

CHAPTER -I

INTRODUCTION

1. General Background

1.1 English Language in Nepal

Language pervades almost every aspect of our lives. We talk, think, argue, question, theories, command, insult, promise and joke using language. An infinitely adaptable system of human communication 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 the way is unique to human beings. It is so important that we can hardly imagine what our lives would be without it.

English is the most dominant language in the world. 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 still others a foreign language (James, 1980). As the word has shrunk cause of the latest scientific discoveries and development in the field of communication, the importance of English as an international language has increased all the more. Most of the books are written in English. Therefore, the English language has become an indispensable source of knowledge for all.

"The English language has changed. One in five of the world's population speaks English. Approximately 375 million people speaks English as their first language . Over 375 million people speak English as their second language. English if the main international language of business, pop music, sports, advertising, academic conferences, travel, airports, diplomacy, science and technology. It is estimated that English is the language of over 80 pre cent of the information stored in the world's computers and 85 per cent of internet home pages and English is the language of 68 per cent of web users" (Encarta World English Dictionary, 1199)

The development of the English language in Nepal is closely connected with the rise of the Prime Minister Jang Bahadur Rana. After his visit to England, he established Durbar High School in 1853. It was the first English school to teach the English language in Nepal (Malla, 1997). Since then English has been included in the curriculum right from Grade Four up to the Master's level. This language is compulsory taught in almost all the educational institutions of Nepal from primary to higher-secondary level. In some disciplines, English is made compulsory right up to the Bachelor's level.

Malla (1977-12) in his article 'English in Nepalese Education' says, "English is undoubtedly of vital importance for accelerating the modernization process in Nepal".

"The importance of English language on the present day world need not be over emphasized. It is a principal language of international communication and a gateway to the world body of knowledge. In view of these facts the English language is given great importance in the education system of Nepal. It is taught as a compulsory subject right from Grade Four to Bachelor's level. In addition, it is used as an access language or a library language and as a means of instruction and evaluation at the higher levels of education." (Sthapit, S. K. et al., 1994)

Hence, English is indispensable for academic and communicative purposes. The rapid growth of English medium schools and their impact on societies prove that the importance of English is very high in Nepal.

1.2 About Maithili Language

Mithila is the name of that part of the state of Bihar which is surrounded on the north by Himalaya, on the south by Ganges, on the west by the river Gandaki and on the east by the koshi. In ancient India Mithila formed a state by itself, and one of its name was Videha. This was named after the family of its ruler Mithi.

Mithila was the name of a sage. The name of Mithila may have connection with the name of that sage . It may not be unreasonable to say that Mithila has some connection with Sanskrit 'Matha', which means 'together'.

It is very difficult to fix the boundary of Mithila because of its changing course of the three rivers mentioned above, except on the north, where the Himalayas are immovable. If we accept the Himalayas to be the northern boundary of Mithila, it would include a large part of the territory of the government of Nepal. It is said that in Medieval times of Nepal and Mithila was ruled by the same ruler. During the reign of Malla kings of Medieval era in Nepal, Maithili was accepted as a court language.

Maithili, as the name suggests, is chiefly the language of the residents of Mithila. The area of Maithili is very broad. It is spoken in the whole of the districts of Darbhanga, Purnea, Munger and Bhagalpur. It is the native language of the people of the Terai of Nepal. According to the Census Report (1981), the total number of Maithili speakers in Nepal is 16,68,300, i.e. 11.11 per cent of the total population of Nepal. In terms of the number of speakers, Maithili has the second position; the first position is held by Nepali.

It is to be noted that Maithili is an Indo-Aryan language written now in Devnagari script. Cole Brocke in his famous essay on 'The Sanskrit and Prakriti language' written in 1801 is the first to describe Maithili as a district language. He points out its affinity with Bengali. Maithili has been variously classified as a dialect of Hindi (Kellog: 1893), an independent language. (S. Jha: 1958).

The poet Vidya Patti, writing during the 14th century, graced the court of Maharaj Siva Singh. He put Maithili language on the high pedestal. It is upon his dainty songs in the vernacular that his fame chiefly rests. He was the first of the old master singers whose short religious poems deal principally with Radha and Krishna.

His songs were atheistically recited by the celebrated Hindu reformer Chaitnaya, who flourished at the beginning of the 16th century. Thus, Maithili was given high place in literature by Vidya Patti.

1.3 Importance of Grammar

Grammar may be roughly defined as the way a language manipulates and combines words in order to form larger units of meaning. There is a set of rules which governs how units of meaning may be constructed in any language. We may say that a learner who knows grammars is one who has mastered and can apply these rules to express himself or herself in what would be considered acceptable language forms (Encarta World English Dictionary, 1999). Thus, grammar has great importance and it helps learners to improve language. Plasticization is one of the grammatical topics and is included in the English course for the secondary level.

Funk and Wagnalls 'New Standard Dictionary of the English Language, 1960' "defines grammars as the science that treats the principle that govern the correct use of language in either oral or written form".

Grammar is a description of the structure of language and the way in which linguistic units such as words and phrase are combined to produce sentences in the language. It usually takes into account the meanings and functions. These sentences have in the overall system of the language. It may not include the description of the sounds of a language (Richards, J. et. al , 1985).

1.4 Contrastive Analysis: An Overview

Contrastive Analysis is a branch of Applied Linguistics which compares two languages typologically in order to find out the point of the similarities and differences between them and then to predict the areas of ease and difficulty in

learning one by the speakers of the other language. It has general applications in teaching second languages.

Carl James defines CA as " 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 language can be compared". It can be inferred (reaching from facts and reasoning) from this that languages are comparable and CA is the comparison of two linguistic systems which can be any of morphology, phonology and syntax or grammar.

CA hypothesis based on behaviouristic psychology can be summarized in the following way: (based on Prof. Sthapit's class lecture, 1998).

- i. Difference between the past and the present learning causes hindrance whereas the learning is facilitated by the similarity between the past learning and the present learning.
- ii. Hindrance leads to difficulty in learning whereas facilitation leads to ease in learning.
- iii. Learning difficulty, in turns leads to errors in performance whereas learning ease leads ton errorless performance.

Contrastive analysis has to two significant functions, primary and secondary functions. The primary function is the predictive function whereas the secondary function explains the sources of errors committed by the second language learners. Contrastive analysis has two aspects. They are linguistic aspect and psychological aspect. Linguistic aspect deals with the theory to find some features quite easy and some other extremely difficult. Psychological aspect deals with the theory to predict the possible errors made by second language learners.

Linguistic component of contrastive analysis is based on the following facts:

- Language learning is a matter of habit formation.
- The state of mind of L₁, and L₂ Learners is different. The mind of an L₁ learner is a tabularized whereas that of an L₂ learner is full of L₁ habits.
- Languages are comparable.

Psychological component of contrastive analysis, which is also called Transfer Theory, is based on the fact that past learning affects the present learning. If it facilitates learning it is positive transfer. But if it hinders new learning or is called negative transfer, positive transfer indicates the facilitation whereas negative transfer means interference.

1.5 Error Analysis and its Steps

Error Analysis is the study and analysis of the errors made by second and foreign language learners. Error Analysis, according to Richards et. al., may be carried out in order to -

- a) Find out how well someone knows a language.
- b) Find out how a person learns a language.
- c) Obtain information on common difficulties in language learning, as aid in teaching or in the preparation of teaching materials.

Error Analysis is a branch of Applied Linguistics. It finds out the actual errors made by the learners with the help of its different steps. It has pedagogical applications. Making errors in the course of learning second language is also common for the multilingual. The ultimate goal of Error Analysis is to characterize the nature of the target language. Is the target language inherently difficult for the native speakers of the particular language? What types of errors are likely to be committed by the second language learners? Questions like these are the subject matter of Error

Analysis (based on Prof. Sthapit's class lecture, 1998). In brief we can summarize the objectives of Error Analysis as follows:

- 1) To find out the actual errors made by the second language learners.
- 2) It provides linguistic input to language teaching by providing relevant information.
- 3) It characterizes the nature of the target language from the learner's point of view.

Error Analysis is a stepwise procedure. It passes several stages before reaching the stage of error prediction and remediation.

Following are the steps of Error Analysis:

- 1) Collection of data.
- 2) Identification or recognition of errors
- 3) Description and classification of errors
- 4) Explanation of errors
- 5) Evaluation of errors
- 6) Correction and remediation of errors

1.5.1 Collection of Data

Data collection is the first step of Error Analysis. The researcher first designs tools to find out the errors. He collects errors through genuine learners. Data may be in oral or written form. And it may be primary and secondary data. The primary data is collected by the researcher himself but the secondary data is collected from the textbooks written by others. The data which is oral and elicited unconsciously is the best one. It is more reliable as it is based on natural environment. The data should cover all the areas of language. Various types of tools can be used to collect genuine and comprehensive data. The tools may be subjective or objective and

free or guided. Guided tools help us to collect data more comprehensively than free tools.

1.5.2 Identification or Recognition of Errors

Errors are identified or recognized at this stage of Error Analysis. Generally, mistakes and errors are taken as synonymous forms. Technically speaking, they are different in the sense that all the errors are mistakes but not all the mistakes are errors. There are two types of mistakes, one that can be corrected by users and the other that cannot be corrected by them. Thus, we can divide mistakes into two types - performance level mistake and competence level mistake. The mistakes at the performance level can be recognized and corrected whereas the competence level mistakes cannot be corrected or recognized. The mistakes at the competence level occur due to the lack of knowledge about the underlying rules of the code. Prof. S.K Sthapit maintains that mistakes are always at the performance level whereas errors are always at the competence level. Native speakers are competent in their language. So, they never commit errors.

