# Language Change in Hindi Dialects: A Case Study of Bhojpuri, Magahi and Maithili\*

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#### 1. INTRODUCTION

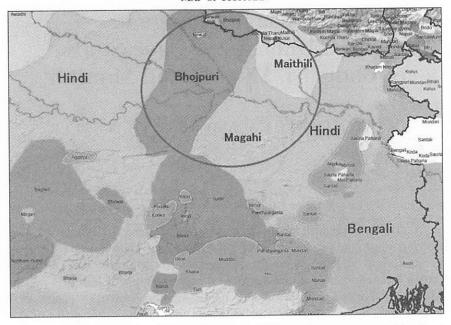
As is often the case with neighbouring languages, there is mutual exposure and language contact. This usually causes language change, and especially grammatical change, in each language. Hindi, a member of the Indo-Aryan languages and a main official language in north India, is not an exception. Nowadays it is broadly used (spoken, heard, or read) as a lingua franca not only in North India, but also in the other parts of the Indian subcontinent, through mass media such as TV, radio, films, CD/DVDs, and the Internet. In other words, the so-called standard Hindi may have influenced multiple Indian languages in numerous ways. Bhojpuri, Magahi and Maithili, which are spoken in Bihar, the easternmost part of Hindi speaking area, and which Grierson (1883) once termed 'Bihari languages', are said to be Hindi dialects. Maithili, once classified as a dialect of Hindi, is now counted as a separate language from Hindi.

According to the map of Indian subcontinent languages in the next page, all three 'Bihari languages' (hereafter referred to as Bihari dialects) are geographically contiguous. The map also clearly indicates that Hindi, either standard or non-standard, occupies a prominent space in the functional domain. Most people use Hindi in most of their functional domains, such as schools, education, newspapers, and conversations outside the home. It is not surprising that Hindi exhibits a serious impact on Bhojpuri, Magahi, and Maithili on all levels, such as sounds, words, and constructions.

We shall start with some examples of simple Hindi influence on Bihari dialects.

	Hindi	English	Bhojpuri	Magahi	Maithili
1 2	tālāb [P] akhbär [A]	'pond' 'newspaper'	pokhar [H]	pokhar [H]	pokhari [H]
3	pepar [E]	'paper'	pepar [E] panna [H]/kāgaj [P]	pepar [E] kāgaj [P]	pepar [E] kāgaj [P]
4 5	pānī [H] sarak [H]	'water' 'road'	pānī [H]/jal [S]	pānī [H]/jal [S]	pāin/jal [S]
<del></del>	sajak [H]	road	rāstā [P]	rastā [P]	bāṭ [H]

#### MAP OF HUFFMAN



Source: Languages of the Indian Subcontinent in Steve Huffman Language Maps

In example 1, pokhar, used in the dialects, is a Hindi tadbhav word – a popular word descended and evolved from Sanskrit [S]. Although standard Hindi speakers prefer to use  $t\bar{a}l\bar{a}b$ , a loanword from Persian [P], they do use pokhar in Bihari dialects. Examples 2 and 3 are of semantic shift due to the evolution of word usage. For 'newspaper', speakers of the three dialects tend to use 'paper', whereas standard Hindi speakers use  $akhb\bar{a}r$ , a loanword from Arabic [A] for 'newspaper'; while to describe 'paper', they use  $k\bar{a}gaj$  ( $k\bar{a}gaz$  in Persian and Hindi), which is also used in the dialects. To express 'sheet of paper', Bhojpuri also has another word, panna, also a tadbhav word.  $P\bar{a}n\bar{a}$  and jal in example 4 are a tadbhav and tatsam, respectively. Example 5 shows an interesting fact: in Hindi they use sarak to express 'road', while Bhojpuri, Magahi and Maithili use a Persian word,  $r\bar{a}st\bar{a}$ , or a tadbhav word,  $b\bar{a}t$ .

These are just a few examples of noun replacement. However, in other parts of speech we often find lexical erosion or replacement. For example, the Hindi words  $kah\tilde{a}$  'where',  $dh\tilde{\imath}re$ - $dh\tilde{\imath}re$  'slowly', and baith 'sit' are now dominantly used as substitutes for katay, game-game, and bais in Maithili, respectively. These changes can also be traced back to successive language contact and language change.

