

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 General Background

Language has enabled human being to establish a great civilization. It is productive in nature which goes up unlimited and infinite. Human mind contains special and innate capacity that is LAD (Language Acquisition Device) from the rationalistic point of view. But behaviourists argue that nothing is present there in the brain of a child. However, we accept our use and understanding of our native – language without awareness, comment or questioning during the greater part of our lives.

There are dialectical differences in human language. This nature of language may cause us to ponder the knowledge of language in teaching or learning a second language. In a multilingual speech community like Nepal, a language teacher who knows more languages will be better in his/her performance on language teaching.

English is an international language and spoken all over the world as a lingua franca. It is one of the widely used West-Germanic sub-branches of the Germanic branch of the Indo-European Family. In many countries including Nepal, it is learned and taught as a second or Foreign language. English has been learned and taught as a second or foreign language in many countries including Nepal. English language teaching (ELT) has been taken as a separate discipline in Nepal. Efforts are made to improve the condition of English teaching in Nepal. There is multilingual situation in the Nepalese

Speech Community. Due to the fact that the standard of the English language has not developed as expected.

1.1.1 The Languages in Nepal

Nepal is a rich country in terms of linguistic diversity. According to CBS report (2001) more than ninety three languages are identified in this small country, Nepal. Out of which, very few languages have their own written scripts.

1.1.2 The Language Family

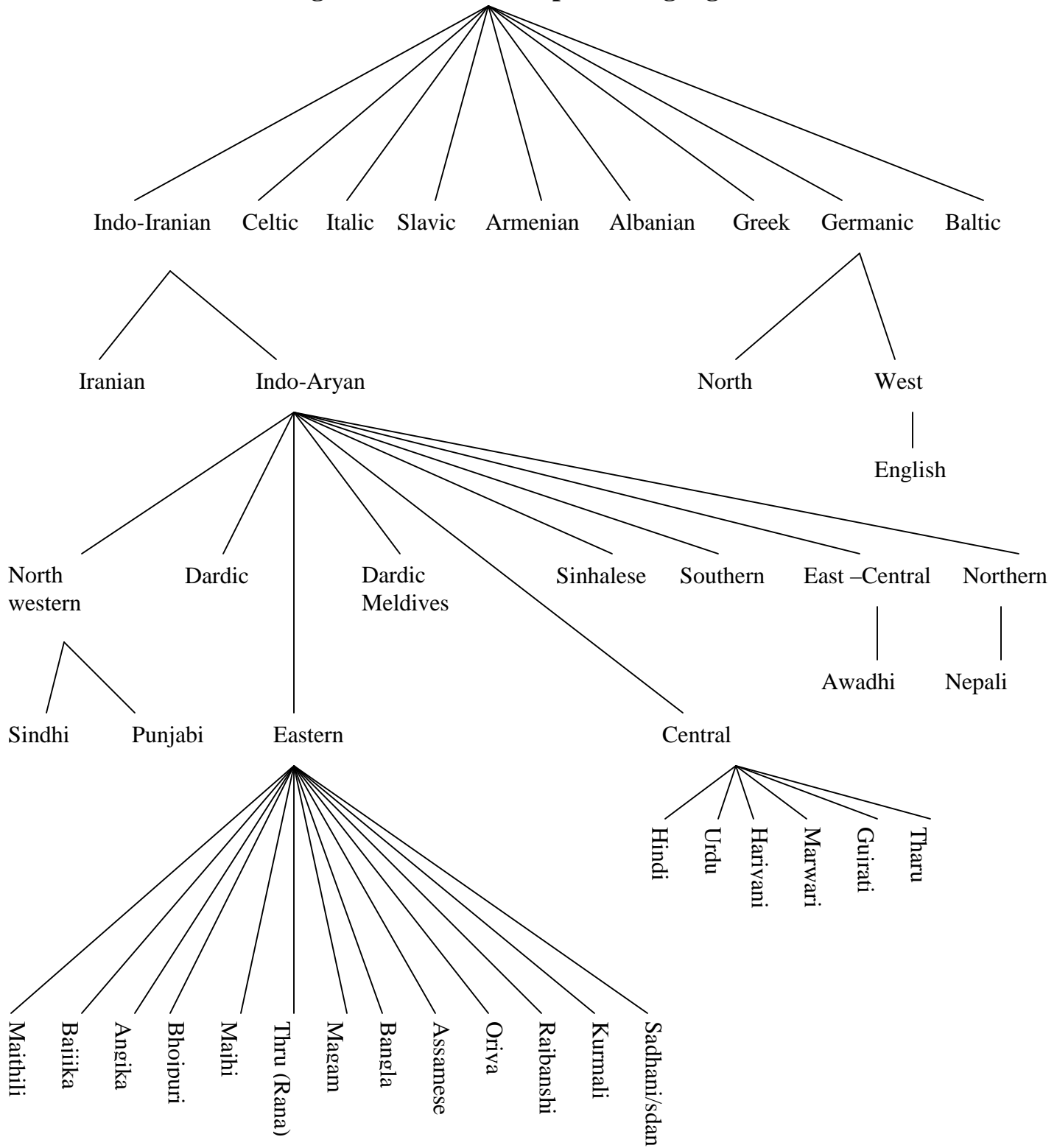
The languages enumerated in the 2001 census belong to the four language families, viz Indo-European, Sino-Tibetan, Austro-Asiatic and Dravidian.

I. Indo-European Family

Indo-European family of languages mainly comprises of Indo-Aryan group of languages in the context of Nepal, which forms the largest group of languages in term of speakers, viz nearly 80 percent. (CBS, 2001)

The Indo-Aryan languages spoken in Nepal can be genetically subcategorized in the following diagram.

Diagram 1: Indo – European Languages



(Source: Yadav 2003: 145)

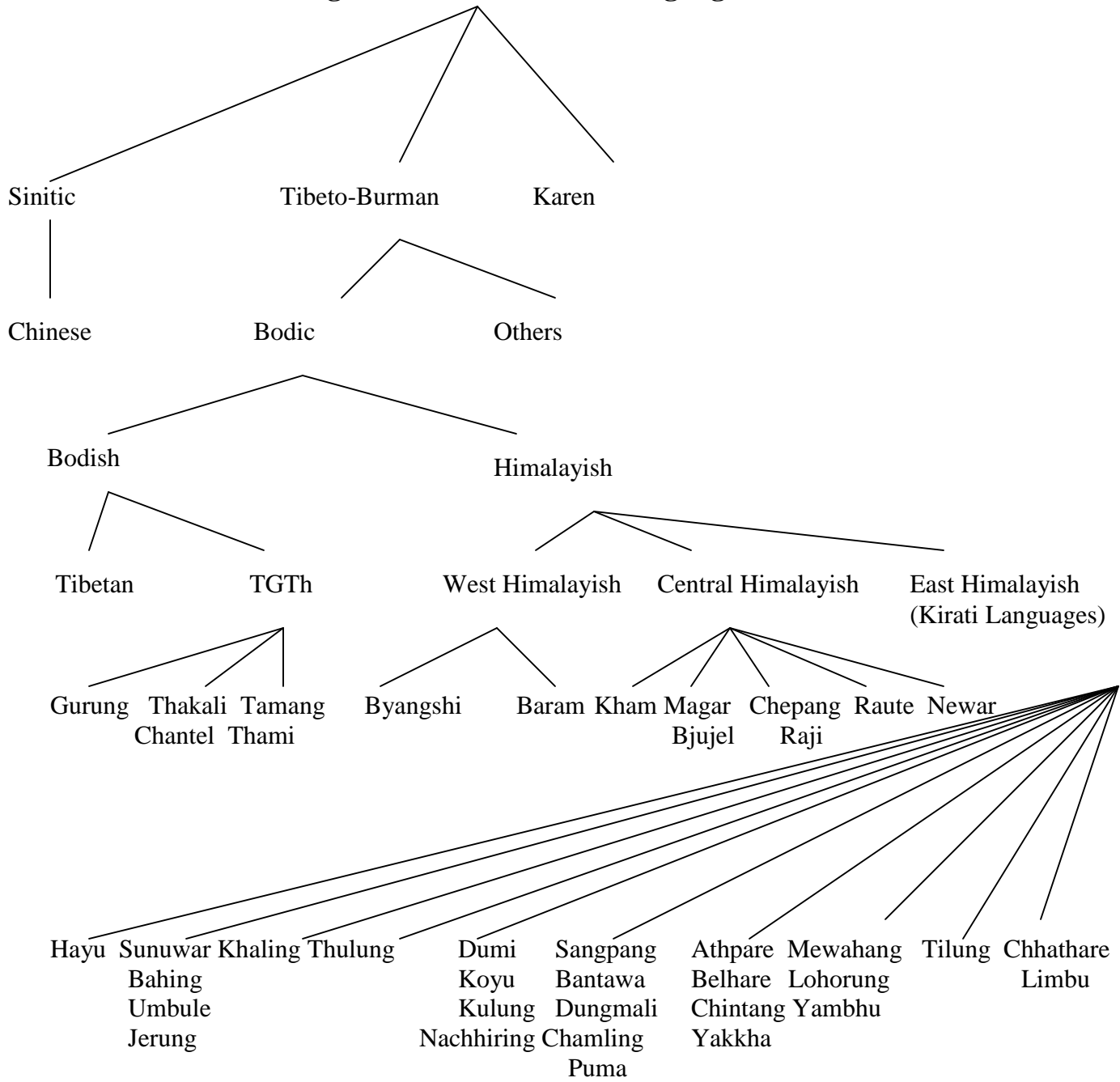
Some of the Indo-Aryan languages spoken in Nepal are yet to be subclassified in the lack of their adequate description. These languages include Tharu, Bote, Kumal, Churauti and Danuwar.

II. Sino-Tibetan Family

Another important group of the Nepali languages is the Tibeto-Burman group of Sino-Tibetan Family. Though it is spoken by relatively less number of people than the Indo-European Family, it consists of the largest number of languages, viz about 57 languages.

