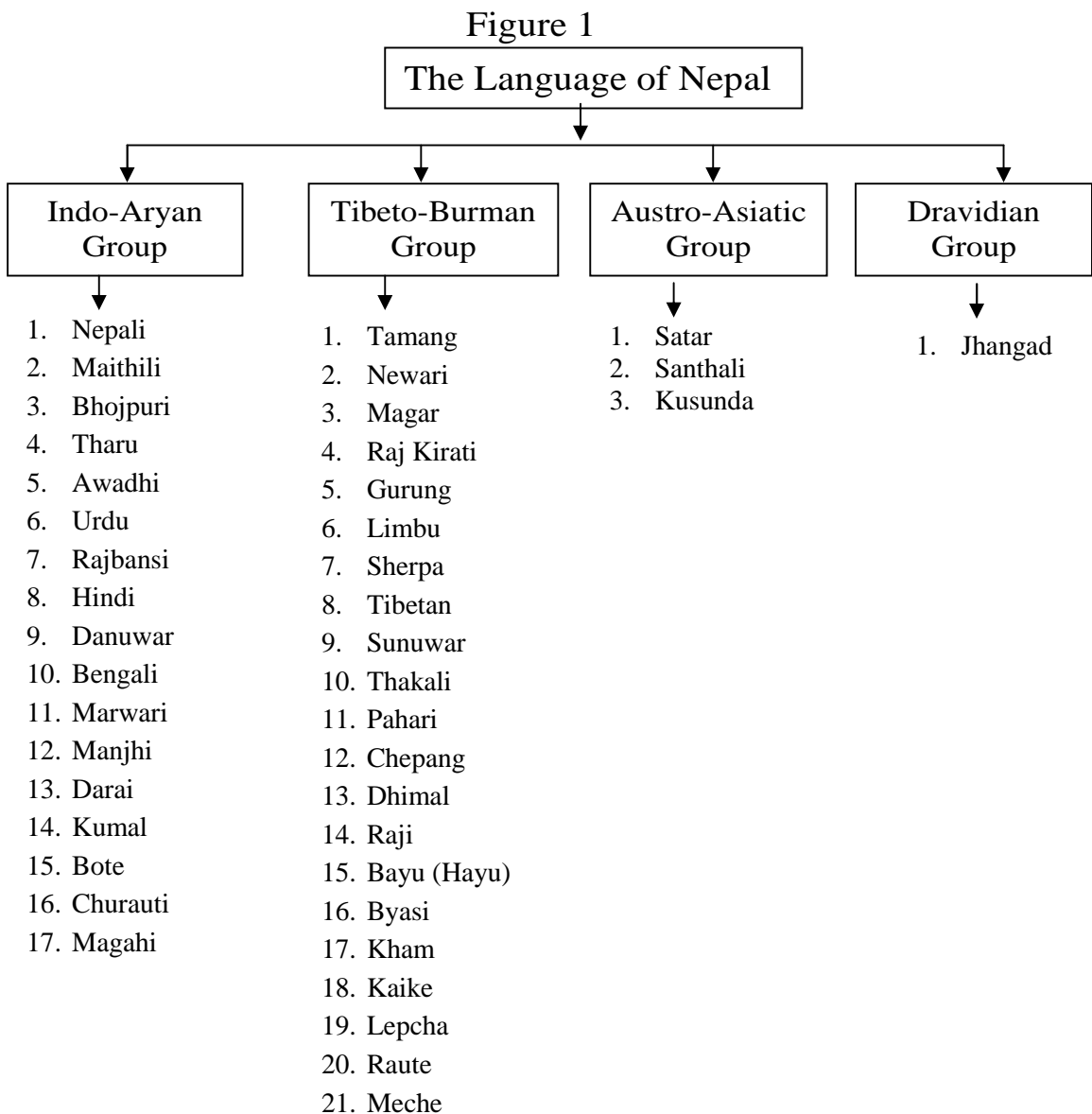# CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 General Background

Language, a voluntary vocal system of human communication, is an extremely complex, versatile and the most commonly used tool that people use to fulfil their needs. It is a dynamic and open system that allows human beings to communicate their thoughts, ideas, feelings, desires, emotions and expressions. It is only the language that differentiates human beings from other non-human beings. The ability to use language has made human beings to be the supreme creature in the universe. We can say that language is the property of the human beings only. But the most important thing to remember is that people use different kinds of tools to fulfil their communicative needs. That means there is not only one language spoken in the universe but many languages are spoken, among them some are widely used, some are locally used, some are on the process of extinction and some are already dead.

Language pervades almost every aspect of our lives. We talk, think, argue, question, theorize, command, insult, promise and joke using language. An infinitely adaptable system of human language allows speakers to be as specific or general as they wish in communicating on an endless variety of topics. The ability to use language in this way is unique to human beings. It is so important that we can hardly imagine what our lives would be without it.

1.1.1 Linguistic Scenario of Nepal

Nepal is a multi-lingual country. More than 90 languages are spoken in this small country, Nepal (CBS Report: 2001). Most of these living languages do not have their own written script; they have only spoken forms. The languages spoken in Nepal can be divided into four groups on the basis of language family they belong to which are given as below:

Figure 1

```
              ┌─────────────────────┐
              │ The Language of Nepal│
              └─────────────────────┘
```

Indo-Aryan Group	Tibeto-Burman Group	Austro-Asiatic Group	Dravidian Group
1. Nepali	1. Tamang	1. Satar	1. Jhangad
2. Maithili	2. Newari	2. Santhali	
3. Bhojpuri	3. Magar	3. Kusunda	
4. Tharu	4. Raj Kirati		
5. Awadhi	5. Gurung		
6. Urdu	6. Limbu		
7. Rajbansi	7. Sherpa		
8. Hindi	8. Tibetan		
9. Danuwar	9. Sunuwar		
10. Bengali	10. Thakali		
11. Marwari	11. Pahari		
12. Manjhi	12. Chepang		
13. Darai	13. Dhimal		
14. Kumal	14. Raji		
15. Bote	15. Bayu (Hayu)		
16. Churauti	16. Byasi		
17. Magahi	17. Kham		
	18. Kaike		
	19. Lepcha		
	20. Raute		
	21. Meche		

(Source: CBS Report 2001)

2

1.1.2 Classification of Indo-Aryan Language

During the last hundred years or so, various linguists have attempted to classify the Indo-Aryan languages. But in their classification, these linguists do not always agree with one another. One of the earliest classification of the modern Indo-Aryan language is that of Grierson as cited in Jha's (1958) as shown in figure 2 (App. IV). He categorizes Maithili as one of the three dialects of what he used to call the 'Bihari' language. This name, i.e., Bihari of an imaginary language seems to have been given by Grierson of the state of Bihar in India justifies the existence of a 'Bihari' language in the same way perhaps as Gujarat has Gujarati, Punjab has Punjabi, Nepal has Nepali. But in classifying the languages of Bihar, it was rather unfortunate that Grierson committed an error of overgeneralization for there never was in the past nor is there at present any Bihari language spoken either in Bihar or in Nepal. Later on, most native Maithili scholars have therefore resented the use of the term Bihari for the language.

Chatterji as cited in Jha's (1958) believes that Maithili belongs to the group of Magadhi Apabhramsa. He was also the first linguist to distinguish Maithili and Bhojpuri as belonging to two separate branches of the Magdhan sub family (figure 3, App. V). Most native scholars seem to go along with Chatterji's classification, with some minor modifications. Jha's (1958) classification of the modern Indo-Aryan languages in presented in figure 4 (App. VI) Most Maithili scholars of today accept Jha's classification. It is often quoted in the Maithili language texts.

Comparative Philology maintains that languages are related to one another. Two languages are linked with one another would

3

mean they are sister languages. Figure 5 (App. VII) shows how languages are related to one another where the Maithili language originates from.

1.1.3 An Introduction to the Maithili Language

Maithili is an Indic language belonging to the group of the modern Prakrit Vernaculars. Maithili is a New Indo-Aryan (NIA) language spoken in the two adjoining south Asian countries viz Nepal and India. As its name implies, Maithili is the language of residents of Maithilia, the pre-historic ancient Kingdom ruled by the then king Janak, the father of Sita, which was bounded on the west by the river Gandak, on the north by the Himalaya mountain, on the east by the Koshi and on the south by the Ganges. In the past, Maithili was regarded either as a dialect of Bengali, or of Eastern Hindi or as one of the three dialects of a spurious language called Bihari as given in figure 2 (App. IV).

Today, however, it is recognized as a distinct language. Demographically, it is the second most widely spoken language in Nepal and it is regarded as the 16th largest language of India according to the international PEN.

Maithili, which is written in Devanagri script also has its own script variously known as 'Maithili Lipi', 'Mithilakshar' or 'Tirhuta'. The script is of the same family as the scripts of Bengali, Assamese, Oriya and Newari. In the past Maithili writers used to write in this script and we still have thousands of valuable manuscripts written in this script. Even these days on sacred occasions several Maithili speaking families, especially Maithili Brahmin families, use this script.

Maithili has a very rich literature, the growth and development of which follows quite closely the political and cultural history of Mithila. Vidyapati Thakur (1360-1448) is the greatest and most celebrated poet of Maithila. In Nepal, Maithili is the mother tongue of 12.4% of the total population and figures second in terms of the number of speakers next only to Nepali, the language of the nation. Maithili is the second most widely used language as it is spoken by 27, 97, 582 people sheltering in south eastern plains known as the Terai. There are about 9 Terai districts namely, Morang, Sunsari, Udaypur, Saptari, Siraha, Dhanusha, Mahottari, Sarlahi and Rauthat where Maithili is in vogue.

Maithili has been taught as a subject of study in both the countries Nepal and India from school to university levels. New constitution of Nepal, 2063 asserts the fundamental right of each community to operate schools upto the primary level in its own mother tongue for imparting education to its children. Nowadays, Maithili is used as a medium of instruction at primary level in some schools of a few districts namely Dhanusha, Mahottari, Saptai, Sunsari and Siraha. It is also being taught as an optional first paper at the secondary level and as a major subject in the faculty of humanities and social sciences, Tribhuvan University from intermediate to master levels. The importance of Maithili in the context of Nepal need not be over emphasized as it flourished as a court language in Kathmandu valley during Malla period (Yadav, 1999). Several literary works and inscriptions in Maithili are still preserved at the national archives in Kathmandu.

1.1.4 The English Language and its Significance in Nepal

English is the most widely used language in our planet. One in every seven human beings can speak it. More than half of the world's books and three quarters of international mail are in English. Of all languages English has the largest vocabulary perhaps as many as two million words and one of the noblest bodies of literature. English is the most dominant language in the world. Undoubtedly, English is the means of international communication and it is also the world's major language. It serves today as a lingua-franca in many parts of the world, for some speakers it is a native language, for others a second language, for others still a foreign language. It is one of the six languages recognized by the UN. English is the appropriate international language for Nepal and a vital tool for any student to become successful in national and international communication. So the importance of English in the present day need not be overemphasized.

