CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 General Background

Language is the most commonly used tool that people use to fulfill their needs. Without language man would have remained only a dumb animal. It is our ability to communicate through words that make us different from animals. Language is the 'species-specific and species-uniform' possession of man. It is God's special gift to mankind. Language is present everywhere in our thoughts and dreams, prayers and meditations, relations and comunications, and social rites and rituals. It is also one of the distinguishing characteristics that differentiates human from non-human. On the other hand, there is not only one language in the universe that human is identified from non-human. Languge use differs from person to person, place to place, group to group, that is to say, there is not similarity in the use of language. Language has become the serious concern not only of linguists but also of philosophers, scientists and literary critics. Language is defined variously by different linguists and scholars.

"...a language is conceived of in the first place as an instrument of social interaction between human beings, used with the primary aim of establishing communicative relations between speakers and addressess..." (Dik 1978, p.1, cited in Givon 2001, p.2).

"Language is felt to be perfect symbolic system in a perfect homogenious medium, for the handling of all references and meanings that a given culture in capable"(Sapir 1921, p.8 cited in Rastogy, p.71).

Language must be regarded as organic bodies (Organische Naturkorper), formed in accordance with definite laws; bearing within themselves an internal principles of life, they develop and they gradually die out, after, no longercomprehending themselves, they discard, mutilate or misuse ...

componentsforms which were originally significant but which have gradually become relatively superficial appendages (Bopp1827, p.1,cited in Sampson 1980, p.17).

Language is a very complex phenomenon and is an 'organized noise' used in actual social situation. "A language to be a set (finite or infinite) of sentences, each finite in length and constructed out of a finite set of elements" (Chomsky 1986, p.13).

By observing the above quoted definitions of language we can say that linguists are not at one pole while defining language. For instance, Anthropologists regard language as a form of cultural behaviour, sociologists as an interaction between members of social groups , students of literature as an artistic medium, philosophers as a means of interpreting human experiences, language teachers take it as a set of skills. Truly, language is such a complex phenomenon that is to define in terms of a single level as knowledge, skill, habit, behaviour and event, or an object cannot solve the problem of its definition. Hence, instead of defining language, it would be worthwhile to understand its major characteristics. For example, interchangeability, feedback, specialization, semanticity, arbitrariness, discretness, displacement, productivity, tradition, learnability and duality of patterning. (O'Grady 1997, p.617). On the basis of its chief characteristics language may be defined as 'a patterned system of arbitrary sound symbol'.
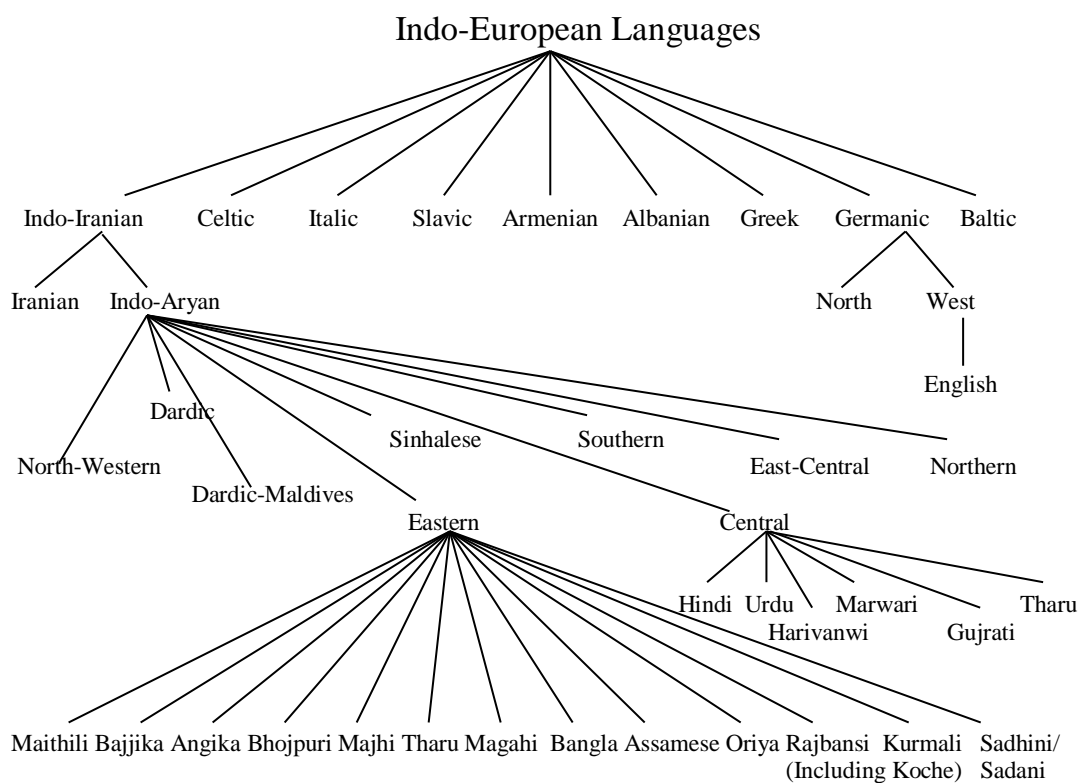
1.1.1 Genetic Affiliation

The world's languages can be grouped into a relatively small number of language families. However, genetic classification is sometimes difficult for a number of reasons. Perhaps the biggest problem is simply the amount of data that must be collected before linguists can be confident about the status of a group of languages (O'Grady 1997, p.364).

Linguists face the problem of establishing the tests or criteria to be used in proposing genetic relationships. There is some disagreement over the degree of similarity that should exist among languages before a genetic relationship can be proposed. Additional dfficulties stem from the fact that genetically related languages need not be typologically similar. This is especially true if the relationship is a distant one. Linguists also disagree as to the number of cognates that must be uncovered before a genetic relationship between languages can be established. The more distant the genetic relationship between languages, the less likely it is that a large number of obvious cognates will be found. Of course, languages which are genetically related share many similarities, particularly if their common ancestor is not too distant.
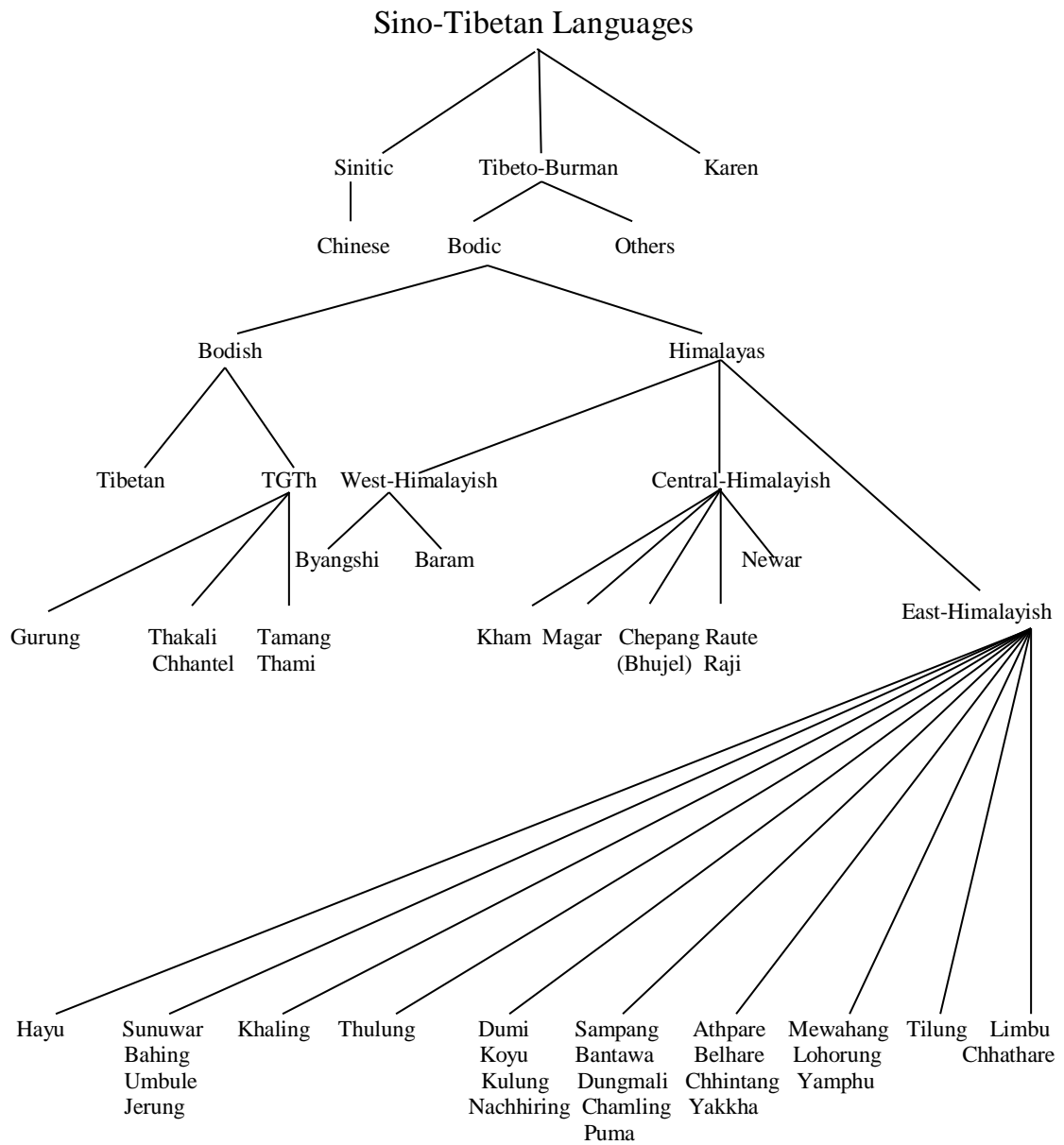
The following diagram presents some information about the make up and membership of a few of the language families represented in the world today.

Diagram No. 1

Indo-European Languages

Indo-Iranian   Celtic   Italic   Slavic   Armenian   Albanian   Greek   Germanic   Baltic

Iranian   Indo-Aryan

North   West

English

Dardic

North-Western

Sinhalese   Southern

East-Central   Northern

Dardic-Maldives

Eastern   Central

Hindi   Urdu   Marwari   Tharu

Harivanwi   Gujrati

Maithili Bajjika Angika Bhojpuri Majhi Tharu Magahi Bangla Assamese Oriya Rajbansi Kurmali Sadhini/
(Including Koche) Sadani

Source: Bradley (2002)

Diagram No. 2

Sino-Tibetan Languages

Sinitic   Tibeto-Burman   Karen

Chinese   Bodic   Others

Bodish   Himalayas

Tibetan   TGTh   West-Himalayish   Central-Himalayish   East-Himalayish

Byangshi   Baram   Newar

Gurung   Thakali   Tamang   Kham   Magar   Chepang   Raute

Chhantel   Thami   (Bhujel)   Raji

Hayu	Sunuwar	Khaling	Thulung	Dumi	Sampang	Athpare	Mewahang	Tilung	Limbu
	Bahing			Koyu	Bantawa	Belhare	Lohorung		Chhathare
	Umbule			Kulung	Dungmali	Chhintang	Yamphu		
	Jerung			Nachhiring	Chamling	Yakkha			
					Puma				

Source: Bradley (2002)

4

Diagram No. 3

Austro-Asiatic Languages

Munda   Mon-Khmer

North   South

Kharia

Kherwari   Other North

Santhali   Munda

Source: Bradley (2002)

Diagram No. 4

Dravidian Language

Central   Northern   South-Central   Southern

Kisan   Dhangar / Jhangar

Source: Bradley (2002)

1.1.2 Linguistic Scenario of Nepal

Nepal is one of the famous countries in terms of linguistic diversity. It is a multilingual, multireligious, multicultural and multiethnic country. At least more than 92 languages have been identifed in Nepal (census 2001). Due to language diversity, it is difficult to keep reciprocal relationship between the language groups. But people have different experiences on the ground. For example, from Eastern Mechi zone to Western Mahakali zone of the terai, different language groups communicate with each other by using the medium language Nepali. In the case of mountain and hilly region, the same situation can be found. When there is difficult to understand each other, people use the

Nepali language in the mountain and hilly region. It means whatever language groups we have, they are managing their problems with their best alternatives.

Many languages in Nepal use the same or similar scripts with the same system. Thus, people can easily learn each other's script and can write in more than two scripts and speak in more than two languages.

Based on the various researches carried out up to now, the languages spoken in Nepal are grouped under the following four language famlies.

    i. Indo-European family

    ii. Tibeto-Burman family

    iii. Dravidian family

    iv. Austro-Asiatic family

All the language families are briefly described here;

i. Indo-European Language Family

With only about a hundred languages, Indo-European is not a large family in terms of the total number of lnguages. However, it is the largest language family in the world in terms of the total number of speakers: there are about 1.7 billion native speakers of an Indo-European language (O'Grady 1997, p.365).

