

A SEMANTIC ANALYSIS ON ENGLISH AND KHAWAS ACTION VERBS

**A Thesis Submitted to the Department of English Education
Sukuna Multiple Campus, Koshiharaincha, Morang
In Partial Fulfillment of the Master of Education in English**

Submitted by

KulbirKhawas

T.U. Regd. No.:33380-95

Second Year Exam Roll No.: 2140204

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Faculty of Education

Tribhuvan University

Kirtipur, Kathmandu, Nepal

2016

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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 degree to any university.

Date: 6th Apr 2016

KulbirKhawas

RECOMMENDATION FOR ACCEPTANCE

This is to certify that **Mr Kulbir Khawas** has worked and completed this thesis entitled “**A Semantic Analysis on English and Khawas Action Verbs**” under my guidance and supervision.

I recommend this thesis for acceptance.

Date: 6th Apr 2016

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RECOMMENDATION FOR EVALUATION

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ABSTRACT

The present study entitled "A Semantic Analysis on English and Khawas Action Verbs" has been carried out in order to find out the similarities and differences between English and Khawas action verbs. The study also suggests some pedagogical implications which will be useful while teaching the action verbs of English to the Khawas speaking students and vice-versa. The researcher used both primary and secondary data to complete the study. The native speakers of Khawas language in Koshiharaincha municipality and Dangihat, Dangraha and Tankisinuwari VDCs of Morang district were the primary sources of data and different books, journals, magazines were the secondary sources of data. The researcher used the judgmental sampling procedure to sample the population. The sample population was 50 native speakers of Khawas language. A set of questionnaire was given to the sample population to write the equivalent Khawas action verbs the English action verbs. After collecting the responses the verbs were tabulated and compared. Again, the detailed analysis of the native speakers' response was made and findings and conclusion were accordingly presented. The analysis and interpretation of the data has been done descriptively.

The major finding of this study is the Khawas action verb *khyā*(eat) has a very extensive range of meaning in English which is used to refer to taking all solid, liquid and sometimes even gas forms of the food, drinks , air or smoke.

This report consists of five chapters .Chapter one deals with the background of the study, statement of the problem, objectives of the study, significance of the study, delimitations of the study and operational definition of the key terms. Chapter two consists of review of theoretical literature, review of empirical literature, implications of the review for the study and conceptual frame work. Chapter three consists of the design and method of the study, population, sample and sampling strategy, data collection tools and techniques and data collection procedures. Chapter four deals with the analysis of data, interpretation of the results and summary of findings. Chapter five is about the

conclusions and recommendations made on the basis of the findings of the study. Besides main chapter, the supportive materials such as references, questionnaire, tables, charts, etc. that are used during the research are presented in the appendices of the thesis.

DEDICATION

This work is carried out with sincere dedication to my parents who made earnest effort to educate me at their best percept.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

AD	=	Anno Domini
CA	=	Contrastive Analysis
ESLN	=	English Speakers Learning Nepali
etc.	=	et cetera (for example)
i.e.	=	id est (that is)
L ₁	=	Khawas (First language)
L ₂	=	English (Second language)
LAD	=	Language Acquisition language
NSLE	=	Nepali Speakers Learning English
P.	=	Page
SLA	=	Second Language Acquisition
TL	=	Target Language
UK	=	United Kingdom
USA	=	United States of America
VDC	=	Village Development Committee

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 General Background

It is considered that human beings have inborn and inherited capacity of language. This particular mechanism is called Language Acquisition Device (LAD). Although we have the inborn and inherited mechanism (LAD), language is not inherited but acquired, it is not inborn but learned. It is because if a baby of Nepali speaking couple is given to English speaking couple and is grown up in the English linguistic environment, then the baby acquires English language and vice-versa. Hence, language is possessed through exposure. In other words, it is not gene but the exposure of language that enables us to acquire a particular language. In this sense, the capacity to acquire language is genetically transmitted, but the language itself is transmitted culturally.

Language is species specific. It is common to all but specific to human beings since they are genetically equipped with it. Unlike animals, human beings express their feelings, emotions, desires etc. by means of language. Simply speaking, language is a means of communication with the help of which we can transmit and share our ideas thoughts and feelings. Hence it has been the principal mode of human communication. Though there are other means of communication viz. olfactory system, gustatory system, tactile system, etc systems of communication, language is the most widely used means of communication among human beings.

Language, being a dynamic and open system of communication, is also a social phenomenon. It is highly used in our society to establish relationship among the people. It is true that language is a unique possession of human race and distinctive property of mankind because of which human beings seem to be an extra ordinarily superior to all the species on the earth in every respect. Hence,

the place of language in human communication is immensely important and it can be taken as essential tool for us to convey our message.

Wardhaugh (1986, p. 28) says, "Language is both an individual possession and social possession."

Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary (2005) defines language as "The system of communication in speech and writing that is used by people of a particular country or area. "This definition simply states that language is a system of communication used by humans in a particular area.

Crystal (2007, p. 286) mentions that there are 6604 languages in existence in the world today. But none of them is thought to be superior or inferior to other languages since they are equally important for their communicative values.

Some languages are rich in terms of script, literature, use and development. Some other languages do not have script, but are still used in day to day communication. Some languages are in danger of extinction as the native speakers of these languages have to learn other languages for educational administration, business and other purposes. Therefore, it plays a vital role in a particular situation.

1.1.1 The English Language and its Importance

Although more than six thousand distinct languages are in existence in the world, English is one of the dominant and worldwide famous languages according to its area and mass coverage. English is the language which is spoken all over the world. It is the most popular lingua franca which helps people to share ideas and feelings among themselves. It is spoken as mother tongue or second or foreign language. More than 60% of the nations of the world have been using English as their official languages.

English is the gate way to knowledge, which has covered all affairs in human life. English has been an indispensable vehicle for the transmission of modern civilization in the nation. It is also a passport through which one can visit the

whole world and can enjoy with modern technology, information, books, journals, newspapers (written in English) and even English speaking people. Hence, any one who can read English can keep in touch with the world even without leaving his/her own home.

Skilled manpower is the pre-requisite to develop any country. Lecturers, doctors, pilots, engineers and so on are considered to be the skilled persons and for this we need the sound knowledge of English. Similarly, a young person beginning his/her career with the knowledge of this language holds a key which will open many doors accessible to a good job.

Considering the high prestige and its compulsion, the Nepalese government has prescribed English as a compulsory subject from primary level to university levels in the national curriculum. English language teaching in Nepal was started when Durbar High School was established (in 1884 AD). As English is the powerful means of communication, being the global lingua franca, every citizen has to learn this language for his personal, social and nation's upliftment.

1.1.2 Linguistic Scenario of Nepal

Nepal is a multifarious country. It has distinctive variation in terms of language, culture, ethnicity, race and religion. This fact has placed our nation at rich and high position on the linguistic map of the world. In this regard, Toba (1992, as cited in Rai, 2000, p.4) says, "It is not only the fact that Nepal boasts of the highest mountain in the world, but it also exhibits a remarkable wealth of cultures and languages." Thus Nepal is regarded as paradise for linguistic researchers. According to the Report of National Census (2011), One hundred twenty three distinct languages are spoken all over Nepal but linguists claim that some other languages are still in existence.

Most of the languages spoken by a small number of populations do not possess their own script. These languages are called minority languages viz. Dhimal, Kusunda, Chepang, Rajbanshi, musahar etc. It is a bitter truth that some

minority languages are going to be extinct very soon if we do not make any attempt to preserve them. According to the Report of the National Census 2011, more than seventeen languages like Kusunda, Koche, Magadhi etc have less than hundred native speakers, likewise twenty eight languages such as Sanskrit, Kisan, Chureti are in the verge of extinction.