English entered Nepal with the foundation of the Durbar High School in 1854 A.D. by the then prime minister Jung Bahadur Rana. Then in 1919 it was included in the higher education with establishment of Tri-Chandra college. In course of time SLC Examination Board (1933) and T.U. (1959) were established. Since then it has occupied a vital position in the educational field of Nepal.

Having realized the importance of the English language, the government of Nepal has included English in school and higher education curricula as a compulsory subject. Specially the NESP (1971) has brought revolutionary changes by planning curricula

and textbooks with the provision of compulsory English of 100 marks for each grade form grade four to bachelor level including optional English at Secondary level as well as higher education. Now with the proliferation of English from the general mass the government reintroduced English from grade one to bachelor's level.

Basically, teaching English in the schools of Nepal has the purpose of enabling the students to exchange ideas with people of any nation who speak or write English and the other is to expose them to the vast treasure available in written and spoken English. Language, here, is seen as a skill that enables one to get things done. It will be appropriate to mention here that language is learnt in terms of developing four skills namely, listening, speaking, reading and writing. As English has become an inevitable tool in the academic field, Maithili speaking students are not an exception to it.

1.1.5 Importance of Grammar

The term 'grammar' has been derived from a Greek word 'grammatika' which means 'the art of writing'. Grammar is a set of rules of a language for changing the form of words and combining them into sentences. Grammar is the science that treats of the principles that govern the correct use of language in either oral or written form. In other words, grammar is a mechanism of a language to produce correct sentences according to the rules of the language. It is the backbone of language. "Grammar is a description of the structure of language and the way in which linguistic units such as words and phrases are combined to produce sentences in the language. It usually takes into account the

meaning and functions. These sentences have in the over all system of the language. It may or may not include the description of the sounds of a language" (Richard et al. 1985, p.161).

One admits it or not the students have to understand the grammar of the language they are learning. It is another matter whether they learn it consciously or unconsciously. It would be hard to believe that there can be a language without its grammar. Knowledge of grammar is necessary to convey ideas correctly whether it is for the native speakers or learners of that language. This knowledge is more essential for the second language learner than the native speaker because a native speaker has innately internalized the grammar, whereas the 2nd language learner has to make conscious effort to learn and master it. Knowledge of language as well as grammar helps a person to master it. Therefore, the importance of grammar in the correct use of language can hardly be exaggerated.

A language has different grammatical process. Among them subordination is one. "Subordination is a term used in grammatical analysis to refer to the process or result of linking linguistic units so that they have different syntactic status, one being dependent upon the other, and usually a constituent of the other" (Crystal, 1997, p 370).

Subordination involves the conjunction of two clauses with the help of subordinators or subordinating conjunctions. Unlike coordinators, the subordinators assign unequal rank to the conjoined clauses and render one of the clauses subordinating to other.

Subordinating conjunctions are elements that introduce subordinate clause, which can be defined as sentences within sentences.

Subordinators are quite different from coordinators in that they link units of unequal syntactic status. Another way of putting this is to say that subordination is a type of hypotaxis, again originally a Greek term which means 'Syntactic underneath arrangement'. In each case, the string of words introduced by the subordinator is syntactically subordinate to what precedes it.

Subordinating conjunctions are also called adverbial subordinators because they function to subordinate one clause to another and they have the force of an adverbial. An adverbial subordinate is always followed by a clause.

1.1.6 Functional Classification of Adverbial Subordinators

Nesfield mentions eight kinds of adverbial clauses in the English language (2002: 343).

They are of:

(1) Time (2) Place (3) Purpose (4) Cause (5) Result (6) Condition (7) Comparison (8) Concession or Supposition.

All the grammarians are not unanimous about the classification of adverbial clauses. Sinclair (1994, p 351) has also divided the adverbial clauses into eight groups which are given in the table below.

Table No. 1

Division of Adverbial Clauses

S.N.	Kinds of clause	Usual conjunction
1.	Time clauses	when, before, after, since, while, as, until
2.	conditional clauses	if, unless
3.	Purpose clauses	in order to, so that
4.	Reason clauses	because, since, as
5.	Result clauses	as a result, so that
6.	Concessive clauses	although, even though, though
7.	Place clauses	where, wherever
8.	Clause of manner	as like the way

In terms of the function, there are various kinds of adverbial clauses. They are the adverbial clauses of time, place, reason, purpose, effect or result, condition, comparison, concession or contrast, manner, proportion and preference. They are briefly described as below.

1.1.6.1 Indicating Time

Adverbial subordinate clauses of time in the English language are introduced by one of the following subordinators: after, as before, since, till, when, while, as soon as. e.g.

i. Buy you tickets *as soon as* you reach the station.

ii. *When* I last saw you, you lived in Washington.

iii. Be careful *when* crossing streets.

1.1.6.2 Indicting Place

According to Quirk et al (1985:1087) the adverbial subordinate clauses of place are introduced mainly by 'Where' or

'Wherever'. Between these two, 'where' is specific and 'wherever' is non-specific e.g.

i. We saw nothing but blacked ruins *where* the fire had been.

ii. They went *wherever* they could find work.

1.1.6.3 Indicating Manner

Adverbial subordinate clauses of manner in the English language are introduced by 'exactly as', 'as', 'just as'. e.g.

i. Please do it *exactly as* I instructed.

Nesfield (2002:245) treats the adverbial clauses of manner under adverbial clauses of comparison. He says, adverbial clauses of comparison are of two types:

i. Adverbial clauses of comparison of manner, and (ii) Adverbial clause of comparison of degree.

1.1.6.4 Indicating Purpose

In the English language, the adverbial subordinate clauses of purpose are more often infinitival than finite (Quirk et al, 1980, p 701). Adverbial subordinate clauses of purpose in English are commonly introduced by conjunctions like 'in order to', 'so', 'so as to,' 'so that' and 'to' (Sinclair, 1994, p 352). e.g.

(i) I left early *to catch the train*.

1.1.6.5 Indicating Reason

Quirk et al (1980:702) state that the adverbial subordinate clauses of reason or cause in the English language are most commonly introduced by the conjunctions like 'because', 'as' or 'since' laying emphasis on the position of the adverbial clause of

reason. They mention that 'because' has a tendency to follow the main clause, while 'as' and 'since' have tendency to precede it. e.g.

i.   I lent him the money *because* he needed it.
ii. *As* Jane was the eldest, she looked after the others.
iii. *Since* we live near the sea, we enjoy a healthy climate.

1.1.6.6 Indicating Condition

The adverbial subordinate clauses of condition in English are simply introduced by 'if' and 'unless'. The most common subordinator and most versatile of the condition subordinators is 'if'. The negative subordinator 'unless' follows 'if' in its commonality. Other conditional subordinators are: as long as, so long as, supposing (that). All these subordinators are used with finite clauses. e.g.

i.   *If* you want some more, you should ask me.
ii. *Unless* the strike has been called off, there will be no trains to.
iii. She many go, *as long as* he goes with her.
iv. *Assuming that* the movie starts at eight, shouldn't we be leaving now?

1.1.6.7 Indicating Concession

In English language, the clauses of concession are introduced chiefly by 'though' or it's more formal variant 'although'. Quirk and Greenbanm (1980:325) show some other conjunctions as 'while', whereas' (chiefly formal), 'even if' and occasionally 'if'. e.g.

i.   No goals were scored *though* it was an exciting game.
ii. *Although* I enjoyed myself, I was glad to come home.

iii. *Even if* you dislike music, you would enjoy this concert.

1.1.6.8 Indicating Result or Effect

According to Sinclair (1994:356) result clauses usually come with 'so that' or 'as a result of which'. e.g.

i. My suitcase had been damaged in the adjoining home *so that the lid would stay close.*

1.1.7 Structural Classification of Adverbial Subordinate Clause

From the structural point of view the adverbial clauses can be classified into three types. They are:

i. Finite adverbial subordinate clauses,
ii. Non-finite adverbial subordinate clauses,
iii. Verb-less adverbial subordinate clauses.

1.1.7.1 Finite Clause

It is structurally and semantically obvious that in a finite adverbial clause, the form of the verb is finite. e.g.

i. I know that *he will be killed.*
ii. We came back because we *couldn't get* a job.

1.1.7.2 Non-Finite Clauses

In a non-finite adverbial clause, the form of the verb is non-finite, that is, infinitive, and both present and past participle. e.g. to be honest; being read, having finished/written.

It has already been mentioned that non-finite clauses contain non-finite verbs laying emphasis upon the construction of the verbs in English. Quirk et al (1980:700) write 'The four classes of non-

finite verbal construction serve to distinguish four classes of non-finite clauses'. These four classes of non-finite clauses are:

i. Infinitive with 'to'
ii. Infinitive without 'to'
iii. Present participle
iv. Past participle

Now the grammarians or linguists have coined a new term 'CONVERB' for grouping the two participles, 'Present' and 'Past' participles. They also group the former two types into one group as 'INFINITIVES'.

In terms of the presence or absence of the verb, Yadav (2004:208) has divided the clauses into two groups as (i) Verbal and (ii) Verbless. He divided these verbal clauses into (i) a finite clause and (ii) a non-finite clause. He further divides the non-finite clauses into two types. These two types are (a) infinitives (b) participles. The infinitives are also known as (a) to-infinitive and (b) bare-infinitive and the participles are called the present participle and the past participle.

i) 'To' – infinitive clause

In English, the 'to-infinitive' clause is introduced by the verb marked by 'to + root'. This infinitive is not marked for tense, person and mood. The 'to-infinitive' adverbial clauses in English are introduced by 'to/stem' or 'to' stem or 'to', 'in order to', 'as to'. The 'to-infinitive' adverbial clauses are used to function as purposive clauses that show the purpose of the action of the main clause. Such clauses are used with subject or without subject. (Quirk et al. 1980: 723) e.g.

a) With subject

1. The best thing *for you would be to tell* everybody.

b) Without subject

    i. The best thing would be *to tell* everybody.

    ii. John went to Kathmandu *to/in order to join* the campus.

ii) Infinitive without 'to'

The infinitive adverbial clauses without 'to' are also called 'bare infinitive clauses'. They can also be used with or without the subject. e.g.

a. With Subject

Rather than *John do it*, I'd prefer to give the job to Mary.

b. Without subject

All I did was *hit him on the* head.

iii. The Present Participle

Among the four non-finite clauses the present participle clauses are also the important clauses in English language. According to Quirk et al (1980:723), these clauses can also be used with subject or without subject. e.g.

a. With Subject

Her aunt having left the room, I declared my passionate love for Celia.

b. Without Subject

Leaving the room, he tripped on over the mat.

iv. The past Participle

In the English language there is another form of participle that is the past participle. According to Quick et al (1980: 724) this type also can be introduced with the inclusion or the exclusion of the subject. e.g.

a. With Subject

We left the room and went home after *the job finished.*

b. Without Subject

Covered with confusion, I left the room.

1.1.7.3 Verbless Clauses

Regarding the verbless clauses Quirk et al (1980:725) opine, the verbless clause, apart from being verbless, is also (like the non-finite clauses) commonly subjectless. e.g.

i. *Whether right or wrong*, he always comes off worst in argument.

