

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 General Background

Human being is the supreme creature of the world. It is claimed so not because of its highest population but because of its uniqueness. It has got uniqueness in different aspects. Out of many unique aspects, language is the most striking one. Language has been said unique for human being because no other species in the world has got this property. Because of this reason, linguists use the term 'language' for human being and 'Animal communication' for animals. Language makes human being distinct from other creatures.

Language is a means of communicating ideas, thoughts, feelings, emotions, desires and so on. It is a voluntary vocal system of human communication. Chomsky (1957, p.13) defines language as "a set (finite or infinite) of sentences, each of finite in length and constructed out finite set of elements" (as cited in Lyons, 2005, p.7). Similarly, Bloch and Trager (1942, p.5) opine "A language is system of arbitrary vocal symbols by means of which a social group co-operates (as cited in Lyons, 1981, p.4)". Likewise, Sapir (1978, p.8) defined "language is a purely and non – instinctive method of communicating ideas, emotions and desires by means of system of voluntary produced symbols". In rather sociolinguistic way, Wardhaugh (1977, p.1) defines language as "what the numbers of a particular society speak".

Thus, language is learning for communication, in which all aspects of communicative competence should be noted. It is a complex system consisting of at least six components phonology, morphology, syntax, lexicon, speech acts and discourse. Language is purely human but structurally complex. It is unique and creative. It is not only means of communication but it is also social phenomenon which is used in our society to establish the relationship among the human beings.

Jespersen (1954, p.7) says :

Language is frequently spoken form of a 'living organism'. We hear the 'life' of a language, of the 'birth' of new language and of the 'death' of old languages and implication, though not always realized, is that a language is a living thing, something analogous to an animal or plant. So, language can not be defined in a single word. Language is not regarded as constant, it may be some loss and gain theory implied in language because it is dominant by many factors such as social, cultural, economic, political and so on .

In a nutshell, language is the medium through the religion, history, literature, philosophy, anthropology, politics, psychology and several others subjects are created and transmitted to the upcoming generations. Language has played great role to preserve the human civilizations. It is the species – specific and uniform which human being posses. Thus, language is a systematic purely human and non- instinctive means of communication .Language is so essential form of communication among human that it is difficult to think existence of society without it in the present day world.

1.1.1 Languages Situation in Nepal

Despite its small size Nepal consists an amazing cultural and lingual diversity. The 2001 A.D. census has identified 92 languages spoken as mother tongues. However, there remains quite a few language (used by as many as 165340 speakers i.e. 0.74 percent of total population) which are lumped together into unknown slot due to the lack of adequate information. Unfortunately, most of the languages in Nepal do not have their own written script but are used in daily communication only. We should pay more attention to those (indigenous) languages for their promotion and preservation. All the languages spoken in Nepal are classified under the four major language families.

i. Indo-Aryan Group

Indo-European family of language mainly consists of Indo-Aryan group of language in Nepal which form the largest group of language in terms of the number of speakers, viz. nearly 80 percent.

Diagram 1: Indo-European Languages

[Source: Yadav, 2003, p. 145]

Some of the Indo-Aryan languages spoken in Nepal are not yet sub-classified and identified in the lack of their adequate description. These language include Tharu, Bote, Darai, Kumal, Churauti and Danuwar.

ii. Sino-Tibetan Family

Another important group of language spoken in Nepal is the Tibeto-Burman group of Sino-Tibetan family. Though, there are relatively lesser number of

people than the Indo-European family speak it. It consists of the largest number of language which is about 57 languages. Contrary to speakers of Indo-Aryan languages, there has been a rapid decline in speakers of Sino-Tibetan language from 1952/54 to the 1981 Census. In the last two censuses (2001 and 1991) they have, however increased. Their decline and increase may be developed to the reasons ascribed to those of Indo-European language.

iii. Austro-Asiatic Family

The Austro language comprises 'Santali' of the Northern-Munda group and 'Kharia' of the southern Munda group. It is also noted that 'Satar' has been reported in all the censuses but 'Santhal' has been wrongly reported as a

separate language except in the 1952-/54 Census. The 2001 census includes both 'Satar' and 'Santhal' together into a single language called 'Santhali'. It is suggested that 'Munda' also should be included within 'Santhali'. In that it is just a variant name of same language. All the Austric languages are spoken by groups of tribal people from eastern Terai.

Diagram 3: Austro-Asiatic Languages

[Source: Yadav, 2003, p. 147]

iv. Dravidian Family

Dravidian language family includes two languages spoken in Nepal. One of them is called 'Jhagar' in the region east of Koshi river and 'Dhanger' in the region west of Koshi river. It constitutes the northern most part of Dravidian family of languages. It is said to be regional variant of 'Kurux' spoken in Jharkhand state of India though it shows divergence in its vocabulary and grammar (Yadav, 2003). Another Dravidian language is 'Kisan' with 489 speakers settled in Jhapa district.

Diagram 4: Dravidian Languages

[Source: Yadav, 2003, p. 147]

1.1.2 The Maithili Language in Nepal

Nepal is a multilingual country .It is very rich in terms of number of languages spoken here. More than ninety languages are spoken here in Nepal . Among them, Maithili is the second most widely used language. The Maithili, one of the sweetest languages, is spoken into adjoining south Asian countries Nepal and India. It is spoken by about 30 millions people mainly residing in the Eastern part of Terai region of Nepal and in the northeastern part of Indian state of Bihar. In Nepal, Maithili is the mother tongue of 12.4 percentages of the total population and figures second in terms of the number of speakers – next only two Nepali, the language of the nation, spoken by a little over 50 percent of the population. As its name implies, Maithili is the language of residents of Mithila, the pre-historic ancient kingdom ruled by the then king Janak, the father of Sita/Janki.

Maithili has a long rich tradition of written literature in both Nepal and India. Vidyapati Thakur is the most celebrated poet of the Mithila. He is a poet of mirth and merriment. Maithili literature has a very long tradition of oral story telling. Oral Literature resigned in almost all genres of Maithili before the printing facility came into existence. Shree Krishna Thakur, Baidyanath Mishra, Kali Kumar Das are some renowned story writers in Maithili. At present there have been literacy writings in literacy genres, especially poetry, plays and fiction from both Nepali and Indian writers. Apart from

literature, Maithili writers are contributing to the other fields like culture history, Journalism, linguistics etc.

Maithili has been taught as a subject of study in both countries Nepal and India from school to university levels. In Nepal, it is used as a medium of instruction at primary level in a few districts, namely, Dhanusha, Mohattari, Saptari, Siraha, Morang, Sunsari. It is also being taught as a optional first paper at the secondary level and a major subject in the faculty of humanities and social sciences from intermediate to master level. The importance of Maithili in the context of Nepal need not be over emphasized as flourished as a court language in Kathmandu valley during Malla period. Several literacy works and inscriptions in Maithili are still preserve at the national archives in Kathmandu.

According to CBS: HMG Nepal (2001), Maithili has been the second widely spoken language of Nepal, as it is used by 27,97,582 people living in south eastern plains known as Terai. There are about 9 Terai districts, namely, Siraha, Saptari, Udaypur, Morang, Sunsari, Sarlahi, Dhanusha, Mohattari and Rautahat where Maithili is in vogue.

Comparative philology maintains that languages are linked with one another would mean they are sister languages bearing from Same mother language. Some diagram drawn below show how languages are related to one another and where Maithili language originates from .

Figure 1.1

**Genetic Relation to Other Languages Originated from the SAME
MOTHER LANGUAGE SANSKRIT**

[Source: Based on Roy's Grammar, 1995]

Figure 1.2

Genetic Relation of Maithili to Other NIA Languages of Eastern India,

[Source: S. Jha, 1958, p. 45].

1.1.3 Demographic Distributions of the Maithili Language and its speakers

About 30 million people mainly in the northeastern part of India state of Bihar and the southeastern part of Nepalese Terai region speak the Maithili language. It is also used marginally in adjoining Indian states like west Bengal, Maharashtra, and Madhya Pradesh.

According to CBS 2001, the total population of Maithili speakers based on districts :

Table No. 1
District-wise Population of Maithili Speakers

S.N.	District	Native speakers Number
1	Morang	186557
2	Sunsari	200444
3	Saptari	428320
4	Siraha	484520
5	Dhanusha	602121
6	Mahottari	456656
7	Sarlahi	346015
8	Kathmandu	13304
9	Lalitpur	3610

[Source : CBS 2001].

1.1.4 The English Language and its Significance in Nepalese Education

English is the most widely used language in the world. Undoubtedly, English is the means of international communication and it is also the world's major language. It is one of the languages recognized by the UNO. English is the appropriate international language for Nepal. It is a vital tool for any student to become successful in local, national and international communication. Thus,

the importance of English in the present day world need not be over emphasized.

