

**VERBAL AFFIXATION IN ENGLISH, NEPALI AND  
BAJHANGI**

**A Thesis Submitted to the Department of English Education  
In Partial Fulfilment for the Master of Education in English**

**Submitted by  
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**2011**

## **DECLARATION**

I hereby declare to the best of my knowledge that this thesis is original; no part of it was earlier submitted for the candidature of the research to any university.

Date: 2068-04-12

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## RECOMMENDATION FOR ACCEPTANCE

This is to certify that **Mr. Jayakrishna Joshi** has prepared this thesis entitled **“Verbal Affixation in Bajhangi, Nepali and English”** under my guidance and supervision.

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# DEDICATION

Dedicated  
to  
my **parents** and **teachers**.

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## ABSTRACT

The present study entitled “**Verbal Affixation in Bajhangi, Nepali and English**” aimed to identify verbal affixation system in the Bajhangi dialect and compare and contrast the verbal affixes and the rules for verbal affixation in the Bajhangi, Nepali and English languages. Questionnaire and interview schedule were used to collect the required data. The Bajhangi native speakers were the primary resources of data and different books, journals and research reports were the secondary sources of data. On the basis of analysis and interpretation of data, it is found that Bajhangi dialect has different verbal affixations than Nepali and English. Bajhangi, Nepali and English have only person and number marker suffixes. Bajhangi lacks infixation system, it is also the case in Nepali and English as well. English has two tense marker suffixes but in Bajhangi and Nepali have three tense marker suffixes.

This study consists of four chapters. Chapter first is an introductory one, which deals with the general background of the study, linguistic scenario of Nepal, the English language and its importance in Nepal, an introduction to Bajhangi dialect, affixation, review of related literature, objectives of the study and significance of the study. Likewise, the second chapter deals with the methodology applied to conduct the study. It consists of the sources of data, population of the study, sampling procedure, research tools for data collection, process of data collection and limitations of the study. Similarly, the third chapter deals with analysis and interpretation of the raw data obtained from the respondents. The chapter four deals with the findings, recommendations and pedagogical implications of this study.

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## LIST OF SYMBOLS AND ABBREVIATIONS

ACC/DAT	Accusative/ Dative
ADV	Adverb
Dr.	Doctor
e.g.	Exempli gratia (for example)
CA	Contrastive Analysis
CUP	Cambridge University press
etc.	Etcetera
i.e.	Id est. (that is)
M.Ed.	Master in Education
ERG	Ergative
No.	Number
F	feminine
p.	Page
M	male
Prof.	Professor
H	Honorific
PST	past
PRS	present
FUT	future
T.U.	Tribhuvan University
NEG	negative
PERF	perfective
PROG	progressive
Sg	singular
Pl	plural
~	nasalized

## Phonetic Symbols Used in this Thesis

[t̥]	th (ʔ)
[ð]	d (b)
[ʃ]	s (z)
[ŋ]	ng (a)
[ʒ]	j (h)
[dʒ]	j (h)
[v]	o (cf)
[ə]	a (c)
[tʃ]	ch (r)
[θ]	th (y)
[ɔ:]	o (cf)
[j]	y (o)
[z ]	j (h)

# CHAPTER - ONE

## INTRODUCTION

### 1.1 General Background

It is believed that more than six thousand different languages are spoken in the present world. It is true that language is complex system of human communication. It is the language that has brought disparity between human and animal communication. Language is the specific characteristic that makes human being superior and unique among different species. There is no existence of human civilization without language. There are different means of communication, among them language is the most important and widely used means of communication, through which people exchange their ideas, feelings with each other. Whenever there is human society, there is language. Most forms of human activity depend on the co-operation of two or more persons that is the result of language transformation. Language has made possible for the development of advanced and technological civilization for communication. Without language there would be little or no science, religion, commerce, government, art, literature and philosophy.

Language is purely human. It is an asset and a profession of man. It is God's special gift to mankind. It is the most significant aspect of human being that separates him\her from an animal. Human being has a unique place in the universe due to the possession of language.

Language is primarily as the mental faculty that allows humans to undertake linguistic behavior: to learn languages and understand utterances. This definition stresses the human capacity for language and as a unique development for the human brain.

From the structuralist point of view, **language** can be defined as a formal system of symbols governed by grammatical rules, combining particular signs

with particular meaning. Wardhaugh (2000, p. 1) defines language as, “A language is what the members of particular society speak.” Similarly, Richards (1999, p. 199) defines language as “The system of human communication which consists of structured arrangement of sounds or their written representation into large unit e.g. morpheme, words, sentences or utterances.”

The definition of language is that of Simpson (1994, p.1894):

Language may also be used to refer to all system of speaking and writings in the sentence ‘Human language can talk about infinite number of topics.’ A particular type of speaking and writing field to be typical of or appropriate to a given type of situation may also properly be called language in the phrase ‘scientific language’.

Lyons (1992) writes, “It is the possession of language which most clearly distinguishes man from other animals” (p. 2).

Language is very complex phenomenon, all attempts to define it, have proved inadequate. In a nutshell, language is ‘organized noise used in actual social situation. That is why; it has also been defined as, contextualized systematic sounds. Thus, language is a means of communication through which, information and ideas are exchanged among human beings and what Chomsky (1971, p. 13) argues, “Languages are infinitely extendable and modifiable according to changing needs and conditions of speaker” (cited in <http://www.wjh.harvard.edu/>).

Thus, language is a system of communication that enables human to co-operate. So this definition stresses the social function of language and the fact, human uses it to express them and to manipulate objective in their environment. So, language is the sole character of human being to express ideas, feelings, etc.

### **1.1.1 The English Language and its Importance in Nepal**

The English language is a West Germanic language that originates in England. It is the member of Indo-European family of language, which has achieved a worldwide status and has been a global language. It is the most common “first” language, with around 402 millions native speakers in 2002. English has lingua franca status in many parts of the world, due to the military, economic, scientific, political and cultural influence of the United Kingdom and later the United States. Where possible, virtually all students in higher education, from all over the world are required to learn English or the knowledge of English. Nowadays learning English is a prerequisite for working in many fields and occupations. Most of the world publications such as books, newspapers, and magazines are found in English. So learning and knowing the English language seems compulsory for higher education and to take the advantage of intellectual power. The institutions with higher academic status require a working command of English or high command of English.

In the context of Nepal, English is an international language and it has been given higher priority than other international languages. The English language, as international language, entered into Nepal in 1910 B.S. when the first Rana Prime Minister Jung Bahadur visited England and found the necessity of English. He opened Darbar High School (first English medium school of Nepal) in Kathmandu to teach his family members, realizing the necessity and importance of English language. After that period the English language in teaching and learning has become an integral part of education system in Nepal. Nowadays, due to global context, its importance is growing rapidly in Nepal and it has great importance as well. So it is formally taught and learnt as a compulsory subject up to 12 grades and in campus level, it is taught and learnt as compulsory and major subjects. Not only in structured formal education system but also it is a subject of study and medium of instruction in different language institutions, tuition centres, consultancy centers and tourism sectors. In the same way, it is being a medium of instruction and examination

from school to higher education in Nepal. So, in this modern era, teaching and learning English is being the 'cry of the day.' It fosters and enhances communication internationally and opens a window of knowledge. It has become indispensable vehicle to the transmission of modern civilization into the nation. It is the passport through which one can visit the whole world and who knows English can enjoy the advantages of the world citizen. So, English has got higher popularity.

### **1.1.2 The Linguistic Scenario in Nepal**

Despite its small size, Nepal accommodates cultural diversity including linguistic plurality. Nepal is a multilingual, multireligious, and multiracial landlocked country surrounded by India and China. The effect of India is more than that of China in all sectors. Linguistically, Nepal is so rich that it is fertile for languages, which have given uniqueness to this country. According to population census (2001), there are more than 92 languages used in Nepal, though many of them do not have their own scripts and they exist only in spoken forms. The people from different social groups speak different dialects. The languages and their varieties construct the linguistic scenario that reflects the fusion and existence of languages along with their varieties. All the languages spoken in Nepal are categorized into the four major language families, namely; Tibeto-Burman, Astro- Asiatic, Dravidian, and Indo- Aryan, which are as follows:

### 1.1.2.1 Tibeto-Burman

This group includes the following languages:

**Table No. 1**

#### **Tibeto-Burman languages**

Athporia	Chukwa	Khaling	Magar
Bajhi	Darmiya	Kham Ghale	Newari
Bantawa	Dhimal	Koi	Nubri
Baraamu	Dolpo	Kulung	Kaike
Bodo	Dumr	Kyerung	Puma
Bujnyal	Dangali	Lambichhorg	Raji
Byansni	Ghale	Lepcha	Sherpa
Canling	Gurung	Lhomi	Sunwar
Chepang	Jirel	Limbu	Tamang
Chhulung	Kagate	Lorung	Tibeton etc.

Source: Ethnologue Report for Nepal (2009).

### 1.1.2.2 Astro-Asiatic

This family is also called Munda family. It includes only one language namely Sattar or Santhali, which is spoken in Jhapa district, the eastern part of Nepal.

### 1.1.2.3 Draviadian

This family also includes only one language that is Jhanger which is spoken around the Koshi River in the eastern part of Nepal.

### 1.1.2.4 Indo-Aryan

Indo-Aryan family is one of the major families of languages. The languages having many speakers come under this family. Nepali, official language of Nepal, having 41.61 per cent( population census 2058 B.S.) speaker also comes under this family. This group includes following languages:

**Table No. 2**

#### **Indo-Aryan Languages**

Angika	Hindi	Nepali
Awadhi	Jumli	Palpa
Bhageli	Kayot	Rajbansi
Bengali	Kumnali	Sohna
Bhojpuri	Kurmukav	Tharu-Chhitwan
Bote Majhi	Maithali	Tharu-Dangara
Darai	Majhi	Tharu-Kathoriya
Dhanwar	Musassa	Tharu-Kochila
Marwari	Kurmukar	Tharu- Rana

Source: Ethnologue Report for Nepal (2009).

### 1.1.3 Dialect

The use of language varies according to place, time, group of people or subject matter and situation. The variation in the use of language, according to place, time or group of people is called dialect. It is a non- standard variety of language. Dialect is such a variety of language that tells something about or identifies the speaker or the user of the language. Dialect betrays the personality of the user of language. Richards (1999) defines dialect as “a variety of language spoken in one part of country (regional dialect) or by people belonging to a particular social class (sociolect) which is different in

some words, grammar, and pronunciation from other forms of the same language ( cited in Rai, 2056 B.S. p.31). The difference in the same language can be found in any level of language. A dialect is such a variety of language that tells something about or identifies the speaker or user of the language. Thus, dialect betrays the personality of the speaker where s/he lives. Dialect is a cover term that is divided into geographical/regional dialect and social dialect.

### **1.1.3.1 Geographical /Regional Dialect**

The variety of language caused by geographical region is called a regional dialect. Geographical dialect reflects geographical origin of speakers. Geographical varieties are due to the distance from one group of speaker to those of others in the level of languages and its vocabularies. Greater the distance greater the difference.

The term geographical and regional are used for the same thing. In the context of Nepal there are many dialects as its geographical division. Mountain, Hill, and Terai region, as well as Eastern Nepal, Central Nepal, Western Nepal etc. are the geographical regions of Nepal. So, the language, used by such region is regional dialect. For example; Eastern Nepali, Mid Nepali, Western Nepali, Terai Nepali etc.

### **1.1.3.2 Social Dialect**

It is the speech variation associated with the different groups, community, and classes of the people in the society. The social classification as sex, religion, occupation, income, ethnology, education, prestige etc is the determinant. In another word, the variety of language that reveals the social (economical, educational, color, age, sex etc.) background of the speaker is called social dialect or socialect. To talk about social dialect of Nepali, there are many societies as Rana, Newari, Limbu, Tamang, Madgesi etc. Such communities have their own varieties of Nepali which come under social dialect.

### 1.1.3.3 Bajhangi as Separate Dialect

The dialect spoken in Bajhang is separate and different from other dialects of our country. Although it is categorized under Dotely dialect but it is not so. A research by All-round Rural Development Institution shows that among 50 illiterate native speakers of this dialect, 48 found Dotely dialect two times more difficult from Nepali to understand and 2 native speakers found both difficult to understand. Native speakers of this dialect opine that due to the lack of access of the speaker of this dialect to the decision making power, it categorized under the Dotely dialect and another reason is that the whole hill side area of Far-Western Development region was called as Dotely area from the centre of our country for participation in different field and for the ease of development and giving responsibility in Baise Chaubise period. It was called dotely dialect even if it was Bajhangi, Achhami, Bajureli etc.

In the past Doti was a popular place in Baise Chaubise period. Due to this reason other districts are also linked to Dotely but if we go to in depth, we find Bajhangi is different in phonological, syntactic and semantic level from Dotely dialect as follows:

#### 1) Phonological Difference

Dotely:	Tam bhat nai <u>khan<sup>d</sup>a</u> ba? /n <sup>d</sup> a/
Bajhangi:	Tami bhat <u>khanaina</u> ba/ga/pa? /na/
Nepali:	Tapai bhat khanu hunna?
Doteli:	Tam <u>kasnya</u> kurudi garanchhau? /snæ/
Bajhangi:	Tami <u>ka<sub>o</sub></u> kuda addachhau?/sɔ:/
Nepali:	Tapai kasto kura garnuhunchha?

## 2) Syntactic Difference

Bajhangi: Tu kati clasami paddochhai?  
Doteli: Tui kai classmai padanchhai?  
Nepali: Timi kati classma padchhau?

## 3) Semantic Difference

Bajhangi: gaddu (sexual intercourse)  
Doteli: gaddu ( to do work)

Bajhangi: katti nai (very few)  
Doteli: jammai nai (very few)

Bajhangi: logne (male)  
Doteli: baikan (male)

Henceforth, Bajhangi is a saperate dialect. It is neither the sub dialect of Doteli nor of other dialects.

### 1.1.4 Bajhangi Dialect and its Sub-dialects

Bajhang district is located in far western development region and seti zone of Nepal. Chainpur is the headquarter of Bajhang district. There are 47 VDCs in Bajhang. It is familiar with the name of humanitarian King Jayaprithibi Bahadur Singh's birth place, which did great contribution to the origination of the Nepali Language, from his book 'Aksharanka'. The mother language of Bajhangi people is Bajhangi dialect.

Bajhangi dialect is used by the people of Bajhang. Bajhangi dialect is a regional of standard Nepali language, spoken in Bajhang district. Joshi (1989) describes, "The dialect spoken by the permanent inhabitants of lower hills and Valleys of Bajhang district in the far western development region of Nepal, except the Bungali is called the Bajhangi dialect." It is the dialect of the

Nepali language because it reflects differences on vocabulary, grammar, pronunciation, syntax etc. Some researches (unpublished M. Ed theses) like, Shah (2067B.S.), Joshi (2066 B.S.) show that it is the sub-dialect of Doteli dialect but it is intelligible to the speakers of standard Nepali language than to the speakers of Doteli dialect. It is less studied dialect, that is why, it is categorized under Dotely, but my thesis will also show or prove that Bajhangi is different from Doteli.

“Pokhrel classified the dialects of Nepal into three groups before 2027 B.S. viz, purvi, Kendriya and Pashchimi. Later he classified dialect of Nepal into five groups.” (Cited in Dhungel 2066 B.S.).

Pokhrel, (2040 B.S. p.43) has classified the dialects of Nepali into five groups as follows:

1. **Purbeli group:** This group of dialect is spoken in Dailekh, Jajarkot, and Salyan etc.
2. **Majhali group:** This group is spoken in Karnali zone.
3. **Orapachhima group:** This group is spoken in Bajhang, Bajura and Achham.
4. **Majhapachhima group:** This dialect group is spoken in Doti and Dadeldhura.
5. **Parapachhima group:** This dialect group is spoken in Mallo Sorad, Baitadi, Marma, Lekham, Chuwagadh, Purchaudi etc. of Mahakali zone (p.72).

