CHAPTER-ONE
INTRODUCTION

1.1 General Background

Language is a means of communication. That is to say, it is one of the major means of exchanging ideas, feelings and emotions. Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary (2000,p.721) defines language as 'a way of expressing ideas and feeling using movements, symbols, and sounds.' For example, bees communicate using signs, animals communicate using sounds, and so on and so forth. There are mainly five types of communication systems within which human beings and animals are also bounded. They are as follows:

i. Oral – aural communication (mouth –ear)
ii. Visual communication (eyes)
iii. Tactile communication (skin)
iv. Olfactory communication (nose)
v. Gustatory communication (tongue)

Human communication is different to that of animal communication. Animal communication lacks the following properties as a whole though the animals share some of them to some degree.

i. Vocal Auditory Channel
ii. Interchangeability
iii. Arbitrariness
iv. Productivity
v. Displacement
vi. Cultural Transmission
vii. Discreteness
viii. Duality of Patterning
ix. Structure Dependency

Language is species-specific. It is the most common and effective means of communication. Language is a voluntary vocal system of human communication. Language consists of two main manifestations: speech and writing. Speech is primary and writing is secondary. It is widely believed that speech is originally language and writing is simply a reflection of speech. 'Speech consists of pronunciation of vowel and consonant sounds, word stress (if any) sentence stress, rhythm, juncture and intonations.' (Bhattarai, 1996, p.89)

Actually spoken form of language is fundamental and original. This happens to the Limbu language. Limbu 'Mundhum or Veda' is still in the spoken form though some Mundhum books are available nowadays.

The Limbu language is a living language. It is regarded as the dominant and the most prominent language of the Kiranti group of Tibeto-Burman languages. Although Nepal is a multilingual country, only the Nepali language underwent through standardisation and other more than seventy languages were neglected in the name of ‘one language, one nation policy’. But after the restoration of democracy in 1990, constitutional right was given to every ethnic groups to have their primary level education through their native languages. As a result, primary level curriculums, text books and other instructional materials have been made. Now primary classes are being run.

Language is caste, ethnic-group specific or geography specific, and so on. Language is governed by specific sound systems. Without the study and knowledge of sounds, language learning will be incomplete. Within the sound system, we find two types of sounds: consonants and vowels. They differ from language to language having common and rare sound segments.

1.1.1 The English Language in Nepal

English is a prestigious and the most dominant language. It is because it has become an international level linguafranca. English is used in the field of education, science and technology, business, and so on. The world's most important books are written in the English language. It is spoken all over the world. Pilots on international flights use English. For these reasons, it has become a world's language.

In the context of Nepal, how English entered for the first time is important and memorable. English is regarded as one of the most important languages. It has been taken as a medium of instruction by placing it as a compulsory subject from the very beginning upto the higher education (upto bachelor's level). English came into existence after the Prime Minister Janga Bahadur Rana's Visit to England. In 1854AD, Janga B. Rana established Durbar High School in Kathmandu. Since then English has been mentioned in the curriculum as a compulsory subject.

1.1.2 The Limbu Language

Traditionally, the Kirant Region is divided into three major areas : Wallo Kirant, Majh Kirant and Pallo Kirant. The original place of the Limbu is Pallo Kirant. Pallo Kirant includes the hilly region of Koshi and Mechi zone of Nepal : Terhathum, Dhankutta, Sankhuwasabha, Taplejung, Panchthar, Ilam, Sunsari, and Northen part of Morang district (Limbu- Nepali-English Dictionary, 2059 p. 9). According to the CBS Report 2001, except Rolpa, Rukum, Salyan, Jajarkot, Kalikot and Bajhang, Limbu native speakers can be found in 69 districts. The following table makes it clear.

Table -1: District wise Distribution of Population by Mother Tongue (Limbu)

S.N.	District	Pop. by Limbu Mother Tongue		S.N.	District	Pop. by Limbu Mother Tongue
1	Taplejung	53691		28	Nuwakot	12
2	Panchthar	79949		29	Rasuwa	6
3	Ilam	35868		30	Dhading	6
4	Jhapa	34730		31	Makwanpur	61
5	Morang	36027		32	Rautahat	13
6	Sunsari	16194		33	Bara	54
7	Dhankuta	22893		34	Parsa	33
8	Terhathum	37047		35	Chitwan	183
9	Sankhuwasabha	7864		36	Gorkha	15
10	Bhojpur	128		37	Lamjung	47
11	Solukhumbu	45		38	Tanahu	25
12	Okhaldhunga	748		39	Syangja	24
13	Khotang	56		40	Kaski	108
14	Udayapur	222		41	Manang	2
15	Saptari	119		42	Mustang	11
16	Siraha	129		43	Myagdi	4
17	Dhanusa	27		44	Parbat	29
18	Mahottari	69		45	Baglung	14
19	Sarlahi	61		46	Gulmi	1
20	Sindhuli	842		47	Palpa	15
21	Ramechhap	11		48	Nawalparasi	57
22	Dolakha	28		49	Rupandehi	63
23	Sindhupalchok	37		50	Kapilbastu	6
24	Kavrepalanchok	46		51	Arghakhanchi	1
25	Lalitpur	1530		52	Pyuthan	14
26	Bhaktapur	308		53	Rolpa	-
27	Kathmandu	3431		54	Rukum	-
55	Salyan	-		66	Humla	1

S.N.	District	Pop. by Limbu Mother Tongue		S.N.	District	Pop. by Limbu Mother Tongue
56	Dang	47		67	Bajura	4
57	Banke	47		68	Bajhang	-
58	Bardiya	57		69	Achham	2
59	Surkhet	10		70	Doti	36
60	Dailekh	1		71	Kailali	277
61	Jajarkot	-		72	Kanchanpur	193
62	Dolpa	16		73	Dadeldhura	24
63	Jumla	1		74	Baitadi	1
64	Kalikot	-		75	Darchula	6
65	Mugu	6			**Grand Total**	**333633 (1.7%)**

(Source : CBS Report 2001)

The Limbu language is a living language having its own native speakers, script, culture and tradition. It has its own word stocks, grammar, culture, civilization along with literature. For these realities, there is no reason to deny its uniqueness. Also it is unique in the sense that this language consists of some rare signs and symbols that are used to produce unique sounds and meanings.

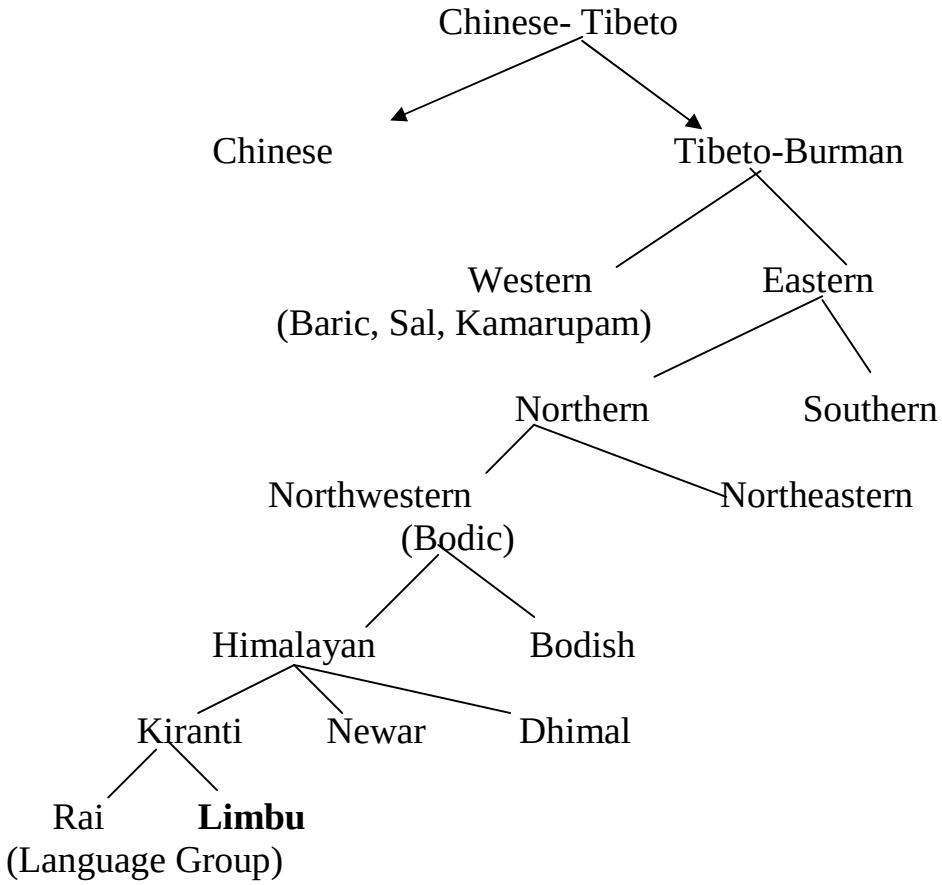
1.1.2.1 The Name 'Limbu'

The word 'Limbuwan' is made up of 'Li + abu+ ban' → Limbuwan (a kingdom conquered by bow). (LNED 2059, p.9). In this way, the term 'Limbu' is derived from Limbuwan, or the citizen living in that territory and speaking the native language of that territory is known as 'Limbu'. We have already discussed that the language used by the Limbu people is called the Limbu language.

1.1.2.2 Genetic Affiliation

Limbus are one of the major ethnic groups in the eastern part of Nepal. In terms of population and vastness of the geographical distribution, Limbu is considered as the dominant and the most prominent language of the Kiranti group of Tibeto-Burman Language (Gautam, 2005,P.3). The Limbu language belongs to Tibeto-Burman Language family. To be specific the following diagram makes it clear:

Diagram-1 : Chinese Tibeto Language Family



(Source: LNED 2059,P.10)

1.1.2.3 Demography and Distribution

The original place or the homeland of the Limbu is Pallo Kirant. The hilly regions of Koshi and Mechi (Terhathum, Dhankuta, Sankhuwasabha, Taplejung, Panchthar, Ilam, Sunsari, and the northern part of Morang district) come under Pallo Kirant. Apart from these areas, the Limbu language is spoken in Aasam, Dubars, Meghalaya, Nagaland, Manipur, Burma, Bhutan, Morang, Sunsari, Jhapa, Kathmandu, Lalitpur and Bhaktapur.

The Limbu language has its own script named 'Sirijunga Script'. It has flourished its grammar, culture, and literature well. It is a fully independent language. According to the CBS Report, 2001, there are 333,633 Limbu native speakers. The Limbus are able to save their culture, language and script instead of being influenced by other ethnic groups.

Table -2 : District-wise Distribution of Population by Caste (Limbu)

S.N.	District	Pop. of Limbu		S.N.	District	Pop. of Limbu
1	Taplejung	56234		39	Syangja	45
2	Panchthar	81488		40	Kaski	264
3	Ilam	40524		41	Manang	2
4	Jhapa	37646		42	Mustang	9
5	Morang	36973		43	Myagdi	8
6	Sunsari	18052		44	Parbat	20
7	Dhankuta	22849		45	Baglung	18
8	Terhathum	40020		46	Gulmi	16
9	Sankhuwasabha	7584		47	Palpa	19
10	Bhojpur	138		48	Nawalparasi	141
11	Solukhumbu	48		49	Rupandehi	2251
12	Okhaldhunga	79		50	Kapilbastu	312
13	Khotang	167		51	Arghakhanchi	2
14	Udayapur	570		52	Pyuthan	12
15	Saptari	1888		53	Rolpa	7
16	Siraha	765		54	Rukum	2
17	Dhanusa	667		55	Salyan	5
18	Mahottari	13		56	Dang	111
19	Sarlahi	60		57	Banke	190
20	Sindhuli	555		58	Bardiya	42
21	Ramechhap	12		59	Surkhet	43
22	Dolakha	25		60	Dailekh	2
23	Sindhupalchok	9		61	Jajarkot	3
24	Kavrepalanchok	57		62	Dolpa	1
25	Lalitpur	2187		63	Jumla	13
26	Bhaktapur	302		64	Kalikot	1
27	Kathmandu	5478		65	Mugu	1
28	Nuwakot	16		66	Humla	16
29	Rasuwa	14		67	Bajura	12
30	Dhading	31		68	Bajhang	3
31	Makwanpur	224		69	Achham	46
32	Rautahat	35		70	Doti	28
33	Bara	224		71	Kailali	214
34	Parsa	109		72	Kanchanpur	57
35	Chitwan	183		73	Dadeldhura	26
36	Gorkha	40		74	Baitadi	74
37	Lamjung	40		75	Darchula	4
38	Tanahu	53			**Grand Total**	**359379**

(Source : CBS Report 2001)

1.1.2.4 Dialects of Limbu

The same language is spoken differently in different places. The Limbu language does not go beyond the feature. The form of a language that is spoken in one area may have different form in other area. Such social and regional variation of the Limbu language can be mainly classified into four dialects.

