

CHAPTER-ONE

INTRODUCTION

The introduction of this thesis consists of general background, introduction of the Musahar language, verbal morphology, review of the related literature, objectives and significance of the study.

1.1 General Background

Language has enabled man to establish great civilization. Man differs from all the other species on this earth because he possesses the unique faculty of speech. And it is the most valuable single possession of the human race. Language is the principal means used by human beings to communicate with one another. According to Corder (1973), "Language, by which, man communicates, is a system of communication; for the purpose of communication (p. 32)." It means language is a system of communication through which human beings communicate. According to Sapir (1921) "Language is primarily human and non-instinctive method of communicating ideas, emotions and desires by means of a system of voluntarily produced symbols"(as cited in Jindal & Syal, 1999, P. 4). Language is a voluntary vocal system through which human beings share their ideas, emotions and desires producing vocal symbols. Lyons (1970, p.3) defines, "Languages are the principal systems of communication used by particular groups of human beings within particular society of which they are the members." It says that language is the medium of communication, through which we express our ideas, feelings and emotions. There are enumerable language communities in the world and every language community has its own language. Wardhaugh (1992, p.1) defines language as "what the members of a particular society speak."

There are various languages used in different speech communities. It belongs to the West- Germanic sub-branch of Indo-European family of language. It is the third largest language by the number of native speakers (approximately 375

million), after Mandarin Chinese and Spanish. It is spoken by 199-1400 million people as their second language and has got official status in 53 countries.

As English is used an international lingua franca, the people from most of the countries want to learn English in the era of globalization. One should know English, if he/she wants to know the world. With this importance of English, it is taught and learned as second/foreign language in most of the countries.

English is developing with the concept of world language, it is spoken almost everywhere in the every fields e.g. education, commerce, science, technology, trade, law, international seminars and conferences, sports, mass communication, etc. The role of English language in international communication is clearly realized in Nepal and in Nepal's education system. It is taught from grade one up to grade bachelor degree as a compulsory subject. Most of the technical subjects are taught in English in Nepal.

1.1.1 Introduction to the Musahar Language

The Musahar community is considered one of the lowest of the Dalit groups within Nepal and India and suffers tremendously from their status in society. Their name is derived from two words meaning 'rat eater'. It is related to Bhojpuri word 'mush' meaning 'mouse' or 'rat' and 'ahar' means 'eater'. They are short in stature with a long narrow head shape and broad nasal features. Their number is about two million mostly in Nepal and the states of Bihar and Utter Pradesh, India. They have large families and live with several generations in the same household. A Musahar village is almost always filled with children. Land ownership is rare and most will work as agricultural laborers, day laborers or forest and fishing. According to the census year 2001, the literacy rate of Musahar is 7.28 percent (Dahal, 2003).

This group of Dalits speaks mainly Maithili, Bhojpuri, Awadhi, Magahi, etc as their native languages. But majority of them speak mixed variety of Maithili for their daily communication. Adult literacy is almost nil and the lowest among all other groups in Nepal. The drop-out rate among children of this

community is very high, and is more among the female children. Often times they will drop-out at the primary level due to social or economic factors. Modern development programs have had little impact on them as few if any of the sparse allocated resources designated for them every reach them in their need.

Traditionally they follow their tribal faith and worship their family deity, the village deity as well as gods of the Hindu faith. Due to their extreme poverty they live extreme far from town and cities which have proper health care. Nor do they have the capacity to travel to avail themselves of these facilities. Child mortality and maternal mortality is high and the life span is short, which is exasperated by high rates of alcoholism among the male population. They are considered untouchable and treated with disdain by all other sections of society. Although there are various factors which make them backward, language is one of the most prominent elements in pushing them towards the darkest life.

1.1.2 Grammar

Grammar can be defined as a description of structure of a language and the way in which linguistic units such as words and phrases are combined to produce sentences in the language. It usually takes account the meaning and functions of sentences. These sentences have in the overall system of the language.

Grammar deals with the structure of language and formation of words, phrases, clauses and sentences. In linguistics, grammar is the level in between phonology, morphology, syntax and semantics.

1.1.2.1 Morphology and syntax

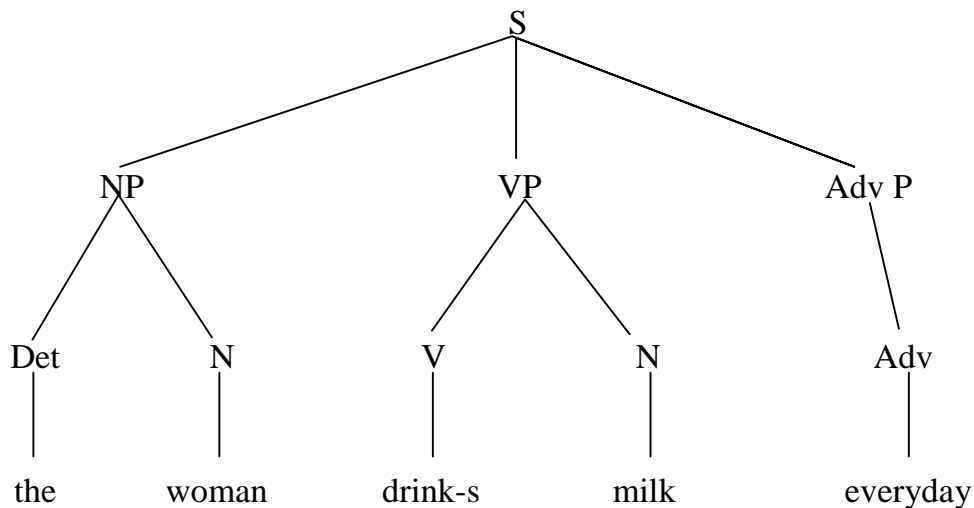
Morphology is the level of language which stands between phonology and syntax and serves as the step of a staircase for sounds to go up to sentence level. It is the study of morphemes, their varieties and the way they combine to form a word. But syntax is the specific branch of linguistics which deals with

the rules about sentence. It is the task of linguistics to account for the rules which operate in sentence structure.

Sentences are made up of words. But they are not random ordering of words. These words do not stand in isolation. Instead they are strings of words organized by certain rules. These strings of words are said to be constituents. The constituent of the sentence “The woman drinks milk everyday” is presented through the following tree diagram:

Figure No. 1

Constituent Structure of a Sentence



1.1.2.2 Morphology

Although opinions have varied as to the precise definition of the scope and area of morphology over the years, most scholars agree to the status of the subject as an aspect of language study that concerns itself with the forms of words themselves different from syntax which concerns itself with how words arrange themselves into constructions. The study of morphology must have been prompted by the nineteenth century interest in classifying language families across the world.