“The dialects which are spoken in Bajhang, Bajura and Achham are called **Orapachhima group**. It is less studied dialect. There is the use of Orapachhima in the article of Jayaprithivi Bdr Singh, Pahalmansingh Swar, and Jyotiprakash Joshi” (Cited in Dhakal, 2066 B.S.).

The Bajhangi dialect, spoken by two-thirds of the total population of Bajhang district of seti zone, has some unique linguistic features, styles, and characteristics. This dialect has its own place among the dialects of Nepal. It hasn't got any written records, though it has its own status. This dialect has not been studied in detail so far, though some short descriptions of the linguistic features of this dialect are available in the works of some linguists. Therefore, a venture to introduce verbal affixes of this dialect by throwing light on the basic form of verbal affixation of this dialect, I selected this topic for thesis.

Bajhangi use their dialect among themselves, but while conversing with Nepali speakers, they switch over to Nepali. Code switching takes place among educated speakers too. That is why this dialect is gradually disappearing from most parts of Bajhang, where the native speakers are exposed to the Nepali language speakers. Especially in Chainpur, the head quarter, people have started using standard Nepali, with the residents of other villages of the district because they think, those who can use Nepali are superior to the dialect speakers. Consequently, using the dialect is becoming the matter, affecting one's position and prestige. However, the uneducated people always use the Bajhangi dialect.

Although Bajhangi dialect and Nepali are not completely different, many differences in linguistic level are noticed. So, it is difficult to understand the Bajhangi dialect by those whose lingua franca is Nepali and vice versa. The Bajhangi dialect is only spoken in Bajhang and the dialect that is similar to it, spoken in Bajura, Achham, Jumla and Kalilot has special variations. This dialect is understandable to the Nepali speakers and it has its own linguistic characteristics. Therefore, this dialect can be taken as separate dialect. In spite of its close relationship with Nepali, it has its own linguistic qualities; basically in morphological, syntactic and semantic levels. Some affixes are completely different from Nepali. The affixes used in Bajhangi the dialect are different from the Nepali.

For example,

Nepali: Ta suntala khanchhas?

Bajhangi: Tu suntala khanya hoi?

Similarly, some words denote different meanings and the processes of word formation are also mostly different.

#### **1.1.4.1 Sub-dialects of Bajhangi**

There are various sub dialects in Bajhangh, like: Thalari dialect, Chir- Bungli dialect, Chhannali dialect, lekali dialect, Dhuleli dialect, Jujeli dialect, Naubiseli dialect, Chhabiseli Dialect etc. Some dialectical variations can be clearly noticed in these areas because every village has its own characteristic features contributing to the dialect. In spite of various sub- dialects, there are mainly two sub-dialects; they are Bajhangi dialect and Chir- Bungli dialect. All the sub-dialects, except Chir-Bungli are similar to each other, despite their minor differences and it is true that the dialect of one area differs from another. Language spoken in different parts undergoes changes and there are several factors, which cause their changes. We find linguistic differences within the same language and dialect. These differences are due to geographical distance, cultural and social attitudes of the society, the language used by the majority of the particular language speakers and the way of using it. Here, we can find such differences in Bajhangi dialect in different areas because of the influence of Nepali on it, distance, and social status, educational background of the dialect speakers, multilingual use and other different reasons.

Following examples show the variations of verbal affixes among Bajhangi some sub-dialects:

Bhat khanai ga/ka/kya?	Thalari sub-dialect
Bhat khanai pa/ba?	Jujeli sub-dialect
Hata bhat khada bhya ka/kya?	Chhannali sub dialect

Bhat nai khanya hau ba?	Chir-Bungli sub-dialect
Bhat khanuhunchha?	Standard Nepali
Don't you eat rice?	English

Thus, all sub-dialects of the Bajhangi dialect are similar to each other except the Chir-Bungli dialect. So, Bajhangi dialect is different from the Nepali language and other dialects of Nepal, because it has its own unique linguistic features, styles, qualities. Bhatt (2006) says that Bajhangi dialect is different from the Nepali language and rest of the dialects of our country, but it is understandable to the Nepali language speakers than other dialects, like this:

Nepali:	Tapai suntala khanuhuchha?
Bajhagi:	Tami suntala khanyahou?
Doteli :	Tam suntala Khayahau ba?
English:	Do you take orange?

Nepali:	Tapaiko Kura bujhidaina.
Bajhangi:	Tamra kuda bujhinaina.
Doteli:	Tamari kurudi nai bujhini ba.
English:	Your language is not understandable.

Although there are various sub-dialects of Bajhangi, I mention only two sub-dialects: Bajhangi and Chir-Bungli, due to the similarity of other sub-dialects. The dialect which is spoken in Chir, Būgal is assimilated to Baitadeli dialect; the dialect spoken in Kada VDC and the dialects in the rest of district are not same but nearly similar.

It is spoken to 3/4<sup>th</sup> portion of Bajhangi people. Out of 47 VDCs, it is spoken in thirty-one VDCs of this district. Bajhangi dialect is similar to some extent to the dialects spoken in Achham, Bajura, Jumla and Kalikot district.

The Bajhangi dialect has neither well documented history nor written materials. It has not been widely studied yet. It exists only in spoken form neither any

books and news papers are published nor is any documentary prepared. Now, firstly, there are two local F.M.s (Seti and Saipal), which are working in the field of Bajhangi dialect for the first time. “Regarding its history Jyoti Prakash Joshi had written “Jhagadiya Ganesh Kumarkko Milap” first in this dialect”, (Bhatt, 2006). Later on Janak Bahadur Bist had translated “Guruprasad Mainali’s Naso” (a story) in this dialect. The Bajhangi dialect is a less studied dialect. This dialect is not the medium of instruction in primary school too, despite the policy of government giving education in primary level in local dialect. People living Chainpur (head quarters) have started using Nepali due to the influence of modernization and educated people have started speaking Nepali. Thus, there is a strong case of degeneration of this dialect. So, presentation and maintenance have been our responsibility and considering those factors, I have made an effort to study on this dialect.

### **1.1.5 Affixation**

Affixation is one of the important processes of word formation. An affix is a bound morpheme that is added to the root.

The definition of ‘affix’ is that of Bauer (1994: 44):

An affix is usually defined as obligatory bound morph that is not root. That is in a word like prejudgments, all of pre-, -ment, and –s are affixes, and –en in oxen is different affix from the -s in prejudgments even though, they both show plurality. In the word inept, the in- is an affix even though, there is no word ept. The term affixation is used to describe both the process of adding affixes to form new words and resultant state.

Word formation studies the patterns on which a language forms new lexical units i.e. words.

Crystal (2003, p.15) defines:

The collective term for the types of ‘formative’ that can be used only when added to another morpheme (the root or stem), i.e. affixes are type of bound morphemes. Affixes are limited in number in a language, and are generally classified into three types depending on their position with reference to the root or stem of the word.

According to Maharjan (2000, p.147), “Affixation is a process whereby a prefix or suffix is added to a free morpheme (i.e. a root).” The root of a word is that part which is remained after all the affixes have been removed e.g.the word judge in the word ‘prejudgments’. A base is, on the other hand, any form to which any affixes can be added. In our example above ‘judge’ is also the base of ‘judgment’ which in turn is the base of ‘prejudgments’. Taking their different behavior and considerations they are divided into two classes:

1. Derivational affixes
2. Inflectional affixes

Katamba (1993, p. 44) classifies affixes in three categories, as prefix, infix and suffix, which is the main concern in this research.

### **1.1.5.1 Prefixation**

Prefixation is a type of affixation in which affixes are attached before the base to form new words. Prefixes precede the roots as in im-mortal. Katamba (1993, p. 44) says “A prefix is an affix attached before a root, base or stem like re-, un-, in.” According to Crystal (2003), “A term used in morphology referring to an affix which is added initially to a root or stem” (p. 367). Similarly, Quirk et al. (1973) say, “Adding a prefix to the base, with or without change of word class”.

Thus, prefixes are bound morphemes attached to the beginning of the free morphemes to form new words. A prefix is that bit of language which precedes a word.

In another way we can say, prefix precedes the root, stem or base. For example,

re-make	un-kind	in-decent
re-check	un-tidy	in-accurate

Some examples of Bajhangi dialect:

na-ramdo

na-nigo

### **1.1.5.2 Infixation**

An infix is inserted into the root itself. Infixes are very common in semiotic language like; Arabic, Hebrew. Infixes are rare in English. Taylor (1989) suggests that the only infix that occurs only in English morphology is /-n-/ which is inserted before the last consonant of the few words of Latin origin, on what appear to be an arbitrary basis. This infix undergoes place of articulation assimilation. Thus the root, -cub- meaning 'lie in, on or upon' occurs without [m] before [b] in some words containing that root e.g. incubate, incubace, concubine, succubus. But [m] is infixed between that some root in some other words like incumbent, succumb, and decumbent. This infix is a frozen historical relic from Latin (Cited in Katamba, 1993).

Infixes are rare in Nepali and Bajhangi as well. Some examples from the Newari language are given below:

Bāla -	good
Bām <u>al</u> a -	bad
Tapa -	far

Tamapa- not far  
Phetu- to sit  
Phematu- not to sit

Thus, in the Newari language, the infix (-ma-) is used to form negative word.

### **1.1.5.3 Suffixation**

Unlike free morpheme, a suffix has no meaning in itself; it acquires meaning only in conjunction with the free morpheme which it transposes.

Katamba (1993, p. 44) defines, “A suffix is an affix, attached after a root stem or base, like -ly, -er, -ist, -s, -ing and -ed.” Crystal (2003, p. 144) defines suffixation as, “A term used in MORPHOLOGY referring to an AFFIX which is added following a ROOT or STEM.” Quirks et al. (1973) say suffixation is, “Adding a suffix to the base with or without change of word class.”

For example, -full in helpful is a suffix attached to the end of the root help. Some other examples of suffixes in English include /-ed/ (played), -ness (goodness), -ly (lovely), -ing (going), etc. Some suffixes of Bajhangi dialect are:

kha-nochha ru-nalagyako  
Bas-tochha has-nalagyako

### **1.1.6 English Verb**

Verb is primary word class. It refers to a word which:

- a) occurs as a part of the predicate of sentence,
- b) carries marks of categories such as tense, aspect, person, number and mood,
- c) refers to an action or state.

The most difficult part of any language is the part that deals with the verb. Learning a language is to a very large degree of learning, how to operate the

verbal forms of that language. In fact, however of the three dimensions: past, present and future of the tense, only two are expressed in English by inflections on the verb; past and non-past. Many languages also express future time by changing the form of verb but English generally expresses future time with the modal auxiliary verb.

English verbs can be classified in terms of auxiliaries as be, shall, can, have etc and full verbs as; play, eat, come etc. Cowan (2009, p. 21-23) mentions the category of the verbs as auxiliary verbs, transitive and intransitive verbs, ergative verbs, static vs. dynamic verbs and phrasal and prepositional verbs.

### **1.1.7 Nepali Verb**

Regarding Nepali verb, there are two types of verbs as sakarmak (transitive) and akarmak (intransitive). For example,

Sakarmak kriya: lekh+nu, lekh+chha, lekh+dai, lekh+yo, lekh+nechha.

Akarmak kriya: sut+nu, sut+chha, sut+dai, sut+yo, sut+nechha.

Similarly, **Bajhangi verbs** are following two types:

Sakarmak kriya: lekht+ ochha, lekht+laggyago, lekh+ yo, lekhn+yachha.

Akarmak kriya: sut+tu, sut+ochha, sutna+ lagyago, sutn+ yachha.

Regarding the verbal affixation in Nepali, there are person, number, gender, tense, perfective, progressive and negative marker affixes. These all are described below:

#### **a) Person Marker Affixes**

In Nepali language, there are all person marker suffixes; they are first person, second person and third person. But there are no person marker prefixes and infixes in the Nepali language.

- i) /chhũ/, /chhəũ/, /chhəu/, /chhə/, /chhən/, /chhin/, /chhəs/, /chhe/, /hunchhə/ are the person marker suffixes in the Nepali language. They are added to the present tense. For example,

ma ghara jan-chhun.

hami kam gar-chhaun.

timi kam gar-chhau

- ii) /e/, /jəũ/, /jəu/, /ij/, /jɔ:/, /nubhə/, /i/, /in/ are the person marker suffixes in the Nepali language. They are added to the past tense. For example,

hami kaphal khana ga-yaun.

timi iskul ga-yau.

uni khana pakauna ga-in.

- iii) /nechhũ/, /nechhəũ/, /nechhəu/, /nuhunchhə/, /nechhə/, /nechhən/, /nechhin/ are the person marker suffixes in the Nepali language. They are added to the future tense. For example,

Ma paudi khelne-chhun.

Timi kam garne-chhau.

## **b) Number Marker Affixes**

There are no number marker prefix and infix in Nepali language but it has only number marker suffixes, which are as follows:

- i) /-chhũ/, /-chhəũ/, /-chhəs/, /-chhəu/, /-chhə/, /-chhən/, /-chhe/, /-hunuhunchhə/,

These are the number marker suffixes in the Nepali language of the present tense. For example,

ma bhat khan-chhun.

hami bhat khan-chhaun.

ii) /-e/, /jəũ/, /-œ/, /-əjəũ/, /-jəu/, /-b<sup>h</sup>jɔ:/, /jɔ:/, /-in/, /-e/, /-b<sup>h</sup>əjɔ:/

These are the number marker suffixes in the Nepali language of the past tense. For example,

maile kaphal kha-yen .

hamile kaphal kha-yaun.

iii) /-nechhũ/, /-nechhəu/, /-nechhə/, /-nechhin/, /-nechhən/

These are the number marker suffixes in the Nepali language of the future tense. For example,

ma iskul jane-chhun.

hami iskul jane-chhaun.

### c) Gender Marker Affixes

There is no gender distinction in the first person and second person of verb system in Nepali language. Nepali language has only third person gender distinction. For example,

ram kam gar-chha.

sita kam gar-chhe.

So, /-chhə/, /-chin/, /-jɔ:/ and /-in/ are the gender marker suffixes in the Nepali language.

#### d) Tense Marker Affixes

Nepali language has not tense marker prefix and infix but it has only tense marker suffixes, which are as follows:

1. /-chhũ/, /-chhəũ/  
/-chhəs/, /-chhəu/  
/-chhə/, /-chhən/, /-chhe/, /-hunuhunchhə/,

These are the tense marker suffixes in the Nepali language to mark the first person, second person, and third person of the present tense respectively. For example,

timi kam gar-chhau.  
tiniharu kam gar-chhan.

- 2) /-e/, /jəũ/, /-θe/, /-θjəũ/  
/-jəu/, /-b<sup>h</sup>jɔ:/  
/jɔ:/, /-in/, /-e/, /-b<sup>h</sup>əjɔ:/

These are the tense marker suffixes in the Nepali language to mark the first person, second person, and third person of the past tense respectively. For example,

ma ghara ga-ye.  
timi ghara ga-yau.

- 3) /-nechhũ/, /-nechhəu/  
/-nechhəu/, /-hunechhə/  
/-nechhə/, /-nechhin/, /-nechhən/, /-hunuhunechhə/

These are the tense marker suffixes in the Nepali language to mark the first person, second person, and third person of the future tense respectively. For example,

ma chitthi lekh-nechhu.

hami chitthi lekhne-chhau.

### **e) Perfective Marker Affixes**

In the Nepali language /-eko:/ and /-eka:/ are the perfective marker suffixes. For example,

maile bhat kha-eko chhun.

timile bhat khayeka thi-yau.

### **f) Progressive Marker Affixes**

In the Nepali language /ðəi/ and /rəheko:/ are the progressive marker suffixes. For example,

ma kitab padh-dai chhun.

ma khana pakai-raheko chhun.

### **g) Negative Marker Affixes**

In the Nepali language, negation is morphological in verb. There is no infix to mark negation. There is only one prefix to mark negation, that is /nə-/ and some other suffixes to mark negation are /-ðəinə/, / ðəinəũ/, /ðəinən/. For example,

Timi bhat nakhau.

Ma suntala khandaina.