Errors can be distinguished from mistake more clearly in the following ways:

- 1) Mistakes are common to everybody, so they are general. But errors are committed by the L2 learners, so they are specific.
- 2) Mistakes are committed at the performance level due to lack of attention, carelessness or some other kind of physical limitation. Errors committed at the competence level due to linguistic reason.
- 3) Mistakes are not consistent or regular they can be corrected; but errors are consistent and regular and they cannot be corrected by the learner himself.
- 4) Mistakes produce fun and merriment but errors produce unacceptable utterances and breaches of code.

- 5) Mistakes may be committed by any language by any language user, but errors are committed only by L2 learners.

1.5.3 Description or Classification of Errors

The third phase of Error Analysis is the description of errors in which the errors are classified into different categories and then labeled. There are several angles of describing errors.

- 1) Receptive vs. productive errors
- 2) Overt vs. covert errors
- 3) Individual vs. group errors
- 4) Global vs. local errors
- 5) Interlingua vs. intralingua errors
- 6) Common vs. uncommon errors
- 7) Systematic vs. unsystematic errors (based on Prof. Sthapit's class lectures, 1998)

1.5.4 Explanation of Errors

The explanation of errors involves linguistic explanation and psychological explanation for the different types of errors committed by the learners. Under this heading the researcher describes the reasons behind the committed of errors. These reasons may be:

1.5.4.1 Overgeneralization

If a learner commits an error by generalizing the particular rules on other situation, such error is said to occur due to over generalization. The learners use by generalizing a grammatical rule or linguistic item of the exception case. It refers to the wrong prediction of the system of a language. For example, the learner first learns 'h' as /h/in 'house', 'horse' and so on and he also pronounces 'honest' as /honest/ due to

generalizing the rules. Similarly the words 'firstly' and 'mans' instead of 'fast' and 'men'; are produced by Nepali learners of English due to overgeneralization.

1.5.4.2 Analogical Creation

Sometimes, a learner learns language rules simplifying the rule in particular linguistic item, which is new. Overgeneralization and analogical creation are used as synonymous but the difference between them is that in analogical creation a learner tries to derive the rule behind the data to which she has been exposed. As the term analogy refers to the regular pattern., the learner applies the rule consistently or regularly while using language and makes mistakes, eg.

Box: Boxes

Fox: Foxes

Ox: Oxes

1.5.4.3 Hypercorrection

When present learning affects the past learning negatively, then it is termed as hypercorrection. It implies that the learners at first learn the correct form. Later, due to false analogical creation, s/he starts using an erroneous form with the idea of earlier corrected one. For example the students of pre-primary start to learn from 1-20 (one to twenty) correctly but they start to learn from 21-100 (twenty - one to hundred), then their present learning (two- one = twenty- one, eight - six = eighty six) affects the past correct learning negatively as one -one = only-one, one-six = onty six etc.

1.5.4.4 L₁ Interference (Mother Tongue Interference)

It refers to the use of a native language pattern or rule pattern or rule which leads to an error or inappropriate form in the target language. An error may be caused in any level due to mother tongue interference, e.g. "Sita married with Ram instead "Sita married Ram. "/f/is pronounced as/ph/ because Nepali does not have a bilabial

fricative /f/. e. It has been proved that portions of aspect of language are so difficult that only learners but also the native speakers have difficulty in mastering. It is called difficulty inherent in the language. Such errors are committed not only by the foreign language speaker but also by the native speakers also (Based on Prof. Sthapit's class lecture, 1998). For example, English articles and propositions are taken as inherently difficult areas for both the second language learners and the native speakers of the English language.

1.5.5 Evaluation of Errors

In this stage of Errors analysis, errors are evaluated in terms of their seriousness. All the errors are not equally serious. Some errors are perceived to be more serious than other. Some people are very much conscious than the layman on the issue of error. the evaluator may be the teacher, examiner, educationist, native speaker questions, viz. what is error tries to find out the answer to the questions, viz. what is error gravity? who is the authority to find out the error gravity? how to determine error gravity. They are linguistic criteria, communicative criteria, attitudinal criterial and pedagogical criteria.

1.5.6 Correction and Remediation of Errors

Correction and remediation of errors is the last stage of error analysis which is concerned with the correction and remediation to facilitate learning. Correction is followed by remediation. Learner's errors should be corrected or not is the main question regarding the correction of errors. There are two views for the correction of errors.

- a. Errors should be corrected as soon as possible
- b. Errors should not be corrected

Errors should be corrected in absence of proper learning environment. Errors should be replaced with the correct version. Correction should be more explicit at the beginners level and it should be least explicit at the higher level.

Correction makes the learner passive so errors should not be corrected.

Correction impairs the language learning so we should Sthapit's class lecture, 1998.

1.6. Review of the Related Literature

Sah (1999) has done "the study of subject -verb agreement in English and Maithili". He found that Maithili verb takes agreement according to the honorific status of the persons.

Yadav (1987) has studied the honofic systems of Maithili language and he has set the rules for the honorific systems available in Maithili language.

Shrestha (1989) has studied errors on subject-verb agreement in English. The learner's errors have been discussed in terms of their gravity and frequency in this study.

Shrestha (1980) has attempted to analyse the errors in the use of prepositions made by Nepali and Newari speaking students of grade X. He found that the influence of the mother tongue does not matter much in the use of prepositions.

Karki (1999) has carried out the study of find out the effectiveness of the inductive and deductive methods in teaching subject-verb agreement in English. It was found that deductive method was less effective than the inductive method.

Karki (2000) has carried out a research to diagnose the errors in the use of subject-verb agreement and compare proficiency of the students of class 11 and PCL 1st year in education stream and found that the student of PCL 1st year were more proficient than the students of class 11.

So far no comparative study has been carried out to find out the contrastive and error analysis of Maithili and English coordination. The researcher is also interested to find the predictions of errors that are likely to occur and errors in performance. He also finds the correlation between the predictions of CA and the actual occurrences of errors. Therefore, the present study differs from the former studies carried out the two aspects (i.e. contrastive and error) of a language.

1.7 Objectives of the Study

The study has the following objectives:

-) To present the analysis of English coordination
-) To present the analysis of Mathili coordination
-) To make the contrastive analysis of coordination in English and Maithili
-) To predict the errors in coordination that are likely to be committed by Maithili speakers learning English
-) To find out the errors actually committed by Maithili speakers in using English coordinate constructions
-) To find the correlation between the predictions of errors and the actual occurrence of the errors.
-) To explain the pedagogical implication of this study

1.8 Significance of the Study

The present study will be useful for language teachers, syllabus designers, textbook writers, students etc who are involved in learning and teaching the English language.

1.9 Definition of Terms

Coordination: Coordination is the process of combining two constituents of the same type to produce another, a larger constituent of the same type. In traditional grammar,

this has been called compounded for e.g two sentences that are combined by means of a comma plus a connecting word make a compound sentence; two subject NPs that are combined with the word are called a "Common subject."

There are several options for conjunction available in English. One is simply to combine like constituents with a coordinating conjunction such as and for example, two objects NPs are conjoined in the following sentences.

We ate bread and butter.

This is referred to as simple coordination.

Ellipsis: We often leave out words to avoid repetition or in other uses when the meaning can be understood without them. This is called ellipsis for example: Birds can fly, and I too.

Pro-forms: In addition to ellipsis, another syntactic option exists for avoiding redundancy. This is the possibility of substituting a pro-forms for a redundant constituents. In fact pro-forms occur in tandem with ellipsis.

Gapping: An additional type of ellipsis, called gapping, which occurs medially in conjoined structure, is worth looking at briefly. Gapping may occur provided the conjoined sentence has (a) non-identical subject, (b) at least one non-identical predicate constituent apart from the verb.

Maithili: An Eastern Indo-Aryan language spoken by a total of 21 million people in the south-Eastern plains known as the Tarai of Nepal. (Yadav, 1990)

Dialect: A variety of language spoken in one part of a country (Regional dialect), or the people belonging to a particular social class (Social dialect or sociolect), which is different in some words, grammar and/or pronunciation from other forms of the same language. A dialect is often associated with a particular accent. Sometimes a dialect gains status and becomes the standard variety of a country (Richards, J. et. al., 1985)

Honorific: A term used in the grammatical analysis of some languages to refer to syntactic or morphological distinctions used to express levels of politeness or respect, especially in relation to the compare social status of the participants (Richards, J. et.al., 1985)

Dilation: It is basic operation within the framework of transformation grammar, which eliminates a constituent of an input phrasemaker. In classical TG, it accounted for coordinate and imperative sentences for eg the subject and auxiliary verb are deleted in the sentences for "kick the ball" (for e.g. you will be deleted). Raddha eat bread and Ram too. (Here, VP/NP will be deleted for Ram).

Substitution: The term in substitution refers to the process of result replacing one item by another at particular place in a structure. In grammar the structure context within which this replacement occurs is known as a substitution frame for e.g. the is angry. The set of item which can be used pragmatically at a given place is known as substitution class. A word which refers back too elated a substitute word e.g. the man went out. He was laughing.