Although all the languages spoken as mother tongue have been approved as the national languages by the Constitution of Nepal, it is not sufficient to preserve the declining minority languages. The government, on the one hand must come with careful planning and practical programmes, and on the other hand, people should be aware of preserving their languages. Otherwise, many languages will be slowly dying because of several reasons such as language loyalty, migration and inter caste marriage. The another reality is that Nepal is a multilingual country and the government should be aware of the fact that “ A multilingual state with an emerging democratic system cannot continue to have a monolithic language policy.” (Kansakar, 1999, as cited in Rai , 2000, p.168). The government has allowed teaching in mother tongue in the local areas by producing curriculum of different languages. It is a positive attempt to preserve languages, but it is not successful, either. Our country has been a federal nation and it has been recently divided into various states. Hence, we can hope that these states will play a vital role in preserving the local languages.

According to the genetic classification, the languages spoken in Nepal fall under four language families. They are explained as follows:

1.1.2.1 Indo–European Family

The languages of this family are spoken in the European continent along with the Indian sub continent. That is why it is called Indo European language family. From the ancient languages like Sanskrit, Greek, Latin etc to modern languages viz. English, Hindi, Nepali, Bengali etc fall under this family. It is the greatest language family in the world. In Nepal altogether sixteen different

languages are spoken under this family (as cited in Tumbahang, 2008, p.5).

This language family includes the following languages:

Nepali	Maithili	Bhojpuri	Magadhi
Tharu	Kumal	Majhi	Marwadi
Hindi	Urdu	Awadhi	Rajbanshi
Danuwar	English	Darai	Chureti

1.1.2.2 Tibeto- Burman Family

This language family contains the languages spoken in Tibet, Nepal and North-East India; and even in Burma. According to Nishi (1992, as cited in Tumbahang, 2008, p.5), there are seventy-one languages spoken in the Indian sub-continent and out of them fifty eight languages are spoken in Nepal alone.

This group comprises the following languages:

Limbu	Tamang	Rai	Magar
Gurung	Newari	Yakkha	Bhing(Rumdali)
Chepeng	Hayu(Bayu)	Dhimal	Sherpa
Sunuwar	Lepcha	Jirel	etc.

1.1.2.3 Austric/ Munda Family

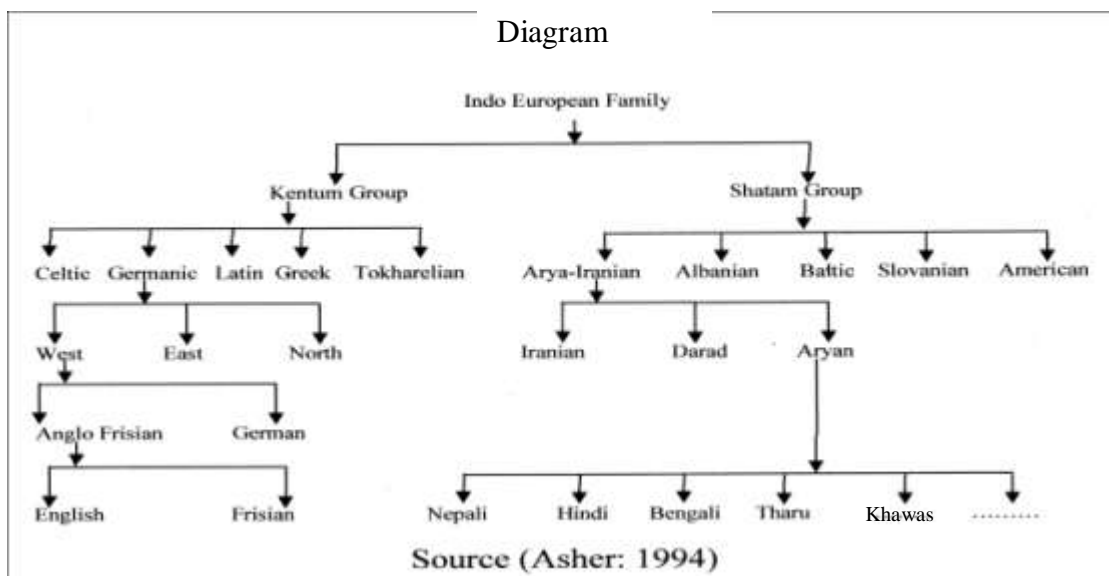
Satar (Santhal) language is the only one language which falls under this family. Satars, the people who speak the Satar language, dwell in the eastern Terai region of Nepal, West – Bengal, Jharkhand and Bihar of India. In Nepal, Satar speaking people only live in Jhapa and Morang districts. Their population is around forty thousands. This family has two other branches viz. Mon Khmer and Munda.

1.1.2.4 Dravidian Family

Nepal has only one language of this group which is called Jhangad language. The Jhangad native speakers inhabit in the province of the Koshi River specially in Sunsari District. The majority of the people, who are related to Dravidian family, live in different states of South India. The native speakers are locally known as Uraon in Nepal.

1.1.3 The classification of Indo- European Language Family

Both English and Khawas languages are originated from the Indo- European language family. This language family can be classified as follows to trace out their genealogical derivation:



When we observe the above genealogical chart of Indo- European language family, it is divided into two groups i.e. Kentum and Shatam. English is sub-branch of Anglo Frisian which is derived from western Germanic family under Kentum Group. In the same way Khawas language is derived from Aryan which is a sub- branch of Aryan- Iranian family from Shatam Group of Indo- European language family. Thus, we can say that both of the languages i.e. English and Khawas are originated from the same i.e. Indo- European language family.

1.1.4 The Origin and History of Khawas

The Khawas have been living in the Koshi region in the eastern Terai of Nepal from very beginning. Yet they lack their script and do not possess their written documents or literature from the past. It is, therefore, the history of Khawas is in dilapidated condition. However, Khawas are found to have ruled the states wherever they resided. To support this fact, there are Rajaiya Khawas and Demnah Khawas where the former means the ones who ruled in the past or now belong to the contemporary royal family and the latter means the minister.

The Khawas would like to be called Sen Makawani. In other words, they are supposed to have come from the Sen tribe (Khawas, 2064 BS). The Sens ruled the states around the Gandaki region in Nepal, based on the two states in the east and west of the Gandaki river from 12th to 18th century. Palpa was the center of the Sens in the west of the Gandaki river and Makwanpur was the capital in the east. Hence, they had been successful to gain victory and capture the areas in the hillsides neighbouring the Terai region. They were able to establish their forts in Bijayapur, Udaypur, Chudandi, Hariharpur, Makwanpur, Palpa, Tanahu, etc.

During the Sen Regime, the Khawas got more opportunities to flourish mainly in Makwanpur. As a result, they could rule the areas from Makwanpur to Bijaypur. Later on, they got much centralized towards Bijaypur. During this period, they had bravely and skillfully acted in different positions in administration and military force. Hence, to these days, their family names are found to be written as Deman (minister), phaujdar (military officer), Bhandari (store keeper) etc (Khawas, 2064 BS) .

In 1722AD, an Indian Muslim ruler from Purnia called Nawab Saif Khan defeated the Sen brothers in the fierce battle. They were Balananda and Krishnanand Kapardar (Khawas, 2064 BS). They had the vital role in the military force in the states. Likewise, Khawas were frequently attacked by their enemies like Mughals and Kirats who were much powerful than Khawas.

Hence, due to their frequent attacks many Khawas were killed and the rest got scattered towards the different directions. Khawas regime was ruined. Many of them fled towards the Koshi region and some ran away to Hindustan.

1.1.5 Khawas and Their Language

Khawas have been living mainly in the eastern Terai from ancient time. This part of our country is found to be covered mainly with the indigenous groups of people such as Tharu, Khawas, Danuwar, Rajbanshi, Dhimal, Majhi, Jhangad, Satar, Musahar, etc. from the time. Out of which Khawas is the one. Each language has its own history. Likewise, the Khawas language has its own history but it uses Devanagari script since it does not possess its own.

Khawas is one of the language varieties spoken in the eastern Terai of Nepal. It is mainly spoken in four districts. They are Jhapa, Morang, Sunsari and Saptari. Moreover, they are minutely found in Dhanusha and Mahottari. The Khawas speak the hybrid language which resembles with Bhojpuri and Maithili.

Because of this fact Khawas are called Tharu since the Tharu language also resembles with Maithili, Bhojpuri and Awadhi. However Khawas are not Tharu because they have their own culture and tradition different from the Tharu along with their own language. We may find some similarities in the use of pronominals and deictic terms but we can find many differences in the forms of verbs used by Khawas and Tharu. Moreover there are phonological differences too (Khawas, 2064 BS).