### **1.1.8 Verbal Affixation in English**

The affixes that are attached with verbs are called verbal affixes. They are attached at the end of the verbs. There are no verbal prefixes and infixes in English except negation. Verbal affixations are categorized into person markers, number markers, perfective markers and negative markers in English.

#### **1.1.8.1 Personal Marker Affixes**

There are no personal marker prefixes and infixes in English.

/-s/ is the personal marker suffix in English. It is added to the verb to mark the third personal singular.

For example:

He eats.

She dances.

#### **1.1.8.2 Number Marker Affixes**

The personal marker suffix in English is /-s/. It is added to the verb to mark the third personal singular number.

For example:

He eats.

She dances.

#### **1.1.8.3 Tense Marker Affixes**

There are two types of tense marker suffixes in English. They are: past and non-past markers. /-ed/ is the past marker suffix in English. It is added to the regular verb to mark all person and number in the past tense.

For example:

I waited.

She waited.

They waited.

/-s/ is the non-past marker suffix in English. It is added to the verb to mark the third personal singular non-past. For example,

She waits.

But English has not tense marker prefixes and infixes.

#### **1.1.8.4 Progressive Marker Affixes**

There are not progressive marker prefixes and infixes in English./-ing/ is the progressive marker suffix in English. It is attached to the verb for progressive aspect of the tense.

For example:

Bishal is writing.

#### **1.1.8.5 Perfective Marker Affixes**

/ed/ is the perfective marker suffix in English. It is added to the regular verb to make all persons and numbers in both non-past and past tense. For example:

I have/had played cricket.

He has/had played cricket.

They have/had played cricket.

You have/had played cricket.

/en/ is the perfective maker suffix in English. It is added to regular verbs to make all persons and numbers in both non-past and past tense. For example:

I have/had gone (go+en) to market.

You have/had gone (go+en) to market.

They have/had gone (go+en) to market.

You has/had gone (go+en) to market.

#### **1.1.8.6 Negative Marker Affixes**

Unlike other markers of verbal affixations, there are no negative marker suffixes in English. Negative marker prefixes are attached to the verb irrespective of persons, number and tense. For example:

I do not go there.

He does not go there.

Bishal will not go there.

#### **1.1.9 Contrastive Analysis**

##### **1.1.9.1. Definition of Contrastive Analysis**

Contrastive analysis is concerned with comparison usually between two languages, i.e. the foreign language and the native language. Languages as stated here are never compared as whole, so there is often a comparative study of the lexical systems of languages concerned. Two different grammatical systems, sound systems and meaning systems are also compared. From such comparisons most teacher feel that learning can further be carried out most effectively.

A contrastive study of any two or more languages or dialects give out similar and dissimilar aspects between them. There will be certain features of languages compared and here the duty of contrastive analyst is to find out in what ways these features are common and how to describe each of them. Since we know that the errors and difficulties that occur in the performance of a foreign language learner are mainly due to interference of our mother tongue, the greater the differences between the languages, the larger the chances of error will be. The aim of contrastive analysis thus has been to find out such

principles which can be applied to practical problem in language teaching and translation. These principals are specially based on transfer, interference and equivalent. Above all help us to convince that *contrastive analysis is hence a method of linguistic analysis which by means of comparative study finds out the similarities and differences between two or more languages or dialects.*

### **1.1.9.2 CA Hypothesis: Transfer Theory**

Robert Lado in his 'Linguistics Across Culture' states that individuals tend to transfer the forms and meaning and distribution of forms and meaning of their native language and culture to the foreign language and culture.

The term transfer as it is used here refers to the state of the application of the previously acquired skills and knowledge into a new situation. Thus, psychologists agree that if the present learning is affected by the past learning, there occurs the transfer of something there.

Regarding transfer, an individual attempts to transfer what he has already acquired from his mother tongue. His transfer would be justified in the case that the structure of the two languages resembles one another. Eventually the learner gets that learning a foreign language is much easier. In such cases, we get positive transfer or facilitation. When the structures between the two languages are dissimilar, the transfer is unlikely or it will be unjustified. This gives a negative transfer or interference. It is obvious that a learner can not use preposition from his mother tongue as a verb in the target language. They are grammatically much distinct and so no transfer is likely there. This would be a case of nil transfer.

### 1.1.9.3 Principles of Contrastive Analysis

Comparative linguistics is more familiarly concerned with comparative historical linguistics. There is usually historical comparison of the languages there which are genetically related. And the field of linguistics is generally known as Comparative philology. Basically there are two fundamental principals of contrastive analysis: one is *describe before comparing*, the other is *compare pattern not whole languages*.

The first principle denotes that one can not compare how things work if he has not first described how each of them work. Unless he describes it, he can not compare how each of them works. By this we understand that the learner of a foreign language, who is going to compare the specific systems of his native language with the foreign language and its systems, should know something about it.

The second principle, compare patterns, not whole languages, gives us those languages as wholes can never be compared. There is no question of comparing Nepali and English languages in totality. Since each language involves complex systems with in it, one should often take some specific patterns or systems for comparative purposes in the foreign language teaching.

Therefore, one has to make detailed and useful comparisons of particular patterns in two or more languages once these have been described. Every comparative statement presupposes three steps: first, the separate description of the relevant features of each language: second, the establishment of comparability which is worth making explicit: and third, the comparison itself.

#### **1.1.9.4 Assumptions of CA**

The fundamental assumption of CA according to (Lado, 1957, p.48) is:

That individuals tend to transfer the forms and meanings, and the distribution of forms and meanings of their native language and culture to foreign language and culture both productively when attempting to speak language and to act in culture, and receptively when attempting to grasp and understand the language and the culture as practiced by natives.

#### **1.1.9.5 The Uses of CA**

It is an observed fact that the learner who has come in contact with the foreign language has a feeling that some of the features of it are quite easy and others extremely difficult. The elements which are similar to his mother tongue will be simpler to him and the elements of differences are often leading him to difficulties. These difficulties felt and faced by the learner strike the language teacher and accordingly his teaching processes. This information via contrastive analysis of difficulty may be useful to the actual teaching of language or to the language teacher, whether for limiting the information within the teacher himself or for passing on directly to his pupils, in many ways.

Wikins (1972) has mentioned that contrastive information will tell a language teacher where to expect an unusual degree of learning difficulty. It is more useful to the teacher in training. Teacher should be prepared for the situation in which they intend to teach. Provided with the difficulties if the teacher happens to be new, this information helps him to locate where the problems are and thus can better facilitate the language teaching situation, but for an experienced teacher, since he will have already learnt from experiences, the locations and the nature of the problems it may prove to be less useful.

Secondly, contrastive analysis may reveal effective in the ways of overcoming the difficulties as comparison between the two or more languages is carried out; it may suggest some of the techniques to the language teacher. In turn, these techniques could have been used while presenting an item in the actual field of teaching and learning.

The third application of contrastive information to the language teachers is that it may help in constructing appropriate materials for syllabuses, texts, researcher, etc. Besides, contrastive analysis is equally contributive in the sense that it is helpful to evaluate the language and cultural context of the text book. Many of the times, for testing the linguistic knowledge of the students too, contrastive study is carried out.

## **1.2 Review of Related Literature**

Word is a key building block of the language to convey the message. Words are divided into eight types viz; noun, adjective, pronoun, verb, preposition, conjunction and interjection. Among them, verb is the matter here. The speaker uses verb to express his/her action according to the time adding different affixes in it. Linguistic research is never ending. Many researches have been carried out on linguistics by different researchers from different country. There are some research works of comparative study among different languages spoken in Nepal. For example, Maithali, Limbu, Tharu, Newari, Nepali etc. There are some researches in the field of verbal affixation in English and other languages as well as in Doteli and Baitadali dialects, but there is no research work carried out on verbal affixation in Bajhangi dialect in the department. The previous research on verbal affixation in different languages and on other areas in Doteli dialect were helpful for this research.

Bhandari (2002) carried out a research on “Affixation in English and Nepali: A comparative study .The objective of the study was to find out affixation rules in the multiple affixation system of both languages dealing with in the forms of

multiple affixations. Obviously she found that English has more affixes than the Nepali language and that the prefixes of English are more than that of Nepali. Similarly, Paneru (2004) conducted a research on “The comparative study of English and Doteli kinship terms.” He found that most of the English kinship relations are addressed by name but in Doteli they are addressed by kinship terms.

Tumbapo (2005) conducted a research on “Verbal affixation in English and Limbu: A comparative study.” This study shows that the verbal affixes of Panchthare dialects of Limbu are determined by inclusiveness and exclusiveness of the first person, dual, plural pronouns as subject in sentence whereas such type of system is not available in English. Likewise, Thakur (2008) conducted a research on “verbal affixation in Maithali and English.” The objective of the study was to examine similarities and differences in verbal affixation in Maithali and English. The researcher found that Mathali has more number of verbal affixes in comparison to English and they are more complex than those of English. Both the Maithali and English languages have more or less similarities.

Chaudhari (2006) carried out a research on ‘Verbal affixation in Tharu and English language.’ The objective of the study was to identify the verbal affixes and the rules of verbal affixation in the Tharu language. The researcher found that Satparia dialect of Tharu has gender marker suffixes but the same gender marker suffixes are used for both masculine and feminine. The researcher also found that /-nəI/ indicates negative marker which is always used before the verb stems and Tharu language has three tense makers i.e. present, past and future tense marker suffixes whereas English has only two tense makers i.e. past and non-past. Another similar research carried out by Ghishing (2009) is on “Verbal affixation in English and Tamang,” the main objective of which was to identify the verbal affixation system on the Tamang language. The researcher found that Tamang uses the affixes such as /a-/, /-pa/, /-ba/, /-la/, /-mula/, /-pan/, /-

ban/, /-bala/, /-ci/, /-zi/, /-cim/, /-zim/, /-bar/, /-u/, /-go/, /-ge/, /-gei/ etc for the past, non- past tense and unknown past.

Shah (2067 B.S.) carried out a research on “Verbal affixation in English and Doteli dialect of Nepal.” The research found that English has more prefixes than that of Doteli, where as Doteli is richer than English in terms of number of suffixes.

Chapagain (2009) conducted a research on “Verbal morphology in English and Santhali.” The main objective of the study was to compare and contrast verbal morphology in the Santhali and English languages. After analysis, the researcher found that Santhali has more complex than these of English. Both languages have more or less similar morphologies.

Thus, the above researches show that still no research has been conducted on the present topic. None of these researches touched on the verbal affixation Bajhangi dialect. So, this research entitled “Verbal affixation in Bajhangi dialect” will be really significant and helpful for further study in other areas of this dialect.

### **1.3 Objectives of the study**

The main objectives of the present study were as follows:

1. To identify verbal affixes in the Bajhangi dialect.
2. To compare and contrast Bajhangi verbal affixation with those of the standard Nepali and English languages.
3. To provide some pedagogical implications.

### **1.4 Significance of the Study**

There is no research work carried out on any area of Bajhangi dialect on verbal affixation in Bajhangi dialect in any department of T.U. previously. The work

is expected to be significant to the students and teachers of languages and linguists, grammarians, researchers etc of Bajhangi dialect. This study will be very beneficial for the department of English education, T.U., Kirtipur for further research and the teacher who especially teaches English in Bajhang district. This will also be significant for the language planner and policy makers with the concept of mother tongue education instruction. The teachers who teach English as a second language to the Bajhangi children, writers and followers of the Bajhangi dialect will get benefit from this research.

## **CHAPTER – TWO**

### **METHODOLOGY**

This incorporates the description of the sources of data, population of the study, sampling procedure, tools and process of data collection. It also describes the limitations of the study.

#### **1.2 Sources of Data**

I collected the data from both primary and secondary sources to fulfill the objectives of this study.

##### **2.1.1 Primary Sources of Data**

The native speakers of the Bajhangi dialect of the Bajhang district especially from Thalara area were the primary sources of data.

##### **2.1.2 Secondary Sources of Data**

The secondary sources of data were mainly different books, journals, magazine, thesis, web sites. The major books entitled are Katamba (1983), Celce-Murcia, Hudson (1999), Pokhrel (2055 B.S) Wardhaugh (2000), Thakur (2008), Maharjan (2010), etc.

#### **2.2 Population of the Study**

The Population of this research was from the Thalara area of Bajhang district. Eighty native speakers of Bajhangi dialect living in Parakatne and Danggaji V.D.Cs of this area were the major population of this research.

#### **2.3 Sample and Sampling Procedure**

I used the judgmental purposive non-random sampling procedure to sample the population. I selected forty literate and forty illiterate native speakers and

the participants of male and female were equal from the VDCs. All the informants were above 20 years of age.

The total population was divided into males, females and literate and illiterate equally.

## **2.4 Tools of Data Collection**

The main tools for the data collection were questionnaire and interview. I collected information by using the questionnaire (see appendix I) and for the uneducated speakers, interview was taken.

## **2.5 Process of Data Collection**

I collected data, by using the following procedures:

- a. After the preparation of research tools, I met the 80 native speakers of Bajhangi dialect in Parakatne and Danggaji VDCs of Thalara area of Bajhang district.
- b. I explained to the respondents about the purpose and terms of the questionnaire.
- c. I selected 80 Bajhangi speakers out of which 40 were male and 40 were female and literate /illiterate were equal in number as given in the sample population.
- d. I distributed the questionnaire to the educated sample population and took interview to the uneducated sample population and I noted down the responses of the interviewee.

## **2.6 Limitations of the Study**

This study had the following limitations:

- a. This study was limited to find out the verbal affixation of Bajhangi dialect.

- b. This study was limited to the comparison between the Bajhangi, the standard Nepali and the English verbal affixations.
- c. This study was limited to only 80 native speakers of the Bajhangi dialect in Parakatne and Danggaji VDCs of Thalara area.
- d. This study was limited to Thalara area of Bhang District. So I have termed this dialect as Thalari sub-dialect.

## **CHAPTER – THREE**

### **ANLYSIS AND INTERPRETATION**

This chapter consists of analysis and interpretation of the data. Verbal affixations of the Bajhangi dialect are identified as person markers, number markers, gender markers, tense markers, perfective markers and progressive markers. As this study is comparative in nature, the verbal affixes and rules of verbal affixation in Bajhangi dialect are compared and contrasted with those of Nepali and English to find out whether those languages have equivalent verbal affixes or not. This chapter is divided into the following sections and subsections.

#### **3.1 Verbal Affixes in the Bajhangi Dialect**

Affix refers to a letter or group of letters added to the beginning, middle or end of a word to change its meaning. Here, this research is focused on verbal affixes in Bajhangi dialect. Bajhangi dialect does not have verbal marker prefixes and infixes except negation marker prefix. Verbal affixes of Bajhangi dialect are categorized into personal markers, number markers, gender markers, tense markers, progressive markers, perfective markers and negative markers.

##### **3.1.1 Person, Number and Tense Marker Affixes**

Bajhangi has all person marker suffixes; they are first person, second person and third person. Number marker affixes refer to the affixes that are added to the verbs to mark singular and plural number. The tense marker affixes refer to the affixes that are added to the verb to mark present, past and future tense.

Person, number and tense marker affixes of Bajhangî are presented in the table below:

**Table No. 3**  
**Person, Number, Tense Marker Affixes in Bajhangî**

Person Marker Affixes			Number Marker Affixes		Tense Marker Affixes		
1 <sup>st</sup>	2 <sup>nd</sup>	3 <sup>rd</sup>	Singular	Plural	Present	Past	Future
-ɔ:chhũ	-ɔ:chhəi	-ɔ:chhə	-ɔ:chhũ	-a:chhũ	-ɔ:chhũ	-ja:	-ũla
-a:chhũ	-a:chhəũ	-i:chhə	-ja:	-ja:	-a:chhũ	-jau:	-ũli
-ja:	-i:	-a:chhən	-jau:	-ja:hũ	-ɔ:chhəi	-i:	-ləi
-jau:	-ja:	-jɔ:	-ũla	-ũli	-a:chhəũ	-ja:	-ula:
-ja:hũ	-ləi	-i:	-jɔ:	-ja:	-la:	-jɔ:	-la:
-ũla	-ula:	-ja:	-i:	-na:		-i:	-li:
-ũli		-la:	-ja:	-nja:hu:n		-ja:	-nja:hɔ:
		-li:	-la:				-na:
		-na:	-li:				
		-nja:hɔ:	-nja:hɔ:				
		-nja:hu:n					

Bajhangî dialect does not have person, number and tense marker prefix and infix. It has person, number and tense marker suffixes. /-ɔ:chhũ/, /-ɔ:chhəi/, /-ɔ:chhə/ etc. are the person marker suffixes of Bajhangî. Similarly, /-ũla:/, /-ũli:/, /-jɔ:/, /-ja:/ etc are the number marker suffixes. /-ɔ:chhũ/, /-ja:/, /-ũla:/ etc are the tense marker suffixes of Bajhangî dialect.