From Tista to Arun River, the main regions where the Limbus live, the big rivers and brook, horrible hills have divided the Limbu language into four dialects. (LNED, 2059, p. 10)

a. Panchthare (also 'Panthare') Dialect

This dialect is used in Yangrok of Taplejung, Chaubis Thum of Dhankuta, Ilam, Panchthar districts and in some foreign countries, too. Panchthare dialect is accepted as the 'standard dialect'. In that reality, curriculums and textbooks have been prepared in this dialect.

b. Phedape Dialect

This dialect is widely used in Terhathum district. The word 'Phedape' is the adjectival form of 'Phedap', the area where Phedape dialect is used.

c. Tamarkhole Dialect

This dialect is spoken in Taplejung district and especially it is spoken in Tamor Khola and its surrounding areas, such as Mewa or Meiwa Khola.

d. Chhathare Dialect

This dialect is spoken in Tankhuwa, Hattidhunge, Bhirgaun, and Banchare of Dhankuta district. It is also spoken in Dangappa, Chathar-Pokhari, Hamarjung and Okharbote of south-east of Terhathum district.
Some examples of Panthare, Tamorkhole, Phedape and Chathare dialects for 'Like that' '= tyastai po ho':

i. 'cDaf x[Ss]afGal [❷mba hɛkkebanbi] : Panchthare

ii. xfaf vDe]afGcl [haba kh❷mbhebani] : Tamorkhole
iii. xfaf x[De]afGcl [haba hɛmbhebani] : Phedape
iv. xfD a}a[[hambaib☜] : Chhathare

1.1.2.5 Legal and Educational Position of Limbu in Nepal

The Limbu language is living and the dominant language in the hilly regions of Panchthar, Ilam, Taplejung, Terhathum, Dhankuta, Sankhuwasabha, Jhapa, Morang, and Sunsari. It has become the medium of sharing ideas. From these realities, it has taken place in press media and electronic media. For example, different FM stations including Radio Nepal broadcast the news and other programmes in the Limbu language. Different articles are being published in Gorkhapatra and other newspapers. The CDC has designed primary level curriculum in the Limbu language or the Janak Sikshya Samagri Kendra has been publishing primary level textbooks in the Limbu language. Dictionaries, books related to culture, language, music, art, films and training manuals are being prepared in the Limbu language, so it is a matter of happiness that the Limbu language is able to sustain life.

Classes of Limbu language are being run in Panchthar, Ilam, Taplejung, Terhathum, Dhankuta, Sankhuwasabha, Jhapa, Morang, and Sunsari districts. Also in some schools of the Kathmandu Valley, the Limbu language is being taught as a local language. On the other hand, teachers are being facilitated by providing skill-oriented training.

1.1.3 The Sirijunga Script

Though some languages do not have their own script, they are accepted as languages. So far as the Limbu language is concerned, it has its own scripts named Sirijunga Script. Here is a brief history about it.

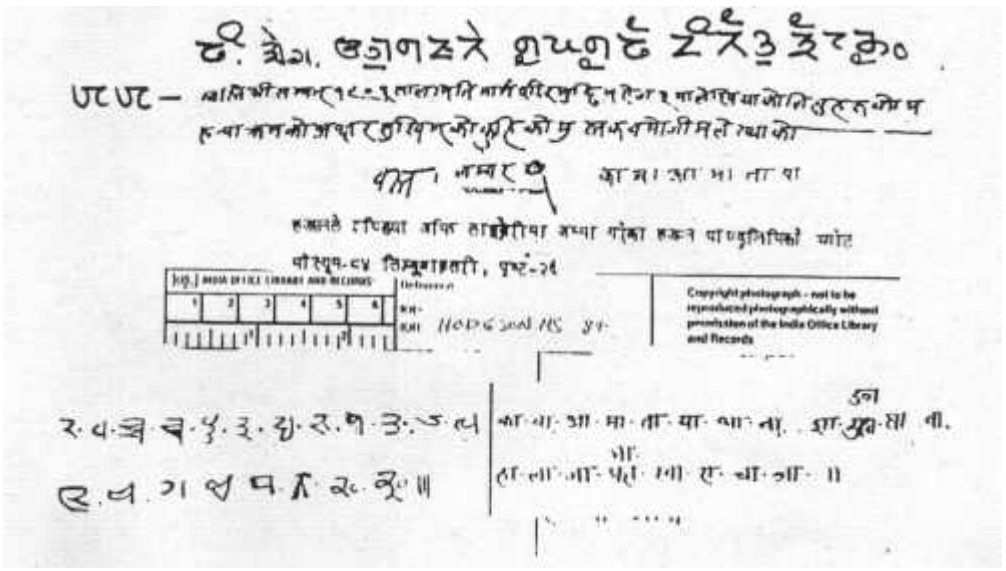
1.1.3.1 Historical Background

Historic King Sirijunga (9^{th} century) is regarded as the inventor of the Limbu script. The Limbu script is, therefore, known as 'Sirijunga Script'. Because it has come a long way since the birth of Sirijunga first, many changes have been made in its sound system. Schulzi (1747, p:3), in his book **'Grammatica Hindustanica',** had published Limbu consonants / k, g, m, g, p, j(y), s/ in course of presenting devanagari

scripts under the heading foreword (Kainla 2049,pp.55-56) and these consonants are regarded as the first printed Limbu (consonant) scripts.

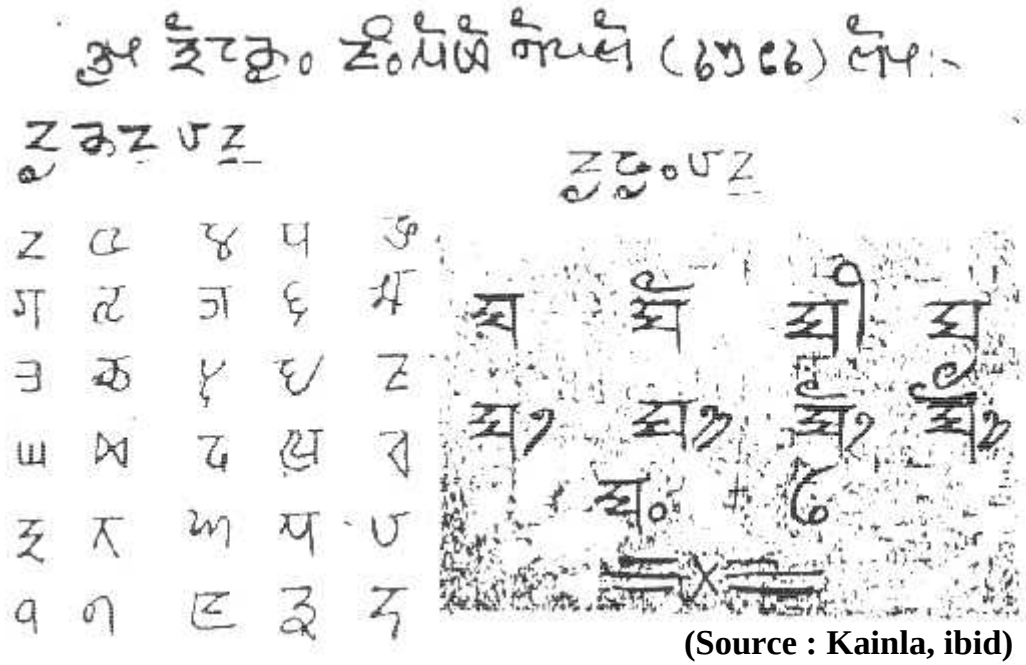
Nearly after one hundred years, Limbu collection made by B.H. Hudgson (1842-46) and Campbell (1855) presented the Limbu consonants and vowels nearly in the same way : 19 consonants + 1 vowel =20

Diagram – 2 : Sirijunga Letters Collected by B.H. Hudgson



(Source : Kainla, 1992)

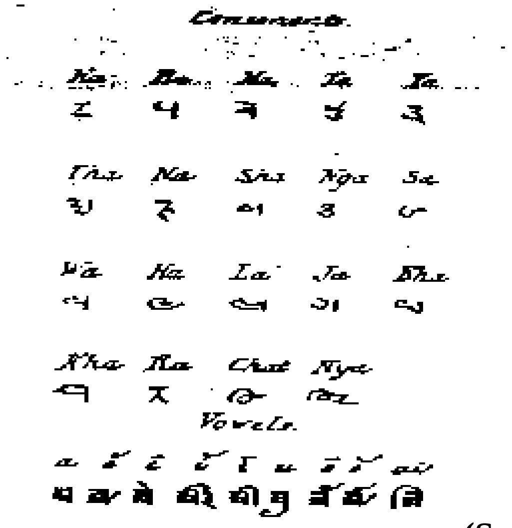
Diagram No -3 : Vowel and Consonant Letters from Tum Yakhung Ningwaphu Sapla



(Source : Kainla, ibid)

In 1951 't'D ofSy'l glljfm' ;fKnf' [tum yak̲θuŋ niŋwafu sapla] was published in which 30 consonants and 10 vowels (one vowel +9 symbols) are shown.

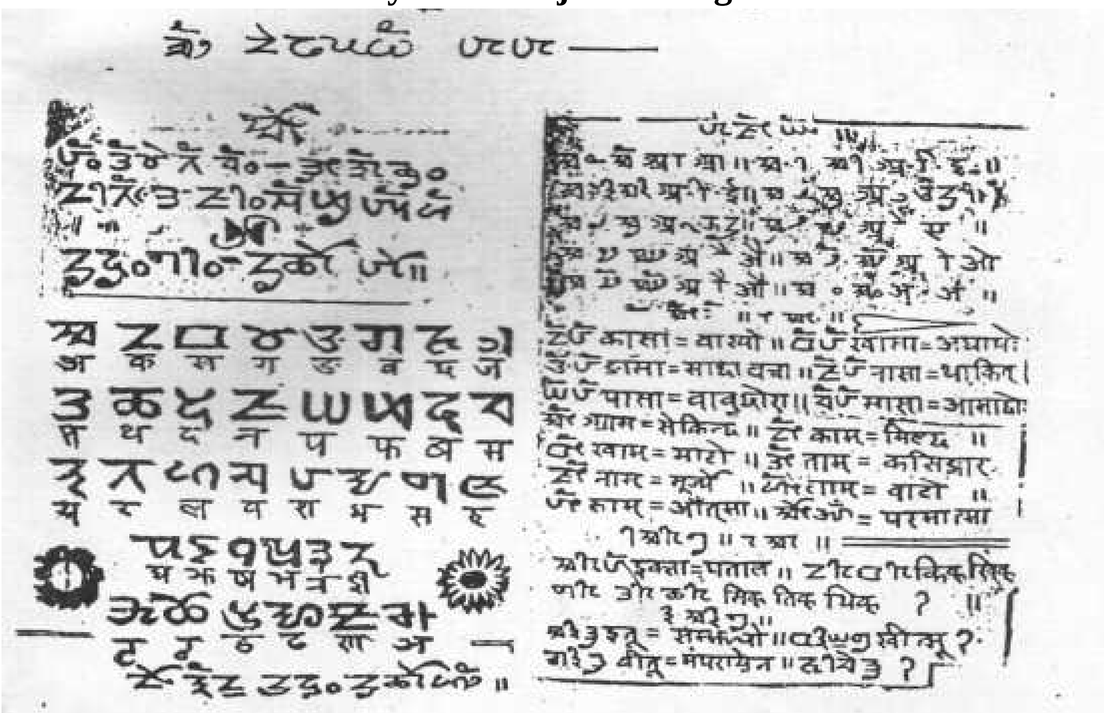
Diagram - 4 : Consonant Letters Collected by Campbell



(Source : Kainla, ibid)

In 2015BS Kainla says, Ran Dhoj Nembang presented 35 consonants adding extra five new consonants t [t], y{ [th], b [d], w [dh] , g[n] , in his work entitled 't'D ofSy'l slFft− glljfm' ;fKnf' [tum yakθuŋ kirant niŋwafu sapla]. He also invented another two signs ';SgfD' [s❷knam](ˊ⍩)and and (') in order to produce the sound /i/ and /u/ respectively.