Crystal (1995,p.108) opines “English holds special status of medium of communication”. There are more than 6000 languages spoken in the world. By the end of the 20th century, English was already well established as a genuine lingua–franca that is a language used widely for communication who do not between people share the same first or second language. English is also a mother tongue of many people in the world. Such ‘native speakers’ is increasingly out–numbered by people who have English as a second or third language and use it for international communication.

English is used to get world wide knowledge in various fields like literature, academic, scientific and technological discoveries. As the Nepali Language cannot fulfill our needs of scientific and technological knowledge of the world, Nepal needs English language for the acquisition and transmission of the scientific and the technological knowledge for tourism and business and as a language for higher education.

In the context of Nepal, English is taught as a foreign language in all the schools . It is taught as a compulsory subject from grade one to bachelor’s level in government schools and colleges. In the context of private schools, it is taught right from L.K.G. to higher level as a compulsory subject as well as the medium of instruction. In addition, it is used as an access language or a library language and a means of instructional evaluation at the higher level of evaluation. Basically, teaching English in the schools of Nepal has the purpose of enabling the students to exchange their ideas with people of any nationality who speak or write English .Therefore, the importance of teaching English can hardly be exaggerated in Nepal. As it has become an inevitable tool for anybody to achieve their target in the academic field, Maithili speaking students are not an exception.

Awasthi (2003)states :

There was no college and university for higher education in Nepal until Tri-chandra college was opened in 1918. English for higher level was introduced with the opening of Tri-Chandra college. However, there was no provision for teacher training ELT in Nepal started in 1971 with the implementation of national educational System Planning (NESP) and the same year Tribhuvan University started B.Ed. program in English education (p.22).

This statement clarifies that in Nepal, the English language started from the mid 19th century, which is very late.

Although the teaching of English in Nepal began in the time of the Rana's Regime, the English language teaching situation of Nepal is not good. The importance of English in the present day world is being increased and Nepal cannot be exception to it. One who has a good command to English can easily survive in any part of the world.

1.1.5 Importance of Grammar

The term 'Grammar' has been derived from a Greek word 'Grammatika' or 'GrammatikaTeche' which means 'the art of writing'. Grammar is the rules in a language for changing the form of words and combining them into sentences . Richards, et al. (1999,p.161) define grammar as “a description of the structures of a language and the way in which linguistic units such as words and phrases are combined to produce sentences in the language”. Similarly, Ur (1996) “it can be defined as how words are combine or changed to form acceptable unit of meaning within a language”. Thus, grammar is a mechanism of a language to produce correct sentences according to the rules of the languages. In other

words, learning language is learning the rules of the language .Grammar teaches us to manipulate a language in speech and writing . The sure aim of grammar is to help the learners to choose structures which accurately expresses the meanings they want to create . In this way, Grammar is a means to improve accuracy in the use of language.

A language may have different grammatical processes. Among them, Sentence is one. Sentence is found in both the languages English and Maithili .

1.1.6 English Sentence

Sentence is the combination of words which gives complete sense . It is the largest unit of grammar since there is no unit higher than this in grammatical analysis. Various grammarians and linguists have defined sentences differently. Crystal (2003,p.414) defines sentence as “the largest structural unit in terms of which the grammar of language is organized”. Similarly, Aarts and Aarts (1986,p.79) define it as “the largest unit of grammatical description since it does not function in the structure of a unit higher than itself”. Likewise, In the same way, Yadava (2001, p.210) states "the sentence can structurally be defined as the highest unit of grammar.”

Thus, sentence is the largest unit of grammatical structure having its own subject and predicate which is semantically complete.

1.1.7 Types of Sentences

Sentence is categorized differently on different basis by different linguists and grammarians. Traditionally, sentences were categorized into five types i.e. Assertive, Interrogative, Imperative, optative and Exclamatory. According to modern linguists and grammarians, sentences can classified on the basis of different properties or criteria . In terms of their structural complexity, sentences can be divided into three types i.e. simple sentences, complex sentences and compound sentences. Similarly, sentences can also have two

different classification. The first is based on their grammatical form which refers to formal or syntactic properties, the second on their function in communication which refers to functional properties. In other words, sentence can be classified on the basis of two different criteria: formal and functional. Thus, there are two different classification of sentences:

- I) Formal classification and
- II) Functional classification

1.1.7.1 Formal Classification of Sentences

There are five types of sentences on the basis of their formal properties. They are as follows :

- a) Declarative sentences,
- b) Interrogative sentences,
- c) Imperative sentences, and
- d) Exclamatory sentences.
- e) Optative sentences

a) Declarative Sentences

Declarative sentence always have a subject, which precedes the verb (Aarts and Aarts, 1986,p.94). This sentence makes a statement or assertion. Declarative sentence may either be affirmative or negative. e.g.

- Paris is the capital of France.
- This passage illustrates his sense of humour.

b) Interrogative Sentences

Interrogative sentences contain a subject and open with an auxiliary verb or WH-Word (Aarts and Aarts, 1986, p. 94). This type of sentence asks questions

.e.g.

- Can you play guitar ?
- Who wrote this letter ?

There are five types of interrogative sentences :

- i) Yes-No Questions,
- ii) Open interrogatives or WH interrogatives,
- iii) Alternative interrogatives,
- iv) Rhetorical interrogatives, and
- v) Tag interrogatives

Yes-No questions

The interrogative sentences which elicit yes or no answers are called yes-no questions. e.g.

- Are you fine now? (Ans.: Yes, I am./No, I am still sick.)
- Do you love music? (Ans.: Yes, I do./No, I don't.)

Open interrogatives or WH –interrogatives

The interrogative sentences which can elicit an unlimited range of answers are called open interrogatives or WH- interrogatives. e.g.

- What have you eaten today ?(Ans : I have eaten mutton and rice/ fish curry and rice / Noodles/Momo /...)
- Which is your favourite subject ?

Alternative Interrogatives

The interrogative sentences in which the possible choices of answers are given in the question itself are called alternative interrogatives. e.g.

- Would you like tea or coffee ?
- Have you eaten rice or noodles ?

Rhetorical Interrogatives

In certain situations interrogative sentences are not used to ask questions at all. Instead, they suggest order or request. e.g.

- How many times do I have to tell you not to make noise ?

Tag Interrogatives

A tag interrogative is a shortened yes/no questions appended at the end of declarative sentences .e.g.

- He is a farmer, isn't he ?
- You teach English, don't you ?

c) Imperative Sentences

Imperative sentences contain a verb in the imperative mood. If a subject is present it is usually you, but as a rule the subject is lacking (Aarts and Aarts, 1986, p. 95). In other words, In an imperative sentence, the subject 'you' is missing and the verb is in base form. This type of sentence gives order, advice or makes request. e.g.

- Bring a glass of water, please.
- Do not shout.
- Come in, please.

d) Exclamatory Sentences

In exclamatory sentences, the subject precedes the verb. They are introduced by phrases opening with the words 'how' or 'what' (Aarts and Aarts, 1986, p. 95). This type of sentences are used to express surprise, sorrow, grief, happiness, sadness etc. e.g.

- How brave you are !
- How lovely the hills are !
- What a great fool he is !

e) Optative Sentences : Optative sentence is one that expresses wish e.g.

- God save Nepal !
- May you be hit with thunder !
- May you go to the hell !
- May you live long
- May you be victorious !

1.1.7.2 Functional Classification of Sentences

Each of these formal sentence types has a primary or typical function in language use. On the basis of the function, sentences are classified as follows:

- a) Statement,
- b) Question,
- c) Command and
- d) Exclamation

In terms of their typical function, the sentence types in the formal classification hold the following relationship with the sentence types in the functional classification:

Table No. 2
Form-function Interface

Formal classification	Functional classification	Example
1. Declarative sentence	1. Statement	I like fish.
2. Interrogative sentence	2. Question	Do you like coffee ?
3. Imperative sentence	3. Command	Get up !
4. Exclamatory sentence	4. Exclamation	What a beauty she is !

[Source: Aarts and Aarts, 1986, p. 95.]

This table shows that declarative sentences are chiefly used to make statements, interrogative sentences to ask questions, imperative sentences to give commands and exclamatory sentences to make exclamations. Such correlation between formal and functional sentences types is referred to as form function interface. The interface of this nature plays an important role in the analysis of sentences.

It is, however, to be born in mind that this correlation holds only in typical uses. Formal sentence types are also sometimes used to express functions other than the typical ones listed in the table. It suggests that there is no-one-to-one relationship between the formal and functional sentences types.

This means that a formal sentences type can be used to express various functions; conversely, a function can be express by various formal sentence types. Consider the following example in this regard.

Table No. 3
Request and its Forms

Function	Form	Examples
A request	Imperative	Pass salt, please !
	Interrogative	Could you pass salt, please ?
		Would you mind passing salt ?
		Where is salt ?