Before proceeding to the next section, we should note that Bhojpuri, Magahi, Maithili and some other eastern languages of the Indo-Aryan family in India do not seem to exhibit a distinction between affricate 'ś' and dental fricative 's' sounds. On the other hand, Hindi (as spoken in eastern UP, Bihar, Jharkhand, and Odisha) makes a clear distinction between the two sounds. It has been observed that Hindi speaking Bhojpuri, Magahi and Maithili speakers tend to make such a distinction in the latter three languages as well, evincing a clear influence of Hindi on those dialects. However, it is also a dominant claim that Bhojpuri, Magahi and Maithili have, in turn, influenced Hindi. The Hindi spoken in this geographical area exhibits a neutralization of the two sounds, the affricate and the dental fricative, in favour of the latter. In addition, Perso-Arabic fricatives such as f/, f/, f/, and f/ are not broadly accepted in the three dialects, and are usually replaced by f/, f/, f/, f/, and f/ respectively.

### 2. DETAILS OF INFORMANTS FOR THE BIHARI DIALECTS

Following is the information about the native speakers of Bhojpuri, Magahi and Maithili who have provided the data used in this paper. There were five informants for each dialect. To protect their privacy, we have abbreviated their first names.

Bho	jpuri	Ma	gahi	Maithili		
Name	Place of birth	Name	Place of birth	Name	Place of birth	
S. Akhtar	Sonpur	R. Kumar	Gaya	S. Jha	Samastipur	
S. Ahmad	Sonpur	S. Singh	Nawada	C. Kumar	Muzaffarpur	
G. Singh	Chapra	G. Pandey	Jahanabad	P. Gunjan	Madhubani	
Ku. Kumar	Patna	R. Ranjan	Patna	M. Jha	Darbhanga	
Ka. K. Singh	Gopalganj	G. Kumar	Patna	D. Kumar	Darbhanga	

The informants have some things in common:

- (1) All of them were college students between 23-8 years old at the time of the survey (2012).
- (2) They are as fluent in Hindi as they are in their mother tongues.
- (3) They live in and around Patna now, but their roots are in their native villages, where people speak predominantly Bhojpuri, Magahi and Maithili.
- (4) They were all born in the villages and went to high schools in smaller towns or villages around Bihar.
- (5) They have all been educated at city colleges.

As a method for collecting data, we showed the informants nine arbitrary Hindi sentences, which they translated into their mother tongue. The translations they have provided form the core data of this paper. We shall use this data to discuss several noteworthy morpho-syntactic influences by Hindi.

#### 3. DATA ON INFLUENCED BIHARI DIALECTS

As mentioned above, we have chosen nine arbitrary Hindi sentences. Most of these are complex sentences with an embedded verbal noun phrase, to enable us to clarify morphological or syntactic differences and locate conspicuous features in Bihari dialects affected by standard Hindi. Before proceeding, we should point out several common linguistic features among the dialects. **Regarding noun gender**, animate nouns and animate personal pronouns are gender distinguished for agreement in Bhojpuri (M. K. Verma 2007). Nouns referring to females are treated as feminine, and all others as masculine. This is also the case with Magahi. Magahi has no grammatical gender for agreement and neither does Maithili (S. Verma 2007, Yadav 2007). **Regarding number**, number in the three Bihari dialects is normally marked in a periphrastic way, e.g., adding sab 'all' to a noun to express plurality. **Regarding case**, Bhojpuri, Magahi and Maithili, unlike Hindi, do not have oblique forms of nouns, but do have oblique forms of pronouns, e.g., personal and demonstrative.

It is also worth noting that formation of finite verb forms in these three dialects is quite complex. Finite verb forms in the three dialects carry personal endings that reflect a complex of person and honorificity. To put it briefly, a finite verb consists of [Stem + Aspect/Tense/Mode + Person]. To show degree of honorificity in Hindi, one uses a finite verb form agreed to each personal pronoun in the plural, the same as in other languages of the Indo-European family (e.g.,  $2^{nd}$  person pronouns:  $t\bar{u}$  (sg.) – tum (pl.) -  $\bar{a}p$  (pl.)<sup>2</sup>) while their finite verb forms agreed to each of the pronouns show honorific hierarchy [-Hon – Neutral – Hon]. For more details, refer to the reference grammars of each dialect.

One more worth noting in advance is the system of non-finite verbal forms, i.e., infinitives and participles, which appear frequently in this paper and are more complex than in Hindi. The tables below are based on M. K. Verma (2007: 530), S. Verma (2007: 510) and Language Information Service (LIS).<sup>3</sup>

TABLE 1. INFINITIVES OF BHOJPURI

	Neutral	Imperfective	Perfective
Non-oblique	dekh-Ø	dekh-a-t	dekh-a-l
Oblique	dekh-e	dekh-t-e	dekh-a-l-ā

TABLE 2. INFINITIVES OF MAGAHI

	Neutral	Imperfective	Perfective
Non-oblique	dekh-Ø/-a [habitual]	dek-ai-t [progressive]	
Oblique	dekh-e	-	dekh-l-ā

TABLE 3.	INFINITIVES	OF	MAITHILI
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	Neutral	Imperfective	Perfective	
Non-finite	dekh-e	dekh-ai-t/-i-t	dekh-i/-ě	_

Keeping these features in mind, henceforth we shall present the Hindi sentences followed by their translations into Bhojpuri, Magahi and Maithili by the informants. Example (a) is the first of the Hindi sentences, 'It is necessary for you to read these books.'