This has led to other study of how languages were differently structured both in broader and narrower ways, from the general laws of structure to the study of significant elements such as prefixes and inflections.

Morphology is the field of linguistics that studies the internal structure of words. Words as units in the lexicon are the subject matter of lexicology. While words are generally accepted as being the smallest units of syntax, it is clear that in most languages, words can be related to other words by rules. For example, English speakers recognize that the words *dog*, *dogs*, and *dog-catcher* are closely related. English speakers recognize these relations from their tacit knowledge of the rules of word-formation in English. They infer intuitively that *dog* is to *dogs* as *cat* is to *cats*; similarly, *dog* is to *dog-catcher* as *dish* is to *dishwasher*. The rules understood by the speaker reflect specific patterns or regularities in the way words are formed from smaller units and how those smaller units interact in speech. In this way, morphology is the branch of linguistics that studies patterns of word-formation within and across languages, and attempts to formulate rules that shape the knowledge of the speakers of those languages.

The history of morphological analysis dates back to the ancient Indian linguist P nini, who formulated the 3,959 rules of Sanskrit morphology by using a Constituency Grammar. The Graeco-Roman grammatical tradition also engaged in morphological analysis. The term morphology was coined by August Schleicher in 1859.

1.1.2.3 Morpheme

Etymologically the word 'morpheme' has been derived from two Greek words 'morphē' and 'ology' to mean 'shape or form' and 'science of' respectively. Morphology is the study of the internal structure of words, and of the rules by which words are formed.

There are different views of linguists regarding the definitions of morphemes. There are three main approaches to the definitions.

a. Structural Approach

Across the world, all linguists agree that, within words, meaningful parts can be perceived. Any exercise that is aimed at studying those meaningful elements within a word is said to be termed morphology. Morphology therefore is the study of the meaningful parts of words. The word 'teacher' for instance comprises two components namely *teach* (verb) and *-er* (suffix). This is what morphology seeks to explain.

Olorunfoba-Oju (1994, p. 71) defines morpheme in terms of its placement among other units of grammar as "the smallest meaning-bearing unit in a word". He means to say that morpheme is the smallest unit in a word and bears meaning. Ayodele (2001, p. 75) defines it as "the smallest unit, which exhibits an internal structure and meaning of its own but which cannot be further broken up". An attempt to analyze the structure of this component parts leads to morphology. Morphology thus deals with the internal structure of word-forms. Lyons (1974, p. 81) quoted in Odebumi (2006, p. 39) views morphemes as "minimal units of grammatical analysis, the units of lowest rank out of which words, the unit of next 'higher' rank are composed". Bello (2001, p. 92) coming from the perspective of the status of morpheme in the units of grammar defines it as "the smallest meaningful unit in the structure of a language". By smallest meaningful unit, she meant the unit which cannot be further broken up without destroying or drastically altering its meaning. For example, though the word *reality* can be further broken down into *real* and *-ity* (making two morphemes), it cannot be further broken down without altering its meaning. This shows the common difference between *reality* and *realities*: an attempt to further break down the former results into producing an entirely different meaning in the plural sense.

One may also not be able to add a morpheme to an utterance without altering the meaning of such utterance. For example, adding *un-* to *known* changes it to *unknown* and so alters the meaning of the former. Bloomfield (1933, p. 24)

quoted in Nida (1974, p. 6) incorporates this description by defining it as “a linguistic form which bears no parallel phonetic-semantic resemblance to any form”.

b. Semantic Approach

Crystal (1976, p. 193) defines a morpheme as “the smallest bit of language which has a meaning”. As the smallest meaningful unit of the grammar of a language, it cannot be broken down into any other meaningful unit. It is the minimal unit used in building words in a language which cannot be further split without altering its meaning. For example, “if you add a morpheme to an utterance, or take away, by definition you alter the meaning of the utterance”. For example, adding *-tion* to *locate* changes it to *location* which with *-s* becomes *locations*. In attempting to classify morphemes into types, Odeunmi (ibid) opines that the forms and the formations of *passes* and *disregarded* can only be understood when defined in terms of their meaning relations. In these two examples, *pass* and *regard* will be said to be free morphemes for without them, *-es*, *dis-*, and *-ed*, are not capable of making any sense.

c. Phonological Approach

Bello (ibid: 93) describes morpheme in terms of its phonological properties. In this sense, a morpheme could be said to make up just a phoneme. For instance, each of the plural markers in English (e.g. *-s* as in *boy – boys*) could be considered as morpheme. Thus, the */z/* in *boys* counts as a morpheme. She stresses that if morphemes are the smallest meaningful unit of any language and are made up of either single phonemes and or more than one phoneme as the case may be, then a combination of phonemes must conform to certain rules or possess given characteristics to qualify as morphemes.

1.1.2.4 Classification of Morphemes

According to Aarts and Aarts (1986), morphemes can be classified in the following way.

a. Free Morphemes

Words are made up of morphemes either free or bound. The free morpheme is the core part which usually sit anywhere within a word. On its own, it can function as an independent word, that is, a word that can stand on its own because it carries meaning. The following words are free morphemes: school, church, boy, girl, teach, courage, examine, e.t.c. Another name for the free morpheme is the base or stem or root. As the base or core, it can accept other elements either before it or after it. But whether the free morpheme or base or core is attached to another element or not, it can stand on its own. It is a meaning carrying unit. Some linguists also refer to the free morpheme as a full morpheme. Most free morphemes are content or lexical words.

b. Bound Morphemes

A bound morpheme is that morpheme that cannot stand or occur as an independent word. It has to be attached to a free morpheme or word to have a clear meaning. Examples of bound morphemes are *-ment*, *-en*, *-ing*, *-ed*, *-ness*, *-ful*, *mis-*, *-anti*, *-less*, etc in the following free morphemes or words. ‘government’, ‘encouragement’, ‘dancing’, ‘accepted’, ‘happiness’, ‘hopeless’ etc. Another name for the bound morpheme is empty morphemes. They can also be called grammatical indicators because they have the tendency to affect grammar. For example, this sentence.

The lecturer glad praised God. The omission of *-ly* in *glad* renders the sentence ungrammatical. Grammatically, the sentence should read, “the lecturer gladly praised God”. Most bound morphemes are grammatical or functional elements in language.

Bound morphemes are of two types. Some bound morphemes have the ability of changing word class or forming or generating new words while others only inflect the word they are added to.

i. Inflectional Bound Morphemes

A major division in morpheme is free and bound. A free morpheme has been referred to as an independent word. The bound morpheme is of two types: inflectional and derivational. An inflectional morpheme, which is a type of a bound morpheme, is defined by linguists as a mere grammatical indicator or marker. An inflectional morpheme cannot generate or create new words nor can it affect the grammatical class of a word.