The Khawaas language has also regional effect. The Khawas language spoken in Morang and Jhapa districts is spoken differently from that of Sunsari and Saptari. The Khawas language has the following dialects on the basis of their settlement in different geographical regions.

- i. Rajaiya Khawas
- ii. Demnah Khawas
- iii. Kead Khawas

The present study has compared the English language and Rajaiya Khawas dialect spoken in Morang district.

1.1.6 Semantics

Semantics is the study of meaning in language. It is one of the three levels of linguistics. The others are syntax, morphology and phonology. Semantics, which was considered out of linguistics in the past, is now an integral part of linguistics because without taking account of meaning the study of language is not complete.

According to Rai (2001), the history of semantics goes back to the American Philological Association which introduced a paper, 'Reflected Meanings: a Point in Semantics' in 1894, and six years later in 1900, Breal's book, 'Semantics: Studies in the Science of Meanings' (P.12). Crystal (1997) comments on the book as "It is one of the earliest books on linguistics as we understand today, in that it treated semantics as the 'science' of meanings and that it was not primarily concerned with changes of meaning from a historical point of view" (P.12).

In early twentieth century, the two books 'The Meaning of Meaning' by Ogden and Richards (1923), and 'The Problem of Meaning in Primitive Languages' by Malinowski (1923) are worthy to be mentioned which appeared in the firmament of linguistics. As time passed semantics got more popular and today it has been itself as one of the primary branches of linguistics. In terms of semantic use we can find two contrastive views; one, according to Leech (1974) "Semantics holds that the study of communicative processes can be a powerful force for good in the resolution of human conflict, whether on an individual, local or international scale." The other, as Crystal (2003) says, is that some people use the word 'semantics' in a pejorative sense. It is to say language is used in order to mislead the public. As a matter of fact, semantics is nothings as Crystal says but a systematic study of what meaning is and how it operates.

The latest introduced but the fast growing part of linguistics is semantics that has now grown into a vast discipline and has several branches such as historical semantics, lexical semantics, structural semantics, generative semantics, transformational semantics, linguistic semantics, philosophical semantics, and psychological semantics.

Generally the second language learners get difficulty in using appropriate words and make mistakes because of their inability in choosing the appropriate words in appropriate situations in the target language. This happens because of the meaning of words in a situation.

1.1.7 The Concept of 'Meaning'

As per the definition of meaning no scholars stand at a point. They do not agree with each other. In the traditional view, there is a natural connection between a word in a language and an object in the world. It supports that the word, 'dog' has connection with the animal which can be tamed, which wags its tail to its master and barks at a stranger because God has given it this name. It seems to be ridiculous. This can not be accepted. In the view of the modern theory, the connection between a word and an object for its meaning is absolutely arbitrary. The same animal which is called 'dog' in the English language is called by several other names such as 'chien' in French, 'Kukur' in Nepali, 'kutta' in Hindi and Khawas, 'hund' in German, 'cane' in Italian, etc. The modern theory suggests that the connection between words and their meanings are not natural but arbitrary. The same object or animal is called by different names in different languages but it does not change their attributes as the following lines of Shakespeare declares.

"What's there in a name that we call 'rose'

By any other name it smells sweet." (Rai, 2003, p.14)

An individual's meaning is not a part of general study of semantics. The meaning of a sentence is determined not only by the meaning of the words it is

composed with but also the grammatical structure (Lyons 1977). Meaning is the situation in which the speaker utters it and the response which it calls forth in the hearer. In terms of making meaning, there are two parties; speaker and hearer. So, the fact is that the two sentences composed of exactly the same words can also be of two different meanings. Meanings of an utterance depend not only on what is said but also on the intention of the speaker and interpretation of the hearer. The following example can be presented to clarify this:

When a man comes from his office he finds that his 10-year old son is watching TV and his towel is lying on the floor. He says angrily, 'What's this? The boy picks up the towel and puts it in the proper place. (Rai, 2003, p.19)

Here, the boy does not respond that it is a towel. He simply picks it up and puts it in the proper place because he understands his father's intention. He knows his father is not asking him the meaning but telling him to put it in its right place. The above utterance unfolds its meaning with the proper interpretation of the father's intention by his son.

Hence, meaning shares a very important part of language and it also puts intricacy to learners of the second language. The meaning gets ambiguous and the learners may make mistakes. The meaning of one word in one language can have one meaning and may be different in another language. They may not have one to one correlation in meaning of words in the two different languages. There may be different in another language. They may not have one to one correlation in meaning of words in the two different languages. There may be divergence or convergence of meaning, semantic overlapping or semantic inclusion of meaning of words in the two languages. There must be existence of typical or language specific verb forms between the two languages which make meaning different. For instance: according to Basnyat (1999), the semantic system of some English and Nepali verbs pose obscurity to the Nepali Speakers Learning English (NSLE) and English Speakers Learning Nepali (ESLN).

In Nepali: /*Khānu*/

In English : (a) eat (b) drink (c) smoke (d) take

Here, the NSLE may use the English verb eat as the base form for the Nepali verb / *Khānu* /. Accordingly the NSLE may produce unacceptable sentences as given below:

- He ate milk.
- He ate cigarette.
- She ate medicine.

This is because the Nepali language has only one verb /*Khanu*/ to denote the eating of different kinds of food, But, English maintains difference in the verbs that are used to denote different types of food consumed. For example, solid food is eaten, liquid is drunk, medicines are taken and cigarettes are smoked.

1.1.8 Semantic Fields

Lexemes are identified and defined by using other lexemes of the same semantic field. For example as observed by Crystal (1990, p. 237) in one dictionary the word 'benefit', can be defined with reference to advantage and profit: advantage can be defined with reference to gain; gain can be defined with reference to increase and obtain and so on. Thus the words; benefit, advantage, profit, gain etc constitute a semantic field. This shows that there is a sense relationship linking the various lexemes in a language. The set of such lexemes is called a semantic field. The set of words denoting colour, vehicle, kinship, cooking, eating, furniture etc are the examples of semantic fields.

1.1.9 Divergence, Convergence, One-to-One Correlation, Semantic Inclusion and Semantic Overlapping

These different semantic terms are briefly introduced with examples below:

i. Divergence

A single word of a language can have the multiple meanings in another language. This semantic case is known as divergence of meaning. This concept can be clear when we take an example of divergence. The English word 'break' conveys the different meanings represented by the different Nepali words like /*bhācnu*/, / *phutāunu* / and / *cudāunu* /. The English word 'break' diverges into /*bhācnu*/, / *phutāunu* / and / *cudāunu* / in the Nepali language. This process of having the different meanings of a word from one language to another is semantically divergence. This concept can be concrete from the following presentation.

The three different Nepali meanings of one English word

	/ <i>bhācnu</i> /
break	/ <i>phutāunu</i> /
	/ <i>cudāunu</i> /

ii. Convergence

Convergence is concept of meaning just opposite to divergence. Two or more than two words of a language having a single meaning in other language is convergence of meaning. This idea can be clear from the example given in the description of divergence when looked conversely. That is, the three Nepali words / *bhācnu* /, / *phutāunu* / and / *cudāunu* / have only one meaning in the English language 'break'. This is fairly convergence. The following presentation displays the concept clearly.

The three different Nepali words, one English meaning

<i>bhācnu</i>	
<i>phutāunu</i>	break
<i>cudāunu</i>	

iii. One – to –One Correlation

One to one correlation is the representation of semantic equivalence across languages. It refers to one word from a language having only one meaning in another. This kind of word in the different languages is semantically equivalent.