### 3.1.2 Perfective, Progressive and Negative Marker Affixes

Perfective marker affixes refer to the affixes that are added to the verb which are followed by the 'AUX' in the present and past tenses. Similarly, Bajhangî

dialect has progressive and negative marker suffixes. These all are presented in the table below:

**Table No. 4**

**Gender, Perfective, Progressive and Negative Marker Affixes in Bajhang**

Gender Marker Affixes		Perfective Marker Affixes	Progressive Marker Affixes	Negation Marker Affixes
M	F			
-a:chhəi:	-i:chhəi:	-jagɔ:	-la:gja:ɔ	-dʒənə
-a:chhəu	-i:chhəu	-jaga:	-lagja:ga:	əinə-
-ləi:	-li:		-lagja:gi:	ainə-
-la:	-li:			inə-
-ɔ:chhə:	-i:chhə			
-a:chhən	-i:chhən			
-jɔ:	-i:			
-la:	-li:			
-na:	-ni:			

Bajhang does not have perfective and progressive marker prefix and infix. It has perfective and progressive marker suffixes only, like: /-ja:ɔ:/, /-ja:ga:/, /-lagjagɔ:/, /-lagjaga:/ and /-lagjagi:/. Bajhang has one negative marker prefix and some suffixes, viz. /dʒənə-/, /-əinə/, /-a:inə/ and /-inə/.

### 3.2 Detailed Description of Bajhang Verbal Affixes

The number, person, gender, tense, perfective, progressive and negative marker affixes of Bajhang dialect are described below:

#### 3.2.1 Person Marker Affixes

Bajhang dialect does not have person marker prefixes and infixes. It has only person marker suffixes, which are discussed below:

### 3.2.1.1 Person Marker Suffixes of Present Tense

i) /-ɔ:chhu/ is the person marker suffix in the Bajhang dialect of the Nepali language. It is added to the verb to mark the first person singular of the present tense. For example:

- |    |      |                      |                                     |
|----|------|----------------------|-------------------------------------|
| a) | mũ   | ka:fəl               | kha:n -ɔ:chhũ (kha:nu + ɔ:chhu)     |
|    | [1Sg | strawberry           | eat-PRS-1Sg]                        |
|    | ma   | kafal                | khanchhu.                           |
|    | I    | eat                  | strawberry.                         |
| b) | mu   | tʃit̪i               | lekht -ɔ:chhũ (lekhtu + ɔ:chhu)     |
|    | [1Sg | letter               | write-PRS-1Sg]                      |
|    | ma   | chit̪hi              | lekhchhun.                          |
|    | I    | write                | a letter.                           |
| c) | mu   | k <sup>h</sup> a:na: | pəka:ũn -ɔ:chhũ (pəka:ũnu + ɔ:chhũ) |
|    | [1SG | food                 | cook-PRS-1SG]                       |
|    | ma   | bhat                 | khanchhun.                          |
|    | I    | cook                 | food.                               |

/-a:chhũ/ is the person marker suffix for the first person plural of the present tense. For example,

- |    |      |          |  |
|----|------|----------|--|
| d) | həmi | deu:da   | k <sup>h</sup> ell-a:chhũ (k <sup>h</sup> el+a:chhũ) |
|    | [1Pl | deuda    | play-PRS-1Pl]  |
|    | hami | deuda    | khelchhaun.  |
|    | We   | play     | deuda.   |
| e) | həmi | məna:na: | pədda:-chhũ (pəḍ+a:chhũ)                             |
|    | [1Pl | məna:na: | read-PRS-1Pl]  |
|    | hami | mananama | padhchhaun.  |
|    | We   | study    | in Manana.   |

ii) /-ɒchhəi:/ is the person marker suffix in Bajhangi. It is added to the verb to mark the second person of the present tense. For example,

a)	tu:	kəpəda:	d <sup>h</sup> u:n-ɒchhəi (d <sup>h</sup> u:nu+ɒchhəi)
	[2Sg	cloth	wash-PRS-2Sg]
	timi	kapada	dhou.
	You	wash	cloth.

b)	tu:	ka:m	əðð-ɒchhəi (əððu:+ ɒchhəi)
	[2Sg	work	do-PRS-2Sg]
	timi	kam	gara.
	You	do	work.

But in the case of the honorificity, it is marked by the suffix /-a:chhəu/. For example,

c)	təmi:	kəθa:	su:nn-a:chhəu (su:nnu:+ a:chhəu)
	[2Sg.H	story	listen-PRS-2Sg.H]
	tapain	katha	sunnuhos.
	You	listen	story.

iii) /-ɔ:chhə/, /-ichhə/ are the person marker suffixes of the Bajhangi dialect. They are added to the verb to mark the third person singular masculine and feminine respectively of the present tense. For example,

a)	u:/jɔ:/tjɔ:/	ruppæ̃	ma:gð-ɔ:chhə (ma:gðu:+ɔ:chhə)
	[3Sg.M	money	ask-PRS-3Sg.M]
	u/yo/tyo	rupainya	magchha.
	He	asks	money.

b)	u:/jɔ:/tjɔ:	bha:t	k <sup>h</sup> a:n-ichhə (k <sup>h</sup> a:nu:+ichhə)
	[3Sg.F	rice	eat-PRS-3Sg.F]
	u/yo/tyo	bhat	khanchhe.
	She	eats	rice.

And the suffixes /-a:chhən/, /-i:chhən/ are added to the verb to the third person plural and honorificity of the present tense. For example,

c)	uni/ təni:	kita:b	padd-a:chhən (paddu-a:chhən)
	[3Pl	book	read-PRS-3Pl]
	uniharu/ tiniharu	kitab	padchhan.
	They	read	book.
d)	uni/təni	git	sun-ichhən (sunnu-ichhən)
	[3Pl.F	song	listen-PRS-3Pl]
	uni/tini	git	sunchhin.
	They	listen	song.

### 3.2.1.2 Person Marker Suffixes of Past Tense

i) /-jã:/ is the person marker suffix in the Bajhangi dialect of the Nepali language. It is added to the verb to mark the first person singular of the past tense. For example,

a)	muile	pa:ni:	kha~:jã: (kha:nu + jã:)
	[1Sg-ERG	water	drink-PST-1Sg]
	maile	pani	piyen.
	I	drank	water.
b)	muile	uila:i	bola-jã: (bolaunu+jã:)
	[1Sg-ERG	him/her	call-PST-1Sg]
	maile	uslai	bolayen.
	I	called	him/her.

For the first person plural suffix, /-jaũ/ is marked to the verb for the past tense.

For example,

c)	həmile	bidhja:ləjəlai:	səhəjɔ:g ər-jaũ (ərnɯ-jaũ )
	[1PI-ERG	school	help-PST-1PI]
	hamile	bidhyalayalai	sahayog garyaun.
	We	helped	school.

ii) /-i:/ is the person marker suffix in Bajhangi. It is added to the verb to mark second person of the past tense. For example,

a)	tu:ile	əŋrdzi	padh-i: (padhnu-i:)
	[ 2Sg-ERG	English	read-PST-2Sg]
	timile	angregi	padhyau or
	You	read	English

/ja:/ is the suffix that is added to the verb to mark honorific second person past tense. for example,

c)	təmi:le	kəθa:	su:n-ja: (su:nnu:+ja:)
	[2Sg.ERG	story	listen-PRS-2Sg.H]
	tapainle	katha	sunubhayo.
	You	listened	a story.

iii) /jɔ:/ is the person marker suffix of the Bajhangi dialect. It is added to the verb to mark the third person singular and plural of the past tense. For example,

a)	unne	tʃtʃi	lek <sup>h</sup> -jɔ: (lekhnɯ:+jɔ:)
	[3Sg.M.ERG	letter	write-PST-3Sg.M]
	usle	chitthi	lekhyo.
	He	wrote	a letter.

b)	unle	kriket	k <sup>h</sup> el-jɔ: ( k <sup>h</sup> elnu-jɔ:)
	[3Pl.H	cricket	play-PST-3Sg.H]
	uhale	kriket	khelnubhayo.
	They	played	cricket.

### 3.2.1.3 Person Marker Suffixes of Future Tense

i) /-ũla:/ or /-nja:hũ/ is the person marker suffix in the Bajhangi dialect of the Nepali language. It is added to the verb to mark the first person singular of the future tense. For example,

a)	mu	ka:fəl	kha: -ũla (kha:nu +ũla)
	[1Sg	strawberry	eat-FUT-1Sg]
	ma	kafal	khanchhu.
	I	eat	strawberry.

b)	mu	bhɔ:lə	a:u -nja:hũ (aunu + nja:hũ)
	[1Sg	tomorrow	come-FUT-1Sg]
	ma	bholi	aunechhun.
	I	will come	tomorrow.

Similarly, /-ũli/ is the person marker for the first person plural of the future tense. For example,

c)	həmi	deu:da	k <sup>h</sup> el- ũli (k <sup>h</sup> el+ ũli)
	[1Pl	deuda	play-FUT-1Pl]
	hami	deuda	khelnechhaun /khelaula.
	We	play	deuda.

d)	həmi	iskul	dʒ <sup>h</sup> a-ũli: (dʒ <sup>h</sup> anu+ũli:)
	[1Pl	school	go-FUT-1Pl]
	hami	iskul	janechhaun.
	We	will go	to school.

ii) /-ləi:/ is the person marker suffix in Bajhangi. It is added to the verb to mark second person of the future tense. For example,

a)	tu:	tʃa:ha:	k <sup>h</sup> a:l-ləI (k <sup>h</sup> a:nu+ləi)
	[ 2Sg	tea	drink-FUT-2Sg]
	timi	chiya	piunechhau/piaula.
	You	will drink	tea.

But in the case of the honorificity, it is marked by the suffix /-la:/ or /li:/ of the future tense. for example,

b)	təmi:	g <sup>h</sup> ərə	dʒ <sup>h</sup> au-la (dʒ <sup>h</sup> anu+la)
	[2Sg.H	house	go-FUT-2Sg.H.M]
	tapain	ghara	januhos.
	You	will go	house.

Similarly, /-nja:hə:ɪ/ is also suffixed to the verb to mark the second person future tense. For example,

c)	tu:	tʃa:ha:	k <sup>h</sup> a:-nja:hə:ɪ (k <sup>h</sup> a:nnu:+nja:hə:ɪ)
	[ 2Sg	tea	drink-FUT-2Sg]
	timi	chiya	piunechhau.
	You	will drink	tea.

iii) /-li:/ is the person marker suffix of the Bajhangi dialect. They are added to the verb to mark the third person singular feminine of the future tense. For example,

a)	u:/jɔ:/tjɔ:/	mu:k <sup>h</sup> i	ruppæ	ma:gðl-li: (ma:gðu:+li:)
	[3Sg.F	1Sg. DAT	money	ask-FUT-3Sg.F]
	u/yo/tyo	malai	rupainya	magchhe.
	She	will ask me	money.	

b)	u:/jɔ:/tjɔ:/	bha:t	k <sup>h</sup> al-li: (k <sup>h</sup> a:nu:+li:)
	[3Sg.F	rice	eat-FUT-3Sg.F]
	u/yo/tyo	bhat	khanchhe.
	She will	eat	rice.

/-la:/ is the person marker suffix of the Bajhangi dialect. It is added to the verb to mark the third person singular masculine of the future tense. For example,

c)	u:/jɔ:/tjɔ:/	mu:k <sup>h</sup> i	ruppã	ma:gðl-la: (ma:gðu:+la:)
	[3Sg.M	1Sg. DAT	money	ask-FUT-3Sg.M]
	u/yo/tyo	malai	rupainya	magnechha.
	He	will ask	me	money.

And the suffixes /-nja:hun/ is added to the verb to the third person plural and honorificity of the future tense. For example,

d)	uni/ tæni:	kita:b	padd-nja:hun (paddu- nja:hun)
	[3Pl	book	read-FUT-3Pl]
	uniharu/ tiniharu	kitab	padnechhan/padnehun.
	They	will read	book.
e)	uni/ tæni:	kita:b	padd-nja:hun (paddu- nja:hun)
	[3Sg.H	book	read-FUT-3Sg.H]
	unha	kitab	padnuhunechha.
	He/She	will read	book.

But the suffix /-nja:hɔ:/ is added to the verb to the third person singular for the masculine or feminine of the future tense.

For example,

f)	u:/jɔ:/tjɔ:/	mu:k <sup>h</sup> i	ruppã	ma:g-njahɔ: (ma:gðu:+nja:hɔ:)
	3Sg	1Sg. DAT	money	ask-FUT-3Sg
	u/yo/tyo	malai	rupainya	magchhe (female).
	u/yo/tyo	malai	rupainya	magnechha (male).
	She/he	will ask	me	money.

### 3.2.2 Number Marker Affixes

We do not have number marker prefixes and infixes in the Bajhangi dialect of the Nepali language. So, only the number marker suffixes are discussed below:

i) /-ɔ:chhu/ is the number marker suffix in the Bajhangi. It is added to the verb to mark the first person singular of the present tense. For example,

a)	mũ	ka:fəl	kha:n -ɔ:chhũ (kha:nu + ɔ:chhu)
	[1Sg	strawberry	eat-PRS-1Sg]
	ma	kafal	khanchhu.
	I	eat	strawberry.
b)	mu	tʃitti	lekht -ɔ:chhũ (lekhtu + ɔ:chhu)
	[1Sg	letter	write-PRS-1Sg]
	ma	chitthi	lekhchhun.
	I	write	a letter.

c)	mu	k <sup>h</sup> a:na:	pəka:ũn -ɔ:chhũ (pəka:ũnu +ɔ:chhũ)
	[1Sg	food	cook-PRS-1Sg]
	ma	bhat	khanchhun.
	I	cook	food.

Similarly, /-a:chhũ/ is the number marker suffix for the first person plural of the present tense. For example,

d)	həmi	deu:da	k <sup>h</sup> ell-a:chhũ (k <sup>h</sup> el+a:chhũ)
	[1Pl	deuda	play-PRS-1Pl]
	hami	deuda	khelchhaun.
	We	play	deuda.

e)	həmi	məna:na:	pədda:-chhũ (pəɖ+a:chhũ)
	[1Pl	məna:na:	read-PRS-1Pl]
	hami	mananama	padhchhaun.
	We	study	in Manana.

ii) /-ɔchhəi:/ is the number marker suffix in Bajhangi. It is added to the verb to mark second person of the present tense. For example,

a)	tu:	kəpəda:	d <sup>h</sup> u:n-ɔchhəI (d <sup>h</sup> u:nu+ɔchhəi)
	[2Sg	cloth	wash-PRS-2Sg]
	timi	kapada	dhou.
	You	wash	cloth.
b)	tu:	ka:m	əðð-ɔchhəI (əððu:+ ɔchhəI)
	[2Sg	work	do-PRS-2Sg]
	timi	kam	gara.
	You	do	work.

But in the case of the honorificity, it is marked by the suffix /-a:chhəu/. for example,

c)	təmi:	kəəa:	su:nn-a:chhəu (su:nnu:+ a:chhəu)
	[2SG.H	story	listen-PRS-2SG.H]
	tapain	katha	sunnuhos.
	You	listen	story.

iii) /-ɔ:chhə/, /-ichhə/ are the number marker suffixes of the Bajhangi dialect. They are added to the verb to mark the third person singular masculine and feminine respectively of the present tense.