An inflectional morpheme plays three grammatical roles in English:

1. It indicates tense – Tense relates to a verb. It then means that to indicate tense, it affects verb. A verb is affected in the following ways.

come come + s, come + ing,

walk walk + s, walk+ing, walk + ed

write write + s, write + ing, (writing), write + en (written) ‘s’ is the third person singular marker, ‘ed’ is the past tense marker while ‘ing’ is the continuous tense marker.

2. It indicates number –Nouns are affected by number. Nouns are subdivided into singular and plural. Plural nouns are indicated with ‘s’. Thus,

boy + s boys

school + s schools

table + s tables

The ‘s’ above is a plural marker and it is an additive morpheme. It indicates that the morpheme carrying it is ‘more than one’.

3. It indicates comparison. Adjectives are used to compare. Thus, this third part affects adjectives. Adjectives have comparative (for two people) and superlative (more than two people) forms.

fat + ‘er’ fatter fat + ‘est’ fattest

fast + ‘er’ faster fast + ‘est’ fastest

The 'er' and 'est' morphemes are used to indicate comparative superlative forms of the adjectives fat and fast above.

ii. Derivational Bound Morphemes

A derivational morpheme which is also called a derived morpheme is a type of bound morpheme which generates or creates new words by either changing the class of word or forming new words.

This change in word class, caused by the addition of a derivational bound morpheme, is not restricted to a particular class of words. It affects all classes of words. This transformation does not, however, affect the lexical meaning of the base forms of the free morpheme. That is, the lexical meanings of the core or base or free morpheme remain unchanged.

These examples are common in the English language:

a. Nouns from verbs word class

Derivational suffix verb noun

- 'age'	break	breakage
- 'al'	revive	revival
- 'ation'	explore	exploration
- 'ment'	govern	government
- 'ee'	pay	payee
- 'ant'	inform	informant

b. Adjectives from nouns

Suffix noun adjective

- 'ful'	care	careful
- 'less'	fruit	fruitless
- 'n'	Nigeria	Nigerian
- 'able'	love	lovable
- 'ly'	friend	friendly
- 'ous'	desire	desirous

- 'n' library librarian

c. Nouns from Adjectives

Suffix adjective noun

- 'ity' rapid rapidity
- 'ness' kind kindness
- 'ce' fragrant fragrance
- 'ity' humble humility

d. Verbs from Adjective

Suffix adjective verb

- 'en' weak weaken
- 'ize' liquid liquidize
- 'fy' solid solidify

e. Adjectives from verbs

Suffix verb adjective

- 'able' wash washable
- 'ive' digest digestive
- 'tory' satisfy satisfactory

f. Verbs from nouns

Suffix nouns verbs

- 'ize' special specialize

1.1.2.5 Principles for the Identification of Morphemes

There is no any universally accepted mechanical procedure to analyze the structure of language or word structure. Yet Nida (1974) has presented some principles for the identification of morphemes. They are as follows:

Principle 1 "Forms which have a common semantic distinctiveness and an identical phonemic form in all their occurrences constitute a single morpheme".
(P. 7).

this principle suggests that certain forms that have the same phonological shape and identical meaning belong to the same morpheme. For example the form 'er' in the words like 'player', 'driver', 'writer', 'worker', etc. has the same pronunciation / (r)/ ; and it has the same meaning 'doer of an action'.

Principle 2 "Forms which have a common semantic distinctiveness but which differ in phonemic form (i.e. the phoneme or order of phonemes) may constitute a single morpheme provided the distribution of formal differences is phonologically definable" (P. 7).

this principle suggests that forms having different pronunciations but identical meaning may belong to the same phoneme if distribution of such forms is phonologically conditioned. For example in the words 'impolite', 'incorrect' , 'irregular' the prefixes have different pronunciations (/ɪm/, /ɪ /, and /ɪr/ respectively) but they have identical meaning , and yet their pronunciation is justifiable on the phonological ground that they have been added to the words beginning with bilabial, velar and post-alveolar sounds respectively.

Principle 3 "Forms which have a common semantic distinctiveness but which differ in phonemic form in such a way that their distribution cannot be phonologically defined constitute a single morpheme if the forms are in complementary distribution in accordance with the following restrictions."

- i. Occurrence in the same structural series has precedence over occurrence in different series in the determination of morphemic status.
- ii. Complementary distribution in different structural series constitute a basis for combining possible allomorph into one morpheme only if there also occurs in these different structural series, a morpheme which belongs to the same distribution class as the allomorphic series in question and which itself has only one allomorph or phonologically defined allomorph.
- iii. Immediate tactical environments have precedence over non-immediate tactical environments in determining morphemic status.

iv. Contrast in identical distributional environments may be treated as sub-morphemic if the difference in meaning of the allomorph replaces the distribution of these forms. (P. 7).

Principle 4 "An overt formal difference in a structural series constitutes a morpheme if in any member of such a series, the overt formal difference and a zero structural difference are the only significant features for distinguishing a minimal unit of phonetic semantic distinctiveness." (P. 54).

To illustrate the point, the past forms of verbs in English are usually overtly marked with the morphs /d/, /t/ or /ɪd/ as in 'played', 'walked', 'wanted' respectively. but verbs like 'cut', 'hit', 'put', etc. are not overtly marked for past tense forms, which are zero morphs.

Principle 5 Homophonous forms are identifiable as the same or different morphemes on the basis of the following conditions:

- i. Homophonous forms with distinctly different meanings constitute different morphemes.
- ii. Homophonous forms with distinct meanings constitute a single morpheme if the meaning classes are paralleled by distributional differences, but they constitute multiple morphemes if the meaning classes are not paralleled by distributional differences. (P. 55-6).

This indicates that forms that have same pronunciation but different meaning belong to different morphemes. For example, 'meet' and 'meat' are homophonous items with completely different meanings and thus belong to separate morphemes. However, homophonous forms that are semantically related but may differ in their distribution belong to the same morpheme. For example, 'head' in the sentences ' Mr. Rai is the *head* of this school' and 'My sister's *head* is larger than mine' belongs to a single morpheme.

Principle 6 morpheme is isolatable if it occurs under the following

conditions:

- i. in isolation
- ii. in multiple conditions in at least one of which the unit with which it is combined occurs in isolation or in other combinations.
- iii. in a single combination provided the element with which it is combined occurs in isolation or in other combinations with nonunique constituents. (P. 58-9).

From these points we understand that:

- i. Forms which can stand alone or in isolation are identified as separate morphemes, for example, 'boy', 'girl', 'book', 'bus', 'good', etc.
- ii. On the contrary a form which cannot occur in isolation but can occur with the forms that can occur alone is identified as a separate morpheme, for example, the form '-ing' in 'walking', 'going', etc.
- iii. Some forms are very restricted in that they can occur only in limited combinations. For example, 'cran-' can occur only with 'berry' (cranberry). In this combination the former cannot occur in isolation but the latter can. Thus 'cran-' is a separate morpheme.

