INTRODUCTION
1.1. Aim and its justification: The thesis aims at a descriptive study of the Bengali compounds. The justification of undertaking the project is that compounds of Bengali have not attracted any serious attention of any scholar. Chatterji (1926, '39, '71), who is noted for his ingenious efforts and devotion towards Bengali, failed to provide any new insight in respect of Bengali compounds both from historical and descriptive points of view. In recent times a band of scholars have been working assiduously on the different aspects of Bengali structure. Chief among them are Bykova (1960, '61, '64, '71, '81), Ferguson (1945, '60, '62, '64, '66), Dimock (1960), Dimock et al. (1964), Nara (1972, '75), Chatterjee (1962, '63, '70, '80, '81), Basu (1971, '74, '79). Lamentably, however, none has so far paid any heed, worth the name, to studying the compounds of Bengali. The present researcher, therefore, thought it befitting to endeavour to study the phenomenon in question.

1.2. Tatsama and non-tatsama compounds: Both from the point of views of lexical materials of compounds and the way they are compounded Bengali compounds can be brought under two broad categories. These are;
(1) tatsama

(ii) non-tatsama

Tatsama compounds occur very frequently in literary compositions, scripted speech, platform oratory as well as mass media like radio, television, newspapers. The frequency of use of tatsama compounds in each of the above domains is not known because no such studies have so far been undertaken. Anyway, it is safe to observe that in the day-to-day conversational Bengali tatsama compounds are less frequent than non-tatsama ones.

1.3. The way of description of compounds: The tatsama and non-tatsama compounds have been treated in separate chapters: tatsama in chapter 3 and non-tatsama in chapter 4 (Copulative compounds), 5 (Determinative compounds) and 6 (Bahuvrthi compounds). Each of the chapters 3, 4, 5 and 6 is provided with an appendix of representative samples of compounds discussed in the respective chapter. The studies on Bengali compounds in traditional grammars have been evaluated in chapter 2. Generally Bengali grammars are written only for the school children keeping in view the syllabus of school curriculum. These grammar hand-books, meant for school children, are written following the same model, and generally they do not
differ from each other in any respect. This statement is also true in respect of the treatment of compounds. To give an exhaustive list of these grammars is not possible and also not necessary for this thesis. Adhunik Bāṅglā Vyākarana by Sri Jagadish Chandra Ghosh (1960) is taught in most of the schools of West Bengal. Thus, this book has been considered as the standard representative of all other grammar hand-books. Quite a few of the current grammar hand-books have been studied thoroughly for the purpose of this thesis but generally references and illustrations have been quoted from Ghosh's book. Some references and illustrations from other books have also been given wherever necessary.

The scope of chapters 2 and 3 should be clearly understood. In chapter 2 we attempted to show how Bengali compounds were treated by the traditional grammarians according to the model of Sanskrit grammar. In doing this we were, first of all, required to give a short description of Sanskritic compounds made by the Sanskrit grammarians. Secondly, in the background of the above we marshalled facts from native Bengali to demonstrate how inadequately Bengali grammarians brought to bear upon Bengali the Sanskrit frame of reference. Chapter 3 deals with the compounds which are formed of tatsama elements either according to Sanskritic rules or of Bengali rules of compounding. The latter types of rules have been given prior importance.
Chapter 7 has been reserved for the hybrid compounds. These compounds are formed of two types of lexical elements, i.e. tatsama and non-tatsama according to the Sanskritic model.

Chapter 8 treats the type of words which are termed generally as yogma-sabda 'conjunct words'. Superficially they look like compounds but strictly speaking they do not bear the characteristics of compounds.

1.4. Productive and non-productive compounds: Both tatsama and non-tatsama compounds have been further sub-divided into productive and non-productive classes. As the name implies the productive compounds are unlimited in number and these are formed following a set of limited rules. Two types of productive rules will be given:

(i) the rules according to which any two semantically combinable words may form a compound.

(ii) the rules following which only a restricted number of words may be compounded with an unrestricted set of words. Non-productive compounds form a close list, the members of which, however, are not very few. The types of compounds have been listed.