The Sino-Tibetan languages spoken in Nepal can be sub-categorized as follows:

Diagram 2: Sino-Tibetan Languages



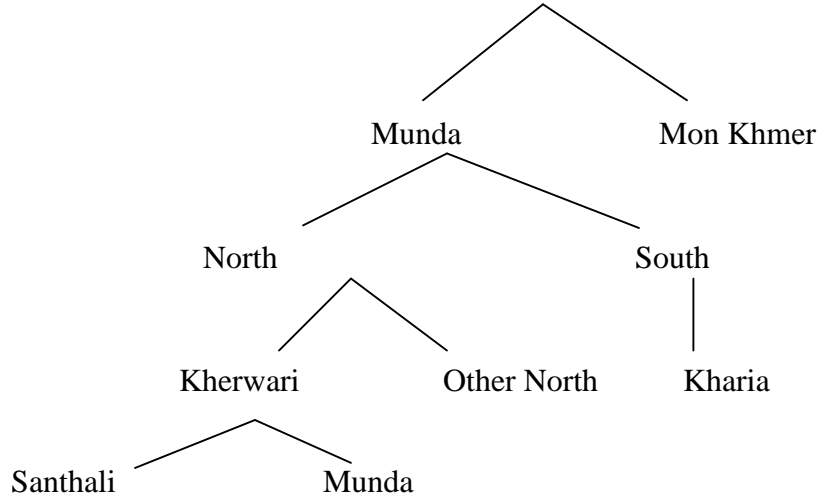
(Source: Yadav 2003: 146)

III. Austro-Asiatic Family

The Austric languages comprise Santhali of the northern Munda group and Khariya of the southern Munda group. It is to be noted that Satar

has been reported in all the censuses but Santhal has been wrongly reported as a separate language except in the 1952/54 census. The 2001 census lumps both Satar and Santhal together into a single language, called Santhali:

Diagram 3: Austro-Asiatic languages

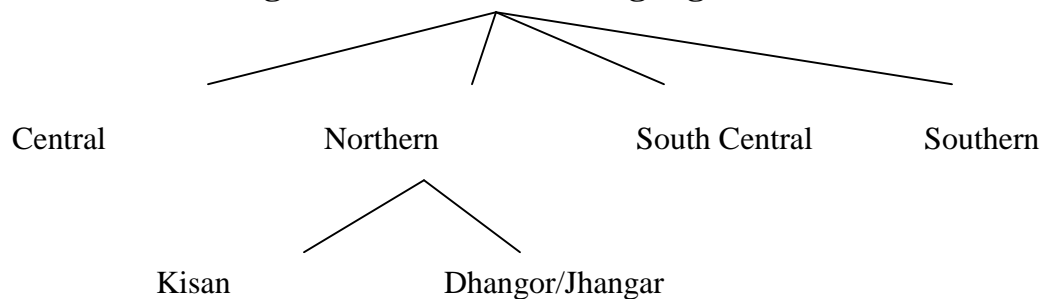


(Source: Yadav 2003: 147)

IV. Dravidian Family

Dravidian language includes the two languages spoken in Nepal. One of them is called Jhagar in the region east of the Koshi river but Dhagar in the west. It constitutes the northmost part of Dravidian family of languages. Another Dravidian language is Kisan with 489 speakers settled in Jhapa district.

Diagram 4: Dravidian languages



(Source: Yadav 2003:147)

1.1.3 An Introduction to the Limbu Language

The Limbu language is spoken by about 3,33,633 (CBS report, 2001) people in Nepal. As its name implies, it is the language of Limbu which is one of the languages of Tibeto-Burman language family. The Limbus are called $j r | \ddagger y \hat{\epsilon}; s r \ddagger$, one of the major ethnic groups in eastern Nepal and the language spoken by them is called $j r | \ddagger y \hat{\epsilon}; s r f r 4 \epsilon$. Regarding population and the vastness of geographical distribution Limbu is considered as the dominant and the most prominent language of the Kirati group of Tibeto-Burman language family.

$Sz..z\{\hat{\epsilon}; x r 41\}z f z$ is the script of the Limbu language. Infact, Limbu is not fully developed like English or Nepali so that research works should be carried out to develop these aspects such as phonetics and phonology, Semantics and pragmatics. The origin of the Limbu language is in the eastern part of the Nepal, especially Panchthar, Taplejung, Tehrathum, Dhankuta, Sankhuwasabha, Illam and Jhapa districts. Nowadays, Limbu are residing in different part of the country. The Limbu language is also spoken in some parts of India, Sikkim, Asam and Gangtok. Sikkim is the fertile place of the Limbu language and literature.

The Limbu language has four dialects which are as follows:

i. Phedappe Dialect

The term phedappe is a Nepali adjectival form of **Phedap**, the region where the phedappe dialect is spoken and formally the designation for all of the present day Limbuvan. It is especially spoken throughout Tehrathum district of Nepal.

ii. Panchthare Dialect

Panchthare is literally the dialect of the Panchthar or ‘Five Clans’ and is spoken to the east of the Tamor river. Yasok, Phidim and Illam are the central places of Panchthare speaking Limbuwan. This dialect is considered as the standard dialect among the varieties of the Limbu languages in terms of books of literature written on this dialect.

iii. Chhathare Dialect

This dialect is spoken throughout **Chhathar** or ‘Six Clans’ in the eastern part of Dhankuta district like Tankhuwa, Hattikharka, Bhirgaun and Banchare VDCs and in the South Eastern part of the adjoining Tehrathum district like (Dangapa, Hamarjung and Okhar Bote VDCs).

iv. Taplejung Dialect

Taplejung (including the Tamarkhole, Ψαν*ρυπε and Mainwakhole sub-dialect) is the dialect spoken to the north of $\pi\eta\epsilon\delta\alpha\#\pi$ along and especially north of the **Tamor River** in Taplejung district and beyond. The dialect boundary between Phedappe and Panthare is an abrupt transition as one crosses the Tamor between Tehrathum and Yasok. It is considered that the least differences can be found between Tamarkhole and Mainwakhole Limbu speaking of the Taplejung district.

1.1.4 CA and its Importance on Language Teaching

Contrastive analysis (CA) can be defined as a scientific study of similarities and differences between languages. It is a branch of linguistics which compares two languages to find out their similarities and differences and then to predict the areas of difficulty in learning.

In the late 1940s and 50s, CA was introduced and became highly popularized in the 60s and its popularity declined in the 70s. CA, developed for foreign language teaching, can be traced back to the American linguist C.C. Fries who made the first clarion call for it. Fries (1945:58) assumes that "The foreign language is being learned in the foreign country in which it is spoken. If a foreign language is to be studied in the native linguistic environment of the student, then the pertinent materials and experiences must in some way be systematically supplied."

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.

- I. "Individuals tend to transfer the forms and meanings and the distribution of forms and meanings of their native language and culture to the foreign language and culture, both productively when attempting to speak the language . . . and respectively when attempting to grasp and understand the language."
- II. "In the comparison between native and foreign languages lies the key to ease or difficulty in foreign language learning."
- III. "The teacher who has made a comparison of the foreign language with the native language of the students will know better what the real

learning problem are and can better provide for teaching them (Lado, 1957: 2)."

There are mainly two functions of CA. At first, it predicts the likely errors to be committed by a particular group of learners in learning a particular language which is also regarded as the primary function of CA. In the second, it explains the sources of errors in one's performance. This is the secondary function of C.A. To treat the learners psychologically and academically, a language teacher should have the knowledge of CA. Unless a language teacher knows the sources and types of the errors that learners commit s/he cannot impart knowledge to them.

The most important thing to keep in mind by a language teacher is basic assumption behind C.A. 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 due to the transfer of the old habits/knowledge.

There is positive transfer if old knowledge is similar to the new one and facilitates in the learning of an L₂. But, there is negative transfer if old knowledge is different from the new one and hinders in learning an L₂.

In brief, 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 chances of errors and greater the differences, greater the difficulty and greater the difficulty, greater the chances of errors. CA deserves the significant contribution to the L₂ teaching. It provides

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.

1.1.5 Sentence

In general, a sentence refers to the highest grammatical unit (i.e. other grammatical units such as words, phrases and clauses come under it). However, it does not give complete definition. So, many linguists have given the definitions of the sentence.

Crystal (2003: 414) defines sentence as "the largest structural unit in terms of which the grammar of a language is organized". Similarly, Richards et al (1999: 330) define a sentence as "the largest unit of grammatical organization within which parts of speech (e.g. nouns, verbs, adverbs) and grammatical classes (e.g. word, phrase, clause) are said to function."

Another famous American linguist, Bloomfield (in Lyons 1968: 172) defines a sentence as "an independent linguistic form, not included by virtue of any grammatical construction in any larger linguistic grammatical construction in any largest linguistic form". The point of Bloomfield's definition can be stated more concisely as follows: the sentence is the largest unit of grammatical description. A sentence is a grammatical unit between the constituent parts of which distributional limitations and dependencies can be established, but which can itself be put into no distributional class.

Thus, the definition provided by Bloomfield is likely to be the best one. It reveals that the sentence is the independent linguistic form and the largest grammatical unit.

I. Classification of Sentences

Crystal (2003: 415) classified the sentences in terms of form and functions. In terms of functional classification, they are a) statement, b) question, c) command and d) exclamatory. On the other hand, in terms of formal classification, they are a) declarative, b) interrogative, c) imperative and d) exclamative .

There is no one to one relationship between these typical classifications. Yadav (2004: 89) likes to call such kind of correlation as form-function interface. The interface of this nature plays an important role in the analysis of sentences. The form-function interface is given as follows:

Form function interface

Formal classification	Functional classification	Examples
1. Declarative	1. Statement	I like fish
2. Interrogative	2. Question	Do you like fish?
3. Imperative	3. Directive	Go out!
4. Exclamatory	4. Exclamation	What a big bore she is !

II. Classification of Sentences in terms of their structural complexity

In terms of structure complexity, sentences can be divided into three types: simple sentences, complex sentences and compound sentences (AARTS and AARTS, 1984: 94). The definition, diagram and table are adopted from AARTS and AARTS (1984).

a) Simple Sentence

A simple sentence can be defined as a sentence in which none of the functions is realized by a clause. In other words, a simple sentence does not

contain an embedded (or subordinate) sentence as realization of one of its functions. A simple sentence is always an independent sentence, that is a sentence capable of occurring on its own. For example, **John is a bachelor.**

b) The Complex Sentence

Sentences in which one or more sentence functions are realized by a clause (finite or non-finite) are complex. A sentence or clause that contains one or more clauses is called a superordinate clause.

Complex sentences may contain only one embedded clause. For example,

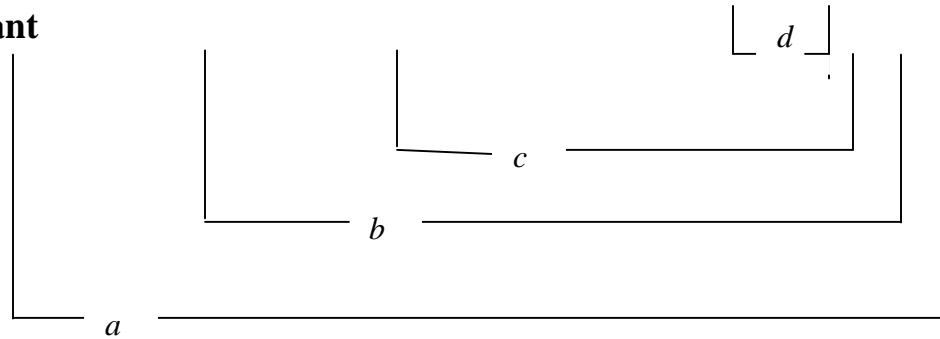
- a) **That the baby** is ill is obvious.
- b) **To do that** would be foolish.

Complex sentences may contain more than one clause. For example

- a) She was angry **because she resented him going away.**
- b) You must admit **that you knew that I had told my father that I am pregnant.**

An example of complex sentence with illustration is given below:

You must admit **that you knew that I had told my father that I am pregnant**



In the sentence (*'b'*), the whole sentence (*a*) is superordinate to clause *b*, clause *b*, in turn, is superordinate to clause *c*, which is superordinate to clause *d*.

c) The Compound Sentence

A compound sentence is one in which two or more sentences (called conjoins) have been coordinated. Each of the conjoins is independent since there is no question of embedding.

A compound sentence may consist of:

1. two (or more) simple sentences.
2. one (or more) simple sentences + one (or more complex sentences)
3. two (or more) complex sentences.

It can be shown as in table (AARTS and AARTS, 1984: 87) which is given as follows:

The compound sentences	Simple sentence + simple sentence (+simple sentence . . .)
	Any combination of simple and complex sentences
	Complex sentences + complex sentence (+ complex sentence . . .)