CHAPTER-II

METHODOLOGY

2.1 Sources of Data

English coordination was analyzed on the basis of secondary data which was collected from Standard English grammars particularly Horn by et al. (1973). The analysis of Maithili coordination was based on both primary and secondary data. First the rules of Maithili pacification were formed on the basis of the secondary sources, particularly " *A Reference Grammar of Maithili (1990)*"; the researcher used his intuition also in the formation of rules Maithili coordination. Later these rules were verified and confirmed with other native speakers of the language through interviews and questionnaires.

The books/papers/articles on contrastive analysis, particularly "*Contrastive Analysis*" (1980), and "*University Grammar*" (1993) were consulted to make the contrastive analysis of English and Maithili coordination.

The prediction of areas of difficulty in learning English coordination for Maithili-speakers has been done on the basis of established psycholinguistic principle 'Difference between L_1 and L_2 leads to difficulty in learning L_2 .

The primary data for the study was collected in two stages; first for analyzing Maithili coordination, second for finding out the errors committed by Maithili-speakers in learning English coordination's

Besides, as the researcher himself is a native speaker of Maithili, he also utilized his intuition to analyze the data collected.

2.2 Population of the Study

The population of the study consisted of the native speakers of Maithili including the students of Grade IX and X from Dhanusha (Janakpur) district.

2.3 Sample Population

Forty Maithili-speakers of Dhanusha district were selected using stratified random sampling on the basis of their age, sex and educational background for the primary data for Maithili coordination. The primary data for the errors committed by Maithili-speakers in learning English coordination was collected from 150 Maithili-speaker students studying in ten different schools of Dhanusha district. The schools consisted of government and private schools, as well as urban and rural schools.

2.4 Tools for Data Collection

Since English coordination was analysed on the basis of secondary data, there were on necessity of tools for it. The primary data for the analysis of Maithili coordination was collected by taking oral interview as well as developing a set of questionnaires.

A set of questionnaires was developed to collect the primary data to find out the errors committed by Maithili speakers in learning English coordination.

2.5 Process of Data Collection

The researcher personally visited the field twice to collect the two types of data on Maithili mentioned above. The researcher took interview with the native speakers of Maithili and recorded them. He also gave questionnaires to them and collected the answer-sheets for analysis. The data collected was used to analyze Maithili coordination.

After developing the questionnaires, the researcher personally visited the schools. He explained and administered tests to collect the data for error analysis.

The books and articles related to the study were collected and studied to fulfill the objectives mentioned above.

2.6 Limitations of the Study

This study has the following limitations:

1. The population of this study was confined to 150 Maithili speaking students of grade IX and X of Janakpur district, 15 students being selected from each school.
2. The study was limited to five private boarding schools and five government schools. The study deals with the comparative study of a specific area of syntax of English and Maithili, namely coordination.
3. The analysis of English Coordination was done on the basis of secondary data.
4. Maithili coordination has been analyzed with the help of data collected from 40 Maithili speakers of only one district.
5. The rules of Maithili coordination were drawn particularly from Yadav (1980)

CHAPTER-III

ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION

This chapter consists of the analysis and interpretation of the collected data. The analysis of English coordination is done mainly on the basis of secondary data collected basically from Horn by et. al.(1973).

3.1 Coordination

Coordination is one device of repulsiveness which involves paralleling two or more structures (clauses) and combining them by using 'and', 'but' 'or'. Two or more co-ordinate syntaxes remain mutually independent as in "*He played the piano and she sang songs*". It depends on the writer and speaker as to how many sentences they like to link together within single sentences but there is no limit to possibility. Thus, s-(s)ⁿ (when 'n' indicates any number of clauses).

We cannot coordinate any syntax / clause with just another syntax: which sentences can be coordinate with which sentences is not the property of the type of syntax but that of the meaning of the particular syntaxes involved. It is the business of semantic and pragmatic analysis to show how some sentences fail to coordinate and how others can be linked grammatically as parallel structures. So, coordinate terms of syntax, with the helps of 'and' 'but' and 'or' and they are contained only by meaning.

Repetition is usually avoided after coordinate sentences (syntaxes). "*Jack went and Peter went*", becomes "*Jack and Peter went*". Similarly, "*Jack liked the fat tall girl, but Peter like the thin and short*". "Bill sang and played the guitar at the concert have deleted repeated items between the clauses involved. But coordination reduction is not obligatory sometimes, repetitions are remained for special effects, as in: I like my country, I like my language and I like my identify."

Repetition reduction is not done when it distorts meaning for in stand, it can be potentially ambiguous if we reduce. "*Jean knows the answer and Bill knows the answer*", into "*Jean and Bill know the answer*" (they cannot know together). Different kinds of repeated lexical its have reduced in the following examples too:

- Ram sang and played the guitar.
- Ram ate rice and Hari bread.
- Ram pulled and Hari pushed the car.
- Ram and Hari saw the dog.
- Ram can and should pay the full price.

3.2 Types of Coordination

A coordinating conjunction joins together clauses of equal rank. Coordinating conjunctions are four kinds:

1. **Cumulative or Copulative:** This coordination which merely add one statement to another. For example
We carved not a line, and we raised not a stone.
2. **Adversative:** Which expressive opposition or contrast between two statements. For example
He is slow, but he is sure.
I would come: only that I am engaged.
3. **Disjunctive:** which expresses a choice between two alternatives. For example
She must weep, or she will die.
Either he is made or he feigns madness
4. **Negative Disjunction:** Which expresses a negative choice between two alternatives. For example
Neither a borrower nor a lender be.

It is neither cool nor warm.

3.3 The Meaning and use of Coordinating Conjunctions

The straight forward account of the meaning of the coordinating conjunctions might look like this. (Ref. University Grammar)

<u>Conjunction</u>	<u>Meaning</u>	<u>Example</u>
<i>and</i>	<i>plus</i>	Jeam and Jack are going to business together.
<i>but</i>	<i>shows contrast</i>	Jeam is hardworking but Jack is lazy.
<i>yet</i>	<i>but at the same time</i>	Jeam is lazy, yet well intentional
<i>so</i>	<i>therefore</i>	Neither man had much money, so that decided to collaborate
<i>for</i>	<i>because</i>	I hope they succeed, for this has been dream come true for both men.
<i>or</i>	<i>one or the other of two alternatives is true</i>	They are determining to make it or to go bankrupt in the process.
<i>nor</i>	<i>conjoins two negative sentences, both of which</i>	Jack doesn't gives up easily nor does Jeam

While this account may well be satisfactory for low level ESL/EFL students, its straight forwardness is deceptive. The question of what conjunctions 'mean' is difficult area for linguistics. It has explored on the one hand by logicians and on the other hand other by researchers in programmatic.

3.4 Combining like Constituents with Coordinating Conjunctions

Perhaps the easiest way to begin a discussion of conjunction is by mentioning the most common single use to conjoin. The coordinating conjunction 'and', which

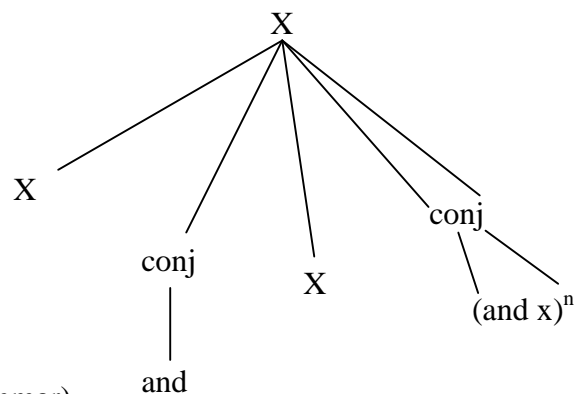
seems to mean much the as the "plus" sign in arithmetic consider some of the constituents that "and" may conjoin: (Ref. University Grammar)

<i>[bread] and [butter]</i>	-	(noun + noun)
<i>[The bread] and [the butter]</i>	-	(NP + NP)
<i>[big] and [strong]</i>	-	(Adj. + Adj.)
<i>[very big] and [extremely strong]</i>	-	(AP + AP)
<i>quickly [run] and [hide]</i>	-	(Verb+ Verb)
<i>[run fast] and [hide quickly]</i>	-	(VP + VP)
<i>[Over the field] and [into the trees]</i>	-	(Prep P+ Prep P)
<i>[neatly] and [effectively]</i>	-	(Adv. + Adv.)
<i>[Very neatly] and [rather effectively]</i>	-	(Adv. P+ Adv. P)
<i>[She got in the pool,] and [She began to swim]</i>	-	(S. + S.)

So, coordinate structures might be generated in a number of possible ways, but we will assume that simple conjunctions are generated directly in base in their normal position between constituents of identical categories. Our phrase structure rules will be revised accordingly to read.

$X = X \text{ conj } X \text{ (conj } X)$

Where, X represents any constituents of a given category. Thus, simple conjoined constituents in a tree would like this:



(Ref. University Grammar)

Such an analysis assumes that conjoined constituents from a super constituents of the same category. For eg, two conjoined noun phrases are assumed to be a "Super NP" with the properties of any other NP. This is a reasonable assumption to make since a conjunction of two noun phrases seem to behave syntactically exactly as a single, simple noun phrase: it can figure as subject, direct object, Indirect Object, object of preposition and so on.

