

A COMPARATIVE STUDY OF MORPHOLOGY AND SYNTAX IN ENGLISH AND BANGLA

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Abstract:

The process of acquiring one's first language (L1) is a natural phenomenon in which individuals unintentionally acquire their native tongue (L1). In contrast to first language acquisition (L1), the acquisition of a second or foreign language (L2) is a cognitively driven process in which learners actively engage in purposeful efforts to acquire the language. Therefore, second language (L2) learners have several problems in second language acquisition (SLA), such as interference from their mother tongue or first language (L1), analysis of errors, development of an interlanguage or learner's language, consideration of learners' age, motivation, provision of positive feedback, and other related factors. This research examines the morphological and syntactical similarities and differences between English and Bangla, focusing on synchronic, diachronic, and grammatical viewpoints. Hence, this research contributes to the improvement of second language (L2) learners' understanding of English or Bangla, as well as their ability to overcome problems in second language acquisition (SLA).

1. Introduction:

1.1 Rational of the Study:

Language is a valuable and inherent attribute bestowed to the human species. Indeed, the capacity for language is a distinctive characteristic of the human species, setting them apart from all other members of the animal kingdom. Human beings are the only animal species endowed with the capacity for language acquisition and use. According to Barber (1999), language serves as the primary distinguishing factor between humans and other members of the animal kingdom (p. 1). The phenomena of language is inherently complex, and the process by which individuals acquire linguistic proficiency remains a subject of scholarly discourse. According to some linguistic schools of thought, the distinctive language proficiency shown by human beings is believed to be a product of innate biological factors, specifically encoded into the genetic makeup of the human species. An alternative perspective within the field of linguistics posits that the linguistic capabilities of the human species are primarily shaped by

environmental factors, suggesting that individuals progressively learn language via exposure to their surrounding linguistic environment. In contrast, other factions within the field of linguistics maintain the viewpoint that a combination of innate predispositions and environmental influences are integral factors contributing to the distinctive linguistic capabilities seen in the human species.

The ongoing debates about the distinct linguistic proficiency of humans mostly revolve on the learning of one's mother tongue or first language (L1). The process of first language (L1) acquisition is an innate phenomenon in which individuals unintentionally learn their native language (L1). Nevertheless, the acquisition of a second language (L2) does not often give rise to such disagreements. While it is possible for people, particularly infants, to acquire several languages concurrently, the acquisition of a second language (L2) is often a conscious effort to learn a language that is not one's native tongue (L1), in contrast to the natural process of acquiring a first language (L1). According to Ellis (2002), the phrase "second language acquisition" may first seem to have a clear meaning, but in reality, it needs a meticulous explanation. In this particular context, the term 'second' might include any language that is acquired later to the individual's native language. Therefore, it may include the acquisition of a third or fourth language. Additionally, the term 'second' is not used in a contrasting manner with the term 'foreign'. Whether an individual acquires a language organically by living in a place where it is mostly spoken or acquires it via formal training in a classroom setting, it is usual to refer to this process as "second language acquisition." The term "L2 acquisition" refers to the process by which individuals acquire proficiency in a language that is not their native tongue, whether via formal instruction or informal learning settings. Similarly, "Second Language Acquisition" (SLA) refers to the academic investigation of this phenomenon (p. 3).

Therefore, in the context of second language acquisition (SLA), individuals actively acquire the grammatical rules of a specific language that is not their native tongue or primary language. In instances of second language acquisition (SLA), a greater understanding of the phonology, morphology, syntax, and semantics of the L2 language contributes to a more proficient mastery of the language. Therefore, in order to enhance proficiency in the second language (L2), it might be beneficial for L2 learners to engage in a comparative analysis of the grammatical rules of their native language (L1) and the target language (L2) over an extended period of time. Hence, doing a thorough analysis of the morphological and syntactical aspects of both Bangla and English languages may greatly contribute to the effective acquisition of English as a second language for those who are native speakers of Bangla.

1.1 *Statement of Problems:*

In our country, Bangla is the predominant native language (L1) spoken by a significant

portion of the population. Additionally, a considerable proportion of Bangla speakers acquire English as a second or foreign language, mostly for educational, occupational, or international trade-related reasons. In the contemporary globalised society, the English language has emerged as a widely used means of communication, sometimes referred to as a 'lingua franca'. Consequently, it is imperative to acknowledge the importance of acquiring English as a second or foreign language, in addition to one's native tongue (L1), within this period characterised by a global community. In the field of Second Language Acquisition (SLA), L2 learners encounter several obstacles, such as the influence of their mother tongue or L1, the analysis of errors, the development of an interlanguage or learner's language, the impact of learners' age, motivation, positive feedback, and other related factors (Ellis, 2002). The acquisition of language by L2 learners is mostly contingent upon their ability to surmount the aforementioned hurdles. Similarly, those who speak Bangla and acquire English as a second language have similar difficulties, and their proficiency in English is contingent upon surmounting these obstacles. Therefore, doing a comparative examination of the morphology and syntax of Bangla and English might potentially provide valuable insights into addressing many issues in second language acquisition (SLA). These challenges include the influence of the mother tongue or first language (L1), error analysis, and the development of interlanguage or the learner's language.

2. Literature Review:

2.1 General Description on Morphology:

Haspelmath (2002) posits that morphology pertains to the examination and analysis of the inherent composition and organisation of words. According to the author, morphology is considered to be one of the oldest and most recent sub-disciplines within the field of grammar. The field of linguistics might be seen as having its origins in the study of morphology, since the first linguists focused largely on this aspect of language. The study of morphology had significant importance in the literary works of renowned grammarians from ancient times, including Panini from India, as well as within the grammatical traditions of the Greek and Roman civilizations. However, the flourishing of morphology as a sub-discipline of grammar occurred mostly during the latter part of the nineteenth century. From a scholarly perspective, it might be argued that morphology is a relatively recent sub-discipline within the broader field of grammar.

