15.00 Verb Phrase

Verbs function as the nucleus of verb phrases which function as predicates of favourite sentences pertaining to one of the three categories --- statement, interrogative and imperative of non-equational type. 'A verb phrase consists of a verb plus any of the stuff that may go with verbs in the various patterns'\(^1\) ---- direct object, indirect object, quantifier, complement, adjective, adverb, auxiliary and modal. All of these features makeup the verb phrase of a non-equational sentence in the Barpeta dialect. The features can be applied to any of the predicate patterns to produce sentences. Some examples are given below:

(1) /xi mok eta sata disil/ (dr.object, he me one umbrella gave indr.Object,Q)

NP  indr.O  Q  VP  dr.o  V

(2) /ami ramok xvpbapotl patim/ (com)

we  Ram president will made

NP  O  VP  com  V

All of the examples above are of verb phrases as predicates of the non-equational sentences. They are marked by the appropriate categories.
In an equational sentence a verb-phrase is constructed with at least one complement or adjective or adverb or with various elements — quantifier, noun, adjective and adverb. The verbal head is absent in such a sentence. Some examples are cited below.

(1) /ram dokpni/
     ________
    Ram   shop-keeper
     ______
    NP    Com. VP

(2) /Hori saro
     ______
    Hori   tall
     ______
    NP     VP Aj

(3) /mci ete
     ______
    I      here
     ______
    NP     VP Adv.

(4) /ram eta abra/
     ________
    Ram   a fool
     ______
    NP    Q VP Aj

(5) /Hira eta soli/
     ________
    Hira   a boy
     ______
    NP    Q VP N
There can be more than one adverb in a verb phrase; e.g.

(1) /Hari /ste sklai thake/

Hari here alone lives

(2) /mɔi ghɔroko xɔlkante zam/

mɔi home Soon shall go

There can be more than one adverb in a verb phrase; e.g.

(6) /Bina thoga api/

Bina beautiful girl

(7) /mastu mbstɔ danar /

the fish very big

(8) /Ram eʃa mbstɔ bõdmas soli/

Ram a very wicked boy
In the first sentence the words 'ète' and 'èklai' are adverbs whereas in the second sentence 'ghorok' and 'xolkante' are adverbs. They occur before verbs.

15.01 Modifiers in verb phrases.

In the Barpeta dialect quantifiers, nouns, adjectives and adverbs can modify verbs within verb phrases in nonequational sentences. All the modifiers precede the modifying verbs.

15.01.1. Quantifiers as modifiers

A quantifier can modify verb; e.g.

/mɔi  duta Khaisū/

\[ \text{I two have eaten} \]

In the sentence above the word 'duta' is modifier. It modify the verb 'khaisū'.

15.01.2. Nouns as modifiers

Nouns occur as modifiers when they modify verbs as objects or complements within the verb phrases. Here are examples,
In the above three sentences the words 'takkitaP' and 'xnabhapoti' are noun modifiers. They function as indr. object, dr. object and complement. They modify the verbs 'dekhsilu', 'disil' and 'Patlu' respectively within the verb phrases.

15.01.3. Adjectives as modifiers

Adjectives can occur as modifiers of verbs within verb phrases, e.g.

(1) / Solitu
the boy
bhal
good
asil/
was
T
V
j
In the sentences above the words 'bhal' and 'Xundhr' are adjective modifiers. They modify the verbs 'asil' and 'gae'.

15.01.4. Adverbs as modifiers

Adverbs in the Barpeta dialect are a common feature in Verb phrases. There are several types of adverbs — adverbs of place, adverbs of time, adverbs of manner and so on. Adverbs may occur as modifiers. They precede the modifying verbs; e.g.

(1) /ram ghorok gel/

(2) /moi ethene zam/
The modifiers adverbs can also follow the modifying verbs when the stress is given on the verb; e.g.

(1) /tʃi za x̂ikante/  
| np | v | np | v | adv. |

(2) /xi ahe nite/  
| np | v | np | v | adv. |

In the examples above the words 'x̂ikante' and 'nite' are adverb modifiers. They modify the verbs 'za' and 'ahe' respectively within the verb phrases.

15.01.5 Subordinate or dependent clauses as modifiers.

Another structure that can occur in a verb phrase is called subordinate clause\(^1\). A subordinate or dependent clause may follow the Principal or independent clause when

---

the Principal clause is an emphatic constituent, subordinate clauses usually function as modifiers\(^1\) of verbs. Some examples are given below.