For example,

a)	u:/jɔ:/tjɔ:/	ruppã	ma:gð-ɔ:chhə(ma:gðu:+ɔ:chhə)
	[3Sg.M	money	ask-PRS-3Sg.M]
	u/yo/tyo	rupainya	magchha.
	He	asks	money.
b)	u:/jɔ:/tjɔ:	bha:t	k <sup>h</sup> a:n-ichhə (k <sup>h</sup> a:nu:+ichhə)
	3SG.F	rice	eat-PRS-3SG.F]
	u/yo/tyo	bhat	khanchhe.
	She	eats	rice.

And the suffixes /-a:chhən/, /-i:chhən/ are added to the verb to the third person plural and honorificity of the present tense. For example,

c)	uni/ təni:	kita:b	padd-a:chhən (paddu-a:chhən)
	[3PI	book	read-PRS-3PI]
	uniharu/ tiniharu	kitab	padchhan.
	They	read	book.

d)	uni/təni	git	sun-ichhən (sunnu-ichhən)
	[3Pl.F	song	lilsten-PRS-3Pl]
	uni/tini	git	sunchhin.
	They	listen	song.

iv) /-ja:~/ is the number marker suffix in Bajhangi. It is added to the verb to mark the first person singular of the past tense.

For example:

a)	muile	pa:ni:	kha:~-ja:~ (kha:nu + ja:~)
	[1Sg-ERG	water	drink-PST-1Sg]
	maile	pani	piyen.
	I	drank	water

b)	muile	uila:i	bola-ja:~ (bolaunu+ja:~)
	[1Sg-ERG	him/her	call-PST-1Sg]
	maile	uslai	bolayen.
	I	called	him/her.

For the first person plural suffix, /-jaũ/ is marked to the verb for the past tense.

For example,

c)	həmile	bidhja:ləjəlai:	səhəjɔ:g ər-jaũ (ərnə-jaũ )
	[1Pl-ERG	school	help-PST-1Pl]
	hamile	bidhyalalayai	sahayog garyaun.
	We	helped	school.

v) /-i:/ is the person marker suffix in Bajhangî. It is added to the verb to mark second person of the past tense. For example,

a)	tu:ile	əŋrdʒi	padh-i: (padhnu-i:)
	[ 2SG-ERG	English	read-PST-2SG]
	timile	Angregi	padhyau or
	taile	Angreji	padhis.
	You	read	English

/ja:/ is the suffix that is added to the verb to mark honorific second person past tense.

for example,

c)	təmi:le	kəəa:	su:n-ja: (su:nnu:+ja:)
	[2Sg.ERG	story	listen-PRS-2Sg.H]
	tapainle	katha	sunnubhayo.
	You	listened	a story.

vi) /jɔ:/ is the person marker suffix of the Bajhangî dialect. It is added to the verb to mark the third person singular and plural of the past tense. For example,

a)	unne	tʃtʃi	lek <sup>h</sup> -jɔ: (lekhnu:+jɔ:)
	[3Sg.M.ERG	letter	write-PST-3Sg.M]
	usle	chitthi	lekhyo or
	unle	chitthi	lekhin.
	He	wrote	a letter.
b)	unle	kriket	k <sup>h</sup> el-jɔ: ( k <sup>h</sup> elnu-jɔ:)
	[3Pl.H	cricket	play-PST-3Sg.H]
	uhale	kriket	khelnubhayo.
	They	played	cricket.

vii) /-ũla:/ or /-nja:hũ/ is the number marker suffix in Bajhangi dialect of Nepali language. It is added to the verb to mark the first person singular of the future tense. For example,

- |    |      |            |                            |
|----|------|------------|----------------------------|
| a) | mu   | ka:fəl     | kha-ũla (kha:nu +ũla)      |
|    | [1Sg | strawberry | eat-FUT-1Sg]               |
|    | ma   | kafal      | khanchhu.                  |
|    | I    | eat        | strawberry.                |
| b) | mu   | bhɔ:lə     | a:u-nja:hũ (aunu + nja:hũ) |
|    | [1Sg | tomorrow   | come-FUT-1Sg]              |
|    | ma   | bholi      | aunechhun.                 |
|    | I    | will come  | tomorrow.                  |

Similarly, /-ũli/ is the person marker for the first person plural of the future tense. For example,

- |    |      |           |   |
|----|------|-----------|---|
| c) | həmi | deu:da    | k <sup>h</sup> el- ũli (k <sup>h</sup> el+ ũli)   |
|    | [1PL | deuda     | play-FUT-1PL]                                     |
|    | hami | deuda     | khelnechhaun /khelaula.                           |
|    | We   | will play | deuda.  |
| d) | həmi | iskul     | dʒ <sup>h</sup> a-ũli: (dʒ <sup>h</sup> anu+ũli:) |
|    | [1Pl | school    | go-FUT-1Pl]                                       |
|    | hami | iskul     | janechhaun.                                       |
|    | We   | will go   | to school.  |

viii) /-ləi:/ is the number marker suffix in Bajhangi. It is added to the verb to mark second person of the future tense. For example,

a)	tu:	tʃa:ha:	k <sup>h</sup> a:l -ləɪ (k <sup>h</sup> a:nu+ləɪ)
	[ 2Sg	tea	drink-FUT-2Sg]
	timi	chiya	piunechhau/piaula.
	You	will drink	tea.

But in the case of the honorificity, it is marked by the suffix /-la:/ or /li:/ of the future tense. For example,

b)	təmi:	g <sup>h</sup> ərə	dʒ <sup>h</sup> au-la (dʒ <sup>h</sup> anu+la)
	[2Sg.H	house	go-FUT-2Sg.H.M]
	tapain	ghara	januhos.
	You	will go	house.

Similarly, /-nja:hɔ:ɪ/ is also suffixed to the verb to mark the second person future tense. For example,

c)	tu:	tʃa:ha:	k <sup>h</sup> a:-nja:hɔɪ (k <sup>h</sup> a:nnu:+nja:hɔɪ)
	[ 2Sg	tea	drink-FUT-2Sg]
	timi	chiya	piunechhau.
	You	will drink	tea.

ix) /-li:/ is the number marker suffix of the Bajhangi dialect. They are added to the verb to mark the third person singular feminine of the future tense. For example,

a)	u:/jɔ:/tjɔ:/	mu:k <sup>h</sup> i	ruppæ	ma:gðl-li: (ma:gðu:+li:)
	[3Sg.F	1Sg. DAT	money	ask-FUT-3Sg.F]
	u/yo/tyo	malai	rupainya	magchhe.
	She	will ask me	money.	

b)	u:/jɔ:/tjɔ:/	bha:t	k <sup>h</sup> al-li: (k <sup>h</sup> a:nu:+li:)
	[3Sg.F	rice	eat-FUT-3Sg.F]
	u/yo/tyo	bhat	khanchhe.
	She	will eat	rice.

/-la:/ is the person marker suffix of the Bajhangi dialect. It is added to the verb to mark the third person singular masculine of the future tense. For example,

c)	u:/jɔ:/tjɔ:/	mu:k <sup>h</sup> i	ruppã	ma:gðl-la: (ma:gðu:+la:)
	[3Sg.M	1Sg. DAT	money	ask-FUT-3Sg.M]
	u/yo/tyo	malai	rupainya	magnechha.
	He	will ask	me	money.

And the suffixes /-nja:hun/ is added to the verb to the third person plural and honorificity of the future tense. For example,

c)	uni/ tɔni:	kita:b	padd-nja:hun (paddu- nja:hun)
	[3Pl	book	read-FUT-3Pl]
	uniharu/ tiniharu	kitab	padnechhan/padnehun.
	They	will read	book.
d)	uni/ tɔni:	kita:b	padd-nja:hun (paddu- nja:hun)
	[3Sg.H	book	read-FUT-3Sg.H]
	unha	kitab	padnuhunechha.
	He/She	will read	book.

But the suffix /-nja:hə:/ is added to the verb to the third person singular for the masculine or feminine of the future tense. For example,

e)	u:/jə:/tjə:/	mu:k <sup>h</sup> i	ruppæ̃	ma:g-njahə: (ma:gðu:+nja:hə:)
	[3Sg	1Sg. DAT	money	ask-FUT-3Sg]
	u/yo/tyo	malai	rupainya	magchhe (female).
	u/yo/tyo	malai	rupainya	magnechha (male).
	She/he	will ask	me	money.

### 3.2.3 Gender Marker Affixes

In the Bajhangî dialect there is no gender distinction in the first person of verb system. In the case of the second and third person there is gender distinction in verb morphology. There are two gender marker suffixes for masculine and feminine gender. They are discussed below:

i) /-ɒchhəi:/ and /-ichhəi:/ are the gender marker suffixes in Bajhangî. They are added to the verb to mark the second person singular masculine and feminine gender respectively of the present tense. For example,

a)	tu:	kəpəda:	d <sup>h</sup> u:n-ɒchhəi (d <sup>h</sup> u:nu+ɒchhəi)
	[2Sg.M	cloth	wash-PRS-2Sg.M]
	timi	kapada	dhou.
	You	wash	cloth.

b)	tu:	ka:m	əðð-ichhəi (əððu:+ ɒchhəi)
	2SG.F	work	do-PRS-2SG.F
	timi	kam	garchhau.
	You	do	work.

ii) /a:chhəu:/ and /i:chhəu:/ are the gender marker suffixes in Bajhangî. They are added to the verb to mark the second person plural masculine and feminine gender respectively of the present tense.

For example,

c)	təmi:	kəθa:	su:nn- a:chhəu (su:nnu:+ a:chhəu)
	[2Sg.H	story	listen-PRS-2Sg.H]
	tapain	katha	sunnuhos.
	You	listen	story.

iii) We do not have gender distinction in the second person of the past tense.

iv) /-ləi:/ and /-li:/ are the gender marker suffixes in Bajhangi. They are added to the verb to mark the second person singular masculine and feminine gender respectively of the future tense. For example,

a)	tu:	tʃa:ha:	k <sup>h</sup> a:l-ləi (k <sup>h</sup> anu+ləi)
	[2Sg	tea	drink-FUT-2Sg]
	timi	chiya	khanechhau/khaua.
	You	will drink	tea.

b)	tu:	ʃæu	k <sup>h</sup> a:l-li (khanu:+li)
	[2Sg.F	apple	eat-FUT-2Sg.F]
	Timi	syau	khanechhaun/khaua.
	You	will eat	an apple.

But in the case of the honorificity, it is marked by the suffix /-la:/ or /li:/ of the future tense. for example,

c)	təmi:	g <sup>h</sup> ərə	dʒ <sup>h</sup> au-la (dʒ <sup>h</sup> anu+la)
	[2Sg.H	house	go-FUT-2Sg.H.M]
	tapain	ghara	januhos.
	You	will go	house.

v) /-ɔ:chhə/, /-ichhə/ are the gender marker suffixes of the Bajhangi dialect. They are added to the verb to mark the third person singular masculine and feminine respectively of the present tense. For example,

a)	u:/jɔ:/tjɔ:/	mu:k <sup>h</sup> i	ruppã	ma:gð-ɔ:chhə (ma:gðu:+ɔ:chhə)
	[3Sg.M	1SG. DAT	money	ask-PRS-3Sg.M]
	u/yo/yo	malai	rupainya	magchha.
	He	asks me	money.	

b)	u:/jɔ:/tjɔ:/	bha:t		k <sup>h</sup> a:n-ichhə (k <sup>h</sup> a:nu:+ichhə)
	3SG.F	rice		eat-PRS-3SG.F
	u/yo/tyo	bhat		khanchhe.
	She	eats		rice.

And the suffixes /-a:chhən/, /-i:chhən/ are added to the verb to the third person plural and honorificity of the present tense. For example,

c)	uni/ təni:	kita:b		padd-a:chhən (paddu-a:chhən)
	[3Pl	book		read-PRS-3Pl]
	uniharu/ tiniharu	kitab		padchhan.
	They	read		book.

d)	uni/təni	git		sun-ichhən (sunnu-ichhən)
	[3Pl.F	song		listen-PRS-3Pl]
	uni/tini	git		sunchhin.
	They	listen		song.

vi) /-jɔ:/ and /-i:/ are the gender marker suffixes of the Bajhangi dialect. They are added to the verb to mark the third person singular masculine and feminine respectively of the past tense.

For example,

a)	u:/jɔ:/tjɔ:/	g <sup>h</sup> ərə		a-jɔ: (a:+jɔ:)
	[3Sg.M	house		arrive-PST-3Sg.M]
	u/yo/tyo	ghara		ayo.
	He	arrived		home.

b)	u:/jɔ:/tjɔ:/	g <sup>h</sup> ərə	a-i: (a:+i:)
	[3Sg.F	house	arrive-PST-3Sg.F]
	u/yo/tyo	ghara	ain.
	She	arrived	home.

vii) /-la:/ and /-li:/ are the gender marker suffixes in Bajhangi. They are added to the verb to mark the third person singular masculine and feminine of the future tense respectively. For example,

a)	u:	tʃa:ha:	k <sup>h</sup> a:l-la: (k <sup>h</sup> a:nu+la)
	[3Sg.M	tea	drink-FUT-3Sg.M]
	u	chiya	piunechha.
	He	will drink	tea.

b)	u:	p <sup>h</sup> ɔtɔ:	k <sup>h</sup> itʃəl-li: (k <sup>h</sup> itʃnu+li:)
	[3Sg.F	photo	take-FUT-3Sg.F]
	uni	photo	khichnechhin.
	She	will take	a photo.

viii) /-na:/ and /-ni:/ are the gender marker suffixes in Bajhangi. They are added to the verb to mark the third person honorific masculine and feminine of the future tense respectively. For example,

a)	uni:	mu:k <sup>h</sup> i	ruppã	ma:gən-na: (ma:gðu:+na:)
	[3Sg.M	1SG. DAT	money	ask-FUT-3Sg.M]
	u/yo/tyo	malai	rupainya	magnechha.
	He	will ask me	money.	

b)	uni:	bha:t	k <sup>h</sup> an-ni: (k <sup>h</sup> a:nu:+ni:)
	[3Sg.F	rice	eat-FUT-3S.F]
	u/yo/tyo	bhat	khanchhin.
	She	will eat	rice.

### 3.2.4 Tense Marker Affixes

Bajhangi dialect doesn't have tense marker prefix and infix. Tense marker suffixes are seen in the Bajhangi dialect.

### 3.2.4.1 Present Tense Marker Suffixes

i) /-ɔ:chhu/ is the present tense marker suffix in the Bajhangi. It is added to the verb to mark the first person singular of the present tense. For example:

- |    |      |                      |                                     |
|----|------|----------------------|-------------------------------------|
| a) | mũ   | ka:fəl               | kha:n -ɔ:chhũ (kha:nu + ɔ:chhu)     |
|    | [1Sg | strawberry           | eat-PRS-1Sg]                        |
|    | ma   | kafal                | khanchhu.                           |
|    | I    | eat                  | strawberry.                         |
| b) | mu   | tʃitt̪i              | lekht -ɔ:chhũ (lekhtu + ɔ:chhu)     |
|    | [1Sg | letter               | write-PRS-1Sg]                      |
|    | ma   | chitthi              | lekhchhun.                          |
|    | I    | write                | a letter.                           |
| c) | mu   | k <sup>h</sup> a:na: | pəka:ũn -ɔ:chhũ (pəka:ũnu + ɔ:chhũ) |
|    | [1Sg | food                 | cook-PRS-1Sg]                       |
|    | ma   | bhat                 | khanchhun.                          |
|    | I    | cook                 | food.                               |

Similarly, /-a:chhũ/ is the present tense marker suffix for the first person plural of the present tense. For example,

- |    |      |        |  |
|----|------|--------|--|
| d) | həmi | deu:da | k <sup>h</sup> ell-a:chhũ (k <sup>h</sup> el+a:chhũ) |
|    | [1Pl | deuda  | play-PRS-1Pl]  |
|    | hami | deuda  | khelchhaun.  |
|    | We   | play   | deuda.   |

e)	həmi	məna:na:	pədda:-chhũ (pəḍ+a:chhũ)
	[1Pl	məna:na:	read-PRS-1Pl]
	hami	mananama	padhchhaun.
	We	study	in Manana.

ii) /-ṽchhəi:/ is the present tense marker suffix in Bajhangi. It is added to the verb to mark second person of the present tense. For example,

a)	tu:	kəpəda:	d <sup>h</sup> u:n-ṽchhəI (d <sup>h</sup> u:nu+ṽchhəi)
	[2Sg	cloth	wash-PRS-2Sg]
	timi	kapada	dhou.
	You	wash	cloth.
b)	tu:	ka:m	əḍḍ-ṽchhəI (əḍḍu:+ ṽchhəI)
	[2Sg	work	do-PRS-2Sg]
	timi	kam	gara.
	You	do	work.