According to Haspelmath (2002), in his publication titled *Understanding Morphology*, the process of morphological analysis often involves the identification of components inside words, specifically referred to as constituents. Morphemes are the fundamental and semantically significant units of words that may be discerned. In the above instance, it can be seen that the word "nuts" comprises two distinct morphemes, namely the suffix "-s" and the stem "nut". As stated by McCarthy (2002), morphemes may be categorised as either free or

bound. Free morphemes have the ability to function independently as individual words, while bound morphemes lack this ability and are often affixed to another form. According to McCarthy, free morphemes may be classified into two distinct groups, namely lexical and functional. Lexical morphemes include the lexical words found in a language, including nouns, adjectives, and adverbs. On the other hand, functional morphemes primarily comprise the functional words present in the language, such as conjunctions, prepositions, articles, and pronouns. According to McCarthy, there are two distinct categories into which bound morphemes may be classified: derivational and inflectional. Derivational morphemes possess the ability to alter the grammatical category and/or semantic nature of a word, therefore resulting in the formation of a distinct word. For instance, the addition of the suffix "-ment" to the verb "govern" transforms it into the noun "government." In contrast, it may be seen that inflectional morphemes do not alter the grammatical category or the nature of meaning inherent in the word. An example of this can be seen in the suffix -s, as found in the word "books."

According to Haspelmath (2002), the concept of morphology may be accurately stated as "Morphology is the examination of the process by which morphemes are combined to form words" (p. 3). In the examination of the morphology of nuts, it is seen that the presence of the final [s] in nuts signifies a plural connotation. This similar connotation is generally conveyed when the final [s] is found at the conclusion of a word. However, it should be noted that the last [s] sound in the word "lapse" lacks any discernible morphological structure. The presence of morphological structure is contingent upon the existence of word groupings that exhibit shared partial similarities in both form and meaning. Therefore, an alternative definition of morphology is provided by Haspelmath, who states that morphology is the examination of the systematic relationship between the structure and semantics of words (Haspelmath, p. 2).

In the field of morphological analysis, it is common to encounter two distinct concepts of word, namely the dictionary word and the text word. Given the significance of this differentiation in the field of morphology, morphologists use specialised terminology to refer to these two concepts. According to Haspelmath, a lexeme, which refers to a word found in a dictionary, is so named due to the linguists' designation of the mental dictionary as the lexicon. Lexemes are conceptual entities that may be conceptualised as collections of word forms. The author suggests that a norm of representing lexemes in tiny caps may be used, as shown by the usage of "LIVE" as a lexeme (p. 12). In contrast, according to Haspelmath (year), a linguistic unit that is delimited by gaps in written form is referred to as a word-form. Word forms possess a tangible quality in that they may be audibly articulated and used within written compositions. Each word form may be attributed to a certain lexeme, such as the word form "lived" being associated with the lexeme "LIVE." (Page 13). Furthermore, Haspelmath (year)

asserts that lexemes are comprised of a considerable quantity of word forms. The collection of word forms that pertain to a lexeme is sometimes referred to as a paradigm. According to the source (p. 14), it is possible for several lexemes to exhibit connections with one another, and a collection of interconnected lexemes is sometimes referred to as a word family, although it would be more accurate to label it as a lexeme family. Therefore, the following instances may be considered as two English word families:

I. READ, READABLE, UNREADABLE, READER, READABILITY, REREAD:

II. LOGIC, LOGICIAN, LOGICAL, ILLOGICAL, ILLOGICALITY:

In addition, there are two distinct types of morphological links seen among words, and linguists use specialised terminology to delineate these interactions. Inflection, also known as inflectional morphology, refers to the connection that occurs between the many word forms of a lexeme. On the other hand, another linguistic phenomenon that may be seen is derivation, specifically derivational morphology. This kind of connection occurs between lexemes belonging to the same word family. Morphologists use the related verbs for the purpose of inflection and derivation, therefore discerning links between words. Therefore, it may be said that the lexeme LIVE undergoes inflection for case and number, whereas the lexeme READER is generated from the lexeme READ. The term "derive lexeme" is also often known as a derivative.

It is often seen that morphologically complicated words exhibit membership in many word families concurrently. As an example, the lexeme "FIREWOOD" is a member of both the fire-related lexical family and the wood-related lexical family. The term used to describe this kind of interaction is compounding, and lexemes such as firewood are referred to as compound lexemes. Accordingly, Haspelmath posits the following categorizations of morphology (Figure 01):

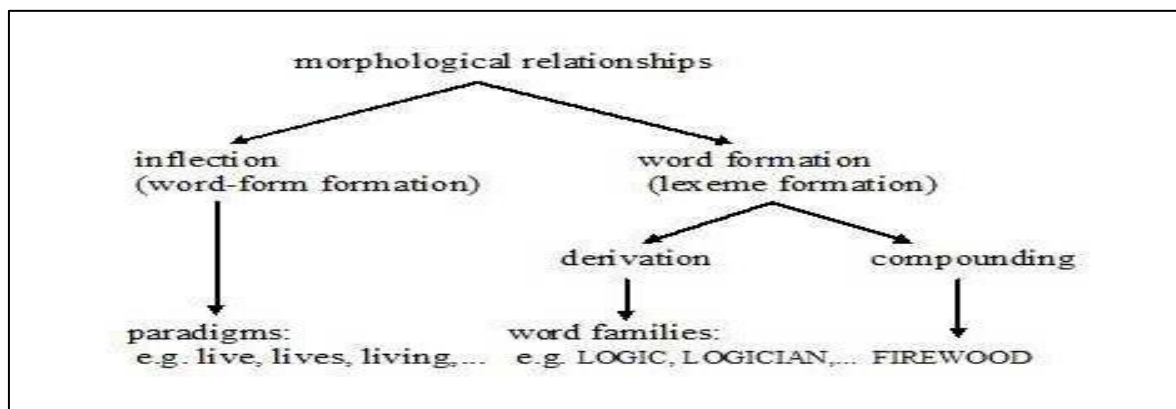


Figure 01: Subdivisions of Morphology

1.1 General Description on Syntax:

Syntax, a field of study within linguistics, focuses on analysing the internal organisation of phrases and sentences. This aspect of language, also referred to as grammar, is widely recognised as a fundamental characteristic of human communication. In contrast to morphology, the field of syntax focuses on the analysis of structure at the level of phrases or sentences. According to Haspelmath's (2002) definition, syntax refers to the process of constructing sentences, including the organisation of words into phrases and sentences (p. 1).