1.1.8   Contrastive   Analysis: Its   importance   in   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.

CA introduced in the late 1940s and 50s was highly popularized in the 60s and its popularity declined in the 70s. The development of CA for foreign language teaching can be traced back to the American linguist C.C. Fries who made the first clarion

call for it. Fries (1945, p 9) writes that "the most effective materials are those that are based up on a scientific description of the language to be learned carefully compared with a parallel description 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 Culture' was published. In this book he provided three underlying assumptions of CA which have significant role in language teaching. The assumptions of CA are as follows:

1. Individuals tend to transfer the forms and meanings and 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 language lies the key to ease or difficulty in foreign language learning.

3. The teacher who has made a comparison of the foreign language with the native language of the students will better know what the real learning problems are and can better provide for teaching them.

Therefore, the following points can be summarized from the above-mentioned assumptions.

1. The past learning may facilitate present learning if L1 and L2 are similar.

2. The past learning may hinder present learning if L1 and L2 are different.

CA has 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. This is also regarded as the primary function of CA. Secondly, it explains the sources of errors in one's own performance. This is the secondary function of CA. So a language teacher should have knowledge of CA to treat the learners psychologically and academically. If a language teacher knows the sources and types of the errors that learners commit, he/she can guide them effectively.

The most important thing to remember by a language teacher is basic assumption behind CA. Lado's (1957) first assumption states that when we come 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 one, there is positive transfer which facilitates in learning an L2 but if old knowledge is different from the new one, there is negative transfer which hinders in learning an L2.

In short, the more similarities between the two languages, the more easier to learn and the more differences between the two languages, the more difficult to learn. We can say that the greater the similarities greater the ease, and greater the ease lesser the chance of errors whereas greater the differences greater the difficulty and greater the difficulty greater the chance of errors. 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.

1.1.9 Error and Error Analysis

It is human nature to make mistakes, i.e., we all learners are bound to make mistakes when we are speaking our native language. They often cause a certain amount of merriment. As a second language learner, everybody inevitably commits errors at all levels and areas of language. It is an inherent feature of the process of foreign language learning. In a layman sense, the terms 'mistakes' and 'errors' are taken synonymous but technically speaking all mistakes are not errors. The nature of the mistakes made by the native speakers is quite different from those committed by the second language learners. Mistakes are made at the performance level, by both the native and non-native speakers, due to non-linguistic reasons and occur irregularly and inconsistently. On the contrary, errors are made at the competence level, by the non-native speakers, due to linguistic reasons and occur regularly and consistently. Errors are caused due to the lack of rules of language but mistakes are caused due to carelessness, tiredness, haste, lack of attention, forgetfulness, mental fatigue or some other sorts of physical defect. Such mistakes are unsystematic. The errors cannot be corrected by the learners but mistakes are correctable by the learners themselves.

Error analysis is the study and analysis of error committed by the second or foreign language learners. It is a long-run process. The steps of error analysis are as follows:

a. Collection of data

b. Identification of errors

c. Description and classification of errors

d. Explanation of errors

e. Evaluation of errors

f. Correction and remediation of errors.

1.1.9.1 Collection of Data

To analyze errors, we must have reliable data, information and evidence on which our analysis will be based. Data collection would mean gathering information. Data can be oral or written. Although the former is preferable, usually the data is collected from the learner's composition works. Tools of data collection can be interview, discussion, speech, composition and questionnaire.

1.1.9.2 Recognition/Identification of Errors

The first requirement for identification of error is to identify what an error is. A piece of language, which differs from normal standard usage/use is erroneous.

Any deviation from the standard usage is an error. Ordinarily, mistakes and errors are taken synonymously but technically speaking, they are different since all errors are mistakes but all mistakes are not errors.

Mistakes can be of two types-mistakes committed on the competence level and those committed on the performance level. Mistakes committed on the competence level are errors. On the

other hand, mistakes on the performance level are performance mistakes.

Major performance mistakes are breaches of code (rule), i.e. Performance mistakes can be corrected by the person who commits. Them Major performance mistakes involve major breaking of the code. Minor performance mistakes are of two types: controllable and uncontrollable.

There are three types of controllable mistakes: slips/lapses, false starts and syntactic blends. There can be slips of tongue as well as slips of pen. There may be slips of ear, eye.

False starts means the speaker starts saying something and changes in between and commits an error.

Syntactic blend refers to blending of two structures or mixing two structures. It is minor controllable mistake. Errors are mistakes at the competence level, performance mistakes can be organized and corrected. But errors can neither be recognized nor be corrected. It is because errors are committed because of the lack of knowledge of the underlying rules of language. Errors are caused due to linguistic reason but mistakes are caused due to non-linguistics reason, rather psychological reason.

1.1.9.3 Description and Classification of Errors

The third step of error analysis is description and classification of errors. Errors are classified and described on the basis of levels of language (Phonological, lexical, syntactic, graphological, grammatical), things beyond sentence level (discourse and stylistic), number of people involved in communicating errors (group and individual), language skills

(expressive and receptive), clarity (overt and covert), ways of interpreting (local and global) and the things that are not part of language but play an important role in communication (pragmatic and paralinguistic).

Corder's (1973) way of classification is different from the above characterization of errors. He has proposed three stages of errors pre-systematic systematic and post-systematic. In the first stage, the learner is unaware of the existence of a particular system or rule in the target language. Therefore, errors are quite random. He/she cannot correct them. This is the stage of random guessing. In the 2nd stage, his/her errors are regular. He cannot correct them but can give some coherent account of the rule he/she has been following.

In the 3rd stage, the learner has learned the underlying rules but fails to apply them due to lack of attention or lapses of memory. In this stage, the learner is able to correct the errors.

1.1.9.4 Explanation of Errors

This stage of errors attempts to find out the different sources of errors committed by the learner. Sources of errors are reasons behind errors. They are:

i. Errors due to L1 Interference

An error may be caused due to mother tongue interference. This interference may take place at all levels of language. For example, a Nepali learner of English may produce the incorrect sentence 'I home go' instead of 'I go home' because of the transfer of the Nepali pattern *ma ghar janchhu* ('I home go').

ii. Errors due to Analogical Creation

Generalization based on partial exposure to the target language is called analogical creation. Here, the learners tries to derive the rule behind data to which he has been exposed and may develop hypothesis that is neither to the mother tongue nor to target language. For example, learners sometimes produce errors like 'He singed' instead of 'He sang' and 'He cans come' instead of 'he can come'.

iii. Errors due to Overgeneralization

Learners try to generalize the rule of language, so make mistakes. Therefore, it is sometimes called overgeneralization. For example, the learner may write or say 'goed' instead of 'went' and 'John doesn't can study' instead of 'John can't study'.

iv. Errors due to Hypercorrection

This implies that later learning corrects the previous expressions in a wrong way. Sometimes what a learner has learned correctly is corrected in a wrong way due to later learning, which in turn may result into deviant from. For example, a learner may write or say 'this meat smells freshly' instead of 'this meat smells fresh' and 'she cans teach us' instead of 'she can teach us'.

v. Errors due to Inherent Difficultly

It is also believed that some portions of a language are so difficult that not only 2nd language learners but also native speakers find them difficult to master. They are called difficulties inherent in the language. For example, a learner may write or say 'there is rivalry between each boy? Instead of 'There is rivalry between

Ram and Mohan and 'Sun is very hot' instead of 'The sun is very hot.'

vi. Errors due to Erroneous Input

Sometimes, the teacher gives inadequate or incorrect rules of language and learners try to correct their expressions and it leads to erroneous expressions. Sometimes textbooks are also full of erroneous expressions. For example, a learner may write or say 'what you doing today?' instead of 'what are you doing today?'

1.1.9.5 Evaluation of Errors

Evaluation of errors indicates the determination of seriousness of errors. The seriousness of error is often termed as error gravity. Errors should be evaluated on the basis of perception of errors. There are four different criteria which are used to evaluate error gravity. They are: linguistic criterion, communicative criterion, attitudinal criterion and pedagogical criterion.

1.1.9.6 Correction and Remediation of Errors

This is the final stage of error analysis at which errors are corrected. Correction of errors, as a matter of fact, depends upon the gravity of errors; some people are of the opinion that only major errors should be corrected not minor ones.

1.2 Review of the Related Literature

Some research works on linguistic comparative study between English and other different language spoken in Nepal are carried out, e.g. Maithili, Nepali, Newari, Tharu are carried out in the Department of English Language Education. Though some comparative studies between the English and Maithili languages

have been carried out in the Department of English Education, no attempt has been made to compare the subordination system of English and Maithili languages so far. The related literature to the present study is as follows:

Sah (2000) carried out a research on 'A comparative study of S-V Agreement on the Maithili and English Languages'. 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.

Mahato Tharu (2001) has carried out a research to identify the S-V agreement system of Tharu language and to compare the same with that of the English. He found that in English, the 2nd and 3rd person pronouns do not change for honorific forms whereas they do in the Tharu.

Pradhan (2002) carried out a research on 'Relative Clauses in Newari Language'. She found that there is no distinct evidence found which distinguishes restrictive and non-restrictive clauses in Newari.

Karn (2003) carried out a research on 'A Comparative Study of Case in the Maithili and English Languages'. He found that Maithili makes use of postposition for case marking. He also found that unlike English, patient, theme and experiences are treated under accusative dative and both instrumental and ablative make use of the same clitic–S .

Sah (2004) carried out a research on 'A Comparative Study on the Simple Present Tense and Simple Past Tense of English and Maithili.' He wanted to find out similarities and differences of the

simple present tense and simple past tense between English and Maithili languages. He found the Maithili tense system possesses T/V distinction.

Thakur (2005) carried out a research on 'Relativization in English and Maithili: A Comparative Study'. His study is theoretical in nature since the major objective is to diagnose the main points of similarities and differences between relativization of the English and Maithili languages. He found out that in the English language RC markers that is relativization normally start with je.

Karna (2006) carried out are research on 'Terms of Address in the Maithili and English Language'. She found out that paternal and maternal destination is not important in English but is very important is Maithili.

Thus, it is the first endeavor to compare and contrast between the subordination system of the Maithili and English languages.

1.3 Objectives of the Study

The present study was targeted at

i.   verifying subordinators in Maithili,

ii.   comparing English and Maithili subordination and discovering main similarities and difference between them,

iii. discovering and analyzing the errors committed by Maithili speaking students while learning the English subordination system,

iv.   suggesting the pedagogical implications.

1.4 Significance of the Study

There are some researches conducted on the Maithili language in the Department of English Education but no attempt has been made to compare the subordination system of English and Maithili languages. So this work will be valuable for the Department itself. The study will be significant for the interested researchers on the Maithili language. It will be significant for the persons who are involved in the language teaching and learning. The study will be beneficial for language teachers who are teaching Maithili and English languages and students who are learning Maithili and English as second languages. This study will not be less significant for the researchers, textbook writers, course designers, etc.

1.5 Definition of the Specific Terms

Subordination: A process of linking linguistic units so that they have different syntactic status, one being dependent upon the other.