1. I know he where lives

   Principal cl. Subordinate Clause

2. (you) like (you) do as

   Principal cl. Subordinate cl.

3. you(inf) here stay I return untill

   Principal cl. Subordinate cl.

In the sentences mentioned above the subordinate clauses modify the verbs 'zanu', 'k\(\ddot{a}\)r', and 'thak' respectively of the Principal clauses.

16.00 Clause types.

'Clauses are sentences that are part of larger sentences\(^2\) postulated for the Barpeta Dialect. These two

larger sentences illustrate two different ways in which sentences may be joined together. In the first they are simply linked by the structural words. Both of them are equal and independent. This type of clauses are known as independent or co-ordinate or principal clauses which are referred to day as 'conjoining' e.g.

(1) /māi anīm a ra raori zabo/

I shall come and Hari will go

independent cl. independent cl.

Structural word

(2) /ram gel kint u xi negpl/

Ram left but he didn't go

independent cl. independent cl.

Structural word

In the above examples the independent clauses linked up by the Structural words to form larger sentences. The verbs are in finit forms. It is a linguistic feature of the elements that verbs of different independent clauses in a single sentence are always in the finite forms. The second way is one in which one clause is grammatically dependent on the other. It is called dependent or subordinate clause. A term
used for this to day is 'embedding'. It may or may not be linked by subordinators. It does not have the full grammatical status of a sentence.

The term clause is one of the ranks of grammar, lying between sentence and group. It is a constituent part of a sentence, and is composed of at least one subject and one predicate. Subject is a noun phrase whereas predicate is a verb phrase.

According to the functions dependent clause are classified into three types - noun clause, adjective clause and adverb clause.

16.01 Noun clause.

Noun clause in the Barpeta dialect may function as subject or object or complement.

As subject -

(1) /ram ze aihbho moi zanu/
Ram that will come I know

In the sentences mentioned above dependent clauses are subjects of the verbs 'zanu' and 'zane' respectively of the independent clauses.

As object—

(1) /tozze okhukh hoisil moi zanu/

you(inf) that ill were I know

dependent cl. independent cl.

(2) /xi ze maŋso nakhoi mai zane/

he that meat doesnot eat mother knows

dependent cl. independent cl.

In the above two sentences the dependent clauses function as objects of the verbs 'zanu' and 'zane' respectively of the independent clauses.
As complements

(1) /ram arɔ hɔri ze bhaŋk eikɔtha
  Ram and Hari that brothers this matter
  dependent cl.

tɔi kɛnke zanli/
you(inf) how knew
  independent cl.

(2) /xi ze daktɔr itu bissas nohoi/
  he that doctor this confidence not
  dependent cl. independent cl.

In the above two examples the dependent clauses function as complements of 'eikɔtha' and 'itu' respectively of the independent clauses.

16.02 Adjective clause

Adjective clauses are introduced when dependent clauses function as adjectives of any word of the independent clauses; e.g.

(1) /zuni misa mate xie sur/
  who lies tells he alone thief
  dependent cl. independent cl.
in the sentences above the dependent clauses function as adjectives of the words 'Xie' and 'xi' respectively of the independent clauses.

16.03 Adverb clause

'Adverb clauses are classified according to the adverbial meaning which they express. This get adverbial clauses of time, place, manner, instrument, reason and so on, e.g.

16.03.1 Adverbs of time ----

(1) /ram  zethan  ahe  moi  xui asu/
    Ram when comes | I sleeping
    dependent cl.   independent cl.

(2) /moi  ahar  agote  xi  gel
   I come before | he left
   dependent cl.   independent cl.

In the examples above the dependent clauses function as adverbs of time. They modify the verbs 'xui asū' and 'gel' respectively of the independent clauses.

16.03.2 Adverbs of place-

(1) /zote asa tote thak/
where (you)are there stay

dependent cl. independent cl.

(2) /thene ghorot bhoridilū thene
when in to the house (I)went then

dependent cl.

gali xunlu/
abuse words (I)heard

Here the dependent clauses function as adverbs of place, They modify the verbs 'thak' and 'xunlu' respectively of the independent clauses.
16.03.3 Adverbs of manner -

(1) /xi eklai aifili moi nazerj/
he alone ifcomes I shallnot go
dependent cl. independent cl.

(2) /ram xalkante aifili moi zaba parũ/
Ram soon ifcomes I go can
dependent cl. independent cl.