[Source: Yadava, Y.P., 2001, p. 215.]

On the basis of structural complexity sentences are classified as follows:

- a. Simple sentence
- b. Compound sentence
- c. Complex sentence

a) Simple Sentences

A simple sentence can be defined as a sentence in which none of the function is realized by a clause. A simple sentence does not contain an embedded sentence as realization of one of its function. A simple sentence is always an independent sentence, that is a sentence capable of occurring on its own (Aarts and Aarts, 1986,p.80). e.g.

- I like Ice-cream.
- She bought a car.

b) Compound Sentences

A compound sentence is one in which two or more sentences have been co-ordinate. Each of the conjoins is independent, since there is no questions of embedding (Aarts and Aarts,1986,p.86). e.g.

- I have bought a new shirt, but it does not fit me.
- Sita is a beautiful girl but she is foolish.

c) Complex Sentences

Sentences in which one or more sentence functions are realized by a clause (finite or non-finite) are complex (Aarts and Aarts,1986,p.83). In other words, a sentence which consists of a main clause and one or more sub ordinate clause is called complex sentence. e.g.

- When it is hot, we cannot work.
- If he comes to me, I shall help him.

1.1.8 CA and its Importance on Language Teaching

Contrastive analysis (CA) is defined as a scientific study of similarities and differences between languages. It is a branch of linguistics which compares two languages to find out their similarities and differences and then to predict the areas of difficulty in learning. In other words, CA basically means the systematic analysis of formal similarities and differences between two languages in which one is regarded as source language and another is regarded as target language. Broadly defined, contrastive analysis has been used, as a tool in historical linguistics to establish language genealogies, in comparative linguistics to create language taxonomies and in translation theory to investigate problem of equivalence. The term contrastive analysis is known as method of analyzing the structure of two or more than two languages to find out the different factors of their systems. The main aim of contrastive analysis is to provide insights into similarities and differences between languages and then to explain and predict problems in L2 learning.

According to Van, et al. (1984, p.38), CA is a “systematic comparison of specific linguistic characteristics of two or more languages”. Similarly, Richard et al. (1999,p.83) define CA “as the comparison of linguistic system of two languages for example, sound system or grammatical system”. Likewise, James (1980, p.3) opines “CA is hybrid linguistic enterprise. It is a linguistic enterprise aimed at producing inverted (i.e. contrastive, not comparative) two-

valued typologies (a CA is always concerned with a pair of languages), and founded on the assumption that languages can be compared”. In the same way, Asher (1984,p.737) defined “contrastive analysis which is also called ‘Contrastive linguistics,’ refers to a systematic comparison of linguistics system of two or more languages”.

Lado (1957, p.2 as cited in Corder, 1973, p.2) states :

We assume that the student who comes in contact with a foreign language will find some features of it quite easy and others extremely difficult. Those elements that are similar to his native language will be simple for him and those elements that are different will be difficult.

Thus, CA claims that the greater the differences between the target language and the learners native language the greater is difficulty in learning and the greater the similarities between them the greater is ease in learning.

CA was introduced in the late 1940s and 50s. It was highly popularized in the 60s and its popularity declined in the 70s. The pioneers in the field of CA were Robert Lado and Charles Carpenter Fries. CA was first advocated by Fries and later it was elaborated by Lado. The development of CA for foreign language teaching can be traced back to the American linguist C.C. Fries who make the first clarion call for it. In his work ‘Teaching and Learning English as Foreign Language (1945)’, Fries quotes that “the most effective materials are those that are based upon a scientific description of the language to be learned carefully compared with a parallel descriptions of the native language of the learner”.

Later on, Robert Lado made the concept more direct clear and explicit . In 1957 his classical work entitled ‘linguistics Across the Culture’ was published. In this book he provided three underlying assumptions of CA, which have significant role in language teaching :

- 1) Individuals tend to transfer the forms and meanings and the distribution of forms and meanings of their native language and culture to the foreign language and culture, both productively when attempting to speak the language...and receptively when attempting to grasp and understand the language.
- 2) In the comparison between native and foreign languages lies the key to ease or difficulty in foreign language.
- 3) The teacher who has made a comparison of the foreign language with the native language of the students will know better what the real learning problems are and can better provide for teaching them.

Halliday, et al. (1964, p.112) say that a language teacher with a knowledge of contrastive analysis can be expected to guide their students in a more effective manner as they will understand the cause of an error and be better able to prepare contrastive drills. James (1980, p. 145) puts out the three pedagogical applications of CA. According to him, CA has application in predicting and diagnosing a proportion of the L2 errors committed by learners with a common L1 and in the design of teaching instrument for such learners. CA helps in designing teaching learning materials for those particular areas that need more attention. The findings of CA are useful not only for language teachers but also for course designers, text experts and learners.

CA has its great importance in language teaching . There are mainly two functions of CA. Firstly, it predicts the likely errors to be committed by a particular group of learners in learning a particular language is also regarded as the primary function of CA. Secondly, it explains the sources of errors in ones performance. This is the secondary function of CA. So, a language teacher should have good knowledge of CA to treat the learners psychologically and academically. Unless a language teacher knows the sources and types of the errors that learners commit he /she cannot impart knowledge to the learners.

The most important thing to remember by a language teacher is basic assumption behind CA. Lado's (1957) first assumption states that when we came in contact with an L2 our knowledge of L1 comes on the way. While learning an L2 some features are easier to learn and some are difficult because of the transfer of the old habits / knowledge. If old knowledge is similar to the new knowledge there is positive transfer, which facilitates in learning an L2 but if old knowledge is different from the new knowledge there is negative transfer which hinders in learning an L2.

In short, the more similarities between the two languages, the more easily to learn and the more differences between two languages, the more difficult to learn. We can say that greater the similarities, greater the ease and lesser the chances of errors and greater the differences, greater the difficulty and greater the chances of error. CA has its significant contribution to the L2 teaching. It provides sound conceptual insights about the language a teacher teaches. It helps the teacher to diagnose the level of difficulty and causes of the errors that learners commit.

1.2 Review of the Related Literature

Though some comparative studies have been carried out on different languages in different areas, there are very few researches carried out on Maithili language in the Department of English Education, T.U., Kirtipur. There has no any significant research works has been carried out comparing sentence types in Maithili and English languages. The related literatures to the present study are as follows:

Sah (2000) carried out a research on "A Comparative Study of S-V Agreement in Maithili and English language." The main objective of his study was to find out the comparison between S-V Agreement in Maithili and English. He used both primary and secondary sources of data. The primary sources of data were hundred Maithili speaking students only of grade nine and ten of Saptari district. Similarly, the secondary sources of data were books, journals,

magazines these which are related to the topic. The main tool for his study was a questionnaire containing seventy items in total of binary choice and translation types. He used judgmental non-random sampling procedure to sample the population. He found that S-V Agreement system between these languages are utterly different except in the case of gender. Unlike in English, honorific forms are used in Maithili.

Karn (2004) carried out a research on “ A Comparative Study of Cases in Maithili and English”. The objectives of the study were to identify and analyze cases in Maithili, finding the points of similarities and differences between English and Maithili case system. Primary and secondary sources were used to collect data. The primary sources of data were hundred Maithili speaking students only of grade ten of the school of Siraha district. Similarly, the secondary sources of data were related books, journals, magazines etc. The main tools for his study were translation items, multiple choice items and composition work. He used stratified random sampling procedure to select the population. He found that nominative, instrumental, ablative and dative cases are common in both languages.

Thakur (2005) carried out a research on “Relativization in English and Maithili.” The main objective of his study was to find out the comparison between Relativization in English and Maithili. He used both primary and secondary sources of data. The primary sources of data were sixty Maithili speaking students of grade twelve of Dhanusa district. Similarly, the secondary sources were books, journals, magazines, thesis which are related to the topic. He used test item as a research tool for data collection. He used simple random sampling procedure to select the sample. He found that in the Maithili language there is honorific, non-honorific distinction in using relatives, whereas, in English there is no such distinction.

Yadav (2007) carried out a research on "Pronominal in the Maithili and English Languages: A Comparative Study". His main objective was to compare and contrast pronominal of the English with that of Maithili language. He used both

primary and secondary sources. His primary sources of data were thirty Maithili native speakers of Yadukaha VDC of Dhanusha district and secondary sources of data were books, journals, thesis etc. He used judgmental and stratified sampling procedure to sample the population. He used questionnaire and interview as research tools for data collection. He found that pronominal of the Maithili language have more grammatical distinctions; for separate pronouns, separate verbs were found.

