

THESIS
ON
VERBAL AFFIXATION IN ENGLISH AND NEPALI

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I hereby declare to the best of my knowledge that this thesis '**Negative and Interrogative Transformation in English and Jhagar**' is original; no part of it has earlier been submitted for the candidature of research degree to any University.

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Rabindra Kumar Dhakal

DEDICATION

Dedicated

To

My parents who have devoted their

entire lives to make me

What I am today

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ABSTRACT

The dissertation entitled 'Negative and Interrogative Transformation in English and Jhagar Language: A Comparative Study' is the first dissertation on Jhagar language which attempts to identify the process of negative and interrogative transformation in Jhagar language and compare and contrast them with of English. The researcher collected data from both primary and secondary sources. Using stratified random sampling procedure, the researcher divided 50 Jhagar native speaker above 15 years of age belonging to Dangraha VDC of Morang district into two groups-literate and illiterate, each group consisting of 25 Jhagar native speakers. He took structured interview to collect data for the illiterate group and a set of questionnaire was prepared for literate group. Then, by means of the analysis and interpretation of the responses provided by the study population, the researcher found the common responses from the both groups. It was found that the process of Jhagar negative and interrogative transformation were found out and those of English were divided from secondary sources. The major findings in a nutshell are: 'ma' is the negative marker in Jhagar language; other markers-'malla', 'malli', 'polo', 'poli', 'poldas' also sometimes used but they are optional, whereas English negative marker is 'not' which is used in all situation . Jhagar negative imperative marker is formed by placing the negative marker 'ma' before the verb and after the subject and 'malla' or 'malli' or 'polo' are used at the end of the verb, whereas English negative imperative is formed by placing 'do not' or 'don't' at the beginning of the sentence; Jhagar yes\no question is formed by using rising intonation whereas English yes\no question is formed by placing the auxiliary verb at the beginning of the sentence; Jhagar wh-word in most cases occurs after the subject, whereas English wh-word occurs at the beginning of the sentence.

The dissertation is divided into four chapters. They are introduction, methodology, analysis and interpretation, and findings, recommendation and pedagogical implications.

Chapter one encompasses general background, literature review, objectives of the study, significance of the study and definition of the specific terms.

Chapter two deals with methodology adopted for the study under which sources of data, sampling procedure, research tool, process of data collection, the limitations of the study and the definition of the specific terms are presented.

Chapter three is the most important chapter that includes analysis and interpretation of data.

Chapter four consists of the findings, recommendation and pedagogical implications.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS AND SYMBOLS

A	Adverbial
CA	Contrastive Analysis
e.g.	For example
i.e.	That is to say
L1	First language
L2	Second language
LNED	Limbu-Nepali-English-Dictionary
M.Ed.	Master in Education
Oi	indirect object
Od	direct object
P	Page
SVO	Subject +verb +object
SOV	Subject +object +verb
SLA	Second Language Acquisition
T.U	Tribhuvan University
VDC	Village Development Committee
Viz	namely
Vol	Volume
≠	Semantically non equivalent

*	Unacceptable
/	Alternatives
[]	contingent alternatives
%	Percentage

INTRODUCTION

This research has handled the issue of verbal use of Nepali and English language. Definitely, people use language differently and we can get some differences between languages. Almost language has similar grammar rules and regulation however, some differences can be found there. Similarly, this research has shown some difference in verbal affixes between English and Nepali language. It deals with both similarities and differences.

1.1 General Background

Language is common to all and only human beings. It is the most unique gift that sets them apart from the rest of living beings. It is the greatest accomplishment of human civilization. It is a means by which we can perform several things such as communication, thinking, group solidarity, inter-linguistic conflict, nation building, control, creation and so on. We cannot think of any social academic and artistic activities going on without language. It is perhaps that most significant asset of human life. Sapir (1921, p.8) defines language as “a purely human and non-instinctive method of communicating ideas, emotions and desires by means of voluntarily produces symbols.” As Varshney (1985, p. 1) say, language is the ‘species-specific’ in the sense that human mind is equipped with a special type of innate capacity to acquire language. It is also ‘species-uniform’ possession of human beings in the sense that every normal human child irrespective of caste, class, ethnicity, sex, nation and society become able to acquire the native language with equal ease in about the same age whether s/he receives training or not.