Diagram -5 : Letters of 'Tum Yakthung Kirant Ningwaphu Sapla' Written by Ran Dhoj Nembang



(Source : Kainla, ibid)

1.1.3.2 Sirijunga First

Historic King Sirijunga (9th century) is regarded as the inventor of the Limbu script. For this reason, the Limbu script is known as Sirijunga Script.

1.1.3.3 Sirijunga Second

Sirijunga Second actually 'Sirijunga Singh Thebe', originally inhabitant of Sinam VDC Yangwarak, Taplejung, is regarded as the incarnation of Sirijunga First. He developed and regenerated Sirijunga Script. He was born in 1704 AD on the full moon day of the month of Mangsir. He taught his Kirant people Mundhum religion by reviving the Kirant Script in 1734 AD. But he was shift to death by the Tibetan Lamas or Tachhang Lamas of Pemayontse monastery in 1741 AD near a village of Martam in Western Sikkim (Chemjong, 2003 AD, EPTAPH).

1.1.3.4 Contributors

To conserve, develop and modify the Limbu script, the native Limbu speakers and non- native Limbu speakers made unexpressed contribution in the history of Limbu culture and literature. On behalf of dutiful citizen, it is good to salute them. So, the researcher made a brief list of those who devoted or sacrificed their life in developing Limbu script with their brief contribution:

S.N	Name	Date		Brief Contribution
i.	Sirijunga First	(9th century)	:	Historic King Sirijunga, the founder of Sirijunga Script
ii.	Sirijunga Second	(1704-41)	:	He is regarded as the incarnation t[cl;L [tε❷ŋsi] of Sirijunga. He brought revolution in the Limbu script. The manuscript collected and conserved by B.H. Hudgson is originally written by Sirijunga Second 'tε❷ŋsi', it is widely believed.

iii.	B.H. Hudgson	(1844)	:	He collected and saved Sirijunga Script (His works are shown in the earlier pages.)
iv.	Benjamin Schulzi	(1745)	:	He published 'Gramatica Hindustanica' in which he for the first time presented printed Limbu scripts: k, ŋ, m, ᤛ, p, j, s (Kainla, 2049, pp. 55-56)
v.	Campbell	(1855)	:	Kirant script published by Campbell is regarded as the oldest form of Sirijunga Script (His works are shown in the earlier pages).
vi.	Baj Bir Thulung	(1928 -30)	:	He devoted in searching Sirijunga Script. From his time, Sirijunga script has been influenced by Devnagari Script.
vii.	Padam Singh Muringla	(1950 AD)	:	He was an author
viii.	Ran Dhoj Nembang	(2015 BS)	:	He developed Sirijunga Script through his work 'Tum Yakthung Kirant Ningwafu Sapla' and other books.
ix.	Iman Sing Chemjong	(2018 BS)	:	He was the key person who developed Sirijunga Script formally. He worked as an expert of the Limbu language in Tribhuvan University. He composed Limbu–Nepali-English Dictionary published by Royal Nepal Academy in 2018 BS, Kirant Mundhum, Kirant History, etc.

x. B.B. Subba (1976-79) : (Sikkim) He composed 'Limbu –Nepali –English Dictionary (1980), etc.

1.1.4 Limbu Vowels

The Limbu vowels are as given below :

c[❷] cf[a] cl[i] c'[u] c][e] c} [ai] cf] [0] cf} [au] c[[ε]

1.1.5 Consonants

One of the basic speech sounds in language is consonant sound . In the production of consonant, the air stream is partially or completely obstructed somewhere in the vocal tract. This is the special characteristic of consonant sound. The air passes through the oral cavity or nasal cavity so that oral sounds (eg- all consonants except nasal sounds and all vowel sounds) and nasal sounds (/m, n, ☠/) can be produced.

Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary (6th edition, 2004, p.721) defines a consonant as:

i. a speech sound made by completely or partially stopping the flow of air being breathed out through the mouth'.
ii. a letter of the alphabet that represents a consonant sound

In English, the letter may or may not represent the same type of consonant. For example,

i. the letter 's' may represent the consonant /s/ but
ii. the consonant /k/ is represented by different letters 'k', 'c', 'ch', 'q', 'gh'.

In Limbu, the letter represents the same type of the consonant. For example, the letter 's[k]' always represents the consonant /k/

1.1.5.1 English Consonants

/p/	as	in	'pen'	/pen/
/b/	as	in	'bad'	/b✈d/
/t/	as	in	'ten'	/ten/
/d/	as	in	'did'	/d✋d/
/k/	as	in	'cap'	/k✈p/

/g/	as	in	‘gain’ /ge✋n/
/t♦/	as	in	‘chess’ /t♦es/
/d☪/	as	in	‘bridge’ /br✋d☪/
/f/	as	in	‘fat’ /f✈t/
/v/	as	in	‘verify’ /ver✋fa✋/
/❄/	as	in	‘thin’/❄✋n/
/👎/	as	in	‘that’ /👎✈t/
/s/	as	in	‘say’ /se✋/
/z/	as	in	‘zoo’ /zu:/
/♦/	as	in	‘she’ /♦i:/
/☪/	as	in	‘vision’ /’v✋☪n/
/h/	as	in	‘hat’ /h✈t/
/m/	as	in	‘mat’ /m✈t/
/n/	as	in	‘need’ /ni:d/
/ŋ/	as	in	‘sing’ /s✋☠/
/l/	as	in	‘list’ /l✋st/
/r/	as	in	‘rat’ /r✈t/
/j/	as	in	‘yes’ /jes/
/w/	as	in	‘water’/w❷:tə (r)/

Consonants are described in terms of place of articulation, manner of articulation and voicing. The following consonants are described on the basis of place of articulation, manner of articulation and voicing.

/p/ is bilabial , plosive and voiceless

/b/ is bilabial , plosive and voiced

/t/ is alveolar, plosive and voiceless

/d/ is alveolar, plosive and voiced

/k/ is velar, plosive and voiceless

/g/ is velar, plosive and voiced

/t♦/ is palato-alveolar, affricate and voiceless

/d☪/ is palato-alveolar, affricate and voiced

/f/ is labio-dental, fricative and voiceless

/v/ is labio-dental, fricative and voiced

/❄/ is dental, fricative and voiceless

/👎/ is dental, fricative and voiced

/s/ is alveolar, fricative and voiceless

/z/ is alveolar, fricative and voiced

/♦/ is palato- alveolar, fricative and voiceless

/☪/ is palato- alveolar, fricative and voiced

/h/ is glottal, fricative and voiceless

/m/ is bilabial, nasal and voiced

/n/ is alveolar, nasal and voiced

/ŋ/ is velar, nasal and voiced

/l/ is alveolar, lateral and voiced

/r/ is post alveolar, rolled and voiced

/j/ is palatal, voiced and semi vowel

/w/ is bilabial, voiced and semi vowel

1.1.6 Contrastive Analysis (CA) : An Overview

CA was developed in 1950s and 1960 as an application of structural linguistics to language teaching. Sir William John first used the term comparative linguistics in 1786. By making comparative study, he claimed that Sanskrit, Greek, Latin, Celtic and Germanic appeared to have originated from the common source. For example, /p/ sound is common in Sanskrit, Latin and English. 'Father' is 'Pita' in Sanskrit, 'Pather' in Latin and 'father' in English.

Comparative linguistics and contrastive analysis in general, have the same function. Comparative linguistics, however, is an autonomous branch of linguistics whereas contrastive analysis is a technique of applied linguistics. Contrastive analysis studies two or more languages to find out their similarities and differences by collecting data of the two given languages and compares them in terms of their phonological, grammatical and semantic system. Now CA has become a part of applied linguistics.

1.1.6.1 Assumptions of CA

According to S. Pit Corder, CA discovers the difference between the first and second language and predicts the area where target language learners are likely to face problems in learning the language. Some assumptions of CA are mentioned below.

i. Contrastive analysis is based on the theory of language that claims that language is habit and that language learning involves the establishment of a new set of habits.

ii. The major source of error in the production and/ or reception of a second language is the native language.
iii. One can account for error by considering differences between the L_1 and the L_2.
iv. The greater the differences, the more errors will occur.
v. What one has to do in learning a second language learn the differences. Similarities can be safely ignored as new learning is involved. In other words, what is dissimilar between two languages is what must be learned.
vi Difficulty and ease in learning is determined respectively by differences and similarities between the two languages in contrast.

(Source: Gass & Selinker,2009)

1.1.6.2 Transfer Theory

While learning a second language, the learner tries to apply the knowledge and rules of his/her first language. Language transfer may be positive, negative or zero. For example, s-

i. The phonemes /p, k, s, b, h, m, n, ŋ, l, w, r, g /are found in both English and Limbu, so these sounds are easier to learn for the Limbu students who are learning English. This is an example of positive transfer.
ii. In Limbu, /g/ sound cannot be found word initially. So , the native Limbu speaker may say 'sG[k❷n] 'this' for 'gun/g✍n/'.
iii. If the knowledge of the first language neither disturbs nor helps to learn second language. This is an example of zero transfer.

1.1.6.3 Uses of CA

CA helps

i. to find out the areas of similarities and differences.
ii. to find out the areas where students commit errors.
iii. to improve teaching and learning
iv. for remedial teaching

1.2 Review of Related Literature

In order to complete this research work, different materials like books, thesis, journals and other publications are reviewed. Some of them are presented below.

Sthapit (1999), a researcher on 'The Sounds of English and Nepali (Yadav & Clover, 1999,p.566)', has comparatively differentiated the consonant sounds of English and Nepali into three areas: phonemic differences, phonetic differences and distributional differences.

A. Phonemic Differences

He has shown the presence and absence of consonants in English and Nepali in the following ways:

+ English, –Nepali : /f, v, θ, ð, z, Š, Ž, /

–English, + Nepali : /t, d(dental), ph, th□, ch, kh, bh, dh, dh□, jh,

gh/

B. Phonetic Differences

1. The phonetic correlates of English /f, v, θ, ð, Š, Ž / have no equivalents in Nepali. The phonetic correlate of English /z/, i.e. [z] is similar to the phonetic correlate of Nepali /j/ which occurs intervocalically and word finally.

2. The aspirated phonetic correlates of English /p, t, č, k/, i.e. [p^h, t^h, c^h, k^h] are more or less similar to the aspirated correlates of Nepali /ph, th□ ch, kh/

3. English /t, d/ are alveolar ;Nepali /t□, th□, d□, dh□/ are post alveolar.

4. Nepali /c, j/ are laminoalveolar and are therefore produced further front in the mouth then English / čǰ / which are palatoalveolar. English /čǰ / in additional, tend to have a certain amount of lip–rounding which is not found in Nepali /c,j /. The overall effect is that the English affricates have a ‘darker’ quality and the Nepali affricates a ‘clearer’ quality.

5. English nasals and lateral are syllabic when they occur word finally after a consonant; Nepali nasals and lateral simply do not occur in this environment and elsewhere they are never syllabic.

6. English /r/ is a tap intervocalically and after /θ,□/, a fricative after /d/, and an approximant elsewhere. Nepali /r/, on the other hand, is an approximant initially, a tap intervocalically, and a trill elsewhere. English /r/ is postalveolar (except for the tap variant which is

alveolar) whereas Nepali /r/ is alveolar. The former, in addition, has a devoiced variant (of 8iii below), whereas the Nepali /r/ is never devoiced.