The following languages are spoken in Nepal under this family.

Table No.1: Indo-European Languages Spoken in Nepal

Nepali	Maithili
Bhojpuri	Tharu
Awadhi	Urdu
Rajbansi	Hindi
Danuwar	Bangala
Marwari	Majhi
Darai	Kumal
Bote	Churauti
Magahi	Angika
Bajjika	

Source: CBS, (2002)

ii. Tibeto-Burman Language Family

Tibeto-Burman language family comes under the Sino-Tibetan language family. The main land of speakers of Tibeto-Burman languages is Tibet and Nepal. Nepal is said to be a play ground of Tibeto-Burman languages. Majority of the languages belong to this family in Nepal. According to Nishi (1992), there are 71 Tibeto-Burman languages in Indian sub continent, out of which 58 are spoken in Nepal.

The following Tibeto-Burman languages are spoken in Nepal.

Table No. 2: Tibeto-Burman Languages Spoken in Nepal

Tamang	Newar
Magar	Gurung
Limbu	Chepang
Sunuwar	Thami
Thakali	Dhimal
Kaike	Chhantyal
Kham	Lepcha
Syang	Hayu
Marpha	Ghale
Manang	Raute
Baram	Toto
Nar	Pahari
Sherpa	Raji
Tibetan	Byansi
Jirel	Kagate
Meche	Koche
Lhomi	Dura
Yholmo	Bhujel
Rai languages (more than 33)	

Source: CBS, (2002)

iii. Dravidian

According to population census 2001, only one language, i.e. Jhagad is spoken in Nepal under this language family. The main land of this language speakers is on the province of Koshi river in the eastern part of Nepal.

iv. Austro-Asiatic

In Nepal, only one language Satar or Santhali is reported to have been spoken and grouped under this language family. The speakers of this language family are found in Jhapa district of the eastern part of Nepal.

1.1.3 The English Language: A Brief Introduction

The English language is one of the widely used 'West-Germanic' sub-branches of the Germanic branch of the Indo-European family. It is an international lingua franca in the world. Engish is the most widey used language in the history of our planet. Since English has occupied an important place in the present world, almost every country has given great emphasis to it and so is the case in Nepal. English has become a gateway to the whole body of modern knowledge. It is regarded as the world's most prestigious and important language. It is used extensively as a bridge language because of its rapidly growing importance. It is emerging in most of the countries as the major language. English is a treasure house of knowledge too. It is the English language through which non-English communities have imported foreign inventions, ideas, culture, literature, modern technology from the source communities.

English has received the status of an official language in many countries. But, Nepal has not made it as an official language. However, in Nepal, English is used as a major foreign language to be encountered in schools, colleges and universities.

"English is undoubtly of vital importance for accelerating the modernization process in Nepal" (Malla 199, p.12).

It occupies the top most position. It has the largest vocabularies, and one of the noblest bodies of literature. It has become a common tongue for the worldy living people through which people share feelings, ideas, thoughts and

experiences. Among all languages, English is the one which has become the most prestigious and mobile vehicle in the field of languages all over the world.

"A language becomes an international language for one chief reason; the political power of its people specially their military power. So, English expanded world wide during the British political imperialsm" (Crystal 1997, p.7).

Crystal (1987) presents the genetic affiliation of the English language in the following diagram.

DiagramNo. 5 Genetic affiliation of English
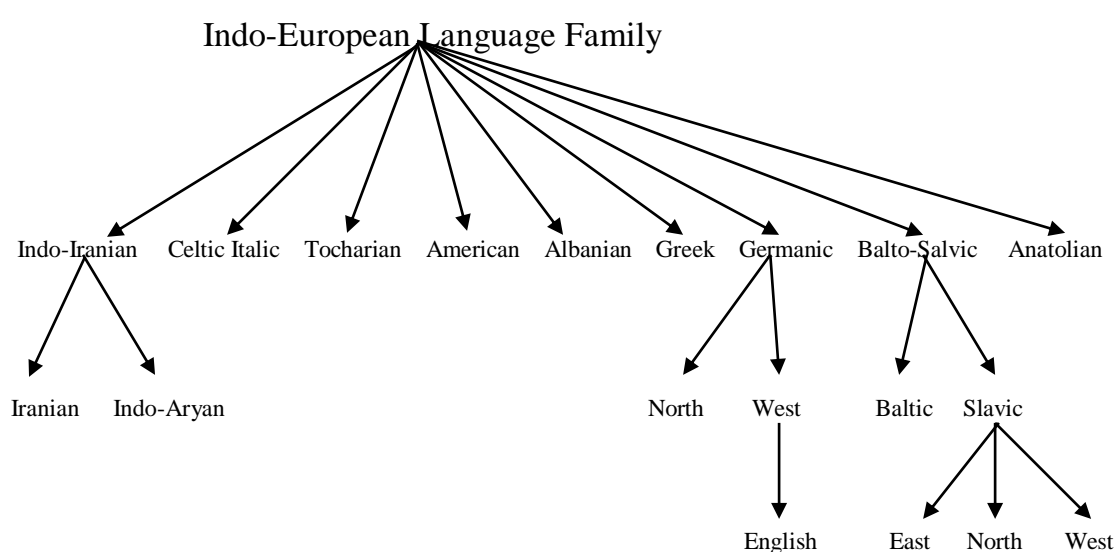

Source: Crystal (1987, p.300)

1.1.4 Limbus and their Languages

Limbu is one of the major Tibeto-Burman languages spoken in the hilly region of eastern part of Nepal by an ethnic group known as the Limbus. The main land of the Limbus are Ilam, Panchthar, Taplejung, Terhathum, Dhankuta, Sankhuwasava and nothern parts of Morang and Sunsari, which are traditionally known as 'Pallo Kirat' or 'Limbuwan'. Moreover, Limbu speaking people are also found in Jhapa, Morang, Sunsari districts and Kathmandu valley as well.

The Limbus are a sedentary agriculturalist people of the mangoloid race dwelling in the hills of the Koshi and Mechi zones of eastern Nepal, parts of Sikkim to the west of Tista and in Darjeeling district. By far the largest part of the Limbu nation lies within eastern Nepal, which is the home of approximately 180,000 speakers of Limbu. (Subba 1976, p.142)

According to CBS Report 2001, the total population of the Limbus in Nepal is 3,59.379(1.58%) out of which 3,33,633(1.47%) speak the Limbu language as their mother tongue.The Limbu language has its own script ,which is called 'Sirijunga script'. It has its rich literature. But all aspects of the Limbu language are not developed fully.The following tree diagram shows the position of Limbu language in the Tibeto-Burman language family.

Diagram No. 6 Position of Limbu in T-B languages
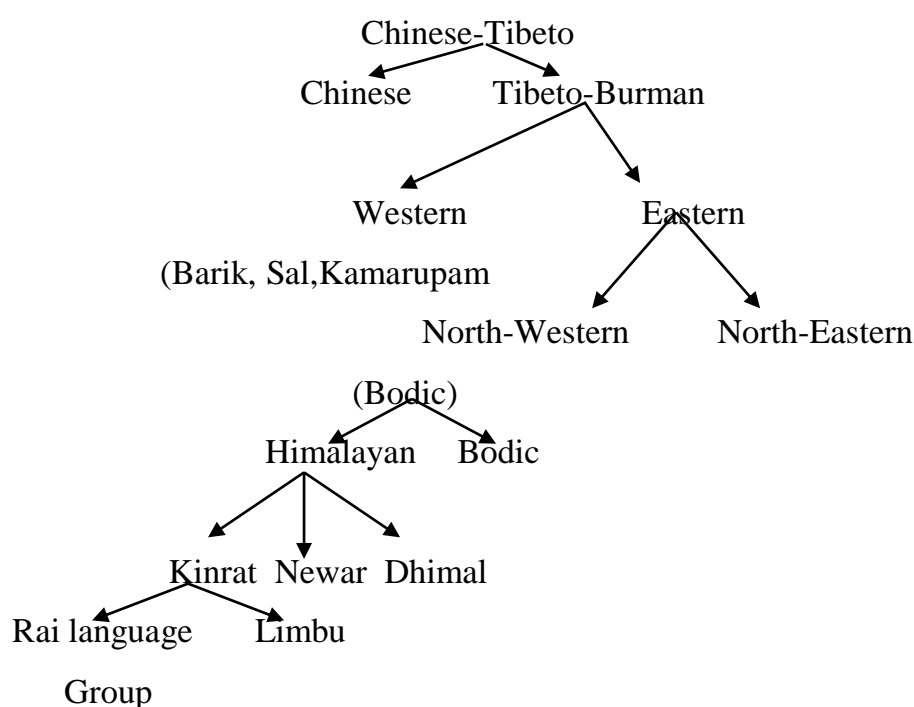
Source: Limbu-Nepali Engish Dictionary (2059)

Limbu is a pronominalized language as Neapli and other Tibeto-Burman languages in which a subject or object pronoun is reflected in main verbs. The ethnonym of the Limbu is 'Yakthungba' for male and 'Yakthumma' for female and they designate their language as 'Yakthungpan'. The Limbu language (Yakthungpan) following **Sirijunga** script, is found to have been

10

roughly divided into four dilects: Phedappe, Panchthare, Chhathare and Tamorkhole. The brief description of these four dialects are as follows.

i. Phedappe Dialect

Phedappe dialect is spoken throughout the Terhathum district and even Indo-Aaryan livings outside Terhathum Bazar especialy those of lower cast speak some Limbu in addition to their native Nepali. The term 'Phedappe' is an adjectival form of 'Phedap'- the region where the Phedappe dialect is spoken.

> The largest centre of population in the Phedappe speaking area of Limbuwan is Terhathum, although Terhathum bazaar itself is largely Nepali and Newari speaking. Nepali living in the bazaar seldom speak Limbu, in fact many Limbus living in the bazaar do not speak Limbu either (Driem,1987;XXII).

ii. Panchthare Dialect

Panchthare is the dialect of the panch thar or 'five clans' and fundamentally spoken in Panchthar and Ilam districts. This dialect is regarded as the standard dialect and most of the literatures of the Limbu language, textboks, magazines are found in this dialect.

iii. Chhathare Dialect

Chhathare is the dialect of Chathar or 'six clans'. It is mainly spoken in most of the VDCs of Dhannkuta district (Tankhuwa, Bhirgaun, Hatikharka and Banchare) and also spoken in some parts of the Terhathum district (Dangapa, Sudap, Hamarjung and Chhathar Pokhari).

iv. Taplejunge Dialect

Taplejunge includes Tamarkhole, Yanrupe and Moiwakhole dialects. It is spoken in the north of Phedap and especially north of the Tamor river in Taplejung district.

From the viewpoint of mutual understanding Panchthare, Phedappe and Taplejunge dialects are very closer to one another but Chhathare dialect is vividlly different than others. So it is difficult to understand the Chathare dialect for the people who speak other dialects but it is a matter of surprise that the Chhathare speaking people understand and even can speak other dialects.

1.1.5 Grammar: An Overview

The term grammar was derived from the Greek word 'grammatike' which meant simply the understanding of letters. Grammar was not treated as a separate autonomous discipline. Instead, it was a part of philosophy.

"Grammar is a description of structure of a language and the way in which linguistic units such as words and phrases are combined to produce sentences in the language" (Richard et al.1999, p.128).

A Grammar is a model of the native speaker's competence. It contains a finite number of rules which generate the infinite number of all and only grammatical sentences in the language. In fact, grammar is a mechanics of a language to produce correct sentences according to the rules of language. Thus, learning a language essentially requires learning a rules of the language. Learning the rules can be implicit or explicit to constitute grammatically correct sentences, the string of words should be ordered in a systematic or correct way. Only the rules of a language will generate the grammatical sentences. For example, in the sentence 'job I got new a' there are five words but words in the string are not in proper order that is why it does not give clear meaning. Simply speaking, it is grammatically incorrect sentence which is meningless. But if we arrange those words in this way:'I got a new job', the sentence will be grammatically correct and meaningful. Since different languages have different rules to form sentences, it is essential to internalize the grammar of the language while learning it. Let us take one another example 'I eat rice',in different languages.

English	Nepali	Limbu
I eat rice.	m ə bʰaṯ kʰantʃʰu	aŋga ṯok tʃaŋ
S+V+ O	S + O + V	S + O + V

Structuralists take grammar as an inventory or catalogue of elements classified with restrictions enumerated and relations made physically manifested. Some contemporary grammarians or linguists regard grammar as an all-encompassing theory of linguistics, i.e. Transformational Generative Grammar, Systemics grammar, Tagmemics and Stratificational grammar.