Subject:

[Mohan] bought a stereo [Ram & Hari] bought a stereo.

Direct object:

Lets get [some coffee] [Lets get some coffee and cake]

Indirect object:

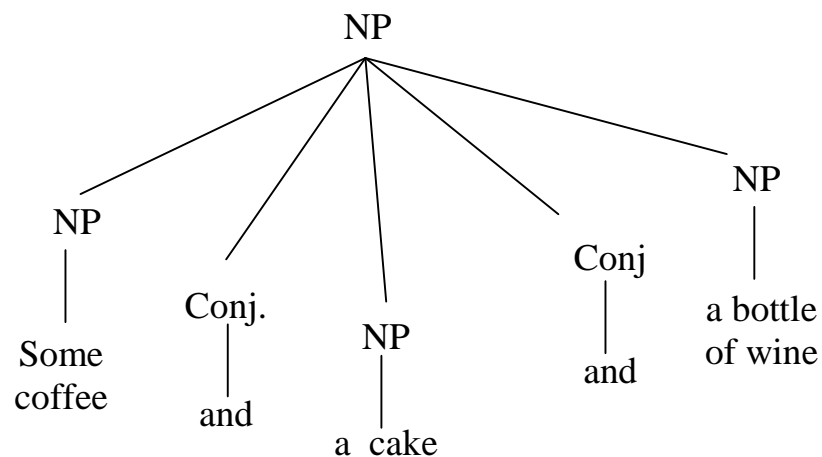
I sent [Lila] a gift. I sent [Lila and Mohan] a gift.

Object of Preposition

They worked with [a hammer]

- They worked with [a hammer and an axe]

We must of course, allow for the possibility of multiple conjoined structures, as in [Let's get some coffee, a cake, a bottle of wine]; the material inside the parentheses in the rule is intended to capture this fact, as exemplified in the three part coordination in the following tree: (Ref. University Grammar)



The Np "super nod" is of course and only for illustration: as we have seen causes of multiple conjunction occur with objectives (a big, high, fearsome wave), with preposition (He ran out of the house, across the road, and into the street or any other constituent types). The constituents inside the parentheses in the phrase structure rule must be allowed to repeat in order to create still longer chains of conjoined elements.

We must take into account that such cases of multiple coordination usually involve an overt conjunction only between the two last two conjuncts.

- They had vegetables, rice ad beans.
- They had vegetables, rice, beans,
- They had vegetables and rice, beans.

An optional deletion rule that deletes all conjunctions except the one between the last pair of conjuncts will generate the acceptable serves.

An orthographic convention allows an option comma before the conjunction that proceeds the last conjuncts.

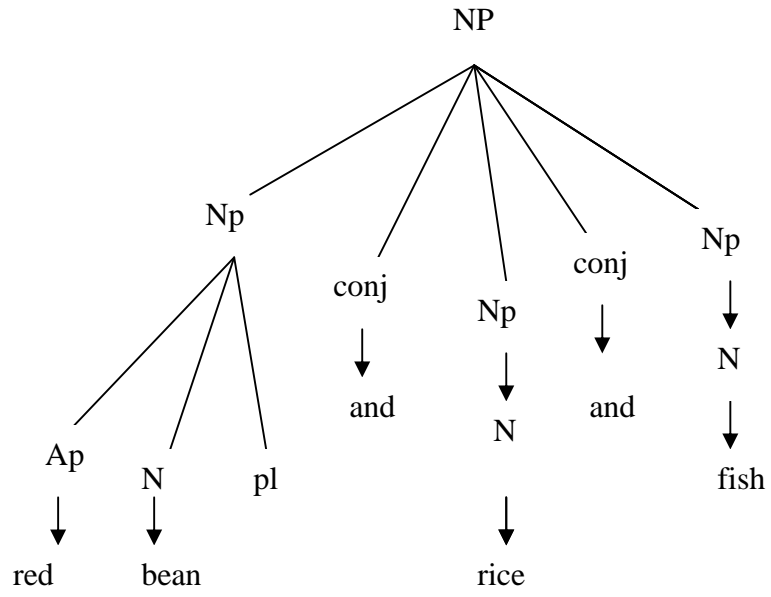
They had vegetable, rice, beans

Finally, we should point out that coordination can occur at different levels of the tree. It is not the case that any sequence of the form "Np and Np and Np" is a case of coordination of three constituently at syntactically equal levels. In fact, certain case may be ambiguous.

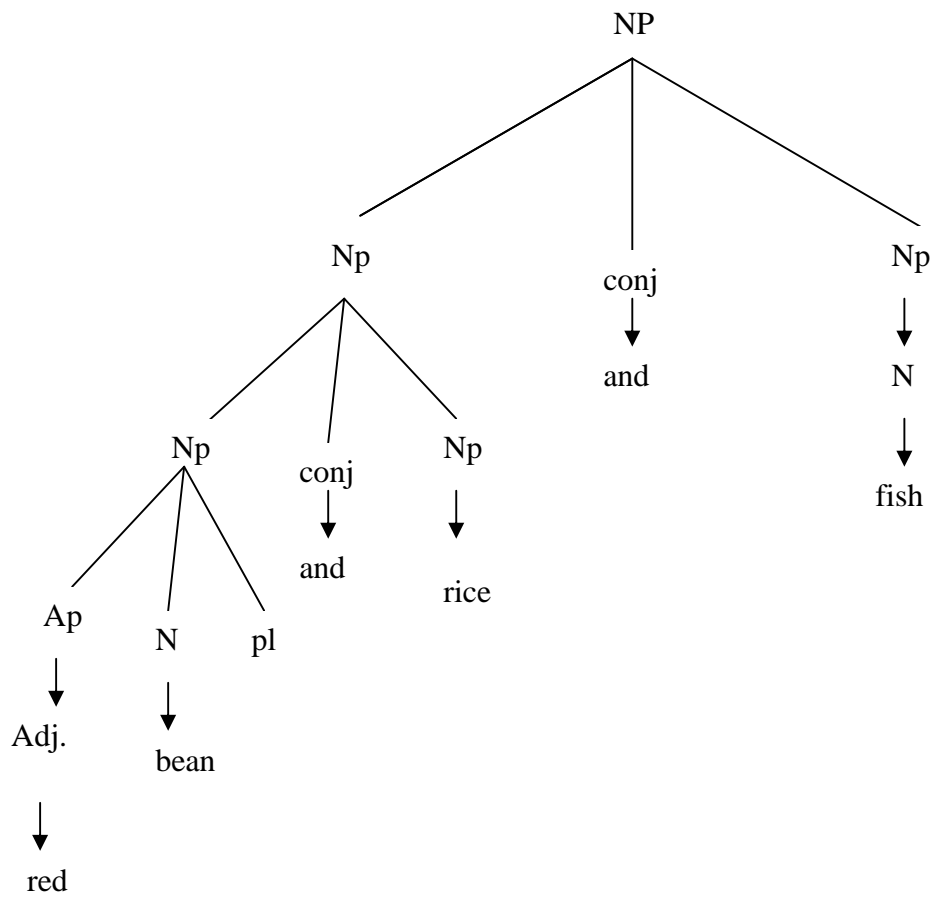
Ram had red beans and rice and fish.

Here one very interpret red beans and rice either as separate food items on a plate or as the famous New Orleans dish by that name. The two relevant segment of the tree would be those below: (Ref. University Grammar)

Separate Items



New Orleans Dish



This types of ambiguity is relatively common in everyday speech.

Languages often have morphosyntactic. It means of linking two clause of equal grammatical status. Such linkage is termed coordination. It is distinct from Subordination is that in subordination, one clause is grammatically dependent on the other. All of the dependent clause types i.e. complement clause, adverbial clause and relative clause may be considered to be examples of subordinate clauses. However, these are really not much commonality to this broad group of clause type other than grammatical dependency. Therefore, the notion of "Subordinate clause" is not very useful as a universal linguistic category.

Coordination is sometime difficult to distinguish from mere juxtaposition of clauses in discourses. In fact, in spoken discourse some kind of morphosyntactic clause linkage, either coordination or subordination may be evident at nearly all clauses junctures. Many readers will be familiar with the English colloquial narrative style that inserts *and.....* or *and then.....* after each clause.

In general, the fact that two clauses are grammatically coordinate simply asserts that:-

- (1) Two clauses have more or less the same function in terms of the events structure of the text (e.g. they both code events, they both code non-events, they both code fore grounded information or they both code back ground information, etc), and
- (2) They are presented as being conceptually linked in some way.

Interposition logical relations that often obtain between coordinate clause include conjunction, disjunction and exclusion these relations will be discussed in this section. It should be kept in mind, however that just about any semantic structure.

Often some strategies for conjoining clauses are identical to strategies for conjoining noun phrase. For example, English uses the conjunction 'and' for both phrasal and clausal conjunction:

- | | | |
|-----|--------------------------------|-----------------|
| (1) | Wilson and Janet | Np +Np |
| | Wilson cried and Janet laughed | Clause + Clause |

However, it is also common for there to be special strategies for conjoining clauses that are not used for conjoining phrases. For example, the English *but* does not easily function as a noun phrase conjunction:

- | | | |
|-----|--------------------------------|------------------|
| (2) | Wilson but Janet | Np + Np |
| | Wilson cried but Janet laughed | Clause + Clause. |

The simplest means of conjoining two clauses is what J. Payne (1985) describes as the zero strategy. This is where two phrases or clauses are simply juxtaposed. According to J. Payne, "Most languages probably allow the zero strategy at least as a stylistic variation. Some languages, however, use it more extensively than do others."

