

VERBAL AFFIXATION IN ENGLISH AND KHALING

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

**Submitted by
Devi Raj Khaling**

**Faculty of Education
Tribhuvan University
Kiritpur, Kathmandu, Nepal**

2011

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Thesis Proposal: 15 July, 2010
Date of Submission: 30 June, 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 research to any University.

Date: 29 June, 2011

Devi Raj Khaling

RECOMMENDATION FOR ACCEPTANCE

This is to certify that **Mr. Devi Raj Khaling** has prepared this thesis entitled "**Verbal Affixation in English and Khaling**" under my guidance and supervision.

I recommend the thesis for acceptance.

Date: 30 June, 2011

Dr. Laxmi Bahadur Maharjan (Guide)

Reader

Department of English Education,

Faculty of Education

T. U, Kirtipur, Kathmandu

RECOMMENDATION FOR EVALUATION

This thesis has been recommended for evaluation from the following **Research Guidance Committee**.

Dr. Chandreshwar Mishra

Professor and Head
Department of English Education
T.U, Kirtipur

.....

Chairperson

Dr. Jai Raj Awasthi

Professor
Department of English Education
T.U, Kirtipur

.....

Member

Dr. Laxmi Bahadur Maharjan (Guide)

Reader
Department of English Education
T.U, Kirtipur

.....

Member

Date:

EVALUATION AND APPROVAL

This thesis has been evaluated and approved by the following ‘**Thesis Evaluation and Approval Committee**’.

Dr. Chandreshwar Mishra

Professor and Head
Department of English Education
T.U, Kirtipur

.....

Chairman

Prof. Dr. Jai Raj Awasthi

Professor
Department of English Education
Chairperson
English and Other Foreign Languages
Education Subject Committee
T.U, Kirtipur

.....

Member

Dr. Laxmi Bahadur Maharjan (Guide)

Reader
Department of English Education
T.U, Kirtipur

.....

Member

Date:.....

DEDICATION

Dedicated
to
My Parents and Teachers

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ABSTRACT

The present study entitle “**Verbal Affixation in English and Khaling**” has been carried out with the objectives to identify the verbal affixes and their rules in the Khaling language and also to identify similarities and differences in verbal affixation in English and Khaling. This study is based on fifty native speakers of Khaling residing in Basa, Kanku, and Waku VDCs of Solukhumbu district. The researcher used stratified random sampling procedure to sample the population. The respondents were both literate and illiterate. Questionnaire was the research tool for data collection for literate and interview was for illiterate respondents. On the basis of the collected data, the analysis has been done. After analysis, it was found that the Khaling has more number of verbal affixes in comparison to English and they are more complex than those of English.

The study consists of four chapters. Chapter one introduces the study in terms of general background of contrastive analysis, linguistic scenario of Nepal, morphology, review of the related literature, objectives and significance of the study. Likewise, chapter two deals with the methodology applied to conduct the study. It encompasses the sources of data, population of the study, sampling procedure, and research tools for data collection, process of data collection and limitations of the study. Similarly, chapter three deals with the analysis and interpretation of the raw data obtained from the informants. Finally, chapter four deals with the findings and recommendations with suggestions for pedagogical implications.

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LIST OF SYMBOLS AND ABBREVIATIONS

I	First Person
II	Second Person
III	Third Person
1 st	First
2 nd	Second
3 rd	Third
aux.	Auxiliary
C.A.	Contrastive analysis
C.B.S	Central Bureau of Statistics
CUP	Cambridge University Press
dl	Dual
Dr.	Doctor
excel	Exclusive
e.g.	Exempli gratia (for example)
ERG	Ergative
etc.	Etcetera
incl	inclusive
ibid	from the same book
INF	Infinitive
L ₁	First Language
L ₂	Second Language
M.Ed	Master in Education
NEG	Negative

NPST	Non-Past Tense
OPT	Optative
OUT	Oxford University Press
P	Page/Pages
Pl	Plural
PERF	Perfective
PREM	presumptive
Prof.	Professor
PROG	Progressive
PST	Past Tense
S.g.	Singular
T.U.	Tribhuvan University
VDC	Village Development Committee
Viz.	Vicelicet (Latin), Namely
Vol.	Volume

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 General Background of the Study

Language is a universal and effective means of human communication by means of which we express our thoughts, feelings, emotions and ideas etc. in our daily life. It is a set of signals by which we communicate. Language, being a dynamic and open system which makes human communication feasible, is also a social phenomenon. Language is one of the unique possessions of human race and distinctive properties of mankind because of which human beings seem to be an extraordinary and superior to all the species on this earth in every respect. Hence, the place of language in human communication is immensely important so that language can be compared as an essential tool for us to convey our messages. In the absence of which human communication remains impossible. Language plays a significant role in the development, maintenance and transmission of human civilization. So, the most rudimentary forms of social organization and technical achievements depend on language.

Encyclopedia Britanica (Vol.13, as cited in Varshney, 1995, p.1) language is defined as “a system of conventional, spoken and written symbols by means of which human beings communicate”. Similarly, Richards et al. (1999, p.196) defines language as “the system of human communication which consists of the structured arrangement of sounds (or their written representation) into larger units e.g. morphemes, words, sentences utterances”.

Moreover, Crystal (2003, p. 255) defines language as “Referring to the biological faculty..... Language is seen as a defining feature of human behavior the universal properties of all speech writing systems especially as characterized in terms of design features (e.g. productivity, duality, learnability) or, language universals”.

Thus, no single definition of language is complete in itself. It has been defined variously by different scholars. But it is widely accepted that language is a complex human phenomenon and its main function is to communicate. Language is systematic and arbitrary. By this, we mean no two languages are having exactly the same way yet each language has its own set of the rules. There are thousands of languages in the world. There is no primitive and inferior language and all languages appear to be equally complex and are absolutely adequate to the needs of their users. Some languages may be more important than that of others on the basis of time, place, situation, content, people, subject matter etc. and in terms of codifications, standardization too. But all and every languages are equally important in terms of communicative value. It is also identity of a speaker as a part of his/her civilization. It reveals the total information about the speaker in many respects like status, caste, nationality, ethnicity etc. That is why, it is obvious that language is not only means of communication but also identity of the user in true sense.

1.1.1 Linguistic Scenario of Nepal

Nepal is multi-racial, Multicultural, Multi-religious and multi-lingual country. It is well known that Nepal is a small country in terms of its area but it is very fertile place for languages. Nepal is a country of diverse castes and ethnic groups the diversity occupied by the diversity with castes is a unique feature of the nation. The number of languages spoken in Nepal varies in various census reports. Besides various languages serve as symbols of ethnic identity each speech community wants to preserve and promote its language. Robinson (as cited in the mother-Tongue Dilemma, UNESCO 2003). likewise, he notes that “for a multilingual approach to work, governments must see linguistic diversity as a boon and not a problem to be dealt with”. As languages serve as fundamental means of communication and interpersonal relationship, linguistic diversity needs to be looked upon as a societal resource to be planned for its full utilization.

1.1.2 Language Families

According to the census report (2001), ninety two languages are identified with some unidentified languages. The languages enumerated in the (2001), census can be classified genetically into four broad language families. They are Indo-Aryan, Tibeto Burman, Austro-Asiatic and Dravidian families.

1.1.2.1 Indo-Aryan Family

In the context of Nepal, Indo-European family of languages mainly concerned with Indo-Aryan groups of languages. According to the census (20001), Indo Aryan language family is the largest group in terms of speakers. It consists of 79.1% of the total population of Nepal. According to the Gurung (2003, p.13), it includes the following 19 languages of Nepal.

1.	Nepali	11.	Bengali
2.	Maithili	12.	Marwari
3.	Bhojpuri	13.	Majhi
4.	Tharu	14.	Darai
5.	Awadi	15.	Kumal
6.	Urdu	16.	Bote
7.	English	17.	Churaute
8.	Rajbanshi	18.	Magahi
9.	Hindi	19.	Panjabi
10.	Dunuwar		

1.1.2.2 Tibeto-Burman Family

The other most important group of Nepal's language is the Tibeto-Burman group of Sino-Tibetan family. It is one of the world's greatest Language families, second only to Indo-European in terms of populations of speakers (Retrieved on.3, June. 2010. from www.answer.com/topic/tibeto-burman-languages). Though it is spoken by relatively lesser number of people than the

Indo-Aryan Family. It consists of the largest number of languages (Yadava, p.148). In the context of Nepal, this family includes the following 45 languages (Gurung, 2003, p. 15).