Let us take an example. The English word 'cry' gives only one meaning /runu/ in Nepali. So, the English and Nepali words are correlative each other in meaning.

iv. Semantic Inclusion

It refers to the word in one language has more extensive range of meaning than that of a word in another language. In different contexts, a single word from one language refers to the different meanings in another language. However, sometimes in some contexts the word's two or more meanings have semantic equivalence. The meanings remain inclusive. This kind of semantic situation is known as semantic inclusion of meaning.

v. Semantic Overlapping

It refers to the range of meaning of a word in one language that coincides with the range of meaning of a word in another language. The meanings of two or more than two words of one language which have wide range of meaning happen to get similar meaning in another language in a context. The English word 'beat' has the meanings '*kutnu*' and '*jitnu*' in Nepali. Similarly, another English word 'win' refers to '*jitnu*' in Nepali. The English verb 'beat' and 'win' are different but their meaning in one context is '*jitnu*' and '*jitnu*' which is similar. Here, the meaning of the English verb 'beat' overlaps with 'win'. This kind of semantic case is the semantic overlapping.

1.1.10 Grammar

Grammar is the set of rules that describes how words and groups of words can be arranged to form sentences in a particular language. Oxford Advance Learners' Dictionary (2005) defines grammar as the rules in a language for changing the forms of words and combining them into sentences (p. 517). According to Murcia and Freeman (1999), grammar is not merely a collection of forms but rather involves forms, meaning and use (p.4) . Similarly, Cross (1992) states, "The body of rules underlie a language is called its grammar. The grammar includes rules which govern the structure of words (suffixes and prefixes) to form clauses and sentences, that are acceptable to educated native speakers" (p.26) From these definitions of grammar, we know that it is the system of arranging the words in the order of sentences which together carry the meaning. The words in a sentence have their certain places and forms. If their places and forms are not appropriate, they no longer can be sensible. Then they will be useless constructions being ungrammatical. In another words, it so happens when grammar does not go into them. This manifests that grammar is very important in every language. It is the backbone of the language without it no language can stand.

The words have different forms and functions. These different forms of words are known as the parts of speech. The parts of speech are structurally categorized into two groups. They are the major and minor word classes. The major parts are the words which carry content meaning. They are nouns, verbs, adjectives and adverbs. These verbs are also called open class words. Similarly, the other parts are the structure words. They simply carry structural meaning. These words do not help to coin new words so they are called closed class words. Such words are auxiliary verbs, prepositions, pronouns, determiners and conjunctions.

1.1.10.1 Verbs

Generally verbs are action words. They denote the state of being. They are the core of a sentence. In absence of a verb in a sentence, the sentence cannot make a sense but merely a single verb can do it. Mainly the verbs are of two types. They are the main verbs and the auxiliary verbs. The verbs which alone can stand are the main verbs. They can change the forms of theirs. But the auxiliary verbs are the helping ones. The auxiliary verbs need the help of the main verbs to make meaning. They do not change their forms.

According to Vendler (1957, as cited in Rothstein, 2008, p.6) the main verbs are classified into four groups. They are stated below.

a. Stative Verbs

Stative verbs are those which state persist over time without change, e.g. seem, know, need and want.

b. Activity Verbs

Activity verbs are durative verbs which involve a span of time. They have no specific end point. The activity verbs are 'sleep' and 'snow'.

c. Achievement Verbs

Achievement verbs are the verbs that capture the beginning or the end of an action. 'Begin' and 'end' can be taken as the achievement verbs.

d. Accomplishment Verbs

Accomplishment verbs are the durative verbs like activities but they have end point like achievements. The verbs like build and paint are the accomplishment verbs.

1.1.11 Contrastive Analysis (CA)

Contrastive Analysis (CA) is a branch of linguistics which is defined as a scientific analysis of similarities and differences between two languages. This is the procedure of comparing and contrasting linguistic system of the two languages. Comparison can be made at any level, system or sub-system of two languages that helps a teacher to predict the area of ease and difficulty for a learner while learning a second or foreign language. CA also predicts difficulty for a learner while learning a second or foreign language. CA also predicts the positive errors to be committed by the learners. It further explains the causes of committing errors, mainly because of the mother tongue interference. CA has both predictive and explanatory functions.

1.1.12 Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis

Hypotheses of contrastive analysis are as follow:

- i. The second language learning becomes difficult due to the interference of the first language.
- ii. Difficulty or ease of learning a particular second language is determined by the differences between L1 and L2.

1.1.13 Transfer Theory

Transfer theory is the key assumption of CA based on psychological aspect. This theory asserts that the past learning conditions the present learning. In another words, the past learning facilitates the present learning if the L2 is similar to L1 and the past learning hinders the present learning if the L2 is different from L1. Here, the facilitating transfer is known as the positive transfer while the hindering one is the negative transfer. But sometimes the past learning does have nothing to do with the present learning. It neither facilitates nor hinders the learning. This case is known as nil transfer. Of these three kinds

of transfer, the positive and nil transfer are helpful to the learners but the negative transfer poses interference and the L2 learners commit likely errors.

1.1.14 Significance of CA

CA exists in learning of the second language; its significance is also there. The major functions of CA maintain the significance of CA. There are two major functions of CA which are described separately below:

- a. CA as a predictive tool
- b. CA as a explanatory Tool

a. CA as a Predictive Tool

To predict errors is the primary function of CA. It helps to find out areas of potential difficulties in foreign language learning. That is why it is a device to predict errors likely to be committed by the L2 learners. Prediction of errors helps in language learning. Major significance of CA are as follows:

- i. The areas of potential difficulties in foreign language learning can be detected and then predictions are made.
- ii. The difficulties are explained.
- iii. It becomes helpful to the course designers to develop the course materials keeping in view the likely difficulties.

b. CA as an Explanatory Tool

It is the secondary function of CA. It explains the errors committed by L2 learners. It helps to find out the reasons for making the errors. CA has pedagogical implications on teaching and learning the second language. So, it is taken significantly by the course designers, text writers and the teachers.

1.2 Statement of the Problem

The history and origin of Khawas is given above. It is a matter of the problem to the Khawas people to learn English verbs because of different factors. The number of students facing English has different difficulties or ease. This study states it as a problem.

- i. Why do Khawas learners feel difficulty in learning English verbs?
- ii. Which items are comparatively more difficult to learn by them?

1.6 Objectives of the Study

The objectives of the study are as follows:

- i. To identify the semantic relations between the English and Khawas verbs on the basis of :
 - a. Divergence and convergence of meanings,
 - b. One to one correlation of meanings,
 - c. Semantic inclusion and
 - d. Semantic overlapping
- ii. To compare and contrast the English and Khawas verbs in terms of semantic equivalence.
- iii. To recommend some pedagogical suggestions.

1.7 Significance of the Study

Semantic analysis is an approach to the study of meaning. This approach bridges to reach a finding. Such finding can help explain the meaning of words more precisely than the conventional dictionary does. The semantic descriptions of similarities and differences in meaning in two different languages can be helpful to the concerned parties. It can be specifically useful

to linguists, researchers, course designers, teacher trainers, teachers, students and general readers. They can have benefits from it in one or other ways. More significantly the researchers who are to carry out the research works on semantic analysis of two different languages can have advantages.

1.8 Delimitation of Study

The study has following limitations:

1. The study was limited to only fifty English action verbs and their equivalent Khawas verbs.
- 2 It was limited to Koshiharaincha municipality, and Tankisinuwari, Dangraha and Dangihat VDCs of Morang district only in terms of data collection from the 50 native speakers of the Khawas language.
- 3 It was limited to the application of analytical and descriptive approach of data analysis.
- 4 The findings were merely drawn from the analysis of data.

1.6 Operational Definitions of the Key Terms

Deman	=	Minister
Phaujdar	=	Military Officer
Demnah Khawas	=	One of the three geographical dialects of Khawas language others being Rajaiya and Kead.
Rajaiya Khawas	=	One of the three geographical dialects of Khawas language others being Demnah and Kead.
Kead Khawas	=	One of the three geographical dialects of Khawas language others being Demnah and Rajaiya.
Bhandari	=	Store- keeper.
Devanagari script	=	Writing symbol of Khawas language.

CHAPTER TWO

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE AND CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

2.1 Theories of Language Learning

There are two schools as regards a child's learning his first language. They are empiricism and rationalism, sometimes also known as behaviourism and mentalism respectively.

2.1.1 Behaviourism

Behaviourists believe that a child's mind is a tabula rasa, i.e. a blank sheet of paper, and it is marked with what it is exposed to. They maintain that linguistic system starts with a scratch and develops bit by bit. They believe on observation, imitation, repetition, memorization trial and error, and reinforcement. Behaviourism, is thus based on Skinner's conditioning theory.