Here, some examples of compound sentences are given as follows:

- a) **Oil is now more expensive and that will affect our economy.**
- b) **I have bought a new shirt, but it does not fit me.**
- c) **Can you come to dinner on Saturday or are you busy?**

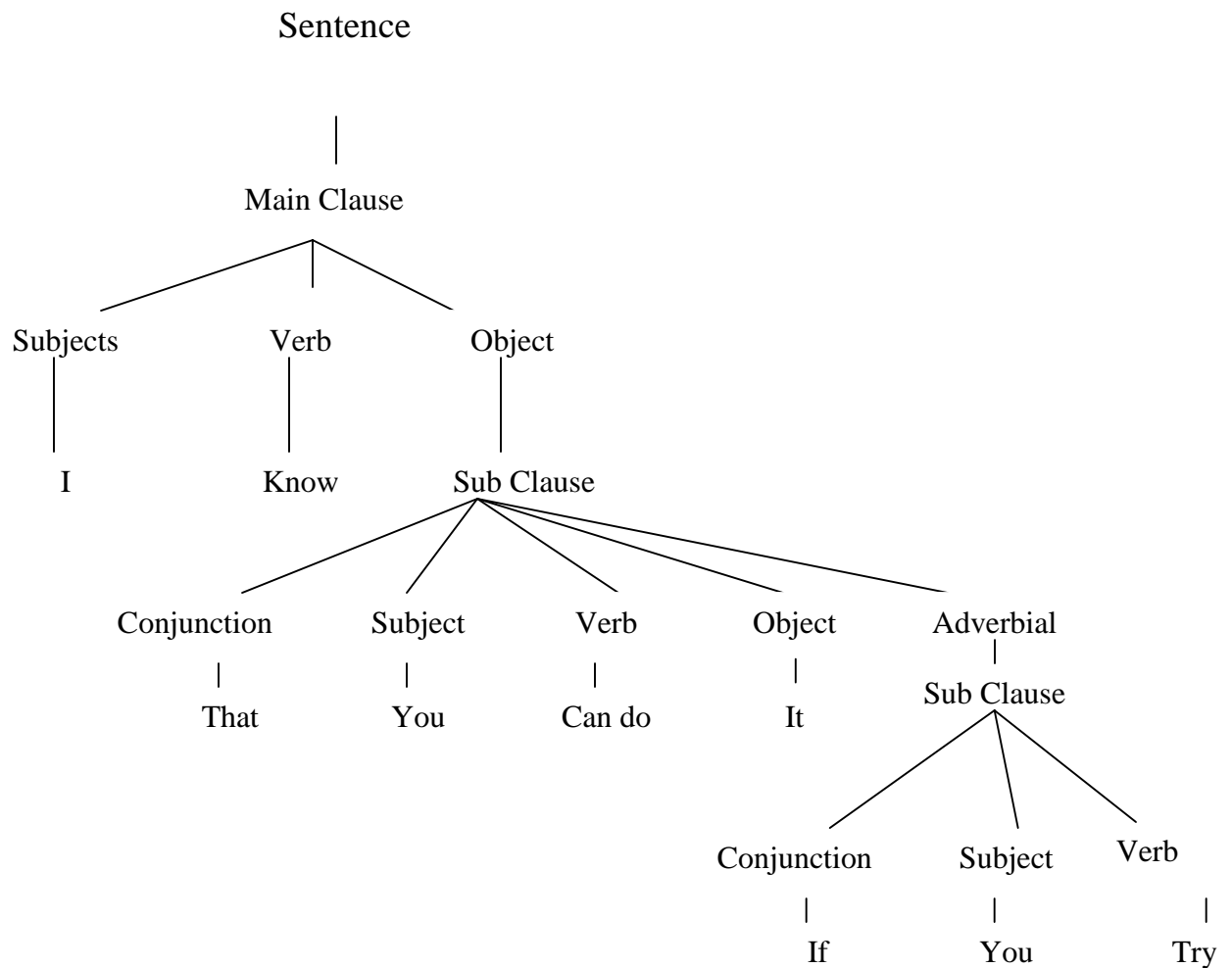
1.1.6 Subordination

Generally, subordination refers to the combination of units such that one is dependent on the other. Crystal (1996: 443) defines 'subordination' as "A term used in grammatical analysis to refer to the process of linking linguistic units so that they have different syntactic status. One being dependent upon the other and usually a constituent of the other." So, subordination involves the conjunction of two clauses with the help of subordinators, or subordinating conjunctions. Subordinators are formal devices in making subordinating clauses. Subordinations are quite different from coordinating conjunctions in that they link units of unequal syntactic status.

Similarly in Ebert's (1994: 112) words "subordination is either maximally reduced or minimally ." There are two types of signals that indicate a clause to be subordinate; the identity of the initial item in the clause and the nature of the verb phrase or its absence.

A subclause (subordinate clause) can also have another subclause inside it which means that the first subclause behaves as a 'main clause' with respect to the second subclause (Leech and Svartvik, 1975: 382). For example, the sentence,

I know that you can do it if you try, is made up of three clauses, each within the other. We can present it as follows.



(Source: Leech and Svartvik 1975: 382)

Thus, subclauses can have various functions in their main clause. They may be subjects, objects, adverbial, prepositional, complements and post modifiers.

1.1.7 Subordinators

Subordinators are the most important formal devices of subordination, particularly for finite clauses. Like prepositions, which resemble in having a relating function, subordinators forming the core of the class consist of a single word, but there is a larger range of complex subordinators which function, to varying degrees, like a single conjunction.

Most subordinators may introduce finite clauses. There are different kinds of subordinators. They are divided into simple, complex and correlative subordinators – (Quirk et al. 1985: 998) which are given as follows:

i. Simple subordinators

Here are some simple kinds of subordinators such as: after, although, as, because, before, directly, if, immediately, once, since, that, though, till, unless, until, when (ever), where, whereas, where upon, while, whose, whom, who, which, so that, therefore and than.

ii. Complex Subordinators

Complex subordinators are given as follows:

ending with 'that' :

but that, in that, in order that, insofar that, in the event that, save that and such that.

ending with optional 'that' :

a) Participle form:

(assuming, considering, excepting, given, granted, granting, provided, proving, seeing and suppressing) } (that)

b) Others:

except, for all } that
how, so }

ending with 'as'

according as, as far as, as long as, as soon as, for as much as, in much as, in so far as, in so much as.

Others:

as, if, as though, in case

iii. Correlative Subordinators

The second correlative endorses the meaning of the first. The correlative subordinators are divided into five sets that are given as follows:

- a) as ... so
- b) as }
 so } ... as
 such }
- so }
 such } ... (that)
- less }
 more (/ -er) } ... than
- no sooner ... than, when
- barely }
 hardly } ... when, than
 scarcely }
- c) the ... the
- d) whether }
 if } ... or
- e) subordinator plus
 optional conjunct
- although }
 even if } ... yet, nevertheless
 (even) though }
 while }

if	}	}	...then, in that case
once			
since [reason]			
unless			
because	}	}	...therefore
seeing (that)			

(Source: Quirk et al. 1985: 998)

1.1.8 Kinds of Subordinate Clause

Traditionally there are three kinds of subordinate clauses in complex sentences of the English language (Whaley 1997: 247). They are viz a) The noun clause, b) The adjective clause and c) The adverb clause

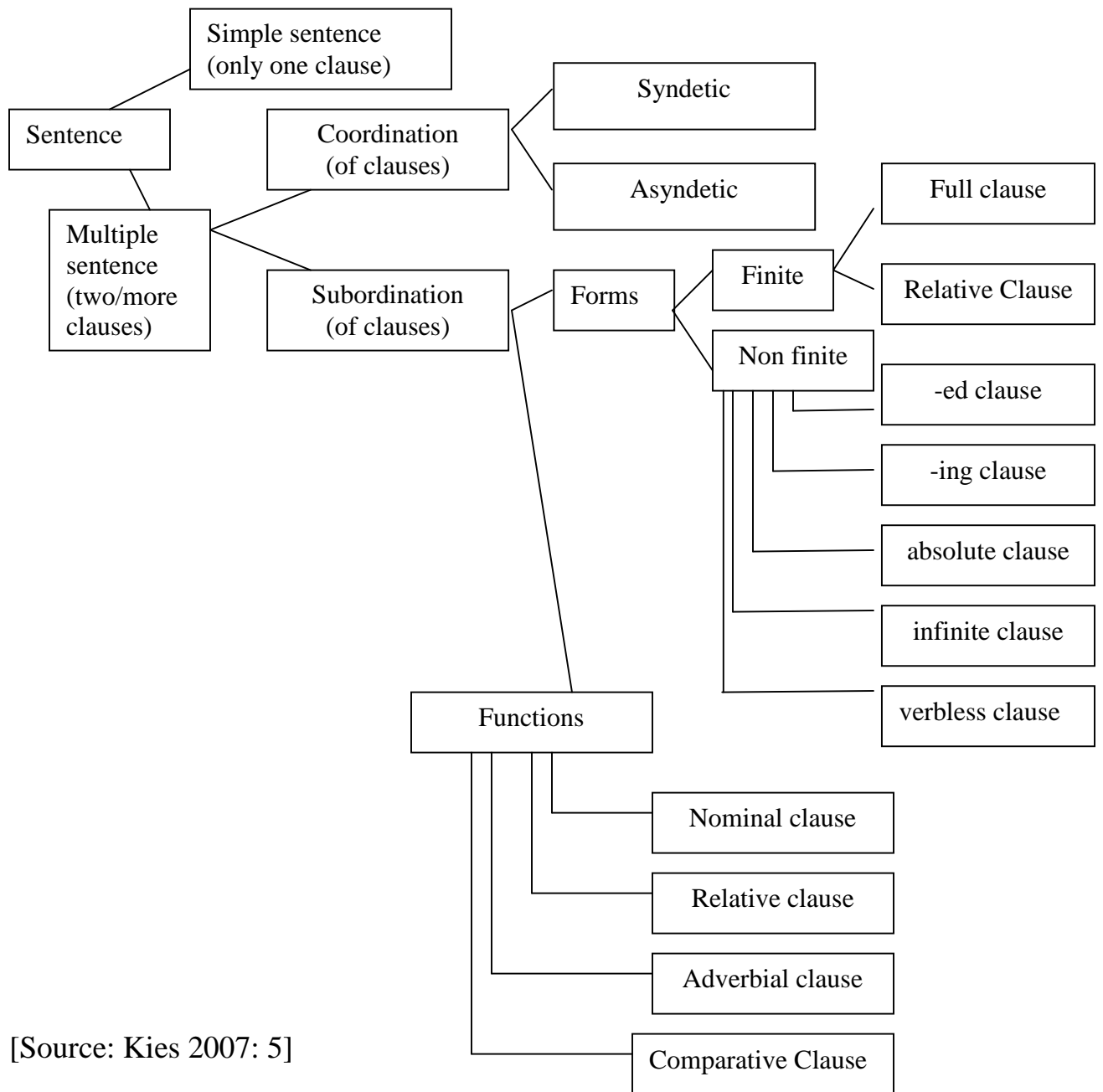
- a) **The Noun Clause:** A clause which does the work of a **noun** in relation to some words in some other clause is called a **noun clause**; e.g. Ram said **that he was hungry**. In the given sentence, **that he was hungry** is **Noun clause** (subclause) in the sense that it functions as a **noun phrase**.
- b) **The Adjective Clause:** The clause that usually related back to a **noun** whose meaning it modifies is an **adjective clause** ; e.g. I met the boy **who was hungry**. In the given sentence, **who was hungry** is the adjective clause (subclause) in the sense that it functions as an **adjective phrase**.
- c) **The Adverb Clause:** An **adverbial clause** is a subordinate clause which does the work of **an adverb**; e.g. **when he was sleeping**, a thief broke into his house. In the given sentence, **when he was sleeping** is an adverbial clause (subclause) in the sense that it functions as **adverb phrase**.