"Grammar codes, simultaneously, both propositional Semantics and Discourse coherence (Pragmatics)...Although (Grammar-as-codes) is located wholly in the clause, its functional scope is not primarily about the propositional information couched in the clause in which it resides" (Givon 2001, p.13).

Whatever the critics, linguists, scholars and grammarians say about grammar, it is regarded as a skeleton of language. It differs from language to language which makes a language unique and meaningful. So, the grammar should be written for the purpose of reforming, purifying and standardizing languages.

1.1.6 Contrastive Analysis: An Introduction

Contastive analysis (CA) is a general approach to the investigation of language, particularly carried out in certain areas of applied linguistics. To compare and contrast two or more than two languages is not so easy task. This approach was forwarded to fulfill the purpose of analysing the two languages and find out similarities and differences between them.

There are 6000 different languages spoken on our planet. (Trask 1995, p.1). Among 6000 languages some of them are geneticaly related and some others are not. Genetically related languages may have several uncommon features and geneticaly unrelated languages may have some common features.With this assumption, CA was initiated and applied in the field of language education.

Applied linguists were fascinated to find out the structural differences between two languages in the early decades of the second half of the 20th century. In Europe and United States of America (USA) various projects were operated for the contrastive study of languages. Later this pursuit of contrastive study appeared with the name of CA.

CA became very much popular in 1950s and 60s in Europe and the USA when pattern practice teaching method on structural linguistics was commonly used in teaching a foreign language. CA became popular with the publication of Robert Lado's 'Linguistic Across Culture' in 1957. CA was more successful in Phonology than in other areas of language in the early days but in recent years it has been applied in almost all areas of language. The main purpose of CA is to carry out the similarities and differences of the different levels (phonological, morphoogical, syntactic) of a language. The comparison can be of interlingual or intralingual nature. If the comparison exists only between two languages it is said to be interlingual comparison and the comparison exists betweeen two dialects of the same language it is said to be intralingual comparison.

CA is further clearified with its assumptions, usefulness and hypothesis, Which are explained in the following pages.

i. Assumption of Cantrastive analysis

Cantrastive analysis is based on certain assumptions concerning the nature and principles of second and foreign language learning and teaching . Lado(1957) wrote a book entitled "Linguistics Across Culture" which disseminated the work initiated by Fries. (Lado1957, p.2) provided three underlying assumptions of CA, which have significant role in language teaching. The assumptions are as follows:

a. Individuals tend to transfer the Forms and Meaning, and the distribution of Forms and Meanings of their native language and culture to the foreign

language and culture both productively when attempting to speak the language
... and receptively when attempting to grasp and understand the language.

b. In the comparison between native and foreign languages lies the key to ease
of difficulty in foreign language learning.

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

Wilkins (1978) states that

> wherever the structure of the foreign language differs from that of
>
> the mother tongue, we can expect both difficulty in learning and
>
> prior in performance. Learning a foreign language is essentially
>
> learning to overcome the difficulties. Where the structure of the
>
> two languages is same no difficulty is anticipated and teaching is
>
> not necessary. Simple exposure to the language will be enough
>
> (Quoted in Basnet 2002, p.216)

ii. Purpose and Usefulness of Cantrastive analysis

CA is carried out mainly for the pedagogical purpose. It helps in identifying the
areas of difficulties while learning a language and error's performance. It is
important for the language teachers, learners, testing experts and syllabus
designers who get great benefit from the knowledge of CA. It provides input
for language teaching/learning by;

a. Pointing the areas of differences and probable of errors in performance.

b. Determining what the learners have to learn.

c. Designing teaching learning material for those particular areas that need more attention.

CA accounts for the errors listed in error analysis and also explains the causes of committing errors. The functions of CA are called predictive and explanatory functions which are sometimes also referred to as the strong and weak versions of CA.

iii. Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis

CA hypothesis holds the view that the matter of similarity and difference is the matter of degree. How CA predicts the learner's error is CA hypothesis. If there is the greater difference between the two or more languages, the learner has to face the greater difficulty while learning a second language and in such a case learner commits error.

> We assume that the student who comes in contact with a foreign language will find some features of it quite easy and others extremely difficult. Those elements that are similar to his native language will be simple for him to learn and those elements that are different to his native language will be difficult (Lado 1957, p.2).

The following two facets come under CA hypothesis;

i. Linguistic Facet (based on structural linguistics)

The Linguistic facet includes the following three beliefs;

a. Language learning is essentially a matter of habit formation.

b. The mind of a child at birth is a tabula rasa.

c. Languages are comparable
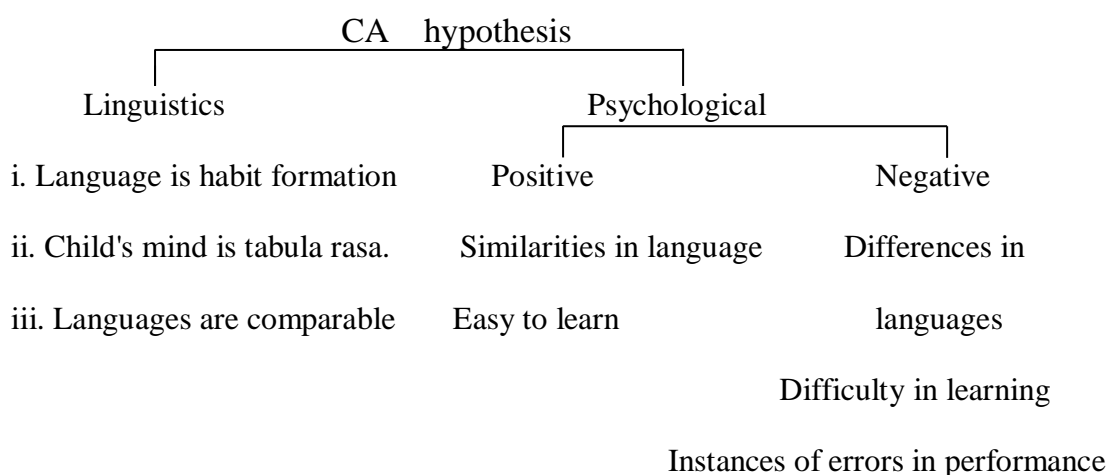
ii. Psychological Facet

This aspect mentions that past learning affects present learning. If the first language facilitates the second language, it has to be positive affect and if it hinders the second language, it has to be negative affect. So, transfer may be of both positive and negative types. That is why, this aspect is also called 'Transfer Theory'. It is said that if a native language is similar to a second or foreign, it becomes easy to learn and there will be less chance of committing errors in learning. But if the first language is greatly different from the second language, the learning becomes difficult and will invite a great chance of committing errors in learning. Simply speaking, the following chart gives the clear idea about transfer theory.

If similarities ⟶ facilitation ⟶ easiness ⟶ errorless ⟶ utterances

Differences ⟶ hinders ⟶ difficult ⟶ erroneous

CA hypothesis can be diagrammatically presented as follows;

Diagram No. 7

CA   hypothesis

Linguistics   Psychological

i. Language is habit formation   Positive   Negative

ii. Child's mind is tabula rasa.   Similarities in language   Differences in

iii. Languages are comparable   Easy to learn   languages

                                                           Difficulty in learning

                                                 Instances of errors in performance
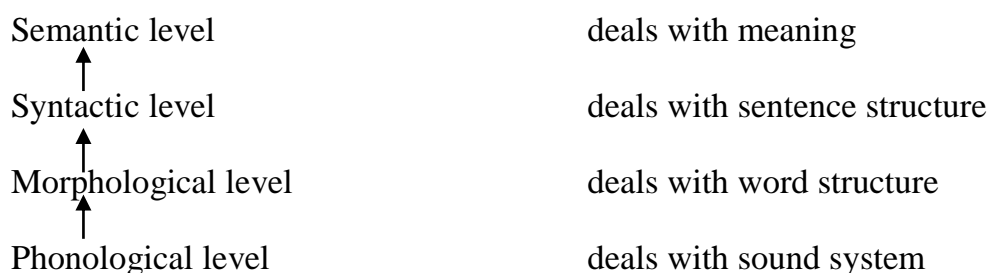
Source: James (1980, p.213)

1.1.7 Morphology

Morphology is the branch of grammar which studies the structure or forms of words, primarily through the use of the morpheme construct. Until the 19th century, the study of the internal structure of words did not emerge as a

discipline of linguistics. In the 20th century, morphology has played a dominant role in linguistic analysis. During 1930-1950, the period of American structuralism, linguistics or the study of language comprised four levels.

Semantic level	deals with meaning
Syntactic level	deals with sentence structure
Morphological level	deals with word structure
Phonological level	deals with sound system

These levels are assumed to be in a hierarchy, with phonology at the bottom and semantics the top. As time went on, the focus gradually shifted to morphology when structuralism was in its prime, especially between 1940 and 1960, the study of morphology occupied centre stage.

In this century morphology has been regarded as an essentially synchronic discipline, that is to say, a discipline focusing on the study of word structure at one stage in the life of a language rather than on the evolution of words (Katamba 1993, p.3).

Today the place of morphology in generative grammar is secure since it has been the dominant school of linguistics in the second half of this century; it meant that the study of word-structure was in the shadows for more than a decade. Morphology did not re-emerge from oblivion until the mid-1970s. Eminent structuralists such as Bloomfield (1932), Harris (1942, 1946) and Hocket (1958) come out with innovation in the theory of morphology. Structural grammarians deal with the relevant aspects of analyzing word structure. These aspects include the three key concepts in morphology. The following three concepts are described briefly.

    i. Morph

A morph is the smallest differences in some morphemes in a language. It is a distinctive sound and /or sequence of sounds.

ii. Morpheme

"The morpheme is the smallest difference in the shape of a word that correlates with the smallest difference in word or sentence meaning or in grammatical structure" (Katamba 1993, p.24)

iii. Allomorph

If different morphs represent the same morpheme, they are grouped together and they are called allomorph of that morpheme.

The relationship between morphemes, allomorphs and morphs can be represented using a diagram in the following way.

Diagram No. 8 Morphemes, Allomorphs and Morphs Relationship

Morpheme

Past Tense

Allomorph   Allomorph   Allomorph

Morph   Morph   Morph

/ed/   /d/   /t/
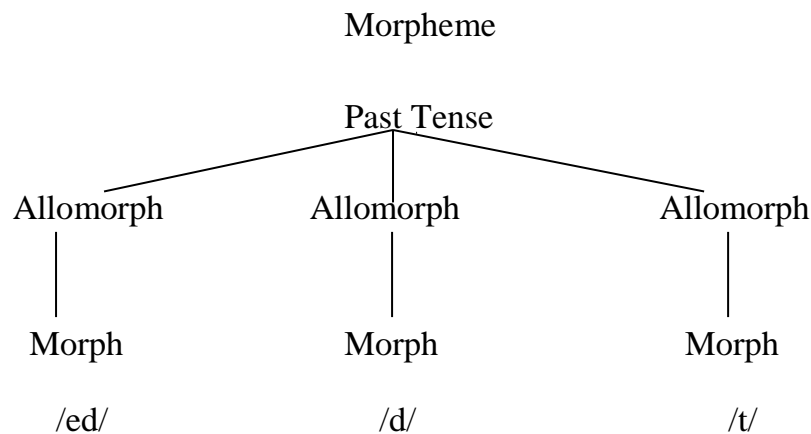
Source: Katamba (1993, p.26)

1.1.8 Adjectival Morphology

Traditionally the words of languages are grouped into an open class, i.e. a class of words that is constantly enlarged as time goes by, and a closed class, i.e. a class of word that is static in that no new members of languages inter into word classes or parts of speech. Among eight parts of speech, adjective is the one which can be identified by using three criteria, i.e. semantic, syntactic and morphological.

From semantic point of view it refers to the main set of items which specify the attributes of nouns. For example; big house, silky hair

From distributional or syntactic point of view, adjectives can occupy two positions in English; the attributive position and predicative position. When an adjective precedes a noun in a noun phrase, it is said to occur in an attributive position and when an adjective follows a so-called linking verb or copula it is said to occur in a predicative position

Adjectives can sometimes be identified through certain formal or morphological characteristics. For example the suffixes <–ly>, <-ious> and <–en> as in lovely, laborious and broken, which change the word classes. Here, *break* is a verb but if we add suffix <–en>, it becomes adjective **broken** in 'broken leg'.

Adjectives follow the four major semantic properties; temporal stability, simplicity, concreteness and inherentness.