According to Haspelmath, there are instances when individuals use the word "grammar" interchangeably with "syntax." However, it is often observed among linguists that the prevailing approach involves including all the organising principles of a language inside its grammar. This encompasses many aspects such as the sound system, word forms, contextual language adjustments, and more. Syntax, while significant, is only a component of this comprehensive grammar. The word "syntax" is frequently used to refer to the scholarly study of the syntactic characteristics of languages. In this context, syntax is used similarly to how stylistics is utilised to denote the examination of literary style. The syntactic features of a language provide us with the rules and principles governing the combination of meaningful sentences. Syntax is not only a sequence of words; instead, it is the syntactic principles that govern the arrangement and organisation of those words. For instance, the phrase 'Beat the cat, the dong' lacks semantic coherence and does not convey any discernible meaning. In order to convey accurate semantic content, a sequence of lexical items (such as a phrase or sentence) must adhere to a prescribed arrangement, known as word order, which is consistently governed by the syntactic principles inherent to the given language. Therefore, the phrase "The cat beat the dog" has a coherent meaning since it adheres to the word order prescribed by English grammar. Furthermore, the interpretation of words or sentences is contingent upon their syntactic arrangement. The interpretation of a phrase or sentence is contingent upon the specific syntactic arrangement of such phrase or sentence. Consequently, the semantic interpretation of the statement "The dog beat the cat" is fundamentally distinct from that of the preceding statement "The cat beat the dog."

The syntactic rules vary across different languages. As an example, it may be seen that the English language adheres to the SVO (subject + verb + object) word order, whereas Bangla, on the other hand, employs the SOV (subject + object + verb) word order. Furthermore, it is worth noting that syntactic norms may exhibit variation even within a single language. For instance, the word order in Standard Bangla and its Chittagonian Dialect counterpart may differ.

The syntax of language is subject to variation based on several aspects such as the social class, age group, time period, and environment of the speakers. These factors might influence the selection of vocabulary and the structure of phrases or sentences. While there may be variations in syntactic norms across different languages, individuals, and contexts, it is widely acknowledged that syntax is a universal feature present in all human languages. According to the assertions made by Haspelmath (2002), it is posited that syntax is a universal feature present in all languages, including those spoken within non-industrial civilizations. Furthermore, it is said that the complexity shown by the languages of these non-industrial societies is comparable to that seen in the languages of the majority of advanced industrial nations. This fact is well-known among linguists, since it is observed that all languages exhibit a range of complex traits. Additionally, individuals who speak different languages are capable of expressing same ideas and concepts, engaging in similar discussions, and using comparable interactive reasoning processes. According to Haspelmath, it is further argued that the acquisition of language by children occurs in distinct phases that exhibit remarkable similarities across different cultures. Additionally, the process of language learning is finished within a comparable timeframe across various cultural contexts. There is no evidence to suggest that there are any languages that are inherently so difficult that individuals are unable to achieve fluency until they reach the age of 18. According to the author (p. 2), if children had an equal capacity to acquire all languages, it may be inferred that all languages possess an equivalent level of complexity.

2. Synchronic and Diachronic Analysis:

2.1 English Morphology and Syntax:

Based on a comprehensive examination of the synchronic and diachronic aspects of the English language (English Language, n.d.), it becomes evident that English originated as a West Germanic language and was first spoken during the early mediaeval period in England. However, it has since evolved to become the most extensively used language globally. The English language serves as the primary means of communication for the majority of inhabitants of numerous prominent nations, including but not limited to the United Kingdom, the United States, Canada, Australia, Ireland, New Zealand, and other Caribbean countries. English, behind Mandarin Chinese and Spanish, ranks as the third most prevalent mother tongue globally. Additionally, it is extensively acquired as a second language throughout many regions. The emergence of the English language may be traced back to the historical Anglo-Saxon kingdoms of England and the region now known as southeast Scotland. English has gained significant global influence due to the dominant role played by Great Britain and the United Kingdom during the 17th to mid-20th centuries through their colonial activities, as well

as the subsequent influence exerted by the United States since the mid-20th century. As a result, English has become widely disseminated worldwide, emerging as the primary language for international communication and serving as a common language in numerous regions.

The English language has its historical roots in the amalgamation of closely similar dialects, sometimes referred to as Old English, which were introduced to the eastern coast of Great Britain by Germanic immigrants known as the Anglo-Saxons around the 5th century AD. Nevertheless, the contemporary form of the English language that is being spoken differs from its historical predecessors. Over the course of time, there has been a significant evolution in the English language. Significant morphological, syntactical, and phonological alterations and enrichments have been seen in the English language throughout its history. According to O'Grady, Dobrovolsky, and Katamba (1996), English has had a consistent and significant evolution over its three primary epochs: Old English (about spanning from 450 to 1100), Middle English (from 1100 to 1500), and Modern English (from 1500 to the present). According to O'Grady et al. (1996) in their work *Contemporary Linguistics*, it is contended that Chaucer's Middle English has a level of intelligibility in the present day, but Old English seems entirely unfamiliar as a distinct language. In their analysis of a passage from an eighth-century Old English literary manuscript, namely a translation of Bede's Latin History of England, O'Grady et al. (1996) provide a detailed explanation of the many ways in which Old English phrases diverge from their Modern English equivalents.

*and Seaxan pā sige geslōgan. and Saxons the victory
was 'And the Saxons won the victory.' pā sendan hī
hām renddracan. then sent they home messenger
'Then they sent home messenger.'*

O'Grady et al. (1996) demonstrate, with regards to pronunciation, that the Old English term "hm" [ha:m], meaning 'home' (as mentioned in the second phrase of the above excerpt), underwent a transformation to [h:m] in Middle English, and then evolved to [howm] and ultimately [hecm] in Modern English. According to O'Grady et al. (1996), there are notable morphological differences between Old English and Modern English. For instance, the presence of the suffix -an in the Old English word for 'sent' implies both past tense and plurality of the subject (hī 'them'). According to O'Grady et al. (1996), it is evident that there are differences in word order (syntax) between Old English and Modern English. In the first sentence of the aforementioned excerpt, the verb follows both the subject and the object, while in the second sentence, the verb precedes both the subject and the object. The contemporary English language does not adhere to any of the aforementioned word orders. Instead, it has developed into a standardised subject-verb-direct object (SVO) fundamental word order. According to O'Grady et al. (1996), it is further said that several terms in Old English have become obsolete, such as *renddracan*, which means 'messenger', and *sige*, which denotes 'success', as shown in the aforementioned passage.