1.5. Characteristics of compounds in general: Compounding is one of the ways of forming new words and, therefore,
constitute an important aspect of structure of a language. The phenomenon of compound has been studied by different linguists. Among them the names of Bloomfield (1935), Jespersen (1974), Bloch and Trager (1942), Lees (1966), Sweet (1892), Ball (1939), Marchand (1957), Hockett (1963), are worthy of being mentioned. All scholars agree in holding that a compound is a kind of word which is the combination of at least two lexical items. The chief criterion which differentiates a compound from a phrase varies from language to language. In this respect we may quote from Bloch and Trager (1942). The difference between a compound and a phrase (a syntactic construction involving two or more free forms) must be determined separately for each language; if no formal characteristics can be discovered for distinguishing between them, then the language has no compounds' (page 66).

Two peculiarities of compounds emerge from the above:

(i) compounds can be universally defined as combination of at least two lexical items.

(ii) the particular rules of combinations are language specific phenomena.

The definition of Bloch and Trager, however, fails to note the salient peculiarity of compounds that the lexical
items from which the compounds are formed possess a definable set of grammatical relationships but these relationships can not be understood from the surface structure. We find an implicit recognition of this fact in Jespersen (1974) when he says, "compounds express a relation between two objects or notions, but say nothing of the way in which the relation is to be understood" (page 137). That the relationships between the compounded lexical items can never be understood from the surface structure can be easily attested if we consider the following illustrations from Bengali:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Compound</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Alarm-ghori</td>
<td>alarm clock</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Taq-ghori</td>
<td>watch kept in the waist</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. biram-ghori</td>
<td>stop watch</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. deal-ghori</td>
<td>wall clock</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Surjo-ghori</td>
<td>sun dial</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. hat-ghori</td>
<td>wrist watch</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. pOkeT-ghori</td>
<td>pocket watch</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Tebil-ghori</td>
<td>table clock</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. peTa-ghori</td>
<td>lit. the bell which is struck for indicating the hour.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>fig. gong</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
All the nine compounds are apparently similar as each of them consists of the word /ghoRi/ 'watch' as the last component. Underlying their apparent identity there is a deeper difference among them. Apparent similarity does not help us to understand the semantic relationship between the first component and the last component of these nine compounds. The compounds 2, 4, 6, 7, 8 are almost of the same type as the first component in each represents the locative case whereas /ghoRi/, the second represents the patient case. Let us consider the following sentences which may be considered as sources of these.

(1) Sentence: /ei ghoRi TAke rakha hOe/
'this watch is kept in the waist'

(meaning of the individual words: (1) 'this',
(2) 'watch', (3) 'in the waist', (4) 'kept', (5) 'is')

Compound 2: /TAk-ghoRi/
'the watch kept in the waist'

(11) Sentence: /ei ghoRi deale TaNano hOe/
'this clock is hung in the wall'

(meaning of the individual words: (1) 'this',
(2) 'watch', (3) 'in the wall', (4) 'hung', (5) 'is')

Compound 4: /deal-ghoRi/
'wall clock'
But compounds 1, 3, 5 and 9 are different from above ones. Each one of these represents a different type as each shows between
its components a type of relationship which is peculiar to itself. The underlying sentences of these four compounds are given below:

(1) Sentence: /ei ghoRite Alarm deoa hOe/
   'this watch has alarm system'
   (meaning of the individual words: (1) 'this', (2) 'in the watch', (3) 'alarm', (4) 'given', (5) 'is')

Compound 1: /Alarm-ghoRi/
   'alarm clock'

(1) (2) (3) (4)

(ii) Sentence: /ei ghoRi biram janae/
   'this watch indicates to stop'
   (meaning of the individual words: (1) 'this', (2) 'watch', (3) 'stop', (4) 'informs')

Compound 3: /biram-ghoRi/
   'stop-watch'

(1) (2) (3) (4) (5) (6)

(iii) Sentence: /ei ghoRi Surjer opor nirbhOr kOre/
   'this watch depends on the sun'
   (meaning of the individual words: (1) 'this', (2) 'watch', (3) 'of the sun', (4) 'on', (5) 'depend', (6) 'does')

Compound 5: /Surjo-ghoRi/
   'sun dial'
The above illustrations will easily convince one that relationship between the two components of a compound is not understood unless we look at the underlying sentence of which the compound is a transformed version.