7. English /l/ is velarized when it occurs word finally or before a consonant :Nepali /l/ is never velarized.

8. Nepali voiced consonants are uniformly voiced everywhere. English voiced consonants, on the other hand, are devoiced partially or completely in at least one of these environments:
   i. word initially,
   ii. word finally, and
   iii. following a voiceless consonant.

9. In the word final position English voiceless consonants are usually unreleased and the oral closure of these stops is often reinforced by a glottal closure ;their Nepali counterpart are usually released in this environment.

10. Nepali /d/ is realized as a flap intervocalically, word finally and before a consonant other than a homorganic stop, nasal or lateral ; English /d/ does not have such a variant.

11. Nepali /ph/ and /kh/ have their corresponding affricate and fricative variants of which the former variants occur word initially before a back vowel and the latter variants occur
    i. word finally
    ii. before a consonant other that /r/ or homorganic stop and
    iii. before a back vowel in a syllable other than the initial one; English /p/ and /k/ have no such variants.

12. Consonants are relatively more palatalized in Nepali than in English when they occur preceeding a front vowel.

C. Distributional Differences

i. word initial sequences
   a. ccc sequences
   b. cc sequences

ii. word medial sequences
iii. word final sequences

Tumbahang (1997) carried out a research on **'The Forms of Address on Limbu Folk Narrative and their Relevance in Actual Use'** in his M.A thesis. In his study, he analyzed the different forms of discourse available in the folk narratives, eg. – Hakpare, Palam, etc. He has shown pragmatic importance of the study.

Rai(2001) conducted a research on **'A Comparative Linguistic Study of English Nepali and Limbu Kinship Terms'** by collecting primary data from 60 native speakers of Limbu and 6o native speakers of Nepali of 3 VDCs from Panchthar district. She used snowball sampling procedure. She found out that English has the least number of kinship terms in comparison to English, Nepali and Limbu languages.

Phyak (2004) did a research work on **'English and Limbu Pronominal: A Linguistic Comparative Study**'. His research areas were Panchthar and Ilam districts. Thirty native speakers of Limbu language were chosen as informants. In the process of data collection, he followed snowball sampling procedure. He found out that the Limbu pronominal system is more complicated than that of English.

Mehta (2006) carried out a research on '**A Comparative Study on : Subject–Verb Agreement in Bhojpuri and English Languages'**. The questionnaire was distributed to Twenty–five teachers, five writers and another five teachers were interviewed. He determined the sample of the study judgmentally. In his study, he found out that the subject-verb agreement systems between Bhojpuri and English language are almost different, thus the teachers of that ethnic community should pay special attention on the different aspects of subject –verb agreement while teaching Bhojpuri speaking students in the classroom.

Gautam (2005) conducted a research work on **'Subject–Verb Agreement in English and Limbu: A Comparative Study'**. He selected 40 Limbu native speakers of Dhungesanghu, Sanghu, Fakumba and Thinglabu VDCs of Taplejung district. He found out that the subject –verb agreement systems in English and Limbu are quite different, therefore the teacher of that ethnic community should pay more attention on the different aspects of the subject –verb agreement while teaching English to the Limbu speaking students.

In the context of Nepal no research on English and Limbu Consonant sounds has been carried out. In this sense, this topic is ever untouched or it is virgin. As the researcher himself is a native Limbu speaker, he has keen interest to find out the similarities, differences and the nature of these two languages. The present study, therefore, is quite different from the studies which have been carried out earlier.

1.3 Objectives of the Study

The research had the following objectives:

i. to identify Limbu consonant sounds,
ii. to find out the similarities and differences between English and Limbu consonant sounds in terms of actual use,
iii. to compare the nature of English and Limbu consonants along with the values of special symbols and
iv. to point out the pedagogical implications of this study.

1.4 Significance of the Study

This study will be significant and beneficial :

i. to facilitate linguistic problems in connection with consonant sounds,

ii. for English and Limbu users, students, teachers, researchers, educational administrators, curriculum designers, others, and department itself.

1.5 Definition of the Related Terms

Some specific terms which are used in this thesis are defined here.

Phonemic Consonants

Phonemic consonants are found word initially and they can form words. Phonemes change the meaning of words. In Limbu, 'r' [c] in 'rSdf' [c❷kma] and 'v' [kh] in 'vSdf' [kh❷kma]' represent two different phonemes.

Allophonic Consonants

Allophonic consonants are the variants of phonemic consonants. In Limbu they cannot be found word initially or they cannot form words. In Limbu, for example, 'kf' [pa] 'father' and 'cfDaf' [amba] 'my father'. Here 'k'[p] becomes 'a' [b] after nasal sound /m/.So 'a' [b] is the variant of 'k' [p] in Limbu.

Minimal Pairs
Two words which differ in meaning when only one sound is changed are called 'Minimal pair', eg, kFlS [p❷rik]'type' vs oFlS [y❷rik] 'much/many'

Conjoint Consonants
Those consonants which stand conjoint with other consonants are called conjoint consonants. In other words, words cannot begin with these consonants, For example,

nTpf [l❷tcha] 'one' ' T [t]' conjoints with 'n [l❷]'.

Glide Consonants
Those consonants which glide from the previous consonants on which they stand are called glide consonants. The glide consonants are full sounded whereas the consonants from which they glide are only half sounded, for example, 'sfOaf]C [kyabo☜]'. The sound 'O [y]' glides from 's [k]'

Voiced
Sounds produced while the vocal cords are vibrating are voiced sounds. For example, /b, d, g, e/

Voiceless
Sounds produced while the vocal cords are not vibrating are unvoiced or voiceless. For example, [p, t, k]

Bi-labial
It refers to a sound made by joining the upper and lower lips. For example, [p, b]

Labio-dental
It refers to a sound in which the upper teeth touches the lower lip. For example, [f]

Dental
It refers to a sound in which the tongue tip touches the upper teeth. For example, [θ,ð]

Alveolar
It refers to a sound in which the blade of the tongue touches alveolar ridge. For example, [t, d, s, z]

Post –alveolar

It refers to a sound in which the tip of the tongue touches the back part of the teeth ridge. For example, [r]

Palatal –alveolar

It refers to a sound made by a double movement of the tongue towards the area between the alveolar ridge and hard palate. For example, [t♦, d♦, ♦, ♦]

Palatal

It refers to a sound made when the front of the tongue is in contact with or approaches the hard palate. For example, [j]

Velar

It refers to a sound in which back of the tongue touches the soft palate. For example, [k,g]

Glottal

It refers to a sound made in the larynx, due to the closure or narrowing of the glottis, the aperture between the vocal cords. The audible release of a complete closure at the glottis is known as a 'glottal stop', transcribed as [ʔ]. For example, bottle [bɑtʔl] for /bɑtl/ , 'dfMCo' [ma:ʔyu]' for 'dfMSo' /ma:kyu/'

Stops

Complete closure and sudden release.
For example, [p, t, k]

Affricates

Complete closure and slow release.
For example, [t♦]

Fricatives

Production of sounds with audible friction through a narrow opening.
For example, [f, v]

Nasal

Complete closure at some points of oral tract but the air goes out through the nose. For example, [m, n]

Lateral

Partial closure and passing of air through the side.
For example, [l]

Trill (Rolled)

Active articulators flap against passive articulators several times. For example, /r/ as in ‘red’

Flap

Active articulators strike against passive articulators once only. For example, /r/ as in ‘very’

Frictionless Continuants or Approximants

Wide opening between the active articulator and passive articulator and the air passes without friction. For example, [r, j, w]

Semi Vowels / Gliding Consonants

Wide opening between the articulators. Sounds are produced like vowels but they function like consonants. They consist of a quick, smooth, non friction glide towards the following sounds. For example, [j, r, w]

Dialects

Dialects are region specific and society specific. The distinction between dialect and language seems obvious: dialects are subdivisions of language.

Mukphreng

A phonic symbol (now it is taken as Glottal stop) that modifies the sound and it changes the meaning, eg.- of [ya] ‘tickle’, ofC [ya◌ॅ] ‘paddy’. It is used with consonants and vowel sounds.

Kemphreng

Kemphreng (also ‘vowel length’) prolongs the sounds. It is used with consonant and vowel sounds. For example, gf [na] ‘far’, gMf [na:] ‘quite far.’

Sa–i (also Sakphreng)

A phonic symbol (also ‘coda consonant’) that shortens the consonant sounds. For example, ts-/tMS [t❷:k] ‘rice’.

CHAPTER -TWO
METHODOLOGY

This research was carried out using the following methodology.

2.1 Sources of Data

In course of doing any sorts of researches, field data play vital roles. Research cannot be imagined without data. Data can be classified into two types.

2.1.1 Primary Sources of Data

Primary sources of data were the responses made by the Limbu speaking English teachers of various public schools of Panchthar district and Limbu authors, journalists and intermediate level students.

2.1.2 Secondary Sources of Data

The researcher used the following types of secondary sources of data:

i. Articles and other writing published in professional magazines and journals.
ii. Doctorate dissertations, master's thesis research papers and other similar studies.
iii. Occasional papers and seminar papers addressed by distinguished scholars.
iv. Related books.
v. Limbu –Nepali –English Dictionaries, etc.

The data for English sound system were taken from secondary sources. One of them is Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary (1997).

2.2 Population of the Study

Limbu speaking English teachers, journalists, authors and intermediate level students were the population of the study.

2.3 Sample Population of the Study

This study was prepared on the basis of the thirty-five people [twenty–five through questionnaire + ten through interview] to elicit the nature, type and usage of Limbu consonants and other special symbols. The informants were involved from sixteen VDCs - Syabarumba, Phidim,

Yangnam, Imbung, Ranigaun, Lumphabung, Chokmagu, Ranitar, Arubote, Nawamidanda, Mangjabung, Angsarang, Memeng, Oyam, Mauwa and Yasok of Panchthar district.

2.4 Sampling Procedure

The informants were selected using judgmental sampling procedure. The informants were very carefully selected in order to fulfill the objectives of the study of Limbu speaking English teachers, authors, journalists and students (the researcher himself is Limbu native speaker and the user of English) representing the sixteen VDCs of Panchthar district.

2.5 Research Tool

The researcher mainly used:

i. questionnaire and
ii. interview

2.6 Process of Data Collection

In course of collecting data, the researcher adopted the following processes:

i. First, purposeful questions were prepared.
ii. Suitable informants were chosen and visited.
iii. Questionnaires were distributed to 25 informants and collected.
iv. Ten informants were interviewed.

2.7 Limitations of the Study

Each research has its own limitation. This research has the following limitations:

i. This study is based on the comparison between English and Limbu consonant sounds in terms of types, similarities, differences and application.
ii. The research is further confined to the area of Panchthar district (16 VDCs).
iii. The study is based on Limbu native speakers of Limbu Speaking English teachers as well as authors, journalists and students.
iv. Only thirty-five informants were included in this study.