Tamang	Byangshi	Khaling	Magar	Tilung
Bantawa	Lohorung	Tibetan	Limbu	Dzonkha
Sherpa	Kaike	Puma	Chepang	Hoyu
Sunuwar	Lingkhim	Pahari	Kulung	Dungmali
Dhimal	Chhintang	Raji	Thulung	
Sangpang	Newar	Ghale	Thakali	
Chhantyal	Gurung	Chinese	Dumi	
jirel	Chamling	Raute	Duri Lepcha	
Meche	Thami	Koche	Chhiling	
Bahing	Yakkha	Mizo	Mewahang	

1.1.1.3 Austro-Asiatic Family

It is a scattered group of language in Asia. They are found from eastern India to Vietnam (Retrieved on 3, June, 2010. from www.kryystal.com/langfangs_austroasia). In the context of Nepal, it comprises Santhali of the northern group and Khalriya of the southern Munda group. All the Austric languages are spoken by groups of tribal peoples from the eastern Terai and make up approximately 0.19 percent of the total population.

1.1.1.4 Dravidian Family

Dravidian family of languages are spoken by more than 200 million people. They appear to be unrelated to languages of other known families like Indo-European family. Specifically, Indo-Aryan is the other common language family in the Indian subcontinent. There are three sub-groups within the Dravidian linguistic family, as North Dravidian, Central and South Dravidian (Retrieved on 05, Jun., 2010. from www.en.wikipedia.org). It is another

language family in Nepal which comprises a single language called Jhangar in the region east of Koshi River and Dhangar in the region west of Koshi River. It is mainly spoken in Sunsari district; it is also marginally spoken in Siraha and some other districts.

1.1.3 An Introduction to the Khaling Language

The Rai, also known as the Khambu (People of Khambu region) is one of the Nepal's most ancient indigenous ethno-linguistic groups. The Rai (Khambu) belongs to the Kiranti groups (Retrieved on 31, May, 2010. from www.questhimalya.com). According to the census report (2001), the total population of the Kirat Rai is 6,35,151 which is 2.79 percent of the total population of Nepal. There are several clans within Rai and more than 32 Rai languages are spoken in Rai communities. Rai is an indigenous nationality having several languages for e.g. Rais speak Bantawa, Khaling, Thulung, Kulung, Chamling, Nacchiring, Dumi, Koyu, Puma, Sangpang, Dungmali, Waling, Lohorung, Yamphu, Chhintang, Athpahare, Bahing, Chhiling, Chulung, Lambichhong, Mugali, Belhare, Phanduwali, Lumba-Yakkha, Polmacha, Chakwa, Gerung, Bangdel, Tiling, North Lohorung, Western Mewahang and Eastern Mewahang etc. In such context, Rai may be regarded as a caste, and the languages the Rais speak as distinct languages.

Khaling people are one of the minor indigenous ethnic groups in Nepal pertaining to the mongoloid sub-branch of Tibeto Burman community. They have their own language, culture, tradition and a distinct life style. This unique language belongs to the Rai group. Khaling is mostly spoken in Solukhumbu district of sagarmatha zone, Nepal. Its speaker also live along sides of the Dudha Koshi and its periphery Inkhu khola and Rawa khola in Khotang. Similarly, they live in Bhojpur, Shangkhuwasava, Terhathum, Ilam and Panchthar. Moreover, beyond of Nepal it is spoken Darjeeling, Sikkim and Bhutan as well. The total identified number of Khaling speaker by different research are not consistent. The census report (2001) reveals 9,288 the total

number of its speaker. On the other hand, UNESCO (2002) shows 18,000 in Nepal and beyond Nepal in Sikkim and Darjeeling is 2,940 in total number.

The Khaling dialect is slightly different in different geographical areas i.e. Bhojpure and Solukhumbu, Khotange and Panchthare dialects respectively, but they are mutually intelligible. The number of its speaker is relatively high in Solukhumbu district and the language of Solu also known as standard dialect than others. The inhabitants of Basa, Kanku, Waku, Juving, Taksindu and Necha VDCs (Rais and Non - Rais as well) use the Khaling language as a lingua franca. Children learn the Khaling language as their mother tongue. Some children still learn Khaling as their mother tongue and they only learn Nepali when they enter school.

This is a unique language having its own status and native speakers. Khaling phonemes are palatal, fricatives, liquids, nasal, semivowels, unrounded, rounded, central and back. Khaling has two contrastive phonemic tones i.e. high and low. There are two different stems for each verb in Khaling, the infinitive stem and the finite stem (Toba & Ingrid 1975).

Nepal is a multilingual nation. However, a single Nepali language has been given power, recognition and prestige as a corollary. The remaining minority languages are impoverished and marginalized. Only the Nepali language is used as a lingua franca and in offices, media, school as well. It broadened the area of the Nepali language and interfered to the marginalized languages which remained in narrow scopes. Marginalized languages are not used as a lingua franca and in media, offices, schools as well due to intelligible crisis. Among the marginalized language, most of the languages do not have their own script and they are going to be extinct day by day. Same is the case in Khaling language as well.

This language is also called Khyal bra, Khyal Baat, Khalinge language and Khyal Radu.

1.1.4 English Languages and Its Importance in Nepal

English has been recognized as a widely used language for global communication among the languages existing in the world. According to Varshney (1995, p. 403) the largest of the families of languages of the world is the Indo - European family, one of the branches of Germanic to which English belongs.

In addition to their native languages, nowadays most of the countries around the world have put more emphasis on English language in education, trade, tourism, technology, foreign affairs, entertainment and other aspects of social life. English is the world's most widely spoken language and common means among the people of various countries. It is assumed as a more prestigious and one of the most dominant languages in the world. It is estimated that there are 300 million native speakers and 300 million who use English as a second language and further 100 million use it as a foreign language. It is the language of science, aviation, computing, diplomacy and tourism. It is listed as the official or co-official language of over 45 countries and is spoken extensively in other countries. Where as it has no official status.

There is a growing recognition of English in various fields like commerce, technology, media and education in various countries where English serves as a global Lingua franca. This international function of English has been more influenced by its practical needs like business negotiation, international communication and press publication. Showing such importance of the English language Sharma (2008) states:

Teaching and learning English has a given and indispensable phenomenon rather than desired one. Teaching and learning of English in today's world is more driven by pragmatic values, because English has been an instrument for access to social prestige, wealth and international job market. That we are not teaching English to our students means we are depriving them of a number of opportunities

since English is a gateway to technology, media, business, popular culture, and international academic dimense (p. 125).

English has almost remained the language of survival in Nepal. Realizing that the need and several advantages of the English Language, Nepal has introduced English as a compulsory subject from primary to bachelor level and also as an optional subject in schools and universities where students can learn English and implement it into their practical life.

1.1.5 Contrastive Analysis

Contrastive linguistics or contrastive analysis (C.A) indicates the linguistic description of at least two language (L_1 and L_2), which are compared or contrasted in order to highlight points of similarity or difference. From the 1940s to 1960s, contrastive analysis were conducted, in which two languages were systemically compared. It is a branch of applied linguistics which deals with two languages scientifically. Crystal, (2003) states that C.A. is a general approach to the investigation of language particularly as carried on in certain areas of applied linguistics, such as foreign language teaching and translation. In contrastive analysis of two languages, the points of structural difference are identified, and these are then studied as areas of potential difficulty (interference or negative transfer) in foreign languages learning (p. 107). It is a linguistic enterprise founded on the assumption that language can be compared. Contrastive analysis (C.A) is one of the branches of comparative linguistics. It is concerned with teaching rather than learning. It is assumed that L_2 learner tends to transfer the formal features of their L_1 in learning L_2 . So, C.A. believes that the greater the difference between languages the greater the difficulty in learning the target languages, and accordingly the number of errors in performance.

By focusing on the importance of C.A. Maharjan (1990, p. 168) states that, “C.A. is a method of linguistic analysis which by means of comparative study finds out the similarities and differences between two or more languages or dialects. It is C.A. which predicts the linguistic input to language teaching materials”. Generally, C.A. is concerned with a pair of languages and compares two languages at various levels such as phonological, morphological, syntactic discourse and other level as well. C.A. has two major functions viz. primary and secondary function. The primary function is the predicative function which predicts the likely errors to be committed by the particular group of L₂ learners. The secondary function explains the sources and reasons of the errors in one's performance. These predicative and explanatory functions are also known as strong and weak versions of C.A. The strong version of C.A. asserts that it functions as predicative device as well as explanatory tool. Whereas, the weak version of C.A. claims that it functions only as an explanatory tool.

1.1.5.1 The Theory of Transfer

Regarding the 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 structures of the two languages resemble one another. Eventually the learner gets that learning a foreign language is much easier. In such cases, we get 'positive transfer' or 'facilitation'. Such identities between the structures of the mother tongue and foreign language will stimulate him to apply the mother tongue forms and meanings or structures in the target language without any hesitation forgetting that even a slight difference may lead into a large difficulty. Thus, in such cases 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'.