But in the case of the honorificity, it is marked by the suffix /-a:chhəu/. for example,

c)	təmi:	bhat	k <sup>h</sup> a:n-a:chhəu (k <sup>h</sup> a:nu+a:chhəu)
	[2Sg.H	rice	eat-PRS-2Sg.H]
	tapain	bhat	khanuhunchha.
	You	eat	rice.

iii) /-ṽ:chhə/, /-ichhə/ are the present tense marker suffixes of the Bajhangi dialect. They are added to the verb to mark the third person singular masculine and feminine respectively of the present tense.

For example,

a) u:/jɔ:/tjɔ:/	ruppã	ma:gð-ɔ:chhə (ma:gðu:+ɔ:chhəi)
[3Sg.M	money	ask-PRS-3Sg.M]
u/yo/tyo	rupainya	magchha.
He	asks	money.

And the suffixes /-a:chhən/, /-i:chhən/ are added to the verb to the third person plural and honorificity of the present tense. For example,

c) uni/ tənɪ:	kita:b	padd-a:chhən (paddu+a:chhən)
[3Pl	book	read-PRS-3Pl]
uniharu/ tiniharu	kitab	padchhan.
They	read	book.

d) uni/təni	git	sun-ichhən (sunnu+ichhən)
3Pl.F	song	listen-PRS-3Pl]
uni/tini	git	sunchhin.
They	listen	song.

### 3.2.4.2 Past Tense Marker Suffixes

i) /-jã:/ is the past tense marker suffix in Bajhangi dialect of the Nepali language. It is added to the verb to mark the first person singular of the past tense. For example:

a) muile	pa:ni:	kha~-jã: (kha:nu + jã:)
[1Sg-ERG	water	drink-PST-1Sg]
maile	pani	piyen.
I	drank	water.

b)	muile	uila:i	bola-ja:~ (bolaunu+ja:~)
	[1Sg-ERG	him/her	call-PST-1Sg]
	maile	uslai	bolayen.
	I	called	him/her.

For the first person plural suffix, /-jaũ/ is marked to the verb for the past tense.

For example,

c)	həmile	bidhja:ləjəlai:	səhəjə:g ər-jaũ (ərnə-jaũ )
	[1Pl-ERG	school	help-PST-1Pl]
	hamile	bidhyalayalai	sahayog garyaun.
	We	helped	school.

ii) /-i:/ is the past tense marker suffix in Bajhangi. It is added to the verb to mark second person of the past tense. For example,

a)	tu:ile	əŋrdʒi	padh-i: (padhnu-i:)
	[2Sg-ERG	English	read-PST-2Sg]
	timile	angregi	padhyau or
	taile	angreji	padhis.
	You	read	English

/ja:/ is the suffix that is added to the verb to mark honorific second person past tense. For example,

c)	təmi:le	kəəa:	su:n-ja:(su:nnu:+ja:)
	[2Sg.ERG	story	listen-PST-2Sg.H]
	tapainle	katha	sunnubhayo.
	You	listened	a story.

iii) /jɔ:/ is the past tense marker suffix of the Bajhangi dialect. It is added to the verb to mark the third person singular and plural of the past tense. For example,

a)	unne	tʃtʃi	lek <sup>h</sup> -jɔ: (lekhnu:+jɔ:)
	[3Sg.M.ERG	letter	write-PST-3Sg.M]
	usle	chitthi	lekhyo.
	Unle	chitthi	lekhin.
	He	wrote	a letter.
b)	unle	kriket	k <sup>h</sup> el-jɔ: ( k <sup>h</sup> elnu-jɔ:)
	[3Pl.H	cricket	play-PST-3Sg.H]
	uhale	kriket	khelnubhayo.
	They	played	cricket.

### 3.2.4.3 Future Tense Marker Suffixes

i) /-ũla:/ or /-nja:hũ/ is the future tense marker suffix in Bajhangi. It is added to the verb to mark the first person singular of the future tense. For example,

a)	mu	ka:fəl	kha: -ũla (kha:nu +ũla)
	[1Sg	strawberry	eat-FUT-1Sg]
	ma	kafal	khanchhu.
	I	eat	strawberry.
b)	mu	bhɔ:lə	a:U- nja:hũ (aunu + nja:hũ)
	[1Sg	tomorrow	come-FUT-1Sg]
	ma	bholi	aunechhun.
	I	will come	tomorrow.

Similarly, /-ũli/ is the person marker for the first person plural of the future tense. For example,

- |    |      |         |   |
|----|------|---------|---|
| c) | həmi | deu:da  | k <sup>h</sup> el- ũli (k <sup>h</sup> el+ ũli)   |
|    | [1Pl | deuda   | play-FUT-1P]                                      |
|    | hami | deuda   | khelnechhaun /khelaula.                           |
|    | We   | play    | deuda.  |
| d) | həmi | iskul   | dʒ <sup>h</sup> a-ũli: (dʒ <sup>h</sup> anu+ũli:) |
|    | [1Pl | school  | go-FUT-1Pl]                                       |
|    | hami | iskul   | janechhaun.                                       |
|    | We   | will go | to school.  |

ii) /-ləi:/ is the person marker suffix in Bajhangi. It is added to the verb to mark second person of the future tense. For example,

- |    |      |            |  |
|----|------|------------|--|
| a) | tu:  | tʃa:ha:    | k <sup>h</sup> a:l-ləi (k <sup>h</sup> a:nu+ləi) |
|    | [2Sg | tea        | drink-FUT-2Sg]                                   |
|    | timi | chiya      | piunechhau/piaula.                               |
|    | You  | will drink | tea.   |

But in the case of the honorificity, it is marked by the suffix /-la:/ or /li:/ of the future tense. For example,

- |    |        |                    |  |
|----|--------|--------------------|--|
| b) | təmi:  | g <sup>h</sup> ərə | dʒ <sup>h</sup> au-la (dʒ <sup>h</sup> anu+la) |
|    | [2Sg.H | house              | go-FUT-2Sg.H.M]                                |
|    | tapain | ghara              | januhos.                                       |
|    | You    | will go            | house.   |

Similarly, /-nja:hɔ:ɪ/ is also suffixed to the verb to mark the second person future tense. For example,

c)	tu:	tʃa:ha:	k <sup>h</sup> a:-nja:hɔɪ (k <sup>h</sup> a:nnu:+nja:hɔɪ)
	[ 2Sg	tea	drink-FUT-2Sg]
	timi	chiya	piunechhau.
	You	will drink	tea.

iii) /-li:/ is the future tense marker suffix of the Bajhangi dialect. They are added to the verb to mark the third person singular feminine of the future tense. For example,

a)	u:/jɔ:/tjɔ:/	mu:k <sup>h</sup> i	ruppã	ma:gðl-li: (ma:gðu:+li:)
	[3Sg.F	1Sg. DAT	money	ask-FUT-3Sg.F]
	u/yo/tyo	malai	rupainya	magchhe.
	She	will ask me	money.	

b)	u:/jɔ:/tjɔ:/	bha:t	k <sup>h</sup> al-li: (k <sup>h</sup> a:nu:+li:)
	[3Sg.F	rice	eat-FUT-3Sg.F]
	u/yo/tyo	bhat	khanchhe.
	She	will eat	rice.

/-la:/ is the person marker suffix of the Bajhangi dialect. It is added to the verb to mark the third person singular masculine of the future tense. For example,

c)	u:/jɔ:/tjɔ:/	mu:k <sup>h</sup> i	ruppã	ma:gəl-la: (ma:gðu:+la:)
	[3Sg.M	1Sg. DAT	money	ask-FUT-3Sg.M]
	u/yo/tyo	malai	rupainya	magnechha.
	He	will ask	me	money.

And the suffixes /-nja:hun/ is added to the verb to the third person plural and honorificity of the future tense. For example,

d)	uni/ t̄əni:	kita:b	padd-nja:hun (paddu- nja:hun)
	[3Pl	book	read-FUT-3Pl]
	uniharu/tiniharu	kitab	padnechhan/padnehun.
	They	will read	book.

e)	uni/ t̄əni:	kita:b	padd-nja:hun (paddu- nja:hun)
	[3Sg.H	book	read-FUT-3Sg.H]
	unha	kitab	padnuhunechha.
	He/She	will read	book.

But the suffix /-nja:h̄o:/ is added to the verb to the third person singular for the masculine or feminine of the future tense. For example,

f)	u:/j̄o:/t̄j̄o:/	mu:k <sup>h</sup> i	rupp̄æ̃	ma:g-njah̄o: (ma:ḡdu:+nja:h̄o:)
	3Sg	1Sg. DAT	money	ask-FUT-3Sg
	u/yo/tyo	malai	rupainya	magchhe (female).
	u/yo/tyo	malai	rupainya	magnechha (male).
	She/he	will ask	me	money.

### 3.2.5 Perfective Marker Affixes

We do not have perfective marker prefixes and infixes in Bajhangi. So, only the perfective marker suffixes are discussed below:

- i) /jaḡo:/ is the perfective marker suffix in the Bajhangi dialect. It is added to the verb which is followed by the 'AUX' in the present and past tenses.

For example,

a) muile	ka:m	səg-ja:gɔ:-chha (səgnu-ja:gɔ:)
[1Sg-ERG	work	finish-PERF-AUX-PRS-1Sg]
maile	kam	sakeko chhun.
I	have finished	work.

b) unle	ka:m	səg-ja:gɔ:-chha (səgnu-ja:gɔ:)
[3Sg-ERG	work	finish-PERF-AUX-PRS-1Sg]
usle	kam	sakeko chha.
He	has finished	work.

But if more than one objects are affected by the subject, /ja-ga:/ perfective marker is used. For example,

c) usle	ðəf suntəla:	lja-ja:ga:-chhən (ljaunnu+ja:ga:)
[3Sg-ERG	ten oranges	carry-PERF-AUX-PRS-3Sg]
usle	das suntala	lyaeko chha.
He	has finished	work.

### 3.2.6 Progressive Marker Affixes

In the Bajhangi, there are no prefix and infix to mark progressive object. So, there are only progressive marker suffixes which are discussed below:

i) /la:gjagɔ:/ is the progressive marker suffix in the Bajhangi dialect. It is added to the verb to mark the singular masculine. For example,

a) tu	b <sup>h</sup> at	k <sup>h</sup> anə-lagja:gɔ:-chhəi (k <sup>h</sup> anu-la:gja:gɔ:)
[2Sg-M	rice	eat-PROG-AUX-PRS-2Sg.M]
timi	bhat	khandaichhu.
You	are eating	rice.

Similarly, /la:gja:ga:/ is also progressive marker suffix of Bajhangî. It is added to the verb to mark the plural and honorific. For example,

b)	uni	b <sup>h</sup> at	k <sup>h</sup> anə-lagja:ga:-chhən (k <sup>h</sup> anu-la:gja:ga:)
	[3Sg	rice	eat-PROG-AUX-PRS-3Sg]
	uniharu	bhat	khandaichhan.
	They	are eating	rice.

c)	ha:mi	b <sup>h</sup> at	k <sup>h</sup> anə-lagja:ga:-chhũ (k <sup>h</sup> anu-la:gja:ga:)
	[1Pl	rice	eat-PROG-AUX-PRS-1Pl]
	hamiharu	bhat	khandaichhaun.
	We	are eating	rice.

ii) /la:gjagi:/ is also the progressive marker suffix in the Bajhangî dialect. It is added to the verb to mark the feminine. For example,

b)	uni	kəəa:	pəddəd-lagja:gi:-chhən (pə <sup>h</sup> nu-la:gja:gi:)
	[3Sg-F	story	read-PROG-AUX-PRS-3Sg.F]
	uni	katha	padhdaichhin.
	She	reading	a story.

### 3.2.7 Negative Marker Affixes

In the Bajhangî there are some negation marker prefixes and suffixes, but it does not have negative marker infixes. For example:

i) /dʒənʒ:/ is the prefix in the Bajhangî dialect to mark negation. For example,

a)	tu:	b <sup>h</sup> a:t	dʒənʒ:-k <sup>h</sup> a: (dʒənʒ:-k <sup>h</sup> anu:)
	[2Sg	rice	NEG-eat-2Sg-PRS]
	timi	bhat	nakhau.
	You	don't eat	rice.

b)	təmi:	ka:m	dʒənɜ: -ərə
	[2Sg	rice	neg-do-2Sg-PRS]
	tapain	kam	nagarnuhos.
	You	don't do	work.

ii) /-əinə/, /-ainə/, /-inə/ are the suffixes in the Bjhanggi dialect to mark negation.

For example.

a)	mu:	bhat	k <sup>h</sup> an-əinə ( k <sup>h</sup> anu-əinə)
	[1Sg	rice	eat-NEG-1Sg-PRS]
	ma	bhat	khandaina.
	I	don't eat	rice.
b)	həmi	bhat	k <sup>h</sup> an-a:inə ( k <sup>h</sup> anu-a:inə)
	[1Pl	rice	eat-NEG-1Pl-PRS]
	hami	bhat	khandainaun.
	We	don't eat	rice.
c)	uni	bhat	k <sup>h</sup> an-inə ( k <sup>h</sup> anu-inə)
	[3pl	rice	eat-NEG-3Pl-PRS]
	uni	bhat	khandinan.
	She	doesn't eat	rice.

### 3.3 Comparison Among English, Nepali and Bajhangî Verbal Affixations

Comparison among English, Nepali and Bajhangî verbal affixations has been explained below:

#### 3.3.1 Person Marker Affixes

Person marker affixes refer to the affixes that are added to the verbs to mark first, second and third persons. The person marker affixes of English, Nepali and Bajhangî are presented below in the table:

**Table No. 5**  
**Person Marker Affixes of English, Nepali and Bajhangî**

Person Marker Affixes of English			Person Marker Affixes of Nepali			Person Marker Affixes of Bajhangî		
1 <sup>st</sup>	2 <sup>nd</sup>	3 <sup>rd</sup>	1 <sup>st</sup>	2 <sup>nd</sup>	3 <sup>rd</sup>	1 <sup>st</sup>	2 <sup>st</sup>	3 <sup>rd</sup>
		-s	-chhũ	-chhau	-chhə	-ɔ:chhũ	-ɔ:chhəi	-ɔ:chhə
			-chhəũ	-ɪʃ	-chhən	-a:chhũ	-a:chhəũ	-i:chhə
		-e	-nechhũ	-nechhũ	-chhin	-ja:	-i:	-a:chhən
		-jəũ	-nechhə	-nechhə	-chhas	-jau:	-ja:	-jɔ:
			-nechhũ		-chhe	-ja:hũ	-ləi	-i:
			-nechhəũ		-nechhə	-ũla	-ula:	-ja:
					-nechhən	-ũli		-la:
					-nechhin			-li:
								-na:
								-nja:hə:
								-nja:hu:n

The person marker affixes of English, Nepali and Bajhangi given in the table are described below:

- i)** English has only person marker suffix, /-s/ in the person marker suffix in English language. It has different allomorphs, they are [-s], [-z] and [-iz]. For example,

He walks slowly.

He goes to school.

Sita watches film.

- ii)** In the Nepali language, there are first person, second person and third person suffixes. But there are no person marker prefixes and infixes in the Nepali language. For example,

ma ghara jan-chhun.

hami kaphal khana ga-yaun.

uniharu kam garnechhan.