However, modern grammarians prefer to categorize subordinate clauses on the basis of their **form** and **function**.

Clauses are formally categorized into two broad types: finite and nonfinite. Functionally, clauses fall into six functional categories: Subject, Predicate, predicator, direct object, indirect object and adjunct (Aarts 1997: 85)

Similarly, on the basis of potential function of subordination (of clauses), we can distinguish major functional categories of sub-ordinate clauses-nominal, adverbial, relative and comparative (Kies 2007: 5). And, on the basis of potential form of subordination (of clauses), we can distinguish into **finite** and **non-finite subordinate clauses**. Finite clause includes full clause and relative clause. Likewise, non-finite clause includes –ed clause, -ing clause, infinite clause, absolute clause, and verbless clause.

We can present these various distinctions graphically as follows:



[Source: Kies 2007: 5]

a) Finite Clause

The **finite clause** contains a **finite verb**. It incorporates the following characteristics:

- i. They carry their own tense and aspect.

- ii. They express their subjects directly; the subject reference is not restricted to that of matrix clause. For example, **That he will go to New York soon** is obvious. In the given sentence, **That he will go to New York soon** is finite clause because they reflect both characteristics.

In the finite clause, we can include, full clause and relative clauses.
(Kies, 2007: 5)

There are mainly two types of finite clause which are presented below.

I. Full Clause

Subordinate clause which has its own subject and its own finite verb is called full clause; e.g. **Since he arrived**, she left early. In the given sentence, **Since he arrived** is a full clause, because it has its own subject (s/he) and its own finite verb (arrived-PT).

II. Relative Clause

Crystal (1996: 394) defines 'relative clause' as " A term used in grammatical description to characterize pronouns which may be used to introduce a post-modifying clause within a Noun phrase and by extension to clause as a whole (relative clause)". In other words, a clause which modifies a noun or noun phrase is called relative clause (Richards, Platt and Platt, 1999: 314).

Similarly, Relative clauses are recognizable by their distinctive structures (Kies 2007: 5) . First is the relative pronoun (a wh-word like who,

whom, whose, which or the word that often occurs in clause initial/position; second is the fact that the relative pronoun has the potential to assume many different functions within the relative clause; e.g. I know **whom you wish to see**. (relative pronoun as object of relative clause,) I know **who you are**. (relative pronoun as complement of relative clause).

b) Non –finite clause

Non –finite clause contains a **non-finite verb**. The non-finite verb is that verb which does not show tense, aspect, mood and agreement with the subject. For example: **Leaving the room**, he tripped on over the mat. In the sentence, **Leaving the room**, is the non-finite clause because the **–ing form** of the verb does not show tense, aspect, mood or agreement with the subject.

In the non-finite clause, we can include –ed clause, -ing-clause, infinite clause, absolute clause, and verbless clause (Kies, 2007: 5)

There are mainly five types of finite clause which are presented below:

III. –ed clause

-ed-clause is marked by the presence of **–ed verb form** at the beginning of the subordinate clause; in **clause initial position**; e.g. **Covered with confusion**, I left the room. In the sentence, **Covered with confusion**’ is the ed-clause because subclause contains **–ed verb form** in clause initial position.

IV. -ing-clause

The **-ing clauses** are marked by the presence of an **-ing verb form** in **clause initial position**; e.g. **leaving the room**, he tripped on over the mat. In the sentence, **'Leaving the room'** is **-ing clause** because subclause contains **-ing verb form** in **clause initial position**.

V. Absolute Clause

The **absolute clause** is much like the **-ing clause**; however, the absolute clause begins with a **pronoun** in the **genitive** or **objective case** that seems to function as **the 'subject'** of the **-ing verb**: e.g. **Her hearing the news**, she left early. In the sentence, **her hearing the news** is an absolute clause because subclause contains an **-ing verb form beginning with a pronoun** in the **genitive case** that seems to function as the **'subject'** of the **-ing verb**, (i.e. hearing).

VI. Infinitive Clause

The **infinitive clauses** are marked by the presence of infinitive verb form; in **clause initial position**; e.g. **To hear the news**, she left early. In the sentence, **'To hear the news'** is infinitive clause because the subclause contains infinitive verb form (i.e. To hear).

VII. Verbless Clause

Verbless clauses as the name suggests are notable for their lack of any verb form; e.g. **whether right or wrong**, he always comes off worse in argument. In the sentence, **'whether right or wrong'** is verbless clause because there is lack of verb form in the subclause.

1.2 Review of the Related Literature

There are some linguistic comparative research works on different languages such as Nepali, Limbu, Rai, Gurung, Tharu, Newari in the Department of English Language Education at Kirtipur.

Tumbahang (1997) identifies the forms of address in Limbu folk narration and their relevance in actual use. His finding is that Limbu has various types of addressing forms depending on the contextual situations, persons, classes and the like though it has only one pronominal addressing form 'κηενε'.

Sah (2000) finds complete difference on S-V agreement between the Maithili and English languages in his study 'A Comparative Study of the S-V- agreement in the Maithili and English Language.' His finding is that number agreement determines the S-V agreement system in the English language but inflectional affixes with both subject and object determine Maithili S-V agreement. The committed errors were due to mother tongue interference, over generalization and hypercorrection.

Phyak (2004) has done research work on English and Limbu pronominals: A Linguistic comparative study.' His study concentrated on determining Limbu pronominals in relation to English and findings similarities and differences between Limbu and English pronominals. Some of his findings are as follows:

- a) Limbu and English pronominals systems are different.
- b) The Limbu language has more number of pronouns and has more complex pronominal system than English.

- c) The Limbu language has inclusive and exclusive pronominal system which is not found in English.

Phombo (2005) identifies the nonfinite clauses in panthare dialect of the Limbu language. His finding is that Non-finite clause in Limbu is constituted by non-finite markers.

Lamichhane (2006) compares and contrasts Adverbial clauses in English and Nepali. His finding reveals that there are finite and non-finite adverbial clauses in both languages, e.g.

(In English)

- i. The goat entered the pen, jumping. (non-finite)
- ii. He looks as if he is sick. (finite)

(In Nepali)

- i. सामसाद भगा-एकााले, उन-ले गाडेए पाए-ए. (non –finite)
- ii. फाति - फाति भगान – चिहिन, उति-उति साबान-लाएए दे-ओ. (finite)

So far no comparative study has been carried out to find out the similarities and differences between the subordination of the Limbu and English languages. Therefore, the researcher is interested to determine subordinators in the Limbu language and to find out similarities and differences between the subordination of the Limbu and English languages.

1.3 Objectives of the Study

This study had the following objectives:

- i. To determine subordinators in the Limbu language.
- ii. To find out similarities and differences between the subordination of the Limbu and English languages.
- iii. To suggest some pedagogical implications of the study.

1.4 Significance of the Study

The study has the following significances:

- i. This will be valuable work for the Department itself in the sense that no research has so far been carried out on the topic on the Limbu language in the Faculty of Education.
- ii. This study will be useful to some extent for the prospective researchers on the Limbu language, linguists, teachers, students, syllabus designers, textbook writers etc.
- iii. This study will also have pragmatic value.
- iv. The researcher hopes that this study will have global significance in language teaching and linguistics.

1.5 Definition of the specific terms

Some specific terms used in this study are defined as follows:

Dialect: It is userbased variety of language. Dialect is generally determined by geographical and social boundaries.

Nominal: A term used for a category that contains nouns, pronouns and Noun phrase.

Relative Pronouns: They link a subordinate clause with their own antecedents, e.g. who, whose, which, that etc.

Subordinator: A subordinator refers to the most important formal device used in the process of subordination.

Sentence: Sentence is an independent linguistic form, not included by virtue of any grammatical construction in any larger linguistic form.

Interface: It deals with correlation between form and function and plays an important role in the analysis of clause or sentences.

Finite: A term used in the grammatical classification of types of verbs and clauses. A finite verb is a form that can occur on its own in an independent sentence.

Non – finite: The form of the verb which occurs on its own only in dependent clauses, and lack tense and mood contrasts.

Relative: A term used in grammatical description to characterize pronouns which may be used to introduce a postmodifying clause within a noun phrase, and by extension to the clause (i.e. relative clauses)

Absolute: A term used in traditional grammatical description and occasionally in linguistics to refer to a sentence constituent which is isolated from or abnormally connected to the rest of the sentences.

Infinitive: A traditional term for the non-finite form of the verb usually cited as its unmarked or base form.

Verbless: A type of clause recognized in some model of grammatical description in which the verb is omitted.

Subordination: 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 other.

Form: One of the most widely used terms in linguistics, with a corresponding wide range of meanings one of its main areas is form vs meaning or function. It refers to the phonological/grammatical/ lexical characteristics of linguistic units, such as sentences, morphemes, lexemes, noun etc. these being referred to as linguistic forms.

Function: One of the most widely used terms in linguistics, with correspondingly wide range of meanings one of its main areas of application is the relationship between a linguistic form and other parts of the linguistic pattern of system in which it is used. In grammar, for example, the noun phrase can 'function' in clause structure as subject, object, complement etc.

Variety: A term used in sociolinguistics and stylistics to refer to any system of linguistic expression whose use is governed by situational variables.

CHAPTER TWO

METHODOLOGY

2.1 Sources of Data

The researcher had utilized both primary and secondary sources of data to carry out this research.

2.1.1 Primary Source

Primary source of the data were the Limbu native speakers of Prakashpur VDC. Limbu subordination was elicited by interviewing the informants. But English subordination was taken from secondary sources of the data because it has already been established.

2.1.2 Secondary Source

As the secondary source of data, the researcher referred to the standard grammar of both the English and Limbu languages. For instance, Quirk et al. (1985), Kies (2007), Aarts (1997), Klammer and Schulz (1991), Van Driem (1987), Weidert and Subba (1985).

2.2 Population of the Study

This study was based on the forty informants to elicit the Limbu subordinators and subordination. Forty Limbu speakers were selected from Prakashpur VDC in which ten speakers each were from wards no. 5, 7, 8 and 9.

2.3 Sampling Procedure

Prakashpur VDC where Limbus reside was selected through judgemental sampling procedure. From Prakashpur VDC, 20 male and 20 female sample of age group between 18-65 years were selected through the snowball sampling procedure and they were interviewed using a pre-prepared interview sheet.

2.4 Research Tool

The structured interview sheet (Appendix -II) was the main research tool for data collection. A set of interview questions were prepared to draw the information on subordination of the Limbu language from the Limbu native speakers. English sentences were used as the reference for data collection and to facilitate in correct understanding corresponding Nepali sentences were also used.

2.5 Process of the Data Collection

For this research work, the researcher followed the following procedures to collect the data.

- i. The researcher prepared structured interview sheet, visited the selected VDC and built rapport with the Limbu natives.
- ii. He interviewed the Limbu native speakers according to the structured interview sheet.
- iii. After collecting the data through interview sheet, the researcher participated in daily conversation with the Limbu natives for one week to cross check the validity of the data.

- iv. The answers provided by the Limbu native speakers were recorded using Roman transliteration of Devanagan script (Appendix - II)

2.6 Limitations of the Study

- i. This study is based on the similarities and differences of subordination (i.e. form based) of the Limbu and English languages. Forms of subordination/subordinate clauses are given as follows:
 - a) Finite clause
 - Full clause
 - Relative clause (irrespective of restricted and non-restricted relative clauses).
 - b) Non-finite Clause
 - -ed clause
 - -ing clause
 - absolute clause
 - infinite clause
 - verbless clause
- ii. Only simple kinds of subordinators were taken into consideration.
- iii. Only forty Limbu speakers were included in the study and mainly four ward numbers of the Prakashpur VDC were selected for the study.
- iv. This study was based on the Taplejung dialect of the Limbu language.
- v. English subordinators and subordination were taken from the secondary sources of the data mainly from Quirk et al. (1985) Kies (2007).