The following four criteria or features which are commonly considered to be characteristics of adjective (Quirk et al. 1985, p.402).

    i.   They can freely occur in **ATTRIBUTIVE** function, i.e. they can pre-modify a noun, appearing between the determiner including zero articles and the head of a noun. For example;

       a. An **ugly** painting.   b. **Dirty** room

    ii.   They can freely occur in **PREDICATIVE** function, i.e. they can function as subject complement or as object complement. For example;

       a. The painting is **ugly**.

iii.   They can pre-modify by the intensifier **very.** For example;

a. The children are **very happy.**

iv.   They can take **COMPARATIVE and SUPERLATIVE**; the comparison may be by means of inflections (-er and –est) or by the addition of the pre-modifiers more and most ('periphrastic comparison')

Table No. 3 Regular forms of adjectives requiring 'ER' or 'EST'
The following table shows the regular forms requiring –**ER or –EST**

Important grammatical points	adjectives	comparative forms (...er)	superlative (the...est)
Adjectives with one syllable	thin	thinner	the thinnest
Adjectives ending in a single consonant which must be doubled.	fat	fatter	the fattest
Adjectives with one Syllable 'ly' changes to 'I'	friendly	friendlier	the friendliest

By focusing the formal or morphological criteria, it has been said that adjectives are also formed by adding affixes. Since morpheme is a part of morphology which can be analyzed through affixation or word – building process, in adjectival morphology the morphemes of adjective are analyzed through affixation process. In this sense, morphological process is also called word- building process. How adjectives are formed? What types of prefixes, infixes and suffixes are added? Whether the affixation process changes the word class or not? Are the major factors to be considered while analyzing the morphemes of adjectives. Before doing so it must be necessary to identify the types of adjectives. How the morphemes of the different types of adjectives are derived is the main focus point of this study.

According to Thompson and Martinent (1986), there are six different types of adjectives.

i. Demonstrative Adjective

In English *this, that, those, these* are used as adjective. They agree with their nouns in number. They are the only adjectives to do this. For example;

In English: **Those** people came from jungle.

In Limbu: **kʰamba** na?migʰa zəngle lamba məðaha

ii. Distributive Adjective

In English *each, every, either and neither* are used as distributive adjectives. *Each* means a number of person or thing considered individually. *Every* can have this meaning but with *every* there is less emphasis on the individual. For example;

In English: **Every** man knows simple quotation.

In Limbu: **θikṭoba** na?miŋa θikoba kotesən lehu

Each can be used of two or more persons or things and is normally used of small numbers. *Every* is not normally used of very small numbers.

Either means 'any one of two'. It takes a singular verb. For example;

In English: Nilu has **not** got **either** of pens.

In Limbu: nilunu **huiŋsaŋ** pen hop.

iii. Quantitative Adjective

In English *some, any, few, many* are used as quantitative adjectives. *Some* and *any* means a certain number or amount; they are used with or instead of plural or uncountable nouns. *Some* is used with affirmative verbs. For example;

In English: **Some** cakes   In Limbu: **θikneṭʧʰi** kekha

Any is used with negative verbs. For example;

In English: We haven't **any** fish.   In Limbu: aniŋanu **huiŋsaŋ** na hoppa.

Few is used before plural nouns. For example;

In English: **Few** maps   In Limbu: **tʃulik** nəksaha

Many as an adjective is used before countable noun. For example;

In English: **Many** books   In Limbu: **jorik** kiṭabha

iv.   Interrogative Adjective

In English *which, what, whose* are used as adjectives, they are normally followed by an affirmative, not an interrogative verb if they are used as subject. For example;

In English: **Whose** horse won?   In Limbu: **saiŋ** ənŋa haritʃaṭu?

v. Possessive Adjective

adjectives in English refer to the possessor and not to the thing possessed. Everything that a man or boy possessed is *his* thing; everything that a woman or girl possesses is *her* thing.

For example;

In English: This is **your** copy.   In Limbu: kumba **kʰeneŋ** kəpi ho.

 If there is more than one possessor, *their* is used. For example;

In English: The girls are with **their** friends.

In Limbu: mentʃʰjaha **kʰuniŋaiŋ** ṭakhanu muwa

vi. Qualitative Adjective

The set of items for example *clever, golden, fat, good, heavy and square* are used as adjectives. Most of the adjectives in English are qualitative, which qualify the nouns and occur in both attributive and predicative positions. For example;

In Engish: A **long** stick is there.　　In Limbu: **kimba** ləuri kʰambu wa

Some Other Basic Types of Adjectives in terms of their definite Order

1. Opinion

An opinion adjective explains what you think about something (other people may not agree with you). For example;

In English: **Salty** curry　　　　In Limbu**: kalakpa** sumbak

2. Size

A size adjective, of course, tells you how big or small something is.

For example;　In English: **Tall** boy　　In Limbu: **kimba** lamsawa

3. Age

An age adjective tells you how young or old something or someone is.

For example;　In English: **Old** father　In Limbu: **kapoba** pappa

4. Shape

A shape adjective describes the shape of something. For example;

In English: Sita has a **thin** body.　　In Limbu: siṯaŋaiŋ koðʰok **pabamba** wa

5. **Colour**

A color adjective, of course describes the color of something. For example;

   In English: A **Black** cow is grazing. In Limbu: **makkaloba** piṭ tʃalamro wa

6. **Origin**

An origin adjective describes where something comes from. For example;

   In English: **Eastern** man is coming.   In Limbu: **istərn** na?mi ṭaro wa

7. **Material**

A material adjective describes what something is made from. For example;

   In English: **wooden** table   In Limbu: **siŋŋaiŋ** tebl

8**. Purpose**

A purpose adjective describes what something is used for. These adjectives often end with "-ing". For example;

   In English: **Digging** spade   In Limbu: **kamoba** kaŋ

1.1.9 Word-Formation Process in English

Morphology is a branch of linguistics which deals with word structure. How words are formed? is the main point to be considered under morphology. Morpheme is one of the key notions of morphology. In word- formation process, the main task will be to analyze the morphemes of the words. Simply speaking, morpheme is the meaningful and functional unit of grammar. It can be of both free and bound morphemes. "Roots which are capable of standing independently are called free morphemes" (Katamba 1993, p.42). For example, man, book, and bag. "Many roots are incapable of occurring in isolation. They always occur with some other word-building element attached to them. Such

roots are called bound morpheme" (Katamba 1993, p.42). For example, <-mit> as in permit, commit and <-ceive> as in perceive, receive.

Word formation as a lexeme formation; like wise compounding word formation and compounding as branches of lexical morphology paradigms; inflectional morphology; the study of paradigm categories; morpho-syntactic categories, morpho-syntactic categories vs morpho-syntactic properties (Mathews 1991, p.24).

Word- formation process is also called word- building process. This consists of two principal processes; Inflection and Derivation. The process of inflection is also called inflectional affix in which the attachment of an affix to a stem does not derive a new word. Instead, it just changes the form of the stem. For example, <-ed> in *worked*, <-ing> in *making* and <–er> in *brighter*. The process of derivation is also called derivational affix, in which the attachment of an affix to a stem derives a new word or it creates a new word. For example, <-ly> in *kindly,* <-ness> in *goodness*. There are different features which distinguish between inflectional and derivational affixes. The features are semantic effect on word class, productivity, and paradigm of opposites, semantic predictability and location.

In addition there are different word-formation processes in English which are listed below;

1. Affixation

Affixation is one of the word-formation processes in English. In discussing affixation, it is noted that complex words are typically made up of a root or stem and one or more affixes of the root. For example, **inactive** is made up of the stem **active** and the affix<**in->**. Affixation process contains three different processes.

i. Prefixation

Prefixation is a process in which prefix as an affix is attached before a root or stem or base like <re-, un- and in-> in re-mark, un-kind and in-active respectively.

ii. Suffixation

It is a process in which suffix as an affix is attached after a root or stem or base like <–ly, -er and –ing> in kind-ly, wait-er and play-ing.
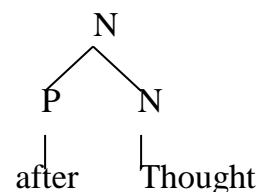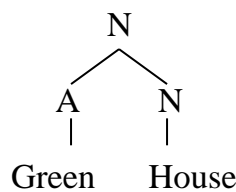
iii. Infixation

It is a process in which infix as an affix inserted into the root itself. They are very common. Slot and Taylor (1978) suggest that the only infix that occurs in English morphology is <–n-> which is inserted before the last consonant of the root in a few words of Latin origin, on what appears to be an arbitrary basis. This infix undergoes place of articulation assimilation. Thus the root <–cub-> meaning 'lie in, on or up' occurs without (m) before the (b) in some words containing the root, for example, incubate, succubus. But (m) is infixed before that same root in some other words like **incumbent** and **succumbs** (Cited in Katamba 1993, p.44).

2. Compounding

Another common way to build words in English involves compounding, the combination of lexical categories (nouns, verbs, adjectives and adverbs).

"Once formed compounds can be combined with other lexical categories to create still larger compounds" (O'Grady 1997, p. 134).

or example; 1. Noun compounds

```
        N                           N
       / \                         / \
      A   N                       P   N
      |   |                       |   |
   Green House                  after Thought
```

2. Verb compound

```
        V                           V
       / \                         / \
      N   V                       A   V
      |   |                       |   |
   Spoon feed                  White  Wash
```
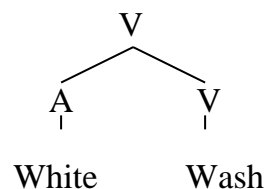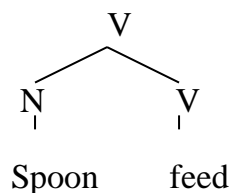
A compound word contains at least two bases which are both words, or at any rate, root morphemes.

> Compounding is a very important way of adding to the word stock of English. Sometimes it is bare roots that are combined in compounds as in [tea]n [pot]n → (tea pot) n and sometimes an input base contains an affixed form as in [hair] [(dress] v-er] n → [hair dresser] n. (Katamba, 1993 p.54).

3. Conversion

A term used in the study of word formation to refer to the derivational process where by an item comes to a new word class without the addition of an affix.

> Conversion is a process that assigns an already existing word to a new syntactic category. Even though, it doesn't add an affix, conversion is often considered to be a type of derivation because of the change in category and meaning that it brings about. For this reason, it is sometimes called zero derivation (O'Grady 1997, p.138).

For example; Noun derived from verb as in (a brief) **report**, (an important) **call**

Verb derived from adjective **dirty** (a shirt), **right** (a wrong)

4. Back Formation

Back formation refers to an abnormal type of word-formation where a shorter word is derived by deleting an imagined affix from a longer form which already presented in the language.

Back formation is a process that creates a new word by removing a real or supposed affix from another word in the language. Resurrect was originally formed in this way from resurrection. Other backformation includes in English include enthuse from enthusiasm, donate from donation and orient from orientation (O'Grady 1997, p.139).

5. Reduplication

A term in morphology for a process of repetition whereby the form of a prefix/suffix reflects certain phonological characteristics of the root. In English the nearest one gets to this is reduplicative compound words, such as helter-skelter, silly- sally (Crystal 2003, p.391).

Reduplication, which duplicates all or part of the base to which it applies to mark a grammatical or semantic contrast. It can be of two types; Full reduplication and Partial reduplication. Full reduplication is the repetition of entire word. Whereas, Partial reduplication copies only part of the word.

6. Clipping

Clipping is a process that shortens a polysyllabic word by deleting one or more syllables. Clipping is especially popular in the speech of students, where it has yielded forms like Prof for professor, burger for hamburger (O'Grady 1997, p.139).

Clippings are reduction of longer forms, usually removing the end of the word for example *ad* from *advertisement.*

7. Acronym

Acronyms are pronounced as single words for example NATO. Acronyms are formed by taking the initial letters of the words in a phrase or title and pronouncing them as a word, this type of word formation is especially common in names of organization and in military and scientific terminology. For

example, UNICEF for United Nations International Children's Emergency Fund (O'Grady 1997, p.139).

1.2 Review Of Related Literature

Many researchers have carried out research on comparative study on different languages such as Nepali, Limbu, Maithili, Gurung, Tharu, Rai and Newari in the department of English Education T.U. They have selected different linguistic areas and completed their research but no any research has yet been carried out in adjectival morphology, but most of the researches are carried out on verbal morphology. One of them is verbal morphology in English and Tamang.

The available literature related to the present study is as follows:

Khatiwada (1993) in his thesis entitled "Dhimal Verb Morphology" aimed to find out the Morphology of Dhimal verbs (p.4). Dhimal language belongs to the Tibeto-Burman language family. The researcher found that the Dhimal pronoun displays the three way contrast for person and number. There in no exclusive and inclusive distinction. The verbs in Dhimal have rich inflectional systems. The verb stems classified into three classes on the basis of the structure. They are primitive, dative, and complex.