Subordinate clause: A clause which begins with a subordinating conjunction is called a subordinate clauses.

Complementizer: A term used to refer to subordinating conjunctions which mark and embedded sentence of a complement type.

Complement Clause: A clause which completes an accompanying lexical head.

Maithili: A new Indo-Aryan Language spoken in the two adjoining South Asian Countries – Nepal and India.

Terai: South-Eastern plains of Nepal also known as Maithila, the pre-historic kingdom ruled by the then king Janak.

Independent Clause: An independent clause is one that is fully inflected and capable of being integrated into discourse on its own.

Dependent clause: A dependent clause is one that depends on some other clause for at least part of its inflectional information.

CHAPTER TWO

METHODOLOGY

This chapter deals with the methodology adopted during the preparation of this research. The details of the methodology are as follows:

2.1 Sources of Data

In the preparation of this thesis both primary and secondary sources of data have been used. The sources are as follows:

2.1.1 Primary Source

Sixty Maithili speaking students from grade 10 to bachelor of Dhanusha district were the primary sources of data. A set of test items were administered to sixty Maithili speaking students of one secondary school, one (10+2) and one multiple campus located at Dhanusha district, selecting 20 students from each level randomly. Primary sources of data were those Maithili speaking students of Dhanusha district.

2.1.2 Secondary Source

In addition to his own intuition and insight to analyze the required data, the researcher had used the standard grammars of both the English and Maithili languages. They are, for instance, Aarts (1997), Jha (1979), Celce-Murcia and Larsen-Freeman (1999), Quirk and Greenbanm (1973), Yadav (1990). Other reference materials, related journals, reports had also been used while preparing the thesis.

2.2 Population of the Study

All the Maithili speaking students from grade 10 to bachelor level in Dhanusha district are the population of this study.

2.3 Sampling Procedure

Firstly, three academic institutions of Dhanusha district where majority of Maithili native speakers study were selected through judgmental sampling. Twenty students from each academic institution were selected for data collection using simple random sampling procedure.

Table 1: Sample of the study

Academic Institutions	Everest Secondary school	Rajarshi Janak Campus	Janakpur campus	Total
No. of students	20	20	20	60

2.4 Research Tool

The researcher had used test item as a tool of data collection. The data for the study was collected with the help of the already prepared test item (App. I). Twenty simple sentences to be joined, filling in the gaps, making sentences using Maithili words and translation from Maithili into English were asked.

2.5 Process of the Data Collection

The researcher prepared test items, visited the selected academic institutions and talked to the principals to get permission. He explained them the process, i.e., administering the test item. After that the researcher administered the test item. Then the

researcher collected the answer-sheets for analysis. The questions used in the test items were appropriate to the informants' level. The questions used in the test item were appropriate to the informants' level. The researcher administered the test item in his own presence.

2.6 Limitations of the Study

a. The study population had been confined to only Dhanusha district.

b. Only sixty students having Maithili as their mother tongue were the informants.

c. Students were from grade 10 to bachelor level of education.

d. Only three academic institutions were selected for the study.

e. Only twenty students from each academic institution were the informants.

f. The study was aimed only at comparing and contrasting subordination between English and Maithili languages.

g. The work is descriptive in nature.

CHAPTER THREE

ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION

This chapter deals with the analysis and interpretation of data. In accordance with the objective of the research, the rules of Maithili subordination are verified consulting different Maithili grammars and the responses of the students were marked systematically and their proficiency as well as the errors committed by them was tabulated. In order to make the study more objective, the analysis has been done descriptively and statistically by using the tools of average and percentage. Hence the chapter consists of the following parts.

3.1 Subordination in Maithili

Subordination involves the conjunction of two clauses with the help of subordinators or subordinating conjunctions. Unlike coordinators, the subordinators assign unequal rank to the conjoined clauses and render one of the clauses subordinate to the other.

3.1.1 Structural Description

From the structural point of view, the subordinators in Maithili are of two types (Yadav, 1990, p.344). They are:

i. Finite subordinate clauses,

ii) Non-finite subordinate clause.

3.1.1.1 Finite Subordinate Clauses

It is structurally and semantically obvious that in a finite subordinate clause, the form of the verb is finite. For example,

i) s b dokan s b b nd ch- l kiæk t ai sarb j nik chu-ti ch- l

all shop PL shut be-PST- because today public leave be-PST-
(3NH) (3NH)

All shops were shut because it was a public holiday today.

ii) h m j n- it chi je o mar- l j e-t-ah

I know-IMPERF AUX-PRES COM he (H) kill-PSTPCL go-FUT-(3H)

I know that he will be killed.

3.1.1.2 Non-finite Clause

In a non-finite subordinate clause, the form of the verb is non-finite, that is, infinitive, and both present and past participle. For example:

i) O Nreji sikh cah- it ch- ith

he (NH) English learn-INF want-IMPERF AUX-PRES-(3H)

He wants to learn English.

ii) redi sun- it O kitap p rh-l- k

radio listen-MPERF he (H) book read-PST-(3H)

Listening to the radio, he read a book.

3.1.2 Functional Description

Functionally, the adverbial subordinate clauses in Maithili can be divided into the following types.

1) Indicating Time: Subordinate clauses of time show temporal relationships and are often introduced by the words like j kh n 'when', j hina 'when', jab t 'as long as'. For example

a)

j kh n	pain	p r- t	sukhael	gh s	h ri r	ho-it
when	water	fall-FUT-(3NH)	dry	grass	green	be-FUT-(3NH)

When it rains, dry grass will be green.

Subordinate clauses are usually correlative, one of which is optionally deleted (Yadav, 1990, p. 361) like j kh n-t kh n 'when-then', j hiya-t hiya 'when-then', jab t-tab t 'as long as-until then'. For example,

i)

jakh n	h m	teliphon	k eli	t kh n	h	sut l-e	r h-i
when	I	telephone	do-PST-(1)	then	you	asleep	be-PST-(2H)

When I telephoned you, (then) you were asleep.

ii)

jab t	h m	n i	k h-i	tab t	hunka	n i	jae	di-
as long as	I	not	say-IMP-(1)	then	he-ACC/DAT	not	go	give-IMP-(2H)

Until I ask you, do not let him go.

Subordinate clauses of time also show temporal relationship by the adition of emphatic enclitic/-e/ and the non-finite verb forms like /la/ or /lak/, /e/, / it/. Usually such addition of non-finite verb forms signal sequential relationship. For example,

a)

ram	p riksha	utirn	hoe-lak	bad	ghar	l ut- t
Ram	exam	pass-FUT-(3NH)	be-non-finite	after	home	return-FUT-(3NH)

Ram will come back home after he has passed the exam.

2) Indicating Location: Subordinators used to indicate location in Maithili are j t 'where' or j t k t u 'wherever'. Locative subordinators are also correlative in nature. For example:

i)   j t   k h b   ot   h m s hi   k r -b

    where say-FUT-(2H+1) there   I   sign do-FUT-(1)

    'I will go where you send me'.

ii) jib n ot   ich   j t   pain   ich

    life   there be-PRES-(3NH) where water be-PRES-(3NH)

    Life is there where there is water.

3) Indicating Manner: Subordinators used to indicate manner in Maithili are jena 'as' or j hina-t hina 'exactly as'.For example:

i)   k r-   jena   p rh- ile   ch- l-i uk

    do-IMP-(2NH)   as   teach-PERF AUX-PST-(1+2NH)

    Do it as I had taught.

Manner clauses in Maithili may also be paraphrased as relative – correlative clauses (Yadav, 1990, p. 364). For example:

a)	j hina	babuji	k h-ne	ch- l-khun	ohina	O	gari	c- l-l-khunh
	exactly as	father	say-PERF	be-PST-(3H)	in that way	he (3H)	car	drive-PST-(3H+3NH)

He drove the car exactly as his father told him.

4) Indicating Purpose: Infinitival verb forms and jahi s ki 'so that' are used to indicate purpose. When jahi s ki 'so that' is used, the verbs are in the optative mood. For example

i)	O	sw sth	r h-lel	s bere	byayam	k r-i	ch- ith
	he(H)	healthy	be-FUT-(3H)	for in the morning	exercise	do-IMPER	AUX-PRES-(3H)

He does exercise in the morning to be healthy.

ii)	O	khub	p rh-	cah -it	ch- ith	jahi s	ki	O	pr th m	sreni	s	utirn	ho-i
	he (H)	much	study- INF	want- IMPERF	AUX- PRES- (3H)	so that		he (3H)	first	division	from	pass	be- OPT- (3H)

He wants to read a lot so that he may pass in the first division.

5) Indicating Reason: Subordinate clauses of reason are introduced with the words like tæ 'so' tahi s 'due to' (colloquially t i/t hi s), kiæk t /ki/ je 'because (of)', t hi kar n s /t hi s ' due to that reason'. For example:

a)	gari	chuit	ge-l	tæ	h m-ra	ber	bh	ge-l
	train	leave	go-PST- (3NH+1)	so	I- ACC/DAT	late	become	go-PST- (3NH+1)

I missed the train so I was late.

b)	u	p rh-	n i	ja-it	kiæk t	u	bimar	ich
	he(NH)	read- INF	not	go-FUT- (3NH)	because	he- (3NH)	sick	be-PRES- (3NH)

He will not go to study because he is sick.

Reason connectives also employ a morphological device of using verbal nouns, i.e., by adding-bak karn-e or –la sa to verb of the subordinate clause which is not done in English. (Yadav, 1990, p. 365). For example:

a)	besi	kha	le-la	s	pet	dukha-it	ich
	much	eat	take(verbal noun)	from	stomach	ache- IMPERF	AUX-PRES- (3NH+1)

My stomach aches because I ate much.

Subordinate clauses of reason employ subordinating complementizer morphemes je/ki 'that' when there is an adverb of quantification in the main clause. For example:

a) tek   h ns-l   ki   pet   dukhai   la   ge-l

so   laugh-   that   stomach   pain-   take   go-PST-

much   PST-(1)   IMPERF   (3NH+1)

I laughed so much that my stomach ached.

6) Indicating Condition: Subordinators used to indicate condition in Maithili are j□ (also j di/y di/ g r) 'if' and /t / 'then' in the main clause. For example:

a) j di   o   mihnet   k r- t   t   o   utirn   ho-i-tah

if   he(H)   hard work   do-PRES   then   he(H)   pass   be-FUT-(3H)

If he works hard, (then) he will pass.

b) j□   ok ra   pai   ho-ita   t   u   kitab   kin- t

If   he-   money   be-FUT-   then   he-   book   buy-FUT-

(NH)   (3NH)   (NH)   (3NH)

If he has money, he will buy a book.

7) Indicating Concession or Contrast: Subordinators used to indicate concession or contrast in Maithili are t thapi 'although' or 'even though', or 'though', muda 'however'. For example,

a) moh n   imandar   ich   muda   u   g rib   ich

Mohan   honest   be – PRES –   though   he   poor   be PRES-

(3NH+1)   (3NH)   (3NH)

Though Mohan is poor, he is honest.