CHAPTER THREE

ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION

This chapter consists of the analysis and interpretation of the collected data. The data has been analyzed descriptively with the help of tables and illustrations. After the analysis of the data, the similarities and differences between Limbu and English subordination are mentioned with illustrations. Hence, determination and analysis of subordinator, subordination in Limbu and similarities and differences between the Limbu and English subordination are included in this chapter.

Determination and Analysis of Subordinators in the Limbu Language

The subordinators which are determined in the Limbu language are given as follows:

Limbu Subordinators

Limbu language has subordinating markers or subordinators. Limbu subordinators generally occur as in **clause final position** of the subclause except in some cases. The Limbu **verb suffix** plays an important role in making subordinate clauses because it occurs as in both past/perfect markers and subordinating markers. For example:

- 1) α#ν*γα#? νισα#μηιμ μεβεγα#ν †y(€r4€;fyv}}v1
1s school NEG go-PT because
α#ν*γα#? τυγα#ν* ωεψα#ν*

1s sick be-PT

"I did not go to school because I was sick."

2) ωιτη-τηεψα#ν* ωεψα#-}}ν α#ν*γα#? χηα#τα# ιν*-υν*

Raining because 1s umbrella buy-PT

"Because it was raining, I bought an umbrella."

3) α#ν*γα#? α#ψαμβακ λερυν* 11|yr(€; syv}}ν1 α#ν*γα#?

α#βηε-σα#ν* συσα#ν*.

1s my job leave-PT because 1s often late.

"I lost my job because I was often late."

4) α#ν*γα#? α#ψαμβακ λερυν* 11|yr(€; syv}}ν1 α#ν*γα#?.

1s early leave-PT because 1s

ψαλικ τηγεκ τυγε-α#ν* ωεψε

a terrible head ache-PT be-PT

"I left early because I had a terrible headache."

5) α#ν*γα#? πω ποσα#ν*βα#σικ-

z}}ν τα#ν*σα#ν*τηα#ν* περα#ν*πα#.

1s bird be (PT) if sky in fly-PT.

"If I were a bird, I would fly in the sky."

6) κηυνε?? πα#τυ σιτα# ηα#ρα#? πηεμ-βα#-μυ

3s say-PT Sita soon come-NPT.

"He said that she will come soon."

7) κηυνε? ψεκ ψεκ μελαρεν 11|yr~s(€-r4€; κηυνε? κεν*-

γ#ε.

3s carefull NEG-be-PT so that 3s fall-PT.

"He was careless so that he fell."

- 8) σεπσ-ν} }ν κηυνε?? μι ηα#δυ.
Cold-as 3s fire lit-PT.
"She lit fire as it was cold."
- 9) ψαλικ ωιτη-τηε-
ψα#ν* 1|γρ~s(εr4€;1 α#ν*γα#? χηα#τα# ιν*-γυν.
heavily rain-PT 1s umbrella buy-PT.
"It was raining heavily, therefore I bought an umbrella."
- 10) κεσα#κπα# ψα#μβοκ 11~ν€ζογυν-
z}}ν κυλιν*δηο μεκηοσυν.
Hard work NEG-do-NPT success NEG-get-NPT
(not) (if)
"One cannot succeed unless one works hard."
- 11) κηυνε? α#ν*γα#?€^-}}ν1 κελα#βα# ωα.
3s 1s than clever be (NPT).
"He is clever than I am."
- 12) α#βηδα#ν*βηα# μα#να#ηα#λε μεηλετυ
as men sow-NPT
κηαμδηα#ν*βα#1 μετηοκ-τυ
reap-NPT
"Men will reap, as they sow."
- 13) κρισηνα γν-||ν1 ιν*γα#? πιμ-μα# με-συκκα#ν.
Krishna as 1s jump-INF NEG-can-NEG
"I cannot jump as Krishna does."
- 14) ηα#ν*ωα# σεκ-τε-
†r4€;1 κηυνε? κοτ χηακσωα#ν* ωεψε.
hot-Although 3s coat wear-ING be-PT.

"Although it was hot, he was wearing a coat.

15) κηυνε? χηυκ-πα#-

†r4€;1 κηυνε? ψαλικ κεσικπα? ωαψε.

3s small Although 3s very strong be-
NPT.

"Although she's small she's very strong."

16) α#ν*γα#? σενδηυ-συ-r4€; υττερα#ν* μεβιρα#ν*.

1s ask although reply NEG give-PT.

"Although, I asked for, he didn't give."

17) ραμ χηυκπα#ωα# σιτα ψαμβα#? ωα.

Ram short be (NPT) Sita tall be (NPT)

"Ram is short whereas Sita is tall."

18) σηψαμ κεμβα# χηοκ ραμ τα#ν*βα# χηοκ.

Shyam tall be (NPT) Ram short be (NPT).

"Shyam is tall whereas Ram is short."

19) "μυμμα# πασαλ πε-α#ν*ωε-

} }ν α#νι μυνχηαιτ ομιχηηι πεγιγε"

Mother shop go-PT while 1p movie see go-PT.

"While mother went shopping, we went to see a movie."

20) Ραμ πασαλ πεγα#ν*ωε-} }ν κηυνε? κυνσα μυνχηαιτ

Ram shop go-PT-while his sister a movie

ομιχηηε πε - α#ν* - ωε.

see go-PT.

"While Ram went shopping, his sister went to (see) a movie."

21) α#νι α#σιρα#τηα#ν* τιλιν*γα# μανα# α#νιηιμ σενδι
κ -

1p like police man our house

να#μδηα#τα# ομιτυ-ρα ωα.

Tonight visit -NPT.

"A policeman who we like is visiting our house tonight."

22) κηυνε? πηεν - €r4€;1 α#ν*γα#? πα#κηα# πεκα#.

3s come-NPT-after 1s out go-NPT.

"After he comes, I will go out."

23) νυβα# μεκηεπσυ- r4€; ηα#λεν

φαβα#πη μεκηεπσυν.

Carefull listen-PT-eventhough No one reply NEG-near-
NEG

"No one heard the answer, eventhough all were listening carefully."

24) κηυνε? πηεν(€r4€;1 σιτα-λε ηα#ρα# λερυ.

3s arrive-PT Sita-ERG early leave-PT.

"Since he arrived, she left early."

25) κηενε? r4tzi κεσιρα#δηα#ν* α#ν*γα#? κηαψο κε-τ-να#.

You where like-PT 1s there reach-NPT.

"I shall reach there, whereas you like."

26) κηαν μενχηηυμα# 1yr4}v€ κεσα#πα# ηετα#ν*βα# ω
α.

girl whose pen red be(NPT).

"She is a girl whose pen is red."

27) δηαρα#ν* κεψυν*-sr411 α#μπηυ ιν*γεν.

Dharan live-PM/PNM brother my.

"He is my brother who lives in Dharan."

28) κυλα#v*-εγε-Sr4l ταβλε ιv*-γεv.

Leg-break-PM/PNM table my

"The table which is broken leg is mine."

29) τηονυσο ποσα#€; r4€l ιv*γα#? τα#κπηα# λερυ.

Confusion be-PT 1s room leave-PT.

"Covered with confusion, I left the room."

30) ιv*κηα#v* κηεμ-~r# κηυνε? ηα#ρα?# λερυ.

News hear-INF 3s early leave (PT)

"To hear the news, she left early."

31) νυβα#-α#v* τηαπηεμβα#-α#v* α#πηελλεσα#v**.

Right wrong always

κηυνε? κηεζεκ χηοκ.

3s worst comes off

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

32) τυμμε-}}v1 κηα# ιπηαλ κυζακενυβα# πον*.

Ripe when apple delicious be (NPT)

"When ripe, these apples will be delicious."

33) κηενε? κεβεκ χr...r: α#v*γα#? μεβεγα#v*.

2s go if 1s NEG-go-NEG.

"I will not go if you go."

The sentences given above show that the Limbu language has subordinators. In the sentence (1), ‘†yr€r4€;fyv-}}v’ is the subordinator because it makes the subordinate clause such as ‘†yr€r4€;fyv-}}v ανγα# τυγα#v* ωεψα#v*’ of the matrix clause

α#ν*γα#? νισα#μηιμ μεβεγα#ν. Here ‘tyr(€r4€; fyv-}}v’ has occurred in **clause initial position**.

However, in Limbu most of the subordinators occur as in **clause final** position of the subordinate clause. In the sentence (5) '-z}}v8lis the subordinator which occurs in the clause final position of the subordinate clause such as "ανγα# πυ: ποσα#ν* βα#σικι-}}v". It is the subclause of the matrix clause 'τα#ν*σα#ν*τηα#ν* περα#ν*βα#.'

The rest of 'subordiantors' in the sentences (5 to 33) are presented below along with their English equivalent subordinators.

Limbu Subordinators with their English equivalents

Limbu Subordinators	English Subordinators
πηε/βηειλλε, τηψα#ν*πηελλε	Because
-ιλλε	Because, if when
-γαρα, -ιλλε	If
-σελλε, -βα#, ηεκκε	As
κηαμβψα#ν*/ηαμβψα#ν*	So that, therefore
-νυλλε	Than
-σα#ν*, -συα#ν*, -α#ν*	Although, eventhough
-α#ν*	After, since
-ιλλε	While
ηα#λεν	Whose
κηα#νεν	Whom
-πα#/-βα#, -βεν	Who, which
με...-ιλλε	Unless
α#τι	Whereas

Identification and Analysis of Subordination in the Limbu language

The subordinations which are identified in the Limbu language are given as follows:

Full clause

The subordinate clause which has its own subject and its own finite verb is called full a clause. It is found in the Limbu language. For example;

- 34) κηυνε? υυ-γ4€; κηυνε? ηα#ρα# λερυν*
3s arrive-PT 3s early leave-PT

"Since he arrived, she left early."

- 35) α#ν*γα#? ψα#ν*-εν ηοπτ-Ϸγ4€; μυνχαιτ αμεχηι
1s money L.NEG movie see
πεκμα# μενσυκπα#
go:INF NEG can

"Since I have no money, I cannot go to see the movie."

In the sentences given above (34, 35) both subclauses get their own subjects and own finite verb. In the sentence (34), 'κηυνε? υυ-γ4€*' is the subclause of the matrix clause 'κηυνε? ηα#ρα# λερυν*'. And in the sentence (35), α#ν*γα#? ψα#ν*-εν ηοπτ-γ4€*' is the subclausue of the matrix clause 'μυνχαιτ αμεχηι.πεκμα# μενσυκπα#'. Thus, in the Limbu language the subordinator 'α#ν*' occurs in the **final position** of the subordinate clause.

Relative Clause (Full clause)

In Limbu, -sr4@sv€ are the perfect markers or prenominalized markers which make the process of relativization. Hence, prenominalized relative clauses are found in Limbu which function as subordinate clause. It is the characteristics of the most Tibeto-burman languages. For example:

36) δηαραν ο κεψυv*-sv€1 α#μβηυ ιv*γα#-ιvρο.

Dhanan in. Live PM/PNM brother my be (NPT).

"He is my brother who lives in Dharan."

37) κυλα#v* κεψεκ-fγ4 σα#πτεv*-vιv ιv*α#ιvρο.