Chaudhary (2008) carried out a research on “A Comparative Study on Sentence Types in Tharu and English”. The main objective of his study was to identify and analyze the differences between sentence types in Tharu and English. He used both primary and secondary sources of data. The primary sources of data were sixty Tharu native speakers of Siraha district. Similarly, the secondary sources of data were books, journals, magazines, thesis which are related to the topic. He used judgmental non-random sampling procedure to sample the population. He found that Sapatariya dialect of Tharu as well as English have four types of sentences on the basis of formal criteria i.e. declarative, interrogative, imperative and exclamatory.

1.3 Objectives of the Study

The main objectives of the present study were as follows:

- i) To identify the sentence types in the Maithili language.
- ii) To find out similarities and differences between Maithili and English sentence types.
- iii) To list some pedagogical implications on the basis of findings of the study.

1.4 Significance of the Study

The research study of "Sentence Types in Maithili and English" will be significant in language learning / teaching. Without knowledge of different types of sentences of a language, detailed study of language is almost impossible. So, this research will significantly be helpful for those who are learning and teaching the Maithili or English, as a second/ foreign language. The linguists, grammarians and researchers will also be benefited from this research. Moreover, it will be useful to the text book writers, curriculum designers, syllabus designers. Similarly, this research will be fruitful to the language planners, policy makers and the researchers who carried out research in Maithili and English language. This research will be equally significant to all the people and linguists, who are directly or indirectly involved in teaching Maithili and English language. It will also be significant to any of Nepalese vernacular languages in relation to English.

CHAPTER TWO

METHODOLOGY

I followed the following methodology to accomplish the objectives of the study:

2.1 Sources of Data

To meet the objectives of the study, I used both primary and secondary sources of data.

2.1.1 Primary Sources

The native speakers of the Maithili language of Jijhaul VDC of Siraha district were the primary sources from whom the required data for the study was collected.

2.1.2 Secondary Sources

The secondary sources of this study were related books, grammar, reports, journals, research studies, dictionaries. e.g. Chomsky (1957), Lado (1957), Jha (1958), Halliday (1964), Sapir (1978), James (1980), Lyons (1981), Asher (1994), Kumar (1996), Yadav (1997), Richards (1999), Sah (2000), Yadava (2001), Crystal (2003), Karn (2004), Chaudhary (2008) and so on.

2.2 Population of the Study

The population of the study was Maithili native speakers of VDC Jijhaul, Siraha district.

2.3 Sample Size

The sample population was 80 Maithili native speakers of VDC Jijhaul, Siraha district.

2.4 Sampling Procedure

I selected 80 Maithili native speakers of Jijhaul VDC, Siraha district. The total population was divided into two groups i.e. educated and uneducated. Educated were those who had academic qualification above S.L.C. Similarly, those informants who were unable to read or write and had no academic qualification but able to speak well were regarded as uneducated population. Out of 80 people, 40 were educated and equal numbers of uneducated people were selected. Likewise, among 40, 20 were males and same numbers of females respondents. I used purposive/judgmental non-random sampling procedure to sample the population. In this sampling, the researcher selected those informants who could provide the best information to achieve the objectives of the study.

2.5 Tools for Data Collection

I used questionnaire and interview schedule as research tools.

2.6 Process of Data Collection

I followed the following processes to collect the data for this research:

- i) After preparing the questionnaire and interview schedule, I visited the sample population (Maithili native speakers) of Jijhaul VDC, Siraha district.
- ii) Then, I individually met the informants and established rapport with them. I also explained them the purpose of conducting this research.
- iii) After that, I handed over the sheets of structured questionnaire to educated informants to translate English or Nepali sentences into their native or mother tongue equivalent.
- iv) I conducted interview with uneducated informants according to the prepared interview schedule and write their responses in the sheets of interview questionnaire.
- v) I made clear about the English or Nepali sentences of the structured questionnaire where needed.

- vi) After collecting the data, I consulted some Maithili native speakers of Siraha to cross check the validity of data.

2.7 Limitations of the Study

The limitations of the study were as follows:

- i) The study was confined to the comparison between Maithili and English sentence types.
- ii) Only eighty Maithili native speakers of Jijhaul VDC of Siraha were included in the study.
- iii) Only two types of tools i.e. structured questionnaire and structured interview were used in the study.
- iv) The study is descriptive in nature.

CHAPTER - THREE

ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION

This chapter deals with the analysis and interpretation of the data obtained from the informants and secondary sources. The collected data were analyzed and interpreted descriptively and comparatively with the help of tables diagrams, charts, and illustrations. After that, comparison and contrast of the types of sentences in Maithili with those of English was done. Finally on the basis of comparison, the points of similarities and differences were drawn from the types of Maithili. This chapter contains two parts that is analysis of Maithili sentence types and their comparison with English sentence types.

3.1 Types of Sentence in the Maithili Language

3.1.1 Functional Classification of Sentences

According to Yadav (1997, p. 181), sentence is categorized into two types i.e. major sentence types and minor sentence types on the bass of functional properties. Major sentence types include declarative sentence, interrogative sentence, imperative whereas minor sentence types contain exclamative, hortative, imprecative.

3.1.1.1 The Major Sentence Types

a. Declarative sentence

A declarative sentence is the least marked, the most basic and the most widespread form of clause observed in the Maithili language (Yadav, p. 182). In Maithili, declarative sentence starts with subject and object comes before the verb. Thus, the normal form of declarative sentence is 'S + O + V.' This sentence makes statement or assertion. Declarative sentence is of two types i.e. affirmative and Negative. There is 'n i' negative marker in Maithili which makes affirmative sentence negative.

Affirmative, for example,

- | | | | |
|----|---------|-----------|------------------------------------|
| 1. | h m | bidyarthi | chi-i. |
| | S | (Comp) O | V |
| | i | student | be - prs-1 ^{sg} |
| | I | am | a student. |
| | S | V | O (Comp.) |
| 2. | O | gai | duh lk i. |
| | S | O | V |
| | he | cow | milk-pst-3 ^{sg} |
| | He | milked | the cow. |
| 3. | h m | to-ra | kitab de-l-i uk. |
| | S | IO | O V |
| | i | you | book give-pst-1 ^{sg} |
| | I | gave | you the book. |
| 4. | Okras b | kriket | khel i-ch i. |
| | S | O | V |
| | they | cricket | play-prog-be-prs-3 ^{pl} |
| | They | are | playing cricket. |
| | S | AV | V ⁴ O |
| 5. | hari | bhat | khaich i. |
| | S | V | O |
| | hari | rice | eat-prs-3 ^{sg} |
| | Hari | eats | rice. |
| | S | V | O |
| 6. | h | s b | am kha-leliy i |
| | S | | O V |
| | you | all | mango eat take-pst-2 ^{sg} |
| | You | ate up | all the mangoes |
| | S | V | O |

Negative, for example,

- | | | | | |
|----|-----|---------|-----|-------------------------|
| 7. | O | skul | n i | gel i. |
| | S | O | | V |
| | he | school | | go-pst-3 ^{sg} |
| | He | went | | to school. |
| 8. | h m | bhat | n i | khely i. |
| | S | O | | V |
| | i | rice | not | eat-pst-1 ^{sg} |
| | I | did not | eat | rice. |
| 9. | h m | rita-ke | n i | dekh liy i. |
| | i | rita | | see-pst-1 ^{sg} |
| | S | IO | | V |
| | I | saw | | Ram. |
| | S | V | | IO |

b. Interrogative Sentence

According to the type of reply expected, four types of interrogative sentences are recognized in the Maithili language. They are neutral yes-no question, information question, disjunctive question, based yes-no question (Yadav, p. 290). Each types of question is described below:

I. Neutral Yes-No Question

Those that expect a positive or negative answer to the questioned statement are Yes-No questions. These questions are neutral with respect to the answer the speaker expects and therefore will be called "Neutral Yes-No Questions" (Yadav, p. 290). Neutral Yes-No Question is characterized by the use of a sentence-initial question word 'Ki'. In other word, neutral Yes-No question starts with '-ki' marker which occurs in the beginning of the sentence, followed by subject, object, verb and question marker at the end. So, the sentence pattern of neutral yes-no question is 'ki +S + O + O... ?

For example,

1. ki O b hut bimar ch- ith ?
MK S O A.V.
what he very ill be-prs-3^{sg}
Is he very ill ?
AV S O
2. Ki O master chy i ?
MK S O V
what he teacher be-prs-3^{sg}
Is he a teacher ?
AV S O
3. Ki tora sangit nik/nim n l g ich u ?
MK S O V AV
what you music love do.
Do you love music ?
AV S V O
4. Ki t kh e-l-e ?
MK S V
what you eat-pst-2^{pl}
Did you eat ?
AV S V

The above examples show that 'Ki' is used in the beginning of the sentence in neutral yes-no question in Maithili. In Maithili the question marker 'Ki' is used for all the subjects.