However, several terms have been retained, although with a shift in their connotations. An example of this may be seen in the Old English term *geslgan*, which is rendered as 'won' in the aforementioned passage. This term serves as the past tense form of the verb *slan*, which is the Old English precursor to our contemporary term 'slay'. While the contemporary interpretation of this term in Modern English mostly pertains to the act of causing death, it is worth noting that the Old English verb had a broader range of meanings, including 'to strike, beat, coin (money), and make (weapons)'.

Several significant morphological and syntactical alterations have occurred in modern English over the years, including inflectional simplicity, the transformation from Synthetic to Analytic Language, the Great Vowel Shift, and the conversion of grammatical gender to natural gender. According to Baugh and Cable (2000), the uninterrupted development of the English language during the course of its 1,500-year presence in England has been affirmed. This study identifies three distinct phases within this developmental framework, each of which signifies notable qualities and specific advancements in the English language throughout its history. According to Baugh and Cable, the Old English period is characterised by a significant presence of inflections, since the noun, adjective, and verb ends are mostly retained without significant alteration. Baugh and Cable (year) describe Middle English as a phase characterised by levelled inflections, since the inflectional system that had started to deteriorate towards the conclusion of the Old English era saw significant reduction during this time. Baugh and Cable ultimately designate contemporary English as the era characterised by the loss of inflections, since a substantial portion of the initial inflectional system had become fully extinct by this stage of evolution. Furthermore, Baugh and Cable undertake an analysis of the transformation of contemporary English from a synthetic language to an analytic language, therefore exerting a substantial influence on its morphology and syntax. The English language is classified as an inflectional language, which may be further categorised into two distinct types: synthetic and analytic. A synthetic language is characterised by its ability to convey the grammatical relationships between words inside a sentence primarily via the use of inflections. In the context of Indo-European languages, it is observed that these languages mostly exhibit inflectional features in the form of suffixes attached to various grammatical categories such as nouns, pronouns, adjectives, and verbs. As an example, in the Latin language, the nominative form of the word "wall" is referred to as "murus," while the genitive form, indicating possession or relationship, is denoted as "muri." Similarly, the dative form is expressed as "muro," the accusative form as "murum," and so on. In languages with synthetic features, the arrangement of words is not rigidly determined, resulting in the possibility that modifying the word order will not lead to a change in the semantic content of the sentence. Both Old English and Bangla exhibit the features of a synthetic language.

Hence, the Bengali words 'Rahim hotta korachilo Karim ke.' and 'Karim ke hotta korachilo Rahim.' convey identical meanings. Nevertheless, it is important to note that in contemporary English, there is a lack of separate forms for both the subject and the object. Additionally, current English syntax relies heavily on the usage of set word order. Therefore, the contemporary English words "Rahim killed Karim." and "Karim killed Rahim." convey distinct meanings, whereas "Rahim killed Karim." and "Karim was killed by Rahim." have the same meaning. Analytic languages are characterised by their wide use of prepositions and auxiliary verbs, as well as their reliance on word order to express various connections. The morphology and syntax of Modern English exhibit the features often associated with analytic languages, in contrast to Old English which was mostly synthetic.

According to Baugh and Cable, there has been significant change of long vowels in Old English, a phenomenon often referred to as the Great Vowel Shift in Modern English. Hence, the Old English terms *stān*, *gān*, *bān*, *rāp*, and so forth, correspond to the same lexemes in Modern English, namely stone, go, bone, rope, and others. Baugh and Cable assert that English has a distinct advantage compared to other prominent European languages by virtue of its adoption of natural gender as opposed to grammatical gender. In contrast to contemporary English, it is worth noting that the German language assigns gender to some nouns in a manner that differs from the natural gender. Specifically, although the noun "sonne" (sun) is classified as feminine, "mond" (moon) is designated as masculine. However, it is interesting to observe that nouns such as "kind" (child), "mädchen" (maiden), and "weib" (wife) are categorised as neuter in German. It is important to consistently have in mind this differentiation (in relation to grammatical gender), since it not only impacts the antecedent of pronouns but also governs the morphology of inflection and the concordance of adjectives. Old English also exhibited grammatical gender; however, these gender distinctions were gradually eliminated over the Middle English era. As a result, in contemporary English, the gender of any word included in the dictionary may be readily discerned. In contemporary English, gender is ascribed based on semantic considerations. Specifically, nouns denoting living beings are assigned masculine or feminine gender based on the biological sex of the entity they represent, while all other nouns are classified as neuter. Hence, the Great Vowel Shift and the Conversion of Old English Grammatical Gender into Natural Gender are both important factors in the modifications and enhancements seen in English morphology and syntax.

1.1 *Bangla Morphology and Syntax:*

Based on a comprehensive analysis of the Bangla language using both synchronic and diachronic approaches (Bengali Language, n.d.), it can be shown that Bangla belongs to the eastern branch of the Indo-Aryan language family. The species in question is indigenous to the

geographical area of eastern South Asia sometimes referred to as Bengal. This region encompasses present-day Bangladesh, the Indian state of West Bengal, as well as certain portions of the Indian states of Tripura and Assam. Bangla, also known as Bengali, has a prominent position as one of the most widely spoken languages globally, securing the sixth place in terms of its prevalence. It boasts a substantial native speaker population of over 193 million individuals, while its overall speaker count reaches around 230 million. The Bangla language, along with other Eastern Indo-Aryan languages, underwent a process of evolution during the period of about 1000–1200 CE. This evolution can be traced back to the eastern Middle Indo-Aryan dialects, namely Magadhi Prakrit and Pali. These dialects, in turn, originated from a distinct but closely related dialect or set of dialects that had similarities with Vedic and Classical Sanskrit, although they were not identical to them.

During the time of Middle Bengali and the Bengali Renaissance, Literary Bangla included borrowings from classical Sanskrit, maintaining the original spelling but adjusting the pronunciation to align with that of Bangla. The contemporary literary variant of the Bengali language emerged throughout the 19th and early 20th centuries, drawing upon the dialect spoken in the Nadia area, which represents a west-central Bengali dialect. Presently, the literary genre and linguistic variations of Bangla encompass the predominant language used in Bangladesh and rank as the second most prevalent language spoken in India.