The most common means of indicating conjunction is by the use of coordinating conjunction such as "and" in English:

- | | | |
|-----|--|-----------------|
| (3) | "I prepare baskets, spears and knife | Np coordination |
| | Sita returns to (her) husband and return | |
| | (her) grandmother. | PP coordination |

For VO languages this conjunction normally occurs in between two conjoined clauses:

- (4) Ram fell out of fever and the Mohan killed him.

However, sometimes in VO languages the coordinating conjunction follows the first element of the second clause:

(5) "I took a book and I came home".

For OV languages, the coordinating conjunction come, either between the two conjoined elements as:

John smiled and waved VP coordination

John rich and famous Adj. coordination

John left and Mary waked "Clausal coordination in this way.

The form conjoins two elements is often the same as the operator that encodes the commutative sense of "with" such as an example.

(6) I killed the snake with stick.

Latin possess a "negative conjunctive" particle 'nec' in adding to the affirmative conjunction et. The meaning of the negative conjunctive particle can be characterized as "and..... not" in English (Kuhner and Stedman 1955). 4\$, as cited in J. Payne 1986:37 :

(7) Equal Romans [nec infectious et sates literates] Knight Romans and: not dull and moderately literate

("A not dull and moderately literate Roman height")

Unlike the English translation "not...and", the negative conjunctive particle in Latin does not have scope over the entire conjoined phrase. In other words, only dullness is negated in Latin example, where as the English translation could be taken as ambiguous as to whether "moderately literate" should be taken as being negated as well.

In the following paragraphs we will briefly discuss the logical relations of conjunction and disjunction.

Conjunction is primarily a logical relationship between propositions. If the conjunction of two propositions is true then each of the component propositions is

true. By this definition nearby any two propositions in discourse could be considered conjoined.

Disjunction, like conjunction is a logical relationship between propositions. If the logical disjunction of two propositions is true then one or both of the component propositions can be true. There is no particular reason why a language would grammatically exactly this employ a device specifically for this purpose. English or tends to component clause are affirmative:

(8) He came in through the window or he broke down the door.

This is, 8 would normally assert that one of the conjoined propositions holds true but the other one does not. The word *either* reinforces this interpretation. In fact in discourse, this use of or without *either* is quite rare. Instead *or* without *either* is used almost exclusively when one or both of the component propositions is negated. In the case *or* cease to convey logical relationship disjunction.

(9) I didn't break the window or the door.

Under any natural circumstances this clause expresses the conjunction of *I didn't break the window* and *I didn't break the door*. Therefore, it is simply inaccurate to characterize *or* as a disjunctive particle in English logical disjunction is but one, relatively rare, function of this particle.

In other languages, it is similarly rare for logical disjunction to have its own unique morphosyntax. If disjunction is expressed at it will usually be via some periphrastic device such as " I might have broken the window and I might have broken the door".

(10) " I want to know"

" If he cursed me, the savage"

"Or I cursed myself"

In this case, the speaker is not claiming that either the savage or the speaker himself did the cursing but only that one did and the other not the other did not. The use of contrastive pronouns alone codes the disjunctive relation between 10b and 10c.

3.5 Correlative Conjunction

Though the syntax of simple coordination is not an area of English grammar that causes many ESL/EFL learning problems, students after have difficulties with complex coordination –two- part correlatives structures where one part precedes the first conjuncts and the other proceeds the second for e.g.

Either [Mary] or [John] arrived early.

Neither [Mary] nor [John] arrived early.

Shyam is either energetic or ambitious.

Hari is neither energetic nor ambitious.

3.6 Gapping

It is also an additional type of ellipsis, called gapping, which occurs medially in conjoined structures, is worth looking at briefly. Gapping may occur provided the conjoined sentences have:

- a. Non-identical subject.
- b. At least one non-identical predicate constituent apart from the verb.

For example:

- Shyam broke the bench and Hari chairs.
- My uncle works in Golchha Company and aunt in Agrwal Company.
- Hari saw a dog and Hari too.
- The wind is brisk the sun bright, and the ocean clam.

Derivation of gapped sentences seems to proceed in much the same way as the derivation of those with deleted VPs.

3.7 Conclusion

If we conclude this section, conjunction presumably exists to help speakers and writers avoid repetition of identical constituent and to avoid ambiguity. We have seen that this can be done by adding coordinating conjunctions and through the used of ellipsis and gapping.

One of the fascinating aspect of conjunctions is the chameleon like way in which they may behave as simple logical operators at one extreme, and other conjunction constituents does not play a large role in this section, the teachers should be aware that many of the uses conjunctions, particularly conversational ones fall into the linguistic type. For ESL/EPL teachers, much having to do with conjunction is fairly unproblematic for students. Nevertheless, the process of coordination will have to be taught so the ESL/EFL students can learn to practice/produce acceptable conjoined structure.

CHAPTER- IV

MAITHILI COORDINATION

4.1 Maithili Coordination

Maithili coordination like English, is purely a syntactic process where by an NP is conjoined with another NP compounds, means two constituents of the same type (NP/NP, VP/VP, Adj/Adj, CL/CL) are conjoined. In other words, Maithili coordination involves the linking of two (or more) categories of expression with the use of coordination's or coordinating constituents the coordinator assign equal rank to the conjunct.

1. The coordinator Positions in Maithili Sentences

- a. *Ram aur shyam paneer khe-l-ak*
Ram (3NH) and Shyam (3NH) cheese eat-PST(3NH)
"Ram and Shyam ate Cheese".

- b. *h m [bhat, dail a t rkari] kh e-l-ah*
I boil rice pulse and vegetables eat-PST (H)
"I ate boiled rice, pulse and vegetables".

2. Some pronominal form of the subject

<i>h m</i>	'I'	<i>h m-ra (me)</i>
<i>tu</i>	you (2NH)	<i>tora-(you)</i>
<i>t</i>	you (2NH)	<i>tora -(you)</i>
<i>h</i>	you (NH)	<i>ah ke (you)</i>
<i>pne</i>	you (2NH)	<i>pneke (you)</i>
<i>i</i>	he/she (3NH)	<i>ekra 'his/her'</i>
<i>u</i>	'he/she'(3NH)	<i>okra 'his/her'</i>
<i>l</i>	'he/she' (3H)	<i>hunk 'his/her'</i>

o 'he/she' (3H) *hunk* 'his/she'

3. Maithili permutes the following type of coordination to occur at the phrasal as well as sentential level: (A.Ref.G.of Maithili)

SN	Maithili	Conjunction	in written styles	in English
1	conjunction	'a'	<i>aor, ebam, T tha</i>	"And"
2	Adversative conjunction	<i>muda, m g r,</i> <i>p r ntu</i>	<i>lekin</i>	'but'
3	Disjunction	<i>ki/ya/ thaba/ba</i>	<i>thaba/ba/ya</i>	'or'
4	Negative disjunction	<i>ne.....ne</i>	<i>ne.....ne</i>	neither... nor

4.2 Conjunction 'a', 'and'

a. Some strategies for conjoining clauses are identical to strategies for conjoining noun phrases maithili uses the conjunction 'aor' for both phrasal and clausal conjunction: for

(i) *John aur Mary NP+NP*
John (3NH) and Mary (3NH)
 'John and Mary'

and in clausal conjunction

(ii) *Mohn Kh-el-l-ak aur Ram p -r- -l-ak Cl+Cl*
Mohnc (3NH) eat-pst (3NH) and Ram(3NH) read-PST (3NH)
 "Mohan ate and Ram read"

b. The coordinator 'a' this coordinator permits the coordination to occur at both the sentence and phrasal levels.

- (i) *O [h s-l-ah a hath h l -l- in] VP/NP*
he (H) laugh PST (3H) and hand shake PST (3H)

"He smiled and waved".

- (ii) *t [Ram (s) a Prabin (s) g pp kae-l-a-ah*
you (N) Ram and Prabin from talk do-PST (2NH)

"You spoke to Ram and to Prabin.

- (iii) *[Jean a Janet] Pahuch ge-l-ah.*
Jean and Janet reach do-PST (3H)

"Jean and Janet reached".

- (iv) *h [dh nik a dularu] seho chi.*
you (H) rich and spoiled also be-PRES (2H).

"You may be rich and spoiled".

These sentences illustrate that two dependent clauses as well as two verb phrases adj. phrases, noun phrases and prepositional phrases may be coordinated with coordinator 'a'. However, sentential and phrasal coordination by 'a' are permissible only if the two conjuncts exhibits similarity in topic and structure as exemplified below:

- (v) *[Sita a k mput r] s tr nj khel-l-ak.*
Sita and Computer chess play-PST (3NH)

"Sita and Computer played chess".

- (vi) *h mra [likhai a per-hai] b d p sin.*
I-Acc/DAT writing and Reading lot like ich be-PRES
(3NH+1)

"I like writing and reading a lot."

- (vii) *h m r bhai robait aich a t h -s-ai-chi.*
I-GENJT brother weep be-PRES and you (3NH) laugh
 PRES (3NH)

"My brother is weeping and you are laughing".