Or

Mohan is honest though he is poor.

b)	o	jogya	ich	t thapi	o	berojar	ich
	he-(3H)	qualified	be-PRES-(3H)	although	he-(3H)	unemployed	be-PRES-(3H)

Al though he is qualified, he is unemployed.

3.2 Maithili Subordinators Vis-à-vis English Subordinators

In this section of 'Analysis and interpretation' Maithili and English subordinators have been compared descriptively to find out similarities and differences between them. As the researcher has followed the widely accepted subordinators in both the languages, the comparison is done between the Maithili subordinators discussed by Yadav (1990) and English subordinators by Aarts (1997), by Quirk et al. (1980) and by Thompson and Martinet (1992).

3.2.1 Similarities Between English and Maithili Subordination System

1. A number of adverbial subordinate clauses are found in both the English and Maithili languages. The English language has following adverbial subordinate clauses in terms of the function and force of an adverbial: Time, Location, Manner, Reason, Result, Purpose, Condition and Concession. Similarly, the following subordinate clauses have been identified in Maithili: Time, Location, Manner, Reason, Result, Purpose, Condition and Concession.

2. The meaning of each adverbial subordinate clause in English is similar to adverbial subordinate clause in Maithili.

3. The position of the adverbial subordinators in the sentences indicating time, purpose, reason, condition, result and manner is similar in both the English and Maithili languages. For example:

I. Indicating Time

English: When I arrived you were asleep.

Maithili:

 j kh n h m   p h c-l- h   h   sut -le   ch- l- h

  when   I   arrive-PST- (1) you (H) asleep   be-PST – (2H)

'When I arrived, you were asleep'.

II. Indicating Purpose

English: He does exercise in the morning to be healthy.

Maithili:

O	sw sth	r h-	lel	s bere	byayam	k r-i	ch- ith
he(3H)	healthy	be-FUT-(3H)	for	in the morning	exercise	do-IMPER	AUX-PRES-(3H)

He does exercise in the morning to be healthy.

III. Indicating Reason

English: I missed the train so I was late.

Maithili:

gari	chuit	ge-l	tæ	h m-ra	ber	bh	ge-l
train	leave	go-PST-(3NH+1)	so	I-ACC/DAT	late	become	go-PST-(3NH+1)

I missed the train so I was late.

IV. Indicating Condition

English: If he works hard, (then) he will pass.

Maithili:

j di	o	mihnet	k r- t	t	o	utirn	ho-i-tah
if	he(H)	hard work	do-PRES	then	he(H)	pass	be-FUT-(3H)

If he works hard, (then) he will pass.

V. Indicating Result

English: It was getting late for me, as a result of which I returned.

Maithili:

h m-ra	der	bh	r h l	Ch- l	tæ	h m	l ut	ge-l-dh
I –ACC/DAT	late	become	PROG	AUX-PST-(3NH+1)	consequently	I	return	go-PST –(1)

'It was getting late for me, as a result of which I returned'.

VI. Indicating Manner

English: Do it as I had taught.

Maithili:

i)   k r-   jena   p rh- ile   ch- l-i uk

   do-IMP-(2NH)   as   teach-PERF AUX-PST-(1+2NH)

      Do it as I had taught.

4. If the main clause happens to contain an adverb of quantification, then the adverbial clause of reason employs the subordinating complementizer morphemes in both the English and Maithili. English employs 'that' complementizer and Maithili employs je/ki. For example:

English: I laughed so much that my stomach ached.

Maithili:

   a)   tek   h ns-l   ki   pet   dukhai   la   ge-l
        so   laugh-   that stomach pain-   take   go-PST-
        much PST-(1)   IMPERF   (3NH+1)

      I laughed so much that my stomach ached.

3.2.2 Differences Between English and Maithili Subordination System

Though both the Maithili and English languages have similar subordination, there are a number of differences between the two systems.

1. Subordinate clauses of time are usually correlative, one of which is optionally deleted like j kh n-t kh n 'when-then' j hiya-t hiya

41

'when-then', jab t-tab t 'as long as-until then' but it is not so in English. For example,

i)　jakh n　h m　teliphon　k eli　t kh n　h　sut l-　r h-i
　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　e

　　when　I　telephone　do-PST-　then　you　asleep　be-PST-
　　　　　　　　　　　　　(1)　　　　　　　　　　　(H)　　　(2H)

When I telephoned you, (then) you were asleep.

2. Subordinate clauses of time also show temporal relationship by the use of non-finite verb forms in Maithili. For example:

a)　ram　p riksha　utirn　hoe-lak　bad　ghar　l ut- t

　　Ram　exam　pass-FUT-　be-non-　after　home　return-
　　　　　　　　　(3NH)　　finite　　　　　　　　FUT-(3NH)

Ram will come back home after he has passed the exam.

3. Locative adverbial clauses are usually used before the main clauses in Maithili but they are used after the main clauses in English. For example,

　　i)　j t　　p thæ – b　　h m　jæ-b

　　　　where　send – FUT – (2H+1)　I　go FUT – (1)

　　I will go where you send me.

4. Reason clauses in Maithili employ a morphological device of using verbal nouns, i.e., by adding – bak karn-e or – la s☐ to the verb of the subordinate clause which is not seen in English. For example:

i)　ber　　hoe-bak　　karn-e　　gari　chuit　　ge-1

　　late　become (verbal　cause-　train　leave　go-PST-
　　　　　　noun)　　　INSTR　　　　　　　　(3NH+1)

42

I missed the train because I was late.

5. Adverbial clauses of condition in Maithili can be introduced without subordinators of condition but it is not so in English. For example,

i) pain   n i   p r- t   t   dhan   n i   upj- t

water   not   fall – FUT – 3   then paddy not   grow –FUT –

(3NH)   (3NH)

    If it doesn't rain, the paddy won't grow.

6. 'When' indicating time adverbial can also be used after the subject of the adverbial clause in Maithili whereas 'When' indicating time adverbial is usually used before the subject in English.

3.3 Analysis of Errors

While analyzing errors from the gathered data, the individual errors have been collected and tabulated item wise (App-III). Then, the average errors have also been computed. The number of students as well as the percentage of the students above and below average in all the items is determined. Likewise, the total average errors of the total sample is also determined. Then, the number of students as well as their percentage above average and below average is also computed. This process has been followed in all the tables presented here. At the end, the different types of errors committed by them and their numbers with possible causes are also shown in this part of the research. Though students committed errors on different areas of grammar, the study focused on the errors committed on subordination.

3.3.1 Holistic Comparison

Table 1

S.N.	Campus/ School	Total sample	Total errors	Average errors	Above average No. of students	%	Below average No. of students	%
1.	Janakpur Campus, Janakpur	20	1003	50.15	11	55	9	45
2.	Rajarshi Janak Campus Janakpur	20	835	41.75	16	80	4	20
3.	Everest Secondary Academy Janakpur	20	1201	60.05	12	60	8	40
	Total	60	3039	42.31	36		24	

The table above takes into account the errors committed in different areas of grammar. It shows that the average errors of the students of bachelor level from Janakpur Campus was 50.51, out of 1003 errors in total. However, the number of students above average was 11, i.e., 55% and below average was 9, i.e., 45%, out of 20 sample respectively.

Likewise, the total average errors of the students of XI from Rajarshi Janak Campus was 41.75, out of 835 errors in total.

However, the number of students above average was 16, i.e., 80% and below average was 4, i.e., 20%, out of 20 sample respectively.

Similarly, the total average errors of the students of grade X from Everest Secondary School, Janakpur was 60.05, out of 1201 errors in total. However, the number of students above average was 12, i.e., 60% and below average was 8, i.e., 40%. In total, the average error was 42.31, out of 3039 errors. Among 60 total sample, 36 students were found above average whereas 24 of them were below average.

3.3.2 Item-wise Comparison

Table 2: Total errors committed it item No. 1

Total sample	Total errors	Total average of errors	Above average		Below average	
			No. of students	%	No. of students	%
60	1150	19.16	56	93.33	4	6.66

The table above shows that the total errors committed in item No. 1, which consisted of 20 items of sentences to be joined using suitable subordinators carrying 40 marks, 2 for each. The average error is 19.16, out of total sample. Fifty six students (93.33% students) were above average whereas only 4 students were below it. Hence, the majority of the students were found to commit errors while using the subordinators to join the sentences.

Table 3: Total errors committed in item No. 2

Total sample	Total errors	Total average of errors	Above average		below average	
			No. of students	%	No. of students	%
60	551	9.18	18	30%	42	70%

The table 3 shows the errors of the students in item No. 2. Here the students were asked to insert suitable subordinators in the blank spaces. This item consisted of 10 items carrying 10 marks, 1 for each. The average errors committed by the sample population was 9.18 only, out of 551 errors in total. Out of 60 students only 30% students were above average whereas 70% of the students were found under below average. In other words, the students performed satisfactorily while inserting subordinators in the blank spaces.

Table 4: Total errors committed in item No. 3

Total sample	Total errors	Total average of errors	Above average		below average	
			No. of students	%	No. of students	%
60	575	9.58	6	10	54	90

In item No. 3, the students were exposed to use the given subordinators in the sentences correctly. This category consisted of 10 items carrying 30 marks, 3 for each. Here, the total average of errors was 9.58, out of 575 errors in total. Only 6 students out of 60 students, were above average whereas 54 students were below

average. Therefore, the performance of the students as regards to make sentences using the subordinators can be claimed satisfactory.

Table 5: Total errors committed in item No. 4

Total sample	Total errors	Total average of errors	Above average		below average	
			No. of students	%	No. of students	%
60	763	12.71	34	56.66	26	43.33

The above table shows that the average errors of students was 12.71. In this item, the students were asked to translate the English sentences into Maithili and Maithili into English. This item consisted of 10 items carrying 20 marks, 2 for each. Out of total sample, 56.66% of the students were above average and 43.33% of them were below it. Thus, the students committed more errors in this item.

3.4 Comparison of Errors on the basis of subordinators both in the English and Maithili Languages

In this section, the errors committed by the students of each academic institution as regards the use of different subordinators have been shown.

Table 1: 'When' Subordinator

Subordinator	Campus/School	Language	Total questions	Right answer	Wrong answer	Percentage of error
When	Janakpur Campus	Maithili	240	178	62	25.83
		English	240	133	107	44.58
	Rajarshi Campus	Maithili	240	189	51	21.25
		English	240	168	72	30
	Everest Secondary Academy	Maithili	240	200	40	16.66
		English	240	145	95	39.58

The table above shows that the students committed more errors in English than in Maithili as regards the use of 'when'. Out of 240 questions, students of bachelor level from Janakpur Campus committed 62 errors, i.e., 25.83% in Maithili and 107 errors in English, i.e., 44.58% in English.

Likewise, out of 240 questions, students of XI from Rajarshi Campus committed 51 errors in Maithili and 72 in English, i.e., 21.25% in Maithili and 30% in English respectively. Similarly, out of 240 questions, students of grade X from Everest Secondary School committed 40 errors in Maithili and 95 errors in English, i.e., 16.66% in Maithili and 39.58% in English respectively.