Three significant phases can be discerned in the historical evolution of Bangla, with each period primarily characterised by notable morphological, syntactical, and phonological advancements in the language.

(i) The period of Old Bengali, which spanned from 900/1000 to 1400, is the focus of this discussion. The literary works from this particular era include Charyapada, which consists of devotional hymns. Additionally, this time saw the creation of pronouns such as *Ami* and *Tumi*, as well as verb inflections like *-ila* and *-iba*. During this era, the Assamese language, also known as *Ahomiya*, saw significant expansion, whereas the Oriya language had already begun to diverge in the period ranging from the 8th century to the 1300s. The linguistic and scriptural landscape of this era was mostly shaped by the Kamrupi language, namely the Kamrupa Prakrit script. This impact may be attributed to the Kamrupa monarchy, which included the whole of the territory including Assam, Bengal, and some areas of Bihar and Orissa, as it existed at that time.

(ii) The Middle Bengali period, spanning from 1400 to 1800, is characterised by significant literary works such as Chandidas's *Shreekrishna Kirtana*. Notable linguistic features throughout this time include the elision of the word-final *ô* sound, the proliferation of

compound verbs, and the impact of Persian language and culture. Certain academics have also subdivided this historical era into the early and late middle eras.

(iii) During the time of New Bengali, which began in 1800, significant linguistic changes occurred. One notable development was the shortening of verbs and pronouns. For instance, the word "taha" was shortened to "ta," which means "his or her." Similarly, the phrase "koriyachilô" was shortened to "korechilo," which translates to "he/she had done." These changes reflect the evolution of the Bengali language during this period.

Furthermore, from a historical perspective, it can be seen that Bangla, being in closer proximity to Pali, had a notable surge in the impact of Sanskrit throughout the Middle Bengali period, particularly during the reign of Chaitanya Mahaprabhu. This trend continued during the Bengali Renaissance as well. Among the contemporary Indo-European languages prevalent in South Asia, Bangla, along with its neighbouring languages Oriya and Assamese (Ahomiya) in the eastern region, mostly preserve a vocabulary base derived from Pali and Sanskrit. Similarly, Marathi, situated in the central-western part of the region, too exhibits a substantial reliance on Pali and Sanskrit vocabulary.

However, according to the synchronic and diachronic examination of the Bengali language, it is further argued that Bangla demonstrates the phenomenon of diglossia. The concept of triglossia, n-glossia, or heteroglossia between the written and spoken versions of a language has been a subject of much debate among academics. There are some variations in morphology (vocabularies) and syntax between two of these versions of Bangla.

(i) The term "Shadhubhasha" refers to a kind of language that is characterised by its purity and wisdom. This specific variant of the written language had extended verb inflections and a greater reliance on a vocabulary inherited from Pali/Sanskrit (referred to as *tôtshômo*). The composition of notable songs, such as India's national hymn "Jana Gana Mana" by Rabindranath Tagore and the national song "Vande Mātaram" by Bankim Chandra Chattopadhyay, occurred in the Shadhubhasha language. Nevertheless, the use of Shadhubhasha in contemporary literature remains infrequent, mostly limited to official signage and documentation in Bangladesh, alongside its deliberate implementation for certain literary purposes.

(ii) The present language in use is Cholitobhasha. Linguists refer to this specific variant as Manno Cholit Bangla, which is recognised as Standard Colloquial Bangla. The written Bangla style now in use has a notable prevalence of colloquial idioms and abbreviated verb forms, hence establishing itself as the prevailing norm for written Bangla. This literary genre gained popularity from the beginning of the 19th century, as it was popularised by the works of Peary

Chand Mitra (Alaler Gharer Dulal, 1857), Pramatha Chowdhury (Sabujpatra, 1914), and subsequent writings by Rabindranath Tagore. The structure of this form is based on the linguistic variety used in the Shantipur locality inside the Nadia district of West Bengal. Therefore, this diverse manifestation of the Bengali language is often known as the Nadia Standard or Shantipuri Bangla.

Cholit Bangla is linguistically formed from Sadhu Bangla via a series of two typical linguistic transformations. While the majority of written texts are composed in Cholit Bangla, the spoken dialects show a somewhat wider range of variation. The region in south-eastern West Bengal, which encompasses Kolkata, is mostly characterised by the use of the Manno Cholit Bangla dialect. Various regions in West Bengal and western Bangladesh are known to use dialects that exhibit little variances, including the Medinipur dialect. This particular dialect is distinguished by its usage of distinct vocabulary and grammatical structures. Nevertheless, many regions of Bangladesh, notably the Chittagong area, use a dialect that exhibits little similarities with the standard colloquial Bengali, known as Manno Cholit Bangla, since it has a distinct lexicon. The disparity is substantial to the extent that an individual hailing from West Bengal would encounter significant difficulty comprehending even a solitary phrase inside a passage of this particular dialect. This linguistic variation is often referred to as the Bongali Sublanguage, or colloquially known as Chattagram Bangla. In literary works, such as Manik Bandopadhyay's "Padmanodir Majhi," authors have used the Bongali dialect to depict conversational exchanges. While official spoken Bangla is based on Manno Cholit Bangla, a significant number of Bengalis possess the ability to converse in many linguistic variations. Frequently, individuals are proficient in Choltibhasha as well as one or more local dialects.

1. Comparative Analysis

1.1 English and Bangla Morphology:

- (i) Upon analysing the morphology of English and Bangla, as discussed in the sources "Bengali Grammar" and "English Language," it becomes evident that these two languages exhibit both parallels and differences in terms of their morphological structures.
- (ii) Pronouns: Bangla pronouns exhibit similarities to English pronouns as they possess distinct terms for the first, second, and third person, as well as for single and plural forms. In contrast to English pronouns, Bangla pronouns lack gender differentiation, meaning that a single pronoun may be used to refer to both males and females. Nevertheless, the Bengali language has distinct third-person pronouns that vary based on proximity. The first term pertains to an individual in close proximity, while the latter is applicable to those situated at a somewhat greater distance. The third category often pertains to those who are absent. Furthermore, it is worth noting that both second-person and third-person pronouns exhibit distinct variations when addressing

someone in familiar or polite contexts. Additionally, the second person pronoun further encompasses a specific form denoting a high level of familiarity. It is worth mentioning that the "very familiar" form is used when addressing someone who are considered to be very close friends or family members, as well as when addressing subordinates or resorting to the use of harsh language. The subsequent tables use the following abbreviations: VF for very familiar, F for familiar, and P for polite (honour). Additionally, H represents here, T represents there, and E represents elsewhere, denoting closeness.