- iii)** Bajhangi dialect of the Nepali language has all person marker suffixes, they are: first person, second person and third person. There are no person marker infix and suffix in the Bajhangi dialect. For example,

mun kaphal khan-ochhun.

u bhat kha-nichha.

hamile khaja kha-yaun.

unne chhitthi lekh-yo.

tu chaha khal-lai.

uni chaha khan-na.

### 3.3.2 Number Marker Affixes

The number marker affixes refer to the affixes that are added to the verb to mark singular and plural number. The number marker affixes of English, Nepali and Bajhangsi are presented below in the table:

**Table No. 6**  
**Number Marker Affixes of English, Nepali and Bajhangsi**

Number Marker Affixes of English		Number Marker Affixes of Nepali		Number Marker Affixes of Bajhangsi	
Singular	plural	Singular	Plural	Singular	plural
-s	-	-chhũ	-chhəũ	-ɔ:chhũ	-a:chhũ
		-chhəs	-chhəu	-ja:	-ja:
		-chhəu	-chhən	-jau:	-ja:hũ
		chhə	-chhə	-ũla	-ũli
		-chhən	-jəũ	-jɔ:	-ja:
		-chhe	-θəũ	-i:	-na:
		-e	-b <sup>h</sup> ɔ	-ja:	-nja:hu:n
		-əe	-b <sup>h</sup> əjɔ	-la:	-jɔ:
		-əju	-nechhəũ -	-li:	
		-jəu	nechhə	-nja:hɔ	
		-jɔ:	-nechhən		
		-in			
		-nechhũ			
		-nechhəu			
		-nechhə			
		-nechhin			

The number marker affixes of English, Nepali and Bajhangsi given in the table are described below:

i) English has only one number marker suffix. /-s/ is the number marker suffix in the English language. It has different allomorphs and the occurrence of one allomorph differs from the occurrence of another. They are as follows:

a. [-s] is the allomorph of the morpheme –s. It is added to the verb where the final element of the verb voiceless and not sibilant or palatal to form the third person singular. For example,

He walks slowly.

She writes a letter.

Sita likes me.

b. [-z] is the allomorph of the morpheme –s. It is added to the verb where the final element of the verb voiced and not sibilant or palatal to form the third person singular. For example,

She goes to school.

He loves her.

c. [-iz] is the allomorph of the morpheme –s. It is added to the verb where the final element of the verb is sibilant or palatal to form the third person singular. For example,

Ram plays ball.

She watches film.

He dances well.

ii) Regarding the Nepali language, there are no number marker prefix and infix but it has only number marker suffixes. For example,

ma kitab padh-chhun.

hami kam gar-chhaun.

timi iskul jau.

tapaiharu jhagada garnuhun-chha.

uni kitab padh-chhin.

tiniharu parishram gar-chhan.

**iii)** Similarly, Bajhangi dialect does not have number marker prefix and infix.

It has only number marker suffixes, which are discussed below:

/-ɔ:chhũ/, /-ɔ:chhəi/, /-ɔ:chhə/, /-i:chhə/, /jã:/, /-i/, /jɔ:/, /-ũla:/, /-jahũ/, /-ləi/, /-la:/, /li:/, /-jahɔ:/ are the singular number marker suffixes in Bajhangi dialect of Nepali language.

/-a:chhũ/, /-a:chhəu/, /-a:chhən/, /-jəũ/, /-ja:/, /jɔ:/, /-ũli/, /-la:/, /-njahun/ are the plural number marker suffixes in the Bajhangi. For example,

mu kaphal khan-ochhun. (kha:nu + ɔ:chhu)

hami chitthi lekht -a:chhu. (lekhtu + ɔ:chhu)

tu bhat kha.(khanu+a:)

u ghara janchha.(janu+chha)

uniharu ghara jan-chhan.(janu+chhan)

### 3.3.3 Gender Marker Affixes

The gender marker affixes refer to mark masculine and feminine gender. The gender marker affixes of English, Nepali and Bajhangi are presented below in the table:

**Table No. 7**  
**Gender Marker Affixes of English, Nepali and Bajhangi**

Gender Marker Affixes of English		Gender Marker Affixes of Nepali		Gender Marker Affixes of Bajhangi	
M	F	M	F	M	F
		-chhə-	-chhe -chhin	- a:chhəi: -a:chhəu -ləi: -la: -ɔ:chhə: -a:chhən -jɔ: -la: -na:	--i:chhəi: -i:chhəu -li: -li: -i:chhə -i:chhən -i: -li: -ni:

The gender marker affixes of English, Nepali and Bajhangi given in the table are described below:

- i) There is no gender distinction in English.
- ii) Regarding the Nepali language, there is no gender distinction in the first person and second person of verb system. The Nepali language has only third person gender distinction.

The examples of gender distinction of the Nepali language are as follows:

a) /-chhə/ and /chhe/ or /-chhin/ are the gender marker suffixes of the Nepali.

They are added to the verb to mark the third person masculine and feminine gender respectively for the present tense. For example,

Ram kam gar-chha.

Sita kam gar-chhe.

b) /-jə:/ and /-in/ are the gender marker suffixes of Nepali. They are added to the verb to mark the third person masculine and feminine genders respectively for the past tense. For example,

bhaile kam gar-yo.

didile kam garin.

**iii)** In Bajhangi there is no gender distinction in the first person of verb system. In the case of the second and third persons, there is gender distinction in verb morphology. They are discussed below:

a) /-ɔchhəi:/ and /-ichhai:/ are the gender marker suffixes in Bajhangi. They are added to the verb to mark the second person singular masculine and feminine gender respectively of the present tense. For example,

tu kapada dhonochhai.(dhun+ɔchhəi)

tu pani khan-ichhai.(khanu+ichhəi)

b) /a:chhəu:/ and /i:chhəu:/ are the gender marker suffixes in Bajhangi. They are added to the verb to mark the second person plural masculine and feminine gender respectively of the present tense. For example,

tami katha sunn-achhau. (sunn+a:chhəu)

tami katha sunn-ichhau. (sunn+i:chhəu)

c) Bajhangi has not gender distinction in the second person in the past tense.

iv) /-ləi:/ and /-li:/ are the gender marker suffixes in Bajhangi. They are added to the verb to mark second person singular masculine and feminine gender respectively of the future tense. For example,

tu chaha khal-lai. (khanu+ləi)

tu chaha khal-li.(khanu+li)

But in the case of the honorificity, it is marked by the suffix /-la:/ or /li:/ of the future tense. for example,

tami ghara jhau-la.(jhanu+la)

tami ghara jhau-li.(jhanu+li)

### 3.3.4 Tense Marker Affixes

The tense marker affixes of English, Nepali and Bajhangi are presented below in the table:

**Table No. 8**  
**Tense Marker Affixes of English, Nepali and Bajhangi**

Tense Marker Affixes of English		Tense Marker Affixes of Nepali			Tense Marker Affixes of Bajhangi		
Past	non-past	Present	Past	Future	Present	Past	future
-ed	-s	-chhũ	-e	-nechhũ	-ɔ:chhũ	-ja:	-ũla
		-chhəũ	-jəũ	-nechhəu	-a:chhũ	-jau:	-ũli
		-chhəs	-əe	-nechhəu	-ɔ:chhəi	-i:	-ləi
		-chhəu	-əjəũ	-nechhə -	-a:chhəũ	-ja:	-ula:
		-chhən	-jəu	nechhin -	-la:	-jɔ:	-la:
		-chhe	-b <sup>h</sup> jɔ:	nechhən		-i:	-li:
		-chhə	-jɔ:			-ja:	-nja:hɔ:
			-in				-na:

The tense marker affixes of English, Nepali and Bjhangi given in the table are described below:

i) English has mainly two types of tense; past and non-past. Regarding its type it has only two tense marker suffixes, one past tense marker and the other non-past tense marker. They are as follows:

a) Past Tense Marker Suffixes

/-ed/ is the past tense marker suffix in English which is added to the regular verb to mark all persons and numbers in the past tense. It has different allomorphs and the occurrence of one differs from the occurrence of another. They are discussed as follows.

i) [-t] is the past tense marker suffix in English which is added to the regular verbs after ending any voiceless consonant except [t]. for example,

Kamal parked the car in the garden.

ii) [-d] is the past tense marker suffix in English which is added to the regular verbs after ending any voiced sound except [d]. for example,

Govinda cleaned the room.

iii) [-id] is the past tense marker suffix in English which is added to the regular verbs if the verbs ends in [t] and [d] to form the past tense marker. for example,

Kabita planted flowers in the garden.

b) Non-past Tense Marker Suffixes

/-s/ is the non-past tense marker suffix in English which is attached to the regular verb to mark third person singular non-past tense. It has different allomorphs viz. [-s], [-z] and [-iz].

For example,

She cooks rice. [-s]

He goes to school. [-z]

He dances well. [-iz]

**ii)** Regarding the Nepali language, it does not have tense marker prefix and infix but it has only number marker suffixes, they are singular marker suffixes and plural marker suffixes. For example,

ma bhat khanchhun. (khanu+chhũ)

maile bhat kha-ye.(khanu+e)

ma bhat khanyahun. (khanu+ja:hũ)

**iii)** Bajhangi dialect does not have tense marker prefix and infix. The present, past and future marker suffixes are seen in Bajhangi .

for example,

hami kitab padd-achhun. (padhu+a:chhũ)

hamile kitab padh-yaun. (paddu+ja:ũ)

hami kitab padd-yahun. (padhu+ja:hũ)

### 3.3.5 Perfective Marker affixes

The perfective marker affixes of English, Nepali and Bajhangli are presented below in the table:

**Table No. 9**  
**Perfective Marker Affixes of English, Nepali and Bajhangli**

<b>Perfective Marker Affixes of English</b>	<b>PerfectiveMarker Affixes of Nepali</b>	<b>Perfective Marker Affixes of Bajhangli</b>
-en -ed (for regular verb)	-eko	-jagɔ: -jaga:

The tense marker affixes of English, Nepali and Bajhangli given in the table are described below:

- i) English does not have perfective marker prefix and infix but it has only perfective marker suffixes. In irregular verbs, -en is the perfective marker suffix in English which is added to the verb to mark all the persons and numbers in both past and non-past tense. For example,

We have eaten rice.

He has gone to school.

They have broken the window.

In regular verb /-ed/ is the perfective marker suffix in English which is added to the verb to mark all the persons and numbers in both past and non-past tense. It has different allomorphs.

The allomorphs are as follows:

- i) [-t] is the perfective marker suffix in English which is added to the regular verbs after ending any voiceless consonant except [t].

for example,

Kamal has parked the car in the garden.

- ii) [-d] is the perfective marker suffix in English which is added to the regular verbs after ending any voiced sound except [d]. for example,

Govinda had cleaned the room.

- iii) [-id] is the perfective marker suffix in English which is added to the regular verbs if the verbs ends in [t] and [d]. for example,

Kabita has planted flowers in the garden.

- ii) In the Nepali language /-eko:/ is the perfective marker suffix in Nepali language. It is added to the verbs which are followed by the auxiliary verb in present and past tense. For example,

maile kam sak-ekochhun. (saknu+eko-chhũ)

taile kam sak-ekochha. (saknu+eko)

Jayantile mitho khana paka-ekochha. (pakaunu+eko-chha)

- iii) Bajhangi dialect does not have perfective marker prefixes and infixes So, /-jago:/, /-jaga:/ and /-ja:gi:/ are the perfective marker suffixes of Bajhangi dialect. For example,

muile kam sag-yago-chhun. (sagnu+jago:)

tanile suntala chhutyaya-yaga-chhan. (chhutjaunu+jaga:)

### 3.3.6 Progressive Marker Affixes

The progressive marker affixes of English, Nepali and Bajhangsi are presented below in the table:

**Table No. 10**  
**Progressive Marker Affixes of English, Nepali and Bajhangsi**

<b>Progressive Marker Affixes of English</b>	<b>Progressive Marker Affixes of Nepali</b>	<b>Progressive Marker Affixes of Bajhangsi</b>
-ing	-ढै -रहेको	- lagja:गः - lagja:ga: - lagja:gi:

The progressive marker affixes of English, Nepali and Bajhangsi given in the table are described below:

i) In English, /-ing/ is the only progressive marker suffix. It is immediately added to the verb. For example,

Niraj is playing a ball.

Nirmal was writing a poem.

They were laughing.

She is dancing.

ii) In the Nepali language /ढै/ and /रहेको:/ are the progressive marker suffixes. For example,

ma bhat kha-daichhun. (khanu+ ढै)

tiniharu daudi-raheka chhan (daudnu+röheka:)

iii) In the Bajhangsi dialect of Nepali language, there are no prefix and infix to mark progressive object. So, there are only progressive marker suffixes which are discussed below:

/la:gjagɔ:/ is the progressive marker suffix in the Bajhangi dialect. It is added to the verb to mark the singular masculine. For example,

tu bhat khana+lagyago-chhai (k<sup>h</sup>anu-la:gja:gɔ:)

Similarly, /la:gja:ga:/ is also progressive marker suffix of Bajhangi. It is added to the verb to mark the plural and honorific. For example,

Uni bhat khana+lagyaga-chhan (k<sup>h</sup>anu-la:gja:ga:)

### 3.3.7 Negative Marker Affixes

The negation marker affixes of English, Nepali and Bajhangi are presented below in the table:

**Table No. 11**  
**Negative Marker Affixes of English, Nepali and Bajhangi**

<b>Negation Marker Affixes of English</b>	<b>Negation Marker Affixes of Nepali</b>	<b>Negation Marker Affixes of Bajhangi</b>
dis-	nə-	dʒənə-
un-	-ðəinə	-əinə
mis-	-ðinən	-a:inə
	-ðəinəũ	-inə
	-ðəinən	

The Negation marker affixes of English, Nepali and Bajhangi given in the table are described below:

- i) There are no negation marker suffixes and infixes in English. So, English has negative marker prefixes. Negative marker prefixes are added to the verb irrespective of the inflectional suffixes attached to the verb. Negation marker verbal prefixes in English are /dis-/, /un-/, /mis-/.

Negative marker verbal prefixes of English are as follows with examples:

I dislike proudi person.

They unblocked the pipe.

She misjudged him.

- ii)** In case of the Nepali language, negation is morphological in verb. There is no infix to mark negation. There is only one prefix to mark negation, that is /nə-/ and some other suffixes to mark negation are /-ðəinə/, / ðəinəũ/, /ðəinən/.

for example,

timi bhat nakhau.

ma suntala khandaina.

hami ghar jandainaun.

- iii)** In Bajhangi there are some negation marker prefixes and suffixes, but it does not have negative marker infixes. For example,

tu bhat jana-kha.(jana+k<sup>h</sup>a)

mu bhat khan-aina.(k<sup>h</sup>anu+əinə)

jamuna bhat khanina. (k<sup>h</sup>anu+inə)

## **CHAPTER-FOUR**

### **FINDINGS AND RECOMMENDATIONS**

#### **4.1 Findings**

The present study is a comparative study on affixation of Bajhangi dialect with those of the Nepali and English languages. The objectives of the study were to identify the verbal affixes of Bajhangi, to compare them with those of Nepali and English and to provide some pedagogical implications. On the basis of the analysis and interpretation of the data, the major findings of the study have been down. The findings are given below:

##### **4.1.1 Verbal Affixes of the Bajhangi Dialect**

The first objective of the study was to find out the verbal affixation in Bajhangi. So, the verbal affixes of the Bajhangi dialect are as follows:

###### **4.1.1.1 Person, Number and Tense Marker Affixes in Bajhangi**

As regards the person, number and tense marker affixes of Bajhangi dialect the following are the findings:

- i) *-ɔ:chhũ* and *-a:chhũ* are the first person singular and plural marker suffixes of the present tense respectively.
- ii) *-ɔ:chhəɪ* and *-a:chhəũ* are the second person singular and plural marker suffixes of the present tense respectively.
- iii) *-ɔ:chhə* and *-i:chhə* are the third person singular masculine and feminine respectively.
- iv) *-a:chhən* is the third person plural and honorificity marker of the present tense.