1.1.5.2 Assumptions of C.A.

Lado (1957) states that individuals tend to transfer the forms and meanings, and the distribution of forms and meanings of their native language and culture both productively when attempting to speak language and to act in the culture and receptively when attempting to grasp and understand the language and the culture as practiced by natives (as cited in Maharjan (1990 p. 177). He also presents the following assumptions of the contrastive analysis.

- i. The most effective materials are those that are based upon a scientific description of the language to be learned, carefully compared with a parallel description of the native language of the learners.
- ii. That is the comparison between native and foreign languages lies the key to ease or difficulty in foreign language learning.
- iii. The teacher who has made a comparison of the foreign language with native language of the students will know better what the real learning problems are and can better provide for teaching them.

Some of Lado's assumptions for C.A. as described in Grass and Selinker (2007) include the following:

- i. Contrastive analysis is based on a theory of language that views language as habit. Thus, second language learning involves the establishment of a new set of habits.
- ii. The native language is the major source of error in production and comprehension in a second language.
- iii. Errors in second language production can be explained examining in the differences between the native languages in the second language.
- iv. The greater the difference between the first and second language the more errors will occur.
- v. It is important only for a second language learner to focus on the differences, because the similarities will transfer.

- vi. Difficulty and ease of learning are related respectively to the differences and similarities between the first and second languages.

From the above discussion, it has become obvious that the theoretical foundation of contrastive analysis i.e. C.A. hypothesis are based on the propositions of behaviorist school of psychology and structural linguistics. In fact, C.A. hypothesis has two factors linguistics and psychological. Linguistic component under lies the following beliefs:

- i. Language learning is a matter of habit formation.
- ii. The mind of a child at birth is a tabula rasa - the blank sheet of paper.
- iii. Languages are different, however, they are comparable.

The two types of comparison done in C.A. are:

I. Interlingual Comparison

If two languages like English and Khaling are compared, it is known as interlingual comparison in C.A. Stockwell and Bowen (1965) states that there are three possible interlingual rule relationship (cited in James, 1980, p.147).

They are:

- a. L_1 has a rule and L_2 has an equivalent one.
- b. L_1 has a rule and L_2 has no equivalent.
- c. L_2 has a rule and L_1 has no equivalent.

II. Intralingual Comparison

The Comparison between two dialects in a same language; like the Bhojpure and Patchthre Khaling of the same Khaling rai is called intralingual comparison.

C.A. is supportive in identifying the areas of difficulties in learning an L_2 determining the areas which the learners have to learn with greater emphasis and designing teaching/learning materials for those particular areas that needed more attention. For that reason, C.A. is very important from pedagogical point

of view. That is why, any attempt to teach an L₂ should be preceded by an explanation of the nature or possible influence of L₁ behavior on L₂ behavior.

1.1. 6 Morphology

Morphology studies how the words are formed, where they originate from, what is their grammatical forms are, what is the function of prefixes, suffixes and infixes in the word formation, on what basis the parts of speech of a particular language are formed, how the systems of gender, number, plural etc. function and how the word forms change. Every language differs in various levels/ degrees in their specific aspects. However, the basic foundation remains the same in all languages. No language in the world is found beyond phonological, morphological, syntactic and semantic systems. Thus, language is found as a network of various systems and levels. Morphology is the study of the patterns of word forms. It is the scientific study of the smallest grammatical units of language and their formation into words including inflection, derivation and composition.

Crystal, (2003, p. 301) holds, “it is generally divided into two fields; the study of inflection (inflectional morphology) and of word-formation (lexical or derivational) -a distinction which is sometimes accorded theoretical status (Split Morphology)”. Regarding this point, Katamba (1993, p. 47) states, “affix morphemes can be divided into two major functional categories viz. derivational morphemes and inflectional morphemes”. Derivational morphemes change the meaning of the base to which they are attached and also change one word classes into another. Such morphemes can not be predicted easily from the meaning of their stems. There are two types of derivational morphemes i.e. class changing and class maintaining derivational morphemes.

On the other hand, inflectional morphemes never change the meaning of the stems and words class too, they tend to be much productive and predict easily from the meaning of their stems. Unlike derivational morphemes, inflectional morphemes do not change referential or cognitive meaning. Supporting this

view, Katamba (1993) states, “.... Inflectional morphemes are only able to modify the form of a word so that it can fit into a particular syntactic slot” (p.5.1). English has no inflectional prefixes but some other languages have prefixes. Furthermore, Yadava (2004, p. 62) states that "inflectional morphemes are said to indicate the 'outer' or 'peripheral' layer of words, while derivational affixes mark the 'inner' layer of words".

1.1.6.1 Verbal Morphology

Verb is a major part of speech. Other parts of speech are nouns, adjectives, adverbs, articles, prepositions, pronouns and conjunctions. It refers to the words which occur as a part of the predicate of a sentence and transmit marks of categories. Such as tense, aspect, person, number and mood refer to an action or state. Verb plays the role of an obligatory ingredient in the sentence. Yule (1997, p. 88) says that “Verbs are words used to refer to various kinds of actions (run, jump) and states (be, seen) involving the 'things' in events”. Further, Aarts and Aarts (1986, p. 20) state, “verbs are typically associated with sentence function predicators”. Verbal morphology deals with the structural and functional aspects of the elements that work with the formation of verbs. Verbal affixes are the main factors to express tense and aspect systems to give different kinds of finite and non-finite shapes and other various types of morphological processes like negativization, causativisation and passivization. Morphologically and syntactically verbal affixes draw serious attention of the linguists. In English, verbs can be classified as main verbs and auxiliaries. The auxiliary verbs also can be divided into primary and secondary auxiliaries. The morphology of English verbs involves up to five distinctive forms, e.g. a simple form, an (-s) form, a past form, a present participle (-ing) form and a past participle (-en/ed) form.

In syntax, a verb is a word (part of speech) that usually denotes an action (bring, read) an occurrence (decompose, glitter), or a state of being (exist, stand). Depending upon the language, a verb may vary in form according to

many factors, possibly including its tense, aspect, mood and voice. It may also agree with the person, gender, and number of some of its arguments (subject, object, etc.). Examples of verbs include "to walk", "to run" and "to kill". Most languages have a number of verbal nouns that describe the action of the verb. In Indo-European languages, there are several kinds of verbal nouns, including gerunds and infinitives. English has gerunds, such as seeing, and infinitives such as to see; they both can function as nouns; seeing is believing is roughly equivalent in meaning with to see is to believe. These terms are sometimes applied to verbal nouns of non-Indo-European languages.

In the Indo-European languages, verbal adjectives are generally called participles. English has an active participle, also called a present participle; and a passive participle, also called a past participle. The active participle of 'play' is 'playing', and the passive participle is 'played'. The active participle describes nouns that perform the action given in the verb e.g. 'John was drawing a picture'. The passive participle describes nouns that have been object of the action of the verb, e.g. 'A picture was being drawn by John'.

Other languages have attributive verb forms with tense and aspect. This is especially common among verb-final language, where attributive verb phrases act as relative *clauses*. (Retrieved on 31, may, 2010 from www.en.wikipedia.org.)

In languages where the verb is inflected, it often agrees with its primary argument (what we tend to call the subject) in person, number and gender. English only shows distinctive agreement in the third person singular, present tense form of verbs (which is marked by adding '-s'), the rest of the persons are not distinguished in the verb. The contraction "there's," specifically referring to use with plural nouns, is a disputed, yet technically correct usage. (ibid).

1.1.6.2 Word Formation

Words are the asset of language. Word formation process is the process of generating new words. So, it refers to the productive nature of language. To quote Bauer (1993, p.7), “any discussion of word formation makes two assumptions, that there are such thing as words and that at least some of them are formed”. Word, as Richards et al. (1985, p. 311) say, is the smallest of the linguistic units, which can occur on its own in speech or in writing. According to Yule (1985, p. 64), word formation can take place by the following processes:

(i) Compounding

Compounding is a common type of word formation. In compounding, two or more words are joined together to form a totally new word. Compounding is very common in English and German language ‘... joining of two separate words to produce a single form is technically known as compounding’. (Yule, 1996, p. 63) For example,

Verb + Noun

Pick + pocket = pickpocket

Scare + crow = scarecrow

Noun + Noun

Book + case = bookcase

Wall + paper = wallpaper

Adjectives + Verbs

wide + spreade = widespread

easy + going = easygoing

(ii) Coinage

When new things are invented or developed, we need new words to label the invention or development. To fulfill such needs we create new words from

existing materials, this process is called coinage. The words 'wireless', 'television', 'hypermarket', etc. are some examples of words coined to represent new technological and economic inventions and developments. **(iii) Blending**

Blending is a process whereby two words are joined together by taking parts of both and joining the parts form into a new whole. For example, 'breakfast' and 'lunch' are joined to make 'brunch', 'motor' and 'hotel' to make 'motel' etc.