For behaviourists there is not a theory of language learning as such but merely the application of general principles of learning to Language. In other words, there is no difference between the way one learns cycling, typing, etc. and language. Every part of an utterance is produced as the result of some kind of stimuli to which the utterance forms a response; it may be verbal or non-verbal. Reinforcement plays an important role in the child's learning. It may be a physically concrete thing or a parental approval. If there is no reinforcement there is no or very little learning. The notion of repetition is intermingled with reinforcement. They believe that a word that has been uttered thirty times is better learned than that which has been uttered only ten times. The child repeats the same thing several times, that is, he makes trial and error and eventually achieves perfection.

The empiricists lay emphasis on teaching and training which seems to be erroneous because teaching or no teaching reinforcement or no reinforcement, a

child learns his first language. All that is required is the sufficient exposure of the language. Empiricists believe that there is only one kind of intelligence, which is applied to every kind of learning, may it be language or typing. But it seems to be false because in learning a skill say swimming, some children can be good and some bad, but every child whether dull or intelligent learns his language equally well. It leads us to think that perhaps some special kind of intelligence is required to learn language, or language is not learned as other skills are learned.

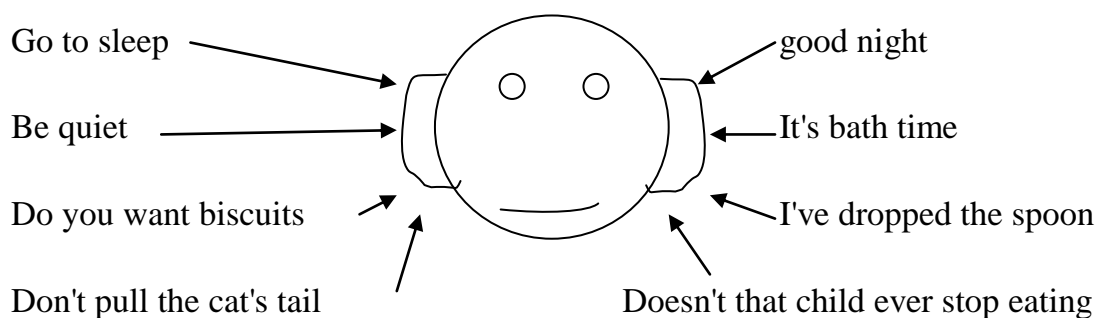
2.1.2 Mentalism

Mentalism came as a reaction to behaviourism. The supporters of this theory are known as rationalists and Chomsky is the leader of this school. Rationalists believe that a child's mind is not a tabula rasa, it is equipped with what Chomsky calls Language Acquisition Device, 'LAD' or what McNeil calls 'Innate Universal'. They claim that all the basic principles of language are there in the brain of the child in form of LAD. It is in dormant state but as soon as a particular language is exposed to the child, it is activated, and once it is activated, there is no stopping: the child goes on learning. In other words, the skeleton of language is already there in the child's mind, and he has only to fill flesh and blood, which he does when he is exposed to a language or languages. They also claim that the so called imitation – repetition reinforcement stuff has nothing to do with the child's mechanism to learn language. Instead of imitation and repeating like a parrot, a child produces novel utterances. This creativity in child's learning language falsifies the claims of the empiricists.

Rationalists contradict the behaviourists at almost every point. Everybody learns language, not because they are subjected to a similar conditioning process, but because they possess an inborn capacity, which enables them to acquire language as a normal maturation process. They learn language in the same way as they learn to walk. This capacity is universal. For the mentalists, language is far too complex a form of behaviour to be accounted for in terms of

features external to the individual. Since all normal human being learn language successfully they must possess some innate capacity for learning language that other animals do not have. Since this capacity cannot be acquired socially, it must be innate.

This innate mechanism or LAD is said to operate in the following way. A child, from birth, is exposed to a language, which acts as a trigger for the learning device. The device has the capacity to formulate hypothesis about the structure of the language to which it is exposed. The child is, of course, is unaware of this process. The hypothesis is tried and is regularly checked against the further data that her exposure to the language provides. As he finds that his hypothesis cannot account for all the data, he modifies the hypothesis and checks it again. The first hypotheses are very simple indeed. Most children pass through a stage of two-word utterances in which they appear to operate on the hypothesis that there are two classes of words, one limited and other unlimited or less unrestricted in number which occur in a fixed sequence. As the child gets older, the hypothesis become more complex, and applying them to his own use of language, he brings his speech closer and closer to the adult model to which he is the most part exposed. The child constructs an internal grammar of the language. This grammar passes through successive modification until it becomes the complete grammar of the adult language. This has been shown below.



(Adopted from Aitchison, 1983)

The question is which of the two views is more plausible. Let us examine them. Every human child learns language successfully in about the same age. This

evidence of uniformity of language learning goes in favour of the rationalists. This uniformity of language acquisition exists due to the fact that every human child possesses LAD. Language learning is species specific, that is, language is acquired only by human being and not by any other animal. Even the rigorous training given to the chimpanzees proved futile as they could not learn even the tit bit of language.

Language is an abstract entity. It is not something what we hear really, in fact the abstractedness of language is partly realised by hearing. Writing and hearing are done on the basis of this abstractedness which is known as langue or competence. Learning language, therefore, is learning the language or the underlying system of language. It is not just a matter of hearing and then imitating and repeating of what has been heard. This abstract system is extremely complex. Thousands of brain might have been studying language for centuries, yet they cannot claim they have described the whole of the language. How then a child's little brain learns this extremely complex system within five years? Besides, language cannot be learned bit by bit. If a child starts learning it bit by bit, one word after another, he will never be able to learn the language in whole of his life. Thus again mentalist's view seems to be nearer to the truth.

The nature of language, in fact, is such that child must have some such device as LAD to learn language successfully. Any other attempt to explain language learning is incomplete because it cannot account for learning of all structural relations. The child forms his own hypothesis is further proved by the fact he utters such expressions as I goed, or I brokeed. It not only shows that he is generalizing the past tense marker rule but also that he does not make mere repetition of the adult speech, as adults never say /'I goed'/, or /'I brokeed'/. Researchers have shown that children are born with some sort of process mechanism, which enables them to analyse linguistic data.

Ellis (1985) proposes a theory of SLA which he calls An Integrated theory. It "seeks to explain how instructional input (in its various forms) provides the learner with the data needed to construct her interlanguage. It recognizes that

different aspects of L2 learning require different kinds of explanation and that neither a purely linguistic nor a purely cognitive framework will provide a complete explanation."

The theory follows a holistic approach. Ellis first talks about the 'explicit' and 'implicit'. Knowledge: the first being conscious and declarative and the second unconscious and procedural. Both kinds of knowledge are stored separately in the brain. He also maintains that, none of them is developmentally primary in the sense that "The learner may acquire a particular 'rule' explicitly in the first instance and then proceed to acquire the same rule implicitly at a later point, or vice versa."

Explicit knowledge is derived largely from form-focused instruction whereas implicit knowledge is largely derived from meaning-focused instruction. For acquisition to take place the learner must attend to specific linguistic features in the input and be ready to incorporate these into his interlanguage. Explicit knowledge also helps acquisition by sensitizing the learner to the existence of nonstandard forms in his interlanguage and thus facilitation the acquisition of target language forms in accordance with the implicit knowledge. The learner applies control to both explicit and implicit knowledge. The learner applies control to both explicit and implicit knowledge. Thus the learner is able to access both conscious and subconscious linguistic rules with varying degrees of automaticity. Newly acquired knowledge is accessed by means of controlled processing. The input which is instructional is filtered by the learner in accordance with his learning style.