1.1.2.6 Verbs

A word used for saying something about some person or thing is verb. It is a doing word that expresses an action, a process and a state. For example:

John climbed a tree.

They play football.

Verbs are classified variously. Broadly, verbs can be divided into two groups: ordinary verbs and auxiliary verbs. The ordinary verbs can have their own meaning but the auxiliary verbs have grammatical importance. Verbs like go,

write, kiss, harvest, grow etc. are ordinary verbs. The words selected for this research are ordinary verbs which are listed in 1.1.3

1.1.2.7 Classification of English Verbs

The English verbs are classified as follows:

Table No. 1
Classification of auxiliary verbs

Principal	Modal auxiliaries	Semi-modal auxiliaries
be	can, could, shall, should,	need to
have	may, might, must, will,	dare to
do	would	used to ought to

Table No. 2
Classification of ordinary verbs

Bare infinitive	Past	Perfective	Progressive	Sing. Present
<u>regular</u>				
walk	walked	walked	walking	walks
visit	visited	visited	visiting	visits
jump	jumped	jumped	jumping	jumps
<u>irregular</u>				
write	wrote	written	writing	writes
cut	cut	cut	cutting	cuts
run	ran	run	running	runs
<u>transitive</u>				
love	loved	loved	loving	loves
help	helped	helped	helping	helps
<u>intransitive</u>				
go	went	gone	going	goes
laugh	laughed	laughed	laughing	laughs

Auxiliary verbs are classified into principal auxiliaries, modal auxiliaries and semi-modal auxiliaries. The principal auxiliaries are used for both ordinary and auxiliary. The auxiliary verbs do not have verb forms like ordinary verbs.

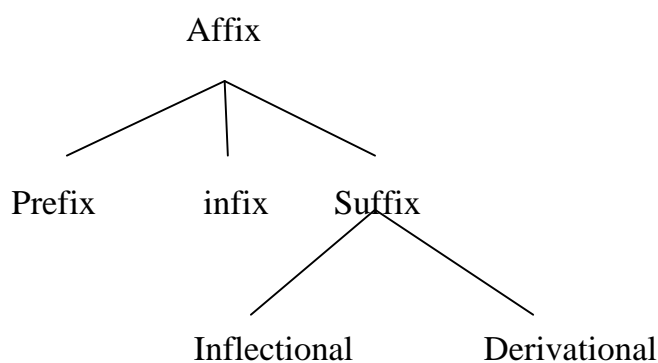
Ordinary verbs are classified into regular and irregular, transitive and intransitive and in different verb forms.

1.1.2.8 Affixation

As we know that the morpheme is the minimal unit of grammatical description in the sense that it can not be segmented any further at the grammatical level of analysis. The word unfriendly is composed of three morphemes; un-friend and -ly. Friend is free morpheme where as un- and -ly are bound morphemes or prefix and suffix respectively. Look at the diagram:

Figure No. 2

Constituents of an Affix



1.1.2.9 Types of Affixation

Affixes which are added to the beginning of a word are prefix, affix which are added to the end of a word are suffixes. Prefix is added to the beginning of the stem, suffix is added to the ending of the stem and infix is added in between the stem. Affixes are classified on the table:

Table No. 3

Classification of Affixes

Morpheme	Free	Root	Ask, boy, know etc
	Bound	Affix	<div style="display: flex; align-items: center;"> <div style="margin-right: 10px;"> <p>derivation</p> <p>Prefix —————</p> </div> <div style="border-left: 1px solid black; padding-left: 10px;"> <p>im : impossible</p> <p>mini : mini-skirt</p> <p>a : amoral</p> <p>re : reclaim</p> </div> </div> <hr/> <div style="display: flex; align-items: center;"> <div style="margin-right: 10px;"> <p>Suffix —————</p> </div> <div style="border-left: 1px solid black; padding-left: 10px;"> <p>Derivation —————</p> <p>able : readable</p> <p>dom : freedom</p> <p>hood : childhood</p> <p>ness : largerness</p> <p>Inflection —————</p> <p>s : boys</p> <p>ed : walked</p> <p>ing : jumping</p> <p>est : highest</p> </div> </div>

Source: Arts and arts (1986)

1.1.3 English Verbs Selected for the Study

For the purpose of this research the following verbs were selected related to farming and sports. In the preliminary stage, the researcher visited the Musahar community and gathered the primary data and translated English verbs in Musahar language, which are as follows:

Twenty English verbs related to sports were selected for this research:-

Play, Pass, Run, Jump, Roll, Kick, Hit, Throw, Catch, Swim, Bat, Bowl, Pull, Push, Chase, Drive, Dance, Slip, Stop, Punch.

Twenty English verbs related to farming were selected for this research:-

Plough, Dig, Sow, Plant, Milk, Cut, Harvest, Dry, Yoke, Fish, Hunt, Carry, Pile, pluck, Fasten, Groom, Thrash, Grow, Scatter, Hammer.

1.2 Review of Related Literature

Forming new words is an ongoing process in any language. So words are growing and developing day by day. If one succeeds to add more and more words in his lexicon, he is able to express his ideas and feeling more effectively and can talk about a wider range of topics , and it can lead him to success.

Different grammarians and morphologists have identified the affixes in different ways. For the identification of affixes, most of them accept that affixes are bound morphemes attached to a root or base or stem. Some affixes seem free morphemes in isolation but function as bound morphemes. Such affixes are inclusive in the definition of affixes.

Quirk et al (1973) identify the English affixes with the meaning of most of the affixes themselves and explain how the base or the given word is modified after the affixes are attached.

Katamba (1991) groups the English affixes(prefixes and suffixes) into two broad classes: Neutral and Non-neutral on the basis of their phonological changes in the addition of affixes to the base or the word have not been dealt in this study. The study of Khembelle Barushlani verbal morphology is complicated by the way its monuments have come to us: through the pen of Charyan scribe. The Charyan languages almost all have an extensive system of verbal suffixes that are agglutinated to a simple verbal stem, a stem that is in many cases the same as the nominal stem. Charyan, with the possible exception of Archaic or Temple Charyan, does not exhibit different conjugations.

Bhattarai (2001) compared case system of Nepali with that of English. He came up with similarities in both the languages such as the verbs agree with the subjects in both languages; they inflect according to number in both of them.

They play central role to determine cases and so on. And he also found differences between them such as the verbs in Nepal inflect according to sex and honorific grade but they do not in English.

Bhandari (2002) conducted a research in “Affixation in English and Nepali”. She found some differences. For example, English has more affixes than that of the Nepali language and that the prefixes of English are more than that of Nepali. But it is opposite in case of suffixes. She found some similarities. For example, both the languages are governed by affixation for word formation; there is no infixation process in both the languages.