(iv) Borrowing

Words in a language are also borrowed from other languages. For example, the words 'ghee', 'chapatti', and 'dhoti' in English are taken from Hindi, whereas 'chocolate' and 'tomato' are taken from the Mexican language. Similarly, in Nepali the words 'bhakti', 'preeti', and 'ban' are taken from Sanskrit. Such types of words that are taken from one language to another are called borrowing.

(v) Clipping

The element of reduction is even more apparent in the process of clipping. This occurs when a word of more than one syllable is reduced to a shorter form, often in casual speech. (Yule, 1996, p. 45). It is a process of a word formation writing from a word in short form, but it does not change the meaning. For example, 'ad' for advertisement, 'flue' for influenza, 'lab' for laboratory etc.

(vi) Backformation

It is the process of word-formation using analogy to create new forms that already exist in the language. For example, seeing that the noun 'teacher' is formed from the verb 'teach' and the noun 'revision' is formed from the verb 'revise'. The users of English have created the verbs 'edit', 'gatecrash', 'globetrot' and 'televise' from the nouns 'editor', 'gatecrasher', 'globetrotter' and 'television' respectively.

(vii) Acronym

Acronym is a process whereby words are created out of the initial letters of words constituting the names of organizations, systems etc. For example, the word 'OPEC' is formed from 'Organization of Petroleum Exporting Countries', the word 'CALL' is formed from 'Computer Assisted Language Learning' etc. This word often consists of capital letter such as NATO, NASA, UNESCO, AIDS, and VAT etc.

(viii) Reduplication

Reduplication is a process in which two identical or only slightly different elements are combined to form a new word. The new words produced in this way are called reduplicated words or reduplicative. Some examples of reduplicated words are as goody-goody', 'walkie-talkie', 'tip-top' 'fulfil' etc.

(ix) Conversion

A change in the function of a word, as for example, when a noun comes to be used as a verb (without any reduction), is generally known as conversion (Yule, 1996, p. 54).

(x) Modification

It is a process whereby a change is made in the root or stem of a word to change its form, e.g. changing 'man' into 'men', 'goose' into 'geese', 'foot' into 'feet', etc. Thus, this process of word-formation produces new morphological words, but not new lexical words.

(xi) Affixation

It is one of the most productive and extremely common processes of word - formation. Complex words are typically made up of root of stem and one or more affixes. It is the morphological process whereby grammatical and lexical

information is added to a stem. According to Katamba (1993, p. 44), “an affix is a morpheme which only occurs when attached to some other morpheme or morphemes such as a root or stem or base”. So, affixes are bound morphemes. An affix is usually defined as an obligatory bound morph, which is not a root. No word may contain only an affix standing on its own. The term affixation then is used to describe both the process of adding affixes to form new word and the resultant state. Matthews (1997, p. 131) holds, “Process of affixation may be divided into predication, suffixation or infixation, depending upon the affix, whether it is added before the base, after it, or at some determined points within it”. By the same token, affix itself may be a prefix, a suffix, or an infix. In English the commonest processes are those of suffixation; they are involved in most lexical derivations and in most inflectional morphemes.

According to the front, back and medial positions of other their occurrences; there are three types of affixes viz. prefix, suffix and infix. When an affix is added to the front position of a stem/root/base it is called a prefix. If an affix attached to the final position of the stem/root/base, it is called suffix. When an affix is inserted within a root itself i.e. medial position, it is called an infix. According to Katamba (1993), an infix is an affix inserted into the root. Infixes are very common in Semitic languages like Arabic and Hebrew but infixing is somewhat rare in English (p. 44).

In some languages, complex affixation is also found. There are a number of cases where a single morpheme is realized simultaneously by more than one affix, frequently in such a way that the affixes are also discourteous. (Asher et al.,1945, p. 45).

A root is a form which is not further analyzable, either in terms of derivational or inflectional morphology. Bauer (1993, p. 20) makes it clear by saying that“it is that part of word from that remains when all inflectional and derivational affixes have been removed”. The stem is the part of the word form that is in existence before any inflectional affixes have been added (ibid). The

stem may contain more than one root. A stem can be analyzed in terms of inflectional affixes but it can not in many cases be analyzed in terms of derivational affixes. Similarly, a base is any form to which affixes of any kind can be added (ibid). All roots are bases but all bases are not roots. For example, economy is the base of economics and economics of economical.

1.2 Review of the Related Literature

There are many research works carried out on comparative study in different aspects of English and other languages under the department of English language education, T.U. Kirtipur and other departments as well. But no research work has yet been carried out on the affixation in the Khaling language. The available literatures related to the present study are as follows:

Bhandari (2002) has carried out entitled “Affixation in English and Nepali: A Comparative Study”. The study aimed at to examine the similarity and differences in affixation in the English and Nepali Languages. It was revealed that the same suffixes of the Nepali language form the new words of different word classes but that is not possible in English. Similarly, Chaudhary (2008) carried out a research entitled “Verbal Affixation in the Tharu and English languages: A Comparative Study”. The objectives of the study are to identify the verbal affixation and rules of verbal affixation in those languages. It was found that the Tharu has three tense marker i.e. present, Past and future tense marker suffixes whereas, English has only two viz. past and non past tense markers suffixes. Moreover, Thakur (2008) carried out a research on “Verbal Affixation in Maithili and English: A Comparative Study”. It was aimed to identify the rules of verbal affixation in the Maithili language and to find out similarities and differences that exist between them. The conclusion was that the English has only one person marker suffix and it marks the third person singular whereas Maithili has all person marker suffixes, i.e. first person, second person and third persons. He also found that both Maithili and English lack infixes and have no alternative progressive marker suffixes, too.

Next related study conducted by Rai (2010), a research on “Verbal Affixation in English and Bantawa: A Comparative Study”. He found that verbal prefixes /t -/, / -/, /ni-/, /m -/ etc. and suffixes /- /, /- a/, /-ni/, /-ka/, /-na/, /-u/, /-ci/, /-a/ etc in both the English and Bantawa languages.

In the same way, Tumbapo (2005) has conducted a research on “Verbal Affixation in English and Panthare dialect of Limbu: A Comparative Study”. This study shows that verbal affixes of pachtare dialect of Limbu are determined by inclusiveness and exclusiveness of first person, dual and plural pronouns as subject in a sentence whereas such type of system is not amiable in the English language. He finds that S-V agreement is determined by inflectional affixes not only with subject but with the objects also. The committed errors were due to overgeneralization, mother tongue interference and hypercorrection.

Another research is carried out by Ghising (2009) entitled “Verbal Affixation in English and Tamang: A Comparative Study”. This research aimed to compare and contrast English and Tamang verb morphology. The researcher found that Tamang uses the affixes such as /a-/, /-pa/, /-ba/, /-a/, /-mula/, /-pah/-ban/, /-gai/ etc. He also found that verbal affixation system of English is not complicated as that of Tamang.

Eventhough a researcher Suyeyoshi Toba has been carrying out the research since (1971), this literature has been so far reviewed to show that affixation in Khaling differs from his research. His study is holistic in nature, but this study is confined merely to the verbal affixation concerned with the Khaling and English languages. No research yet been carried out in related topic to the Khaling in the Department of English Education and the others.

1.3 Objectives of the Study

The main objectives of the present study were as follows:

- i. To identify the verbal affixes in the Khaling language.
- ii. To analyse the similarity and differences in verbal affixation in Khaling and the English language.
- iii. To provide pedagogical implications.

1.4 Significance of the Study

The Khaling Rai language is widely spoken in Solukhumbu district as a lingua franca between different Rai clans and non Rai as well. In Nepal, there has been made a constitutional provision for introducing all the mother tongues spoken in Nepal to develop curriculum, syllabuses, textbook and teach in mother tongue at primary level of education. In this context, this study will be helpful to all concerned people, students, teachers, text book writers, syllabus designers and other researchers who are interested in socio-linguistic aspects of the Khaling language. This research will be especially useful for English teachers who teach English as a foreign language at schools where students use Khaling as their mother tongue. Such as, the students of Basa, Kanku, Waku Juving VDCs of Solu. The knowledge of verbal affixation in Khaling will provide him/her an insight regarding how verbal affixation of English be taught effectively.

CHAPTER TWO

METHODOLOGY

The following methodology was adopted to accomplish the objectives of this study.

2.1 Sources of Data

The researcher collected both primary and secondary sources of data.

2.2.1 Primary Sources of Data

The native speakers of the Khaling language of Basa, Kanku and Waku VDCs of Solukhumbu district were the primary source from whom the required data were collected for the study.

2.1.2 Secondary Sources of Data

The researcher consulted many secondary sources to facilitate the research work. Such as different grammar books of English, Journals, research report and websites related to the topic. Some previous research books were Palmer (1965), Toba (1972), Toba & Ingrid (1973), Khaling & Khaling (1974), Quirk et al. (1985), Rai (1985), and Katamba (1993) etc.

