliminary stage, I think in this study I have brought to light a number of facts on different linguistic features of Bajjika. I hope I have arrived at some results on these linguistic aspects of phonetic, morphological and syntactic features of my investigation. I must admit that it was simply not possible, predominantly due to time and space limitations, to include a discussion of every issue or example relevant to the various aspects of this language. I very sincerely hope to take the work still further and thereby advance our knowledge of the various, yet unexplored, aspects of this language called Bajjika.

Appendix 1

unāis	‘19’	c ^h ialis	‘46’	tehättər	‘73’
ekāis	‘21’	sætalis	‘47’	cəohättər	‘74’
bais	‘22’	ərtalis	‘48’	pəc ^h ättər	‘75’
teis	‘23’	uncas	‘49’	c ^h ihättər	‘76’
cəubis	‘24’	ekawən	‘51’	sətt ^h tər	‘77’
pəcis	‘25’	bawən	‘52’	əTHättər	‘78’
c ^h əbbis	‘26’	tirpən	‘53’	unasi	‘79’
sətais	‘27’	cəumən	‘54’	ekasi	‘81’
əTHais	‘28’	pəcpən	‘55’	berasi	‘82’
untis	‘29’	c ^h əppən	‘56’	terasi	‘83’
ektis	‘31’	səntwən	‘57’	cəorasi	‘84’
bəttis	‘32’	ənTHawən	‘58’	pəcasi	‘85’
tētis	‘33’	unsəth	‘59’	c ^h iası	‘86’
cəotis	‘34’	eksəTH	‘61’	sətasi	‘87’
pəetis	‘35’	basəTH	‘62’	əTHası	‘88’
c ^h əttis	‘36’	tirsəTH	‘63’	nəwasi	‘89’

sætis	'37'	cəosəTH	'64'	ekanwe	'91'
ərtis	'38'	pəēəTH	'65'	beranwe	'92'
uncalis	'39'	c ^h iasəTH	'66'	teranwe	'93'
ektalis	'41'	sərsəTH	'67'	cəoranwe	'94'
bəyalis	'42'	ərsəTH	'68'	pəncanme	'95'
tētalis	'43'	unhəttər	'69'	c ^h ianme	'96'
cəobalis	'44'	ekhəttər	'71'	səntanme	'97'
pəētalis	'45'	bəhəttər	'72'	ənTHanme	'98'
				ninanbe	'99'

Appendix II

Sample Text

e go kisan rəhəi okra car go bəfa
 one class farmer Pst.-be-IINH he-Gen. four Class son

rəhəi lekin, u caro mē mel nə rəhəi u sə
 Pst.be-IINH but they four-Emph.Loc unity Neg. Pst.be.IINH he Pl.

hərdəm lərt-e rəh-əi ek din kisan bəra bimar pər-l-əi
 always fight-Emph Stay Imp.Pst one day farmer very sick lie-Pst.IINH

u car-o ke bolə-l-kəi a jərə rəhe lel kəh-lə-kəi
 he four-Emph. Acc. Call.Pst.IINH and together stay for tell-Pst.IINH

lekin ləirka səb pər koi əsər nə ho-l-əi tə kisan
 but boy Pl. Loc. any effect Neg. be-Pst.IINH then farmer

ləkri ke Dheri mənḡə-l-kəi a ləirka sə ke tor-e
 wood Gen. bundle ask-Pst.IINH and boy Pl. Acc. break-Emph

la kəh-l-kəi kek-ro se u Dheri nə TuT-l-əi
 Gen. tel-Pst.IINH who-Acc Inst. that bundle Neg. break.Pst.IINH

təb kisan səb ləkri ke ələḡ-ələḡ kə de-l-kəi
 then farmer all stick Acc. separate-Redup do Give.Pst.IINH

a ləirka sə ke ek-ek go ləkri tore kəhə-l-kəi
 and boy Pl. Acc. one-Redup Class stick break tell.Pst.IINH

səb ləkri ke tor de-l-kəi təb səb ke buj^ha
 all stick Acc. break Give.Pst.IIINH then all Acc. know

ge-l-əi je jɔre rəhe mē ketna bəl həi
 Go.Pst.IIINH that together stay Loc how strength Aux

There was a farmer. He had four sons. They always use to fight with each other. One day the farmer became very ill. He called his sons and asked them to stay together but they did not listen to him. He then asked them to bring some sticks. He told them to break the sticks together which they were unable to. Then he asked them to break the sticks separately and they did it. Then they came to know the value of staying together.

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