Limbu(2004) carried out a research on “Verbs of Pre-cooking, Cooking, and Consuming” activities in English, Nepali, Newari and Rai Bantawa. The objectives of his study were to prepare inventories of different types of verbs of pre-cooking, cooking and consuming activities in these languages; and to carry out semantic analysis, and compare and contrast semantic analysis of these verbs in these languages. In his study he found the least number of pre-cooking verbs in Newari and the least number of cooking verbs in Nepali. Likewise, he found the most number of pre-cooking, cooking and consuming verbs in English.

Tumbapo (2005) carried out a research on “ Verbal Addixation in English and Limbu”. He found Limbu has person maker prefixes, infixes and suffix, Whereas English has only one person maker suffix. Limbu has number marker prefixes and suffixes but English has only suffixes. In the same way, Limbu has negative marker prefixes, infixes and suffixes whereas English has only negative marker prefixes.

Chapagãi (2007) carried out a research on “Verbal Morphology in English and Santhali Language”. The main objectives of his study were to find out the verbal affixes of English and Santhali language and to show the similarities and differences between verbal morphological systems of these languages. In his study he found that both languages lack infixation in verbs and that there are

more Santhali verbal affixes than English verbal affixes.

Ghimire (2012) carried out a research on "An Error Analysis on Sentence Formation by Musahar people". The main objectives of her research were to find out the errors on sentence formation in Nepali language by Musahar and to show the similarities and differences between the systems in English and Musahar.

Thus, the research history of verbal morphology shows that many research works have been carried out concerning the morphological affixes of verbs in different dialects and languages. Unlike the previous works, here the researcher is interested to carry out the affixation system in Musahar.

1.3 Objectives of the Study

The objectives of the study are:

- i. To find out the morphological affixes of Musahar verbs.
- ii. To find out the similarities and differences between English and Musahar morphological systems.
- iii To suggest some pedagogical implications.

1.4 Significance of the Study

The study is significant because researches on Musahar language are rare in the department of English Education. This research has revealed the morphological rules of action verbs related to farming and sports of English and Musahar language, and helps to predict the difficult areas that the Musahar speakers learning English (MSLE) and English speakers learning Musahar (ESLM) likely to face. Language teachers can focus on those areas in which the two languages are different. This study is useful to the language learners as such. It makes them aware of the similarities and differences between two languages, and help to use the appropriate words in the target language. This work will be an invaluable treasure for the Department of English Education itself.

1.5 Definitions of the Specific Terms

- a. **Affix** : An affix is a morpheme which only occurs when attached to some other morpheme or morphemes such as a root or stem or base.
- b. **Prefix** : Prefix is that which is added to the beginning of root or base. e.g. un in unhappy.
- c. **Suffix** : A suffix is an affix attached after a root or a stem or a base. e.g. s in workers.
- d. **Infix** : An infix is a type of affix inserted into the root itself. e.g. sheep.
- e. **Root** : A root is that part of a word from which after all affixes have been removed. e.g. books.
- f. **Base** : A base is that part of a word to which affixes of any kind can be added. e.g. books, player etc.
- g. **Stem** : A stem is a word or lexeme in which only inflexional affixes are attached. e.g. workers.

CHAPTER-TWO

METHODOLOGY

The researcher adopted the following methodology for the study.

2.1. Sources of Data

Both primary and secondary sources of data were used for the study. The primary source was the basic source of data. The primary source was the basic one for the collection of data from the Musahar language. The secondary source of data was collected from the English language books and grammars.

2.1.1. Primary Source of Data

The primary sources of data for the study were the native speakers of the Musahar language living in Morang and Jhapa districts of Nepal.

2.1.2. Secondary Sources of Data

The books, journals, reports, dictionaries, articles, unpublished thesis related to the proposed study and the materials available in electronic media were the secondary sources of data. More particularly, the following books were consulted:

Katamba(1991), Quirk et al(1973), Nida (1974), Cowan(2008), Celce Murcia(1999).

2.2 Population of the Study and Sampling Procedure

The total population of this study was eighty informants of the native speakers of Musahar language altogether. Forty were from Morang district and forty from Jhapa district.

The sample population was selected using judgmental sampling procedure. In this study, the sample population consisted of 80 Musahar native speakers,

forty from Morang and Jhapa district each. From each district, there were four literate informants who could read and write the Musahar language and could translate English and/or Nepali into Musahar or vice-versa. They also helped the researcher to collect the data from illiterate informants.

Table No. 4

Number of Informants

Informants	Literate	Illiterate
Jhapa	4	36
Morang	4	36
Total	8	72

2.3 Tools for Data Collection

Questionnaire was the main research tool for collecting the data of the Musahar language. He prepared questionnaire to translate English into Musahar.

2.4 Process of Data Collection

At first, the researcher developed the questionnaire. Then, the researcher himself visited the Musahar Community in Keraun V.D.C., Morang and Garamuni V.D.C., Jhapa district, Nepal and then established rapport with the Musahar people. He selected forty informants from Keroun VDC and forty from Garamuni VDC using judgmental sampling. They were divided into eight groups with at least one literate Musahar in each group. He, then, gave them a clear instruction to do the task in questionnaire. The literate Musahar one translated the language of questionnaire into Musahar getting views of each member of the groups. At the end, the questionnaires were collected by the researcher himself and thanked them all.

2.5 Limitations of the Study

This study had the following limitations:

- i. Questionnaire was the only tool to collect primary data from the Musahar language.
- ii. The work was limited to the affixation portion of verbal morphology only.
- iii. The books listed under methodology section were the main secondary sources of the data.
- iv. Phonological changes of stress, vowels or consonants of the addition of affixes were not analyzed.
- v. All the informants were the Musahar speakers living in Jhapa and Morang districts.
- vi. The sample size was limited to eighty respondents only and all of the informants were the native speakers of the Musahar.
- vii. The study was limited to the twenty action verbs for each language related to farming and sports.
- viii. The study focused two aspects of present tense i.e. present simple and present continuous.
- ix. The study focused first and third person singular and plural i.e. 'I' 'we', 'he', 'she' and 'they' as subject of the sentences.

CHAPTER –THREE

ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION OF DATA

This chapter consists of analysis, interpretation and presentation of the data. The Musahar verbal morphologies are identified as tense markers, progressive markers, perfective markers and infinitive markers. As this study is comparative in nature, the verbal morphologies in Musahar were compared and contrasted with those of English to find out whether these two languages had equivalent verbal morphologies and the rules of verbal affixation or not.