In Maithili, neutral Yes-no question is also formed without applying 'ki' marker by pronouncing the declarative sentence itself with a rising final intonation pattern as 'S+O+V'. Thus, it may be described as 'bare' yes-no question in that they lack the question word 'ki'.

For example,

5. O tora mar lk u ?
he you beat-pst-3^{sg}
Did he beat you ?
AV S V O

6. h ceil e-l- h ?
you walk come-pst-2^{sg}
Did you come back ?

7. O ghar n i jar h l ch i ?
he home not going be-prs-3^{sg}
Is he not going home ?

2. Information Questions

Those that expect a reply from an open-ended range of replies are "Information Questions". Information questions are formed with use of k-proform question words (Yadav, p. 290). The following question markers equivalent to English wh-words are used to form open interrogative sentences which can be termed as 'k-word'.

Table No. 4
'K-word' of Maithili as English 'Wh-word'

Maithili	English
ke	who
k kra	whom
k k r	whose
ki/k thi	what
kon	which
k kh n	when
k hia	on which day
k t	where
komh r/konh r	in which direction
kon	how
keh n	of what type
ki@/ki@k/k thile	why

[Source: Yadav, p. 293]

The question markers listed above generally occur after subject and before the verb phrase. Its sentence pattern is S + K word + V + ?

For example,

1. O ke tharh ch ith ?
MK
he who standing be-prog-3^{sg}
Who is standing there ?

2. k k-ra de-l-hi ?
MK
you whom give-pst-2^{pl}
MK
To whom did you give ?

3. toh r m np raib la bis i kon chiy u ?
 your favourite subject MK which is
 which is your favourite subject ?
4. i k k r kit b ch- ik ?
 MK
 this whose book be-prs-3^{sg}
 Whose book is this ?
5. h ki kin liy i ?
 MK
 you what buy - pst-2^{pl}
 What did you buy ?
6. O k kh n ut i ?
 MK
 he when come fut-3^{sg}
 When will he come ?
7. O k t ch ith aikailh ?
 MK
 he where be-prs-3^{sg} these days
 Where is he these days ?
8. toh r nam k thi chiy u ?
 MK
 your name what be-prs-2^{sg}
 What is your name ?

In Maithili, information question marker i.e. 'ke' and 'ki' also occur at the sentence initial position which function as the subject of the verb. For example

9. **ke** e - l - ah ?
 who come-pst-3^{sg}
 Who came ?

10. **ki** bhe- l ?
 what become - pst (3NH)
 What happened ?
11. **ke** baghke mar lk i ?
 who tiger kill-pst-(3H)
 Who killed the tiger ?
12. **ke** tora mar lk ?
 who you beat-pst- (3H)
 Who beat you ?

Like English, Maithili K question words function as a determiner in a sentence.

For example,

13. **i** **k -k r** kit b ch- ik ?
 this whose book be-prs-3^{sg}
 Whose book is this ?
14. **kon** ch^{ra}ra phek-l- k i ?
 which boy throw-pst (3NH)
 Which boy threw ?
15. **Kon** kitab le-bhi ?
 MK
 which book take fut (2NH)
 Which book will you take ?

3. Disjunctive Question

Those that expect as a reply the answer drawn from the list of mutually exclusive alternatives provided in the question are "Disjunctive questions". Disjunctive questions are formed by the use of the disjunctive particle 'ki'. The disjunctive of a disjunctive question may be a NP, a sentence, a VP (Yadva, p. 296). In other words, in this question, the alternation is generally placed

between two alternative words. The sentence pattern is usually like neutral yes-no question. But in some cases disjunctive question is also in the form of information question. For example,

1. h c̣klet le-b **ki** dudh **ki** ḳphiki **ki** cah ?
MK MK MK

you chocolate take or milk or coffee or tea

What will you take chocolate or milk or coffee or tea ?

2. O sains **ki** kom rs p rh ich i ?
MK

she science or commerce read-prs-3^{sg}

Does she study science or commerce ?

3. t bhat **ki** roti kene-chihi ?
MK

you rice or bread eat-perf-be-prs-2^{pl}

Have you eaten rice or bread ?

4. rita gh r-me ch i **ki** n i ?
MK

rita home at be-prs-3^{sg} or not

Is Rita at home or not ?

5. cah leb **ki** ḳphi **ki** kokakola ?
MK

tea take- fut- (2H) or coffee or coca-cola

Would you like to have take or coffee or coca-cola ?

6. i dudh gai **ki** bh insi-ke chiy i ?
MK

this milk cow or buffalo of be-prs-3^{sg}

Is this milk of cow or buffalo ?

The above examples show that 'ki' is used in Maithili disjunctive question, to make alternation. It occurs between two alternative words.

4. Based Yes-No Question

Based Yes-No questions are formed by the use of a declarative statement followed by a tag question word 'n i', 's ce', optionally followed by vocative 'y u', 'h u' and 'r u' (Yadva, p. 296). Maithili has always negative tag whether the statement is negative or positive. 'ki' particle is also used as tag in command + tag in Maithili.

For example,

1. i ch ura h᳚nds m / nim n ch i, n i ?
 this boy handsome be-prs-3^{sg}, not
 This boy is handsome, isn't he ?
2. suga uir ge-l- u, n i ?
 parrot fly go-pst-3^{sg}, not ?
 Parrot flew away, didn't it ?
3. t ngreji p rb ichi, n i ?
 you English teach-prs-2^{pl}, not
 You teach English, don't you ?
4. i ch uri nim n/nik ch i, n i ?
 this girl beautiful be-prs-3^{sg}, not
 This girl is beautiful, isn't she ?
5. u to-ra khub pit lk u, n i ?
 he you much beat pst-3^{sg}, not
 He beat you severely, didn't he ?
6. pna deske maya-k r, ki ?
 your nation love-Imp, will you
 Love your nation, will you ?

7. ek gilās biyar le, ki ?
a glass beer have-Imp, will you
Have a glass of beer, will you ?
8. h p rsu jeb i, n i y u ?
you day after tomorrow go-fut-2^{pl}, not you
You are going day after tomorrow, aren't you ?
9. bhuk i-b la kuta k hiyone dh r i-ch i, n i ?
barking dog never bite-prs-3^{sg}, not
Barking dog never bites, does it ?
10. dhumr pan n i k r, ki ?
smoke not do, will you
Don't smoke, will you ?

C. Imperative Sentence

In Maithili, imperative sentences are unique. They tend to stand apart from similar constructions in other languages (Yadav, p. 284). Imperative sentence starts with object in the Maithili language. Like English, the subject is understood in Maithili imperative sentence. The sentence pattern is 'O + V'. Imperative sentences give order, command, advice, makes request etc. For example,

1. JhyΘl b nd -k r.
O V
window close-Imp
Close the window.
V O
2. p n des-ke maya-k r.
O V
your nation love-Imp
Love your nation.

3. ap na m iya-babu-ke bata-k r.
 your parents obey-Imp
 Obey your parents.
4. g rib-ke m d t-k r.
 O V
 poor help-Imp
 Help the poor.
5. n i j-o.
 not go-Imp
 Don't go.
6. d bai s m ime kh-o.
 O V
 medicine time take-Imp
 Take medicine in time.
 V O
7. pulis-ke kh b r - k r.
 O V
 police inform-Imp
 Inform the police.
 V O
8. Kripya h mra m d t-k r..
 O V
 kindly me help-Imp
 Kindly help me.
 V O
9. kripya h mra t p n k lm de.
 O O V
 please me your pen give

Please give me your pen.
V IO DO

10. pnas n mh r-ke ad r-k r.
O V
your elder respect-Imp
Respect your elders.
V O

Negative imperative: In negative imperatives of Maithili, the negative particle 'n i' is in preverbal position, and verb is in its imperative form. For example,

11. phul n i tor-u.
flower not pluck-Imp
Don't pluck the flower.

12. i tar n i p kr-u/ch-u.
this wire not touch-Imp
Don't touch this wire.

13. Khisyelha lok-ke k ihyo-ne jisk-o.
angry man never tease-Imp
Never tease the angry man.

Reflective imperative construction also reflect the existence of an antecedent subject pronoun. For example,

14. pne kh-o.
Ref/ eat-Imp
Eat yourself.

15. pne a-u.
Refl come-Imp
Come yourself.