Poudel (1999) in his thesis entitled "Bote Verb Morphology" aimed to find out the verbal morphological system of the Bote Language in which verbal inflection, derivation, structure of the verb, negativization, transitivization, causative construction and passive construction; and compound verb construction are taken into account for the analysis (p.1). His finding was that Bote is an Indo-Aryan language spoken in Nepal by the people Bote. It is one of the endangered languages of Nepal. The verb morphology of Bote introduces three types of verb stems primitive, derivative, and compound. In Bote language the verb agrees with the subject, so it inflects for person, number, and honoroficity of the subject.

Thokar (2005) wrote an M.A.thesis entitled 'Bahing Verb Morphology'. The main objective of this study was to analyze the morphology of Bahing verb. p.3.The researcher summarized that Bahing language is one of the kinrati languages of Tibeto-Burman group under Sino-Tibetan family. Okhaldhunga and Solukhumbu are the main land of Bahing speakers. He found that the phonological system of Bahing has preserved many characteristics of Tibeto-Burman family. It has thirty seven phonemes out of which eleven are vowels and twenty six are consonants. The verbs in Bahing have a rich inflectional system. The verb stems can be classified into two classes on the basis of the structure. They are primitive and derivative. Most of the primitive stems are monosyllabic. The derivational stems are causative and negative ones. The morphological processes that give rise to alternations in the root final consonants of verbs are lenition, nasal assimilation and deletion with compensatory lengthening. In Bahing morphological causativization is very simple and productive. By adding the morpheme <-pa> in the root of the main verb which forms the causativization. Every verb in Bahing can be made causative by adding this morpheme.

Tumbahang (2007) in his P.hD. thesis 'A Descriptive Grammar of Chhathare Limbu' mentions that Chhatthare Limbu is used only in the Chhatthar area among the local people on informal occasions. Until now, it has not drawn the interest of Linguist and Literature people. On formal occasions like wedding ceremony, religious rituals and cultural programs only Panthare dialect is used. So, written literature in Chhatthare is not available (p.2).

Bhusal(2008) wrote a thesis entitled' Nominal morphology in Hayu'. In her M.A.thesis she tried to analyze the grammatical categories of the noun such as gender, number and case in Hayu, and analyze the pronoun system of Hayu(p.2). The main focus of the study is to analyze the nominal morphology of the noun of the Hayu language mainly spoken in Ramechhap district from the functional typological perspective. Hayu is almost unstudied and undocumented language. She found that there are eight vowels and twenty nine

consonants with glottal stops in the Hayu language. She also found that in Hayu language noun class, number and classifiers are not grammatical, they are only semantic notions. In the pronoun system of Hayu, the duel and inclusive, exclusive phenomenon is found. Hayu noun systematically functions as subject or an object of a finite verb and can take number and case suffixes. It is also followed by a postposition or functions as the head of a noun phrase. Hayu noun has no grammatical gender system. The Hayu nouns inflect for all number and cases, except locative case. The noun can be an animate and inanimate and it can be further divided into human and non-human.

Rai(2008) in his M.A. thesis entitled 'DumiVerb Morphology', he tried to describe and analyze the verbal system of the Dumi language and to present different aspects of the verb morphology and its findings. The researcher found out that the Dumi language is roughly spoken by as estimated 2,500 out of 15,000 Dumi people. A Dumi simple stem construction (simplex) consists of a verb stem and suffixes indicating tense and showing agreement for person and number with the actant or actants of the verb. The verbal affixes in Dumi are of two types; prefix and suffix. There are three prefixes; the third person plural subject morpheme <ham->, the non-third person morpheme <a-> and the negative past morpheme <ma->. The morpheme <-mu-> makes the causative and <-isi> makes the intransitive from transitive as valence increasing device of derivational morphology. In Dumi, the passivization in the past is marked by <-isi> and in the non-past marked by <-isti> like any other kinrati languages. Dumi is one of the pronominalized languages, in which there are pronominal suffixes in verbs.

 Since no comparative study has been carried out to find out the similarities and differences between the adjectival morphology of Limbu and English, the researcher has therefore carried out this research work to find out similarities and differences between the morphology of adjectives in Limbu and English.

1.3 Objectives of the Study

The objectives of the present study were as follows:

a.   to identify the Morphology of adjectives in Limbu.

b.   to compare and contrast the morphology of adjectives in Limbu with that of English.

c.   to suggest some pedagogical implications.

1.4 Significance of the Study

The study will be fruitful:

a.   to the Limbu language learners

b.   to the Limbu language teacher who teaches English to the Limbu children

c.   to the department of English Language Education itself

d.   to the researchers who carry out research in Limbu, and other linguists, textbook writers and syllabus designers in Limbu.

CHAPTER TWO

METHODOLOGY

The researcher had adapted the following methodologies for the present study.

2.1 Sources of Data

The researcher used both primary and secondary sources to collect the required data for the research.

2.1.1 Primary Source

The primary sources were the native speakers of the Limbu language of Sudap VDCs of Terhathum, from whom the researcher collected the required data for the research.

2.1.2 Secondary Source

The following books and journals were consulted as major secondary sources.

O'Grady (1997), Givon (2001), Payne (1997), Driem (1987), Thomson and Martinent (1986), Aarts and Aarts (1997), Katamba (1993),Quirk et al.(1985)

2.2 Sampling Procedure

The researcher selected 75 native speakers between the age group of 18-60 from the Sudap VDC of Terhathum district. And, the selected populations were divided into 3 groups such as illiterate, literate, and educated. Illiterate group are those who are unable to read and write, and the people who have academic qualification below SLC were grouped under the literate group and the people who have academic achievement above SLC were grouped under the educated group. Each stratum contained 25 native speakers. The researcher used stratified random sampling procedure to select the population and they were interviewed.

2.3 Tools For Data Collection

The main research tool for the data collection was the structured interview. A set of interview questions were prepared to draw information on adjectival morphology of Limbu from the native speakers.

2.4 Process of Data Collection

The researcher followed the following procedures to collect the data for this research work.

a. She visited the selected area and built a friendly relationship with the Limbu native speakers.

b. She took interview to the sampled population by using the structured interview sheet.

c. The responses provided by the native speakers were recorded using Roman Transcription of Devanagary script.

d. After collecting the data, the researcher consulted some Limbu native speakers to crosscheck the validity of data.

2.5 Limitations of the Study

a. This study was bounded within the perimeter of adjectival morphology of the Sudape Limbu.

b. This study was limited to the morphology of adjectives in Limbu with reference to English.

c. Only 75 Limbu native speakers were selected between the age group of 18 to 60 years.

d. Sudap VDC was chosen to carry out the research work.

CHAPTER THREE

ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION

The data collected has been analyzed and interpreted descriptively as well as comparatively with the help of tables, diagrams and illustrations. Similarly, the similarities and differences between English and Limbu adjectives have been shown with the help of illustrations. The data has been analyzed on the basis of the following points.

-Demonstrative Adjective

-Distributive Adjective

-Quantitave Adjective

-Interrogative Adjective

-Possessive Adjective

-Qualitative Adjective

Some basic types of adjectives in terms of their order;

i. Opinion Adjective

ii. Size Adjective

iii. Age Adjective

iv. Shape Adjective

v. Origin Adjective

vi. Material Adjective

vii. Purpose Adjective

- Participles used as adjectives

-Compound adjectives

3.1 Analysis and Interpretation of Adjectival Morphology

3.1.1 Demonstrative Adjective

3.1.1.1 Demonstrative Adjective in Limbu

In Limbu demonstrative adjectives are unmarked. It means they are not clearly noticeable. They are just used as pronoun because they do not agree with their nouns in number. They are formed without adding any morpheme. The suffix $<$-g^{h}a$>$ denotes plural marker. See the following examples,

a. **kumba** hinza nuwa wa

   This boy is handsome.

b. **kumba** hinzaha/g^{h}a nuwa wa.

   These boys are handsome.

c. **k^{h}amba** ambi kozanuwa wa.

   That mango is tasty.

d. **k^{h}amba** ambiha/g^{h}a kozanuwa wa.

   Those mangoes are tasty.

The given data presents that the same word **kumba** is used to refer to both **this** and **these**. Similarly the same word **k^{h}amba** is used for both **that** and **those**. In Limbu the plural morpheme $<$-ha/g^{h}a$>$ is added to the noun to make it plural. So the suffix $<$-ha/g^{h}a$>$ is the plural marker in Limbu.

3.1.1.2 Demonstrative Adjective in English

This, That, These and Those are used as demonstrative adjectives in English. They agree with their nouns in number. They are only adjectives to do this. (Thomson and Martinent 1986, p.23.)

For example,

a. **This** boy is handsome.

b. **These** boys are handsome

c. **That** mango is tasty.

d. **Those** mangoes are tasty.

By analyzing the given examples, it is clearly seen that English demonstrative adjectives also do not take any morpheme.

3.1.2. Distributive Adjective

3.1.2.1 Distributive Adjectives in Limbu

In Limbu /θiksek/θikṭoba/huiŋsaŋ/ are used as distributive adjective. These adjectives are formed without adding any morpheme. The attributively used distributive adjectives are given below.

a. **θiksek** na?mi feja wa

   Each man had a weapon.

b. **θikṭoba** na?miŋa θikoba kotesan lehu

   Every man knows the simple quotation.

c. a **huiŋsaŋ** kiṭab mane?ni waŋa

   I have read neither of books.

3.1.2.2 Distributive Adjectives in English

In English *each, every, either, neither* are used as distributive adjectives. These adjectives also do not take any morphemes, they are free lexical items. The attributively used these adjectives are given below;

a. **Each** man had a weapon.

b. **Every** man knows what to do.

c. I haven't read **either** of books.

3.1.3. Quantitative Adjective

3.1.3.1. Quantitative Adjectives in Limbu

In Limbu /jorik/tʃulik/θiknet̪t̪ʃʰi/ are used as quantitative adjectives. The same word /jorik/ is used for both *many* and *much*. It comes before both countable and uncountable nouns. See the following examples,

  a. **jorik** kit̪abha

     Many books

  b. **jorik** kəfi

       Much coffee

An adjective /tʃulik/ is used for both *little* and *few* in Limbu. It comes before both uncountable and plural nouns. For example,

  a. kʰonenu **tʃulik** jaŋ wa

     She has little money.

  b. **tʃulik** kit̪abha

       Few books

 In Limbu /θiknet̪t̪ʃʰi/ is used for *some* and /huiŋsaŋ/ for *any*. These adjectives denote certain number or amount. For example,

a. **θiknet̪t̪ʃʰi** kekha

   Some cakes

b. aniŋanu **huiŋsaŋ** na hoppa

   We have not any fish.

c. **θiknet̪t̪ʃʰi** him

   Some houses.

Even if the words /jorik/tʃulik/θiknetʃʰi/ are used as an adjectives they do not take any morpheme. It means these adjectives are formed without adding any morpheme.

3.1.3.2 Quantitative Adjective in English

In English *some, any, little, few, many, much* are used as quantitative adjectives. *Some* and *any* mean 'a certain number or amount'. They are used with or instead of plural or uncountable nouns. *Some* is used with affirmative verbs. For example,

a. I ate **some** cakes

But *any* is used with negative verbs. For example

b. we have not **any** fish.

In English *little* as an adjective is used before uncountable nouns and *few* is used before plural nouns. See the following examples,

a. **Little** water.

b. **Few** books

In English *many* as an adjective is used before countable noun. And *much* as an adjective is used before uncountable nouns. See the following example,

a. **Many** books

b. **Much** coffee.

English quantitative adjectives are also formed without adding any morpheme.

3.1.4 Interrogative Adjective

3.1.4.1 Interrogative Adjectives in Limbu

In Limbu /saiŋ/huiŋ/hi?/ are used as interrogative adjectives. These adjectives are used in question to ask someone to get some information. For example;

a. **saiŋ** ənŋa haritʃaṭu?

  Whose horse won?

b. **huiŋ** tʃəklet kuzanuba wa?

  Which chocolate is tasty?

c. **hi?** iŋgʰəŋ?

  What information?

Limbu interrogative adjectives are also formed without adding any morphemes.

3.1.4.2 Interrogative Adjectives in English

Whose, What, Which are used as interrogative adjectives in English. They are also used as subjects and are normally followed by affirmative verbs. They are often used to ask question to somebody. See the following examples,

a. **Whose** horse won?

b. **Which** mango is tasty?

c. **What** information?