- v) *-ja:~* and *jaũ* are the first person singular and plural marker suffixes of the past tense respectively.
- vi)- *i:* and *-ja:* are the second person singular and plural marker suffixes of the past tense respectively.
- vii)- *jo:* and *-i:* are the third person singular masculine and feminine of the past tense respectively.
- viii) *-ja:* is the third person singular and honorificity marker of the past tense.
- ix) *-ula:* and *uli:* are the first person singular and plural marker suffixes of the future tense respectively.
- x) *-læi:* and *-la:* are the second person singular and plural marker suffixes of the future tense respectively.
- xi) *-na:* and *-nja:hu:n* are the third person plural marker suffixes of the future tense.
- xii) *-la:* and *-li:* are the third person singular masculine and feminine of the future tense respectively.

#### **4.1.1.2 Gender Marker Affixes in Bajhangî**

As regards the gender marker affixes of Bajhangî dialect the following findings have been derived from the analysis:

- i) */-vchhæi:/* and */-ichhæi:/* are the gender marker suffixes in Bajhangî. There are added to the verb to mark second person singular masculine and feminine gender respectively of the present tense.
- ii) */a:chhæu:/* and */i:chhæu:/* are the gender marker suffixes in Bajhangî. They are added to the verb to mark the second person plural masculine and feminine gender respectively of the present tense.

- iii) */-l̥ai:/* and */-li:/* are the gender marker suffixes in Bajhangsi. They are added to the verb to mark the second person singular masculine and feminine gender respectively of the future tense.
- iv) In the case of the honorificity, it is marked by the suffix */-la:/* or */li:/* of the future tense.
- v) */-ɔ:chhə/*, */-ichhə/* are the gender marker suffixes of the Bajhangsi dialect. They are added to the verb to mark the third person singular masculine and feminine respectively of the present tense. For example,
- vi) The suffixes */-a:chhən/*, */-i:chhən/* are added to the verb to the third person plural and honorificity of the present tense.
- vii) */-jɔ:/* and */-i:/* are the gender marker suffixes of the Bajhangsi dialect. They are added to the verb to mark the third person singular masculine and feminine respectively of the past tense
- viii) */-la:/* and */-li:/* are the gender marker suffixes in Bajhangsi of the Nepali language. They are added to the verb to mark the third person singular masculine and feminine of the future tense respectively.
- ix) */-na:/* and */-ni:/* are the gender marker suffixes in Bajhangsi. They are added to the verb to mark the third person honorific masculine and feminine of the future tense respectively

#### **4.1.1.3 Perfective Marker Affixes in Bajhangsi**

As regards the perfective marker affixes of Bajhangsi the following are the findings:

- i) */ jəɔ:/* is the perfective marker suffix in the Bajhangsi dialect. It is added to the verb which is followed by the 'AUX' in the present and past tenses.
- ii) If more than one objectives are affected by subject, */ja-ga:/* perfective marker is used.

#### **4.1.1.4 Progressive Marker Affixes in Bajhang**

As regards the progressive marker affixes of Bajhang dialect the following findings have been derived from the analysis:

- i) /la:gja:ɔ:/ is the progressive marker suffix in the Bajhang dialect. It is added to the verb to mark the singular masculine.
- ii) /la:gja:ga:/ is also progressive marker suffix of Bajhang. It is added to the verb to mark the plural and honorific.
- ii) /la:gja:gi:/ is also the progressive marker suffix in the Bajhang dialect. It is added to the verb to mark the feminine.

#### **4.1.1.5 Negation Marker Affixes in Bajhang**

As regards the negative marker affixes of Bajhang dialect the following findings have been derived from the analysis:

- i) /dʒənʒ:/ is the prefix in Bajhang dialect to mark negation.
- ii) /-əinə/, /-ainə/, /-inə/ are the suffixes in the Bajhang dialect to mark negation.

#### **4.1.2 Similarities and Differences Among Verbal Affixations of Bajhang, Nepali and English**

The following similarities and differences among Bajhang, Nepali and English have been reached at:

##### **a) Similarities**

- i) Bajhang, Nepali and English have only person marker suffix. They don't have person marker prefixes and infixes.

- ii) Bajhangi, Nepali and English have only number marker suffix. They do not have person marker prefixes and infixes.
- iii) Bajhangi, Nepali and English all have negative marker prefixes.
- iv) Bajhangi, Nepali and English all do not have infixation system.
- v) Bajhangi, Nepali and English do not have alternative progressive marker suffixes.

### **b) Differences**

- i) English has only one person marker suffix and it marks the third person singular whereas Bajhangi and Nepali have all person marker suffixes, i.e. first person, second person and third person.
- ii) English has only one number marker suffix and it marks the third person singular whereas Bajhangi and Nepali have more number marker suffixes than that of English.
- iii) The Bajhangi and Nepali have three types of tense. So, there are three tense markers, i.e. present, past, and future suffixes whereas English has only two tense marker suffixes, i.e. non-past and past tense markers.
- iv) Bajhangi and Nepali have gender marker suffixes but, in English the same gender marker suffixes are used for both masculine and feminine.
- v) Two suffixes can occur in a root or base in Bajhangi and Nepali but not in English.
- vi) English has more prefixes than that of Bajhangi and Nepali whereas Bajhangi is richer than English in terms of number of suffixes.
- vii) English has only negative marker prefixes but Bajhangi and Nepali have negative marker prefixes and suffixes.
- viii) English has more negative marker prefixes in comparison to Bajhangi and Nepali.

- ix) In Bajhangi dialect, some suffixes can be used for non-honorific singular and honorific singular but it is not the case in Nepali and English.
- x) Nepali has different suffixes for non-honorific plural and honorific singular but in Bajhangi same suffix can refer non-honorific plural and honorific singular.

## **4.2 Recommendations**

- i) Affixation is one of the major processes of word formation in Bajhangi, Nepali and English. So, verbal affixes have central role in affixation system. Teachers who teach the Bajhangi, Nepali and English as a second and foreign language should encourage the students to increase the vocabulary power through affixation process.
- ii) Verbal affixation system of Bajhangi dialect is more similar to Nepali than English. So, language teacher who are teaching English as a second language in Bajhang should be aware of this fact.
- iii) Teachers should encourage the students to create new words using the verbal affixes which are more productive.
- iv) Some Bajhangi verbal affixes are used for the non-honorific singular, honorific singular and plural in the past tense, but it is not found in Nepali. So, Nepali teacher of Bajhangi and the teacher who are teaching Bajhangi as a second language should be aware of this fact.
- v) The findings of the present study are significant for grammarians who study and write Bajhangi grammar.
- vi) The study is equally important for the teachers who are teaching English as a second language at schools, colleges where Bajhangi speakers are in majority as students.

- vii) This study categorizes the verbal affixes of Bajhangi dialect. So the teachers who teach Bajhangi as a second language can help the students to form the new words to produce the sentences.
- vii) From the knowledge of affixation process, learners can guess the meanings of different unfamiliar words.
- viii) Learners can build up the concept to form new words adding appropriate affixes to the base and use them.
- ix) Learners can learn and increase their vocabulary power faster and better.
- x) This research is beneficial for those who are preparing Bajhangi textbook in school level, especially in primary level in Bajhang.

Finally, Bajhangi dialect is sourceful dialect for vocabulary. This research is one small part for Bajhangi dialect. If we study more on the Bajhangi dialect, we can find Bajhangi as a unique, different and sourceful dialect with wide range of linguistic areas. So, I would like to request the concerned authority to carry out other researches on the various areas of the Bajhangi dialect.

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## APPENDIX-1

### Questionnaire/ Interview Schedule

Dear respondents,

This interview schedule has been prepared to draw data / information for the research work entitled **Verbal affixation in English, Nepali and Bajhangi dialect**, which is carried out under the guidance of **Dr. Laxmi Bahadur Maharjan**, Department of English Education T. U. Kirtipur, Kathmandu. The researcher hopes that you all will behave co-operatively to provide authentic and reliable information that will be invaluable contribution to accomplish this research work .

Researcher

Mr. Jayakrishna Joshi

Department of English Education

T. U. Kirtipur. Kathmandu, Nepal.

Name (Optional)

Sex:

VDC:

Ward No:

How do you say the following sentences in Bajhangi?

1. I go to school. ( मँ स्कुल जान्छु । )  
.....
2. We play game. ( हामी खेल खेल्छौं । )  
.....
3. You cook rice. ( तिमी भात पकाउँछौ । )  
.....
4. She dances well. ( उनी राम्ररी नाच्छिन् । )  
.....

5. He drinks tea. ( उ चिया पिउँछ । )  
.....
6. They live in a town. ( उनीहरु सहरमा बस्छन् । )  
.....
7. I love you. ( म तिमीलाई मन पराउँछु । )  
.....
8. We visit Khaptad. ( हामी खप्तड घुम्न जान्छौं । )  
.....
9. You send a letter. ( तिमी चिठी पठाऊ । )  
.....
10. Jayanti cooks tasti food. ( जयन्ती मिठो खाना पकाउँछिन् । )  
.....
11. My dog runs very fast. ( मेरो कुकुर धेरै छिटो दगुरिन्छ । )  
.....
13. He is disciplinable student. ( उ अनुसासीत विद्यार्थी हो । )  
.....
14. Sun rises in the east. ( सूर्य पूर्व बाट उदाउँछ । )  
.....
15. Don't weep early in the morning. ( यती बिहानै नरोऊ । )  
.....
17. My sister reads a story. ( मेरी बहिनी कथा पढिन्छन् । )  
.....
18. We played deuda. ( हामीले देउडा खेल्थौं । )  
.....
19. I started business. ( मैले व्यापार सुरु गरे । )  
.....
20. you stole my pen. ( तिमीले मेरो कलम चोर्यौ । )  
.....
21. They planted tree. ( तिनीहरुले रुख रोपे । )  
.....
22. Father watched T.V. ( बुवाले टिभी हेर्नुभयो । )  
.....
23. He watched T.V. ( उहाले टिभी हेर्नुभयो । )  
.....
24. Sister cooked food. ( बहिनीले खाना पकाइन् । )  
.....
25. Aunt gave me a banana. ( काकीले मलाई केरा दिनुभयो । )  
.....

26. We will return tomorrow .( हामी भोली फर्किनेछौं । )  
.....
27. You will do that work. ( तपाँइले त्यो काम गर्नुहुने छ । )  
.....
28. You will pass easily. ( तिमी सजिलै संग पास गर्नेछौ । )  
.....
29. Uncle you will complete that work easily. ( काका तपाँइ त्यो काम सजिलैसंग गर्न सक्नुहुनेछ । )  
.....
30. She will call me. ( उनी मलाई बोलाउनेछिन् । )  
.....
31. I am writing a thesis. ( म सोध पत्र लेखिरहेको छुं । )  
.....
32. She is cutting grass. ( उनी घाँस काटीरहेकीछिन् । )  
.....
33. Mother is designing room. ( आमा कोठा सजाउँदै हुनुहुन्छ । )  
.....
34. You are writing a letter. ( तपाँइ चिठी लेख्दै हुनुहुन्छ । )  
.....
35. He is teaching. ( उहाँ पढाउँदै हुनुहुन्छ । )  
.....
36. They are sitting on bench. ( तिनिहरु कोठामा बसिरहेका छन् । )  
.....
37. we are flying a kite. ( हामी चंगा उडाइरहेका छौं । )  
.....
38. They are carrying goods. ( उहाहरु सामान बोक्दै हुनुहुन्छ । )  
.....
39. I was driving a car ,yesterday. ( मं हिजो कार हाँकै थिए । )  
.....
40. We were drinking alcohol yesterday night. ( हिजो राती हामी रक्सि पिउँदै थियौं । )  
.....
41. He was digging a field. ( उ खेत खन्दै थियो । )  
.....
42. They were fighting eachother. ( तिनीहरु एक अर्कासंग भगडा गरिरहेका थिए । )  
.....
43. He was dancing. ( उ नाचीरहेको थियो । )

.....  
44. I have brought coca cola. ( मैल कोका कोला किनेको छुँ । )

.....  
45. we have helped them. ( हामीले उनीहरुलाई सहयोग गरेका छौं । )

.....  
46. You have finished work. ( तिमिले काम सकेका छौ । )

.....  
47. They have eaten rice. ( तिनीहरुले भात खाएका छन् । )

.....  
48. He has stolen a book. ( उसले किताब चोरेको छ । )

.....  
49. She has cut grass. ( उनले घाँस काटेकि छिन् । )

.....  
50. I had done my work. ( मैले मेरो गृहकार्य गरिसकेको थिएँ । )

.....  
51. We had chased tiger. ( हामीले बाघलाई लखेटेका थियौँ । )

.....  
52. She had eaten mango. ( उनले आँप खाइसकेकिथिइन् । )

.....  
53. He had passed S.L.C. ( उनले प्रवेशिका परिक्षा पास गरिसकेका थिए । )

.....  
54. They had celebrated Niraj's birthday. ( तिनीहरुले निरजको जन्मोत्सव मनाएका थिए । )

.....  
55. Thief had run before the police arrived. ( पुलिस आइपुग्नुभन्दा अगाडि चोर भागीसकेको थियो । )

.....  
56. You will have finished that work. ( तपाइले त्यो काम गरि सकेको हुनेछ । )

.....  
57. They will have written Novel. ( तिनीहरुले उपन्यास लेखिसकेका हुनेछन् । )

.....  
58. The team will have won the football game. ( यो टिमले फुटवल जितेको हुनेछ । )

.....  
59. We will have bought a laptop. (हामीले ल्यापटप किनेका छौं । )

.....  
60. We will be walking . ( हामी हिडिरहेका हुनेछौं । )

.....  
61. He will be planning to go to Khaptad. ( उ खप्तड जान योजना बनाइरहेको हुनेछ । )  
.....

63. Primeminister doesn't listen the poor. ( प्रधानमन्त्री गरिवलाई हेर्नुहुन्न । )  
.....
64. I don't like cruel person. ( मलाइ निर्दयी मानिस मन पर्दैन । )  
.....
65. I like to play games. ( म खेल खेल मन पराउँछु । )  
.....
66. She doesn't read. ( उनि किताव पढ्दिनन् । )  
.....
67. He doesn't like to drink tea. ( उनीलाई चिया पिउन मन पर्दैन । )  
.....
68. They help each other. ( उहाँहरू एक अर्काका लागि सहयोग गर्नुहुन्छ । )  
.....
69. You don't play chess. ( तँ चेस नखेल् । )  
.....
70. Don't go there. ( त्यहा नजाऊ । )  
.....
71. Don't cross the river. ( नदी पार नगर । )  
.....
72. I don't like to read. ( मलाइ पढ्न मन पर्दैन । )  
.....
73. They don't like to read newspaperls. ( तिनीहरू पत्रिका पढ्न रुचाउँदैनन् । )  
.....
74. You don't like to study. ( तिमिलाइ पढ्न मन पर्दैन । )  
.....
75. My father is working in computer. ( मेरो बुवा कम्प्युटरमा काम गर्दैहुनुहुन्छ । )  
.....
76. Can you come here? ( के तपाँइ यहा आउन सक्नुहुन्छ ? )  
.....
78. You don't go to school. ( तिमि स्कूल नजाऊ । )  
.....
79. You don't eat cucumber. ( तँ काँक्रो नखा । )  
.....
80. She had eaten bread. ( उनले रोटी खाइसकेकि थिइन् । )  
.....
81. An unidentified group attacked minister. ( अज्ञात समुहले मन्त्रि माथि आक्रमण गरे । )  
.....

**Thanks For Your Co-operation**

## APPENDIS-II

### Phonetic Symbols Used in this Thesis

[ʈ]	th (ठ)
[ð]	d (द)
[ʃ]	s (श)
[ŋ]	ng (ङ)
[ʒ]	j (ज)
[dʒ]	j (ज)
[ɒ]	o (ओ)
[ə]	a (अ)
[tʃ]	ch (च)
[θ]	th (थ)
[ɔ:]	o (ओ)
[j]	y (य)
[z]	j (ज)
[a:]	a(आ)
[i:]	i(ई)
[ɪ]	i(इ)
[u:]	u(उ)
[e]	e(ए)
[əu:]	au(अउ)
[əɪ]	ai(अइ)