3.1 Morphological Affixes of the Musahar Verbs

Verbal morphologies are categorized into tense markers, progressive markers, perfective markers, future markers and infinitive markers. Each of them is presented below:

Table No. 5

Morphological Affixes of the Musahar Verbs

Bare inf.	Third sing-pl. present	First sing. present	First pl. present	Conti. form
kehl	kheltai	khelaichhiya	khelabaichhiya	khel rahal
daud	daudtai	daudaichhiyai	daudabaichhiyai	daud rahal
fek	fektai	fekaichhiyai	fekabaichhiyai	fek rahal
nach	nachtai	nachaichhiyai	nachabaichhiya	nach rahal
han	hantai	hanaichhiyai	hanabaichhiyai	han rahal
rok	roktai	rokaichhiyai	rokabaichhiyai	rok rahal
batkar	bat kartai	batkaraichhiya	batkardbaichhiyai	batkar rahal

Past tense third sing. plural	Past tense first sing. plural	Perfective first sing. plural	Perfective third sing- plural	Future tense	Infinitive
khellakai	khelliyai	khelchiya	khelalchiyai	khelaiwala	khelaike khatir
hanlakai	hanliyai	hanchiya	hanalchiyai	hanaiwala	hanaike khatir
pasdelakai	pasdeliyai	pasdechiya	pasdealchiyai	pasdeiwala	pasdeike khatir
uchallakai	uchalliyai	uchalchiya	uchalalchiyai	uchalaiwala	uchalaike khatir
jotlakai	jotliyai	jotchiya	jotalchiyai	jotaiwala	jotaike khatir

3.1.1 Tense Marker Morphologies in Musahar verbs

There are tense marker suffixes in Musahar language but there are no prefixes and infixes. Tense marker suffixes are divided into three types as present tense marker, the past tense marker and the future tense marker. The verbal affixes of each tense are presented in the table below.

Table No. 6
Tense Marker Affixes in Musahar

Third sing-pl. present	First sing. present	First pl. present	Past tense third sing. plural	Past tense first sing. plural	Future tense
tai	aichiyai	baichiyai	lakai	liyai	aiwala

Through the interpretation and analysis of the data I found the following things.

a. Present Tense Marker

There are three kinds of present tense marker suffixes in the Musahar language.

i) /-tai/ is the present tense marker suffix in the Musahar language. It is used to mark the third person singular and plural subject.

For Example:

Eng: He plays football.

Mus: U (Mardanã) futbal kheltai.

Eng: She runs very fast.

Mus: U (Jalanã) bahut jaldi daudtai.

Eng: They milk the cow.

Mus: Okarãsab gãi duhtai.

ii. /-baichhiyai/ is the present tense marker suffix in the Musahar language. It is used to indicate the first person plural subject.

For example:

Eng: we play football.

Mus: Hāmsab futbal khelabaichhiyai.

Eng: we run very fast.

Mus: Hāmsab bahut jaldi daudabaichhiyai.

iii. /-aichhiyai/ is the present tense marker suffix in Musahar language. It is used to indicate the first person singular subject.

For example:

Eng: I play football.

Mus: Ham futbal Khelaichhiyai.

Eng: I run very fast.

Mus: Ham bahut jaldi daudaichhiyai.

b. Past Tense Marker

There are two types of past tense marker suffixes in the Musahar language.

i. /-lakai/ is the past tense marker suffix in the Musahar language. It is used to indicate first person singular and plural.

For example:

Eng: He played football.

Mus: U (Mardanā) futbal khelllakai

Eng: They ran very fast.

Mus: Okarāsab jaldi daudlakai.

ii. /-liyai/ is the past tense marker suffix in the Musahar language. It is used to indicate first person singular and plural.

For example:

Eng: I played football.

Mus: Ham futbal khelliyai.

Eng: we ran very fast.

Mus: Hāmsab jaldi daudliyai.

c. Future Tense Marker

/-aiwalā/ is the future tense marker in Musahar language. aiwalā is equivalent to 'will' in English. It is used to all number and person. 'Chhiyai' is added to the verb to indicate first person and 'chhai' is added to the verb to indicate third person.

For example:

Eng: we will play football.

Mus: Hāmsab futbal khelaiwalā chhiyai.

Eng: She will play football.

Mus: U (Jalanā) futbal khelaiwalā chhai.

Eng: They will milk the cow.

Mus: Okarāsab gāi duhaiwalā chhai.

3.1.2 Progressive Marker Morphology

There is only one progressive marker suffix in the Musahar language which is shown in the table below.

Table No. 7

Progressive Marker Suffix in Musahar

Progressive Marker Suffix in Musahar
- rahal

Through the analysis and interpretation of above data, I find the following things.

/-rahal/ is the only progressive marker suffix in Musahar language. It is added to the verb to indicate progressive.

For Example:

Eng: we are playing football.

Mus: Hāmsab futbal khelrahal chhiyai.

Eng: I am running very fast.

Mus: Ham Jaldi daudrahal chhiyai.

Eng: They are planting rice.

Mus: Okarāsab dhān roprahal chhai.

3.1.3 Perfective Marker Morphologies

There are two kinds of perfective marker suffixes in the Musahar language which is shown in the table below.

Table No. 8

Perfective Marker Suffix in Musahar

Perfective First Sing, -Pl	Perfective Third Sing-Pl.
-chiya	-alchiya

Through the analysis and interpretation of above data, I find the following things.

i. /-chhiya/ is the perfective marker suffix in the Musahar language. It is added to the verbs to indicate perfective aspect for first person singular and plural.

For example:

Eng: I have passed the ball.

Mus: Ham futbal pass delchhiya.

Eng: we have jumped over the fence.

Mus: Hāmsab bera par karalchhiya.

ii) /-alchhiya/ is the perfective marker suffix in the Musahar language. It is added to the verbs to indicate perfective aspect for third person singular and plural.

For example:

Eng: She has run very fast.

Mus: U (Jalanā) bahut jald daudalchhiyai.

Eng : They have played football.

Mus: Okarāsab futbal khelalchhiyai.

3.1.4 Infinitive Marker Morphologies

There is only infinitive marker suffix in the Musahar language language which is shown in the table below.

Table No. 9

Infinitive Marker Suffix in Musahar

Infinitive Marker Suffix for all number and person
- aike khatir

Through the analysis and interpretation of above data, I find the following things.

i. /-aike khātir/ is the infinitive marker suffix in the Musahar language.

It is used to indicate infinitive marker suffix for all number and person.

For example:

Eng: I went to carry the sacks.

Mus: Ham bora anaike khātir gelyai.

Eng: She went to sow paddy.

Mus: U (Jalanā) dhān ropaike khātir gelai.

Eng: They went to plough the field.

Mus: Okarāsab khet Jotaike khātir gelai.

3.2 Comparison between English and Musahar Verbal Morphologies

English and Musahar verbal Morphologies are compared in the following points.