Table 2: 'Because' Subordinator

Subordinator	Campus/School	Language	Total questions	Right answer	Wrong answer	Percentage of error
Because	Janakpur Campus	Maithili	260	164	96	36.92
		English	260	153	107	41.15
	Rajarshi Campus	Maithili	260	180	80	30.76
		English	260	174	86	33.07
	Everest Secondary Academy	Maithili	260	203	57	21.92
		English	260	164	96	36.92

The table above shows that students committed more errors in English than in Maithili as regards the use of 'because' subordinator. Students of bachelor level from Janakpur campus committed 96, errors, i.e., 36.92% errors in Maithili out of 260 questions and 107 errors, i.e., 41.15% errors in English, out of 260 questions.

Likewise, out of 260 questions, students of XI from Rajarshi Campus committed 80 errors, i.e., 30.76% errors in Maithili and 86 errors, i.e., 33.07% errors in English.

Similarly, out of 260 questions, students of grade X from Everest Secondary School committed 57 errors, i.e., 21.92% errors in Maithili and 96 errors i.e., 36.92% errors in English.

Table 3: 'If' Subordinator

Subordinator	Campus/School	Language	Total questions	Right answer	Wrong answer	Percentage of error
If	Janakpur Campus	Maithili	140	85	55	39.28
		English	140	82	58	41.42
	Rajarshi Campus	Maithili	140	94	46	32.85
		English	140	94	46	32.86
	Everest Secondary Academy	Maithili	140	89	51	36.42
		English	140	85	55	39.28

The table above shows errors committed by the students concerning the use of 'if' subordinator. Out of 140 questions, students of bachelor level from Janakpur campus committed 55 errors, i.e. 39.28% errors in Maithili and 58 errors, i.e., 41.42% errors in English. Students of XI from Rajarshi campus committed 46 errors both in the English and Maithili, i.e., 32.85% in each language. Students of Everest Secondary School committed 51 errors, i.e., 36.42% errors in Maithili and 55 errors, i.e., 39.28% in English.

Table 4: 'Although' Subordinator

Subordinator	Campus/School	Language	Total questions	Right answer	Wrong answer	Percentage of error
Although	Janakpur Campus	Maithili	100	51	49	49
		English	100	48	52	52
	Rajarshi Campus	Maithili	100	53	47	47
		English	100	50	50	50
	Everest Secondary Academy	Maithili	100	50	50	50
		English	100	48	52	52

The table above shows the errors committed by the students as regards the use of 'although' subordinator. Students of bachelor level from Janakpur Campus committed 49 errors, i.e. 49% errors in Maithili and 52 errors, i.e., 52% errors in English, out of 100 questions in total. Likewise, students of XI from Rajarshi Janak Campus committed 47 errors, i.e., 47% errors in Maithili and 50 errors, i.e., 50% errors in English. Similarly, students of Everest Secondary School committed 50 errors, i.e., 50% errors in Maithili and 52 errors, i.e., 52% errors in English, out of 100 questions in total.

Table 5: 'That' Subordinator

Subordinator	Campus/School	Language	Total questions	Right answer	Wrong answer	Percentage of error
That	Janakpur Campus	Maithili	80	69	11	13.75
		English	80	60	20	25
	Rajarshi Campus	Maithili	80	70	10	12.5
		English	80	65	15	18.75
	Everest Secondary Academy	Maithili	80	60	20	25
		English	80	58	22	27.5

The table above shows that students committed more errors in English than in Maithili as regards the use of 'that' subordinator. Out of 80 questions, students of bachelor level from Janakpur campus committed 11 errors, i.e., 13.75% errors in Maithili and 20 errors i.e., 25% errors in English. Likewise, students of XI form Rajarshi campus committed 10 errors in Maithili and 15 errors in English, i.e., 12.5% in Maithili and 18.75% errors in English respectively. Similarly, out of 80 questions, students of grade X

from Everest Secondary School committed 20 errors, i.e., 25% errors in Maithili and 22 errors, i.e., 27.5% errors in English.

Table 6: 'So that' subordinator

Subordinator	Campus/School	Language	Total questions	Right answer	Wrong answer	Percentage of error
So that	Janakpur Campus	Maithili	80	59	21	26.25
		English	80	33	47	58.75
	Rajarshi Campus	Maithili	80	58	22	27.5
		English	80	38	42	52.5
	Everest Secondary Academy	Maithili	80	51	29	36.25
		English	80	40	40	50

The table above shows that students committed more errors in English than in Maithili. Out of 80 questions, students of bachelor level from Janakpur Campus committed 21 errors, i.e., 26.25% errors in Maithili and 47 errors, i.e., 58.75% errors in English. Likewise, out of 80 questions, students of XI form Rajarshi campus committed 22 errors, i.e., 27.5% errors in Maithili and 42 errors, i.e., 52.5% errors in English.

Similarly, out of 80 questions students of X from Everest Secondary School committed 29 errors, i.e. 36.25% errors in Maithili and 50 errors, i.e. 50% errors in English.

Table 7: 'Where' subordinator

Subordinator	Campus/School	Language	Total Questions	Right Answers	Wrong Answers	% of Errors
Where	Janakpur Campus	Maithili	40	24	16	40
		English	40	7	33	82.5
	Rajarshi Campus	Maithili	40	28	12	30
		English	40	13	27	67.5
	Everest Secondary School	Maithili	40	32	8	20
		English	40	10	30	75

The table above shows that students committed more errors in English than in Maithili. Out of 40 questions, students of bachelor level from Janakpur Campus committed 16 errors, i.e., 40% errors in Maithili and 33 errors, i.e., 82.5% errors in English. Likewise, out of 40 questions, students of XI form Rajarshi campus committed 12 errors, i.e., 30% errors in Maithili and 27 errors, i.e., 67.5% errors in English.

Similarly, out of 40 questions, students of X from Everest Secondary School committed 8 errors, i.e. 20% errors in Maithili and 30 errors, i.e. 75% errors in English.

3.5 Possibility of Mother Tongue Interference

Errors committed due to mother tongue interference are given below

Example:

i. Maithili: जत पठाएव हम जाएव ।

English: *Where you send me, I'll go.

          I'll go where you send me.

53

ii. Maithili: ले जो जेना कहले छलियौ ।

English: *Take and go as I said.

            Take it away as I had instructed.

iii. Maithili: जखन पठाएव तखन जाएव ।

English: *When you send me then I go.

            When you send me, I'll go.

iv. Maithili: वो योग्य छैथ तथापि वेरोजगार छैय ।

English: *He is qualified though he is unemployed.

            Though he is qualified, he is unemployed.

CHAPTER FOUR

FINDINGS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

4.1 Findings

From close and careful analysis of the data, the following points have been discovered:

1. The following eight types of adverbial subordinators have been identified in Maithili. The data collected for this research also confirms this fact. They are the adverbial subordinators of time, location, manner, reason, result, purpose, condition and concession.

2. The meaning of each adverbial subordinate clause in English is similar to adverbial subordinate clause in Maithili.

3. The position of the adverbial subordinators in the sentence indicating time, purpose, reason, condition, result and manner is similar in both the English and Maithili languages.

4. Subordinate clauses of reason employ subordinating complementizer morphemes in both the English and Maithili. English employs 'that' complementizer and Maithili employs je/ki.

5. Usually time adverbial subordinators are correlative in Maithili which is not seen in English.

6. 'When' indicating time adverbial can also be used after the subject of the adverbial clause in Maithili whereas 'When' indicating time adverbial is usually used before the subject in English.

7. Subordinate clauses of time also show temporal relationship by the use of non-finite verb forms in Maithili.

8. Locative adverbial clauses are usually used before the main clauses in Maithili but they are used after the main clauses in English.

9. Reason clauses in Maithili employ a morphological device of using verbal nouns, i.e., by adding – bak karn-e or – la s☐ to the verb of the subordinate clause which is not seen in English.

10. Adverbial clauses of condition in Maithili can be introduced without subordinators of condition but it is not so in English.

11. The students committed more errors while translating Maithili sentences into English than they committed them while translating latter ones into the former ones.

12. The Errors were caused due to mother tongue inference and overgeneralization.

4.2 Recommendations and Suggestions

The following recommendations and suggestions have been made on the basis of the above findings.

1. As there are a number of differences between English and Maithili subordination, the teachers teaching Maithili speaking students learning English should pay special attention on different aspects of subordination.

2. Usually time adverbial subordinators are correlative in Maithili which is not seen in English. So, the concerned teachers should be aware of this fact.

3. Locative adverbial clauses are usually used before the main clauses in Maithili but they are used after the main clauses in English. So, attention is required on the part of teachers while dealing with locative adverbial clauses.

4. Adverbial clauses of condition in Maithili can be introduced without subordinator of condition but it is not so in English. Therefore, extra attention has to be paid while teaching adverbial clauses of condition.

5. 'When' as time adverbial can also be used after the subject of the adverbial clause in Maithili but it is not so in English. So, the concerned teachers should be aware of this fact.

6. The students committed more errors while translating Maithili sentences into English than they committed them while translating latter ones into the former ones. Thus, while teaching language a teacher should see what difficulties the learners are facing because of the mother tongue as mother tongue influences in learning a second language.

7. Without having linguistic knowledge, language teaching is an impossible task. This gives a teacher linguistic knowledge who is teaching in the Maithili and English languages.

REFERENCES

Aarts, B. (1997). *English Syntax and Argumentation.* London: Macmillan Press.

Asher, R.E. (1992). *The Encyclopedia of Language and Linguistics.* Vol. II, New Work: Pergamon Press.

Awasthi, J.R. & Giri, R.A. (1996). Evaluation of Error Committed by Nepali Learners of English. Journal of NELTA 1, 2.

Bhattarai, G.R. (2001). *A Thematic Analysis of Research Reports.* Kathmandu: Ratna Pustak Bhandar.

C.B.S. (2001). *Population Census 2001. National Report,* Kathmandu: NG/CBS.

Corder, S. Pit. (1973). *Error Analysis in Allen and Corder, Edinburgh Course in Applied Linguistics,* Vol. 3, London: OUP.

Crystal, D. (2003). *A Dictionary of Linguistics and Phonetics.* New Work: Blackwell Publish.

Fries, C.C. (1945). *Teaching and Learning English as Foreign Language.* Ann Arbon: University of Michigan Press.

James, Carl (1980). *Contrastive Analysis.* London: Longman.

Jha, Subhadra. (1975). *Formation of Maithili Language.* Patana: University.

Jha, Ugeshwor, (1989). *Maithili Vyakaran Aa Aur Rachana.* Delhi: Bharati Bhawan Publishers and Distributers.

Kumar, R. (1996). *Research Methodology* London: Sage Publication Ltd.

Leech, G. & J. Svartvik. (1991). *A Communicative Grammar of English.* London: ELBS.

Murphy, R. (1994). *Intermediate English Grammar.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Nesfied, J.C. (2002). *English Grammar, Composition and Usage.* Chennai: Macmillan India Limited.