CHAPTER-THREE
ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION

3.1 An Analysis of Limbu Consonants

The types and special characteristics of Limbu consonants are analysed here

3.1.1 Limbu Consonants

In the Limbu language the following consonants are found.

s[k]	v[kh]	u[g]	P[gh]	i[ŋ]	r[c]
p[ch]	h [j]	t[t]	y [th]	b[d]	w[dh]
g[n]	k[p]	m [ph]	a [b]	e[bh]	d [m]
o [y]	F [r]	n [l]	j [w]	; [s]	x [h]

3.1.2 Classification of Limbu Consonants

In terms of use and nature, Limbu consonants are classified in the following ways :

3.1.2.1 Phonemic Consonants

Those consonants which appear word initially to form words are grouped under phonemic consonants. Also they change the meaning of words.

s[k]	as in	sCgf	[k❷na]	‘here’
v[kh]	as in	vSdf	[kh❷kma]	‘to cut’
i[ŋ]	as in	idf	[ŋ❷ma]	‘to fry’
r[c]	as in	rclT	[c❷it]	‘picture’
t[t]	as in	tF]af	[t❷reba]	‘guest’
y[th]	as in	yS	[th❷k]	‘body’
g[n]	as in	gcldf	[n❷ima]	‘basket’
k[p]	as in	kclT	[p❷it]	‘cucumber’
m[ph]	as in	mG	[ph❷n]	‘hailstone’
d[m]	as in	dgf	[m❷na]	‘human being’
o[y]	as in	oldf	[y❷ŋma]	‘to tremble’
n[l]	as in	nSv'D	[l❷kkhum]	‘courtyard’
j[w]	as in	jxlT	[w❷hit]	‘rain water’
;[s]	as in	;Sjf	[s❷kwa]	‘bee’

x[h] as in xS [h ❷k] ‘husk’

3.1.2.2 Allophonic Consonants

Those consonants which are not found word initially as word –makers, instead they are found word medially or finally are grouped under allophonic consonants. In other words, the allophonic consonants (u[g],P[gh], h[j], b[d], w[dh], a[b], e[bh] F[r], p[ch]) are the contextual variants of phonemic consonants (s[k] v[kh], r[c], t[t] y[th], k[p], m[ph], n[l], ;[s]) respectively. And they do not change the meaning in the form of allophones.

cf[a] +sFs [k❷r❷k] ⇒ cfuFS [ag❷r❷k] ‘my divination’

s'[ku] +vF[IM [kh❷r☜:☠] ⇒ s'PF[IM [kugh❷r☜:☠] ‘his/her pancake’

s'[ku] +rxlKnf[c❷hipla] ⇒ s'hxlKnf[kuj❷hipla] ‘his/her camera’

s[[k☜] +tCjf[t❷🖒wa] ⇒ s[bCjf [k☜d❷🖒wa] ‘your fortune’

cf[a] + ygf [th❷na] ⇒ cfwgf [adh❷na] ‘my sense’

cf[a] + kclTM [p❷i:t] ⇒ cfaclTM [ab❷i:t] ‘my cucumber’

s'[ku] +mStfl[ph❷kta☠] ⇒ s'eStfl[kubh❷kta☠]‘his/her shoulder’

df[ma] +nfD[lam] ⇒ dfFfD[maram] ‘main road’

klT[pit] +;f[sa] ⇒ klTpf [pitcha] ‘cow’s meat’

3.1.2.3 Conjoint Consonants (also Coda Consonants)

Those consonants which stand conjoint with other consonants are called conjoint consonants. They are found syllable finally only. They are as follows:

S[k]	as in	xSdf	[h❷kma]	‘to express’
l[ŋ]	as in	xfljf	[haŋwa]	‘blessing’
T[t]	as in	cdTt[	[❷m❷tt☜]	‘look’
G[n]	as in	n[GblS	[lɛndik]	‘day’
K[p]	as in	;[Kdfl	[sɛpmaŋ]	‘dream’
D[m]	as in	xDef]	[h❷mbho]	‘problem’
U[r]	as in	vlUnl	[khirli]	‘around’
N[l]	as in	cfNnf]	[allo]	‘now/at this moment’

For example,

sS [k❷ k] ‘load’

Here the conjoint consonant 'S' [k] is word or syllable finally and it is comparatively shorter than the sound 's' /k/

3.1.2.4 Glide Consonants (also 'Semi –Vowels')

O /y/ , as in 'sfOaf]C' [kyabo] 'buckwheat'

q /l(r) /, as in 'sqolaf' [kr❷y❷ŋba] 'a kind of Eudynamys scolopacea'

j/w/, as in sfJC [kwa] 'uncle'(mother's brother)

The glide consonants have full sounded whereas the previous consonants on which they stand are only half sounded, eg – in the word vfOaf [khyaba] 'dog' 'O' [y] becomes [ya].

3.2 Distribution of English and Limbu Consonants

The initial, middle and final consonant sounds of English and Limbu are given below with examples.

3.2.1 Distribution of English Consonants

There are altogether 24 English consonants . The list of English Consonants along with the examples in word initial, middle and final position is shown in the following table.

Table - 3 : List of English Consonants with Examples

S.N	Symbols	Examples			Remarks
		Initial	Middle	Final	
1.	/p/	pen	temple	flap	
2.	/b/	bed	lable	cab	
3.	/t/	tap	bottle	fat	
4.	/d/	den	middle	mad	
5.	/k/	cat	marker	book	
6.	/g/	gap	beggar	beg	
7.	/t	check	future	catch	
8.	/d	jug	judging	bridge	
9.	/f/	fat	suffer	cough	
10.	/v/	van	travel	cave	
11.	/	thin	something	both	
12.	/	they	mother	breathe	
13.	/s/	see	cast	house	
14.	/z/	zoo	business	was	
15.	/	she	washing	push	
16.	/	-	closure	garage	no initial
17.	/h/	hen	perhaps	-	no final
18.	/m/	man	coming	come	
19.	/n/	new	winner	fan	

20.	/ŋ/	-	English	ring	no initial
21.	/l/	leg	killed	school	
22.	/r/	rat	mirror	far	
23.	/j/	yam	pure	-	no final
24.	/w/	with	quality	-	no final

3.2.2. Distribution of Limbu Consonants

There are altogether 24 consonants in the Limbu Language. The list of Limbu consonants along with the examples in word initial, middle and final position is shown in the following table.

Table - 4 : List of Limbu Consonants with Examples

S.N	Symbols	Examples			Remarks
		Initial	Middle	Final	
1.	s[k]	sS[k❷k]	y[MMs–df [thɛ:kma]	s'PMS[kugh❷:k]	
2.	v[kh]	vS[kh❷k]	cfv[af [akhɛba]	?	
3.	u[g]	-	s'uK [kug❷p]	?	
4.	P[gh]	-	s'Pfaf [kughaba]	?	
5.	i[ŋ]	idf [ŋ❷ma]	g'Mldf/g'i–df[nu:ŋma]	dfMl/dfi– [maŋ]	
6.	r[c]	rGbf[c❷nda]	;ls–rfSkf [si:kcakpa]	?	
7.	p[ch]	-	d[Gp'dfC[mɛnchuma☜]	?	
8.	h [j]	-	d]h'Sdf [mejukma]	rf]h– [co:j]	
9.	t[t]	tS[t❷k]	nt–pf [l❷:tcha]	kt– [p❷t]	
10.	y [th]	yF]C [th❷re☜]	kfGyU [panthr]	?	
11.	b[d]	-	kbS [p❷d❷k]	?	
12.	w[dh]	-	s[w[Skf[kɛdhɛkpa]	?	
13.	g[n]	gfKt[[naptɛ]	cfg–;f[a:nsa]	kfg– [pa:n]	
14.	k[p]	kfTt[[pattɛ]	kfk–df[pa:pma]	cfn[k–[alɛ:p]	
15.	m [ph]	mMdf[ph❷:ma]	tfm[Daf[taphɛmba]	?	
16.	a [b]	-	s'aKdf[kub❷pma]	oDa–[y❷mb]	
17.	e[bh]	-	cfDe'if[ambhuŋa]	?	
18.	d [m]	dgf [m❷na]	cfd–df[a:mma]	gfd–[na:m]	
19.	o [y]	oCdf[y❷☜ma]	doS[m❷y❷k]	?	
20.	F [r]	-	vUblS[kh❷rdik]	vFfvF–[kh❷rakh❷r]	
21.	n [l]	n[ldf[lɛŋma]	s'n[Gbf[kulɛnda]	cfe[N[abh☜l]	
22.	j [w]	jFS[w❷r❷k]	xfljfdf [ha☠wama]	?	
23.	; [s]	;ulC[s❷gi☜]	cf];–ug' [osg❷ nu]	v[;– [khɛs]	
24.	x [h]	xGb[[h❷ndɛ]	d[xGb[g[[mɛh❷ndɛnɛ]	-	

Note : The sign '-' in the blank refers to 'No initial or final' and '?' refers to it is not sure 'whether there is or not'

3.3 Phonic Symbols (clSnfrf]S cla'xfC [iklacok ibuha])

In the Limbu language, the following phonic symbols play vital roles in producing sounds and meaning.

3.3.1 Mukphreng (d'Sm[ql[mukphrɛŋ], also 'glottal stop' [C or]) :-

Glottal stop () in English is seen as free variation whereas in Limbu it is phonemic since it changes the meaning. For example, in English 'beaten' [bi:n] for /bi:tn/ 'past tenses of 'beat'.

(**Source : OALD,1997)**

In Limbu 'of' [ya] 'tickle' and 'ofC' [ya] 'paddy'

3.3.2 Kemphreng (s]Dm[ql [kemphrɛ ŋ] also 'vowel length' [:])

It prolongs the sounds of both vowels and consonants.

Without 'Mukhpreng' and 'Kemphreng'	With 'Mukphreng'	With 'kemphreng'
of [ya] n. 'tickle'	ofC [ya] n. 'paddy'	ofMM [ya:] v. 'came down'

3.3.3 Sa-i / Sakphreng (;_cl/;Smq[l [s❷-i /S❷kphr☜☠] as 'Coda Consonants' [_])

It is used to shorten certain consonants (s[k], v[kh], u[g], P[gh], i[☠], r[c], p[ch], h[j], t[t], y[th], b[d], w[dh], g[n], k[p], m[ph], a[b], e[bh], d[m], o[y], F[r], n[l], j[w], ;[s], x[h],) only but not vowels. This phonic sound is compulsory in 'Limbu'.

Without Sakphreng	With 'Sakphreng'
clKdf [impma] V. to put to bed	clk-df [ipma] v. to imitate/follow

3.4 Three Term Description of English and Limbu Consonants

Consonant sounds are described in terms of place of articulation, manner of articulation and voicing.

3.4.1 Three Term Description of English Consonants

There are 24 consonants in English which can be described in terms of place of articulation, manner of articulation and voicing.

Table - 5 : Three Term Description of English Consonants

Manner of Articulation \ Place of Articulation	Bilabial		Labio-dental		Dental		Alveolar		Post alveolour		Palato-alveolar		Palatal		Velar		Glottal	
	Vl	Vd	Vl	Vd	Vl	Vd	Vl	Vd	Vl	Vd	Vl	Vd	Vl	Vd	Vl	Vd	Vl	Vd
Stop or Plosive	p	b					t	d							k	g		
Affricate											t♦	d☪						
Fricative			f	v	θ	ð	s	z			♦	☪					h	
Nasal		m						n								ŋ		
Lateral								l										
Rolled or Trill										(r)								
Approximant or Semi-Vowel or Glide or Frictionless Continuant		w								r				j				

NB :- Vl = Voiceless / Vd = Voiced

(Source : Bhandari,1996)

3.4.2 Three -Term Description of Limbu Consonants

There are altogether 24 consonants in Limbu which can be described in terms of place of articulation, manner of articulation and voicing. Table: 6 below presents the three-term description of those Limbu consonants.

Table - 6 : Three -Term Description of Limbu Consonants

Manner of Articulation \ Place of Articulation	Bi-labial		Dental		Alveolar		Palatal		Velar		Glottal	
	Vl	Vd	Vl	Vd	Vl	Vd	Vl	Vd	Vl	Vd	Vl	Vd
Plosive	k/ [p]	a/ [b]	t/ [t]	b/ [d]					s/ [k]	u/ [g]	C/ [ ]	
Plosive Aspirated	m/ [ph]	e/ [bh]	y/ [th]	w/ [dh]					v/ [kh]	P/ [gh]		
Affricate					r/ [c]	h/ [j]						
Affricate Aspirated					p/ [ch]							
Fricative					;/						x/	

Place of Articulation / Manner of Articulation	Bi-labial		Dental		Alveolar		Palatal		Velar		Glottal	
	Vl	Vd	Vl	Vd	Vl	Vd	Vl	Vd	Vl	Vd	Vl	Vd
					[s]						[h]	
Nasal		d/ [m]				g/ [n]				i/ [ŋ]		
Lateral						n/ [l]						
Trill						F/ [r]						
Approximant		j/ [w]						o/ [y]				

NB :- Vl= Voiceless / Vd= Voiced

(Source : Kainla, 2002 and Lawati, Forthcoming)

3.5 Comparison of English and Limbu Consonants

Language is culture specific. For this reason, the Limbu language is different to that of the English Language. It is, therefore, studied in the comparative way. The following table displays consonant inventory in both English and Limbu.