2.2 Review of Empirical Literature

Many research works have been carried out by different researchers on semantic analysis of the English verbs and verbs of other languages like Gurung, Limbu, Maithali, Newar, Rajbanshi, Tamang, Tharu and Nepali in the Department of English Education under Tribhuvan University and other

Universities as well. And some of the researches which are related to the present study have been reviewed as follows:

Adhikari (2004) did a research on "English Language Proficiency of Bilingual Students: A Comparative Study". His main objectives of the study were to find out English language proficiency of monolingual and bilingual students. The primary sources of data collection were monolingual and bilingual students of grade eight from different schools of Kavre district. Books, research reports and population census reports were the secondary sources. The total population of the study was one hundred and five students studying in grade eight in the seven public schools from Kavre. Those schools were sampled through the purposive sampling procedure. From each school fifteen students were selected by using stratified random sampling procedure the tools of the data collection used were the test questions prepared on the basis of the final test papers of grade seven. The test papers with one hundred full marks contained twenty objective questions, one passage, one essay, one letter and other grammatical items. The tests were administered and evaluated. The researcher found that Nepali speaking students did not excel the others like Tamang, Gurung etc. There was no significant difference in the achievement of English language proficiency due to being monolingual and bilingual.

Rai (2004) carried a research on "A Comparative Study of English and Rai Bantawa kinship Terms". The main objective of the study was to find out the Rai Bantawa terms used to refer to various kinship relations across five generations altogether. Both the primary and the secondary sources of data were collected from the native speakers from Timma, Chhinamakhu and Annapurna VDCs of Bhojpur district. The secondary sources were magazines, journals, theses, newspapers, books related. Thirty native speakers of Rai Bantawa of which ten from each VDCs including five male and five female were sampled through the snowball sampling procedure. The predetermined sets of questions, the first containing thirty and the second and third with 72 each, were the data collection tools. Firstly, the required questions were set and

then the speakers were interviewed accordingly. The main finding of the study was that English has less kinship terms than Rai Bantawa.

Adhikari (2006) did his research on "A Semantic Analysis of English and Nepali Verbs". The main objectives of his research are to present the semantic description of the verbs from both languages on the basis of one to one correlation, divergence or convergence, semantic inclusion and semantic overlapping as well as to find the difficulties faced by both language learners. He collected the data through both the sources of data collection, primary and secondary. He visited ten English native speakers from the USA, the UK, Canada and Australia available in the capital city, Kathmandu. He also went through different books, journals and theses related. The main finding to the study is that there are inherent differences in the semantic systems of English and Nepali verbs. The seemingly semantically equivalent verbs are not really equivalent which are the difficulties for both language learners.

Dahal (2006) researched on "Semantic Overlapping between English and Nepali Verbs". The main objective of the researcher was to study how far the English and Nepali verbs were equivalent and overlapping in terms of their meanings. He used the primary and secondary sources to collect data. As the primary source, informal interviews were taken to the native speakers. He used the primary and secondary sources to collect data. As the primary source, informal interviews were taken to the native speakers of Nepali and English languages whereas the secondary sources were the related books, magazines, theses and dictionaries. The informants were sampled through judgmental sampling procedure. His findings are that English verbs are more than Nepali. There are more instances of overlapping cases than equivalent ones.

Dewan (2007) conducted a research on "A Field Research on Thulung language: A Practical Work". The researcher carried out this research work to study about the Thulung language in brief. He collected the required data and information from the Thulung language consultant Mr. Dilip Thulung. The Thulung grammar book and related theses were consulted. The websites were

also browsed to collect the secondary data. This study matters a lot since no more researches have been undertaken to explore about this language. Though it was a brief study, it attempted to bring out a lot of things about the Thulung language. The findings of this study are that the Thulung language has the plural marker '-mim' which is used to pluralize nouns. The verb marker is '-mu' whether the verb is transitive or intransitive. Similarly, the causativiser in Thulung is '-ben' and the adjectivizer is '-tam' attached to the verb. The reduplicated pattern like 'lalam' for red is also found in colour terms. The Thulung language has the cases and their markers: negativity- '-ka', instrumental '-ka', dative '-lai', locative '-ra/' 'da', comitative' –num' and ablative '-lamba'.

Jha (2007) made an endeavour to carry out a research on "Semantic Analysis of English and Maithali Verbs". The main purpose of the study was to find out the semantic aspects of Mithali and English verbs. The native speakers of Maithali were the primary sources of data collection. The secondary sources were the books, theses journal related. The informants were selected through the purposive sampling procedure. A good rapport was maintained with the respondents and the predetermined sets of questionnaire were used to collect the data. The researcher found out that Maithali verbs in general end with suffix '-nai' and the Maithali verbs are structurally (more specifically morphologically) complex in comparison to English. English has more verbs than Maithali that are related to action preformed by different parts of the body.

Limbu (2007) carried out a research on "A Semantic Analysis of English and Limbu Verbs: A Comparative Study". The researcher's main objective was to collect a certain number of English and Limbu equivalent action verbs. Further, the semantic description of the verbs was to carry out on the basis of one to one correlation, semantic inclusion and semantic overlapping. Both the primary and secondary sources of data collection were used. As the primary source, the native speakers of Limbu were interviewed to collect the required data. The books, journals, magazines and dictionary were the secondary sources. A set of

the structured questionnaire was used as the research tool. The informants were sampled through the purposive sampling method. The findings of his study are that English verbs have more extensive range of coverage than that of the Limbu verbs and there are inherent differences in the semantic system of the English and Limbu verbs.

Rai (2010) made an attempt to carry out a research on the title "A Semantic Analysis of English and Kulung Rai Verbs". The main objective of his study is to conduct the semantic description of the verbs from both languages on the basis of one to one correlation, divergence or convergence, semantic inclusion and semantic overlapping. He took help of the primary and secondary sources to collect the data. As the primary sources, he visited ten Kulung native speakers from Ilam and Sunsari districts while he consulted different books, journals, magazines, articles and dictionary as the secondary source. He made the good use of research tools like observation, structured questionnaire and unstructured interviews to collect the data. The respondents were selected on the basis of judgmental sampling. The researcher found that English verbs have more extensive meaning than the Kulung verbs. There is semantic equivalence but absolute semantic is rare.

From the above reviews, we know that many researches have been done in the area of semantic analysis in different languages. From this we can also know that there is not any research carried out on semantic analysis of English and Khawas verbs. So, this research is the first and new from other researches.

2.3 Implication of the Review for the Study

The above literature reviews in my study have the following implications and importance to make the study effective.

- help to formulate the theoretical review for the study.
- help to find out and determine the research gap and fill up in own concern.
- help to establish a point of departure for future researches.

- help to avoid unnecessary and needless duplication of costly research efforts.
- help to reveal the areas of required research.

2.4 Conceptual Framework

Concept making is a tough mental framework that refers to the raw plan before accomplishing any task. The researcher has to follow certain ways that help him accomplish the task efficiently and smoothly.

The procedure and methodology is described in latter units. Selecting the topic, collecting information about the topic here, rapport making, instruction about the task collecting the data analyzing , consulting the experts are carried out.

CHAPTER THREE

METHODS AND PROCEDURES OF THE STUDY

To fulfill the objectives of the study, the researcher adopted the following methodological strategies.

This chapter is comprised of design and method of the study, population, sample and sampling strategy, study areas, data collection tools and techniques, data collection procedures, data analysis and interpretation procedure.

3.1 Design and Method of the Study

The purpose of this study was to find out the contrastive analysis of Khawas and English action verbs. The respondents were collected from koshiharaincha municipality, Dangihat VDC, Tankisinuwari VDC and Dangraha VDC of Morang district. The sample of this survey study consisted of the given people from the aforementioned places. Fifty speakers were interviewed.

Researcher collected qualitative facts about the action verbs in Khawas language. Respondents expressed their opinions in the given questionnaire. Preliminary discussion was held before conducting the data collection process.

3.2 Population, Sample and Sampling Strategy

The native speakers of the Khawas language were the population of the study. The field work research was carried out particularly in the different parts of Morang district as in aforementioned areas.

The researcher sampled the fifty Khawas native speakers from the three VDCs, and one Municipality of Morang district. The study areas were in Koshiharaicha Municipality; and Dangihat, Tankisinuwari and Dangraha VDCs of Morang. The respondents were selected on the basis of the purposive sampling.