3.2.1 Tense Marker Morphologies

English has only two tense marker suffixes. One is past marker and another is non-past marker. They are as follows:

a. Past Marker Suffixes in English

/-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. It has different allomorphs and the occurrence of one allomorph differs from the occurrence of another. They are as follows:

i. [-t] is the past tense marker suffix in English. It is added to the regular verbs when the final sound of the verb is voiceless consonant that is not [t] and [d] to form past tense marker, e.g. He stopped the ball and kicked.

ii. [-d] is the past tense marker suffix in English. It is added to the regular verbs when the final sound of the verb is voiced consonant that is not [t] and [d] to form past tense marker, e.g. She explained the event hurriedly.

iii. [id] is the past tense marker suffix in English. It is added to the regular verbs when the final sound of the verb is [t] and [d] to form the past tense marker, e.g. He painted a picture for me.

b. Non-past Marker in English

/-s/ is the non-past marker suffix in English. It is added to the verbs to mark the third person singular non-past. It has different allomorphs and the occurrence of one allomorph differs from the occurrence of another. They are as follows:

i. [-s] is the allomorph of the morpheme '-s' and it is added to the verbs where the final element of the verb is voiceless and not sibilant or palatal to form the third person singular non-past.

For example:

She treats me well.

ii. [-z] is the allomorph of the morpheme '-s' and it is added to the verbs where the final element of the verb is voiced and is not sibilant or palatal to form the third person singular non-past.

For example:

He serves her.

iii. [-iz] is the allomorph of the morpheme '-s' and it is added to verbs where the final element of the verb is sibilant or palatal to form the third person singular non-past.

For example:

She teases him.

But Musahar has three tense markers i.e. present, past and future tense marker suffixes. They are as follows:

a. Present Tense Marker

There are three kinds of present tense marker suffixes in the Musahar language.

i. /-tai/ is the present tense marker suffix in the Musahar language. It is used to mark the third person singular and plural subject.

For Example:

Eng: He plays football.

Mus: U (Mardanā) futbal kheltai.

Eng: She runs very fast.

Mus: U (Jalanā) bahut jaldi daudtai.

Eng: They milk the cow.

Mus: Okarāsab gāi duhtai.

ii. /-baichhiyai/ is the present tense marker suffix in the Musahar language. It is used to indicate the first person plural subject.

For example:

Eng: we play football.

Mus: Hāmsab futbal khelabaichhiyai.

Eng: we run very fast.

Mus: Hāmsab bahut jaldi daudabaichhiyai.

iii. /-aichhiyai/ is the present tense marker suffix in Musahar language. It is used to indicate the first person singular subject.

For example:

Eng: I play football.

Mus: Ham futbal Khelaichhiyai.

Eng: I run very fast.

Mus: Ham bahut jaldi daudaichhiyai.

b. Past Tense Marker

There are two types of past tense marker suffixes in the Musahar language.

i. /-lakai/ is the past tense marker suffix in the Musahar language. It is used to indicate first person singular and plural.

For example:

Eng: He played football.

Mus: U (Mardanã) futbal khellakai

Eng: They ran very fast.

Mus: Okarãsab jaldi daudlakai.

ii. /-liyai/ is the past tense marker suffix in the Musahar language. It is used to indicate first person singular and plural.

For example:

Eng: I played football.

Mus: Ham futbal khelliyai.

Eng: we ran very fast.

Mus: Hãmsab jaldi daudliyai.

c. Future Tense Marker

i. /-aiwalã/is the future tense marker in Mushar language. aiwalã is equivalent to 'will' in English. It is used to all number and person. 'Chhiyai' is added to the verb to indicate first person and 'chhai' is added to the verb to indicate third person.

For example:

Eng: we will play football.

Mus: Hāmsab futbal khelaiwalā chhiyai.

Eng: She will play football.

Mus: U (Jalanā) futbal khelaiwalā chhai.

Eng: They will milk the cow.

Mus: Okrasab gāi duhaiwalā chhai.

3.2.2 Progressive marker Morphologies in English

English has only one progressive marker suffix i.e. 'ing. It is immediately added to the verbs.

For example:

I am writing a thesis.

We are playing football.

Musahar also has only one progressive marker i.e. /rahal/. It is also immediately added to the verbs.

For example:

Eng: we are playing football.

Mus: Hāmsab futbal khelrahal chhiyai.

Eng: I am running very fast.

Mus: Ham Jaldi daudrahal chhiyai.

Eng: They are planting rice.

Mus: Okarāsab dhān roprahal chhai.

3.2.3 Perfective Marker Morphologies

English has only one perfective marker suffix i.e. '-ed'.

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

i. [t] is the perfective marker suffix in English. It is added to the regular verbs when the final sound of the verb is voiceless consonant that is not [t] and [d] to form the perfective marker.

For example:

He has stopped the ball.

ii. [-d] is the perfective marker suffix in English. It is added to the regular verbs when the final sound of the verb is voiced consonant that is not [t] and [d] to form perfective marker.

For example:

She explained the event hurriedly.

iii. [-ed] is the perfective marker suffix in English. It is added to the regular verbs when the final sound of the verb is [t] and [d] to form perfective marker.

For example:

He painted a picture for me.

'-en' is the perfective marker suffix in English. It is added to the regular verb to mark all persons and numbers in both past and non-past.

For example:

She has written an article.

But in the Musahar language there are two kinds of perfective marker suffixes.

i. /-chhiya/ is the perfective marker suffix in Musahar language. It is added to the verbs to indicate perfective aspect for first person singular and plural.

For example:

Eng: I have passed the ball.

Mus: Ham futbol pass delchhiya.

Eng: we have jumped over the fence.

Mus: Hāmsab bera par karalchhiya.

ii. /-alchhiya/ is the perfective marker suffix in the Musahar language. It is added to the verbs to indicate perfective aspect for third person singular and plural.

For example:

Eng: She has run very fast.

Mus: U (Jalanā) bahut jald daudalchhiyai.

Eng : They have played football.

Mus: Okarāsab futbol khelalchhiyai.

3.2.4 Infinitive Marker Morphologies

The Musahar language has infinitive marker suffix whereas English lacks it. The suffix /-aike khātir/ indicates the infinitive marker suffix in Musahar. It is added to the verb stem.

For example:

Eng: I went to carry the sacks.

Mus: Ham bora aanaike khātir gelyai.

Eng: She went to sow paddy.

Mus: U (Jalanā) dhān ropaike khātir gelai.

Eng: They went to plough the field.

Mus: Okarāsab khet jotaike khātir gelai.