Language is concerned with the human being and his distinctive sounds which are used for communication. Language is a device that establishes sound-meaning correlations, paring meaning with singles to enable people to exchange ideas through observable sequence of sound. Language in its widest sense means the sum total of such signs of our thoughts and feelings as are capable of external perception and as could be produced and repeated at will. Hall (1968, p.158 cited in Lyons, 2009 p.11) tells us that language is the institution whereby humans communicate and interact with each other by means of habitually used oral-auditory arbitrary symbols.” Language is the expression of though by means of sounds. Thus, language is the arbitrary voluntary vocal system of human communication.

English belongs to Indo-European family of language. It belongs to West-Germanic sub-branch of this family of language. It is spoken more widely in different countries than any other language and this is why, it is recognized as the international language. English is spoken more than any other language as a native one, i.e., in many countries it is used as native language. It is used as lingua franca by most of the people and the books in the world are written in English.

1.1.1 Linguistic Scenario of Nepal

Nepal is a multi-racial, multi-cultural, 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 has been one of the most engrossing areas of linguistic research. More than ninety-two languages are identified and spoken in this small country (Population Census 2001). However, most of these languages used in Nepal can be divided into four groups which are given as follows:

1.1.1.1 Indo-Aryan Family

The earliest evidence of the group is in Vedic Sanskrit, the language used in the ancient preserved texts of the India subcontinent, the foundational canon of Hinduism known as the Vedas. The Indo-Aryan supersaturate in Mitanni is of similar age, but the only evidence is a number of loanwords.

(<http://www.answers.com/topic/indo-aryan-languages>, retrieved on July 26, 2012)

In the context of Nepal the language belonging to the Indo-Aryan family are as follows:

Table No. 1
Languages in Indo-Aryan Family

Nepali	Rajbanshi	Darai
Maithili	Hindi	Kumal
Bhojpuri	Danuwar	Bote
Tharu	Bengali	Churauti
Awadi	Marwari	Magai
Urdu	Manjhi	Panjabi
English		

(Gurung, 2003, p. 13)

1.1.1.2 Tibeto-Burman Family

The Tibeto-Burman family of languages (often considered a sub-group of the Sino-Tibetan language family) is spoken in various central and South Asian countries, including Myanmar (Burma), Tibet, northern parts of Nepal and various regions of India (<http://www.answers.com/topic/tibeto-burman-languages>, retrieved on July 26, 2012).

In the context of Nepal, Tibeto-Burman family is the longest language family which constitutes a large number of languages spoken in Nepal. The language belonging to the family are presented in the following table.

Table No. 2

Language in Tibeto-Burman Family

Tamang	Newar	Magar
Bantaw	Gurung	Limbu
Sherpa	Chamling	Chepang
Sunwar	Thami	Kulung
Dhimal	Yakha	Thulung
Sangpang	Khaling	Thakali
Chantyal	Tibetan	Dumi
Jirel	Puma	Duri
Meche	Pahari	Lepcha
Bahing	Raji	Chilling
Byangshi	Ghale	Mewahang
Lohorung	Chinese	Tilung
Kaile	Raute	Dzonkha
Lingkhim	Koche	Hoyu
Chhintang	Mizo	Dongmali

(Gurung, 2003, p.13)

1.1.1.3 The Austro-Asiatic Family

The Austro-Asiatic languages are a large language family of Southeast Asia, and also scattered throughout India and Bangladesh.

(http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/austro-asiatic_family, retrieved on July 28, 2012).

But in Nepal, it includes only one language i.e., sattar/Santali which is spoken in Jhapa district of the eastern part of Nepal.

1.1.1.4 The Dravidian Family

The Dravidian family of languages includes approximately 73 languages that are mainly spoken in southern India and Northern Sri Lanka, as well as certain areas in Pakistan, Nepal, Bangladesh and eastern and central India

(http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/draavidian_family, retrieved on July 28, 2012).

Among the four language families mentioned above, the Tibeto-Burman language family is the largest one as it includes a large-number of languages.

1.1.2 The English Language and its Importance in Nepal

English belongs to Indo-European family of language. It belongs to West-Germanic sub-branch of this family of language, According to Varshney (1995, p. 403) “The largest of the families of language of the world is the Indo-European family to one of the branches or groups of which English belongs.” It is spoken more widely in different countries than any other language and this is why, it is recognized as the international language. English is spoken more than any other language as a native one, i.e. in many countries it is used as native language. It is used as lingua franca by most of the people and most of the books in the world are written in English.