Table-7 : Inventory of English and Limbu Consonants Comparatively

Consonant Inventory			
English	Limbu	English	Limbu
/k/	s[k]	-	b[d]
-	v[kh]	-	w[dh]
/g/	u[g]	/n/	g[n]
-	P[gh]	/p/	k[p]
/ ŋ /	i[ŋ]	/f/	–
/t∫/	–	-	m[ph]
-	r[c]	/b/	a[b]
-	p[ch]	/v/	–
-	h [j]	-	e[bh]
/dʓ/	-	/m/	d[m]
/ʓ/	–	/j/	-
/z/	–	-	o[y]
/t/	–	/r/	F[r]
/d/	–	/l/	n[l]

Consonant Inventory			
-	t[t]	/w/	j[w]
/ θ /	–	/ ʃ/	–
-	y[th] (inter dntal)	/s/	;[s]
/ ð /	-	/h/	x[h]

There is a vast difference between the English Consonant sound system and the Limbu consonant sound system. Some sound segments found(+) in English are not found(-) in the Limbu Language.

Based on table 7, the following similarities and differences have been found :

Similarities : +English, +Limbu: /k, g, ŋ, n, p, b, m, r, l, w, s, h/

Differences : + English, - Limbu :/t♦,d☪, ☪, z, t,d,✆, f, v,ʃ, ⌦/

– English, + Limbu :/ kh, gh, c,ch, j, dz, t, th,d, dh, ph, bh,y /

3.6 Minimal Pairs

In the Limbu language, we find minimal pairs in the following cases or situations:

i. The following examples constitute minimal pairs since they differ in their initial, middle and final sounds. In the same way the following pairs constitute minimal pairs.

a. Word initial position :

dSt[[m✸❷kt☜] ‘boil’

ySt[[th✸❷kt☜] ‘have a fight’

b. Word middle position :

s'G;ff [kun✸sa] ‘his/her brother/sister’

s';−;f [kus✸sa] ‘his/her son /daughter’

c. Word final position :

kl	[p❷☠✸]	‘breaks’
kT	[p❷t✸]	‘mushroom’
oS	[y❷k]	‘fort’
oD	[y❷m]	‘large’
nfD	[lam]	‘way’
nfK	[lap]	‘wing’
nl	[l❷ŋ]	‘moment’
nG	[l❷n]	‘comes out’

ii. We find minimal pairs in which sound differs in terms of vowel length, eg.

a. yDdf [th❷mma] 'to have patience'
yMDdf [th❷:mma] ' to mend'

b. sS [k ❷k] 'load'
sMS [k❷:k] 'a tree of Michelia champaca' = champko rukh

c. yluf [th❷ŋga] ' bunch'
yMluf [th❷:ŋga] ' a bamboo basket'

iii. We find minimal pairs in which sound differs in terms of glottal stop, eg.

a. tDdf [t❷mma] ' to insult'
tCdf [t❷ma] ' to feel lazy'

b. ;Sdf [s❷kma] ' crippled'
;Cdf [s❷ma] 'to mix'

c. xKdff [h❷pma] 'to wash'
xCdf [h❷ma] 'to bark'

3.7 Fundamental Rules for Pronouncing Limbu Consonant Sounds

Rules found in one language may not be found in another language. The following rules will minimize the problem for pronouncing Limbu consonant sounds

3.7.1 US ì Vd/NC-

Prose form: 'Unaspirated stops' become voiced after nasal consonants. It can be expanded into the following twelve rules:

i k → g/n –

Prose form: /k/ becomes [g] after /n/,

For example, d[G [mɛn] 'Neg.'+ sF [k❷r❷] 'if / but'
⇒ d[GuF [mɛng❷r❷] 'if not'

ii k → g/ ŋ –

Prose form: /k/ becomes [g] after / ŋ /,

For example, ;ll [siŋ] 'firewood' + sS [k❷k] 'load'

⇒ ;lluS [siŋg❷k] ‘load of firewood’

iii k → g/m –

Prose form: /k/ becomes [g] after /m/,

For example, xlD [him] ‘home’+ s] [ke] ‘chyabrung (musical instrument of Limbu)’

⇒ xlDu] [himge] ‘a kind of chyabrung dance while shifting to a new house’

iv c → j/ ŋ –

Prose form: /c/ becomes [j] after / ŋ /,

For example, n'l [luŋ] ‘stone’ + rl [c❷ŋ] ‘top’

⇒ n'lhl [luŋj❷ŋ] ‘top of stone’

v c → j/n –

Prose form: /c/ becomes [j] after /n/,

For example, cfG [an] ‘my’+ r'D[cum] ‘friend’

⇒ cfGh'D [anjum] ‘my friend’

vi c→ j/m –

Prose form: /c/ becomes [j] after /m/,

For example, gfD [nam] ‘sun’ + rfCdf [ca✍ma] ‘to warm’

⇒ gfDhfCdf [namja✍ma]‘to warm up in the sun’

vii p → b/ ŋ –

Prose form: /p/ becomes [b] after / ŋ /,

For example, tfl [taŋ] ‘short’ + kfG [pan] ‘dialogue’

⇒ tflafG [taŋban] 'short dialogue'

viii p → b/n –

Prose form: /p/ becomes [b] after /n/,

For example, d[G [mɛn] 'Neg' + kldf [p❷ŋma] ' to carry'
⇒ d[Galdf [mɛnb❷ŋma] 'not to carry'

ix p→ b/m –

Prose form: /p/ becomes [b] after /m/,

For example, cfD [am] 'my' + kf [pa] 'father'
⇒ cfDaf [amba] 'my father'

x t → d/ ŋ –

Prose form: /t/ becomes [d] after / ŋ /,

For example, dll [miŋ] 'name'+ tl [t❷ŋ] 'same'
⇒ dllbl [miŋd❷ŋ] 'similar name'

xi t → d/n –

Prose form: /t/ becomes [d] after /n/,

For example, d[G [mɛn] 'Neg' + t'Sdf [tukma] 'to be sick'
⇒ d[Gb'Sdf [mɛndukma] 'not to be sick'

xii t→ d/m –

Prose form: /t/ becomes [d] after /m/,

For example, vfD [kham] 'earth' + tMdf[t❷:ma] 'to dig'
⇒ vfDbMdf [khamd❷:ma] 'to dig earth'

3.7.2 AS ì Vd/NC-

Prose form : Aspirated stops become voiced after nasal consonants. It can be expanded into the following nine rules:

i. kh → gh/ ŋ –

Prose form : /kh/ becomes [gh] after / ŋ /,

For example, dfl [ma ŋ] 'god' +vMdf [kh❷:ma] 'praise'
⇒ dflPMdf [maŋgh❷:ma] 'to praise god'

ii. kh → gh/n –

Prose form : /kh/ becomes [gh] after /n/,

For example, d[G [mɛn]'Neg'+vCdf [kh❷ma] 'to hesitate'

⇒ d[GPCdf[mɛngh❷ma] ' not to hesitate'

iii. kh → gh/m –

Prose form: /kh/ becomes [gh] after /m/,

For example, s[D [kɛm] 'they'+ vf] [kho] 'find'

⇒ s[DPf] [kɛmgho] 'they find you'

iv. th → dh/ ŋ –

Prose form: /th/ becomes [dh] after / ŋ /,

For example, rl [c❷ŋ] 'top' + yfl [tha ŋ] 'comes up'

⇒ rlwfl [c❷ŋdhaŋ] 'above/over'

v. th → dh/n –

Prose form : /th/ becomes [dh] after /n/,

For example, cfG [an] 'my' + yaf [th❷ba] 'grand father'

⇒ cfGwaf[andh❷ba] 'my grand father'

vi. th → dh/m –

Prose form: /th/ becomes [dh] after /m/,

For example, cfD [am] 'Pref.' + yl [th❷ŋ] 'fight'

⇒ cfDwl [amdh❷ŋ] 'People make us fight'

vii. ph → bh/ ŋ –

Prose form: /ph/ becomes [bh] after / ŋ /,

For example, cll [iŋ] 'notice'+ mG[ph❷n] 'place to stick'

⇒ cIleG [iŋbh❷n] 'notice-board'

viii. ph → bh/n –

Prose form : /ph/ becomes [bh] after /n/,

For example, d[G [m☜n] 'Neg.'+mfldf[pha☠ma] 'to fence'
⇒ d[Gefldf [m☜nbha☠ma] 'not to fence'

ix. ph → bh/m –

Prose form: /ph/ becomes [bh] after /m/,

For example, cfD [am] 'my' + mif [ph❷ŋa] 'uncle'
⇒ cfDeif [ambh❷ŋa] 'my uncle'

3.7.3 s → ch/t or n –

Prose form: /s/ becomes [ch] after /t/ or /n/ ,

For example, klT[pit] 'cow' + ;f [sa] 'meat'
⇒ klTpf [pitcha] 'beef'

sfM]T [ko:t] 'looking for' + ;ll [siŋ] 'suff'
⇒ sfM]Tpll [ko:tchiŋ] 'looking for each other'

3.7.4 l → ll/n –

Prose form: /l/ becomes [ll] after /n/, in other words the sequence 'nl' within a word assimilates regressively to'll'.

For example, d[G[mɛn] 'value'+ n'l [luŋ] 'range'

⇒ d[Nn'l [mɛlluŋ] 'price'

t[G [tɛn] 'place' + nS [l❷k] 'part'

⇒ t[NnS [tɛll❷k] 'plain'

d[G[mɛn] 'no' + nf] [lo] 'okay'

⇒ d[Nnf] [mɛllo] 'oh, no'

3.7.5 l → l/C –

Prose form : /l/ becomes [l] after consonants. In other words, /l/ is pronounced as [l] when it follows other consonants.

For example, cfM]S [o:k] ‘yes’+ nf] [lo] ‘okay’

⇒ cfM]Snf] [o:klo] 'yes’

gfD [nam] ‘sun’ + nfMMS [la:k] ‘strong taste’

⇒ gfDnfMfS [namla:k] ‘sunny’

3.7.6 l → r/v –

Prose form: /l/ becomes [r] after vowel. In other words, /l/ is pronounced as [r] when it follows a vowel sound.

For example, df [ma] ‘mother’ + nfD [lam] ‘road’

⇒ dfFfD [maram] ‘main road’

nfMM [la:] ‘moon’+ nfMMS [la:k] ‘strong taste’

⇒ nMfMFfMfMS [la:ra:k] 'moon’s beam’

3.7.7 PC ì AC/v –

Prose form: Phonemic consonants become allophonic consonants after a vowel sound

For example, g'[nu] ‘seven’ + slK [kip] ‘hundred’

⇒ g'ulK[nugip] ‘seven hundred’

dl[mi] ‘pro.’+ vM's'C[khu:ku☜]‘wear’

⇒ dlPM's'C[mighuku☜] 'they wear’

d[[m☜] ‘pro’ + r [c❷] ‘eat’

⇒ d[h[mɛj❷] ‘they eat’

cf[a] ‘pro’ + tF] [t❷re] ‘guest’

⇒ cfbF] [ad❷re] ‘my guest’

dl[mi] ‘pro’ + y'i' [thuŋu] ‘drink’

⇒ dlw'i'[midhuŋu] ‘they drink’

g'[nu] ‘seven’ + kf]l[poŋ] ‘zero’

⇒ g'af]l[nubo ŋ] ‘seventy’

d[[mɛ] ‘pro’ + mfi' [phaŋu] ‘make fence’

⇒ d[efi' [mɛbhaŋu] ‘they make fence’

m[[phɛ] ‘plain’ + t[G [t☜n] ‘place’

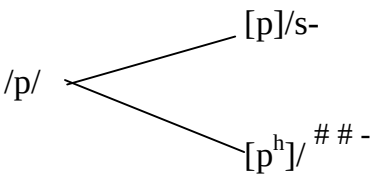
⇒ m[b[G [phɛd☜n] ‘plain area’

3.8 The Principle of Contrast and Complementation

This principle states that sounds found in contrastive distribution are phonemes and those found in complementary distribution are allophones of the same phoneme. The same phones (and thus phonemes) may be found in complementary distribution in another languages (and thus allophones of the same phoneme).