If we look only at the surface structure of compounds the ambiguity in them can not be resolved unless we look at the deep structure of these. Let us consider an illustration. In Bengali we have a compound /chele-dhora/. The compound is an ambiguous construction since it conveys two different meanings. The meanings are:

(i) child lifter

(ii) act of looking after the child

To account for the difference of meaning we must look deep into the underlying structure. These structures are:
Sentence 1: /ei lokti chele dhore/
'this person catches the child'

(meaning of the individual words: (1) 'this', (2) 'the person', (3) 'child', (4) 'catches')

Compound: /chele-dhore/
'child lifter'

Sentence 2: /ei kajti chele(ke) dhora/
'this work is to look after the child'

(meaning of the individual words: (1) 'this', (2) 'the work', (3) 'child', the suffix /-ke/ is optional, (4) 'looking after')

Compound: /chele-dhore/
'looking after a child'

From the above discussion it will be clear that a compound is a transformed version of a sentence of which at least two words are juxtaposed in such a way that their semantic relationships are never understood from the surface structure. This juxtaposed form is always treated as equivalent to a single word morphologically and syntactically.

In the modern world of scholarship perhaps the name of Lees (1966) should be counted at first who noticed that
underlying the surface structure there exists always a sentence. But it should, however, be pointed out that underlying the surface structure of a compound there is always a sentence was noticed by the Sanskrit grammarians and that is why for explaining the meaning of compounds they quoted a set of sentences called vyāsa-vākya which exhibited the relationships of the lexical elements forming the different compounds. In Bengali grammars this terminology vyāsa-vākya is used. In this dissertation both the terms, i.e. vyāsa-vākya and underlying sentence have been used interchangeably.

It is not that all the sentences are transformed into compounds. There are limitations. The types of sentences that undergo such transformations are limited in every language. Again neither are we able to form new compounds whenever necessary nor are we in a position to understand the meaning of new compounds irrespective of the context, unless (i) we know what are the processes of transformation that the underlying sentences have undergone and, (ii) what types of sentences may be transformed into compounds.

In other words sentences are transformed into compounds following some limited transformational rules. These rules are fixed and form a major part in the structure of a language. Any two components of a sentence taken at random can not form
a compound. In order to form compounds they must display certain fixed types of relationships and not others. To list the relationships of the compounds and to formulate the transformational rules is to give the whole compounding system of a language.

In this dissertation I endeavour to give the list of the types of matrix sentences the elements of which are in such fixed relationship as are amenable to the transformational rules yielding an unlimited number of compounds.

1.6. **Characteristics of Bengali compounds:** It has been stated in the previous section that the characteristics which differentiate compounds from combinations of lexical elements differ from language to language. In Bengali, compounds differ from mere combination of lexical items in two different ways:

1. **loss of markers of lexical elements forming compounds.**

2. **loss of juncture between two lexical elements.**

The first can be divided under two sub-types:

1. loss of case suffix
2. loss of post-position.
1.6.1. Loss of markers: We may illustrate the loss of markers in forming compounds with two examples,

(1) **loss of case suffix:**

**Combination of lexical elements:**

(1) (2) /rate kana/

'bland in the night'

(meaning of the individual words: (1) 'in the night', (2) 'bland')

**Compound:** /rat-kana/

The case marker /-e/ of /rate/ 'in the night' is lost in the compounded form as we have the stem /rat/ 'night' as the first component of the compound.

(2) **loss of post-position:**

**Combination of lexical elements:**

(1) (2) (3) /bilet theke pherot/

'returned from England'

(meaning of the individual words: (1) 'England', (2) 'from', (3) 'returned')

**Compound:** /bilet-pherot/

The case marker /theke/ 'from' is deleted in the compounded form.
1.6.2. **Loss of juncture:** Loss of word juncture between two stressed lexical elements is characterized by making the last word unstressed and specifying the meaning of the first word. An illustration is given to exemplify the statement.

Combination of lexical elements:

/bORo + lok/

/bORo/ means 'big' or 'great' and /lok/ means 'man'. The combination of two stressed lexical elements with a word juncture between them means either 'a big man' or 'a great man'. But when the word juncture is lost we find:

Compound: /bORo-lok/

The meaning of the compound is 'rich man'. Semantic change of the word /bORo/ in compounded form is due to loss of juncture.