(a) 
$$\bar{a}p$$
 ke lie ye kit $\bar{a}b\bar{e}$  paṛh-nī zar $\bar{u}r\bar{i}$  ha $\bar{i}$ .  
you for these book.f.pl read.INF necessary COP.PRS.  
(f.sg/pl) pl

'It is necessary for you to read these books.'

Sentence (a-1) below is the translation of (a) into Bhojpuri.

### <Bhojpuri>

The noun  $kitabiy\bar{a}$  in (a-1) does not have the plural suffix '-an', but has the word kul (or sab) instead before the noun, not 'after the noun' as M. K. Verma (2007) explained to indicate plurality in Bhojpuri.

Examples (a-2) and (a-3) are translations into Magahi and Maithili respectively.

### <Magahi>

As S. Verma (2007) mentioned, plurality in Magahi is expressed by either adding the same suffix '-an' as Bhojpuri to a noun, or adding the word sab peripherally. Example (a-3) also expresses the plurality of book in the peripheral way. Furthermore, the word for plurality is located before the noun, even though M. K. Verma does not mention this word order pattern in her descriptive grammar.

The use of the infinitive  $padhn\bar{a}$  'to read' instead of padhal in the Magahi example (a-2) is a remarkable instance of Magahi influenced by Hindi. Although Magahi has three forms of infinitives (nominal non-finites) – the neutral, imperfective and perfective – it does not have such a form with  $-n\bar{a}$  as Hindi does. In terms of verbal nouns, their forms are identical to the infinitives in Hindi. However, verbal noun forms in Maithili are different from the non-finites given in Table 3, and correspond to finite forms with future tense or past tense, as below. Additionally, they have different non-oblique vs. oblique forms.

TABLE 4. VERBAL NOUNS OF MAITHILI

	Neutral (FUT Participle)	Perfective (PST Participle)
Non-oblique	dekh-a-b	dekh-a-l
Oblique <sup>6</sup>	$dekh$ - $a$ - $b$ $(-ar{a})$	dekh-a-l (-ā)

As Beams (1879) pointed out, there are two general types of verbal noun forms, that is, of infinitives, in Indo-Aryan languages, which he termed the Ba type and Na type. Hindi itself is categorized into the Na type as in (a). Beams also mentioned that the Ba type was found in the rustic dialects of Hindi. The Bihari dialects dealt with in this paper are included in this group. This means there are essentially no forms with  $-n\bar{a}$  or  $-n\bar{a}\bar{\imath}$ , the latter possibly an allomorph of  $-n\bar{a}$  found in Maithili. Still, they use or have begun to use the  $-n\bar{a}$  form in Magahi, for example.

It is also worth noting that in (a-3), the auxiliary aichi or aich in the Maithili example is a colloquial form derived from achi in standard Maithili<sup>7</sup>. The aich variant is an example of metathesis<sup>8</sup>, that is, a natural switching of sounds that is not recognized as standard Maithili<sup>9</sup>. On the other hand, some native Maithili speakers have reported the acceptability of the use of a form of copula, hai 'is' in Hindi instead of the auxiliary aich as shown below.

#### <Maithili>

This might prove that Maithili is being 'Hindiized', or that a Hindi-Maithili hybrid is emerging. Not surprisingly, Hindi and Maithili are essentially sister dialects (nowadays we would call them 'sister languages'), and can be freely interchanged within a sentence or between sentences.

The next example is (b) 'Girls started to move out of here.'

'Girls started to move out of here.'

## <Bhojpuri>

(b-1)ehījā laīkī nīkale hogaīlī. se log  $sur\bar{u}$ go.PST here from girl people move out. started be INF.obl

### <Magahi>

(b-2)laīkīyan ho gaīlai. eijā nikalanä suru se girl.pl here move out. started go.PST from be INF

#### <Maithili>

(b-3)ehī kāt kankirbī nikalnāī bhasabh-ak prārambh geil. SA this side from girl all (pl)move out. be start go. **GEN** INF (noun) **PST** 

In the Hindi example (b), there is agreement in the verbal noun phrase:  $larkiy\bar{a}$  'girls' is feminine and plural and so is  $nikaln\bar{\imath}$  'to move out'. In (b-2), the suffix -an is added to the noun  $la\bar{\imath}k\bar{\imath}$  to express plurality. Inversion of an animate noun with the plural marker log, which originally means 'people', never happens – this in contrast to the common occurrence of a neutral plural marker sab with an inanimate noun, as above. One of probable reasons is that log retains its lexical and concrete meaning. To put it differently, it is not as grammaticalized as sab, even though the two function as plural markers. Examples (b-2) and (b-3) exhibit the same forms of infinitive as (a-2) and (a-3), respectively.