3.3 Data Collection, Tools and Techniques

The structured questionnaire and unstructured interviews were the tools for data collection. As an electronic device, the mobile phone recorder was used to collect the data.

3.4 Data Collection of Procedures

The areas of the study specified were visited to collect the data. The informants were well informed about the research and its objectives. The informants got convinced and showed their willingness to help their best. In this way a good rapport was maintained with the informants. For the collection of data the questionnaire were used. The responses of the informants were picked up in the questionnaire. Even the mobile phone recorder was used while necessary.

CHAPTER FOUR

ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION OF RESULTS

4.1 Analysis of Data and Interpretation of the Results

The researcher compared, analyzed and interpreted the collected data according to their semantic field; convergence, divergence, correlation and semantic overlapping and showed the similarities and differences. He presented the data in diagrams. eg.

clean	<i>mājhe</i>
	<i>saphā kare</i>
pushed	<i>thelalke</i>
	<i>dhaklalke</i>
beat	<i>māre</i>
	<i>kute</i>

1. An English verb 'clean' can be used in two different contexts in Khawas language. For eg.:

I clean utensils.

hame bhariyā mājhe

Clean the floor.

bhuiha safā kar/poch

clean	<i>mājhe</i>
	<i>saphā kare/ poche</i>

It shows that the verb 'clean' has different meanings according to the object i.e. the floor and the utensils.

2. An English verb 'push' has two different meanings in Khawas language. The verb can be used in two different contexts:

He pushed me

ū hamarā dhaklālke

He pushed the wall.

ū bhiṭṭārā thelālke

	<i>thele</i>
push	<i>dhakle</i>

The verb 'push' is different in meaning. 'He pushed me' can be expressed as willingly pushing one away but 'he pushed the wall' can be expressed as willing or unwilling force that brings / does not bring movement on to the wall.

3. The English verb 'beat' has two different meanings in Khawas language. The verb can be used in two different contexts.

I beat you

hame ṭorā mārbo

I beat paddy

hame dhān kutchi

	<i>māre</i>
beat	<i>kute</i>

The verb 'beat' is different in meaning. 'I beat you' and 'I beat paddy'. The difference in meaning is made by occurrence of different objects it takes.

4. The verb 'sing' is differently used in Khawas language.

I sing a song

hame giṭ karchi

The bird sings

carai rā bolche

giṭ kare
sing
bole

'Sing' verb is used differently according to the subject.

5. The next verb that has divergent meaning in Khawas language is 'freeze'

The water froze

pāni rā jamle
He froze with fear
ū dar se kānple

jame
freeze
kānpe

The verb 'freeze' is used differently by the subjects.

6. 'Grow' is another verb which denotes different meanings in different contexts. The difference is seen in the sentences below.

He is growing old
ū budhuwā hābi rahla che
He is growing potato
ū ālu ubjache
It grows in shadow
ita chahiri me gāch uthche/gāch eche
My son is growing faster.
hamar betā jaldi bādhirahla che

	<i>badhe</i>
grow	<i>budhuwa habe</i>
	<i>gāch uthe</i>
	<i>ubjābe</i>

'grow' verb is differently used for age and plants or crops; for eg potato.

7. Another verb 'run' has its variation in the given examples.

He runs fast.

we / ū jalḍi ḍaudche/ daugche

He runs a shop.

we / ū ḍokān karche

	<i>ḍaure/ḍauge</i>
run	

ḍokān kare

The meaning of 'run' is different according to the complement. .

8. The verb 'ring' is seen differently as in the examples given below.

The bell is ringing

ghanti rā bolche

He is ringing the bell.

ū ghanti rā bajache

	<i>bole / baje</i>
ring	

bajābe

9. The verb 'visit' has different meanings in different contexts in Khawas language.

I visit Kathmandu.

hame kāthmāndu ghumbe

I visit the physician on Saturdays.
hame śani dinā phijisiyanke bhetbe

ghume
visit
bhete

10. The verb 'boil' has different meanings in different contexts in Khawas language.

I boil water.
ham pāni dhipabe
I boil an egg.
ham dimmā usanbe
dhipe/dhipābe
boil
usnhe

11. The verb 'hang' has different meanings in different contexts in Khawas language.

He is hanging a picture.
ū phota tāḥche
she hanged herself.
ū phānsi lāgle/latkale
He hanged along a rope.
ū dor me latkale
tāḥe
hang *phānsi lāge*
latkābe

12. The verb 'choose' has different meanings in different contexts in Khawas language.

He chose the jacket.

ū jyāket bichalke

The people chose him as a leader.

janatā sam okarā netā cunalke

biche

Choose

cune

13. The verb 'change' has different meanings in different contexts in Khawas language.

He changed the bag.

ū jholā rā baḍalke

I changed his school dress.

hame okar skul pośāk pheri ḍeli

I want to change my 1000 rupee note.

hame 1000 takāke khuḍrā banābe cāhachi

baḍale

change

phere

khuḍrā banābe

14. The English verbs 'beat' and 'win' have the same meaning in Khawas language in one context.

e.g.

Pakistan beat Bhutan by 1 – 0

pākistān bhutān ke 1 gol se jitalke.

Pakistan won Bhutan by 1 – 0.

Pākistān Bhutān ke 1 gol se jitalke.

beat

win *jite*

15. The English verbs 'eat', 'take', 'drink' and 'chew' have same Khawas meaning 'khyā'

eat
take
chew
drink *khyā*

16. The English verbs 'drink' and 'smoke' have a single Khawas term in one context.

She drinks milk

ū dūḍha piche/kheche

He smokes a cigarette.

ū curot piche

smoke
drink *piye*

17. The English action verbs 'drown' and 'sink' have same meaning in Khawas language:

Her child drowned in the pond.

okar bacca pani me duple.

A boat sank in the Phewa lake.

ekta nah phewā tal me duple.

drown
sink *dube*

4.2 Discussion and Findings

According to the objectives of this research, the primary and secondary data were analysed. On the basis of the data similarities and differences of the action verbs in English and Khawas were found. The action verbs of English and Khawas have very few similarities and a large number of differences.

a. The given English verbs have convergent meaning in Khawas.

eg. drown

dube

sink

make

siyābe

sew

b. The given Khawas verbs have one to one correlation in given cases.

eg. dance

nāche

win

jite

cry

kāne

c. The case of semantic overlapping is also found in English and Khawas action verbs.

eg.

jite

eat

khyā

beat

kute

khyā

take

piye

win

jite

lebe

4.2.1. Similarities

The action verbs in English and Khawas have few similarities that are as follows:

- a. Both English and Khawas action verbs start with different sounds.

Examples:

English : Push/ beat/run

dhakle/ māre/dauge

- b. Both English and Khawas action verbs have the same definition and classification i.e. on the basis of the object it takes.

Example:

He is sleeping. (intransitive)

u sutla/ sutirahla che.

He eats an apple. (transitive)

ū syāu kheche.

- c. Both English and Khawas Negative marker begins with nasal sound ‘n’
eg. He does not speak English

ū aḥreji nai bolce.

- d. Both English and Khawas action verbs are found to be semantically overlapped, divergent and convergent.

eg.	ring	<i>baje/bajābe</i>
	play	<i>khele/ bajābe (Semantic overlapping)</i>
		<i>kute</i>
	beat	<i>(Divergence)</i>
		<i>māre</i>

khyā

take

(Convergence)

piye

4.2.2 Differences:

- a. An English action verb is found to be used in only one word where as many Khawas verbs are found to be used in two words.

Example :	English	-	talk
	Khawas	-	<i>bāt kare</i>
	English	-	hang
	Khawas	-	<i>phāsi latke</i>
	English	-	sing
	Khawas	-	<i>git kare</i>

- b. English action verbs have higher range in meanings than in Khawas.

baḍale

change

phere

khuḍrā banābe

CHAPTER FIVE

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Conclusions

Carrying a research is really a tough job during which any good researcher has to face numerous obstacles. He has to visit different informants in different places with his determined tools in course of collecting the data according to his research problem and objectives. It is so challenging to interpret, analyse and draw the findings out. Moreover, it is costly and time consuming.