The nominative case is used in both Bangla and English for pronouns that function as the subject of a sentence (see to Figure 02). For instance, examples are "I already did that" or "Will you please stop making that noise?"

Personal pronouns (nominative case)				
Subject	Proximity	Honor	Singular	Plural
1			<i>ami</i> (I)	<i>am(ô)ra</i> (we)
2		VF	<i>tui</i> (you)	<i>tora</i> (you)
		F	<i>tumi</i> (you)	<i>tomra</i> (you)
		P	<i>ap(ô)ni</i> (you)	<i>ap(ô)nara</i> (you)
3	H	F	<i>e</i> (he/she/it)	<i>era</i> (they)
		P	<i>ini</i> (he/she/it)	<i>ěra</i> (they)
	T	F	<i>o</i> (he/she/it)	<i>ora</i> (they)
		P	<i>uni</i> (he/she/it)	<i>ôra</i> (they)
	E	F	<i>she</i> (he/she/it)	<i>tara</i> (they)
		P	<i>tini</i> (he/she/it)	<i>tăra</i> (they)

Figure 02: Personal Pronouns (nominative case) in Bangla and English

In both the Bangla and English languages, the objective case is used for pronouns that function as direct or indirect objects (see to Figure 03). For instance, sentences like 'I directed him to wash the dishes' or 'The instructor handed me the homework assignment' utilise pronouns in the

Personal pronouns (possessive case)				
Subject	Proximity	Honor	Singular	Plural
1			<i>amar</i> (my)	<i>amader</i> (our)
2		VF	<i>tor</i> (your)	<i>toder</i> (your)
		F	<i>tomar</i> (your)	<i>tomader</i> (your)
		P	<i>apnar</i> (your)	<i>apnader</i> (your)
3	H	F	<i>er</i> (his/her/its)	<i>eder</i> (their)
		P	<i>ěr</i> (his/her/its)	<i>ěder</i> (their)
	T	F	<i>or</i> (his/her/its)	<i>oder</i> (their)
		P	<i>ôr</i> (his/her/its)	<i>ôder</i> (their)
	E	F	<i>tar</i> (his/her/its)	<i>tader</i> (their)
		P	<i>tăr</i> (his/her/its)	<i>tăder</i> (their)

objective case.

Figure 03: Personal Pronouns (objective case) in Bangla and English

Both the Bangla and English languages use the possessive case to indicate possession, as seen

Personal pronouns (possessive case)				
Subject	Proximity	Honor	Singular	Plural
1			amar (my)	amader (our)
2			VF tor (your)	toder (your)
			F tomar (your)	tomader (your)
			P apnar (your)	apnader (your)
3	H	F er (his/her/its)	eder (their)	
		P ěr (his/her/its)	ěder (their)	
	T	F or (his/her/its)	oder (their)	
		P čr (his/her/its)	čder (their)	
	E	F tar (his/her/its)	tader (their)	
		P tār (his/her/its)	tāder (their)	

in Figure 04. This grammatical feature is utilised to convey ownership, as exemplified by phrases like 'Where is your coat?' or 'Let's go to our home.' It should be noted that the plural forms exhibit similar characteristics to those seen in the objective situation.

Figure 04: Personal Pronouns (possessive case) in Bangla and English

In contrast to the English language, Bangla nouns exhibit inflectional changes to indicate different cases, such as nominative, objective, genitive (possessive), and locative. The case-marking pattern in Bangla is contingent upon the level of animacy associated with each inflected noun (refer to Figure 5).

Singular Noun Inflection		
	Animate	Inanimate
Nominative	ছাত্র- ta the student	জুতা- ta the shoe
Objective	ছাত্র- ta-ke the student	জুতা- ta the shoe
Genitive	ছাত্র- ta-r the student's	জুতা- ta-r the shoe's
Locative	-	জুতা- ta-(t)e on/in the shoe

Figure 05: Singular Noun Inflection Bangla and English

Plural Noun Inflection		
	Animate	Inanimate
Nominative	ছাত্র- ra the students	জুতা- gula the shoes
Objective	ছাত্র- der(ke) the students	জুতা- gula the shoes

Figure 06: Plural Noun Inflection Bangla and English

In Bangla, when a definite article such as -ta (singular) or -gula (plural) is appended to a noun, as seen in the aforementioned table, the Bangla nouns undergo inflection for number, which distinguishes it from English (refer to Figure 06).

(i) Measure Words: In Bangla, nouns must be accompanied with the proper measure word when they are tallied. In contrast to the English language, the counting of nouns in Bangla does not include the direct addition of numerals immediately next to the noun. The use of a measure word (MW) is necessary to be placed between the numerical and the noun, as seen in Figure 07. In contrast to English, where nouns are not often accompanied by measure words, Bangla employs the general measure word "ta" for most nouns. However, Bangla also encompasses a wide range of particular measure terms, such as "jon," which is only used for quantifying individuals.

Measure Words

Bangla	Literal translation	English
Nôe- ta ghoṛi	Nine-MW clock	Nine clocks
Kôe- ta balish	How many-MW pillow	How many pillows
Ônek- jon lok	Many-MW person	Many people
Char-pañch- jon shikkhôk	Four-five-MW teacher	Four or five teachers

Figure 07: Measure Words Dissimilarity in Bangla and English

The omission of measure words while quantifying nouns in Bangla (e.g., using "at biral" instead of "at-ta biral," meaning 'eight cats') is often seen as ungrammatical, which differs from the English language. Nevertheless, it is grammatically acceptable and fairly unusual in Bangla to exclude the noun while retaining the measuring word. For instance, the phrase 'Shudhu ek-jon thakbe' (meaning 'Only one-MW will remain') might be interpreted as 'Only one person will remain', since the term 'jon' is only used for quantifying human beings. The term "lok," which

refers to an individual, is understood or inferred.