2.2 Sampling Procedure

The total sample population of the study was 50 native speakers of the Khaling language residing in three VDCs of Solukhumbu district viz. Basa, Kanku and Waku. They were sampled through stratified random sampling procedure. For illiterate respondents, the researcher asked questions orally and recorded the responses.

2.3 Tools for Data Collection

The researcher used the questionnaire sheet as a tool for primary data collection from the selected native speakers of the Khaling language. The questionnaire (See Appendix-I) prepared in advanced was used in order to elicit the data for verbal affixation in the Khaling language.

2.4 Process of Data Collection

The researcher followed the following procedure to collect the primary data:

After preparing the questionnaire sheet, the researcher visited the selected VDCs that are Basa, Kanku and Waku of Solukhumbu district. He tried to establish rapport with the sampled population. After that, he explained the research objectives to sampled population and provided the sheets of structured questionnaires to those who were literate and asked them to translate English sentences into their mother tongue. He translated the English sentences into Nepali where needed. For the illiterate respondents, the researcher conducted oral interview and on the basis of which he recorded the responses in the questionnaire sheet.

2.5 Limitations of the Study

It is impossible to include a large area in this kind of research because of limited time and resources. The researcher was bounded to limit the study within the selected area. This study has the following limitations:

- i. This study was confined to the comparison and contrast between Khaling and English verbal affixation only.
- ii. This study included only 50 native speakers of Khaling from Basa, Kanku and Waku VDCs of Solukhumbu district.

- iii. Information regarding the verbal affixation of the English language was based on only secondary sources of data such as English grammar, books, articles, websites and the journals.
- iv. This study was merely concerned with the spoken language of Solukhumbu district.

CHAPTER THREE

ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION

This chapter consists of analysis, interpretations and illustrations of the data. Analysis has been carried out on the basis of the data analyzed. This chapter is further divided into the following headings.

3.1 Holistic Comparison of Verbal Affixes

3.2 Verbal Affixation in Khaling

3.3 Comparison Between English and Khaling Verbal Affixation

3.1. Holistic Comparison of Verbal Affixes

The table below reveals a holistic comparison of verbal affixes that are found in both the English and Khaling languages:

Table No – 1
Comparison of Verbal Affixes

Markers	English	Khaling
Person	-s	-I, -æ, - , (prefixes) -ce, -ne, -nu, - a (suffixes)
Number	-s	-ci
Tense	-ed (past) -s (non- past)	-tæ -
Progressive	-ing	-tong
Perfective	-ed (regular verb) -en (irregular verb)	-tæm -
Negative	-dis, -un, -mis, -de, -mal	-mu
Optative	-	-ne
Presumptive	-	-he
Infinitive	-	-ne
Imperative	-	-ye, -siye, -nuye

As regards the data in the above table, the English language has a Person marker suffix **-s** which indicates the third Person singular but the Khaling has all Persons marker prefixes as **-I**, **-æ**, **-** and suffixes as **-ne**, **-ce**, **-nu**, and **- a**. Similarly, the English language has also a Number marker suffix **-s** to indicate third person Singular number and the Khaling also has a number marker suffix **-ci** to indicate first person plural. In English, two suffixes **-ed** and **-s** mark tense. The suffix **-ed** indicates the past tense and **-s** non - past. Similarly, the suffix **-tæ** indicates the past tense in the Khaling language. The suffix **-ing** marks progressive aspect in the English language and the suffix **-tong** marks progressive in the Khaling. In English, the suffixes **-ed** and **-en** denote the perfective aspect. The suffix **-ed** occurs with regular verb and **-en** with irregular verb. In Khaling, the suffix **-tæm** denotes the perfective aspect. The suffixes **-dis**, **-un**, **-mis** and **-mal** indicate the negation in English but only a suffix **-mu** marks the negation in the Khaling.

The English language has not any Mood marker affixes. On the other hand, Khaling has three suffixes as a Mood marker: **-ne** as optative, **-he** as presumptive and **-ye**, **-siye** and **-nuye** as imperative mood markers. The English does not have any infinitive marker verbal affixes but the khaling has a suffix **-ne** as a infinitive indicator.

3.2 Verbal Affixation in the Khaling

Verbal affixes are categorized into person markers, number markers, tense markers, negative markers, progressive markers, optative markers, presumptive markers, imperative markers, and infinitive markers. Each of them are illustrated below.

3.2.1 The Person Marker Affixes

The person marker affixes are divided into the following two types: the person marker prefixes and person marker suffixes.

3.2.1.1 The Person Marker Prefixes

There are three person marker prefixes related to the Khaling. They are /-I/, /-æ/ and /- / each of them are presented with examples below:

(i) /- / is a person marker prefix in the Khaling language which is added to the verbs to indicate second person subject or agent in all forms, i. e. singular, dual and plural. Some examples for each of them are presented below:

/In – I - cem - si /
II - sg - ERG - play
You play.

/echya - I - cem - si /
II - dl - ERG - play
You play.

/enya - u - I - jyo - ni/
II - pl - ERG - eat - pl
you eat rice.

(II) /-æ/ is another person marker prefix in the Khaling language. It is added to the verbs to indicate agent in all forms, i.e.singular, dual and plural. For example,

/Ici - æ - rek - tæ/
I - pl - ERG - write - PST
We wrote.

/echya - æ - luwap - tong - munu/

II - pl - II - take - PROG

we are taking.

/ mhæm - æ - bi-tæ/

III - pl - ERG - give - PST

They gave.

- (III) /- / is the another person marker prefix in the Khaling language. It is added into the verb to refer to the third person singular, plural and second person past tense marker in negative interrogative form. For example,

/ mhæm - - khan - num o ?/

III - pl - NEG - go - INTER

don't they go ?

/In - rek - tæm o ?/

II - sg - NEG - write - INTER

Don't you write ?

/ m - - kæ - næ ?/

III - sg - NEG - dig

don't he dig ?

3.2.1.2 The Person Marker Suffixes

- (a) /-**Ne**/ is the person marker suffix that is added to the verb to indicate the second person dual inclusive. For example,

/ echya - m - si - ne /

II - dl - sleep

we sleep.

/- ne/ as 2nd person - dl

inclusive marker

- (b) /- **a**/ is the person marker suffix, added to the verb to indicate the first person non - past singular. For example,

/ung - bi - a /

I - sg - give

I give.

- (c) /-**ce**/ is the another person marker suffix that is added to the verb to indicate the second person singular non - past tense marker. For example,

/In - khu - ce /

II - sg - go

You go.

- (d) /-**nu**/ is the third person plural marker suffix that is added to the verb to denote the third person participants. For example,

/ mhæm cem - nu /

III - pl - play

They play.

3.2.2 The Number Marker Affixes

There are no number marker prefixes and infixes in the Khaling language.

Therefore, only a number marker suffix /-ci/ is discussed below:

- (a) /-ci/ is the number marker suffix. It is added to the verbs to mark first person plural inclusive. For example,

/Ici - khu - ci /

I - pl - go - incl

We go

3.2.3 The Tense Marker Affixes

Tense can be categorized into two types in the Khaling language. They are past tense and non-past tense. There are not non-past tense marker affixes in Khaling. Therefore, the Khaling language has only the past tense marker affix.

3.2.3.1 Past Tense Marker Affixes

There are no past tense marker prefixes and infixes in khaling language. It has only the past tense marker suffix /-tæ/. It is added to the verbs to mark the first person singular, third person singular and plural which appears on both transitive and intransitive verbs. For example,

- (I) **In transitive form.**

/Ung - b zar - I - khos - tæ - nu /

I - sg - market - take - PST - I

They took me to market.

/ mhæm - res - tæ - nu/

III - pl - laugh - PST

They laughed.

/ m - k m - kho s - tæ /

III - sg - go - PST

She went to home.

(II) In intransitive form

/k m - hos - tæ /

House collapse - PST

The house collapsed.

/ k^hle - huk - tæ/

Dog - bark - PST

The dog barked.

/nuwam - hem - tæ /

Sun - set - PST

The sun set.

/ mhæm - k^hos - tæ/

III - pl - go - PST

They went.

/ m - gol - cem - si - tæ /

III - sg - volleyball - play - PST

She played volleyball.

3.2.3.2 The Progressive Marker Affixes

The progressive aspects denotes the progress or continuation of an action. No any prefix and infix forms the progressive in the Khaling language. Only a suffix **/-tong/** occurs as a progressive marker in the Khaling according to the context in both non-past and past tense progressive. The suffix occurs after **/I/** vowel sound. For example,

(I) **/-tong / as Non - Past Progressive Marker**

/In - k m - k^hu - ai - tong /

II - sg - home - go - PROG

You are going to home.

/ok - k m - k^hu - ai - tong /

I - pl - home go - PROG

We are going to home.

/ mhæm - gol - cem - si - tong /

III - pl - volleyball play - PROG

They are plying volleyball.