1.7. **Classification:** Compounds may be classified into different categories and sub-categories from different points of view. It is difficult to find out a satisfactory classification which will fit all the compounds of all the languages. To speak about the different types of compounds, one should observe that scholars of different languages have classified compounds according to their own views which are not same as of the others. They differ from each other on two counts:

(1) the ways of compounding in different languages
However, it is pertinent to point out here that Bloomfield (1935) who took note of these diverse anomalies regarding the classification of compounds remarked, "Linguists often make the mistake of taking for granted the universal existence of whatever types of compound words are current in their own language. It is true that the main types of compound words in various languages are somewhat similar, but this similarity is worthy of notice; moreover, the details, and especially the restrictions, vary in different languages. The differences are great enough to prevent our setting up any scheme of classification that would fit all languages" (page 233), and consequently invented two lines of classification which he claimed to be often useful to categorize the compounds universally. These two lines are:

(1) the relation of members

(11) the relation of the compound as a whole to its members

(1) According to the relation of members he classified compounds into two groups with a sub-group between them. These are:

1) syntactic

2) asyntactic
3) semi-syntactic, a sub-group between these two extreme groups.

Syntactic compounds are those whose members are in such a grammatical relation what is similarly found in a phrase. To exemplify this type of compounds Bloomfield (1935) has taken instances of two compounds. These are 'blackbird' and 'whitecap' because these show the construction of adjective and noun what is found in the phrases like 'black bird' and 'white cap'. In asyntactic compounds the components do not show the grammatical relationship which may be expressed in the combination of words occurring in a phrase. For example Bloomfield (1935) showed the compound 'door-knob'; 'whose members stand to each other in a construction that is not paralleled in the syntax of their language - for English has no such phrase type as *door-knob'.

"The relation of the members of semi-syntactic compounds parallels some syntactic construction but shows more than the deviation from the phrase" Bloomfield, (1935) page 284. For example, 'to housekeep' because it is just the reverse of the phrase 'keep house'.

(ii) Following the relation of the compound as a whole to its members compounds may be divided into two categories:

(1) endocentric
(2) exocentric
In endocentric group one of the components may stand for the whole compound. 'Blackbird' is an example of this type of compound exemplified by Bloomfield (1935).

None of the components may be substituted for the whole compound in exocentric compounds. The examples of this kind are 'gadabout', 'turnkey' etc., since "the head member is an infinitive verb, but the compound is a noun".

We have adopted the terms syntactic, asyntactic, semi-syntactic, endocentric, exocentric as given by Bloomfield and the concepts underlying them for sub-categorization the Bengali compounds.

1.7.1. Classification of Bengali compounds: In this thesis we have classified Bengali compounds into two broad categories following the nature of the formation of compounds:

(1) tatsama compounds

(11) non-tatsama compounds.

In sub-classifying tatsama compounds and non-tatsama ones the principle of classification of Sanskrit grammarians have been adopted. The principle of Sanskrit grammarians rests upon taking into account the semantic import of the constituents of compounds. Following this principle we have classified Bengali
compounds under three broad categories:

(i) **Copulative** - where all the components are equal in status from the semantic point of view. Copulative compound was called *dvandva*, literally 'a pair' in Sanskrit. Western scholars renamed Sanskritic *dvandva* compounds as Copulative compounds. In this dissertation both the terms have been interchangably used.

(ii) **Determinative** - where the last members are more important than the first ones from the semantic point of view. The first ones act always as modifiers of the second ones.

(iii) **Bahuvr̥thi** - where all the components of which qualify or modify the meaning of something or someone else other than the meaning of the individual components. Bahuvr̥thi is itself a Sanskrit example of this type of compounds («bahu» 'much', «vr̥thi» 'rice'). It means 'one who possesses much rice'. The compound does not means either 'rice' or 'much' but refers to one who possesses rice abundantly.

The Sanskrit name bahuvr̥thi is universally accepted to indicate the compounds of exocentric
nature. This term will be used in this dissertation to indicate such exocentric compounds.

1.8. Utility of the thesis: The thesis will help understanding (i) the nature of the formation of Bengali compounds and (ii) the difference in stylistic usages in literary and colloquial levels of Bengali in respect of use of compounds. Moreover, it will provide us with the materials for studying the typological characteristics of modern Indo-Aryan languages of which Bengali is one. It would further contribute to the teaching of Bengali compounds to the non-native learners and also will have at least an indirect bearing on Bengali lexicography.

1.9. Information: Finally, it should be stated that I used myself as an informant since I am a native speaker of standard colloquial Bengali. For verification of data, I however, consulted other native speakers of the language and also the existing dictionaries. It seems relevant to mention in this connection that the prevalent Bengali grammars were not as helpful as they were expected to be.