3.1.1.2 Minor Sentence Types

a. Exclamative Sentence

Exclamative sentence expresses surprise, grief, sorrow, happiness, sadness etc. in the Maithili language like in English. Interjection words like *e, eh, i, bah, chi, wah, ha, dh tterike, mΘ g i mΘ, bauh u bau, d iya ged iya, dekhi, g ubau, bapre* etc. are used as the marker of exclamative sentence. Wh-equivalent words of English as "Keh n, k tek, k te, k tni" etc. are also used in exclamatory sentences to express the meaning of surprise. For example,

1. ai o m ir ge-l-ah !
what he die go-pst-3^{sg}
What ! did he die !
2. wah ! h ms b mayac jit-geliy i.
hip hip hurry ! we match win-past-1^{pl}
Hip hip hurry ! We won the match.
3. chi ! keh n ghinah u lok ch i.
shame on you ! how dirty that man be-prs-3^{sg}
Shame on you ! How dirty that man is.
4. mΘ g i mΘ ! h m r pet dukhai-ch i.
ouch ! my stomatch ache-prog-be prs-1^{sg}
Ouch ! my stomatch is aching.
5. dhur ! kehen p pyahi m ugi ch i.
pooh ! how dirty woman be-prs-3^{sg}
Pooh ! How dirty that woman is.
6. k tek nim n b ca ch i !
how lovely child be-prs-3^{sg}
How lovely child is !

7. k tek nik/nim n ch uri ch i !
 how beautiful girl be-prs-3^{sg}
 How beautiful the girl is !

8. k te nik p had-s b ch i !
 how lovely hill sab be-prs-3^{pl}
 How lovely the hills are !

The above examples show that exclamative sentence usually begins with interjection words in Maithili. Exclamation mark is placed after the interjection words or at the end of the sentence. The subject precedes the verb in Maithili exclamative sentence.

In Maithili, an exclamative sentence may be formed by duplicating the declarative statement. For example,

9. kaka e-l-ah.
 uncle come-pst-3^{sg}
 The uncle came.

10. kaka e-l-ah kaka e-l-ah !
 uncle come -pst-3^{sg} uncle come pst-3^{sg}
 The uncle came !

b. Hortative Sentence

A hortative sentence is formally distinct from the imperative. Maithili uses a special verbal morphology in order to express desire for action involving both the speaker and the address. In a Maithili hortative sentence, therefore, the subject (whether present or suppressed) is always an inclusive pronoun ' pna s b ' and the verb phrase contain 'c l-u' (Yadav, p. 299). For example,

1. pn s b t h-l c l-u.
 you and I walk-Inf go-Hort
 Let's go to walk.

2. khai-lΘ c l-u.
 eat-Inf go-Hort
 Let's go to eat.

3. b pnas b khel-u.
 now you and I play-Hort
 Let's play now.

4. pnas b kitab p r h-u.
 you and I book read-Hort
 Let's read the book.

An equally common device to form a hortative sentence is to add the affix 'i' to the verb stem. For examples,

5. lok s b b is gel-l phas b sehu b is ja-i.
 people all sit go-pst-3^{pl} you and I also sit go-Hort
 All people sat down, let's sit down too.

6. ab apnas b kha-i.
 now you and I eat-Hort
 Let's eat now.

7. pn sab n i kha-i.
 you and I not eat-Hort
 Let's not eat.

c. Imprecative Sentence

Imprecatives are expressions conveying curses, obscene abuses with which Maithili speech is replete (Yadav, p. 300). For example

1. b jj r kh s- uk tora !
 thunder fall-Opt you
 May you be hit with thunder !

2. k me c i-l j-o t !
hell to walk go-Opt you
May you go to the hell !
3. B hut dint k Ji-u h !.
long day live-Opt you
May you live long !
4. Ok- r beta m ir ja- ☐!
she son die go-Opt
May her son die !
5. to r bijy h-u !
you victorious be-Opt
May you be victorious !
6. bh gban tora k lOn k r-u !
god you help do-Opt
May god help you !

3.2 Comparison of Maithili and English Sentence Types

In this sub-unit, a comparison between functional classification of sentences of Maithili and English has been presented.

3.2.1 Declarative Sentence

Both Maithili and English have declarative sentences which are compared as below:

Table No. 5
Declarative Sentence

S.N.	Maithili	English
1	h m bidyarthi ch-i. S O V i student be - prs-1 ^{pl}	I am a student. S V O (comp)
2	h m bhat khely i. i rice eat-pst-1 ^{pl}	I ate rice. S V O
3	O skul ge-l-ah. S O V he school go-pst-3 ^{sg}	He went to school. S V O (comp)
4	O gai duh lk i. S O V he cow milk-pst.3 ^{sg}	He milked the cow. S V O
5	O k bita likh ich i. S O V he poem write-prs-3 ^{sg}	He writes a poem. S V O
6	okras b kriket khelai ch i. S O V they cricket play-prog-be-3 ^{pl}	They are playing cricket. S AV V ⁴ O
7	h m am n i khely i. S O neg-MK V i mango not eat-pst-1 ^{pl}	I did not eat a mango. S AV neg.MK V O
8	h m tora kitab de-l-i uk. S IO O V i you book give-pst 1 ^{sg}	I gave you the book. S V IO DO

The above examples show the following similarities and differences:

Similarities

1. Both Maithili and English language have affirmative and negative declarative sentences.

Differences

- I. The sentence pattern of Maithili declarative sentence is 'S+O+V' whereas of English is 'S+V+O'. This shows that object occurs between subject and verb in Mathili but in English verb occurs between subject and object.
- II. Negative marker 'n i' is placed before the verb i.e. in the beginning of the verb in Maithili whereas in English the negative marker 'not' is placed after auxiliary verb.
- III. Both the subject and object control the verb agreement in Maithili but in English, only subject controls the verb.

3.2.2 Interrogative Sentence

In English, there are five types of interrogative sentence, i.e. Yes-No question, wh-question, alternative question, tag-question and rhetorical question but in Maithili only four types i.e. neutral. Yes-No question, information question, disjunctive question and based Yes-no question.

a. Yes-No Question

Both the languages, English and Maithili have Yes-No question. In Maithili, Yes-No question is known as "Neutral yes-no question" which are compared as below:

Table No. 6
Yes-No Question

S.N.	Maithili	English
1	ki o b hut bimar ch- ith ? MK S O V what he very ill be-prs-3 ^{sg}	1. Is he very ill ? AV S O
2	ki t kh lhi ? MK S V what you eat - pst-2 ^{pl}	2. Did you eat ? AV S V
3	ki o m st r chiy i ? MK S O V what he teacher be-prs-3 ^{sg}	3. Is he a teacher AV S O
4	ki tora s ngit nik/nim n l g ich u ? MK S O V what you music love do	4. Do you love music ? AV S V O
5	ki to s bdin topi l gb i chihi ? MK S O V what you always cap wear-prs-2 ^{pl}	5. Do you always wear a cap ? AV S V O
6	O tora mar lk u ? S O V he you beat-pst-3 ^{sg}	Did he beat you ? AV S V O
7	to s hm t chihi ? S O V you agree do-prs-2 ^{pl}	Do you agree ? AV S V
8	Cah pi b ? tea drink - fut	Would you like to have some tea ?

The above examples show that both the Maithili and English yes-no question starts with distinct marker. Maithili yes-no question begins with 'ki' marker and its pattern is '**ki** +S+O+V+..... ?' whereas English Yes-No questions begin with auxiliary verb and its pattern is 'A.V. + S + M.V. + O + ?'. But in some

cases Maithili yes-no question may be without the marker 'ki' in the pattern of 'S+O+V...?' with rising intonation. e.g.

1. O tora mar lk u ?
he you beat - pst - 3^{sg}
Did he beat you ?
2. ha ceil e-l h ?
you walk come-pst-2^{pl}
Did you come back ?

The question marker 'ki' is used for all the subjects in Maithili but in English Auxiliary verb is used according to the subject. It means that auxiliary verb differs from subject to subject.

b. Open Interrogative / Wh-question

Both the languages, English and Maithili have open interrogative. In Maithili, open interrogative is called "Information question" which are compared as below:

Table No. 7
Open Interrogative / Wh-question

S.N.	Maithili	English
1	toh r m np r ib la subis i kon chiy u ? your favourite subject which is	Which is your favourite subject ?
2	toh r nam kathi chiy u ? your name what is	What is your name ?
3	ram k t gelai ? ram where go-pst-3 ^{sg}	Where did Ram go ?
4	O k kh n u-t-ah ? he when come-fut-3 ^{sg}	When will he come ?
5	h ki kin liai ? you what buy-pst-2 ^{pl}	What did you buy ?

The above examples show the following similarities and differences:

Similarities

1. Both Maithili and English languages have distinct open, interrogative question markers i.e. 'k-word' and 'wh-word' respectively.

Differences

- I. In Maithili, these markers usually occur between subject and verb whereas in English these markers occur in the beginning of the sentence.
- II. The sentence pattern of Maithili is S + K - word + V + ... ? Whereas of English is wh-word + A.V. + S + M.V. + ?

Both the Maithili and English open interrogative question markers i.e. 'ke- *who*' and 'ki-*what*' occurs at the sentence initial position which function as the subject of the verb. For example,

S.N.	Maithili	English
1	ke e-l-ah ? Who come - pst - (3H)	Who came ?
2	ki bhe-l ? What become - pst - (3NH)	What happened ?
3	Ke baghke mar lk i ? Who tiger kill-pst-(3H)	Who killed the tiger ?
4	ke tora mar k-u ? Who you beat-pst - (3H)	Who beat you ?