The English language has achieved a world-wide status and has been a global language. In Nepal, Nepali is the national language. It is the language of administration, education, information and media. It plays the role of lingua franca among Nepalese people. In the context of Nepal, English is an international language and it has been given higher priority than other international languages. English helps us to keep in touch with the world's ever increasing explosion of knowledge and technological advancement. At the modern age of scientific discoveries and development English is the gateway to knowledge. The English language is given great importance in the education system of Nepal

The English language is assumed as a prestigious and one of the most dominant languages in the world. It is estimated that there are 300 million speakers and 300 million who use English as second language and a further 100 million use it as a foreign language. In addition to their native languages, nowadays most of the countries around the world have put more emphasis in the English language education, regarding that English has played greater role in trade, tourism, technology, foreign affairs, entertainment and other aspects of social life. The formal beginning of English language teaching and learning was started when Janga Bahadur Rana established Durbar High School in 1910 B.S. After that period the English language teaching and learning has been an integral part of education system in Nepal. Now a days 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. The rapid growth of English medium schools and their impact on society also proves the importance of English in Nepal.

1.1.3 The Nepali Language

The majority of Nepalese in Nepal speak the Nepali language as their native language. It has many varieties as its dialect so it is multidialectal language. As a national language it functions as a lingua franca among the native and non-native speakers of the Nepali language in the multilingual and multicultural country, Nepal. It is also a medium of a uniform, nationwide educational system, public administration and mass communication. In addition to these, myriad of Nepali literary writers use it as a means for their literary genre and research articles.

The Nepali language is being spoken in different parts of the world. It is also officially recognized as a national language in India and taught as an elective as well as compulsory subject in school and university level. The Nepalese mainly

in Darjeeling are demanding that this language should be a language of public administration.

1.1.4 Teaching of Grammar in Nepal

Grammar is the backbone of every language, so it should be taught and learnt intensively, though many people think that extensive teaching and learning of grammar hampers the pace of learning. Grammar in Nepal is mainly taught deductively. For the standardization of any language and for uniformity the grammar of any language is taught.

English and Nepali grammars are being taught formally both at school and campus level. So, we are not teaching the language but we are teaching about the language. A lot of Nepali and English grammar books are available in Nepal.

Though some language share common features with each other, they vary in certain degree. Even the dialects of the same language vary in terms of vocabulary, the way they are pronounced, spelling and in grammatical representation. As a learner of language, one can learn the second language easily if they share certain features and they feel difficulty in those areas where two languages vary.

1.1.4 Contrastive Analysis (CA)

Contrastive analysis (CA) or contrastive linguistics (CL) is a branch of linguistics which involves the linguistic description of at least two languages (L1 and L2) which are either compared or contrasted in terms of different linguistic properties. Since it is concerned with the finding out of the similarities and differences it is mainly concerned with the analysis of the elements that are either contrasted or compared. It is assumed that whenever there are similarities between the two languages there will be facilitation of

learning and whenever there are differences there will be learning difficulty. CA focuses on the influence of the mother tongue on all aspects of the language, viz. morphological, phonological and syntactic and semantic levels. Examination on the difference and similarities between two or more languages helps in predicting the areas of difficulty and the possible errors to be committed by the learners.

The practitioners of CA are called ‘constructivists.’ As it is a branch of linguistics, the practitioners are also called linguists. According to James (1980) a ‘linguist’ is a person who is professionally engaged in the study and teaching of one or more languages. He further states quoting Sampson (1975) that there are two broad approaches to linguistics: the generalists and the particularists. The former focuses on the general phenomenon of language whereas the later focuses on the individual language.

Along the second dimension linguists have been divisible into those who choose one or each language in isolation, and those whose ambition and methods are comparative. James (ibid) further argues that: the former are concerned to discover and specify the immanent ‘genius’ of the particular language which makes it unlike any other language and endows its it’s speakers with a psyche and cognitive uniqueness. The comparatives, (Ellis, 1966), as the name implies, proceeds from the assumption that, while every language may have it’s individuality, all languages have enough in common in them to be compared and classified into types, (p.2). So this approach has established a classificatory system for the languages of the world. It is a hybrid linguistic enterprise and, according to James (ibid), is intended producing inverted two-valued topologies (concerned with a pair of languages) and founded on the assumption that languages can be compared.