Example (c) below is an ergative construction. The sentence means 'People started to read books.' It is well known that Hindi has split ergativity and an agent in the ergative case only when the predicate verb is in the past tense/perfect aspect. Thus the verb *karnā* here agrees with the object *kitābē* of the verbal noun phrase 'reading books'.

(c)  $log\tilde{o}$  ne  $kit\bar{a}b\tilde{e}$  paṛh-nī śurū  $k\tilde{t}$ .

people ERG book.f.pl read.INF (sg/pl) started do.PST.f.pl

'People started to read books.'

# <Bhojpuri>

(c-1) sabhe-koi kitabiyā paḍhe surū ka dehalas. all-some book read.INF.obl started do give.PST

### <Magahi>

(c-2) adīmīyan sab kitabiyā paḍhe-lā<sup>10</sup> surū kailakai.
people all (pl) book read.INF started do.PST
(NEUT).obl-for

kar delkai. do give.PST

### <Maithili>

kainäï<sup>11</sup> (c-3)lok sab bothī ka adhyayan prārambh kalaith. do.PST all (pl) people book GEN reading do.INF start (noun)

These examples exhibit two notable Hindi influences. The first is the splitting of a noun with a genitive suffix into a noun and a genitive postposition:  $poth\bar{\imath}\ ka$  in (c-3). According to Yadav (2007), Maithili has the genitive suffix  $-\partial k/-k$  for genitive postposition  $k\bar{a}/ke/k\bar{\imath}$  in Hindi; that is, in principle the Maithili should be  $poth\bar{\imath}-k$ . However, patterns such as that in (c-3) are often observed nowadays. The second Hindi influence is that, interestingly, the oblique form padhe and oblique form + dative postposition  $-l\bar{a}$ , i.e.,  $padhe-l\bar{a}$ , are used in the Bhojpuri and Magahi, respectively, even though only a non-oblique form would be used in Hindi.

Example (d) includes a dative subject construction. Its meaning is 'You had to read these books.'

(d) āp ko ye kitābē paṛh-nī thī. you DAT these book.f.pl read.INF (f.sg/pl) COP.PST.f.pl 'You had to read these books.'

### <Bhojpuri>

(d-1)  $ra\bar{u}\bar{a}$  ke  $\bar{i}$  kul kitabiyā paḍhe ke rahal. you.HON DAT this all (pl) book read.INF.obl GEN be.PST

According to Verma (2007: 527), the pronoun  $ra\bar{u}\bar{a}$  is nominative of the  $2^{\rm nd}$  person, honorific. Personal pronouns in Bhojpuri have their own oblique forms. In (d-1),  $raur\bar{a}$ , the oblique form of  $ra\bar{u}\bar{a}$  is supposed to be used with the dative marker ke. Despite having it, the direct form is used as is.<sup>12</sup>

## <Magahi>

(d-2)sabhalai. apne ke ī kitabiyā padhe ke you.HON DAT read.INF.obl GEN be.PST this all (pl) book

#### <Maithili>

(d-3)ahā-ke ī pothī sabh ke adhyayankaināī chailāh. be.PST. you.HONthis book all (pl) **GEN** reading do.INF HON DAT

Comparing (d) and (d-3) with (d-1) and (d-2), it is also worth noting that the postposition ke is added to each embedded verbal noun phrase of the latter two examples. As we see in (d-3), Maithili does not require such a marker as in Hindi. Technically, the marker ke is said to be a

ke

-9k/-k

versatile postposition used for accusative/dative/genitive in Bhojpuri and Magahi, as well as for the accusative and dative in Maithili. Here is a list of accusative, dative and genitive postpositions in these three dialects.

2.1232.0	1.225 C. 2.61 C. Neccolity, D. My L. A. D. C. M. M. C. D. B. L. D.							
	Accusative	Dative	Genitive					
Bhojpuri	zero or ke	ke/lā	ke					

 $ke/l\bar{a}^{13}$ 

ke/kē

TABLE 5. LIST OF ACCUSATIVE, DATIVE AND GENITIVE OF BIHARI DIALECTS

zero or ke

zero or ke/ke

As the table shows, it is hard to strictly distinguish between the *ke* markers, especially in Bhojpuri and Magahi. Judging from standard Hindi grammar, we can identify the first *ke* as a dative marker; yet verbal noun phrases in a dative construction are always considered as forming the direct case, that is, the nominative case. A similar phenomenon can be observed in idiomatic use of the genitive of the infinitive or gerund, as mentioned by Kellogg (1938: 291). He has provided two examples:

maĩ nahi. jäne kä I.NOM go.INF.obl NEG GEN.m.sg 'I will not go.' aisī bāt nahĩ hone kī. such.f.sg thing.f.sg **NEG** go.INF.obl GEN.f.sg 'Such a thing is not to be.'