- b (i) Occasionally coordination of more -than two conjuncts is achieved by Zero strategy.

- (i) *h m [bhat, dail t rkari] kh e-l-ah*
I boiled rice pulse vegetables eat-PST (I)

"I ate boiled rice, pulse and vegetables".

- (ii) *J ldis [bhat dail t rkari] k ru.*
quickly rice lentzls and vegetable de-IMP (2H).

"Cook rice, lentils and vegetables soon".

In general, however 'a' is used when more than two conjuncts are coordinated:

- (iii) *[Shyam, Hari a Mohan] aib ge-l-ah.*
Shyam, Hari and Mohan come go-PST (3NH)

"Shyam Hari and Mohan arrived".

- (iv) *O chail ge-l-ah a h m r h- n i*
K h-al-i inh
He(H) walk go PST (3H) and I live (INF) not
say- PST (1+3H).

"He left and I did it ask him to stay".

4.3 Adversative Conjunction: muda 'but'

- c.(i) When two conjuncts are coordinated by an adversative conjunction "muda" it is implied that a control or an opposition exists between the two conjuncts:

- (i) [ram g rib ch-aith muda t dh nik chi]
 Ram poor be-PRES(3H) but you (NH) rich be-PRES
 (2NH)

"Ram is poor but you are rich".

- (ii) [ram g rib muda tejg r] aich.
 Ram poor but intelligent be-PRES (3NH)

"Ram is poor but intelligent".

c.(ii) Conjunction 'muda' sometimes conveys a denial expectation:

- (i) [dara singh che-l-ah bunk r muda O hair
 ge-l-ah]
 dara singh be-PST (3NH) strong but he(3H) defeat go-
 PST (3H).

"Dara singh was strong but he lost".

c.(iii) Sometime coordination 'muda' conveys a preventive meaning if the first conjunct contains a counterfactual conventional. it:

- (i) O-ho babadham jait muda
 He (NH) EMPH Babadham go-(COND) but
 okra dh u-e n i ch- ik
 He (NH) Acc/DAT money not be-PRES (3NH + 3NH)

"He too would have gone to the Babadham but he has no money."

4.4 disjunctive Conjunction

The disjunctive particles ki 'or' ki....ki, express the idea that at most one of the two alternatives can be realized:

- (i) [chah ki k phi] ki pi b O ?
tea or coffee what drink -FUT (2H)

What will you drink -tea or coffee?

- (ii) [O dudh leb ki o d hi O]?
Milk take-TUT (2H) or Curd

"What will you take -milk or curd?"

- (iii) [ya t gari p rh-o thaba O nok ri k ro]
either DEF further read -IMP (2NH) or job do-IMP (2NH)

"Either (you) study further or take a job".

4.5 Negative disjunction

Negative disjunction is formed by the use of iterated particles ne.....ne 'neither...nor'; the iterated particles express the idea that none of the alternatives provided in the disjoints is available:

- (i) [ne lal ne piar] kono n i bhet- l
neither red nor yellow any not meet-PST(3NH+1)

"I get none- neither red nor yellow".

- (ii) [ne tora ne okra] kekro nei de-b-auk
neither you (NH) -Acc /DAT nor he (NH) anyone not give-FUT (H2NH)

"I will give to no one-neither to you nor to him".

4.6 Gapping

It is also an additional type of ellipsis, called gapping which occurs medially in conjoined structures, is worth looking at briefly:

- (i) Ram bhat khai-t aich aur shyam bhat khait aich
Ram aur shyam bhat kha -t aich.

"Ram and Shyam eat rice".

CHAPTER-V

COMPARISON IN ENGLISH AND MAITHILI

The researcher tested the rules of Maithili coordination, which was set on the basis of secondary data, with the help of oral and written data obtained from 40 Maithili speakers of Sapatary District. It was found that all the rules set previously are similar with the responses of the speaker. Only partial dissimilar was seen regarding with the use of conjunction /a/.

The conjunction /a/ was seen to be used mostly with the (NP/NP).

1.(a) *Ram a Shyam kitab lau-l-ak.*

Ram and Shayam book bring -PST (3NH)

Ram and Shyam brought a book.

1.(a) *Johnson [bhat, dal a t kari] kla -l-ak.*

Johnson (3NH) boiled rice, pulse and vegetable eat -PST (3NH)

Johnson ate boiled pulse and vegetable.

5.1 Contrastive Analysis

Contrastive analysis is a comparison of two or more languages in terms of their similarities and differences. The study of similarity and differences between languages becomes the title central theme to linguistic studies in the 19th century, under the title "*Comparative Philology*". However, the aims and methods of comparative study (Philology differ considerably from those of contrastive linguistics). It compares languages in order to trace their historical and genetic connections between their similarities. It may attempt to reconstruct the source language from which the similar languages are thought to have come. From their studies developed the notions of language families, grouping of languages which were more or less distantly related on the grounds of commons origins. There studies

represent the approach to language as an organism, and were chiefly concerned to indicate the nature of linguistic change. Thus, they are diachronic studies.

Contrastive linguistics on the contrary, is a synchronic study. It compares two contemporary languages with a view to improving foreign language teaching one of these languages is a learner's mother tongue (henceforth, L_1) and the other is the learner's target languages (henceforth, L_2).

The publication in 1957 of Robert Lado's *"Linguistic Across Cultures"* is the real beginning of modern applied linguistics, which incorporates comparative linguistics. The first studies in the contrastive structure series provide to be structural in nature, as developed by Bloomfield. In a contrastive analysis of two languages, the points of structural similarities and differences are identified. These points are then needed as the points of potential ease and difficulties respectively. That is to say, if a linguistic structure is similar in both L_1 and L_2 this similarity will facilitate the learners acquire the structure in question. Conversely, if L_1 and L_2 differ in respect of a particular structure, this difference will cause difficulty for the learner.

This structural hypothesis of contrastive analysis is based on behavioral psychology, especially on its two assumptions about the process of language learning. They are," (Burt and Dulay, 1977)

1. Language Learning is a habit formation
2. An old habit hinders or facilitates the formation of new habit (learning is secondary language) depending on the difference or similarities, respectively between the old and the new.

According to the first assumptions, habit formation can be explained in a variety of ways that all believe in the principle of associationism that is frequency,

contiguity, intensity etc of stimulus and response in the occurrence of the event that becomes habit.

The second assumption chiefly rests on interference theory in behavioural verbal learning. In learning of L_2 , an individual has already learnt his L_1 and it is this in which he attempts to transfer in learning L_2 . The transfer may prove to be justified because the structures of the languages are similar. In that case, we get positive transfer, or it may prove to be justified because the structure of two languages are different in that case we get negative transfer or interference.

As Richards (1977) has pointed out that a learner learns the second language by two methods. They are:

1. By contrastive analysis method
2. By L_2 acquisition = L_1 acquisition hypothesis.

Simply speaking contrastive analysis hypothesis shows that when a learner is learning L_2 a learner will certainly use this L_1 structure in his L_2 (second language) speech and where the structures between his L_1 and L_2 differ a learner will expect both difficulty and error in learning of L_2 . The errors and difficulties that occur in our learning and use of foreign language are caused by the contrastive analysis of the target language (L_2) and the mother language (L_1) is carried out, the difference between the languages can be discovered and it becomes possible to predict the difficulties that the learner will have.

The second hypothesis about learning a new language is L_2 acquisition = L_1 acquisition. The L_2 acquisition = L_1 acquisition hypothesis states that the children immediately pick up the L_2 speech they hear and generalize its structure based on his L_1 (first language) structure. They expect the structures of L_2 as those of their L_1 . For example Maithili is a SOV (Subject object and verb) Language, as shown below;

a) <i>Ramesh Adhikari</i>	<i>kek</i>	<i>lau - l - ak.</i>
Ramesh Adhikari	cake	bring - PAST (3NH)
S(Subject)	O(Object)	V(Verb)

Ramesh Adhikari brought a cake.

When a Maithili speaker intends to learn English, he is expected to translate English on the structure of Maithili syntax i.e. "Ramesh Adhikari kek lau-l-ak, for Ramesh Adhikari brought a cake". Thus, this hypothesis demonstrates that there is an interference of L_1 upon L_2 while learning an L_2 .

The latest studies in the strastive structure series are based on the transformational generative grammar. Model as developed during 1957 by Noam chowsky, Z.S. Harris and others. Paul Schachter producted "*A Contrastive Analysis of English and Panguinian*" in 1999 on the model of Transformational Generalize short by there after, other contrastive transformational grammars appeared. These grammars consisted of separate grammars for each language linked by statements and formulas. It is clear that the use of an explicit language model can bring into light various features of language structures which probably, would have been hidden on the other hand, features of language structures revealed in the contrastive, analysis way suggest the modifications of the model The great advantage of TG grammar in terms of their language study is that it is a grammar of competence rather than a grammar of performance and it is applied in contrastive analysis to make use of error analysis.

Contrastive linguistics cannot however explain all the learner's errors in learning an L_2 . That is to say, apart from the mother tongue interference, there can be other sources of errors too. According to Wilkins (1968), overgeneralization within an

L₂ will also cause the learners to make errors. When a child intends to Learn L₂, he wants to over generalize the rules in the L₂, resulting in errors. To make this point stronger, he insists that many errors which we find in L₂ are not only caused by linguistic origin but by the cause of psychological and pedagogical implications.