1.1.4.1 History of Contrastive Analysis

As a distinct branch, it does not have a long history. It started during 1940s to 1950s. This has gained its independent status with the publication of Lado's book 'Linguistics across Cultures' in 1957, he is of the view that in the comparison of two languages lay the key to ease or difficulty in foreign language learning. James (ibid) says that:

We assume that the student who comes in contact with a foreign language will find some features of it quite easy others extremely difficult. Those elements which are similar to his native language will be simple for him, and those elements that are different will be difficult.

(p.2)

The history of CA can be divided into two parts, viz, traditional and modern. Though it was initiated during the end of the 19th century, the modern underpinning or refinement has been given by C.C. Fries and Robert Lado. Fries believe on those materials which are systematically compared to the learner's mother tongue. There may be problems which a learner has to face while learning second of foreign language which are to be analyzed in order to ascertaining the pace of learning and degree of success. Gass and Selinker (2001, p. 24) say that:

The contrasted approach created in 1957 was designated to contrast the sound system, morphological system, syntactic system and cultural system of two languages for the purpose of discovering similarities and differences, with the ultimate goal of predicting areas that are that will be either easy or difficult for learners.

During its emergence it has been used profoundly in the field of SLA curriculum design and language teacher education which provided the theoretical underpinning for audio-lingual method. During 1950s to 1970s it was extensively used in the field of second language more difficult to acquire than others. CA is based on the Behaviourist theory of psychology and the field of structural linguistics. According to Corder (1977) various large scale projects were set up for the contrastive study of language. From that onward various papers, articles and journal were published, many dissertations were done, books written but its craze has been decreasing at present due to its shortcomings.

1.1.3.2 CA Assumptions

The basic assumption of CA is that while the learner is learning an L₂, s/he will tend to use L₁ structures in his/her learning an L₂ and where structures in his/her target language differ from native language, s/he will commit an error.

Lado (1957) presents the following statements as the assumptions of the CA:

-) 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.
-) That is the comparison between native and foreign languages lies the key to ease or difficulty in foreign language learning.
-) The teacher who has made a comparison of the foreign language with the native language of the students will know better what the real problems are and can better provide for teaching them (cited in Maharjan, 1990, pp. 176-177).

The strong points of CA can be shown by the following expressions given by Lado (1957), "...the change that has to take place in the language behaviour of a foreign language student can be equated with the differences between the structure of the student's native language and culture and that of the target

language and culture” (cited in TESOL, 1970, p. 123-30). Banathy, Trager, and Waddle (1966), state the strong version of the contrastive analysis hypothesis as follows:

. . . the change that has to take place in the language behaviour of a foreign language student can be equated with the differences between the structure of the student's native language and culture and that of the target language and culture. The task of the linguist, cultural anthropologist, and the sociologist is to identify these differences. The task of the writer of a foreign language teaching program is to develop materials which will be based on a statement of these differences; the task of the foreign language teacher is to be aware of these differences and to be prepared to teach them; the task of the student is to learn them (p. 37).

In brief, as far as the assumptions are concerned, there are two common parts to the contrastive analysis hypothesis:

-) Degree of similarity corresponds to the degree of simplicity.
-) Degree of difference corresponds to the degree of difficulty.

CA has mainly two aspects: linguistic and psychological. Linguistic component underlies the following beliefs:

-) Language learning is the matter of habit formation.
-) The state of human mind is totally blank (tabula-rasa) before acquiring an L₁ whereas that of an L₂ learner is full of L₁ habits.
-) Languages are comparable.

The psychological aspect of CA is also known as transfer theory which is based on the ground derived from behavioural psychology that past learning hinders or facilitates present learning. If the past learning facilitates, the transfer may be positive. On the contrary, transfer may be negative if that past learning obstructs the present learning. The two types of comparison done in CA are:

(i) Interlingual Comparison

If two languages like English and Bantawa are compared, it is called interlingual comparison in CA. As mentioned by Stockwell and Bowen (1965), there are three possible interlingual rule relationships (cited in James, 1980, p.147). They are:

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

(ii) Intralingual Comparison

The comparison between the two dialects like the Amchoke Bantawa and Wana Bantawa of the same language i.e. Rai Bantawa language is called intralingual comparison.

CA 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, CA is very important from pedagogical point of view. Therefore, any attempt to teach an L_2 should be preceded by an explanation of the nature or possible influence of L_1 behaviour on L_2 behaviour.