Both examples are nominative subject sentences different from the examples in (d). However, the parts of the predicates are the same. Each sentence ends with a noun or noun phrase, i.e., a noun predicate. <sup>14</sup> Kellogg has also noted that this usage is to denote 'a *certainty*, as determined by the will or nature of the agent'. <sup>15</sup> It is likely that such noun phrases or noun predicates, consisting of an infinitive oblique + GEN, might have been adapted even to dative subject constructions. The following example (e) is another example of a dative construction, where the particle  $c\bar{a}hie$  is used instead of a copula.

(e) äp ko ye kitābē paṛh-nī cāhie.
you DAT these book.f.pl read.INF (f.sg/pl) should
'You should read these books.'

# <Bhojpuri>

Magahi

Maithili

(e-1)raūā ke ī kul kitabiyā padhe cähī. ke you.HON DAT this all (pl) book read.INF.obl GEN

<Magahi>

cāhī. padhe ke (e-2)apne ke ī sab kitabiyā all (pl) book read.INF.obl GEN should you.HON DAT this

<Maithili>

(e-3)sabhke adhyayan karb-āk cāhī. ahã ke pothī all **GEN** reading do.INFshould vou.HON book DAT this **GEN** (pl)

As for adding the genitive marker keto a verbal noun phrase, (e-1) and (e-2) are the same as (d-1) and (d-2). The previous Maithili example is in accordance with the Hindi. This Maithili example, however, uses not  $kain\bar{a}i$  but  $karb\bar{a}k$ , composed of the infinitive containing the 'future' participle suffix kar-ba, together with the genitive marker  $-ak^{16}$  – even though a verbal noun in a dative construction (with either  $c\bar{a}hie$  or a copula) never uses a genitive maker in standard Hindi. In fact,  $karn\bar{a}i$  in (d-3) above can also be replaced with the  $karb\bar{a}k$ .

Taking all of these examples into consideration, it can be presumed that the second ke in Bhojpuri and Magahi is originally genitive, and that each verbal noun phrase embedded as the subject of a dative construction is marked as genitive in the three dialects. In addition, we can say that the dative construction in Hindi has influenced the same construction in Maithili more than in Bhojpuri and Magahi.

Example (f) below is an ergative construction, similar to (c). The difference from (c) is that here a simple verb  $c\bar{a}hn\bar{a}$  'to want' is used as the predicate. The object,  $kit\bar{a}b\tilde{e}$ , is used as a controller to agree with the predicate as well.

'You wanted to read books.'

In contrast, the Bihari dialects do not possess this ergative case marking system. In the Bhojpuri rendering in (f-1), the predicate consists of the imperfective form of *caha-+* a past form of 'to be', unlike the simple past form in (f). Furthermore, (f-2) and (f-3) are not metaphrased, but paraphrased.

<Bhojpuri>

(f-1) raūā kul kitabiyā dekhal cahat rahalīn.

you.HON all (pl) book see.INF want.IPFV be.PST.HON/
(PFV) POL

<Magahi>

(f-2) apne ke kitabiyā dekhe ke kailkai. sab man you.HON DAT do.PST all book see.INF. **GEN** wish obl (pl) (noun)

<Maithili>

ahã (f-3)bothī sahh. ke abalambankarb-āk cestā kailahū. you. book all (pl) GEN see/view do.INF. wish do.PST. HON (noun) GEN (noun) HON

According to our informants, these translations for (f) are more natural than the word-for-word translation. This shows a difference in expressive style between Hindi and the other three dialects. Although this is a fascinating subject, it is beyond the scope of the present discussion. Upon careful examination, we see that the predicate verb of (f-1) consists of an imperfective participle and copula. The other two examples seem more interesting. The so-called experiencers in (f-2) and (f-3) are marked by *ke*, which apparently functions as a dative marker. In this case the predicates, or more accurately the complex predicates, with their conjunct verb (i.e., a noun) + DO, seem to operate semantically as intransitive verbs, since there is no object left in both sentences.

Example (g) below is another ergative construction in Hindi. The sentence means 'You started to eat bananas.' The difference between (g) and (c) is the gender of the objects. The object  $kel\bar{a}$  'banana' in (g) is masculine.

(g) āp ne kele khā-ne śurū kiye. you ERG banana.m.pl read.INF (m.pl) started do.PST.m.pl

'You started to eat bananas.'