3.8.1 Aspiration in English

In English aspiration is allophonic. That is to say aspirated and non – aspirated varieties are found in complementary distribution without making a meaning difference. For example, pan/p✈n/ and pan/p^h✈n/ give the same meaning [p] and [ph] do not occur in the same environment. For example, pan [ph✈n/ and span [sp✈n].
This description can be captured by the following phonological rule:



This rule can be read as: phoneme /p/ is realized as [p] after /s/ and as [ph] word initially. This [p] and [ph] are the allophones of the same phoneme /p/.

3.8.2 Aspiration in Limbu :

The case of aspiration in Limbu is quite different to that of English. In Limbu, aspiration is contrastive since it changes the meaning. For example,

i.	k'Kdf	[pupma]	'to wrench'
	m'Kdf	[phupma]	'to mix'
ii.	sSdf	[k❷kma]	'to become stiff with cold'
	vSdf	[kh❷kma]	'to cut'
iii.	tldf	[t❷☠ma]	'to reconcile'
	yldf	[th❷☠ma]	'to cause to fight'

3.9 Changes, Inclusions, and Debates

i. The Limbu symbol popularly known as d'Sm[ql [mukphrɛŋ] has been changed into glottal stop [ʔ] since 1985-87 onward. **(Source : LNED,2002)**

For example, –
x'C;ll [huʔsiŋ] 'practice'

ii. There is inclusion of ;_cl [s❷-i] as 'Coda Consonant' by the use of vowel length [:] and Coda Consonant.

For example,

;LKdf	[si:pma]	'to milk/filter'
=;lk–df	[si:pma]	'to milk/ filter'

iii. Some others and Limbu language users are in favour of the symbol ;_cl/;Smq[l [s❷-i/ s❷kphrɛŋ] [-] and they oppose the above (no ii) opinion. They argue that the sound shortened by ;_cl /;Smq[l [s❷-i /s❷kphrɛ ŋ] and the coda consonants are not equal in length.

For example,

a. Pronunciation : ;lMKdf and ;lk–df are pronounced differently

b. Meaning

	;lMKdf	[si:pma]	‘no meaning’
=	;lk–df	[si:pma]	‘to milk/ filter’

CAHPTER-FOUR
FINDINGS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

4.1 Findings

The major findings of this research are as follows.

4.1.1 Consonants Identified in the Limbu Language

a. Phonemic Consonants

s[k]	v[kh]	i[☠]	r[c]	t[t]
y[th]	g[n]	k[p]	m[ph]	d[m]
o[y]	n[l]	j[w]	;[s]	x[h]

b. Allophonic Consonants

u[g]	P[gh]	p[ch]	
h[j]	b[d]	w[dh]	
a[b]	e[bh]	F[r]	

c. Conjoint Consonants

S[k]	I[☠]	T[t]	G[n]
K[P]	D[m]	U[r]	N[l]

d. Glide Consonants

O[y]	q[l/r]	J[w]

4.1.2 Similarities Between the English and Limbu Consonants

i. Both English and Limbu languages have aspirated and unaspirated voiceless stops, the former has allophonic and the latter has phonemic features.
ii. In both English and Limbu /h/ sound does not occur word finally.
iii. Both languages have the following sounds
/k, g, ☠, n, p, b, m, r, l, w, h, s /

4.1.3 Differences Between the English and Limbu Consonants

i. In English aspiration is allophonic whereas in Limbu aspiration is phonemic.

For example,

English	'cap'	[k✈p]		(unaspirated)
	'cap'	[k^h✈p]		(aspirated)
Limbu	sfKdf	[kapma]	'to get paired'	(unaspirated)
	vfKdf	[k^hapma]	'to roof'	(aspirated)

ii. In English [ŋ] does not occur word initially whereas in Limbu it occurs word initially,

For example,
Limbu idf [ŋ❷ma] 'to fry'

iii. The following Limbu consonant sounds are not found in English.

For example,
[kh, gh, ch, dz, t, dh, j, ph, bh]

iv. The following English consonant sounds are not found in Limbu.

For example,
[z ,dC, C, t, d, f, v,, j, t, ,]

v. The change of one sound into another is compulsory in some phonetic environments in Limbu but it is rare in English.

For example,
/ k, kh, c, t, th, p, ph, l, s/ becomes [g, gh, j, d, dh, b, bh, r, ch] respectively after 'nasal' or 'vowel' and certain environment.

vi. In Limbu, the following consonant sounds do not occur word initially.
For example,
/g, gh, j, d, dh, b, bh, r, ch/

vii. Without the practice, knowledge and actual use of Sirijunga glide consonants', it will be difficult to discriminate and dictate (have orthographic form). The word' sfJC [kwa?]' is transcribed in English (IPA font) and in Nepali in the following ways'

Limbu	English (IPA)	Nepali
sfJC	[kwa?]	[क्वा?]
↓	↓	↓
full	short	half
[ka]	/k/	[k]

viii. English has more fricatives than the Limbu.

ix. English has only one set of voiced stops, the unaspirated set /b d , ï, g /: Limbu has two sets : the unaspirated set/ b,d, g/ and the aspirated set / bh, dh, gh/

x. /f/ sound is labio-dental in English whereas /ph/ sounds is bilabial in Limbu.

xi. /θ/ sound in English is dental whereas /th/ in Limbu is inter dental.

xii. In English /C, ☠/ sounds cannot be found word initially. But in Limbu /☠/ sound is found word initially.

xiii. In English and Limbu /j, w, h/ sounds do not occur word finally.

4.2 Recommendations

On the basis of the above findings recommendations for the pedagogical purpose have been proposed. They are as follows:

i. The findings show that the sound system between the English and the Limbu language are almost different. For these reasons the teacher should pay special attention while teaching Limbu speaking students in the classroom.

ii. Mother tongue interference creates difficulties in learning the English language for Limbu speaking students because of the presence and absence of consonant sounds.

For example,

Except careful attentions, Limbu speaker may say ‘feri’ for 'very' because of the absence of /v/ word initially.

Limbu speaking people may mishear [phen] ‘comes’ for [phen] ‘pen’. It happens so because aspiration is allophonic in English whereas it is phonemic in the Limbu language .

iii. The teacher should provide sufficient examples and exercises with the view that sounds which exist in English do not exist in Limbu and vice versa.

iv. Most importantly, the teacher should know how the phonemic consonants change into allophonic consonants. It is because such sound system cannot be found in English.

For example,

* English: - Im+polite = imbolite ‘rude’ (this process is impossible)
* Limbu: - am+pa = amba ‘my father’ (this process is compulsory)

In the Limbu language /p/ becomes [b] after nasal sounds.

v. The teacher should not forget the careful use of glottal stop (ʔ). In English it is seen as free variation whereas in Limbu, it is phonemic since it changes the meaning or in some cases allophonic.

For example,

In English: - fatten/ 'fætn/ 'to make sb/sth fatter'
or, ['fæʔn] 'to make sb/sth fatter'] } free variations

In Limbu:

a	;l	[si]	'wheat'	phonemic
or,	;lC	[siʔ]	'louse'	
b.	dfMSo'	[ma:kyu]	'bear'	free variation
or,	dMfCo'	[ma:ʔyu]	'bear'	

(Source : Michailovsky, 2002)

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Appendix – 1 (A)

Questionnaire

This interview schedule is prepared in accordance with research work on '**English and Limbu Consonant Sounds**' for M.Ed. Thesis in English Education under the guidance of Shankar Dewan. I hope you all co-operate in this matter. Thank you.

Hari Chandra Lawati
Sukuna Multiple Campus
Indrapur, Morang

Name of the informant :–
Address :
Job :
Date :

[A] Write the latest Sirijunga scripts.

1. Write the vowel letters of the Sirijunga alphabet that represent Limbu vowel sounds.

❷……	a……	i……	u……
e……	ai……	o……	au……
☜……			

2. Write the consonant letters of the Sirijunga alphabet that represent Limbu consonant sounds.

a. Consonant letters

k……	kh……	g……	gh……
☠……	c……	ch……	j……
t……	th……	d……	dh……

n…… p…… ph…… b……

bh…… m…… y…… r……

l…… w…… s…… h……

b. Conjoint letters/ coda consonants

k…… ☠…… t…… n……

p…… m…… r…… l……

c. The three consonant clusters or suffixes are known as ‘Ektumba sok’

y…… r…… w……

3. Write the phonic symbols in the following blank spaces. They prolong or shorten the sounds or they change the meaning.

d'Smq[l [mukphr☜☠] ……..

s]Dmq[l [kemphr☜☠] ……..

;_cl/;Smq[l [s❷-i/s❷kphr☜☠]……..

B. Translate the following into the Limbu language using Sirijunga scripts.

1. a. moves round = sKt' [k❷ptu]

doesn't move round = ……..

b. load =sS[k❷k]

my load = ……..

2. a. say Vedic hymn = vMdf [kh❷:ma]

not to say Vedic hymn = …….

3. a. eats = r[c❷]

doesn't eat = ……..

b. picture = rclT [c❷it]

his picture = ……..

4. a fry = go] [n❷ye]

don't fry = ……..

b. father's sister = gfOC[nya✍]

my father's sister = ……

5. a. reconcile = tldf [t❷☠ma]

not to reconcile =……..……..

b. axe = tTtl [t❷tti]

my axe =…….

6. a. to cause to fight = yldf [th❷☠ma]

not to cause to fight = ……..

b. ladder = yF]C [th❷re☜]

her ladder = ……

7. a. to be soft = gs–df / gMSdf [n❷:kma]

not to be soft = ……..

b. carry = ks–v]/ kMSv] [p❷:kkhe]

don't carry = ……..

8. a. fire = mldf [ph❷☠ma]

not to fire = ……

b. waist-belt = mCcl [ph❷☜i]

her waist-belt = ……..

9. a. heat = dSt[[m❷kt☜]

don't heat = ……..

b. chilli = dTrl [m❷tchi]

her chilli = ……..

10. a. squeeze = oCF[[y❷☜r☜]

don't squeeze = …….

b. bottle-gourd = oTofO [y❷tya]

my bottle-gourd = ……..

11. a. road = nfD [lam]

main road = ……..

12. a. marsh flower = jfrlSm'l [wajikphu☠]

her marsh flower = ……..

b. saliva = y[Tof [th☜tya]

my saliva = ……..

13. meat = ;f [sa]

beef =……..

14. a. open = xGb[[h❷nd☜]

don't open = ……..

b. problem = xDef] [h❷mbho]

my problem = ……..

C. Do the following pair of words have same pronunciation and same meaning?

1. tMS [t❷:k] and ts- [t❷:k]

a. pronunciation : same ☐ different ☐

b. meaning : same ☐ different ☐

tMS= ts-=

2. dfMMldf [ma:☠ma] and dfi-df [ma:☠ma]

a. pronunciation : same ☐ different ☐

b. meaning : same ☐ different ☐

dfMMldf = dfi-df =

3. ;lKMdf [si:pma] and ;lk-df [si:pma]

a. pronunciation : same ☐ different ☐

b. meaning : same ☐ different ☐

;lKMdf = ;lk-df =

4. tfMGbl [ta:ndi] tfg-bl [ta:ndi]

a. pronunciation : same ☐ different ☐

b. meaning : same ☐ different ☐

tfMGbl = tfg-bl =

5. ;fMMTpllldf [sa:tchi☠ma] and ;ft-pllldf [sa:tchi☠ma]

a. pronunciation : same ☐ different ☐

b. meaning : same ☐ different ☐

;fMMTpllldf = ;ft–pllldf =

6. vfMM]Ddf [kho:mma] and vf]d–df [kho:mma]

a. pronunciation : same ☐ different ☐

b. meaning : same ☐ different ☐

vMfM]Ddf = vf]d–df =

7. cfKmfMN (n[) [appha:l(l☜)] and cfKmfn–(n[)[appha:l(l☜)]

a. pronunciation : same ☐ different ☐

b. meaning : same ☐ different ☐

cfKmfMN (n[) = cfKmfn–(n[)=

8. s';fM]U [kuso:r] and s';f]F– [kuso:r]

a. pronunciation : same ☐ different ☐

b. meaning : same ☐ different ☐

s';fM]U = s';f]F– =

9. vfMOl [khya:☠] and vfOi– [khya:☠]

a. pronunciation : same ☐ different ☐

b. meaning : same ☐ different ☐

vfMOl = vfOi–=

10. of [ya] and ofC [ya☜]

a. pronunciation : same ☐ different ☐

b. meaning : same ☐ different ☐

of = ofC =

11. gf [na] and gfM [na:]

a. pronunciation : same ☐ different ☐

b. meaning : same ☐ different ☐

gf = gfM =

D. The Limbu ‘nM’, ‘n’ ‘n−‘ and ‘N’ represent /l/ sound. Compare the length of the sounds’ ‘nM’, ‘n’, ‘n−’and ‘N’.

‘nM’, [l❷:] as in ‘nMDdf [l❷:mma]’

‘n’ [l❷] as in ‘nl [l❷:☠]’

‘n−’ [l]as in ‘cfKmfn− [appha̲l]’

‘N’ [l] as in ‘cfKmfMN [appha:l]’

Complete the following blank space using 'nM', 'n' 'n−' or 'N'.