/ung - ciya - tung - tong/

I - sg - tea drink - PROG

I'm drinking tea.

/ m - k m k^hu - ai - tong /

III - sg - home go - PROG

He\She is going to home.

(II) /-tong / as Past Progressive Marker

/ m æ - bra - sapham rek - tong mot - tæ/

III - sg - ERG - letter write - PROG - PST

He\ She was writing a letter.

/ mhæm æ bra sapham rek - tong motæ - nu/

III - pl - ERG letter - write PROG III - PST

They were writing a letter.

/Ung - rek - tong - mu - nga/

I - sg - write - PROG - PST

I was writing.

3.2.3.3 The Perfective Marker Affixes

In the Khaling language there is no perfective verbal prefixes and infixes. The native speaker of Khaling uses /-tæm/ suffix as a perfective marker. For example,

/ung - æ bra - sapham rek - tæm - go/

I - sg - ERG - letter write - PERF

I have written a letter.

/ chya - - r m - v k - tæm/

II - dl ERG - salt - put on - PERF

You have put on salt.

/ mhæm - æ - læ - - si - ju - tæm/

III - pl - ERG - banana eat - PERF

They have eaten banana.

3.2.4 The Negative Marker Affixes

In the Khaling language there are no negative marker suffixes and infixes. Only one negative marker prefix **/-mu/** is used to mark negation in the Khaling language which is added to the verbs to indicate both non-past negative marker prefix and past tense marker prefix as well. For example,

(I) **/-mu/ as a Non - Past Negative Marker Prefix**

/Ung - mu - ja - a /

I - NEG - eat

I don't eat.

/Ik - mu - cem - si -ki/

II - pl - NGT - play

We don't play.

/In - mu - sen -de /

II - sg - NGT - see

You don't see.

/ m - æ - In - mu ma - ræp /

III - sg - ERG - II - NGT - beat

He doesn't beat you.

/ mhæm - mu - ki - næ/

III - pl - NGT - quarrel

They don't quarrel.

(I) /-mu/ as Past Tense Negative Marker Prefix

For example,

/Ung - mu - ju - tæ /

I - sg - NGT- eat - PST

I did not eat.

/Ik mu chhu - wam - wak-tæ /

I - pl - NGT - dance - PST

We didn't dance.

/In - mu - rek - tæ/

II - sg - pl – NGT – write - PST

You didn't write.

/ m - æ - In - mu - ræp - tæ/

III - sg - ERG – NGT - beat - PST

He/She did not beat you.

/ mhæm - mu - ju - tæ/

III - pl - NGT- eat PST

They did not eat.

3.2.5 The Gender Marker Affixes

Being a pronominalized language, the verb forms are marked by the pronominal affixes. The Khaling language does not make the gender distinction. The gender in the Khaling language plays no role in verbal agreement as in other Kiranti languages. In other words, there are no verbal affixes to indicate masculine, feminine and neuter gender in Khaling. For example,

/non - m - tæ - si/

III - sg - sleep - PST

Aunty slept.

/ Phong - m - tæ - si /

III - sg - sleep - PST

Uncle slept.

/ K^hle - huk - tæ /

III - sg - bark - PST

The dog barked.

3.2.6 The Mood Marker Affixes

The Khaling language has three types of mood marker affixes in terms of verbal affixes; they are optative, presumptive and imperative mood markers and are presented bellow:

(I) Optative Mood Marker Affixes

/- ne/ is the optative mood marker suffix. It is added to the verb to refer to optative / hortative mood. For example,

/Ici - pheri - cem - si - ne/

I - pl - again - play - OPT

Let's play again.

/ung - t k - g hri - jen - ne/

I - sg - for a while - read - OPT

Let me read for a while.

(II) Presumptive Mood Marker Affixes

This mood denotes expectation or presumption of an event / – **he**/ is the presumptive mood marker which is added to the verb just after pronominal marker, tense or aspect suffixes. For example,

/Ung - pi - a - he /

I - sg - come - PREM

I may come.

/ mhæm - I - rek - tong - he/

III - pl - ERG - write - PROG - PREM

They may be writing.

(II) Imperative Mood Marker Affixes

This mood denotes the command, advice to the other. There is no any prefixes and infixes to denote impreative mood in Khaling. But there are three imperative mood marker suffixes in Khaling. They are; /-**ye**/, /-**siye**/, and /-**nuye**/. First one occurs with the second person singular, second occurs with dual and third with plural respectively. For example,

/-**ye**/ is the imperative mood marker suffix which is added to the verb to denote imperative state. For example,

/I - wa - cem - si - ye/

III - sg - play - IMPR

Play the brother.

/pi - ye/

II - sg - come - IMPR

come in.

/bi - ye/

II - sg - give - IMPR

give him/her.

/ chya - mu - cem - siye/

II - dl – NGT - play - IMPR

you don't play.

/ok - kho - s - nuye/

I - pl - go - IMPR

we go.

3.2.7 The Infinitive Mood Marker Affixes

The infinitive is formed by adding suffix **/-ne/**. -ne makes the infinitive form of the verb. For example,

/jo - ne - mu - ni - u/

Eat - INF - NEG - good

To eat is not good.

3.3 Comparison Between English and Khaling Verbal Affixations

The comparison of the both English and Khaling verbal affixes are given below:

3.3.1 The Person Marker Affixes

In English, there are no person marker prefixes and infixes. It has merely one person marker suffix i.e. **-s**. The suffix **-s** is added to the verbs to indicate the third person singular present tense. As Katamba said, this suffix works as a portmanteau morph. It has various allomorphs and occurs in distinct way. They are illustrated below:

- 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 consonants other than sibilant to form the third person singular. For example,
He eatss.
Hima walkss.
- ii. /-z/ is the allomorph of the morpheme **-s** which is added to the verbs where the final element of the verbs are voiced segments other than sibilants to form the third person singular. For example,
He lovess her.
Sita readss a novel.
- iii. /-iz/ is also the allomorph of the morpheme **-s** which is added to the verbs where the final element of the verbs sibilant or, palatal sounds to form the third person singular. For example,
Dolma washes her clothes
He rushes into the room.

But the Khaling language has all person marker affixes i.e. First person, second and third person markers. It has both person marker prefixes and suffixes.

The person marker prefixes

/-I/ Second person subject or agent.

/-æ/ all person marker prefix.

/- / negative interrogative marker prefix.

The person marker suffixes

/-ne/ second person dual inclusive marker.

/- a/ first person singular non - past tense marker.

/-ce/second person singular non - past tense marker.

/-nu/ Third person plural participant marker

3.3.2 The Number Marker Affixes

English has only one number marker suffix. i.e. **-s**. It is added to indicate the third person singular number. It has various allomorphs, and the occurrence of one allomorph differs from the occurrence of another.

- i. **/-s/** is the allomorph of the morpheme **-s** which is added to the verbs ending in voiceless sounds but not in sibilant from the third person singular number. For example,

He talks much

The car stops here

- ii. **/-z/** is allomorph of the morpheme **-s** which is added to the verbs ending in voiced sounds but not in sibilant or palatal to make the third person singular number. For example,

She brings milk.

He loves his dog.

- iii. /-iz/ is the allomorph of the morpheme -s and it is attached to the verbs ending in sibilant or palatal sounds to form the third person singular number. For examples,
Heema watches T.V.
He kisses her.

The Khaling language also has the following one number marker suffix.

- a. /-ci/ to indicate first person plural inclusive marker.

For example,

/Ici - K^hu - ci/

I - pl - go - pl - incl

We go.

3.3.3 The Tense Marker Affixes

In English, there are not any prefixes and infixes to mark tense. It has mainly two types of the tense marker suffixes viz. past tense marker suffix and non-past tense marker suffix. They are as follows:

(I) The Past Tense Marker Suffix

/-ed/ is the past tense marker suffix in English which is added to the regular verbs to mark all person and number in the past tense. It has different allomorphs and the occurrence of one morph differs from the occurrence of another. Regarding this point, Katamba (1993) states that "The past tense marker of regular verbs in English which is spelled **ed** is realized in speech by /id/, /d/, or /t/. The phonological properties of the last segment of the verb to which is attached to determine the choice" (p. 25). The /t/, /d/ and /id/ are the allomorphs stand for a single morpheme, viz. the past morpheme with regular English verbs. They are as follows:

- (i) [-t] is the past tense marker suffix in English which is attached to the regular verbs after ending in any voiceless consonant except /t/ to form past tense. For example, He misseded the bus.
- (ii) [-d] is the past tense marker suffix which occurs after a verb ending in any voiced sounds except /d/ to form the past tense. For example, Rita cleaneded the room.
- (iii) [-id] is the past tense marker suffix in English which is attached to the verbs if the verbs end in /t/ or /d/ to form the past tense. For example, pasang painteded the house.