Quirk, et al. (1985). *A Comprehensive Grammar of the English Language.* London: Longman.

Quirk, R. and S. Greenbanm. (1973). *A University Grammar of English:* Essex ELBB and Longman Group Ltd.

Richards, Jack, John Platt and Heidi Weber, (1985). *Longman dictionary of applied linguistics.* Longman.

Sinclair, John (Ed.), (1994). *Collin COBUILD English Grammar.* New Delhi: Indus.

Thomson, A.J. and Martinet, A.V. (1988). *A Practical English Grammar.* Delhi: Oxford University Press.

Yadav, R.A. (1990). *A Reference Grammar of Maithili.* Berlin and New York: Moutoncle Gruyter.

Yadav, Y.P. (1999). *Readings in Maithili Language*, *Literature and Culture*. Kathmandu: Royal Nepal Academy.

Yadav, Y.P. (2004). *Theories of Grammar* Kirtipur KTM: Students' Books Publishers and Distributors.

Yule, George (1985). *The Study of Language Cambridge:* Cambridge University Press.

APPENDICES

Appendix - II

Name of the informants with their Roll No. and Campuses/Schools

S.N.	Name of informants	Roll No.	Campus/School
1.	Santosh Kumar Yadav	185	Janakpur Campus
2.	Ram Chandra Yadav	7	"
3.	Sunila Kumari Thakur	40	"
4.	Nilam Kumari Mandal	6	"
5.	Seema Jha	32	"
6.	Rina Ray	113	"
7.	Pritee Kumari Yadav	33	"
8.	Swati Karna	26	"
9.	Kamlesh Yadav	37	"
10.	Gunja Kumari Mahato	62	"
11.	Mamata Sah	38	"
12.	Shyam Dev Yadav	48	"
13.	Surendra Kumar Chaudhary	114	"
14.	Siva Yadav	98	"
15.	Nitu Tiwari	58	"
16.	Pooja Kumari	-	"
17.	Gita Sah	60	"
18.	Santoh Sah	100	"
19.	Shambhu Thakur	64	"
20.	Saroj Yadav	107	"
21.	Aashish Kumar Jha	29	Rajarshi Campus
22.	Bina Ray	77	"
23.	Rekha Yadav	72	"
24.	Alka Kumari Ray	70	"
25.	Haridev Prasad Yadav	21	"
26.	Ranjana Jha	26	"
27.	Hari Lal Yadav	119	"
28.	Kameshwor Prasad Yadav	118	"
29.	Ritu Kumari Jha	65	"
30.	Rohit Kumar Mandal	12	"
31.	Bandana Ghatani	42	"
32.	Ram Kebal Yadav	7	"

33.	Rajani Thakur	38	"
34.	Nisha Mishra	35	"
35.	Satrughan Kumar Mahato	100	"
36.	Ghanshyam Jha	10	"
37.	Sushil Kumar Yadav	25	"
38.	Gunja Ray	103	"
39.	Rekha Chaudhary	28	"
40.	Ramesh Kumar Sah	62	"
41.	Pratima Jha	9	Everest Secondary School
42.	Shabnam Chaudhary	11	"
43.	Sarien Yadav	13	"
44.	Christy Shuvangi	5	"
45.	Sailendra Verma	20	"
46.	Prakash Yadav	1	"
47.	Raju Chaudhary	7	"
48.	Pankaj Pandey	6	"
49.	Mukesh Kumar Sah	27	"
50.	Prabhanshu Kumar Singh	3	"
51.	Love Kumar Mukhiya	12	"
52.	Ajit Kumar Jha	8	"
53.	Priyanka Kumari Singh	4	"
54.	Ajay Kumar Sah	16	"
55.	Sanjit Kumar Sah	10	"
56.	Parashnath Jha	15	"
57.	Amit Yadav	11	"
58.	Umesh Kumar Jha	2	"
59.	Arun Sah	5	"
60.	Sanjeet Mishra	17	"

APPENDIX – III

Errors committed in each item by the informants of each campus/school

S.N.	Informants' names	Campus School	Language	1st item	2nd item	3rd item	4th item	Total errors
1.	Santosh Kumar Yadav	Janakpur Campus	Maithili	10	8	3	8	29
			English	12	8	3	8	31
2.	Ram Chandra Yadav	"	Maithili	11	8	5	7	31
			English	11	4	7	8	30
3.	Sunila Kumari Thakur	"	Maithili	15	5	9	9	38
			English	10	5	6	7	28
4.	Nilam Kumari Mandal	"	Maithili	7	6	3	6	22
			English	12	4	6	4	26
5.	Seema Jha	"	Maithili	12	5	5	8	30
			English	13	2	4	5	24
6.	Rina Ray	"	Maithili	10	6	3	2	21
			English	14	3	8	6	31
7.	Pritee Kumari Yadav	"	Maithili	12	5	2	4	23
			English	16	2	6	8	32
8.	Swati Karna	"	Maithili	4	3	2	4	13
			English	6	3	2	5	16
9.	Kamlesh Yadav	"	Maithili	17	3	4	7	31
			English	14	7	2	10	33
10.	Gunja Kumari Mahato	"	Maithili	8	3	3	2	16
			English	10	3	2	5	20
11.	Mamata Sah	"	Maithili	3	3	5	6	17
			English	9	4	5	5	23
12.	Shyam Dev Yadav	"	Maithili	13	5	7	5	30
			English	13	7	3	7	30
13.	Surendra Kumar Chaudhary	"	Maithili	4	2	7	5	15
			English	8	6	3	4	21
14.	Siva Yadav	"	Maithili	8	4	4	8	24
			English	4	6	3	5	18
15.	Nitu Tiwari	"	Maithili	7	2	1	5	15
			English	14	4	4	1	23
16.	Pooja Kumari	"	Maithili	17	6	6	10	39
			English	6	4	6	10	26

17.	Gita Sah	"	Maithili	15	4	5	6	30
			English	16	6	6	7	35
18.	Santoh Sah	"	Maithili	7	2	2	9	20
			English	10	5	5	5	25
19.	Shambhu Thakur	"	Maithili	6	4	3	3	16
			English	8	6	4	6	24
20.	Saroj Yadav	"	Maithili	11	3	3	8	25
			English	11	3	5	3	22
21.	Aashish Kumar Jha	Rajarshi Campus	Maithili	12	4	5	5	26
			English	15	6	9	10	40
22.	Bina Ray	"	Maithili	13	9	9	10	41
			English	13	4	5	2	24
23.	Rekha Yadav	"	Maithili	5	5	3	4	17
			English	3	4	3	6	16
24.	Alka Kumari Ray	"	Maithili	11	6	8	10	35
			English	5	3	6	5	19
25.	Haridev Prasad Yadav	"	Maithili	3	3	5	2	13
			English	5	4	2	2	13
26.	Ranjana Jha	"	Maithili	3	3	3	4	13
			English	4	3	1	3	11
27.	Hari Lal Yadav	"	Maithili	3	4	-	2	9
			English	3	2	1	-	6
28.	Kameshwor Prasad Yadav	"	Maithili	2	6	2	3	13
			English	6	3	4	1	14
29.	Ritu Kumari Jha	"	Maithili	6	5	2	10	23
			English	9	3	3	4	19
30.	Rohit Kumar Mandal	"	Maithili	5	3	3	1	12
			English	4	5	1	3	13
31.	Bandana Ghatani	"	Maithili	9	5	3	7	24
			English	4	4	3	7	18
32.	Ram Kebal Yadav	"	Maithili	4	5	4	7	20
			English	4	3	3	7	17
33.	Rajani Thakur	"	Maithili	6	5	6	5	22
			English	8	4	5	7	24
34.	Nisha Mishra	"	Maithili	2	4	-	5	11
			English	12	4	4	5	25
35.	Satrughan Kumar Mahato	"	Maithili	4	3	5	5	17
			English	12	5	5	6	28
36.	Ghanshyam Jha	"	Maithili	2	2	4	5	13

			English	9	3	4	6	22
37.	Sushil Kumar Yadav	"	Maithili	8	3	6	9	26
			English	9	3	4	6	22
38.	Gunja Ray	"	Maithili	12	3	8	4	27
			English	13	6	8	7	32
39.	Rekha Chaudhary	"	Maithili	8	4	3	6	14
			English	14	6	5	5	30
40.	Ramesh Kumar Sah	"	Maithili	10	5	3	4	22
			English	13	7	8	3	35
41.	Pratima Jha	Everest Secondary School	Maithili	13	8	6	6	33
			English	17	8	7	8	40
42.	Shabnam Chaudhary	"	Maithili	4	4	3	4	15
			English	11	5	7	1	24
43.	Sarien Yadav	"	Maithili	7	2	4	6	19
			English	12	4	5	7	28
44.	Christy Shuvangi	"	Maithili	3	3	4	7	17
			English	6	5	6	2	19
45.	Sailendra Verma	"	Maithili	13	7	4	6	30
			English	13	9	7	7	36
46.	Prakash Yadav	"	Maithili	13	8	5	7	33
			English	12	7	6	7	32
47.	Raju Chaudhary	"	Maithili	12	8	7	8	35
			English	17	9	6	8	40
48.	Pankaj Pandey	"	Maithili	8	7	6	9	30
			English	9	6	6	5	26
49.	Mukesh Kumar Sah	"	Maithili	17	4	7	7	35
			English	12	8	8	8	36
50.	Prabhanshu Kumar Singh	"	Maithili	14	7	7	8	36
			English	15	7	6	8	36
51.	Love Kumar Mukhiya	"	Maithili	13	8	8	8	37
			English	12	5	4	5	26
52.	Ajit Kumar Jha	"	Maithili	11	7	7	10	35
			English	13	7	8	10	38
53.	Priyanka Kumari Singh	"	Maithili	13	8	7	8	36
			English	10	7	8	10	35
54.	Ajay Kumar Sah	"	Maithili	15	7	7	6	35
			English	16	8	7	7	38

55.	Sanjit Kumar Sah	"	Maithili	6	3	2	3	14
			English	13	7	4	5	29
56.	Parashnath Jha	"	Maithili	12	6	4	5	27
			English	9	6	9	3	27
57.	Amit Yadav	"	Maithili	10	5	5	4	24
			English	9	7	2	6	24
58.	Umesh Kumar Jha	"	Maithili	12	7	6	6	31
			English	14	8	3	5	30
59.	Arun Sah	"	Maithili	12	6	4	5	27
			English	12	6	5	5	28
60.	Sanjeet Mishra	"	Maithili	10	5	7	8	30
			English	8	8	9	4	29
	Total			1157				