However, the researcher, here, found this job very interesting despite these problems. He got an opportunity to go thoroughly the use of action verbs of English and Khawas languages. He is hopeful that this research can really assist the teachers of English whose classroom consist of those Khawas Speaking English Language learners in teaching. More or less this work can also be a help to those researchers who may carry out a research on the Khawas language.

5.2 Recommendations

- a) The action verbs of English and Khawas are different to a great extent. So special attention should be given on teaching English to Khawas students.
- b) The use of English action verbs should be carefully taught to those Khawas speaking students.
- c) The teachers should provide many examples about action verbs in different contexts as far as possible.
- d) The teachers should teach creatively.
- e) The teachers should use more teaching materials.
- f) The teachers should apply appropriate methods and techniques.
- g) The teachers should give proper exposure to the students of Khawas language who are learning English.
- h) Finally, the feedback should be provided to the students wherever needed.

5.2.1 Policy Related

National recognition is necessary for any language which has its active users. There are more than seventeen minority languages with less than one hundred native speakers and without their own script in Nepal. However, the Khawas language is an indigenous one which has more than twenty thousand native speakers according to the National Census 2011. But it is being interfered by other languages. So the country should enhance it from the policy level. Minor attempts for conserving it will have a great endeavor towards its development. When experts are employed to compile the dictionary, the grammar and other literary volumes are also necessary to be published.

5.2.2 Practice Related

The minority language Khawas has its speakers in mid eastern Terai of Nepal. But their language is being interfered by other languages. So, it is a worthy step carried for Khawas speaking English students. The investigation has found the different semantic cases which either tend to contribute facilities or pose the interference to the learners. There is the case of divergence and convergence of meaning in a considerable number in the finding. A single word of a language can have the multiple meaning in another language or vice versa. As a result divergence poses much difficulty for productive skills but it will be quite easy for receptive ones. Hence, they can find the differences of English and Khawas action verbs and it makes them feel ease in learning the English language.

5.2.3 Further Research Related

The researcher has carried out this research work only on the basis of the data collected from the aforementioned areas of Morang district. He has an overview only on the part of the action verbs of English and Khawas languages relating to their meaning aspects viz. convergence, divergence, semantic overlapping, etc. And he has found some similarities and many differences between them. Yet it is not the all, there are several other aspects of those verbs such as morphology, syntax, etc. on the basis of which the other researches can be done in future.

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Appendix III

No. of Informants of English Action Verbs with Khawas Equivalent Terms

English	Khawas	No. of Informants	English	Khawas	No. of Informants
lie	<i>suṭe</i>	30	run	<i>ḍauge</i>	50
	<i>thake</i>	50		<i>calābe</i>	25
	<i>oghre</i>	11		<i>ḍokān kare</i>	25
	<i>untābe</i>	9			
clean	<i>mājhe</i>	10	push	<i>ḍhakle</i>	30
	<i>saphā kare</i>	30		<i>thele</i>	10
	<i>poche</i>	10		<i>bhatkābe</i>	10
sing	<i>giṭ kare</i>	35	pick	<i>biche</i>	25
	<i>bole</i>	15		<i>tore</i>	25
freeze	<i>jame</i>	15	grow (old)	<i>budhuwā hābe</i>	30
	<i>kāme</i>	10	grow	<i>bādhe</i>	20
	<i>kānpe</i>	10	(potato)	<i>ubjābe</i>	10
	<i>kathwābe</i>	15		<i>ubje</i>	30
				<i>kāba pare</i>	10
rise	<i>uge</i>	25	ring	<i>baje</i>	25
	<i>uthe</i>	15		<i>bole</i>	25
	<i>jāge</i>	10		<i>bajābe</i>	50
visit	<i>ghume</i>	24	boil	<i>dhipābe</i>	35
	<i>bhete</i>	26		<i>usnhe</i>	50
				<i>ṭaṭābe</i>	15
hang	<i>tāṇe</i>	35	drown	<i>dube</i>	50
	<i>latke</i>	15			
	<i>phānsi lage</i>	35			
	<i>phānsi debe</i>	50			

	<i>sānté</i>	15			
	<i>jhunde</i>	10			
choose	<i>man parābe</i>	10	sink	<i>dube</i>	30
	<i>cune</i>	15		<i>bure</i>	20
	<i>chāne</i>	15			
	<i>roje</i>	10			
change	<i>baḍle</i>	30	smoke	<i>piye</i>	50
	<i>phere</i>	20			
	<i>khudrā</i>				
	<i>banābe</i>	25			
	<i>khudrā kare</i>	25			
drink	<i>piye</i>	25	eat	<i>khyā</i>	50
	<i>khyā</i>	25			
chew	<i>khyā</i>	50	take	<i>khyā</i>	20
				<i>lebe</i>	30
beat	<i>māre</i>	20	win	<i>jite</i>	50
	<i>jite</i>	50			
	<i>kute</i>	30			
cry	<i>kāne</i>	50	rise	<i>uge</i>	50
				<i>uthe</i>	25
				<i>jāge</i>	25
build	<i>banābe</i>	50	make	<i>banābe</i>	50

Appendix I

Questionnaire

This interview questionnaire has been prepared to accomplish a research work entitled "A Semantic Analysis on English and Khawas Action Verbs" under the guidance of the Department of English Education, Faculty of Education, Sukuna Multiple Campus, Morang, Nepal. The researcher hopes that your cooperation will be a great contribution in the accomplishment this research work.

Thanks

Kulbir Khawas
Sukuna Multiple Campus

Name:

Sex :

Address ;

Age:

Qualification:

Translate in to Khawas

1. I clean utensils.
.....
2. Clean the floor.
.....
3. He pushed me.
.....
4. He pushed the wall.
.....
5. I beat you.
.....
6. I beat paddy to make rice.
.....
7. I sing a song.
.....
8. The bird sings in a tree.
.....
9. They are building a house.
.....
10. He makes furniture.
.....
11. The water froze.
.....

12. He froze with fear.
.....
13. He is growing old.
.....
14. He grows potatoes.
.....
15. It grows moss in shadow.
.....
16. I hide behind the pole.
.....
17. Hide the pen.
.....
18. She is picking mangoes.
.....
19. He picked up the pen.
.....
20. He always lies others.
.....
21. I lie on the bed.
.....
22. He runs fast.
.....
23. He runs a shop.
.....
24. The sun rises in the east.
.....
25. My son rises early every morning..
.....
26. The bell is ringing.
.....
27. He is ringing the bell.
.....
28. I have not visited Kathmandu yet.
.....
29. I visit the physician on Saturdays.
.....
30. I boil water.
.....
31. I boil an egg.
.....
32. He is hanging a picture on the wall.
.....
33. He hanged along a rope.
.....
34. She hanged herself.
.....
35. He was hanged for the brutal crime.
.....
36. He is crying.
.....

37. He drowned in the river.
.....
38. The ship sank in the water.
.....
39. He chose the purple jacket.
.....
40. The people have chosen him as their leader.
.....
41. He changed the bag.
.....
42. I changed his school dress.
.....
43. I want to change my 1000 rupee note.
.....
44. He drinks water.
.....
45. Brother ate an egg.
.....
46. He smokes daily.
.....
47. You have to take medicine.
.....
48. She does not chew tobacco.
.....
49. They are playing football.
.....
50. He is playing the madal.
.....

Appendix IV
Transliteration of Khawas Alphabet into Roman Script

Khawas Alphabet	English Alphabet	Khawas Alphabet	English Alphabet
अ	a	ट	t
आ	ā	ठ	th
इ	i	ड	d
ई	ī	ढ	dh
उ	u	त	ṭ
ऊ	ū	थ	tḥ
ऋ	r	द	ḍ
ए	e	ध	dḥ
ऐ	ai	न	n
ओ	o	प	p
औ	au	फ	ph
अं	am	ब	b
क	k	भ	bh
ख	Kh	म	m
ग	g	य	y
घ	gh	र	r
ङ	ṅ	ल	l
च	c	व	w
छ	ch	श	ś
ज	j	ष	ṣ
झ	jh	स	s
ञ	ñ	ह	h

(Source: Turner, R.L.: A comparative and Etymological Dictionary of the Nepali Language: 1931)