3.1.5 Possessive Adjectives

3.1.5.1 Possessive Adjectives in Limbu

Possessive adjectives in Limbu are /aiŋ/kʰoneŋ/kʰeneŋ/kʰoneŋaiŋ/ or /kʰunziŋaiŋ/. These adjectives refer to the possessor not to the thing possessed. See the following examples,

a. **aiŋ** aðakʰa kabʰaba muwa

   My friends are helpful.

b. **kʰoneŋ** kuzuṭṭa

   Her shoes

c. mjariŋ kuppa **kʰoneŋ** kuppa ho

   Mary's father is his father.

d. mentʃʰjaha **kʰuniŋaiŋ/kʰunzigʰaiŋ** ṭakhanu muwa

   The girls are with their friends.

The given data shows that the same adjective /kʰoneŋ/ is used for both possessive adjectives *his* or *her.* These possessive adjectives are formed by adding suffix <-ŋ> or <-ŋaiŋ> to the stem.

3.1.5.2 Possessive Adjectives in English

My, your, his, her, its, their are also used as adjectives. Possessive adjectives in English refer to the possessor. Everything that a man or boy possesses is *his* thing, every thing that a woman or girl possesses is *her* thing. Everything that an animal or thing possesses is *it's* thing. If there is more than one possessor, *their* is used (Thomson and Martinet 1986, p.75)

See the following examples,

a**. My** friends are helpful

b. Tom's father is **his** father.

c. The girls are with **their** friends.

d. **Her** shoes.

English possessive adjectives also do not take any morphemes.

3.1.6 Qualitative Adjective

3.1.6.1 Qualitative Adjectives in Limbu

In Limbu qualitative adjectives are derived from verbs by adding the suffix <–pa/-ba> or <-ma> to the stem. See the following examples;

a.**kim+ba** naʔmi taro wa?

  A tall man is coming.

b. **tʃuk+pa** lamsawa laŋrowa.

   Small boy is dancing.

c. **tʃuk+ma** mentʃʰaya taro wa.

  Small girl is coming.

When the suffixes <-pa/-ba> and <-ma> are added to the verb root /kim/ and /tʃuk/, the verb root change into adjectives. The suffixes <-pa/-ba> and <-ma> change the word classes. The suffix <-pa/-ba> denotes non-feminine gender marker or masculine marker. The suffix <-ma> denotes or marks both adjective and feminine gender marker. See the following examples;

a. **jam+ba** goru

  Big ox

b. **um+ma** mentʃʰja

  Short girl

By observing the above data it is clarified that the suffix <-pa/-ba> is used for male or masculine gender and suffix <-ma> is used for only female or feminine gender. Both suffixes <pa/-ba> and <-ma> change the verb root /kim/, /tʃuk/, /jam/ and /un/ to the adjectives. The suffix <-pa/-ba>denote not only masculine gender marker, they also denote neuter gender. For example;

a. **kim+ba** lauri kʰambo wa.

   A long stick is there.

b. **tʃuk+pa** samuha

   Small group

In the given examples we can also see that the dental nasal sound in coda position changes to the bilabial nasal/m/ due to the bilabial stop sound /b/. It means dental nasal sound /n/ assimilates to the following consonants for place of articulation and changes to responding to bilabial nasal /m/.

These adjectives are used both attributively and predicatively. The attributively used adjectives are given in 1(a-b) and predicatively used adjectives are given in 2(a-b).

1.a. **umba** naʔmi pʰenlo wa.

   A short man is coming.

   b. **umma** mentʃʰja

   Short girl

2. a. hamba gʰoda **tʃukpa** tʃuk.

   That horse is small.

   b. kʰune kumma **tʃukma** tʃuk.

   Her mother is small.

Some qualitative adjectives especially colour adjectives are derived through affixation process. In Limbu, the prefix <ku-> and suffixes <-la or –ra> are added to the stem to derive colour adjectives.

Seethe following examples;

1. Prefix	adj	suffix	adjective
a. ku-	mak	-la	kumakla

b. ku-	bʰo	-ra	kubʰora
c. ku-	bʰiŋ	-la	kubʰiŋla

The data shows that < ku-> is used as a prefix and derived from the third person pronoun **kʰune** meaning 'he or she' which gives the third person possessive pronoun. It goes with the adjective, /mak/, /bʰo/, and /bʰiŋ/ which only occur with 'loma' meaning 'to appear'. Here 'la' is the past form of 'loma'.

We can represent the colour word in this way,

2. adj	prefix	adj	suffix	adjective
a. mak	ku-	mak	-la	kumakla
b. bho	ku-	bho	-ra	kubʰora
c. bhing	ku-	bhing	--la	kbʰiŋla

But, the prefix <ku-> and suffix <–la or –ra> lost their original meaning and they together form colour adjective.

The composite verb 'makloma' 'to look black' is formed when the morpheme /mak/ occurs with the verb 'loma' 'to appear'. In such a verb the second or last verbal part receives morpheme sequence <ka-.......-ba> or <ka-.......-ma> in its adjective formation

The following examples will clarify the statement.

Verb composite	adjectives	
a. makloma	makkaloba/makkaloma	'black'
b.pʰoʔloma	pʰokkaloba/pʰokkaloma	'white'
c. bʰiŋloma	bʰiŋkkaloba/bʰiŋkkaloma.	'blue'

The data shows that the prefix <ka-> marks second person pronoun. Generally words like /kumakla/, /kubʰora/, /kubʰiŋla/ are taken as single lexical adjectives to mean 'black', white' and 'blue' respectively.

Like other adjectives colour adjectives are also used attributively and predicatively. The attributively used adjectives are given in 1(a-b) and predicatively used adjectives are given in 2(c-d).

1. a. **makkaloma** piʈ tʃalamrowa.

   A black cow is grazing.

  b. kʰone **pʰokkaloba** topi kʰuksu.

   He put on white cap.

2. c. ba logik **kuhetla** tʃuk.

   This dress is red.

  d. hamba piʈ **Kumakla** tʃuk.

   That cow is black.

3.1.6.2 Qualitative Adjectives in English

Qualitative adjectives are those which qualify nouns. Some qualitative adjectives in English are derived from noun by adding suffixes <-ful,-ish,-less, -ical> etc. to the stem. See the following examples,

    -ful   beautiful

    -ish   grayish/reddish

    -y   lengthy/airy

    -less priceless

    -ical mythical etc.

The nouns *beauty, grey, length, air, price, myth* change into adjectives as *beautiful, grayish, lengthy/airy, priceless and mythica*l. So these adjectives are bound morpheme, which are formed by adding the above given suffixes. These

adjectives are used both attributively and predicatively. The attributively used adjectives are given in 1(a-b) and predicatively used adjectives are given in 2(c-d).

1. a. Nikesh has **airy** room.

   b. **Priceless** products.

2. c. The rope is **lengthy.**

   d. The book which I brought was **mythical**.

Some qualitative adjectives are free morphemes, that is, they can stand in isolation. For example, *small, tall, long, clever, thin, rich* and *sweet* etc.These adjectives are formed without adding any morphemes. These adjectives are used both attributively and predicatively. The attributively used adjectives are given in 1(a-b) and predicatively used adjectives are given in 2(a-b).

1. a. Sita has a **thin** body.

   b. We have a **clever** cat.

2. a. He is **tall**.

   b. She has soft hair.

3.2 Comparison Between Limbu and English Morphemic Analysis of Adjectives

1. In Limbu no demonstrative adjectives are found. The words

/kumba/kumba/kʰamba/kʰamba/ are used only as a pronoun. These are not demonstrative adjectives because they do not agree with their nouns in number. Whereas in English *this/these/that/those* are used as demonstrative adjectives. Because they agree with their nouns in number.

Limbu demonstrative pronouns and English demonstrative adjectives are free lexical items.

47

2. In both languages distributive adjectives are formed without any morpheme. So they are free lexical items.

3. In Limbu, the same quantitative adjective /jorik/ is used before countable noun and uncountable noun but in English *many* is used before countable noun and *much* is used before uncountable noun. Similarly, /tʃulik/ is used for both countable and uncountable nouns, whereas in English quantitative adjectives *little* and *few* are used in two different purposes. *Little* is used before uncountable noun and *few* with countable noun. In the same way, Limbu quantitative adjective /θikneʈʃʰi/ is used for *some* and /huiŋsaŋ/ is used for *any*.

Both Limbu and English quantitative adjectives are free lexical items.

4. Both Limbu and English interrogative adjectives are used to ask some questions and get information from somebody. These adjectives also do not take any morphemes. So they are free morphemes.

5. The suffixes <-ŋ> or <-ŋaiŋ> is used as a possessive marker in Limbu whereas in English possessive adjectives are just free lexical items.

In both languages possessive adjectives refer to the possessor not to the thing possessed.

6. Qualitative adjectives in Limbu are derived from verb root by adding suffix <-pa/ba> or <-ma> to the stem. Similarly, color adjectives are also derived through affixation process, where the prefix <ku-> and suffixes <-la/-ra> are attached to the stem to derive color adjectives. Whereas in English the suffixes <-ful/-ish/-y/-less> are added to derive some qualitative adjectives but some other English qualitative adjectives are just free lexical items.

In both languages qualitative adjectives are used to qualify nouns and they are both free and bound morphemes.

3.3 Derivation of Other Types of Adjectives (Types of Adjectives in terms of Their Arrangement)

3.3.1 Opinion Adjective

3.3.1.1 Opinion Adjectives in Limbu

In Limbu, opinion adjectives are derived from verb root by adding prefix <ka-> and suffixes <-ba/-pa> to the stem. The suffix <-ba/-pa> is the adjectivizer which changes the verb root. So the verb roots /zak/, /le/ and /lak/ change into adjective as /kazakpa/, /kaleba/ and /kalekpa/. See the following examples;

a. **ka-zak-pa** kam

   Difficult work

b. **ka-le-ba** lamsawa

   Talented boy

c. **ka-lek-pa** sumbok

   Salty curry

Opinion adjectives are used both attributively and predicatively. The attributively and predicatively used adjectives are given respectively.

1. a. **kagoppa** naʔmi weŋzaŋwa wa.

   Rich man is selfish.

 b. aniganu **kagowa** tʃija wa.

    We have hot tea.

2. c. kʰoneŋ kuppa **kagoppa** wa.

     His father is rich.

 d. samma sumbok **kalekpa** wa.

Dry curry is tasty.

3.3.1.2 Opinion Adjectives in English

Some opinion adjectives in English are derived from noun such as beautiful, airy, lengthy, mythical and priceless etc. The nouns beauty, air, length, logic and price are changed into adjectives by adding suffixes <-ful,-y,-ical,-less>. See the following examples;

a. She seems very **beautiful.**

b. Nikesh has **airy** room.

c. mythical story

d. priceless products

Similarly, some opinion adjectives are also derived from verb root by adding suffixes <-ed,-sive,-ing,-en>. The verbs write, fry, inspire, conclude change into adjectives by adding the suffixes like <-en> in *written*, <-ed> in *fried*,<-sive> in *conclusive* and <–ing> in *inspiring*. The attributively used adjectives are given in 1(a-b) and predicatively used adjectives are given in 2(c-d).

1.a. Nikesh has **airy** room.

  b. **Mythical** story.

2.c. The rope is **lengthy**

  d. She seems very **beautiful.**

3.3.2 Size Adjectives

3.3.2.1 Size Adjectives in Limbu

Size adjectives in Limbu are derived by adding suffix <-pa/-ba> and <-ma> to the stem. For example;

Kim+ba   =kimba   'tall'

Un+ba　　=umba　'short'

tʃuk+ma　=tʃukma　'small'

tʃuk+pa　=tʃukpa　'small'

The data shows that the verb root /kim/, /un/, /tʃuk/, change into the adjectives as /kimba/, /umba/, /tʃukpa/ma/. The suffixes <-pa/-ba> and <-ma> are adjectivizer. The suffix <pa/-ba> denotes masculine gender and adjective marker both. For example;

a. **umba** naʔmi

　Short man

b. **kimba** lamsawa

　Tall boy

The suffix <-ma> denotes the feminine gender and adjective marker both. For example;

a. **kimma** mentʃʰja

　Tall women

The suffix <-ba/-pa> also denotes neuter gender. See the following examples;

a. **umba tʃʰikki** hambo nen

　A short rope is there.

b. nikesnu **jamba** kotʰa wa.

　Nikesh has big room.

Size adjectives are used both attributively and predicatively. The attributively used adjectives are given in 1(a-b) and predicatively used adjectives are given in 2(c-d).

1. a. **tʃukpa** lamsawa laŋro wa.

Small boy is dancing.

b. **umba** naʔmi

short man

2. c.lamsawa **tʃukpa** wa.

The boy is small.

d. kʰune kumma **kimma** wa.

His mother is tall.