In the sentences above the dependent clauses function as adverbs of manner because they modify the verbs 'nazerj' and 'zaba parũ' respectively of the independent clauses.

16.03.4 Adverbs of instrument

(1) /xi sokhuidi nsdkhe boli moi zanu/
he 'with the dose not that I know
dependent cl. independent cl.

(2) /suttu ze zakhlaidi uthsil rame dekhapaise/
the thief that by the ladder climed Ram has seen
dependent cl. independent cl.
Here the dependent clauses function as adverbs of instrument. They modify the verbs 'zanu' and 'dekha paise' of the independent clauses.

16.03.5 Adverbs of reason

(1) /tar ga boia kunti xi naṅhil/

he not well because he did not come

dependent cl. independent cl.

(2) /toi ze aṅhāsa moī bhal paisū/

You(inf) that have come I happy

dependent cl. independent cl.

In the sentences mentioned above the dependent clauses function as adverbs of reason. They modify the verbs 'naṅhil' and 'bhal paisū' respectively of the independent clauses.

17.00 Sentence types

At the grammatical level the unit sentence has been given the status of the highest unit in the hierarchical scale of units postulated for the Barpeta dialect. The highest grammatical unit exhibit definite grammatical and phonological properties. 'The sentence can be phonologically
defined as a stretch of pitch that may be uttered with a complete intonation tune, preceded and followed by silence\(^1\). In this context it must be pointed out that independent sentence linked up by various grammatical elements are characterised by a sequence of phonological tunes. Thus one sentence having the same words and the same grammatical elements may be characterised by different tunes.

17.01 Classification of sentences according to syntactic structure:

Sentences in the Barpeta dialect can broadly be classified into two groups - (a) the favorite and (b) the non-favorite\(^2\). The favorite group exhibit basic syntactic structure which are lacking in the non-favorite group. It is noticed that the favorite sentence in the minimal form permits a subject-predicate division, and a large number of sentences are expansions of this minimal form. The non-favorite group comprises exclamtion and elliptical\(^3\).

17.02 Classification of sentences according to presence or absence of verb.

The favorite group can be equational or non-equational. In an equational sentence the verb phrase does

2. idid : ibid P.176.
3. ibid : ibid PP.176-177.
not have the verbal head; for instance in the sentence
/ram khob bhal/'Ram is very good' the verbal head is absent
within the verb phrase on the other hand, in a non-equational
sentence the verb phrase has obligatorily a verbal head; for
instance in the sentence /mɔi bhat khaũ/'I eat rice', the
word 'khaũ' functions as verbal head within the verb phrase.

17.03 Classification of sentences according to speaker-hearer relation.

In terms of speaker-hearer relation the favorite
sentences can be classified into three types—(1)
Statement, (2) Interrogative and (3) Imperative.

In a statement type of utterance the speaker does
not necessarily anticipate any verbal or non-verbal response
from the hearer. But one or both the responses may be there.

The interrogative type anticipates verbal response
from the hearer. This may or may not be accompanied by non-
verbal response.

The imperative type anticipates non-verbal response
mainly. This may or may not be accompanied by verbal response.
17.03.1 The statement.

The statement type again can be either affirmative or negative. The affirmative type may be equational or non-equational. Negation can be effected by Prefixation of the negative morphemes or by suffixation of the negative particles. In certain cases negativisation is formed by using irregular negative forms. They have been discussed in details in the chapters 11.06, 11.07 and 13.04.

17.03.2 The Interogative.

According to the type of answer the interogative type may broadly be classified into three major classes\(^1\)--(1) yes-no questions, (2) k- questions and (3) Alternative questions.

Yes-no questions--

Yes-no questions can be responded to by the word yes and no. Such interogatives are formed by suffixing the interogative morpheme to the main verb in the finite form or to a helping verb in the finite form; e.g.

\[
\text{/toi zabi na/}
\text{you(inf)willgo ?}
\]

Greenbaum, Sidney,
k-questions-

k-question is characterised by the presence of at least one question forming k-word like /kuni/, /kar/ 'whose', /kok/ 'where', /kie/ 'how', /ki/'what' etc. In the Barpeta dialect a k-question word does not occupy the fixed position. Its presence is enough to signal the interrogative aspect of the sentence; e.g.

/kuni/ aihe/ ----> /aihe kuni/
who has come

/kar/ api/ ----> /api kar/
whose girl

/kok/ za/ ----> /za kok/
where go

/kivar/ ----> /ivar ki/
what price

Alternative questions ---

In terms of response alternative question is characterised by the k-question and the yes/no question; e.g.
The second type of alternative question is a compound of two separate questions—a k-question and an elliptical alternative question of the first type. In the above examples alternative questions are formed by using the word 'na'. 'na' can not be affixed to the word. In can be used as a free morpheme.