1.1 English and Bangla Syntax:

The primary distinction between English and Bangla syntax is in their respective word orders. English has a fundamental word order of subject-verb-object (SVO), whereas Bangla adheres to a basic word order of subject-object-verb (SOV). Therefore, there are notable differences between English and Bangla phrases that use transitive verbs. Therefore, the literal translation of the Bangla line 'Ami vat khai.' is 'I rice consume', which is considered grammatically incorrect in English. In addition to the aforementioned sources on the analysis of English and Bangla syntax ("Bengali Grammar" and "English Language," n.d.), there are more syntactic similarities and contrasts between these two languages.

(i) Aspect: In contrast to English, the Bengali language exhibits three distinct aspects for its verbs, namely the simple aspect, the progressive/continuous aspect, and the perfect aspect. The aforementioned elements are paired with the distinct tenses outlined below in order to generate the diverse verbal conjugations that are attainable.

The term "ãka" refers to a verbal word that denotes the action or act of sketching. The term "ãkte" refers to the verbal infinitive form, specifically denoting the action of drawing. The term "ãkte-ãkte" refers to the progressive participle, specifically denoting the action of sketching while it is in process. The term "ãkle" refers to a conditional participle, specifically indicating the condition of "if X draws." The term "ëke" refers to the perfect participle, which indicates the action of "having drawn." The term "ke-ke" refers to an iterative participle, indicating the action of drawing something several times.

(i) Tense: The Bangla language has four basic tenses, similar to those found in English. These tenses include the present tense, past tense, conditional or habitual past tense, and future tense. The aforementioned elements interact with mood and aspect, resulting in the formation of more intricate conjugations, such as the past progressive or the present perfect. The present tense in Bangla is comparable to that of English. For instance, "I eat" is translated as "Ami khai," "You run" as "Tumi daorao," and "He reads" as "Sha pore." The possible endings for the given context are -i, -(i)sh, -o, -e, and -(e)n.

Verb	1	2 (VF)	2 (F)	3 (F)	2/3 (P)
bôla	<i>ami boli</i>	<i>tui bolish</i>	<i>tumi bôlo</i>	<i>she bôle</i>	<i>apni bôlen</i>
khola	<i>ami khuli</i>	<i>tui khulish</i>	<i>tumi kholo</i>	<i>she khole</i>	<i>apni kholen</i>
খোলা	আমি খুলি	তুই খুলিস	তুমি খোলো	সে খোলে	আপনি খোলেন
khêla	<i>ami kheli</i>	<i>tui khelish</i>	<i>tumi khêlo</i>	<i>she khêle</i>	<i>apni khêlen</i>
খেলা	আমি খেলি	তুই খেলিস	তুমি খেলো	সে খেলে	আপনি খেলেন
chena	<i>ami chini</i>	<i>tui chinish</i>	<i>tumi cheno</i>	<i>she chene</i>	<i>apni chenen</i>
চেনা	আমি চিনি	তুই চিনিস	তুমি চেনো	সে চেনে	আপনি চেনেন
jana	<i>ami jani</i>	<i>tui janish</i>	<i>tumi jano</i>	<i>she jane</i>	<i>apni janen</i>
জানা	আমি জানি	তুই জানিস	তুমি জানো	সে জানে	আপনি জানেন
hōoa	<i>ami hoi</i>	<i>tui hosh</i>	<i>tumi hōo</i>	<i>she hōe</i>	<i>apni hōn</i>
হওয়া	আমি হই	তুই হোস	তুমি হও	সে হয়	আপনি হন
dhoa	<i>ami dhui</i>	<i>tui dhush</i>	<i>tumi dhoo</i>	<i>she dhoe</i>	<i>apni dhon</i>
ধোয়া	আমি ধুই	তুই ধুস	তুমি ধোও	সে ধোয়	আপনি ধোন
khaoa	<i>ami khai</i>	<i>tui khash</i>	<i>tumi khao</i>	<i>she khae</i>	<i>apni khan</i>
খাওয়া	আমি খাই	তুই খাশ	তুমি খাও	সে খায়	আপনি খান

Figure 08: Simple Present Tense (Bangla)

The use of the simple past tense in Bangla differs from its counterpart in English. In Bangla, this tense is typically employed to describe events that have taken place in the recent past. For instance, events that occurred less than a day ago would be translated into the English simple past tense. Examples of such translations include: 'I ate (Ami kalam)', 'You ran (Tumi dourale)', and 'He read (Sha porlo)'. The suffixes used for the second and third familiar people in the past tense are -lam, -li, -le, -lo, and -len. It is worth noting that the vowel order in these suffixes is the opposite of that found in the present tense. As an example, I observed, you observed, you observed, he observed, and you observed. In non-standard variations of the Bangla language, the second-person familiar forms replace the vowel 'e' with 'a'; for instance, 'tumi bolla, khulla, khella,' and so on.

Verb	1	2 (VF)	2 (F)	3 (F)	2/3 (P)
bôla	ami bollam	tui bolli	tumi bolle	she bollo	apni bollen
বলা	আমি বললাম	তুই বললি	তুমি বললে	সে বললো	আপনি বললেন
khôla	ami khullam	tui khulli	tumi khulle	she khullo	apni khullen
খোলা	আমি খুললাম	তুই খুললি	তুমি খুললে	সে খুললো	আপনি খুললেন
khêla	ami khellam	tui khelli	tumi khelle	she khello	apni khellen
খেলে	আমি খেললাম	তুই খেললি	তুমি খেললে	সে খেললো	আপনি খেললেন
chêna	ami chinlam	tui chinli	tumi chinle	she chinto	apni chinlen
চেনা	আমি চিনলাম	তুই চিনলি	তুমি চিনলে	সে চিনলো	আপনি চিনলেন
jana	ami janlam	tui janli	tumi janle	she janlo	apni janlen
জানা	আমি জানলাম	তুই জানলি	তুমি জানলে	সে জানলো	আপনি জানলেন
hōoa	ami holam	tui holi	tumi hole	she holo	apni holen
হওয়া	আমি হললাম	তুই হলি	তুমি হলে	সে হলো	আপনি হলেন
dhôa	ami dhulam	tui dhuli	tumi dhule	she dhulo	apni dhulen
ধোওয়া	আমি ধুললাম	তুই ধুলি	তুমি ধুলে	সে ধুলো	আপনি ধুলেন
khaoa	ami khelam	tui kheli	tumi khele	she khelo	apni khelen
খাওয়া	আমি খেললাম	তুই খেলি	তুমি খেলে	সে খেলো	আপনি খেলেন
dêoa	ami dilam	tui dili	tumi dile	she dilo	apni dilen
দেওয়া	আমি দিললাম	তুই দিলি	তুমি দিলে	সে দিলো	আপনি দিলেন