3.3.2.2 Size Adjectives in English

Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary (1996) defines size adjective as the dimension, extent or amount of somebody and/or something, especially in relation to somebody and/or something else. In English size adjectives are free morphemes so they do not take any morpheme. See the following examples;

a. **Small** group

b. A **short** man is there.

Size adjectives are used both attributively and predicatively. The attributively used adjectives are given in 1 (a-b) and predicatively used adjectives are given in 2(c-d).

1. a.**Tall** boy is coming.

b. **Small** group

2. c. The stick is **long**.

d. The boy is **tall**.

3.3.3 Age adjective

3.3.3.1 Age Adjectives in Limbu

Age adjectives in Limbu are derived from verb root by adding prefix <ka-> and suffix <-ba/-ma> surround the verb root. The suffix <-ba/-ma> is the adjectivizer. The suffix <-ba> denotes the masculine gender and the suffix <-ma> denotes the feminine gender. See the following examples;

a. **kapoba** pappa

   Old father

b. **kaʔmoma** kumma

   Old mother

The verb roots /po/ and /mo/ change into adjectives when the prefix <ka-> and the suffix <-ba/-ma> are added surrounding them. The bilabial stop sound /p/ changes into /m/ due to the influence of neighboring bilabial nasal sound /m/ in /kaʔmoma/.

The attributively used adjectives are as follows,

a. **kapoba** kuppa oklowa.

   Old father is crying.

b. **kaʔmoma** kumma

   Old mother

The predicatively used adjectives are as follows,

a. kʰune pappa **kapoba** wa.

   His father is old.

b. aiŋ kumma **kaʔmoma** wa.

  My mother is old.

3.3.3.2 Age Adjectives in English

Age adjectives in English are formed without adding any morpheme. For example, *old, new, young, adult* etc. These adjectives are used both

attributively and predicatively. The attributively used adjectives are given in 1(a-b) and predicatively used adjectives are given in 2(c-d).

1.a. **Old** father is crying.

   b. **Young** man drives too fast.

2.c. His body is **young.**

   d. She is very **old.**

3.3.4 Shape Adjective

3.3.4.1 Shape Adjectives in Limbu

In Limbu shape adjectives are derived from verb root by adding prefix <ka-> and suffixes <-pa/-ba> and <-ma> to the stem. The verb root /me/ changes into adjective /kameba/ by adding the prefix <ka-> and suffix <-ba> surround it. Similarly, the suffix <-ba> is added to the verb root /pabam/ and changes into adjective /pabamba/. Shape adjectives in Limbu are used both attributively and predicatively.

The attributively used adjectives are given in 1(a-b) and predicatively used adjectives are given in 2(c-d).

1.a. siṯaŋaiŋ koðʰok **pabamba** wa

   Sita has a thin body.

   b. **kameba** hinza

      Fat boy

2. c. kʰamba mentʃʰja **kamema** wa

   That girl is fat.

d. kumba kotʰa ṭaðamba wa

This room is wide.

3.3.4.2 Shape Adjectives in English

Shape adjectives in English are formed without adding any morpheme so they are free morphemes. Shape adjectives in English are *thin, fat, flat, round* etc; these adjectives are used both attributively and predicatively. The attributively used adjectives are given in 1(a-b) and predicatively used adjectives are given in 2(c-d).

1. a. **Fat** girl is coming.

   b. **Wide** room.

2. c. The table is **round**.

   d. Her skin is **thin**.

3.3.5 Origin Adjective

3.3.5.1 Origin Adjectives in Limbu

No any Limbu word is used for origin adjectives. Like in other languages Limbu native speakers also use the same words for origin adjectives. For example, *French, Japanese, Indian, Eastern, Western* etc. These origin adjectives are derived from noun root. *Eastern* is derived from *east*; *Indian* is derived from noun root *India*. See the following examples;

a. kʰunzigʰanu **frentʃ** logik wa

   They have French dress.

b. **istər n** naʔmi ṭaro wa

   Eastern man is coming.

3.3.5.2 Origin Adjectives in English

English origin adjectives are also derived from noun root. The same adjectives such as, *French, Greek, Chinese, Japanese and Pakistani* are used as an origin adjectives. These adjectives are used both attributively and predicatively. The attributively used adjectives are given in 1(a-b) and predicatively used adjectives are given in 2(c-d).

1. a. Tom speaks **Japanese** language.

   b. Sita has **Chinese** dress..

2. c. This language is Japanese.

   d. He is **French**.

3.3.6 Material Adjectives

3.3.6.1 Material Adjectives in Limbu

Material adjectives in Limbu are derived from noun root by adding suffix <-ŋaiŋ> to the noun root. The noun roots /juppaŋ/, /samjaŋ/, /siŋ/ and /kʰam/ change into adjectives by adding suffix <-ŋaiŋ>. See the following examples;

a. **juppaŋaiŋ** auntʰi

   Silver ring

b. **siŋŋaiŋ** tebl

   Wooden table

Material adjectives in Limbu are used only attributively. For example,

a. siṭanu **juppaŋaiŋ** auntʰi wa

   Sita has a Silver ring.

b. aniŋanu **kʰamŋaiŋ** tʃula hoppa

   We haven't soil pot.

The suffix <-ŋaiŋ> denotes genitive marker too.

3.3.6.2 Material Adjectives in English

Some material adjectives in English are derived from noun root by adding suffix <-en> to the stem. Some others are free morphemes. See the following examples,

a. **silver** ring

b. **wooden** table

c. **golden** bang

The noun *wood* and *gold* change into adjectives by adding suffix <-en> to them. In English the suffix <-en> also denotes genitive marker. These adjectives are used only attributively. See the following examples;

a. He made **golden** bang.

b. I got **Silver** ring.

3.3.7 Purpose Adjectives

3.3.7.1 Purpose Adjectives in Limbu

In Limbu, purpose adjectives are derived from verb root by adding prefix <ka-> and suffix <-pa/-ba> to the stem. The verb roots /sa/ and /θo/ change into adjectives by adding prefix <ka-> and suffix <-pa/-ba> to the stem. See the following examples;

a. **kasappa** dət

   Writing pen

b. **kaðoba** tʃʰomme

   Sewing needle

So the suffix <-pa/-ba> is the adjectivizer, which changes the verb root to the adjective. These adjectives are used only attributively. For example;

a. aniŋanu **kamoba** kaŋ hoppa

 We haven't digging spade.

b. siṭanu **kaðoba** siyo wa

   Sita has a sewing needle.

3.3.7.2 Purpose Adjectives in English

58

In English, purpose adjectives are also derived from verb root by adding suffix <-ing> to the stem. The attributively used purpose adjectives are as follows.

a. **Frying** pan

b. **Sleeping** bag

The verb roots *fry* and *sleep* change into adjectives as *frying* and *sleeping* by adding suffix <-ing> to the stem. So the suffix <-ing> is the adjectivizer.

-Adjective order in English

The following table shows the adjective order in English,

Table No. 5 Order of Adjectives in English

	Opinion	Size	Age	Shape	Color	Origin	Material	Purpose	
a	Silly		Young			English			Man
b		Huge		Round			Mettaled		Bowl
c		Small			Red			Sleeping	Bag

Source:http://web 2.uvcs.uvic study zone/410/grammar(Jan. 14)

a. Silly young English Man.

b. Huge round mettaled bowl.

c. Small red sleeping Bag.

-Adjective order in Limbu

In Limbu, the order of qualitative adjectives are flexible. See the following examples;

1. a. tʃukpa marakapa fuŋ

 b. marakapa tʃukpa fuŋ

   Small red flower.

2. a. jamma kumakla pi?

b. kumakla jamma pi?

   Big black cow.

3. a. kimba nuwa naʔmi

 b. nuwa kimba naʔmi

   Handsome tall man.

Adjective order in Limbu is flexible whereas in English it occurs in a definite order.

3.4 Comparison Between Limbu and English Morphemic Analysis of Other Types of Adjectives

i. Limbu opinion adjectives are derived from verb root by adding prefix <ka-> and suffix <-ba/-pa> to the stem, whereas in English some opinion adjectives are derived from noun root by adding suffixes <-ful, -y,-ical,-less> to the stem.

Both Limbu and English opinion adjectives are bound morphemes.

ii. Age adjectives are derived from verb root by adding prefix <ka-> and suffix <-ba/-ma> to the stem in Limbu, whereas in English age adjectives are derived without adding any morphemes.

iii. Shape adjectives in Limbu are derived from verb root by adding prefix <ka-> and suffixes <-ba/-pa> and <-ma> surround the root, whereas in English they are just free lexical items.

iv. Both origin adjectives in Limbu and English are same, they are derived from noun root.

v. Material adjectives in Limbu are derived from noun root by adding suffix <-ŋaiŋ> to the stem, whereas in English some material adjectives are derived from noun root by adding suffix <-en> to the stem.

Both Limbu and English material adjectives are bound morphemes in this sense.

vi. Purpose adjectives in Limbu are derived from verb root by adding prefix <ka-> and suffix <-pa/-ba> to the stem, whereas in English they are derived from verb root by adding suffix <-ing> to the stem.

Both Limbu and English purpose adjectives are bound morphemes.

3.5. Participles Used as Adjectives

3.5.1 Participles Used as Adjectives in Limbu

In Limbu, participle adjectives are derived from verb root by adding suffix <-naba> to the stem. See the following examples;

a. **Pim-naba** logik

   Given cloth

b. **nom-naba** maki

   Roasted corn

c. **θunŋ-naba** θi

   Drunk ale

The verb roots /pim/, /nom/ and /θuŋ/ change into adjectives by adding suffix <-naba> to the stem. So, verb root with suffix <-naba> denotes past participle adjective in Limbu. The attributively and predicatively used adjectives are as follows,

The attributively used adjectives are as follows;

1.a. **nom-naba** maki kozanuwa wa

   Roasted corn is tasty.

   b. **pim-naba** logik kagottui ?

Do you have cloth which I have given?

The predicatively used adjectives are as follows;

1.a. kʰamba maki **nom-naba** ho

   This corn is roasted.

In Limbu present participle adjectives are derived from verb root by adding suffix <-ro/-lo> to the main verb and the suffix <-ba> added to the auxiliary verb **wa**. So the suffixes <-ro/-lo> is added to the main verb and the suffix <-ba> added to the auxiliary verb **wa** to form a present participle adjectives. See the following examples,

a. **pero-wa-ba** pu

   Flying bird.

b. **θaro-wa-ba** fon

   Falling snow.

c. **okro-wa-ba** lamsawa

   Crying boy.

The verb roots /paro/, /θaro/ and /okro/ change into adjectives as /parowaba/, /θarowaba/ and /okrowaba/ through the affixation process.

3.5.2 Participles Used as Adjectives in English

Both present participles and past participles can be used as adjectives. Present participle adjectives such as amusing, boring, tiring etc. are active and mean 'having this affect'. Past participle adjectives amused, horrified, tired etc. are passive and mean 'affected in this way (Thomson and Martinent 1986, p.33)

See the following examples;

a. An **interesting** movie.

b. They like **fried** meat.

These adjectives are derived from verb root by adding present participle marker or suffix <-ing> and past participle marker or suffix <-ed> to the stem. The verb *interest* change into adjective by adding suffix <-ing> to the stem and the verb *fry* change into adjective by adding suffix <-ed> to the stem.

These adjectives are used both attributively and predicatively.

The attributive used adjectives are given in 1(a-b) and predicatively used adjectives are given in 2(c-d).

1. a. **Amusing** story.

   b. **Interesting** story.

2. c. The meat was **fried**.

   d. The audience was **bored**.

3.6. Comparison Between Limbu and English Participle Adjectives

i. In Limbu, root + <-naba> suffix denotes past participle adjectives whereas in English past participles adjectives marker is <-ed>.

ii. The suffix <-ro/-lo> with the main verb and the suffix <-wa> with the auxiliary verb denote present participle marker. Whereas, in English the suffix <-ing> denotes the present participle marker.

3.7 Compound Adjective

3.7.1 Compound Adjectives in Limbu

In Limbu compound adjectives are formed by putting two words together to form a new adjective. These adjectives also used to modify noun and that they precede a noun. In such two words the second word is generally the participle

adjective which is made up of being attached the suffix <-ba> to the verb root. See the following examples;

The attributively used adjectives are as follows;

a. **ʈok-kazaba** naʔmi

  Rica-eating man.

b. **naʔmi-kahaba** kotʃu

  Man-biting dog.

c. **piʔnu-kabiba** pi?

  Milk-giving cow.

d. **dʰjŋgro-kazamba** maŋba

  Drum-biting witch doctor.

 In the compound adjective /dʰjaŋro-kazamba/, this contains two words /dʰjaŋro/ and /kazamba/ which can occur as words in their own rights. The predicatively used adjectives are as follows;

a. ba kotʃu **naʔmi-kahaba** ho

  This is man biting dog.

b. ba pi? **piʔnu-kabiba** ho

   This is milk giving cow.