The difference between alternative and yes/no question is to be found in the following responses; e.g.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Questions</th>
<th>Responses</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(1) /təi saḥ na gakhir khabi/</td>
<td>/nakhan/(yes/no)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>you(inf.) tea or milk will take</td>
<td>nothing.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(2) /təi saḥ na gakhir khabi/</td>
<td>/gakhir khām/(alternative)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I will take milk.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The yes/no question can again be classified as belonging to three types (1) Negative questions, (2) Tag questions and (3) Declarative questions.
Negative questions---

Negative question conveys the notion of surprise or disbelief which adds implications of positive meaning. Negative questions are formed by using the interrogative particles 'naki' and 'na' after negative forms. It can be formed by Prefixing 'na' to the irregular verb form 'as'; e.g.

(1) /tor kapur nai naki/ (is it really true that he has no dress?)
   you(inf) dress have no ?

(2) /mok alpp taka diba npra na/ is it really true that he can't help me ?
   me alittle money give can't ?

(3) /ram tate nase/ (is it really true that ram is not there?)
   Ram there is not ?

In the sentences above there is a combining of a positive and a negative attitude. positive is indentified with the speaker's hopes or wishes whereas negative often express disapointment or annoyance¹.

Negative question can be formed phonologically. The tonic syllable is articulated with a rising pitch; e.g.

¹. Quirk. Randolf, :'A University Grammar of English' P.193.
Greenbaum. sidney.
Tag questions---

Tag question involves a statement and a question; each of them asserts something then invites the listener's response to it\(^1\). This type of sentence has a positive and a negative orientation respectively. Tag question is formed by using the interrogative word '\(\text{na}\)' after '\(\text{hōi}\)' or '\(\text{nōhōi}\)' . It may be either positive or negative; e.g.

/\(\text{xī za 'nasil/}\)\(\text{he go didnot}\)

/khabak login eko'nai/\(\text{to eat nothing}\)

\(\text{Tag questions---}\)

\(\text{Tag question involves a statement and a question; each of them asserts something then invites the listener's response to it}^{1}\). This type of sentence has a positive and a negative orientation respectively. Tag question is formed by using the interrogative word '\(\text{na}\)' after '\(\text{hōi}\)' or '\(\text{nōhōi}\)' . It may be either positive or negative; e.g.

/\(\text{xī ghorok geisil, hōina / (he went home; am 9 right?)}\)
\(\text{he home went is it}\)

/\(\text{xī ghorok geisil nōhōina / (he went home; am 9 not right?)}\)
\(\text{he home went is n't}\)

/\(\text{xī za nasil, hōi na / (he didnot go; am 9 right?)}\)
\(\text{he go didnot is it}\)

/\(\text{xī za nasil, nōhōina / (he did not go; am 9 not right?)}\)
\(\text{he go didn't is n't}\)

\(1.\ \text{Quirk. Randolf, : 'A university Grammar of English', P.193}\)

\(\text{Greenbaum. Sidney.}\)
Tag question can be formed phonologically. The nuclear tone occurs on the word 'nohōi'. The pitch rises on the tonic syllable; e.g.

\[
\begin{array}{c}
\text{/xi geisil } \quad \text{nohōi/} \\
\text{he went is n't}
\end{array}
\]

\[
\begin{array}{c}
\text{/ram zanasil } \quad \text{nohōi/} \\
\text{Ram go didn't is n't}
\end{array}
\]

Declarative questions ----

Declarative question is identical in form to a statement. It is formed phonologically. Declarative question is characterised by a rising tone; e.g.

\[
\begin{array}{c}
\text{/ram 'gel/} \\
\text{Ram did go}
\end{array}
\]

\[
\begin{array}{c}
\text{/xi bazarok 'zabo/} \\
\text{he to the market will go}
\end{array}
\]

17.03.3 The Imperative Sentence ----

The imperative type is always addressed to the second person. So the subject of an imperative sentence necessarily belongs to the second person category; e.g.

   Greenbaum, sidney.
In the Barpeta dialect the imperative notion can also be conveyed to the third person subject through the second person i.e. the hearer. Such sentences are characterized by a specific inflection of the verb; e.g.