Figure 09: Simple Past Tense (Bangla)

The habitual past tense in Bangla has several purposes. In both the English and Bangla languages, the habitual past tense is used to describe events that occurred consistently in the past, exemplified by phrases such as 'I used to dine out every day' or 'He penned poetry when he was young'. This tense corresponds to the imperfect tense in grammar. It may also be used as a conditional construction, shown by phrases such as 'If you asked, I would come' or 'If you had asked, I would have come'. Forming the habitual past tense in Bangla is a straightforward process, wherein one begins with the simple past tense and replaces the final "l" with "t" (with the exception of the second person singular pronoun "tui" in an informal context). The suffixes that denote the ends are -tam, -tish, -te, -to, and -ten. For instance, I observed, you observe, you observe, he observes, and you observe. In non-standard variations of the Bengali language, the second-person familiar forms replace the vowel 'e' with 'a'; so, examples include 'tumi bolta/khulta/khelta,' and so on.

Verb	1	2 (VF)	2 (F)	3 (F)	2/3 (P)
বলা	আমি boltam	তুই boltish	তুমি bolte	সে bolto	apni bolten
khola	আমি khultam	তুই khultish	তুমি khulte	সে khulto	apni khulten
khêla	আমি kheltam	তুই kheltish	তুমি khelte	সে khelto	apni khelten
chena	আমি chintam	তুই chintish	তুমি chinte	সে chinto	apni chinten
jana	আমি jantam	তুই jantish	তুমি jante	সে janto	apni janten
hōoa	আমি hotam	তুই hotish	তুমি hote	সে hoto	apni hoten
dhooa	আমি dhutam	তুই dhutish	তুমি dhute	সে dhuto	apni dhuten
khaoa	আমি khetam	তুই khetish	তুমি khete	সে kheto	apni kheten
dēoa	আমি ditam	তুই ditish	তুমি dite	সে dito	apni diten

Figure 10: Habitual Past Tense (Bangla)

In some non-standard variants of Bangla, the second-person familiar forms replace the vowel 'e'

Verb	1	2 (VF)	2 (F)	3 (F)	2/3 (P)
bōla	আমি bolbo	tui bolbi	tumi bolbe	she bolbe	apni bolben
khola	আমি khulbo	tui khulbi	tumi khulbe	she khulbe	apni khulben
khêla	আমি khelbo	tui khelbi	tumi khelbe	she khelbe	apni khelben
chena	আমি chinbo	tui chinbi	tumi chinbe	she chinbe	apni chinben
jana	আমি janbo	tui janbi	tumi janbe	she janbe	apni janben
hōoa	আমি hōbo	tui hōbi	tumi hōbe	she hōbe	apni hōben
dhooa	আমি dhubo	tui dhubi	tumi dhube	she dhube	apni dhuben
khaoa	আমি khabo	tui khabi	tumi khabe	she khabe	apni khaben
dēoa	আমি debo	tui dibi	tumi debe	she debe	apni deben

with 'a' in the future tense. Consequently, constructions such as 'tumi bolba, khulba, khelba,' etc. may be seen in the formation of the simple future tense in Bangla, which differs from English.

Figure 11: Future Tense (Bangla)

- (i) Prepositions and Postpositions: The English language exhibits the usage of prepositions, whereas Bangla often employs postpositions. In English, modifying words are positioned before their object (e.g., alongside him, inside the home), but in Bangla, they are frequently positioned after their object (e.g., pashe, baṅir bhitore).
- (ii) Certain postpositions need the use of the possessive case for their object noun, but others necessitate the use of the objective case (which remains unmarked for inanimate nouns). This difference must be committed to memory. The majority of postpositions are derived by inflecting nouns denoting a specific place in the locative case.

1. Conclusion:

In the contemporary era of globalisation, characterised by the interconnectedness of nations and the emergence of a worldwide community, it is imperative to acknowledge the importance of acquiring English proficiency as a second or foreign language, in addition to one's native language (L1). English serves as the lingua franca in this global village, facilitating effective communication and fostering cultural exchange among individuals from diverse linguistic

backgrounds. The acquisition of a second or foreign language involves a deliberate and intentional effort on the part of learners, as opposed to the natural process of acquiring a first language (L1). Therefore, it is common for individuals learning a second or foreign language to encounter several difficulties. These obstacles may include interference from their native language or first language (L1), the analysis of errors made, the development of an interlanguage or the language system created by the learner, the influence of the learner's age, their desire, the importance of receiving positive feedback, and other related factors. A comparative examination of first language (L1) and second language (L2) might potentially assist second or foreign language learners in addressing the aforementioned difficulties. Consequently, this research provides assistance to those learning a second language (L2) in either Bangla or English by presenting a comprehensive analysis of the morphological and syntactical similarities and differences between these two languages. This study examines the morphology and syntax of both languages, considering a synchronic, diachronic, and grammatical perspective. Consequently, it provides second language (L2) learners of Bangla or English with a valuable opportunity to enhance their understanding of both languages and address challenges related to second language acquisition (SLA).

1.1 Limitations of the Study:

The research titled "A Comparative Analysis of Morphology and Syntax in English and Bangla" is a limited-scale exploratory investigation that examines the morphological and syntactic aspects of both English and Bangla languages. As a small-scale exploratory research endeavour, this study is inherently subject to many restrictions. These limits include factors such as time constraints, money constraints, and a scarcity of study resources, especially pertaining to Bangla morphology and syntax. These limitations significantly impact the scope and depth of the study. Therefore, it is essential to do a comprehensive investigation on this particular subject in the coming years in order to effectively assist second language (L2) learners of either Bangla or English.

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