Leg break PM/PNM table my be (NPT)

"The tale which is broken leg is mine."

38) α#v*γα#? εχχηα# τεv* |γr4€v€ κεμβα# ωαψε.

1s friend meet PT that tall be (PT).

"I met a friend that was tall."

39) κηυνε? α#μβηα# κηα# μεvχηυμα ηα#λε καλαμεv

3s girl whose pen

red be-NPT

ηετα#v*βα# χηοκ.

40) α#v*γα#? μ↔vα#v κυσιν*vιτυv* |γr4€v€11 σα#πλαν

1s man know PET whom book

κιβιρυ-α#v* ωαψε.

Give PT be (PT).

"I know the man to whom you loaned the book to".

41) r4†z κηενε κεςιρα# τηαν* κηαμυ κεννα#.

Where 2s like there reach.

"I shall reach there where as you like."

In the sentence (36) given above, 'δηαραν ο κεψυν*-sv€ α#μβηυ' is the subclause (relative clause) of the sentence 'δηαραν ο κεψυν*-βεν α#μβηυ ιν*γα#-ινο'. Because, it is the **premodifying clause** of the N or NP (i.e. α#μβηυ). Sentence (37) also reveals the same kind of relative clause such as 'κυλα#ν* εψεκ-φρ# σα#πτεν*-νιυ'. It is also **premodifying clause** of the N or NP (i.e. σα#πτεν). It is noteworthy that the Limbu **verb suffix** such as -sv:€ and -φρ# are the perfective marker of prenominalized markers and function as subordinators.

However, in some cases, the **post modifying clause** (relative clause) can be found in Limbu. In the sentence (38), '|yr4€v€ κεμβα# ωαψε' is the subclause of the sentence 'α#ν*γα#? ιχηηα# τευ* κηα#νεν κεμβα# ωαψε' and the '|yr4€v€' is subordinator which post modifies the N or NP (i.e. ιχηηα#).

Similarly, 'yr4}v', '|yr4€v€' and 'r4‡z' in the sentences (39), (40) and (41), are the relative pronouns respectively that make the relative clause (subclause). Here 'yr4}v' and '|yr4€v€' occur as post modifying clause and 'r4‡z' occurs as **premodifying clause**.

-ed clause

In Limbu ed-clause is marked by the presence of –ed verb form at the final of the subordinate clause; in clause final position. For example,

- 42) τηονυψο ποσα#v*-r4€; ιν*γα#? τα#κπηα# λερυ.
 Confusion cover -PT 1s room leave-PT.
 "Covered with confusion, I left the room."
- 43) ταπηεμβα# ιν*ηαν* κηεπσυ-
 r4€;= κηυνε? ηα#ρα# λερυ.
 Bad news shock PT 3s early leave-PT.
 Shocked by the news, she left early."
- 44) εμβηψα#v* α#μμε-}}v= χ#αν λεκτεβα# νιδε.
 This angle Look-PT colour change seem-NPT.
 Locked at from this angle, the colours seems to change.
- 45) κηυνε? νυ τα#χεσα#v*-
 }}v=1 α#δυκν*α νιν*ωα μυσυν*.
 Him with talk-PT my dukha forget -PT.
 "Talked with him, I forgot my sorrow."
- 46) ε πηοτο α#μμε-}}v= α#μβηυ ιτυν*.
 Photo look-PT brother remember-NPT.
 "Looked at this photo, I remember by brother.

In the sentences (42) and (43), we can see that 'r4€;' is the -ed verb form. Here 'r€;' in 'f, †r4€; r4€' and in 'κηεπσυr4€*' is the -ed verb form which has occurred as in the **final position** of the subordinate clauses such as 'τηονυψο ποσα#€; r4€' and 'ταπηεμβα# ιν*ηαν κηεπσυr4€; ?'

Similarly, '-}}v' in (44), and in (45), and '-}}v' in (46) are the -ed verb forms in Limbu which makes the -ed clause (subclauses).

-ing Clause

In Limbu, the -ing verb form occurs in clause final position of the subordinate clause. For example;

47) τα#κπηα# λερυν-...r= κηυνε? γυνδρι τηο λοκτε.
 room leave-ING 3s mat on tripe-PT.

"Leaving the room, he tripped on over the mat.

48) ιν*κηαν* κηεπσυ-...r1 κηυνε? ηα#ρα# λερυ.
 News hear-ING 3s early leave-PT.

"Hearing the new, he left early."

49) να#σε-...r1 ραμ ηα#ρα# λομπηι-μυ πε.
 Tire-ING Ram early bed-to go-PT.

"Feeling tired, Ram went to bed early!

50) χιτηι κηυσυ-...r, κηυνε? σα#ρι σα#τε.
 Letter receive-ING 3s very happy.

"On receiving the letter, she was very happy."

In the sentences (47, 48, 49, 50), '-ra' appears as in the -ing verb form in clause final position of the -ing clause. In the sentence (47), 'τα#κπηα# λερυν-; ...r' is the -ing clause or subclause of the matrix clause 'κηυνε? γυνδρι τηο λοκτε '

Similarly 'zε;xyr4ε;1|yvft^~...r', 'εr4tv~...r' ανδ 'tztyz1|y, t^~...r' are the -ing clauses or subordinate clauses in Limbu because they depend upon the matrix clause.

Absolute clause

Absolute clause can be defined as much like the -ing clause, however it begins with a **pronoun** in the genitive or objective case that seems to function as the **subject** of the '**-ing verb**'. It can be found in Limbu, for example;

51) |y[^]εvP1-zε;1 ιv*ηαν κηεπσυ-...r, ηα#ρα# λερυ.
Her news hear-ING early leave-PT.

"Her hearing the news, she left early."

52) |y[^]εvP1-zε1 τα#κπηα# λερυv*-...r, γυvδρι τηo λοκτε.
His room leave-ING mat on tripe-PT.

"His leaving the room, he tripped on over the mat."

53) |y[^]εvP1-zε1 να#σε...r, ραμ ηα#ρα# λοπηι-μυ πε.
His tire-ING Ram early bed to to-PT.

"His feeling tired, Ram went to bed early."

54) |y[^]εvP1-zε1 χιτηι κηoσυ-...r= σα#ρι σα#τε.
Her letter receive-ING very happy.

"Her receiving the letter, she was very happy."

The phenomena of absolute clause is very close to -ing clause. In the sentences (51, 52, 53, 54) the -ing clause begins with the pronoun (i.e. |y[^]εvP1-zε;) as genitive or objective case and it seems to be subject of the -ing verb. Here, the 'μορπηεμε' '**in**' of the 'κηυνε-zε' is Limbu genitive case marker. Then, in the sentence (51), '|y[^]εvP1-zε1zε; yrε;1|yvft[^]-...r' is the absolute clause of "|y[^]εvP1-zε ιv*ηαν* κηεπσυ-ρα ηα#ρα# λερυ". Similarly, '|y[^]εvP1zε1tr|fεr41}v...ε1-...r' in (52), '|y[^]εvP1-zε1εr tv-...r' in (53) and '|y[^]εvP1-zε1tztyz1|y, t[^]-...r' in (54) are absolute clauses.

Infinite clause

In Limbu, the Infinite verb form (i.e. -μα#) occurs in clause final position of the Infinite clauses. For example;

55) ιν*κηαν*-εν κηεμ--r41 κηυνε? ηα#ρα# λερυ.
News near-INF 3s early leave-PT.

"To hear the news, she left early."

56) εμβηψα#ν* ψυκνα# χηοκ--r41
ηα#ρα# κυσιν* νιττε.

In this way behaviour behave-INF early understandable.

"To behave in this way, is understandable."

57) ιν*γα#? νιν*σα#ν* χηογυν* τα4--r4?
1s hope presented-INF.

"I hope to be present."

58) κερεκ μαναηα# μεπ--r#σιβενε νυβα# πα#ν πον*.
Everybody tell-INF best theme be-PT.

"The best theme would be for you to tell everybody."

59) ηα#ν*σιν* νισα#μηιμ σεπνυμινσα#--r41 α#νι
Campus join 1p
νεχηι-ψεν τα#γα#ν* πηενε
two days come-PT.

"To join the campus, we came two days before."

60) κηε--r4 νυβα# μεν.
Quarrel-INF good NEG

"Is it not good to quarrel."

In the sentences (55 to 60), the Limbu infinite marker is ‘-~r’ which helps to form the infinite clauses (i.e. subordinate clause).

ιν*ηα#ν*εν κηεμ-~r1ν (55), εμβηψα#ν* ψυκνα# χηοκ -
 ~r41ν (56), τα# -
 ~r# 1ν (57), κερεκ μαναηα#ηα# μεπμα#σιβενε 1ν (58), ηα#ν*σιν νισα#
 μημ σεπηυμιν σα# --r4 1ν (59)ανδ κηε --r41ν (60) are infinite clauses in Limbu.

Verbless Clause

There is a lack of any verb form in the verbless clauses. In Limbu, there can be found such kind of verbless clauses. For example;

61) νυβα#σα#ν* τηαπηεμπα#σα#ν* α# πηε-λλεσα#ν*
 Right wrong always
 κηυνε? κηεζοκ χηοκ.
 3s worst in comes off Argument

"Whether right or wrong, he always comes off worse in argument."

62) πα#νεν νυκμα# κισψα#ν κηαμβεκ-
 με νυμμερα αμετυ
 Reply say, to nervous floor at stare-PT.

"Too nervous to reply, he stared at the floor."

63) σμβυν κεμβα# ποκσα#ν* α#νιψαλι σα#μμβικ-
 κηυμβα# α#κηοσυμ.
 Tree tall being we more shade get-
 NPT.

"With the tree now tall, we get more shade."

64) τυμμε-}}v1 κηα# α#ιφαλ κυζα#κε-νυβα# πον*.

Ripe when apple delicious be-NPT.

"When ripe, these apples will be delicious."

65) νυσυμ συμσι μαναηα# μεηυμψα#ν μεσεψεβα# ~vŠr

4111 κηα#νηαυ#νυ

seventy three people drown die

ψαλιζασο ηινζα#πιχηηα# ~vŠr4?

Many children be-PT.

"Seventy three people have been drowned in the area, many of them children."

In the sentence (61), €^ˆsr4†r4€;1†yrfyv~fr4†r4€; is the verbless clause (subclause) of the sentence,

"€^ˆsr4†r4€;1†yrfyv~fr4†r4€;=α#πηελλεσα#ν*

κηυνε?

κηεζοκ χηοκ." Similarly, in the sentence (64), 'τυμμε-λλε' is the verbless clause of the sentence " τυμμε-}}v κηα# α#ιφαλ κυζα#κε-νυβα# πον*."

Then, we can find **verbless clauses** in Limbu.

3.3 Similarities and Differences between the subordination of the Limbu and English languages

3.3.1 Full Clause

In Limbu, full clause can occur as subordinate clause, similar to English. For example;

a) 'κηυνε? νυ-r4€;1 κηυνε? ηα#ρα# λερυν*.'

3s arrive-PT 3s early leave-PT.

b) 'ινγα#? ψα#ν*ν€ ηοπτψ-

α#ν* μονχαιτ αμιχηι πεκμα# μενσυκπα#'

1s money L.NEG movie see go-INF NEG can
NEG.

"Since I have no money, I cannot go to see the movie.