CHAPTER- FOUR

FINDINGS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

4.1 Findings

On the basis of analysis and interpretation of data, the following findings have been extracted:

4.1.1 Verbal Morphologies in the Musahar Language

The verbal morphologies in the Musahar language are as follows:

-) /-tail/ is the present tense marker suffix. It is used to mark third person singular and plural subject.
-) /-baichhiyai/ is the present tense marker suffix. It is used to indicate the first person plural subject.
-) /-aichhiyai/ is the present tense marker suffix. It is used to indicate the first person singular subject.
-) /-lakai / is the past tense marker. It is used to indicate third person singular and plural.
-) /-liyai/ is the past tense marker suffix. It is used to indicate first person singular and plural.
-) /-aiwalã/ is the future tense marker suffix.
-) /-rahal/ is the only progressive marker suffix.
-) /-chhiya/ is the perfective marker suffix. It is added to the verbs to indicate perfective aspect for 1st person singular and plural.
-) /-alchhiyai/ is the perfective marker suffix. It is added to the verbs to indicate perfective aspect for third person singular and plural.

) /-aike khātir/ is the infinitive marker suffix.

4.1.2 Similarities and Differences between Verbal Morphologies in the Musahar and English Language

) The Musahar language has three tense markers i.e. present, past and future tense marker suffixes whereas English has only two tense marker suffixes –past tense marker and non-past marker.

) Both Musahar and English have only one progressive marker suffix i.e. '-ing' in English and '-rahal' in Musahar lang

) Musahar has infinitive marker suffix i.e. /-aike khātir/ whereas English lacks it.

) Both Musahar and English lack infixation systems.

) Verbal morphologies are added to the verbs depending upon the number and person of the subject in a sentence in English. In Musahar language, verbal morphologies are added to the verbs on the basis of gender, number and person of the subject in a sentence.

) Musahar has the same gender marker pronominal which agrees with same suffixes.

) /-ed/ is the perfective marker suffix in English that is added to the regular verbs and /-en/ is the perfective marker suffix for irregular verbs. But in Musahar language /-chhiya/ and /-alchhiyai/ are the two perfective marker suffixes. The former one is added to the verbs to indicate 1st person and the another is added to the verbs to indicate 3rd person respectively.

) /-aiwalã/ is the future tense marker suffix in Musahar language. It is similar to 'will' in English.

) There are two suffixes to indicate past in Musahar language but there is only one in English.

-) English has 'will + bare infinitive' to indicate future but Musahar has "bare infinitive + -aiwalā" to indicate future tense.
-) English has "to+v¹" to indicate infinitive marker but Musahar has 'V¹+ aike khātir' to indicate infinitive marker.

4.2 Recommendations

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

-) Verbal morphological system in Musahar is more or less similar to that of English. So, Language teachers who are teaching Musahar language as a second language should be aware of this fact.
-) There would be no problem in the areas where the two languages are similar but differences between the two languages create difficulty in learning the target language. Therefore, teaching should be focused on the areas of difficulty.
-) The findings of the present study show that Musahar language has more number of suffixes in the same verbs in comparison to English and they are more complex than those of English.

So, complexity of Musahar verbal morphological system should be considered while teaching English verbal morphological system to Musahar native speakers.

-) Musahar verbal morphologies do not depend upon the number and gender of the subject of a sentence. So language teachers who are teaching Musahar language as a second language should be aware of this fact.
-) Verbal morphological system of English is not as complicated as that of Musahar. So, Musahar native speakers are to be made aware of this fact by making them exposed to enough examples of English verbs to which the verbal morphologies are added.

-) The findings of this study will be significant to grammarians who will write Musahar grammar.
-) This study is equally important for the teachers who are teaching English as a foreign language at schools where Musahar speakers appear as students.

REFERENCES

- Aarts, J. & Aarts, F. (1986). *English syntactic structures*. Oxford: Pergamon press
- Ayodele, A. (2001). *Morphology: An Introduction in G. Osoba & A. Fakoya. The English Compendium*. Lagos: TIMIgrafik Production.
- Bello, R. (2001). *Lexical Studies in English in Osoba, G. & Fakoya, A. (eds.) The English Compendium 1 and 2*. Lagos: TIMI GrafikProduction.
- Bhandari, R. D. (2002). *Affixation in English and Nepali: a comparative study. An Unpublished M.Ed. thesis*, Tribhuvan University.
- Bhattarai, L. P. (2001). *Case in English and Nepali: a comparative study. An Unpublished M.Ed. thesis*, Tribhuvan University.
- Celce, M. & Freeman, D. L. (1999). *The Grammar Book*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Chapagãi, S. (2007). *Verbal morphology in English and Santhali language. An Unpublished M. Ed. thesis*, Tribhuvan University
- Cowan, R. (2008). *The Teacher's Grammar of English*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Crystal, D. (1976). *Linguistics*. England: Penguin Books Ltd.
- Crystal, D. (2003). *A dictionary of linguistics and phonetics*. Oxford: Blackwell Publishing.
- Dahal, D. R. (2003). Social composition of the populationn caste/ethnicity in religion in Nepal in *Population monograph of Nepal* Vol. 1. Kathmandu: Central Bereau of Statistics
- Ghimire, K. (2012). *An Error Analysis on Sentence Formation by Mushahar people: An unpublished M.Ed. Thesis*, T.U.
- Jindal, D.V. & Syal, P. (1999). *An introduction to linguistics: language, grammar and semantics*. New Delhi: Prentice Hall of India.
- Katamba, F. (1991). *Morphology*. London: McMillan.
- Kumar, R. (2006). *Research methodology in English*. New Delhi: Pearson Education.

- Limbu, A. J. (2004). *Verbs of pre-cooking, cooking and consuming activities in English, Limbu, Rai Bantawa, Newari and Nepali languages: a semantic comparison*. An Unpublished M. Ed. thesis, Tribhuvan University
- Lyons, J. (1970). *New horizons in linguistics*. Penguin: Harmonds.
- McCarthy, M. & O'Dell, Felicity (2002). *English vocabulary in use*. Cambridge: CUP.
- Mel' uk, Igor A. (2006). *Aspects of the theory of morphology*. Berlin: Mouton.
- Nida, E.A. (1974). *Morphology: the descriptive analysis of words*. Michigan: The University of Michigan Press.
- Odebunmi, A. (2006). *Meaning in English: an introduction*. Ogbomosho: Critical Sphere.
- Quirk, R. & Sidney, G. (1973). *A university grammar of English*. Delhi: Singapore: Addison Wesley Longman.
- Tumbapo, P. B. (2005). *Verbal affixation in English and Limbu*. An Unpublished M. Ed. thesis, Tribhuvan University.
- Wardhaugh, R. (1998). *An introduction to sociolinguistics*. Oxford: Blackwell Publishers.
- Yadava, Y. P. (2004). *Theories of grammar*. Kathmandu: Students' Books Publishers and Distributors