/tei ghorok za/
you (inf.) home go

/tumi kamtu korba/
you (pol.) the work do

/apni kali aifbho/
you (hon.) to-morrow come

In the sentences above 'koroj' and 'bofipk' are not a regular member of the paradigm of the verb 'kor' to do 'bof' to sit.

The imperative sentences donot have the subject always; e.g.

/za/
(you, inf.) go
/£te aň/  
________  
here (you inf.)come  

Negative imperative ----

To negate second and third person imperatives, 'nď' is prefixed to the verb; e.g.

/kotha nokobi/  (2nd per. inf.)
talk don't

/misa namatpa/  (2nd per. pol.)
lie don't tell

/saň nakhâbok/  (2nd per. hon.)
tea don't take

/xi kamtu korba nalge/  (3rd per.)
let him the work to do not

17.04 classification of non-favorite group.

17.04.1 Exclamation------

One sentence type of non-favorite group which requires separate statement is the exclamation type. Exclamation utterances are situational on which surprise is an important element. 'The utterances are not directed to a
listener— even to the speaker himself as a hearer. It can be called non-communicative, e.g.

\[ /kize \quad xundur \quad sobi/ \]

what beautiful scenery

\[ /hai \quad mor \quad pura \quad kapal/ \]

ah my woe

17.04.2 Elliptical or incomplete sentence---

Another sentence type of non-favorite group is the elliptical, or incomplete sentence. It is one-word-sentence. It does not permit subject-predicate division because it is incomplete. But it is a full sentence in deep structure. An elliptical sentence type is situational. It is formed phonologically and uttered with a rising tone. The structure of an elliptical or incomplete sentence can be constructed by a compound word; e.g.

\[ /\text{'d}\text{ddam}/ \quad 'price' \]
\[ /'kapur-kani/ \quad 'cloth' \]
\[ /'kam - kaz/ \quad 'work' \]

1. Fries. C.C : 'The structure of English', P.52
17.05 Classification of sentences according to intonation pattern:

According to intonation sentences are classified into statement, interrogative, imperative, exclamation etc. They have been already discussed in the chapter of 'intonation'.

17.06 Classification of sentences according to clause-structure:

Sentences can be classified into four types according to clause structure: simple sentences, compound sentences, complex sentences and compound - complex sentence. ¹

A simple sentence is a sentence containing one main clause. It is characterised by one subject and one predicate; e.g.

/ moi  ghroko zam /

I home shall go

subject predicate

In this sentence the units clause and sentence are congruent having one subject 'moi' and one predicate 'gh roko zam'.

A compound sentence consists of two principal or independent clauses; e.g.

/ram gel kintu hori nεgpl/

Ram left but Hori did not go.

In the sentence above /ram gel/ and /hori nεgpl/ are two independent clauses linked up by the structural word 'kintu'. The verbs in both the clauses are in finite form.

A complex sentence is a sentence containing at least one subordinate or dependent clause. In such a sentence one clause may be grammatically dependent on the other; e.g.

/xi aifili moi zam/

he if comes I shall go

dependent cl. independent cl.

In the sentence /ram aifili/ is dependent clause and its dependent is shown by the non-finite form of the verb 'aifili'. The independent clause /moi zam/ has a finite verb 'zam'. 
A sentence containing two or more independent clauses and at least one dependent clause is called a compound-complex sentence; e.g.

/ram geli moi zam bapu nazoi/

Ram if goes I shall go Bapu will not go

In the sentence above /ram geli/ is a dependent clause preceded by two independent clauses /moizam/ and /bapu nazoi/.

17.07 Response

Another sentence type which needs to be postulated for the Barpeta dialect is the 'Response' type. Response utterances have only contextual validity. The oral response consists of single words or short word-groups. This type of utterances indicates informal conversations. Some examples are cited below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Utterance</th>
<th>Responses</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>/ai/</td>
<td>/ha/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mother</td>
<td>what</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/bapu/</td>
<td>/geisudoh/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bapu</td>
<td>Please wait, just going.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Use of various types of responses indicate difference in status of speaker and hearer; e.g.

Utterance  
/zabina/ : /ɔ/  
will you go?  

Response  
yes.

The conversation above indicates that the status of the hearer is inferior to that of the speaker.

Utterance  
/zabana/ : /ɔ/  
will you go?  

Responses  
/zam dok/  
I shall go, yes.

/zabana/ : /ɦoi zam/  
will you go?  

yes, I shall go

On the otherhand, the conversations above indicate a male and a female style respectively.