Here, '|y^€νP11€^-r4€;' in the sentence (a) and 'z€;xr4P1(Er4€;-
1v€1y, f†-1^r4€;' in the sentence (b) are subordinate clauses (full clause).
Because, they have certain tense agreement. But the difference is that the
verb suffix 'r4€;' can have both roles of **past marker** and **subordinator** in
Limbu whereas there is **initial subordinator** 'since' in English. Similarly,
the subordinator of the Limbu occurs as in **final position** of the full clause or
subclause but English subordinators occur as in **initial position** of the full
clause or subclause.

3.3.2 Relative Clause

Relative clauses can be found in both Limbu and English. But, the
process of relativization is different. In Limbu, originally, **premodifying**
relative clauses are found except in some cases. But, in English, the relative
clause often occurs as **post modifying** relative clause. For example;

a) δηαραν ο κεψυον*-1sv€ α#μβηυ ιν*γα#? ιν-ρο.

Dhan in live-PM/PNM brother my be-NPT.

'He is my brother who lives in Dharan.'

b) κυλα#ν* κεψεκ-*fr4*1111111 σαπτεν- νιν ιν*α# ινρο.

Leg break-PM/PNM table my be-NPT.

'The table which is broken leg is mine.'

c) κηυνε? α#μβηα# κηα# μενχηυμα# γr4}νl καλαμεν

ηετα#ν*γβα# χηοκ.

3s girl whose. Pen red

be-NPT

'She is a girl whose pen is red.'

d) α#ν*γα#? ιχχηα τεν* 1|γr4€ν€1 κεμβα# ωα#ψε.

1s friend meet-PT that tall be-PT.

'I met a friend that was tall.'

Or

α#ν*γα#? τεν*-sr4 ι↔χχηα# κεμβα# ωα#ψε.

I meet-PM/PNM friend tall be-PT.

In the sentence a) 'δηαρα#ν ο κεψυν*-sv€ α#μβηυ' is the **premodifying** relative clause of N or NP (α#μβηυ) and occurs as subclause or relative clause of the matrix clause 'ινγα# ινρο'. Here, 'sv€' is the perfect marker or nominal marker which makes the nominalized clause (i.e. relative clause).

Similarly, '|^}r4€;1|v€v|fr41tr4f†v€z€' is the premodifying relative clause of N or NP (sapten) and occurs as subclause or relative clause of the matrix clause 'ιν*α#ινρο'. Here 'fr4' is the perfect marker or nominal marker which makes the Nominalized clause (i.e. relative clause in the sentence. (b).

However, in the sentence (c) 'κηυνε? α#μβηα# κηα# μενχηυμα# γρ4}ν' is the **postmodifying** relative clause of N or NP (μενχηυμα#) and occurs as subclause of καλαμεν ηετα#ν*βα# χηοκ. Here 'γρ4}ν' is the relative pronoun which makes the postmodifying relative clause in Limbu.

In the sentence (d), both process of relativization (i.e. pre or post modifying) is possible. But the relative pronoun 'κηα#νεν' is very less used by the Limbu speaker in making relative clauses. So originally, Limbu speaker use the **renominalized marker** such as '-sr4' in 'α#ν*γα#? τεν*sr# ιχχηα#'. Therefore, English pronoun 'that' is not same in Limbu in making the relative clause or subordinate clause.

3.3.3 –ed clause

-ed clause can be found in both English and Limbu. The –ed verb form occurs at the final position of the subordinate clause in Limbu whereas it occurs at the **beginning** of the subordinate clause in English. For example.

a) τηονυσο ποστρ4€; ρ4€1 ιν*γα?# τα#κπηα# λερυ.

Confusion cover-PT 1s room leave-PT.

'Covered with confusion, I left the room.'

- b) ταπηεμβα# ιν*ηαν* κηεπσυ-
 ρ4€;≠ κηυνε? ηα#ρα# λερυ.
 Bad news shock-PT 3s early leave-PT.
 'Shocked by the news, she left early.'
- c) εμβηαψα#ν* α#μμε-}}ν χα#ν λεκτεβα# νιδε.
 From this angle look-PT colour change seem.
 'Looked at form this angle, the colours seem to change.'
- d) ε πηοτο α#μμε-}}ν ,α#μβηυ ιτυν*.
 this photo look-PT brother remember-PT.
 'Looked at this photo, I remember my brother.'

In the sentence (a) 'α#ν*' is the -ed verb form which has occurred at the final position of the subclause such as 'τηονυ-ψο ρ4€; ρ4€'. It is the subclause of the matrix clause 'ιν*γα#? τα#κπηα λερυ'.

Similarly, in the sentence b) '-ρ4€;' (-ed verb form) occurs at the **final position** of the subordinate clause (i.e. ταπηεμβα# ιν*ηαν* κηεπσυ-α#ν*). The sentences (c and d) also have -ed verb form (i.e. -ille) which makes the -ed clauses occurring in the **final position** of the clauses. But in English -ed verb form often occurs at the **initial position** of the subclause.

3.3.4 -ing clause

-ing clauses are found in both Limbu and English. But the position of -ing verb forms of those languages are different. In Limbu, the -ing verb form occurs in the **clause final position** whereas in English, it occurs in the **initial position** of the subclause or -ing clause. For example;

- a) τα#κπηα# λερυν*...r4= κηυνε? γυνδρι τηο λοκτε.
 Room leave-ING 3s mat on tripe-PT.
 'Leaving the room, he left early.'
- b) ιν*κηαν* κηεπσυ-...r κηυνε? ηα#ρα# λερυ.
 News hear-ING 3s early leave-PT.
 'Hearing the news, he left early.'
- c) να#σε-...r= ραμ ηα#ρα# λομπηιμυ πε.
 Tire-ING Ram early bed to go-PT.
 'Feeling tired, Ram went to bed early.'
- d) χιτηι κηοσυ-...r κηυνε? σα#ρι σα#τε.
 Letter receive-ING 3s very be-PT happy.
 'On receiving the letter, she was very happy.'

In Limbu, the verb suffix '-...r' is the '-ing' verb form which is found in the sentences above such as (a) λερυν*-**ra** (b) κηεπσυ-...r (c) να#σε-...r and (d) κηοσυ-...r? These -ing verb forms make the **-ing clauses** occurring at the **final position** of the -ing clauses (sub clause). Here, '†r4|fy r4}v...^ε; -...r' in (a), 'zε|yr4ε;1|yv f†^ -...r4' in (b) 'εr†v-...r' in (c) and 'tz†y z1|y, †^ -...r' in (d) are -ing clauses. In English, the -ing verb form often occurs at the **clause initial position**.

3.3.5 Absolute Clause

Absolute clauses are found in both English and Limbu. The position of pronoun occurring at the subclause or absolute clause is not different in both languages.

For example;

- a) |y[^]€vP1-z€;1 ιν*ηαν* κηεπσυ-ρα ηα#ρα# λερυ.
 Her news hear-ING early leave-PT.
 "Her hearing news, she left early."
- b) |y[^]€vP1-z€;1 τα#κπηα# λερυν*-ρα, γυνδρι το λοκτε.
 His room leave-ING mat on leave-PT.
- c) |y[^]€vP1z€11 νασερα, Ραμ ηα#ρα# λομπηιμυ πε
 His tire-ING Ram early bed to go-PT.
 "His feeling tired, Ram went to bed early."

In the sentences (a,b,c), '|y[^]€vP1z€' is the Limbu personal pronoun in which 'in' is the **genitive** or **objective case marker** and also seems subject of the -ing verb (i.e. κηεπσυ-...r). Then absolute clause can be found in Limbu as English.

3.3.6 Infinite Clause

Infinite clauses are found in both Limbu and English. However, the position of **infinite verbform** is different. In Limbu, the **infinite verb form** occurs in **clause final position** of the infinite clauses (subclause) whereas, the **infinite verb form** occurs in **clause initial position** in English. For example;

- a) ιν*κηαν*-εν κηεμ-~r4 κηυνε? ηα#ρα# λερυ.
 News hear-INF 3s early leave-PT.
 'To hear the news, she left early.'

- b) εμβηψα#ν* ψυκνα# χοκ-
 ~r4l1l ηα#ρα# κυσιν*νιττε.
 In this way behaviour behave-INF early understandable.
 'To behave in this way, is understandable.'
- c) ιν*γα# νιν-†r4€;1 χηογυν* τα#μα#.
 1s hope present-INF.
 'I hope to be present.'
- d) κερεκ μανα#-ηα# μεπ-
 ~r4σιβενε νυβα# πα#ν πον*.
 3p tell-INF best theme be-NPT.
 'The best theme would be for you to tell everybody.'
- e) ηα#ν*σιν*νισα#μηιμ σεπνυ μινσα-#~r4l α#νι
 Campus join-INF 1p
 νεχηι-ψεν τα#γα#ν* πηενε
 Two days come-PT.
- f) κηε-μα# νυβα# μεν.
 Quarrel-INF good NEG.
 'It is not good to quarrel.'

In the sentences (a) to (f) above '-~r4' is the infinite verb form which occurs at the **final position** of the **infinite clause** (subclause). Then, z€; |yr€; -v€1l|yv~~r4 in (a), v~sy€r4€;1€^|yr1ty, |~r4lin (b), ty, x^€;1†r4~r4lin (c), |v...v|1~ryryr4l~vf~r1†zsv-€vlin (d), yr4€; †z€; €z†r4yz~1†vf€^1~z€†r4f~r4 in (e), |yv~r4lin (f) are **infinite clauses**. But it occurs at the **initial position** of the infinite clauses (subclauses) in English.

3.3.7 Verbless Clauses

Verbless clauses can be found both in Limbu and English. However, when we replace verbless clauses of English, there can be verb form in the Limbu language. For example;

- a) ν*υβα#σα#ν* τηαπηεμβα#σα#ν* α#πηελλεσα#ν* κηυνε?
 κηεζοκ χοκ
 Right wrong always 3s worst comec
 (in argument off)

'Whether right or wrong, he always comes off worse in argument.'

- b) πα#νεν νυκμα# κισψαν κηαμβεκμε νυμμερ αμετυ.
 Reply say-ING floor at stare-PT.

'Too nervous to reply, he stared at the floor.'

- c) σιμβυν* κεμβα# ποκσα#ν* α#νι ψαλι σα#μμαβικ -
 κηυμβα# α#κηοσυμ
 Tree tall be-PT we more shade
 get-NPT.

'With the tree now tall, we get more shade.'

- d) τυμμε-} }ν κηα# α#ιπηαλ κυφακενυβα# πον*.
 Ripe-when apple delicious be-NPT.

'When ripe, these apples will be delicious.'

- e) νυσυμ συμσι μανα#ηα# μεηυμψα#ν μεσεψεβα# με-
 ωα κηανναηυ
 Seventy three people drown-PT die be-PT
 ψαλιζασο ηινζα# πιχηα# -vŠr?!
 many children be-PT.

'Seventy three people have been drowned in the area, many of them children.'

In the sentence (a), the verbless clause is '€^sr44†r4€;†tyrf€v~sr4†r4€;' as subordinate clause of the matrix clause 'α#πηελλε σα#v* κηυνε? κηεζοκ χηοκ'.

But in the sentence (e) '€r}z' r†,lyz€' r4fztyr41~vŠr' is the subclause of the matrix clause 'νασυμ συμισι μανα#ηα# μεηυμψα#v μεσεψεβα# ~vŠr4'. Here '~vŠr4' is the past form of 'be' verb which has occurred where as there is no any verb form in the English (i.e. many of them children). This is the interesting opposite relation between these two languages. Therefore, there can be a verb form in Limbu when we replace the **verbless clauses** of English.