<Bhojpuri>

raūä  $ka^{17}$ (g-1) kul kerawā khāē surū dehalī. you.HON give.PST. all (pl) banana eat.INF. started do HON obl

<Magahi>

(g-2) apne sab kela khānā surū kailakhīn. you.HON all (pl) banana eat.INF started do.PST.HON

<Maithili>

(g-3) ahi kera sabh khenāī prārambh kailahū. you.HON banana all (pl) eat.INF start do.PST.HON (noun) As in previous examples, the difference in noun genders does not result in a Hindi influence. As to plurality, the plural suffixes in Bhojpuri and Magahi again precede the nouns. The infinitive forms in Magahi and Maithili are once more replaced with the  $-n\bar{a}$  form and  $n\bar{a}\bar{\imath}$ , respectively. These may be proof that the infinitive forms derived from Hindi have deeply eroded the original infinitive forms in the three dialects.

Example (h) is a version of the dative subject construction in (e), with a past tense copula. The meaning is 'You should have threatened Ram.'

(h)	āр	ko	rām	ko	dhamkī	de-nī	cāhie	thī.
	you	DAT	Ram	DAT	threat. f.sg	give.INF (f.sg/pl)	should	COP. PST.f.sg

'You should have threatened Ram.'

### <Bhojpuri>

(h-1)	raūā you.HON	ke DAT	<i>rām</i> Ram	<i>ke</i> DAT	dhamakiyä-be threaten-INF	ke GEN	<i>cāhī-san</i> should-Non- HON
<mag< td=""><td>ahi&gt;</td><td></td><td></td><td></td><td></td><td></td><td></td></mag<>	ahi>						
(h-2)	<i>apane</i> you.HON	ke DAT	<i>rām</i> Ram	<i>ke</i> DAT	dhamakiyā-be threaten-INF	<i>ke</i> GEN	rahal. COP.PST
<mai< td=""><td>thili&gt;</td><td></td><td></td><td></td><td></td><td></td><td></td></mai<>	thili>						
(h-3)	ahā̃ you.HON	<i>ke</i> DAT	<i>rām</i> Ram	ke DAT	dhamakiyā-be threaten-INF	<i>ke</i> GEN	<i>cāhī.</i> should

Here we find the same features of dative subject constructions as seen in (e). A remarkable difference in these examples is the use of a complex predicate (CP). This is a productive pattern originating in Hindi: such a use is common to many, if not all, South Asian Languages spoken on the Indian subcontinent. Hindi uses two types of complex predicates: a conjunct verb construction and a compound verb construction. Conjunct verb constructions generally consist of a noun or adjective and a light verb such as  $karn\bar{a}$  'DO'. For example: madad (N)  $karn\bar{a}$  'to help (lit. help DO)' and  $s\bar{a}f$  (A)  $karn\bar{a}$  'to clean (lit. clean DO)'. A compound verb construction is made of a verb and a verb, for example:  $\bar{a}$   $j\bar{a}n\bar{a}$  'to come (lit. come GO)'. In addition to other influences, we find that Hindi has also influenced Bhojpuri, Magahi and Maithili in the domain of complex predicates. While a lexical verb  $dhamakiy\bar{a}$ -18 exists in the three dialects, they have begun to use the pattern of complex predicates, as illustrated by the alternative examples below:

### <Bhojpuri>

(h-1') raūā ke rām ke dhamaki de-be ke cāhī-san you.HON DAT Ram DAT threat give-INF **GEN** should-Non-HON

### <Magahi>

- (h-2') apane ke rām ke dhamaki de-be ke rahal. you.HON DAT Ram DAT give-INF threat COP.PST GEN <Maithili>
- (h-3') ahã ke ke rām dhamaki de-be ke cāhī. you.HON DAT Ram DAT threat give-INF **GEN** should

It is clear that the lexical verb  $dhamakiy\bar{a}$ -is replaced with the complex predicate,  $dhamak\bar{\imath}$  de. 'threat + GIVE'. These examples also raise a problem, in that very few details on the non-finite form (infinitive) -be are included in the current reference grammars.<sup>19</sup>

Our final example also features a complex predicate.

The Hindi sentence features the N+V complex predicate gussā karnā 'to become angry'.

(i) āp ne mujh par gussā kyō kiyā? you ERG I.obl LOC anger why do.PST.m.sg

'Why did you become angry with me?'

In the three dialects, the informants have once again used a lexical verb, *khisiā*- 'to become angry'.