Supporting Wilkins view about the errors within L₂, Less (1968) has asserted that interference is organized not only from newly observed L₂ materials, the learner will tend to produce by false analogy, wrong patterns of that language as well as patterns of his own language. Hence, interference from the L₁ is not the entire source of errors in L₂ learning. There are other sources which contrastive analysis cannot predict even a teacher who has no linguistic base is conscious of more errors than contrastive analysis can predict.

Haldich (1965) suggests that contrastive analysis is teacher - centered which causes problems for the learners.

Among all the above critics of contrastive analysis, New Mark and Reibel (1968) have vehemently criticized the interference theory. They suggest an alternative explanation of errors made in L₂ learning. They insist that errors made in L₂ learning are caused by the in adequate knowledge of the target language when the learner is 'induced to perform' in the L₂ "There are so many things he has not yet learned to so what can he do other than use what he already knows to make up for what he does not know" So they concluded that errors are made not by interference but by ignorance of L₂.

Of these critics, some organize that the learner L₁ is a (not the whole) source of the errors made in L₂ learning other critics, however, do not assign any importance to L₁ in learning L₂. The latter view seems to me rather unconvincing, since the learners previous knowledge of his L₁ does effect the learning of an L₂. Hence we

assume throughout this study that learner's knowledge of L₁ does play a role (though a limited) in this L₂ learning.

5.2 Similarities and Differences between English and Maithili Coordination

Apart from having typological relevance, the comparison of English and Maithili coordination in order to find out their similarities and differences is included to predict ease and difficulty for Maithili speaking learners acquiring English coordination.

English and Maithili coordination have been studied at morphosyntactic level which means of linking two clauses of equal grammatical status. The points of similarities and difference between English and Maithili coordination's are described in the subsections that follow:

5.2.1 Similarities

1) Both English and Maithili coordination's require to two Nps, which are conjoining, e.g.-

a. Ram and Hari read a book.

Ram aor Hari p rh-l- k Kitab - Np + Np

In sentence (a) shows that the conjoining coordinator conjoins two nouns (Ram and Hari) with Maithili conjoining constituent 'aor' and this constituent conjoins two nouns (Nps) as English conjoining constituents.

Both English and Maithili coordination require two Vps which are conjoining

b. Johnson smiled and beat.

Johnson h s -lak a pit- PST (3NH)

In Sentence (b) shows that the coordinator conjoins two Vps (smile and beat) with Maithili conjoining constituents 'a' as English.

After seeing above example, the syntactic properties of coordination are almost common to both English and Maithili coordinates viz. they both observe the conjoining constituents. In brief, both English and Maithili coordination are syntactically similar. This similarity leads us to assume that since the syntactic features of Maithili (the mother tongue) are familiar of Maithili speakers, they would find little difficulty in learning English coordination. That is to say, English coordination may be syntactically similar for Maithili speaking learners.

We can show the similarities in many coordination sentences. The coordination in English and Maithili is same but little bit different in conjoining constituents but the function as the same for eg:

- (a) John and Celia ate rice '
John (3NH) aor Celia (3NH) eat-PST (3NH) bhat.
- (b) Shyam ate but Sita did not.
Shyam (3NH) eat-PST muda Sita (3NH) do-PST not eat

Above given sentence (a) there is conjoined two Nps with the conjoining constitutes of and (in English) but in Maithili sentences Conjoining constituent 'aor' here we wind both conjoining constituents function as the same in English and Maithili sentences:

Table - 1

English Coordinator	Maithili Coordinator
'And'	a, aor

Both English coordinator 'And' and Maithili Coordination 'a' / aor function

Similarly.

2 If we see in Adversative conjunction: muda 'but'

When two conjuncts are coordinated by an adversative conjunctions 'muda' it is implied that a contrast or an opposition exists between the two conjuncts and this adversative conjoining constituent is only differ in pronunciation but similar in functions. for e.g.:-

- (a) *Hari dhanik ch-ai-th muda to garib*
Hari rich be-PRES-(3NH) but you (3NH) poor
 "Hari is rich but you are poor"

These sentence are similar because the adversative conjoining constituent functioned as the same and both English and Maithili coordinator.

Show the contrast and opposition

English Coordinator	Maithili Coordinator
'but'	'muda', 'lekin'

5.2.2 Differences

It is generally assumed by linguists, esp. by Lado (1971) that languages which are genetically unrelated may have differences in this systematic structures. As English and Maithili are generally distinct languages, They must differ in certain reports.

The coordinate structure consists of two or more conjoined nouns or pronouns which differ in their grammatical features and there by call for conflicting agreement in the verb. To get over this agreement conflict Maithili employs a 'resolution rule' where by the verb agreement matches its closes nouns/pronouns in the conjoining series, for eg.

1. *To aur h m gh r Ja-ai-b*
You (2NH) and I.1 home go - fut. 1

2. *To aur h m gh r Ja-ai-b*
"You and I will go home"

In addition to linguistic factors like proximity associated with the above resolution rule pragmatic and social-linguistic factors like silence may also have a role in this rule. This agreement codex the most important refract "harijee" in below, irrespective of "rammy" being the closest noun.

- a. *harije aur rammy kothari me aich*
Hari(3H) and Ramu (3NH) room in be-PRE(3NH)
- b. *hari aor rammu kothari me chaith*
Hari(3NH) and Ramu(3NH) room in be-PRES(3N)
 "Hari and Ramu are in the room"

2. Gapping

An additional type of ellipsis called gapping. It may occur provided the conjoined sentences have (a) non-identical subjects and (b) at least one non-identical predicate constituent apart from the verse.

- a. *John tass aor s tranj khe-l-l- k.*
John(3NH) card and chess play-PST
- b. *John s tranj khe-l-ak aor Mary tass.*
John(3NH) chess play-PST and Mary card.
 "John plays chess and Mary playing cards"

The major difference in the case of gapping is that the deleted part of sentence lies in the middle part rather than at the end of the second clause. In gapping also Maithili sentences has SOV form but in English sentence has SVO structures there are the main difference between Maithili and English coordination sentences. And other

differences is that the conjoining constituent of Maithili sentences 'aor' is different from English coordinator 'and' _____ and on the other hand all positions are the same.

English	Maithili
And	aor
Svo	Sov

Pro-forms:-

This refers to as simple coordination. Another option exists when redundancies in the VP are eliminated. This option is called ellipsis. In the following example, The verb in the first VP has been omitted or elided in the 2nd verb too has been added.

Ramu S tranj kelait aich aor base ball so-ho kelait aich.

Ramu chess play-PRES aor he base ball plays too.

"Ramu Plays chess and he plays base ball too"

In these sentences in both clauses we identified. The substitution of the pronoun he for the repeated subject 'Ramu' eliminates the redundancy. The adverb 'too' has been added to mean 'also'. So we found many differences in English and Maithili sentences.

English	Maithili
too	so-ho

It means adverb of English sentence is also different from Maithili adverb

"So-ho".

CHAPTER-VI

PEDAGOGICAL IMPLICATION

6.1 Error Analysis

The responses of the students are marked and their error are tabulated item was. First, the individual errors of the students are tabulated and are shown with the number of errors they made in particular items. Then the errors are tabulated doing holistic comparison, item wise comparison, class - wise comparison and school - wise comparison. The number of students as well as their percentage of errors and below errors are computed. This process is followed in almost all the tables presented here. At last, different types of errors with their number of occurrence are also shown in this part.

6.1.1 Holistic Comparison

It comprises the total number of errors of Grade IX and X students with the average number of errors and the number of student above and below it.

Table No. 1: Total errors committed by Grade IX and X students in Both Items.

S.N	Class	Total sample	Total No of errors	Average No. of Errors	Above Average		Below Average	
					No of students	%	No of students	%
1	IX	75	2654	35.4	32	42.7	43	57.3
2	X	75	2124	28.3	30	40	45	60
	Total	150	4778	31.9	73	48.7	77	51.3

The above chart shows the total number of errors of Grade IX is 2754 and that of Grade X is 2024. The students of Grade IX have committed more errors than the students of Grade X. The average number of errors of the Grade IX is 34.5 out of 80

students, 36 students are above the average and 44 students are below the average errors.

Similarly, in Grade X the average number of error is 28.3 out of 2024 the number of students who are above the average is 30 (40%) and below average is 45 (60%).

In totality, the average number of error is 31.9 out of 4778. 73 students (i.e. 48.7%) among 150 students were found above the average and 77 (51.3%) students below the average.

6.1.2 Item-wise Comparison

This section comparison the errors of Grade IX and X students committed in item no 1 and Item No. 2.

Table No. 2: the errors of Grade IX and X students committed in item no 1 and Item No. 2

Total sample	Total Errors	Total Average of errors	Above Average		Below Average	
			No. of students	%	No. of students	%
150	4109	2704	66	44	84	56

The above table shows the total errors committed by Grade IX and X students in item No. 1 which consisted of 70 active sentences and the students were asked to make coordinate sentences. One sentence carried one mark. The average errors out of 4190 is 20.4 out of the total samples, 66 students are above the average whereas 84 students are below it. Thus majority of students were found below the average.