CHAPTER FOUR

FINDINGS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This chapter is classified into two parts findings and recommendations. After analyzing and interpreting the data, some findings are drawn. On the basis of the research, some recommendations are also discussed.

Findings

The major findings of this research are as follows:

Subordinators determined in the Limbu Language

- i. The following are the subordinators found in the Limbu language:

-λλε, πηε-λλε/βηε-λλε, -α#ν*, κηαμ-ψα#ν*, -σελλε, -
νυλλε, ελλε/ιλλε, βα#,

ηεκκε, -σα#ν*, -συα#ν*, δηαρ#ν*, ηα#λεν, -α#ν*α#ν, -μα#, -
γαρα:,
- ii. Generally, subordinators occur in the clause final position of the subordinate clause in Limbu.
- iii. Verb suffix or perfect marker -βα#/-βεν also occur as subordinating markers or subordinators. These also function as perfective marker or prenominal markers.

Subordination identified in the Limbu Language

- i. The full clause can be found as subordinate clause in Limbu but the subordinating markers generally occur in clause final position.
- ii. Limbu has the premodifying clause of the N or NP of the subclause (relative clause)
- iii. In Limbu, -ed clause is marked by the presence of –ed verb form at the final of the subordinate clause, in clause final position.
- iv. The –ing verb form occurs at the final position of Limbu subordinate clause.

- v. Absolute clauses are found in Limbu.
- vi. In Limbu, the Infinite verb form occurs in clause final position of the infinite subordinate clause.
- vii. Verbless clauses can be found in Limbu but, when we replace verbless clauses of English, there can be verb form in the Limbu language.

Similarities between the Subordination of Limbu and English

- i. Finite and non-finite subordinate clauses are found both in Limbu and English.
- ii. Full clause can occur as subclause in both languages.
- iii. The relative clauses can occur as subclauses in both languages.
- iv. –ed clause can be found both in the Limbu and English languages.
- v. In both languages, -ing verb form makes the -ing clauses as subordinate clauses.
- vi. Absolute clauses are found in both English and Limbu. The position of pronoun (i.e. genitive or objective) occurring before the -ing verb form is same in both languages.
- vii. It is the infinite verb that makes the infinite clause. The infinite verb form can occur as subclause in both languages.
- viii. The term 'verbless' itself identifies what it is. There is no any verb form in the verbless clauses. These clauses can occur as subordinate clause both in Limbu and English.
- ix. The verb plays an important role in making the subordinate clauses in both the languages.

Differences between the Subordination of Limbu and English

- i. Although, there are finite and non-finite subordinate clauses both in Limbu and English, the process of subordination is different.
- ii. Full clause can occur in both languages. However, the 'verb suffix' can have both roles of past marker and subordinating marker in Limbu whereas there is initial signal or item of subordinators in English.
- iii. Although, both the Limbu and English have relative clauses, the process of relativization is different. The premodifying relative clauses are found in Limbu whereas post modifying relative clauses are found in English.
- iv. Although –ed clause can be found in both languages –ed verb form occurs at the final position of the subordinate clause in the Limbu whereas it occurs at the beginning of the subordinate clause in English.
- v. In Limbu, the -ing verb form occurs in the clause final whereas, in English, it occurs in the initial position of the clause (i.e. subclause or -ing clause).
- vi. The infinite verbform occurs in clause final position of infinite clauses (i.e. sub clause) in Limbu whereas, the infinite verb form occurs in clause initial position in English.
- vii. Verbless clauses can be found in both languages. However, when we replace verbless clauses of English, there can be verb form in the Limbu language.

Recommendation and Pedagogical Implication

On the basis of the findings listed above the researcher recommends the following points for pedagogical implications.

Recommendations for Language Teachers Teaching English to the Limbu Native Speakers

- i. English subordinators occur in clause initial position whereas Limbu subordinators occur in clause final position of the subordinate clause. So, the Limbu native speaker should be made aware of this fact by giving enough examples of the subordinators used in the English clauses.
- ii. The verb suffix can occur as a subordinator in making full clause (sub clause) in Limbu. But there are initial subordinators which make the full clause (sub clause) in English. So, the teacher who is teaching English as a second language to the Limbu native speakers should emphasize this difference and teach them by providing sufficient exercises while teaching full clause (sub clause).
- iii. The postmodifying relative clauses (subordinate clause) are found in English but mostly premodifying relative clauses are found in Limbu. So, the teacher should give the concept of post-modifying and premodifying relative clauses and make the learners careful in order to prevent the mother tongue interference.
- iv. The -ed verb form of the -ed clause, the -ing verb form of -ing clause and infinite verb form of infinite clause occur as in clause initial position of the English. But these verb forms occur as in clause final position in Limbu. Regarding this reality, the teacher should teach Limbu native speakers with enough illustrations.
- v. The verbless clauses can be found in both English and Limbu. However, when we replace the verbless clauses of English, there can be verb form in Limbu. This interesting opposite relation should be

illustrated by the teacher while teaching the verbless clauses (subordinate clause) to the Limbu native speakers.

Recommendations for Language Teachers Teaching Limbu to the English Native Speakers.

- i. Limbu subordinators occur in clause final position of the subordinate clause. But the English subordinators occur in clause initial position of the subordinate clause. By highlighting this difference, English student's consciousness can be raised in teaching Limbu subordinators. This is important for language teachers who are teaching Limbu as a second language.
- ii. Originally, Limbu has the premodifying clause of the N or NP of the subordinate (relative) clause whereas English has often postmodifying relative clauses. So, the language teacher teaching Limbu should be aware of this fact.
- iii. In Limbu, the -ed verb form, the -ing verb form and infinite verb form occurs in clause final position. But the verb forms occur in clause initial position in English. So, the teacher teaching Limbu as a second language should be conscious of this fact.
- iv. Limbu verb suffix can occur as both perfect marker and subordinator. This phenomena of the form does not occur in the case of English. So the teacher teaching the Limbu language should be conscious of this matter.
- v. Subordination is found in both Limbu and English. But the process of subordination is different. So language teachers who teach Limbu should keep it in mind.

- vi. There can be verb form in Limbu subordinate clauses, when we substitute the verbless subordinate clause of English. So, this research is significant for the language teacher teaching Limbu to English Native speakers.

Finally, the researcher hopes this work will provide detailed information about the Limbu and English subordinations and it will help the teacher to teach the process of subordination in both languages. This work also will be helpful to the course designers to design the courses of both languages. Limbu subordination is different from English subordination. Subordination itself is a very complex area in grammar since many aspects should be taken care of while dealing with subordination in a language such as subordinators, finite clause, full clause, relative clause, non-finite clause, -ed clause, -ing clause, absolute clause, infinite clause verbless clause. So the researcher hopes that further researches will be carried out on subordination in the Limbu language concerning other aspects.

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Appendix – I

ROMAN TRANSLITERATION OF DEVANAGARI SCRIPT

Based on Turner's (1931) Nepali Alphabet and Diacritic Marks.

Nepali Alphabet	Roman Transliteration	Nepali Alphabet	Roman Transliteration
अ	α	ञ	v)
आ	α#	ट	τ
इ	ι	ठ	τη
ई	ι#	ड	δ
उ	υ	ढ	δη
ऊ	υ#	ण	v
ऋ	ρ	त्	τ
ए	ε	थ	τη
ऐ	αι	द्	δ
ओ	ο	ध	δη
औ	αυ	न्	v
अँ	αμ, αν	प्	π
अं	α)	फ्	πη
:	η	ब्	β
क्	κ	भ्	βη
ख्	κη	म्	μ
ग्	γ	य्	ψ
घ्	γη	र्	ρ
ङ्	v	ल्	λ
च्	χ	व्	ω/ω
छ्	χη	श्	σ
ज्	φ	ष्	σ
झ्	φη	स्	σ
		ह्	η

Note

- a) In the study, v* is used instead of Turner's v.

Appendix-II
Interview Schedule

This interview questionnaire has been prepared to draw information for the Research Work entitled "**Subordination in Limbu and English: A Comparative Study**" which is being carried out under the guidance of **Dr. Anjana Bhattarai**, Central Department of English Language Education, Faculty of Education, T.U., Kirtipur. The researcher hopes that your cooperation will be a great contribution to this research work.

Thank you.

Sakindra Kumar Limbu
Tribhuvan University

General Information of Respondent:

Name (opt.):

VDC:

District:

Ward No:

Sex: Male/Female

Age:

How do you say the following sentences in Limbu?

English Subordinators:

1) I didn't go to school because I was sick.

.....

2) Because it was raining, I took my umbrella.

.....

3) Because my little sister is afraid of worms, I never take her fishing.

.....

- 4) I lost my job because I was often late.
.....
- 5) I left early because I had a terrible headache.
.....
- 6) If I were a bird, I would fly in the sky.
.....
- 7) He said that she will come soon.
.....
- 8) He was careless so that he fell.
.....
- 9) She lit fire as it was cold.
.....
- 10) It was raining heavily, therefore I bought an umbrella.
.....
- 11) One cannot succeed unless one works hard.
.....
- 12) He is cleverer than I am.
.....
- 13) Men will reap, as they sow.
.....
- 14) I cannot jump in the way Krishna does.
.....
- 15) Although it was hot, he was wearing a coat.
.....
- 16) Although she's small she's very strong.
.....

- 17) Though, I asked for, he didn't give.

- 18) Ram is short whereas Sita is tall.

- 19) Shyam is tall whereas Ram is short.

- 20) While mother went shopping, we went to a movie.

- 21) While Ram went shopping, his sister went to a movie.

- 22) A policeman who we like is visiting our house tonight.

- 23) After he comes, I will go out.

- 24) No one heard the answer even though all were listening carefully.

Finite Clause

A) Full Clause

- 27) Since he arrived, she left early.

- 28) Since I have no money, I cannot go to the movie.

B) Relative Clause

- 27) I shall reach there where as you like.

- 28) She is a girl whose pen is red.

29) He is my brother who lives in Dharan.

.....

30) The table which is broken leg is mine.

.....

Non – finite clause

"ed clause"

31) Shocked by the news, she left early.

.....

32) Covered with confusion, I left the room.

.....

33) Looked at from this angle, the colors seem to change.

.....

34) Looked at this photo I remembered my child life.

.....

35) Talked with him, I forgot my sorrow.

.....

"ing clause"

36) Leaving the room he tripped on over the mat.

.....

37) Hearing the news, he left early.

.....

38) Being a farmer, he works in a field.

.....

39) Feeling tired, Ram went to bed early.

.....

40) On receiving the letter she was very happy.

.....

"Infinite Clause"

41) To hear the news, she left early.

.....

42) To behave in this way is understandable.

.....

43) I hope to be present.

.....

44) All I did was hit him on the head.

.....

45) The best theme would be for you to tell everybody.

.....

46) Rather than John do it, I'd prefer to give the job to Marry.

.....

47) Ram went to Kathmandu to/in order to join the campus.

.....

48) To join the campus, we came two days before.

.....

49) It is not good to quarrel.

.....

"Absolute clause"

50) Her hearing the news she left early.

.....

51) Her feeling cold, she took the coffee.

.....

52) Her feeling tired she went to bed early.

.....

53) His driving style, he became popular.

.....

54) His writing style, he became famous.

.....

"Verbless Clauses"

55) Whether right or wrong, he always comes off worst in argument.

.....

56) One should avoid taking trip about in August where possible.

.....

57) Too nervous to reply he stared at the floor.

.....

58) With the tree now tall we get more shade.

.....

59) When ripe, these apples will be delicious.

.....

60) Seventy three People have been drowned in the area, many of them
children

.....

THANK YOU