# <Bhojpuri>

(i-1) raūā hamarā par kāhelā khisiāyal rahī? you.HON I.obl LOC why be angered. COP.PST.HON PFV.HON

# <Magahi>

(i-2)apne hamarā par kailā khisiailī? you.HON I.obl LOC why be angered. PST.HON khisiāyal gelai? be angered.HON go.PST.HON

### <Maithili>

(i-3) ahã hamarã par kiye khisiailaũ? you.HON I.obl LOC why be angered.PST.HON The predicate part of (i-1) is literally a perfective participle + copula, although the original Hindi is in simple past form. There seems to be a slight semantic difference between the simple past form and a perfective participle + copula, but we shall leave it aside for now. Upon closer inspection, we find that there are two types of this sentence given in Magahi. One is active, and the other is passive, consisting of a perfect participle<sup>20</sup> + the light verb 'GO', which is broadly observed in existing Indo-Aryan languages.

Predictably, the lexical verbs, in these examples *khisiā*-, can also be replaced with the CP pattern, as in *gussā karnā* in Hindi. Moreover, when using 'Hindi', speakers of those dialects tend to use *khis* (actually *khīs* in standard Hindi) instead of *gussā*, the Arabic word elsewhere used in the CP pattern.

## <Bhojpuri>

(i-1')						kayale	rahi?
	you.HON	I.obl	LOC	why	anger	do.PFV.HON	COP.PST.HON

## <Magahi>

(i-2')	apne	hamarā	par	kailā	khis	kiailī?
` '	you.HON	I.obl	ĹOC	why	anger	do.PST.HON
	,			•	khisiäyal	gelai?
					be angered.HON	go.PST.HON

### <Maithili>

(i-3')	ahã	hamarā	par	kiye	khis	kayelaũ?
	you.HON	I.obl	LOC	why	anger	do.PST.HON

As we mentioned above, the key point here is that Magahi informants have provided the passive pattern as well. In making a sentence passive in Hindi, the agent is essentially marked as instrumental, but in Magahi it still is marked as nominative. Looking back on Hindi, sometimes a CP consisting of N + DO, such as gussā karnā, can function as if it were intransitive semantically, even though it acts as a transitive morphosyntactically. It is possible that the passive construction is used to decrease arguments in the sentence, and thus might be a device for detransitivization.

### 4. CONCLUSION

Setting aside the lexical replacement that we glimpsed in the first section, and which occurs constantly in language contact and language change, we can summarize the features fully changed or currently changing in Bhojpuri, Magahi and Maithili, especially in contact with standard Hindi.

In terms of morphology, we observed a loss of the oblique form of the  $2^{nd}$  person pronoun  $ra\bar{u}\bar{a}$  in Bhojpuri in (d-1):  $raur\bar{a}$   $ke \rightarrow ra\bar{u}\bar{a}/rau\bar{a}$  ke. This may be proof that the complicated inflection is simplified into that found in Hindi, i.e.,  $\bar{a}p$  'you' vs.  $\bar{a}p$  ko 'you DAT'. In Magahi we found  $apan\bar{a}$ , a variant of the  $2^{nd}$  person pronoun apane. It is also remarkable that the infinitive forms of Na type feature in Magahi and Maithili. Although there had not been such forms as  $-n\bar{a}$  in Magahi and  $-n\bar{a}\bar{i}$  in Maihtili before, they are now found on occasion, as we have seen in examples such as  $padhal \rightarrow padhn\bar{a}$  in (a-2) and  $padhn\bar{a}\bar{i}$  in (a-3).

In regard to syntax, inversion has taken place in a noun phrase: Noun + sab 'all' added as a plural suffix, e.g.,  $kitabiy\bar{a}$  sab  $\rightarrow$  sab  $kitabiy\bar{a}$ , as in example (a). This word order, normally observed in Hindi, is now also found in Bhojpuri and Magahi, though not in Maithili.

Morpho-syntactically speaking, we have found that a Noun + Genitive suffix -ak/-k in Maithili has split into a Noun + Genitive marker ka. This might be due to the influence of Hindi. One more thing worthy of special notice is that a lexical verb has split into a conjunct verb, i.e., into Noun/Adjective+V, as seen in examples (h) and (h-1') or (i) and (i-1'). However, this may be a chicken-and-egg question, the answer to which would require that we examine a much larger volume of data. Still, both lexical verbs and conjunct verbs clearly coexist in the three dialects.

Regarding dative subject constructions, when the predicate is INF+be (COP) or a form pertaining to  $c\bar{a}hie$  in Hindi, the infinitive co-occurs with genitive marker ke in Bhojpuri and Magahi, or with the genitive suffix -ak in Maithili – something that never happens in Hindi. It would be fascinating to study this type of syntactic difference and its effects, as well as the seemingly new suffix -be that has appeared in a lexical verb vs. a conjunct verb, as in example (h). The scope of this paper has prevented us from doing so, but we believe these topics warrant additional research.