In the Khaling language there are no past tense marker prefixes and infixes. But it has only one past tense marker suffix /-tæ/. This appears on both transitive and intransitive verbs. For example,

/ mhœm - K^hos - æ/

III - pl - go - PST

They went.

/In - gol - cem - si - tæ/

II - sg - volleyball - play - PST

You played volleyball.

/Ung - K^hos - tæ/

I - sg - go - PST

I went.

(II) The Non - Past Tense Marker Suffix

In English, -s is the non-past tense marker suffix which is attached to mark the third person singular non-past tense. It has various allomorphs and the

occurrence of one allomorph differs from the occurrence of other. Supporting this point, Quirk (1976) states, that “The -s form is also predictable from the base. It has three spoken realization they are /ɪz/, /z/ and /s/ and two spellings -s and -es”.

- (i) The suffix is pronounced as [-ɪz] after verbs ending in voiced or voiceless (p.28). Sibilants and spelled -es unless the verb already ends in -e.

For example, Mina rushes into the room.

- (ii) [-z] is the allomorph of the morpheme -s which is added to the verbs ending in voiced sounds other than sibilants to form the third person singular of the non-past tense. For example, She brings water.

- (iii) [-s] is the allomorph of the morpheme -s which is added to the verbs where the final element of the verb is voiceless and not sibilant to form the third person singular of the non-past tense. For example, He runs quickly.

But the Khaling language has not non-past tense marker affixes. It has only a past tense marker suffix -tæ which appears on both transitive and intransitive verbs.

3.3.4 The Progressive Marker Affixes

In English, there is only one progressive marker suffix i.e. /- **ing** /. It is added immediately after the verbs to mark progressive aspect. For example,

He is writing a novel.

They were playing football.

Regarding the progressive marker, the Khaling language also has only one progressive marker suffixes i.e /- **tong**/. It occurs according to the context for past and non - past progressive marker. For example,

I) /-tong/ as Non - Past progressive Marker

/In - k m - k^hu - ai - tong /

II - sg - go - home - go - PROG

you are going to home.

/ Ung - ciya - tung - tong/

I - sg - tea - drink - PROG

I am drinking tea.

/ mhæm - gol - cem - si - tong/

III - pl - volleyball - play - PROG

They are playing volleyball.

m - k m - k^huai - tong

III - sg - home - go - PROG

He/she is going to home.

/Ik - k m k^hu - ai - tong /

I - pl - home - go - PROG

We are going to home.

(III) /-tong/ as a Past Progressive Marker

/ m æ - bra - sapham - rek - tong - mot - tæ/

III - sg - ERG - letter write - PROG - PST

He/she was writing a letter.

/ mhœm œ - bra sap^ham - rek - tong mot - nu/

III - plERG - letter write - PROG - PST

They were writing a letter.

/Ung - rek - tong - mu - nga/

I - sg - write - PROG - PST

I was writing.

3.3.5 The Perfective Marker Affixes

The English language has only perfective suffixes. In regular verbs, **/-ed/** is the perfective marker suffix which is added to verb to mark all the persons and numbers for both past and non-past tenses. It has various allomorphs and their occurrences differ from one to another. They are given below:

i. **[-t]** after voiceless consonant that is not **/-t/**. For example,

The dog **barked**.

She has **parked** the car.

ii. **[-d]** after a verb ending in any voiced sound except **/-d/**. For example,

He had been **killed**.

iii. **[-ed]** is attached to the regular verbs if the verb end in **/- t/** and **/ -d/** sound. For example, He has **guided** for my thesis writing.

Similarly, in irregular verbs **/-en/** is the perfective marker suffix in English which is added to the verb to indicate all persons and numbers in both non-past and past tense. For example,

Mango has **eaten**

They had **broken** the window

To denote perfective in khaling languages **/- tæm/** suffix is in use.

/ mhæm - u - ju - tæm/

III - pl - rice eat - PST - PERF

They have eatean rice.

/Ung - r m - v k - tæm /

I - sg - salt put on - PST - PRf

I have put on salt.

3.3.6 The Negative Marker Affixes

English has not negative maker suffixes and infixes. So, only the negative marker prefixes are discussed below:

(a) Negative Marker Prefixes

Negative marker prefixes are added to the verbs irrespective of the inflectional suffixes attached to the verbs irrespective of person, number and tense. For example,

- (i) **dis-** is the negative marker prefix in English Which means 'not' or 'reversive'. For example, The committee **dis**approved the proposal.
- (ii) **un-** is the negative marker prefix in English which means 'reversive'. For example, Madan **un**locked the door.
- (iii) **mis-** is the negative marker prefix which means 'badly' or 'wrongly'. For example, He **mis**placed the pen.
- (iv) **Mal-** is also a negative marker prefix in English which means 'bad' or 'badly' or, 'not correctly'. For example, They **mal**treat the visitors.

The Khaling language has only one negative indicator prefix **/-mu/**. It has not negative marker suffixes and infixes at all. For example,

(I) **/-mu/ as Negative Non – Past Tense Marker**

/Ung - mu - Ja - nga/

I – sg-NEG - eat

I don't eat.

/ mhœm - mu - ki - næ/
III - pl - NEG - quarrel
They don't quarrel .

/In - mu - sen - de/
II -sg- NEG - see
You don't see.

(II) /-mu/ as Past Tense Negative Marker

/ Ung - mu - Ju - tæ/
I - NEG - eat - PST
I did not eat.

/In - mu - rek - tu /
II - pl- NEG - write - PST
You didn't write.

/ mhœm - mu - Ju - tæ /
III - pl- NEG - eat - PST
They did not eat.

/ m æ - in - mu - ræp - tæ/
III - sg - ERG - II - sg - NEG - beat - PST
He/She didn't beat you.

/Ik - mu - chhu - wam - wak./

We - NEG - dance - PST

We didn't dance.

3.3.7 The Mood Marker Affixes

The English language has not any mood marker verbal affixes, on the other hand, Khaling has the following three mood markers:

/-ne/ is the optative or hortative mood marker suffix. For example,

/Ici - pheri - cem - si - ne /

I - pl - again - play - OPT

Let's play again.

/-he/ is the presumptive mood marker suffix. For example,

/Ung - pi - a - he /

I - sg - Come - PREM

I may come.

/ mhæm - I - rek - tong - he/

III - pl - write - PROG - PREM

They may be writing.

/-ye/ is the imperative mood marker suffix. For example,

/I - wa - cem - si - ye/

III - sg - play - IMPR

Play the brother.

/ chya - mu - cem - siye /
II - dl - NGT- play - IMPR
you don't play.

/ok - kho - s - nuye /
II - pl - go - IMPR
we go.

3.3.8 The Infinitive Marker Affixes

The English language has not any infinitive marker verbal affixes. On the other hand, in the Khaling language, */-ne/* realizes the infinitive marker suffix. which is added to the verbs and never inflected for person. For example,

/Jo - ne - muni - u /
eat - INF- NGT - good
To eat is not good.

English has three kinds of verbs, main verbs, main verbs (eat, sleep) modal verbs (can, will), and primary verbs (be, have). But this study was concerned with the main verbs only, because main verbs are inflectional endings. Among these main verbs, this study mainly focused on the affixation system of regular verbs. These are significant because they productive as well. While analyzing the affixation system of Khaling, only regular verb forms were taken into consideration in this study.

CHAPTER FOUR

FINDINGS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This chapter describes the major findings of the research. It also deals with some recommendations and pedagogical implications which are made on the basis of analysis and interpretation of the data.

4.1 Findings

On the basis of the analysis and interpretation of the data, the major findings of the study have been presented. The findings are presented below and are organized in response to the objectives set for the study.

4.1.1 Verbal Affixes of the Khaling Language

The first objective of the study was to identify the verbal affixes in Khaling language. So, the verbal affixes of the Khaling language are as follows:

4.1.1.1 Verbal Prefixes

- a. **/-I/** is the second person marker prefix as subject or agent in all forms i.e. singular, dual and plural.
- b. **/-æ/** is the person agent marker prefix (i.e. all person) in marked configuration.
- c. **/-mu/** is the negative marker past and non - past tense prefix
- d. **/- /** is the negative interrogative marker prefix.

4.1.1.2 Verbal Suffixes

- a. **/- a/** is the first person singular non - past marker suffix.
- b. **/-ci/** is the first person plural inclusive marker suffix.
- c. **/-ne/** is the second person dual inclusive marker suffix.
- d. **/-nu/** is the third person plural participants marker suffix.
- e. **/-tæm/** is the present perfective marker suffix.

- f. /-tæ/ is the past tense marker suffix.
- g. /-tong/ is the non - past and past progressive marker suffix.
- h. /-ne/ is the optative mood marker suffix.
- i. /-he/ is the presumptive mood marker suffix.
- j. /-ye/ is the second person singular imperative mood marker suffix.
- k. /-siye/ is the second persons dual imperative mood marker.
- l. /-nuye/ is the second person plural imperative marker.
- m. /-ne/ is the initiative marker suffix.