Longest Sound ……...

Longer Sound ……...

Long Sound ……...

Short Sound ……...

[E] Translate the following into the Limbu language using Sirijunga scripts.

1. dog =……...
2. mother's brother =……...
3. otherwise =……...
4. oh, yes =……...
5. there =……...
6. over there = ……...

Appendix – 1(B)

Questionnaire

This interview schedule is prepared in accordance with research work on '**English and Limbu Consonant Sounds**' for M.Ed. Thesis in English Education under the guidance of Shankar Dewan. I hope you all co-operate in this matter. Thank you.

Hari Chandra Lawati
Sukuna Multiple Campus
Indrapur, Morang

Name of the informant :– Ganesh Kumar Chemjong (Limbu)

Address : Syabarumba-4, Panchthar

Job : Resource Person

Date : 2066.03.07

[A] Write the latest Sirijunga scripts.

1. Write the vowel letters of the Sirijunga alphabet that represent Limbu vowel sounds.

❷……c…… a…. cf … i …. cl … u…. c' ……

e… c] … ai… c}…… o…. cf] … au…. cf} …

☜…. c[……

2. Write the consonant letters of the Sirijunga alphabet that represent Limbu consonant sounds.

a. Consonant letters

k…s…… kh…v …… g…u …… gh…P ……

☠…. i …… c… r…… ch…. p … j…. h……

t… t …   th… y …   d… b …   dh… w …

n… g …   p… k …   ph… m …   b… a …

bh e ……   m… d …   y… o …   r… F …

l… n   w… j …   s… ; …   h… x …

b. Conjoint letters/ coda consonants

k S   ☠ I   t T   n G

p K   m D   r U   l N

c. The three consonant clusters or suffixes are known as 'Ektumba sok'

y… O ……   r…… q……   w… J …

3. Write the phonic symbols in the following blank spaces. They prolong or shorten the sounds or they change the meaning.

d'Smq[I   [mukphr☜☠]   …… C ………..

s]Dmq[I   [kemphr☜☠] …… M ………..

;_cI/;Smq[I   [s❷-i/s❷kphr☜☠]… _ …………..

B. Translate the following into the Limbu language using Sirijunga scripts.

1. a. moves round = sKt' [k❷ptu]

doesn't move round = … d]uKt'G … [meg❷ptun]

b. load =sS[k❷k]

my load = cfuS[♋g❷k]

2. a. say Vedic hymn = vMdf [kh❷:ma]

not to say Vedic hymn = d]PMdfG …

3. a. eats = r[c❷]

doesn't eat = d]hG [mej❷n]

b. picture = rcIT [c❷it]

his picture = s'hcIT [kuj❷it] ………………..

4. a fry = go] [n❷ye]

d]go[Gg] [men❷y☜nne]

don't fry = ……..

b. father's sister = gfOC[nya✍]

my father's sister = ..cfGgfOC..[☋nny☋✍]

5. a. reconcile = tldf [t❷☠ma]

not to reconcile =.d]bldfG..[med❷☠man]

b. axe = tTtl [t❷tti]

my axe =cfbTtl..[☋d❷tti]

6. a. to cause to fight = ydf [th❷☠ma]

not to cause to fight = .d]wldfG..[medh❷☠man]

b. ladder = yF]C [th❷re✍]

her ladder = .s'wF]C..[kudh❷re✍]

7. a. to be soft = gs-df / gMSdf [n❷:kma]

not to be soft = ..d.]gs-dfG/.. d]gMSdfG[men❷:kman]

b. carry = ks-v]/ kMSv] [p❷:kkhe]

don't carry = .d]as-v[.Gg]./.. d]aMSv[Gg][meb❷:khhenne]

8. a. fire = mldf [ph❷☠ma]

not to fire = d]eldfG[mebh❷:☠man]

b. waist-belt = mCcl [ph❷✍i]

her waist-belt = ……..s'eCcl [kubh❷✍i]

9. a. heat = dSt[[m❷kt☜]

don't heat = d]dSt[Gg] [mem❷kt☜nne]

b. chilli = dTrl [m❷tci]

her chilli = .s'dTrl..[kum❷tci]

10. a. squeeze = oCF[[y❷✍r☜]

don't squeeze = .d]oCF[Gg]. [mey❷✍r☜nne]

b. bottle-gourd = oTofO [y❷tya]

my bottle-gourd = .cfoTof..[☋y❷ty☋]

11. a. road = nfD [lam]

main road = dfFfD [maram]
= ……..

12. a. marsh flower = jfhlSm'l [wajikphu☠]

her marsh flower = s'jfhlSm'l [kuwajikphu☠]

b. saliva = y[Tof [th☜tya]

my saliva = cf'w[Tof [kudh☜tya]

13. meat = ;f [sa]

beef = klTpf [pitch♋]

14. a. open = xGb[[h❷nd☜]

don't open = d]xGb[Gg] [meh❷nd☜nne]

b. problem = xDef] [h❷mbho]

my problem = cfxDef] [ah❷mbho]

C. Do the following pair of words have same pronunciation and same meaning?

1. tMS [t❷:k] and ts- [t❷:k]

a. pronunciation : same ✓ different

b. meaning : same ✓ different

tMS= ts-= rice

2. dfMMldf [ma:☠ma] and dfi-df [ma:☠ma]

a. pronunciation : same ✓ different

b. meaning : same ✓ different

dfMMldf = dfi-df = to be far

3. ;lKMdf [si:pma] and ;lk-df [si:pma]

a. pronunciation : same ✓ different

b. meaning : same ✓ different

;lKMdf = ;lk-df = to milk

4. tfMGbl [ta:ndi] tfg-bl [ta:ndi]

a. pronunciation : same ✓ different

b. meaning : same ✓ different

tfMGbl = tfg-bl = in the future

5. ;fMMTplldf [sa:tchi☠ma] and ;ft-plldf [sa:tchi☠ma]

a. pronunciation : same ☐ different ☐

b. meaning : same ☑ different ☐

;fMMTpIldf = ;ft–pIldf = to tease each other

6. vfMM]Ddf [kho:mma] and vf]d–df [kho:mma]

a. pronunciation : same ☑ different ☐

b. meaning : same ☑ different ☐

vMfM]Ddf = vf]d–df = to pick up

7. cfKmfMN (n[) [appha:l(l☜)] and cfKmfn–(n[) [appha:l(l☜)]

a. pronunciation : same ☑ different ☐

b. meaning : same ☑ different ☐

cfKmfMN (n[) = cfKmfn–(n[) = when

8. s';fM]U [kuso:r] and s';f]F– [kuso:r]

a. pronunciation : same ☑ different ☐

b. meaning : same ☑ different ☐

s';fM]U = s';f]F–= his/her voice

9. vfMOI [khya:☠] and vfOi– [khya:☠]

a. pronunciation : same ☑ different ☐

b. meaning : same ☑ different ☐

vfMOI = vfOi–= I quarreled

10. of [ya] and ofC [ya☜]

a. pronunciation : same ☐ different ☑

b. meaning : same ☐ different ☑

of = came down ofC = paddy

11. gf [na] and gfM [na:]

a. pronunciation : same ☐ different ☑

b. meaning : same ☐ different ☑

gf = a little far gfM = very far

D. The Limbu ‘nM’, ‘n’ ‘n−‘ and ‘N’ represent /l/ sound. Compare the length of the sounds’ ‘nM’, ‘n’, ‘n−’and ‘N’.

‘nM’, [l❷:] as in ‘nMDdf [l❷:mma]’

‘n’ [l❷] as in ‘nl [l❷:☠]’

‘n−’ [l]as in ‘cfKmfn− [apphal]’

‘N’ [l] as in ‘cfKmfN [appha:l]’

Complete the following blank space using 'nM', 'n' 'n−' or 'N'.

Longest Sound ……nM…[l❷:] ……...

Longer Sound ……n…[l❷] ……...

Long Sound ……n− …[l]……...

Short Sound ……N. [l] ……...

[E] Translate the following into the Limbu language using Sirijunga scripts.

1. dog = vfOaf [khy ba] .
2. mother's brother = sfJC [kw]
3. otherwise = d]luq [me☠gr❷]
4. oh, yes = cf];−ug' [osg❷nu]
5. there = gfPf [n gh]
6. over there = gfMPf [n :gh]

Appendix – 2

Name, Address and Job of the Informants.

S.N.	Name	Address/VDC	Job
01	Tej Man Angdembe	Lumphabung	Teacher and Researcher
02	Pushpa Thamsuhang	Yangnam	Author
03	Rajendra Kumar Jabegu	Yangnam	Author
04	Mahendra Kumar Nembang	Imbung	Teacher and Author
05	Dilendra Kurumbang	Arubote	Author
06	Ganesh Kumar Chemjong	Syabarumba	Teacher and Resource Person
07	Bhawani Tawa	Phidim	Editor and Journalist
08	Shyam Jabegu	Yangnam	Teacher and Resource Person
09	Narendra Sambahamphe	Ranigaun	Teacher(HT)
10	Chandra Kumar Angdembe	Angsarang	Journalist
11	Til Bikram Nembang	Ranitar	Author
12	Binod Kugenamba	Phidim	Teacher and Editor
13	Madan Kumar Hangsarumba	Yangnam	Teacher
14	Birendra Kumar Subba	Memeng	Teacher(HT)
15	Vijaya Bod Lawati	Phidim	Journalist
16	Sharada Angdembe	Angsarang	Journalist and News Reader
17	Kaji Subba	Mangjabung	Teacher
18	Bilas Yongya	Oyam	Journalist
19	Menuka Angdembe	Nawamidanda	Journalist and News Reader
20	Buddha Raj Limbu	Phidim(Pheden)	Musician
21	Uttam Sambahamphe	Phidim	Student (BBS III year)
22	Niranti Tumbapo	Chokmagu	Teacher and Journalist
23	Man Dhoj Thamsuhang	Phidim	Teacher(HT)
24	Kabindra Sherma	Mangjabung	Journalist
25	Shubha Chandra Yongya	Phidim	Author

Appendix –3

The following informants were interviewed individually in order to get more information.

Interviewees	Address/VDC
1. Sesemi Sereng	Mauwa
2. Rup Narayan Jabegu	Phidim
3. Purnaman Lawati	Yasok
4. Jotendra Lawati	Phidim
5. Lila Angdembe	Angsarang
6. Tara Lawati	Yasok
7. Syam Sambahamphe	Ranigaun
8. Jivan Sambahamphe	Ranigaun
9. Ram Prasad Chemjong	Phidim
10. Gaendra Lawati	Yasok

Appendix – 4

Transcription

The following letters were used in this thesis to transcribe Limbu words and sentences.

Vowels	a	i	u	e	ɛ	o	❷
Length	:						
Glottalization	☜						

Consonants	Unaspirated stop	Aspirated stop	Nasal
Velar	k[g]	kh[gh]	ŋ
Palatal affricate	c[j]	ch	
Dental	t[d]	th[dh]	n
Bilabial	p[b]	ph[bh]	m
Glottal	☜		

Continuants and Fricatives

y, r, l, w

s, h

Note : The letters shown in the square brackets '[ ]' are allophonic consonants where as others are phonemic.