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### **ABBREAVIATIONS**

A: adjective; ACC: accusative; AUX: auxiliary; COP: copula; DAT: dative; ERG: ergative; f: feminine; GEN: genitive; HON: honorific; INF: infinitive; IPFV:

imperfective; m: masculine; N: noun; NEUT: neutral; obl: oblique; P.: participle; PFV: perfective; POL: polite; PRS: present; PST: past; pl: plural; sg: singular

#### NOTES

- \* Part of the findings of this paper has been presented at the 25th Annual Session of the Japanese Association for South Asian Studies held at Tokyo University of Foreign Studies (Tokyo), 6-7 October 2012.
- 1. The details of the informants are given in next section.
- 2. There are two  $2^{nd}$  person pronouns for the plural form in Hindi today. Following Tivārī (1966), Kālrā (1976: 152) pointed out that Hindi speakers used to employ only the  $t\bar{u}$  (sg.) vs. tum (pl.) forms for  $2^{nd}$  person, and started to use  $\bar{a}p$  as a new personal pronoun to address God during the Bhakti movement. Thus,  $\bar{a}p$  has since come to the fore to express higher honorificity than tum. The degree of honorificity in  $t\bar{u}$  (sg.) vs. tum (pl.) decreased accordingly. Such a phenomenon has also occurred in Japanese. Kisama, one of the  $2^{nd}$  personal pronouns, with the original meaning 'Mr. Noble (man)', had been used as a high honorific. Nowadays we normally use the pronoun only to address a very intimate person or a person whom we abuse. This is reminiscent of  $t\bar{u}$  in the modern Hindi. It may be said that the rise of the new personal pronoun  $\bar{a}p$  and corresponding decline in the honorificity of the existing personal pronouns reflects a universal phenomenon.
- 3. Provided by the Central Institute of Indian Languages (CIIL), Mysore.
- 4. Sometimes pronounced rauā.
- 5. Although Verma (2007: 508-9) said only that, 'there is also a reflexive pronoun apane "self" which is used for extra respect in second person', there is in fact another reflexive pronoun, apanā (or apnā), used as a lesser honorific than apane; that is, as a normal honorific pronoun.
- 6. Nouns and verbal nouns in Maithili are declined for cases.
- 7. See 'Maithili' in LIS.
- 8. The LIS gives this as an example of epenthesis.
- 9. What we call Standard Maithili in this paper is based on 'Maithili' in LIS.
- 10. The postposition ke can be replaced with la.
- 11. Kaināi is a corrupted form of karnāi. This embedded verbal noun phrase also consists of a Noun + Verbal noun.
- 12. See also (e-1) below.
- 13. S. Verma (2005: 508) calls this lā a benefactive postposition.
- 14. Whichever case marker the ke is used for in (d-1) and (d-2), these examples might tell us whether people who have such an 'operating system' can potentially output a sentence in standard Hindi, as below:
  - (d')  $\bar{a}p$  ko ye kit $\bar{a}b\bar{e}$  paṛh-ne kā thā. you DAT these book.f.pl read.INF (m.obl) GEN.m.sg COP.PST.m.sg
- 15. It could possibly be considered a kind of emphatic marker, as in the Japanese no-da [GEN-COP], which is used as a stance marker, the function of which is derived from the genitive marker no. For details, see Wrona (2012).
- 16. Maithili has 2 forms of genitive marker. One is  $\partial h$  (=-ah), for a noun phrase that ends in a consonant [-C#], and the allomorph is -k, for a noun phrase with a vowel ending [-V#]. (Yadav 2007: 485).

- 17. This is also a corrupted form of kar-'do'.
- 18. As we see in (h-1), (h-2), (h-3) and (h-1'), (h-2'), (h-3'), the same verbal forms dhamakiyā-be and dhamakiyā de-be are used in all three dialects, respectively, although reference grammars mention a different verbal form for each dialect. This may indicate a process of language convergence. As two or more languages or dialects are exposed to frequent contact, they often develop similarities or even converge to a new language/dialect. Since Bhojpuri, Magahi and Maithili already have numerous affinities to each other originally, they have potential for language convergence. This possibility requires detailed study.
- 19. S. Verma (2007: 510) has stated regarding non-finite (infinitive) forms in Magahi, 'In fact, there is a fourth one in [-b], as in /u sut-b-e kari/ literally "He will certainly do the sleeping". Even though it is slightly limited in distribution (occurring only as a complex stem with the light verb /kar/ and only in the emphatic form with the emphatic suffix /-e/), this nevertheless completes the picture.'
- 20. Some grammarians prefer to call them perfective participle or past participle.
- 21. The evidence here is that the subject, that is, the agent, will take the ergative when it is in the past tense.

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