4.1.2 Verbal Affixation in Khaling and English

- (i) Both the Khaling and English languages lack infixation system.
- (ii) English has negative marker prefixes in greater number than Khaling.
- (iii) English has one number marker suffix i.e. -s. It refers to the third person singular. Similarly, the Khaling language also one number marker suffix i.e. -ci. It refers to the first person plural inclusive.
- (iv) The Khaling has imperative, optative and presumptive and infinitive mood marker suffixes but English has no such kind of affixes.
- (v) Khaling has infinitive marker suffix where as it lacks in English. In Khaling -ne is added after a verb root to achieve the infinitive form of the verb.
- (vi) Both English and Khaling have single verb progressive marker suffix viz. -tong for khaling and -ing for English.
- (vii) Both English and Khaling have two types of tenses, English has both non-past -s and past tense marker ed suffixes. Whereas, Khaling has only one past tense marker suffix -tæ.
- (viii) Verbal affixes of the Khaling languages also determined by inclusiveness and exclusiveness of the pronouns as a

subject in a sentence. But, such system is not available in English.

4.2 RECOMMENDATIONS

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

- a. The verbal affixation system in Khaling is more different than that of English. Therefore, teaching should be focused on the area of differences.
- b. The complexity of Khaling verbal affixation system should be considered while teaching English verbal affixation system to Khaling native speakers. Because Khaling has more number of verbal affixes and more complex than those of English.
- c. The findings of the present study are significant for grammarians who will write Khaling grammar and who have been interested in Khaling verb affixation.
- d. The affixation is one of the major processes of word formation in both English and Khaling as a foreign or second language learning. So it should be encouraged the students to increase the vocabulary power through affixation process.
- e. Verbal affixation system of English is not complicated as Khaling. So, the Khaling native speakers are to be made aware of this fact by providing enough examples of English verbs to which the verbal affixes are added.
- f. The verbal affixes added to the verbs depend upon the person and number of the object of sentences in Khaling. But verbal affixation mainly depends upon the person and number of the subject of a sentence in English. Therefore, the teacher while teaching English to the Khaling speakers should be made aware of this fact.
- g. Inclusiveness and exclusiveness in pronouns as a subject influence the verbal affixation system in the Khaling language. Such system is not

amiable in English or Khaling should be made aware of this fact to the learners.

- h. Linguistic survey must be conducted to determine the exact number and status of the Khaling language.
- i. The Khaling language is endangered language. That is why, it should be documented and described.

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APPENDIX-I
INTERVIEW SCHEDULE/QUESTIONNAIRE

Dear Respondents,

This interview schedule/questionnaire has been prepared as an aid to my research work entitled "Verbal Affixation in English and Khaling". A Comparative Study. It is hoped that your kind co-operation will be a great contribution in the accomplishment of this valuable research.

Researcher
Devi Raj Khaling
T.U, Kirtipur,
Kathmandu

Name:-

Address:-

(How do you say the following expressions in Khaling Language)

1. I eat rice.
.....
2. We^{dl} eat rice.
.....
3. We^{pl} eat rice.
.....
4. You^{sg} eat rice.
.....
5. You^{pl} eat rice
.....
6. You play
.....
7. I give
.....

8. you go
.....
9. we go
.....
- 10 we sleep
.....
11. He eats rice.
.....
12. She eats rice.
.....
13. They eat rice.
.....
14. The man is coming.
.....
15. Men are coming.
.....
16. prava and Pasang are fighting.
.....
17. They are speaking
.....
18. We^{dl} are taking.
.....
19. Shanti is going to home.
.....
20. He is going to home.
.....
21. You are going to home.
.....
22. We are going to home.
.....
23. They are going to home.

.....
24. He has written a letter.

.....
25. She has written a letter.

.....
26. It has written a letter.

.....
27. You^{dl} have written a letter.

.....
28. You^{pl} have written a letter.

.....
29. We have written a letter.

.....
30. They have written a letter.

.....
31. Hema has been playing chess.

.....
32. You have been playing.

.....
33. We have been playing.

.....
34. They have been playing.

.....
35. we wrote

.....
36. I satisfied.

.....
37. Aunty slept

.....
38. Uncle slept.

39. The dog barked.
.....
40. The house collapsed.
.....
41. Sun set
.....
42. They took me to market.
.....
43. .He/She played volleyball.
.....
44. I Laughed.
.....
45. Pasang went to home.
.....
46. She went to home.
.....
47. They went to home.
.....
48. He went to graze the cow.
.....
49. I went to play.
.....
50. Neha went to read a book.
.....
51. Pemba was killing a snake
.....
52. He was writing a letter.
.....
53. You were writing a letter.
.....

54. They were writing a letter.
.....
55. I had eaten rice.
.....
56. He had eaten rice.
.....
56. She had eaten rice.
.....
57. You had eaten rice.
.....
58. We had eaten rice.
.....
59. They had eaten rice.
.....
60. Dorje had beaten Dolma.
.....
61. She had been doing homework.
.....
62. You had been doing homework.
.....
63. We had been doing homework.
.....
64. They had been doing homework.
.....
65. Gita will come from Kathmandu.
.....
66. I will come.
.....
67. He will come.
.....

68. We will come.
.....
69. He will be coming.
.....
70. You will be coming.
.....
71. We will be coming.
.....
72. They will be coming.
.....
73. I live in Solu shalleri.
.....
74. I live in Solu with my friends.
.....
75. There is a book.
.....
76. There are two books.
.....
77. He went home. (Unknown past)
.....
78. Buddha beat Shanker. (Unknown past)
.....
79. She brought a book.
.....
80. He brought a book.
.....
81. Buffalo ate paddy. (Unknown past)
.....
82. Goat eats grass.
.....

83. The cows eat grass.
.....
84. The sun rises in the east.
.....
85. There is a house.
.....
86. There is my house.
.....
87. Smiriti gave a book to Sita.
.....
88. They gave a book to me.
.....
89. They gave a book to him.
.....
90. He gave a book to you.
.....
91. They are good.
.....
92. They are not good.
.....
93. They are bad.
.....
94. Suddenly accident occur.
.....
95. Our schools' name is Himalayan Higher Secondary School.
.....
96. Chiring Sherpa speaks Khaling.
.....
97. Chiring Sherpa does not speak Khaling.
.....

98. He does not beat you.
.....
99. She didn't beat you.
.....
100. I didn't eat.
.....
101. You didn't dance.
.....
102. You didn't write.
.....
103. They didn't eat.
.....
104. We don't beat you.
.....
105. They don't quarrel.
.....
106. we don't dance.
.....
107. Don't they go ?
.....
108. Don't we dig ?
.....
109. Don't you write ?
.....
110. We didn't dance.
.....
111. They don't sing a song.
.....
112. Don't smoke.
.....

113. Don't open the door.
.....
114. We did not beat you.
.....
115. He won't play.
.....
116. She won't play.
.....
117. We won't play.
.....
118. You have to answer me.
.....
119. You must give me a book.
.....
120. They won't play.
.....
121. Where have they gone?
.....
122. Neither of them was slept.
.....
123. Nice to meet you.
.....
124. Do you Prefer Bhume dance?
.....
125. Let's go home.
.....
126. Look here.
.....
127. Does the boy speak English ?
.....

128. Who is she ?
.....
129. I became very happy listening your message.
.....
130. My grand father drinks wine and ale much.
.....
131. Let's play again.
.....
132. Let me read for a while.
.....
133. They may be writing.
.....
134. He is due to go.
.....
135. To eat is not good.
.....

Thank you for your kind co-operation

Appendix - II

Khaling Kindship Terms

Kinship terms constitutes an important part of khaling culture. The following list contains kinship terms which are in actual use today.

khaling	English
kup - po - cu	Great grandfather
kup - po - pip	Great grandmother
cu	Grandfather
pip	Grand mother
pop	father
mom	mother
charme	father - in - law
phong	mother - in - law
ke	uncle
phong- del-cu-	mother's brother
nin	father's sister husbandinin
non	father sister
wa:	fataher's younger brother wife
del - cu	father elder brother's wife
dwl - me	older brother or sister
tong - diu	brother - in - law
tome	sister - in - law
yump	wife's younger brother
re	wife's younger sister
reme	brother in - law
nume	brother ni - law , sister in - law
dumbu	sister - in law
mey	husband's younger sister, nephew's wife
rem - mo	husband
hep - po	wife
hel - mo	- co - wife
yos	father of son - in - law - or daughter - in
cos	- law
cos - mos	
cos no - me -	mother of son - in - law or daughter in

yoyo	law newpew grand child grand daughter's husband grand so's wife great - grand child wife.
------	--