Appendix - IV

Ancient Sanskrit

Old Prakrita Vernacular

```
                 ┌──────────────────────────────────────┐
                 │                                      │
    Vernacular Sauraseni Prakrit          Vernacular Magdhi Prakrita
                 │                                      │
        ┌────────┴────────┐                    ┌────────┴────────┐
    West Gaudian      North Gaudian       South Gaudian      East Gaudian
         │                │                     │          ┌──────┬──────┬──────┐
         │          ┌─────┴─────┐              │       Bihari Bengali Uriya Asami
         │      Garhwali  Kumoani  Naipali     │          │
         │                                     │          │
  ┌───┬──┴──┬──────┐                     ┌─────┴────┐     │
Sindhi Gujrat Punjabi Hindi          Dakhani  Konkani    │
  │                                                       │
┌─┴──┬──────┬──────────┬──────┐              ┌────────────┴─────┐
Marwari Jaipuri Braj Bhasha Karauji      Bhojpuri  Maithili  Magadhi
                 │
            High Hindi
```
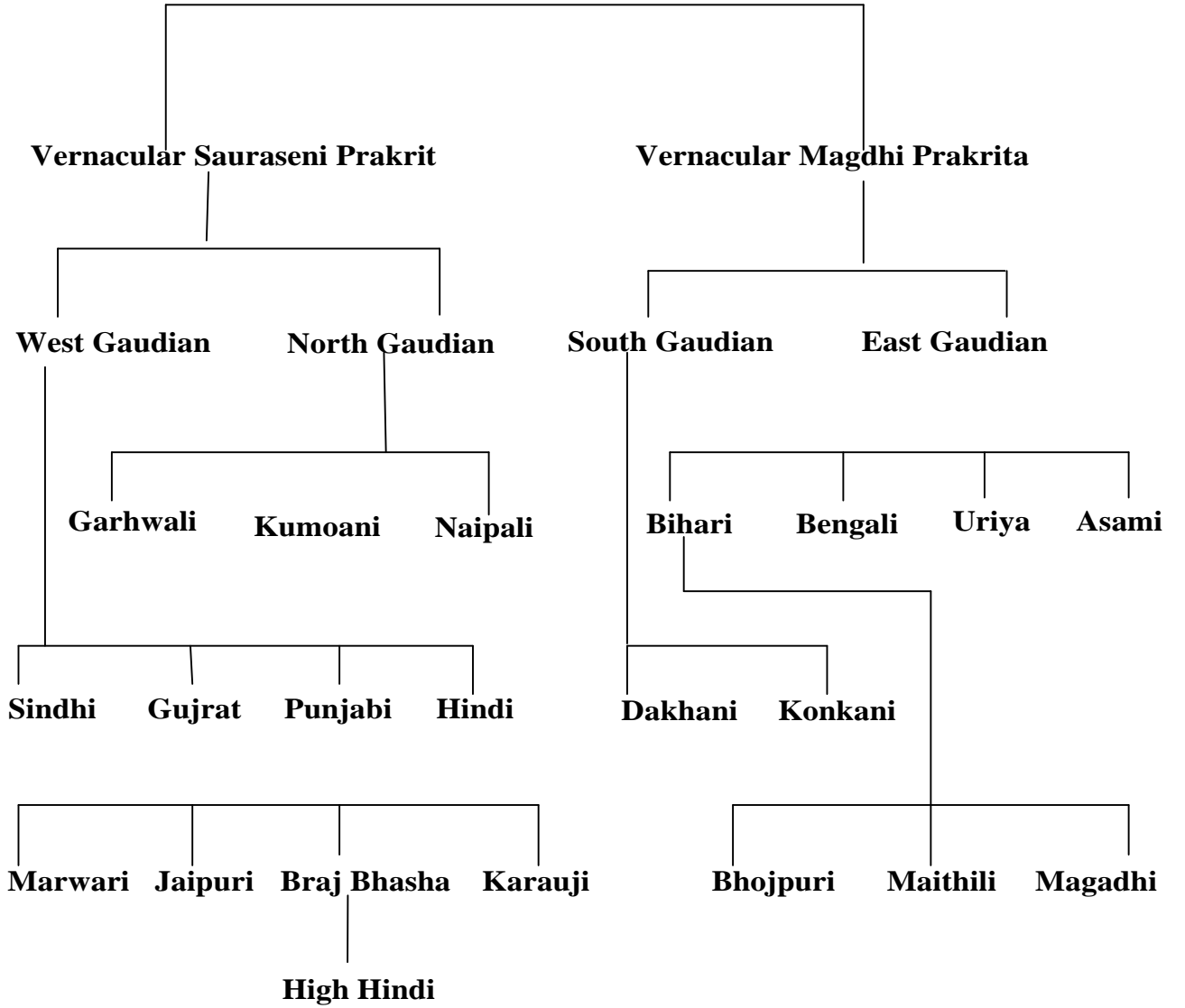
Figure 2: Grierson's (1883a)

Appendix - V

Indic (Indo-Aryan)

Western Dialects   Central Dialects   Eastern Dialects   Southern Dialects

Ardha-Magadhi   Magadhi

Awadhi   Magadhi-Apbhransa

Western   Central   Eastern

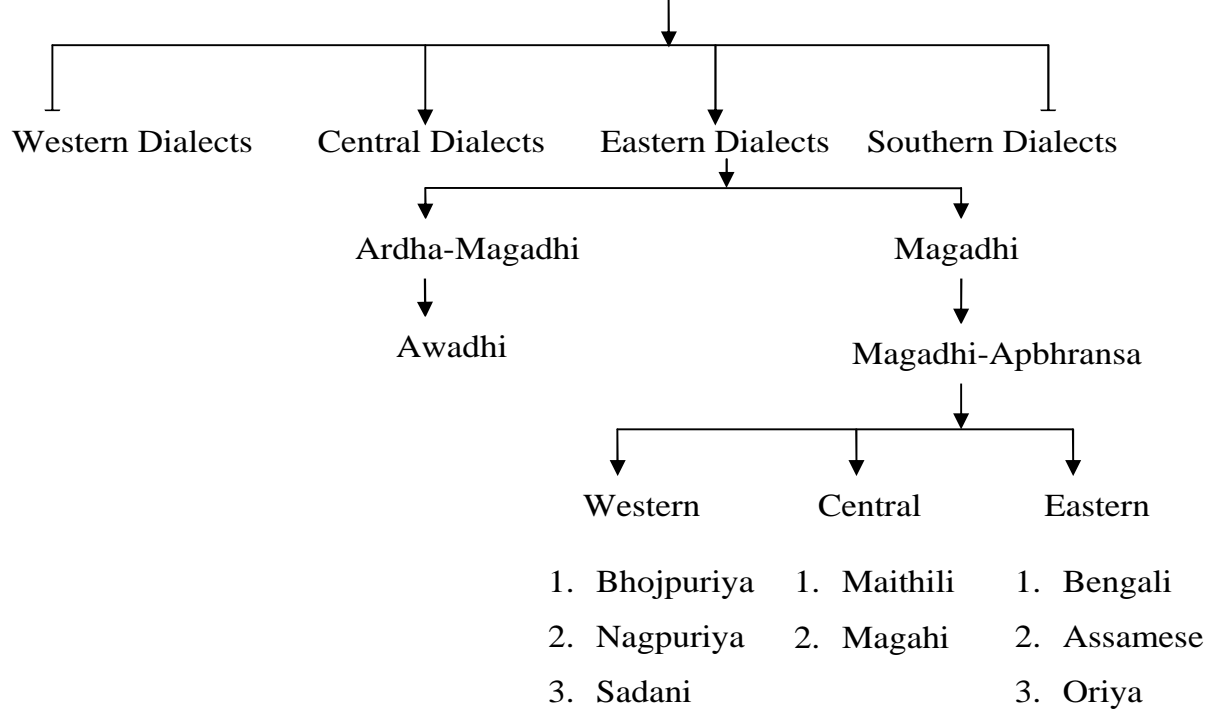| Western	Central	Eastern
1. Bhojpuriya	1. Maithili	1. Bengali
2. Nagpuriya	2. Magahi	2. Assamese
3. Sadani		3. Oriya

Figure 3: Classification of the modern Indo-Aryan languages showing primarily the languages of North India based on Chatterji (1926).
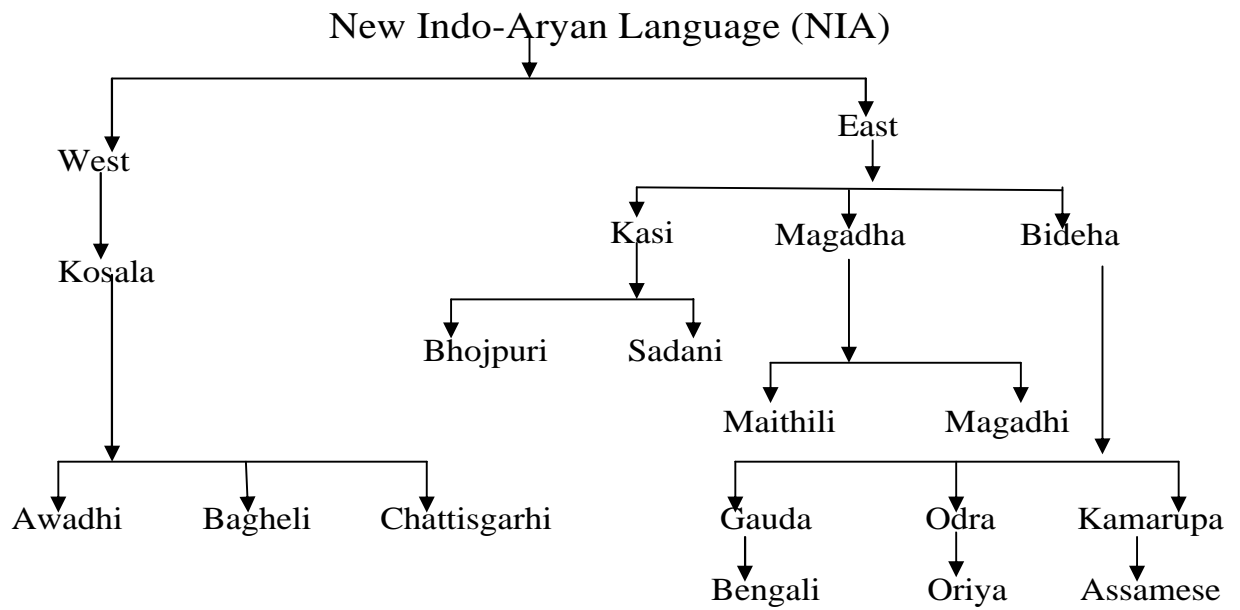
Appendix - VI

New Indo-Aryan Language (NIA)

```
                    New Indo-Aryan Language (NIA)
         ┌──────────────────────────┴──────────────────────────┐
        West                                                   East
         │                              ┌────────────────────────┼────────────────────┐
       Kosala                          Kasi                   Magadha               Bideha
         │                       ┌────────┴────────┐             │                      │
         │                    Bhojpuri           Sadani    ┌──────┴──────┐              │
   ┌─────┼─────────┐                                    Maithili      Magadhi           │
 Awadhi Bagheli Chattisgarhi                      ┌────────┴──────┬───────────────┐
                                                Gauda           Odra           Kamarupa
                                                  │               │               │
                                               Bengali          Oriya         Assamese
```

Figure 4: Genetic relation of Maithili to other NIA languages, based on Jha (1958)

Appendix - I