Both in Maithili 'k-question word' and English 'wh-word' function as a determiner in a sentence. For example,

S.N.	Maithili	English
1	k k r kitab ch- ik ? this whose book be-prs- (3NH+3NH)	Whose book is this ?
2	Kon ch _{ra} phekl k ? which boy throw-pst-(3NH)	Which boy threw ?
3	Kon kitab le-bhi ? which book take-fut- (2NH)	Which book will you take ?
4	k tne kh ini delhi ? howlittle tobacco give-pst- (2NH)	How little tobacco did you give ?

c. Alternative Question

Both English and Maithili have alternative question. In the Maithili language, alternative question is called "Disjunctive Question" which are compared as below:

Table No. 8
Alternative Question

S.N.	Maithili	English
1	ha c_klet leb ki dudh ki cah ki k_phi ? you chocolate take or milk or tea or coffee	What will you take chocolate or milk or tea or coffee ?
2	to bhat ki roti khenechihi ? you rice or bread eat-perf-be-prs-2 ^{pl}	Have you eaten rice or bread ?
3	O sains ki kom rs p rh i ch i ? she science or commerce read-prs-3 ^{sg}	Does she study science or commerce ?
4	rita gh r-me ch i ki n i ? rita home at be-prs-3 ^{sg} or not	Is Rita at home or not ?
5	cah le-b ki k_phi ki kokakola ? tea take-fut-2 ^{sg} or coffee or cocacola	Would you like to have tea or coffee or coca- cola ?
6	i dudh gai ki bh nsi-ke chiy i ? this milk cow or buffalo of be-prs-3 ^{sg}	Is this milk of cow or buffalo ?
7	h ms b b s ki rels jebai ? we bus or train go-fut I ^{pl}	Shall we go by bus or train ?

The above examples show that both the Maithili and English languages use distinct markers for alternative questions. The marker 'ki' and 'or' are used in Maithili and English respectively. This alternative marker is placed between two alternative words in both the languages.

d. Tag Question

Both the languages, English and Maithili have Tag question. In Maithili, tag question is known as "Baised Yes-No Question" which are compared as below:

Table No. 9
Tag Question

S.N.	Maithili	English
1	suga uir ge-l- u, n i ? parrot fly-go-pst, not	Parrot flew away, didn't it ?
2	i ch ura hΘndsom ch i, n i ? This boy handsome be-prs-3 ^{sg} , not	This boy is handsome, isn't he ?
3	t ngreji p rbaichihi, n i ? you English teach-prs-2 ^{pl} , not	You teach English, don't you ?
4	U churi n i nik ch i, n i ? that girl neg beautiful be-prs-3 ^{sg} , not	That girl is not beautiful, is she ?
5	ek gilasa biyar le, ki ? a glass beer have-Imp, will you	Have a glass of beer, will you ?
6	pan deske maya-k r, ki ? your nation love-Imp, will you	Love your nation, will you ?
7	u tora pit l-k u, n i r u ? he you beat-Imp, not you	He didn't beat you, did he ?

The above examples show the following similarities and differences:

Similarities

- Both Maithili and English have two types of question tag i.e. statement + Tag and command + tag but they differ in processes.

Differences

- I. If the statement is positive, tag is negative and if the statement is negative, tag is positive in English whereas the question tag in Maithili is always negative whether the statement is positive or negative.
- II. There is use of auxiliary verb in English question tag but no use of auxiliary verb in Maithili
- III. The subject of question tag is optional in Maithili but compulsory in English.
- IV. The question tag marker in Maithili is 'n i' whereas in English, 'A.V. + pronoun subject + ?' and 'A.V. + n't + pronoun subject + ?' are the particles of negative and positive tag respectively.
- V. English uses 'shall we' or 'will you' as particle of command + Tag whereas Maithili uses 'ki'.

3.2.3 Imperative Sentence

Both Maithili and English have imperative sentences which are compared as below:

Table No. 10
Imperative Sentence

S.N.	Maithili	English
1	JhyΘl b nd -k r. O V window close-Imp	Close the window. V O
2	p n des-ke maya-k r. O V your nation love-Imp	Love your nation. V O
3	g rib-ke m d t-k r. O V poor help-Imp	Help the poor. V O
4	ek gilās pain lan- . V O a glass water bring-Imp	Bring a glass of water. V O
5	ek gilās kϕhi liy . O V a glass coffee take-Imp	Have a glass of coffee. V O
6	i tar n i ch-u. O neg V this wire not touch-Imp	Don't touch this wire. AV V O
7	phul n i tor-u. O neg V flower not pluck-Imp	Don't pluck the flower. AV V O

The above examples show the following similarities and differences:

Similarities

1. In both Maithili and English imperative sentences, subject (you) is understood.
2. Negative marker is used before main verb in Maithili imperative sentence but in English, negative marker is used with auxiliary verb before main verb.

Differences

1. Maithili Imperative sentence begins with object whereas English imperative sentence begins with verb. The sentence pattern of each of them are 'O+V' and 'V+O' respectively.

Reflexive Imperative Construction.

S.N.	Maithili	English
1	pne kh-o. Refl eat-Imp	Eat yourself.
2	pne a-u. Refl come-Imp	Come yourself .

Both the Maithili and English imperative sentences take the reflexive pronoun but they differ in their position. In Maithili, reflexive pronoun comes before the verb but in English it comes after the verb.

3.2.4 Exclamatory Sentence

Both Maithili and English have exclamatory sentences which are compared as below:

Table No. 11
Exclamatory sentence

S.N.	Maithili	English
1	ai o m ir ge-l-ah ! what he die go-pst-3 ^{sg}	What ! did he die !
2	wah ! h ms b mayac jit-geliy i. hip hip hurry ! we match win-past-1 ^{pl}	Hip hip hurry ! We won the match.
3	chi ! keh n ghinah u lok ch i. shame on you ! how dirty that man be-prs-3 ^{sg}	Shame on you ! How dirty that man is.
4	mb!g i mb ! h m r pet dukhai-ch i. oh mother ! my stomach ache-prog-be prs-1 ^{sg}	Oh mother ! my stomach is aching.
5	dhur ! kehen p pyahi m ugi ch i. pooh ! how dirty woman be-prs-3 ^{sg} .	Pooh ! How dirty that woman is.
6	oh ! ok r bap kail m ir-gel i. alash ! his father yesterday died-pst-3 ^{sg}	Alash ! His father died yesterday.
7	ah ! k te nik ch uri. what beautiful girl	What a beautiful girl !

The above examples show the following similarities and differences:

Similarities

1. Both Maithili and English exclamatory sentences use their own distinct markers followed by exclamation mark (!).
2. Exclamatory sentence usually begins with interjection words in both the languages.

3. The subject precedes the verb in the both Maithili and English exclamatory sentences.
4. Both in Maithili and English exclamatory sentences are introduced by phrases opening with the words 'k te-how', 'i-what', 'kehen-how', 'k tne-how little', 'k tek-how much' which occupy the determinor position and function as degree of modifier, to noun, adjectives or adverbs. For examples,

S.N.	Maithili	English
1	k tek nik/nim n ch uri ch i ! how beautiful girl be-prs-3 ^{sg}	How beautiful the girl is !
2	k te nik p had-s b ch i ! how lovely hill sab be-prs-3 ^{pl}	How lovely the hills are !
3	k tek nim n b ca ch i ! how lovely child be-prs-3 ^{sg}	How lovely child is !
4	k te b hadur h chi ? how brave you be-prs-2 ^{pl}	How brave you are ?

Difference

1. An exclamatory sentence may be formed by duplicating the declarative statement in Maithili but it may not be formed by duplicating the declarative statement in English. For example,

S.N.	Maithili	English
1	kaka e-l-ah kaka e-l-ah ! uncle come -pst-3 ^{sg} uncle come pst-3 ^{sg}	The uncle came !

- I. Interjection words like ai, bah, chi, wah, dekhi, m⊕g i m⊕, b u h u bau, d iya ge d iya, etc. are used in Maithili exclamatory sentence marker whereas in English the markers of exclamatory sentence are. Hip hip hurray, alash, shame on you, oh father, oh mother, pooh, ouch, bravo etc.

3.2.5 Hortative Sentence

Hortative sentence is found in the Maithili language but it is not found in English. It is like an imperative sentence. For example,

Table No. 12
Hortative Sentence

S.N.	Maithili	English
1	pnas b t h-l c l-u. you and I walk-Inf go-Hort	Let's go to walk.
2	pnas b khai-lΘ c l-u you and I eat-Inf go-Hort	Let's go to eat.
3	b apnas b kha-i now you and I eat-Hort	Let's eat now.
4	pnas b kitab p r h-u you and I kitab read-Hort.	Let's read the book.