1.1.4.2 Significance of the Contrastive Analysis

Though has been unquestionably used in different areas during the past 50 or so years, its experience has been challenged due to its shortcomings. But still we cannot totally discard its existence nowadays too because of its significance which have been proved to be beneficial nowadays as well. The significances of CA are as follows:

- a) It analyzes the two languages (L_1 and L_2) independently and completely.
- b) It compares two languages item-wise at all levels of the structure.
- c) It critically analyzes the similarities and differences of two or more languages.
- d) It predicts the areas of proneness of error and helps to design teaching materials on the basis of the likeliness of errors to eradicate them. The most efficient materials are those that are based on the scientific description of the language to be learned, carefully compared with a parallel description of the native language of the learner.
- e) It helps in machine translation.
- f) The teachers who are involved in teaching learning activities can conduct CA of the language they are teaching, so its finding can be directly and immediately implemented in course of language teaching.

1.1.5 Morphology

Morphology is a branch of linguistics which deals with the identification, analysis and description of the structure of morphemes and other units of meaning in a language, like words, affixes and parts of speech. Morphology is the study of morphemes. A morpheme is the smallest indivisible unit of a language that retains meaning. Boeree (2003) contends that morphemes are words, stems and affixed, basically unit of language one up from phoneme. They are parts of languages syntax or grammar. He further says:

Languages use mixed systems. English uses three methods viz, isolating, agglutinating and inflectional. To make future tense of a verb we use the particle will: to make past tense we usually use the affixed, but in many words we changes the word for the past. Looking at nouns, sometimes we make the plural with a particle (three head of cattle), sometime with an affix (three cats) and sometimes by changing the word from (three men). But, because we still use a lot of non-syllabic affixes (such as –ed, usually pronounced as /d/ or/t/, and /s/ usually as /s/or /z/ depending on context), English is still considered as inflectional language by most linguists. (p. 11)

Morphology is concerned with the study of how smaller bits of language are conglomerated to form new and upper units of language. Each and every language of the world utilizes this property in order to form new words and to related words with each other. For example, the English speakers recognize that the words /dog/ and /dogs/ are closely relate but are differentiated only by the plural morpheme ‘s’.

1.1.5.1 Verbal Morphology

Verb is a part of speech. It refers to the words which occur as a part of the predicate of a sentence, transmit marks of categories such tense, aspect, person, number and mood and refers to an action or state. It is one of the obligatory ingredients of the language. Yule (1977, p. 88) states, “Verbs are words used to refer to various kinds of actions and states involving the ‘things’ in ‘events’”. Similarly, Aarts and Aarts (1986, p. 20) say “Verbs are typically associated with the sentence function predicators.” So verbs are the words that deal with the stricture and functional aspects of the elements that work with the formation of the words.

The main factors to express tense and aspect systems to give different kinds of infinite and non-finite shapes and other various types of morphological processes like negativization, causativization and passivization.

Morphologically and syntactically, verbal affixes draw serious attention of the linguists. It has been assumed that the most difficult part of any language is usually the part that deals with the verbs. In English, verbs can be classified as main verbs and auxiliary verb. The auxiliary verbs can also be divided into primary and secondary. The morphology of English verbs involves up to five distinctive forms, viz, simple (walk), presents form (walks), past form (walked), present participle (walking) and past participle ('walked' also symbolized by –en).

Depending upon language, verb may vary in form according to many factors possibly its tense, aspect, mood and voice. It may also agree with the person, gender and number of its arguments. For example, to walk, to eat, etc Most languages have a number of nouns that describe the action of the verb. In Indo-European language there are several kinds of verbal nouns including gerunds, and infinitives. English has gerunds such as *seeing* and infinitives such as *to see*. English has verbal adjectives generally called present participles and passive participle called past participle.

1.1.5 Word Formation Process

Word formation is the productive nature of every language. Baurer (1983, p. 7) states that any discussion of word formation makes two assumptions that there are such things as word and that at least some of them are formed. Similarly Richard et al. (1990, p. 311) define word as “the smallest of the linguistic units, which can occur on its own in speech and in writing.” In the same way, Quirk and Greenbaum (1990, cited in Rai, 2010) contend that word is a form to which rule of word is applied is called BASE, and the chief processes of English word formation and which the word may be modified.