3.7.2 Compound Adjectivs in English

Compound adjectives in English are hyphenated when they precede a noun, and that they perform the same function as other types of adjectives which is to modify the noun that they proceed. Compound adjectives involve the putting together of two or more words to create a new adjectives.

The formation of same English compounds is at least in part motivated by phonology. There is a tendency to form compounds by joining together pre-

existing words that rhymes such as: Black-Jack, clap-trap, night-light. Naturally enough such words are called rhyming compounds. Often rhyming compounds are made up of identical words: Goody-goody, pretty-pretty, preachy-preachy. (Katamba 1993, p.292). Some compound adjectives in English are given as follows;

a. A **long-lasting** materials

b. A **ten dollar** bill

As compound adjectives contain two words sometimes second word may take past participle form or suffix <-ed> or present participle form or suffix <-ing> to form a compound adjectives.

For example,

a. A **tight-fisted** woman.

b. A **life-giving** service.

These adjectives are used both attributively and predicatively. The attributively used adjectives are as follows,

a. A **one-way** street

b. A **three hour** movie.

The predicatively used adjectives are as follows,

a. This movie is **long-lasting**.

b. This street is **one-way.**

3.8 Comparison Between Limbu and English Morphemic Analysis of Compound Adjectives

i. In Limbu, second word contains only the suffix <-ba> to form a compound adjective. The suffix <-ba> denotes present participle marker, whereas in

English second word contains either past participle morpheme <-ed> and present participle morpheme <-ing> to form compound adjectives.

CHAPTER FOUR

FINDINGDS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

4.1 findings

The major goal of this research work was to determine the adjectival system in the Limbu language particularly in the Chhathare dialect of Limbu and to compare and contrast the system in Limbu with that of English.

4.1.1 The Morphemic Analysis of Demonstrative Adjectives in English and Limbu

Demonstrative adjectives in English are *this, that, these and those* which aggre with their nouns in number. Whereas in Limbu demonstrative adjectives are unmarked. The words /kumba/, /kumba/, /kʰamba/ and /kʰamba/ are just used as pronouns because they do not agree with their nouns in number. The same word /kumba/ is used for both *this* and *these*. Similarly, /kʰamba/ is used for both *that* and *those*. The suffix <-gʰa>is used to indicate plural marker in Limbu. In both languages these adjectives are free lexical items.

4.1.2 The Morphemic Analysis of Distributive Adjectives in English and Limbu

Distributive adjectives in English are *each, every, either and neither* whereas in Lmbu /t̪ʰiksek/, /t̪ʰikt̪oba/ and /huiŋsaŋ/ are used as distributive adjectives. In both languages these adjectives are free lexical items.

4.1.3 The Morphemic Analysis of Quantitative Adjectives in English and Limbu

English quantitative adjectives are used for different purposes. *Some* as a quantitative adjective is used in both plural and uncountable nouns and is used with affirmative verbs and *any* is used with negative verbs. On the other hand, Limbu quantitative adjective /t̪ʰiknet̪tʃʰi/ is used for *some* and /huiŋsaŋ/ is used for *any*. Similarly, *little* is used before uncountable noun and *few* is used before countable noun in English. But in Limbu the same word /tʃulik/ is used for both *little* and *few*. In the same way, *many* is used before countable noun and *much* is used before uncountable noun whereas in Limbu the same adjective /jorik/ is used for both *many* and *much*.

In both languages quantitative adjectives do not take any morpheme. So they are free lexical items.

4.1.4 The Morphemic Analysis of Interrogative Adjectives in English and Limbu

Which, what and whose are used as interrogative adjectives in English. Their corresponding words in Limbu are /saiŋ/, /huiŋ/ and /hi?/. In both languages these adjectives are used to ask questions to somebody for getting informations and they are normally used as subject and are followed by an affirmative verb.

In both languages these adjectives are free lexical items.

4.1.5 The Morphemic Analysis of Possessive Adjectives in English and Limbu

English possessive adjectives are *his, her, its, their* and *my*. Gender distinction is found in English possessive adjectives. *His* as possessive adjective is used for male possessor and *her* to the female possessor whereas in Limbu /aiŋ/, /kʰoneŋ/, /kʰneŋ/, /kʰunzigʰaiŋ/ or /kʰoneŋaiŋ/ are used as possessive adjectives. No gender distinction is found in the possessive adjectives in Limbu. The same word /kʰoneŋ/ is used for both male and female.

English possessive adjectives are free lexical items whereas in Limbu the suffix <-ŋ> or <-ŋaiŋ>are markers for possessive adjectives.

4.1.6 The Morphemic Analysis of Qualitative Adjectives in English and Limbu

Some qualitative adjectives in English are bound adjectives. The suffixes <-ful/-less/-ish/-ical/-y> are added to derive qualitative adjectives whereas in Limbu the suffixes <-pa/ba> or <-ma> are the adjectivizer which are attached to the stem to derive qualitative adjectives. In English no gender distinction marker is found in qualitative adjectives whereas in Limbu it is found. The suffix <-pa/-ba> denotes non-feminine gender marker and the suffix <-ma> denotes feminine gender marker.

In the same way, colour words in Limbu are bound morphemes. The prefix <ku-> and the suffix <-la> attached to the stem to derive colour adjectives, the prefix <ku-> is derived from third person pronoun /kʰune/ meaning 'he/she' which gives the meaning of third person possessive pronoun. Similarly the suffix <-la> is the past form of /loma/ which meaning 'to appear' similarly, in English some colour adjectives are derived by adding suffix <-ish> to the stem.

4.1.7 The Morphemic Analysis of Opinion Adjectives in English and Limbu

Some English opinion adjectives are derived from the noun root. The suffix <-ful/-y/-ical/-less> are added to the stem to derive English opinion adjectives whereas in Limbu opinion adjectives are derived from verb root by adding prefix <ka-> and suffix <-ba/-ma> to the stem.

In both languages opinion adjectives are bound morphemes.

4.1.8 The Morphemic Analysis of Age Adjectives in English and Limbu

Age adjectives in English are just free lexical items, but in Limbu they are derived from verb root by adding prefix <ka-> and suffix <-ba/-ma> to the stem. Similarly, no gender distinction marker is found in English age adjectives whereas in Limbu the suffix <-ba> denotes the masculine gender marker and <-ma> denotes the feminine gender marker.

4.1.9 The Morphemic Analysis of Shape Adjectives in English and Limbu

English shape adjectives are free lexical items they do not take any morpheme. On the other hand, Limbu shape adjectives are derived form verb root by adding prefix <ka-> and the suffixes <-ba/-pa> and <-ma> to the stem. Similarly, no gender distinction marker is found in English shape adjectives but in Limbu the suffix <-ba/-pa> denotes masculine gender marker and <-ma> denotes feminine gender marker.

4.1.10 The Morphemic Analysis of Origin Adjectives in English and Limbu

In both languages origin adjectives are similar. No Limbu words are used for origin adjectives. Origin adjectives are derived from noun root. In this sense they are also bound morphemes.

4.1.11 The Morphemic Analysis of Material Adjectives in English and Limbu

Some material adjectives are derived from noun root by adding suffix <-en> to the stem. But some others are free lexical items. Similarly, material adjectives in Limbu are also derived from noun root by adding suffix <-ŋaiŋ> to the stem. So, <ŋaiŋ> is the adjective marker in Limbu.

4.1.12 The Morphemic Analysis of Purpose Adjectives in English and Limbu

In English the suffix <-ing> is added to the stem to derive purpose adjectives whereas in Limbu the prefix <ka-> and suffixes <-ba/-pa> are added to the stem to derive purpose adjectives. So, the suffix <-ba/-pa> are the adjective marker in Limbu.

In both languages purpose adjectives are bound morphemes.

4.1.13 The Morphemic Analysis of Participles Used as Adjective in English and Limbu

English present participle adjectives are derived from verb root by adding suffix <-ing> to the stem whereas in Limbu they are derived from verb root by adding the suffix <-ro/-lo> to the stem and the suffix <-ba> to the auxiliary verb 'wa'. In the same way, English past participle adjectives are derived from verb root by adding past participle marker or suffix, <-ed> to the stem whereas in Limbu the verb root with <-naba> suffix denotes past participle adjectives.

In both languages it is found that participles are also used as adjectives.

4.1.14 The Morphemic Analysis of Compound Adjectives in English and Limbu

Compound adjectives in English are derived from verb root by adding past participle marker or suffix <-ed> and present participle marker <-ing> to the stem whereas compound adjectives in Limbu are derived from verb root by adding the suffix <-ba> to the second word which generally denotes the present participle marker.

In both languages compound adjectives are bound morphemes.

Differences between English and Limbu adjectival morphological system

i. Most of the adjectives in the Limbu language are derived though the affixation process of <ka->........<-pa/-ba> or <-ma> where as in English different types of affixes are attached to derive adjectives.

ii. Gender distinction marker is found in Limbu adjectives. The suffix <-pa/-ba> denotes masculine gender marker and the suffix <-ma> denotes feminine gender marker. But no such gender distinction marker is found in English adjectives.

4.2 Recommendation and Pedagogical Implications

On the basis of the findings after the analysis and interpretation of the Limbu and English Adjectival morphology, the following recommendations have been made for the pedagogical implications.

a. There would be no problem in the areas where the two languages are similar but differences between the two languages create difficulty in learning the target language. Therefore, teaching should focus on the areas of difficulty.

b. The findings of the present study show that the process of Limbu adjectival morphological system is more complex in comparison to English. So complexity of Limbu adjectival morphological system should be considered

while teaching English adjectival morphological system to Limbu native speakers.

c. Crystal clear picture about the affixation process should be drawn on the mind of the students who are learning adjectival morphological system in English or Limbu language by following a comparative method.

d. Since possessive adjective /kʰuneŋ/ meaning 'his or her' in Limbu does not show gender distinction, the care should be given while teaching Limbu possessive adjectives to the Limbu language learners.

e. The words /kumba/, /kumba/, /kʰamba/ and /kʰamba/ are just used as demonstrative pronouns in Limbu whereas in English they are used as adjectives, so the care should be given on the distinction between them while teaching English to the Limbu learners.

f. The clear cut idea about participles used as adjectives in Limbu should be given while teaching English participles used as adjectives to the Limbu learners

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Appendix 1

INTERVIEW QUESTIONAIRE

To draw the information for the research work entitled "Adjectival Morphology in Limbu and English: A Linguistic Comparative Study". The following interview questionnaire has been prepared. It is being carried out under the guidance of Tapasi Bhattacharya, Reader, Central Department of English Language Education, Faculty of Education, T.U. Kirtipur, Kathmandu. The researcher hopes that the great co-operation of the informants will be the great contribution of the research.

Thank you

Name: Sex:

Address: Age:

Educational Status:

How do you say the following phrases and sentences in your mother tongue.

Adjectives used in sentences:-

1. A tall boy is coming.

....

2. A long stick is there.

 ....

3. They have blue dress.

....

4. They have black dress.

....

5. Each man had a weapon.

....

6. This is our room.

....

7. Sita has a thin body.

....

8. We have a clever cat.

....

9. That mango is tasty.

....

10. Every man knows the simple quotation

....

11. Maya has rude voice.

....

12. Whose horse won?

....

13. Ramu ate dry food.

....

14. Anil has a young body.

....

15. He looked calm.

....

16. Tom felt cold.

....

17. Tom became rich.

....

18. We haven't much time.

....

19. He put on white cap.

....

20. She seems very beautiful.

....

21. I like sweet chocolate.

....

22. Nilu has not got either of pens.

....

23. Small boy is dancing.

....

24. My friends are helpful.

....

25. Hari bought a thick coat.

....

26. I have read neither of books.

....

27. Nikesh has airy room.

....

28. She has soft hair.

....

29. She has little money.

....

30. A black cow is grazing.

....

Adjectives used in phrases.

1. Short man

....

2. Some cakes

....

3. Hot tea

....

4. Fat girl

....

5. Few maps

....

6. Salty curry.

....

7. Many books

....

8. Sharp knife

....

9. Sunny day

....

10. Good boy

....

11. Poor farmer

....

12. No idea

....

13. Pure water

....

14. Silly policeman

....

15. Little money

....

16. Chief Editor

....

17. Sent parcel

....

18. Any fish

....

19. Small group

....

20. Her shoes

....

21. Pretty child

....

22. Bad information

....

23. Expensive apples

....

24. Cruel friend

....

25. Wrong materials

....

26. Useful products

....

27. His foot

....

28. Intelligent student

....

29. Long stick

....

30. Selfish partner

....

Thank you