3.2.6 Optative Sentence

Both the languages, English and Maithili have optative sentence. In Maithili, optative sentence is known as "Implicatives sentence" which are compared as below:

Table No. 13
Optative Sentence

S.N.	Maithili	English
1	b jj r kh s- uk tora ! thunder fall-Opt you	May you be hit with thunder !
2	n r k me c i-l j-o t ! hell to walk go-Opt you	May you go to the hell !
3	B hut dint k Ji-u h ! long day live-Opt you	May you live long !
4	Ok- r beta m ir ja- ❑! she son die go-Opt	May her son die !
5	to r bijy h-u ! you victorious be-Opt	May you be victorious !
6	bh gban tora k l@n k r-u ! god you help do-Opt	May god help you !

This examples shows that the following similarities and differences:

Similarities

1. Both Maithili and English optative sentences express curse, obsence, abuses, blesses, prays.
2. Both Maithili and English optative sentence are used in declarative form.
3. Exclamation mark is used in both Enlgish and Maithili optative sentences.

Differences

1. English optative sentence starts with 'May' but Maithili optative sentence doesn't.

CHAPTER FOUR

FINDINGS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This chapter deals with the findings of the research along with some recommendations for pedagogical implications.

4.1 Findings

On the basis of the analysis and interpretation of the collected data, the major findings of the present study are summarized in the following points.

4.1.1 Sentence Types in Maithili

The sentence types of Maithili are as follows:

Six types of sentences were found in the Maithili language on the basis of functional properties. They are declarative, interrogative, imperative, exclamative, hortative and imprecative.

- a. The sentence pattern of declarative sentence was found to be 'S+O+V'. There are two types of declarative sentence viz. affirmative and negative. Their sentence pattern are 'S + O + V' and S + O + n i + V respectively.
- b. Four types of interrogative sentence were found in Maithili viz. neutral yes-no question, information question, disjunctive question, and baised yes-no question.
 - I. In Maithili, neutral yes/no question starts with 'ki' marker which occurs in the beginning of the sentence.
 - II. The general sentence pattern of neutral yes/no question was found to be 'ki + S + O + V ?' But 'S + O + V ?' pattern with rising intonation is also used to form yes/no question.
 - III. The sentence pattern of information question was found to be 'S + K-word + V + ?'

- IV. K-word (Kathi, kon, k k r, k kra, k t , ki⊕ etc.) were used in information question while making wh-question.
 - V. 'Ki' was found to be used as alternation marker in disjunctive question. This marker is placed between the two alternative words of the question.
 - VI. The sentence patterns of disjunctive question are usually like neutral yes/no question.
 - VII. Two types of question tag were found in Maithili i.e. statement + tag and command + tag and whether the statement is positive or negative question tag in Maithili was found to be negative and particle of statement + tag is 'n i' marker in all the cases.
 - VIII. The subject of the question tag is optional in Maithili.
 - IX. In command + tag, the marker 'ki' is used as the particle of tag.
 - X. The marker is preceded by comma (,) and followed by question mark (?).
- c. As the study shows, the Maithili imperative sentence starts with object followed by verb, its subject (you) is missing and the sentence pattern is 'O + V'.
- I. In negative imperatives of Maithili, the negative particle 'n i' is in preverbal position and verb is in its imperative form.
- d. The Maithili exclamatory sentences begin with markers like wah, ah, chi, dhur, g uba, m⊕g im⊕, b u g u bau, bapre, dekhi etc. which are followed by exclamation (!) mark.
- I. The subject precedes the verb in Maithili exclamatory sentence.

- II. An exclamative sentence may be formed by duplicating the declarative statement in Maithili.
 - III. The Maithili exclamatory sentences are introduced by the phrases opening with the words k te, ai, kehen, k tne, k tek etc. occupy the determiner position and function as degree of modifier to noun, adjectives or adverbs.
- e. In the Maithili hortative sentence, the subject (whether present or suppressed) is always an inclusive pronoun 'aphas b'.
- I. The negative marker 'n i' is placed before the main verb.
 - II. To form a hortative sentence is to add the affix 'i', 'u' to the verb steam in Maithili.
- f. Imprecative sentences express curse, obscence, abuses, blesses, prays.
- I. Imprecative sentence is used in declarative form.
 - II. Exclamation mark is used at the end in imprecative sentence.

4.1.2 Similarities and Differences between Sentence Types of Maithili and English

- a. There are six types of sentences in Maithili whereas in English only five types of sentences on basis of functional criteria.
- b. Declarative sentence starts with subject, verb occurs between subject and object in English whereas in Maithili object occurs between subject and verb.
- c. Negative marker 'not' is placed after auxiliary verb in English negative sentence whereas in Maithili negative marker 'n i' is placed just before verb.

- d. English has five types of interrogative sentences but in Maithili only four types.
- e. Yes/No question begins with question marker both in Maithili and English. Maithili yes/no question begins with 'ki' marker and its pattern is 'ki + S + O + V ?' whereas English yes/no question begins with auxiliary verb and its pattern is A.V. + S + M.V. + O ?
- f. Both Maithili and English have distinct open interrogative question markers. In English these markers occur in the beginning whereas in Maithili question markers usually occur between subject and verb.
- g. The sentence pattern of Maithili is S + K - word + V + ? whereas of English is wh-word + A.V. + S + M.V. + ... ?
- h. Both Maithili and English use the markers 'ki' and 'or' respectively in alternative question. That marker is placed between two alternative words in both the languages.
- i. Both Maithili and English have two types of question tag viz. statement + tag and command + tag but they differ in the process. If statement is positive, tag is negative and if statement is negative, tag is positive in English whereas the question tag in Maithili is always negative whether the statement is positive or negative. 'n i' marker is used in the statement + tag in Maithili. Likewise, English uses 'shall we' or 'will you' as particle of command + tag whereas Maithili uses 'ki'.
- j. The subject of question tag is optional in the Maithili language but compulsory in English.
- k. In Both Maithili and English imperative sentence subject 'You' is missing.

- l. English imperative sentence usually begins with verb whereas imperative sentence in Maithili begins with object. The sentence pattern of each of them are 'V + O' and 'O + V' respectively.
- m. Both the Maithili and English imperative sentence take the reflexive pronoun but they differ in their position. Reflexive pronoun comes before the verb in Maithili but in English it comes after the verb.
- n. Both Maithili and English exclamatory sentences use their distinct marker followed by exclamation mark (!).
- o. The subject precedes the verb in both Maithili and English exclamatory sentences.
- p. An exclamatory sentence may be formed by duplicating the declarative statement in Maithili but exclamatory sentence in English may not be formed by duplicating the declarative statement.
- q. Hortative sentence is found in the Maithili language but it is not found in English. It is like an imperative sentence.
- r. Both Maithili and English optative sentences express curse, absence, abuses, blesses, prays.
- s. Both Maithili and English optative sentence are used in declarative form.
- t. Exclamation mark is used in both English and Maithili optative sentences.
- u. English optative sentence starts with 'May' but Maithili optative sentence does not.

4.2 Recommendations

On the basis of the findings obtained from the analysis of the collected data, the recommendations and pedagogical implications have been made as below:

- a. The sentence pattern of Maithili differs from English. So, the sentence pattern should be made clear by giving sufficient examples while teaching English sentence types to the Maithili native speaker.
- b. The negative marker ('not') is placed just after auxiliary verb in English but in Maithili negative marker is placed just before the verb. So, the language teacher should be aware of this fact.
- c. Maithili has distinctive open question markers to make open interrogative but those markers are used differently than in English. So, the difference should be taken into account while teaching English wh or open interrogative.
- d. The process of making question tag in Maithili differs from that of English. Maithili has only negative tag for statement + tag but English has both negative as well as positive tag. Therefore, while teaching English question tag to the Maithili native speakers focus should be given in the difference.
- e. Both the Maithili and English languages use distinct markers for alternative questions. The marker 'ki' and 'or' are used in Maithili and English respectively. So, the language teacher should be considered while teaching alternative question.
- f. English imperative sentence begins with verb but Maithili imperative sentence begins with object. So, the language teacher should be aware of this fact while teaching English as a second language to the Maithili native speakers.
- g. Maithili and English both have distinct interjections (markers) to form exclamatory sentence but the meaning of those exclamation markers should be made clear while teaching exclamatory sentence.

- h. Hortative sentence found in the Maithili language but it is not found in English. But it is like an imperative sentence. Therefore, the language teacher should be aware of this fact while teaching hortative sentence.
- i. The syllabus designers, text book writers or language planners should be more conscious while designing the syllabus and writing text books for the Maithili native learners who are learning English as a second language.

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