Table No. 3: Total error committed in Item No. 2

Total sample	Total errors	Total Average of errors	Above Average		Below Average	
			No of Students	%	No of Students	%
150	669	4.5	52	34.7	98	65.3

The above table shows the total errors committed by Grade IX and X students in Item No. 2 which consisted in items and the students were asked to choose one correct coordinate sentence among the four one sentence carried one mark. The average errors out of 669 is 4.5 out of total samples, 52 students (i.e. 34.7%) are above average where as 98 students (i.e. 65.3%) are below average. Thus, the majority of students are found below the average.

It was found that the students committed more errors in Item No. 1 but they committed less in the Item No. 2.

6.1.3 Class - wise comparison

This section comprises the total errors of Grade IX and X in both Items.

Table No.4: Total Errors committed in Item No. 1

S.N	Level/Class	Total sample	Total errors	Total average of errors	Above average		Below average	
					No of Student	%	No of Student	%
1	IX	75	2269	30.3	33	44	42	56
2	X	75	1840	24.5	29	38.7	46	61.2

Table No 5: Total Errors Committed in Item No.2

S.N	Level/Class	Total sample	Total errors	Total average of errors	Above average		Below average	
					No of Student	%	No of Student	%
1	IX	75	385	5.1	26	34.7	49	65.3
2	X	75	284	3.8	32	42.7	43	57.3

The above table shows that the total average errors of the Grade IX are 5.1 out of 75 students, 26 students are above the average where as 49 students are below the average.

Similarly, the average errors of Grade X students is 3.8 and 32 students are above the average where as 43 students are below the average.

In comparison, the Grade X students were found more proficient in English coordination than the Grade IX students.

6.1.4 School-wise Comparison

This section presents the comparison of errors of the students of all the sampled school. It also takes the comparison between Boarding Schools and Government schools.

Table No. 6: Errors committed by the students of Different Schools:

S.N	Name of Schools	Class	Class	Total errors	Percentage
		IX	X		
1	World Vision High Secondary	263	181	434	9.3
2	Raj Devi Ma.Vi.	220	243	463	9.7
3	Chhinmasta High Secondary	179	171	350	7.3
4	K.A. Ma.Vi.	251	183	434	9.1
5	Lali Guras High Secondary	321	231	552	11.6
6	Bindeshwari Public. Ma. Vi.	283	153	436	9.1
7	Chandra Namuna Ma.Vi	334	214	548	11.4
8	Chunni Ma.Vi	259	307	566	11.8
9	Kalyan pur Ma.Vi	260	199	459	9.6
10	Katti Ma.Vi	284	242	526	11.0
	Total	2654	2124	4778	100

The above chart shows that the students of Chunni Ma.Vi were found to have committed the highest number of errors. The second highest number of error were committed by the students of Lali Guras High secondary (552-11.6%). The errors were also committed in Katti Ma. Vi (526-11%), Kalyanpur Ma.Vi. (459-9.6%) etc. The least errors in number were committed by the students of Chhinmasta High Secondary School. They committed only 350 errors (7.3%) out of 477 in both items.

It comprises the table number of errors committed by the students of Grade IX and X of both boarding and government School.

Table No. 7: Boarding School Vs Governmental Schools

S.N	Schools	Total Errors	Percentage
1	Boarding Schools	2245	47
2	Governmental Schools	2533	53
	Total	4778	100

The Students of Boarding Schools were found more proficient than the students of Governmental Schools. The percentage of errors of the boarding schools student is 47% and of the Government School is 53%.

6.1.5 Different types of errors committed in Item No.1

The above table shows the different types of errors committed by the sampled students in different grammatical areas.

Table No. 8: Different types of Errors committed by the sample students

S.N	Types of Errors	Errors Committed by Class IX	Errors Committed by Class X	Total Errors	Percentage
1	Coordination	499	372	871	21.2
2	Tense	287	242	529	12.9
3	Sub-verb agreement	283	196	479	11.7
4	Punctuation	215	180	395	9.6
5	Deletion of words	145	201	346	8.4
6	Repetition of words	123	97	220	5.4
7	Spelling mistake	58	36	94	2.3
8	Gapping	109	107	210	5.1
9	No Response	46	41	87	2.1
	Total	1865	1066	3041	78.7

There are grammatical areas mentioned in the table. The highest numbers of errors were seen to have committed in the coordination (871) out of 3041. The second highest errors were committed in Tense, it is 529 (12.9%). Errors were also committed in punctuation, dictation of words, gapping subject, diltion, verb diltion, object gapping, verb gapping, spelling mistakes and no response. The least errors in number were committed in the verb/object gapping 270 (5.1%) and 87 errors were calculated as no response.

If we conclude;

6.2 This study has following pedagogic implication with some recommendations made by the researchers

- i. As there are a number of differences between English and Maithili coordination the teachers teaching Maithili speaking students learning English should pay special attention while teaching co-ordination.
- ii. A language teacher should analyze what are similar and difference points between the native language of learners and the target language they are going to learn.
- iii. In Maithili language, there are honorific, non-honorific distinction in using conjunction which is not in English. Therefore, the student should be provided with many examples having different honorific and non-honorific status of NPs.
- iv. The Maithili speaking learners should be made careful with that the same. Coordinator is used for both singular and plural NPs in English.
- v. English coordinate clause doesn't occur in sentences initial position which occurs in Maithili. Therefore the teacher should give special emporium on this point.

- vi. Maithili speaking learners should be informed that correlative construction is also found in English coordination which is commonly used in Maithili.
- vii. Without having linguistic knowledge, language teaching is an impossible task. This gives a teacher linguistic knowledge who is teaching Maithili and English language.
- viii. While teaching language a teacher should see what difficulties that the learners are facing because of the mother tongue influences in teaching a second language.
- ix. The researcher hopes this study will provide detailed information about the English and Maithili coordination and it helps the teacher to teach coordinate clause of both languages. This work will also be helpful for the course designers for design the courses of both language.
- x. Last but far from the least the concerned bodies are urged to carry out further researcher concentrating on other areas of grammar to test the validity of the findings of the present research.

6.3 Correlation between the predictions of Errors and the actual occurrences of Errors

The predictions of errors made on the basis of CA (in 5.2) of English and Maithili were matched with the errors of sampled student calculated through the errors analysis in (6.1) to find the correlation between the predictions of errors and the actual occurrence. Generally, four kinds of correlation were found in the process of analysis.

1. [+ correlation] CA [- Errors] EA [+Errors]

This type of correlation was seen in the case of changing the form of pronouns and using preposition by. According to the CA predictions, no errors are likely to

occur in changing the form of conjoining constituents. The EA showed that no students committed such types of error, so there is a full correlation between the CA predictions and EA results.

2. [+ correlation] CA [+ Errors] EA [+Errors]

This type of correlation was seen in the case of using repetition of words. CA has predicted that the students are likely to commit errors in using other NP/VP and the EA showed the correlation for it.

3. [+ correlation] CA [∫ Errors] EA [∫ Errors]

CA predicts that the greater the similarity the lesser the incidence of errors. This was found to be more or less true. In the most cases, such correlation was found where this CA prediction neither fully matched with EA results nor it was fully related with it. This type of correlation was found in the case of coordinating the sentences with NPS/VPS/Clauses/adjs, verb-gapping, repetition of words. The CA has predicted that the students commit errors in these areas. It was found that 80% of the sampled students commit errors in these areas, only 20% of students didn't. Likewise the CA has predicted that the errors are unlikely to occur for the deletion of object in the coordinate sentences but EA showed that 35% of the students committed errors in the deletion of the subject.

4. Such type of correlation was not distinctly found in analysis where the predictions of CA and EA results are just opposite.

On the whole findings of the research validate the CA hypothesis.

CHAPTER-VII

CONCLUSION

As mentioned earlier, this study aims to investigate and compare the process of coordination in English and Maithili with a view to understand the pedagogical implications for Maithili speakers learning English, especially its system of coordination.

To realize these objectives, the present study has been structured into seven chapters. Chapter 1 serves as introduction, incorporating the objectives and theoretical background of the study, the definition of coordination, introductory remarks about Maithili language and 2nd chapter methodology, used to collect relevance data for the study. It is to be noted that I have purposively confined myself to the "*University Grammar*" and "*A Reference Grammar of Maithili*" in addition. This study has also the limitation of analyzing the standard written language of Maithili used in my part of Nepal viz Sapatary.

Chapter 3rd and 4th have analyzed the morphological, syntactical properties of coordinates in English and Maithili coordination respectively. In chapter 5th we have focused the similarities and differences of coordination in the two languages. In this connection, it has been observed that English and Maithili coordinators behave syntactically alike. However they strikingly differ in terms of their syntactic structure.

On the basis of similarities and differences I have tried to chapter 5 to predict Maithili speaker's tone and difficulty in learning English coordination. Some potential problems have been further validated with the help of actual errors collected from the scripts of Maithili speaking learners of English. I finally, suggest general pedagogical measures for getting over some problems in chapter six. There are Holistic comparison, and school wise comparison about Maithili speaker's errors. The

responses of the students are marked and their errors are tabulated. The number of students as well as their percentage of errors are also computed.

The predication of errors made on the basis of CA (in 5.2) of English and Maithili were matched with the errors of sampled students calculated through the error analysis in (6.1) to find the correlation between the prediction of errors and the actual occurrence.

It must, however, be admitted that the present study is just a preliminary attempts in this direction, which needs to be further explored with additional data and recent theoretical model.

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