Words can be formed differently. Different scholars have give different processes. According to Yule (1985, p. 44) the processes of word formation are as follows:

- a) Compounding
- b) Clipping
- c) Reduplication
- d) Back formation
- e) Conversation
- f) Blending
- g) Acronyms
- h) Modification
- i) Borrowing

1.1.6.1 Affixation

Every language is built upon the components of the language. Word formation process is a never ending process. Among the many word formation processes affixation is one. Quirk et al. (1973, p. 334) define it as “one of the chief processes of English word formation by which the base can be modified.” Matthews (1991) contends that affixation has two characteristic. Firstly, the form which result from the operation- we may call this the derived form-will consist of the base- the form which is added will be constant; it will be the same whatever particular base the operation applies to. So it is the addition of grammatical or lexical information to a stem.

Affixation is process of word information in which type stem is modifies by the addition of prefix and/or suffix. It can be categorized into three distinct parts viz. prefixation, suffixation and infixation.

a) Prefixation

It is a kind of affixation in which prefixes are attached to the base to form a new word. Some grammarians argue that the prefix has the same function as a word used as the first element of a compound. But the modern grammarians argue that dependent morpheme cannot be treated on the same footing as an independent word. So, prefixes are the bound morphemes attached to the beginning of the free morphemes to form new words, for examples, *ex-*, *anti-*, *un-* and *etc.*

eg. Prefix	base	word
un-	able	unable
ex-	cellent	excellent
anti-	pathy	antipathy

b) Suffixation

In this process of word formation suffixes are attached to the base of word to form a new word. They are also bound morpheme. Marchand (1969, p. 45) argues that unlike free morphemes, a suffix has no meaning in itself, it acquires meaning only in conjunction with the free morphemes. For example, -like, -hood, -worthy and etc.

For eg. base	suffix	word
child	-hood	childhood
trust	-worthy	trustworthy

c) Infixation

It is also a word formation process in which an affix is attached to a root. Infixes are inserted in a root itself. Katamba (1993, p. 44) says, “infix is an affix inserted into the root. They are very common in Semitic languages like

Arabic and Hebrew. But is somewhat rare in English.” This is not the characteristics of Nepali and English language, so this is not included and illustrated and in this study, but this can be found in certain languages. For example, in Newari language *bala* (good) and *bamala* (bad) where *-ma-* is an infix.

1.2 Objectives of the Study

The main objectives of the study are as follows:

- a) To compare and contrast the verbal affixation systems in English and Nepali in terms of person, number, tense, and negation.
- b) To suggest some pedagogical implications.

1.3 Significance of the Study

Many researches have been carried out on comparative study on different languages in different aspects. This research provides information about the process of verbal affixation in the Nepali language with reference to English. In this context, this study will be helpful to all those students, teachers, language experts, linguists, textbook writers, syllabus designers, language planners, researchers and people who are interested in the Nepali language and they will be benefitted by this study.

1.4 Limitations of Study

This study have the following limitation:

- a) This study is confined to the comparison and contrast between Nepali and English verbal affixation only.
- b) This study is based on only eighty native speakers of Nepali from Soyak VDC of Ilam district.

- c) The English data on verbal affiliation is based on secondary sources of data as English grammar, books and newspapers.
- d) This study is limited to the responses provided by the respondents.

1.3 Review of the Related Literature

Though some comparative studies have been carried out on different languages in different areas, there are very few researches carried out on the Nepali language in the Department of English Language Education. No research has been carried out comparing verbal affixation in the Nepal and the English languages yet. The related literatures to the present study are as follows:

Shah (2000) has carried out a research entitled “ A Comparative Study of Subject-Verb-Agreement in the Maithili and English Languages.” His main object was to find out the subjective verb agreement system in Maithili and to compare them with that of English language. He found out that S-V agreement is determined by inflectional affixes not only with subjects but with the objects also. The committed errors were due to overgeneralization, mother tongue interference and hypercorrection.

Tumbapo (2005) has conducted research on “Verbal Affixation in English and Panchthare dialect of Limbu: A Comparative Study”. His main objective was to find out the verbal affixation in Panchthare Limbu dialect and to compare that with the English affixation system. He collected information from eighty respondents who are the native speakers of the Tumbapo language. He used the stratified random sampling procedure. This study showed that verbal affixation of Panchthare dialect of Limbu is determined by inclusiveness and exclusiveness of the first person, dual and plural pronouns as subject in a sentence which system is not available in English.

Khanal (2005) has conducted a research on “Affixation in Maithali and English: A Comparative Study”. The main objective of the research was to find out affixation rules of the English and Maithali languages. He found that English has only one personal marker suffix and it marks the third person singular whereas Maithili has all personal marker suffixes, i. e. first person, second person and third person marker suffixes. He also found that both the languages have prefix and suffixes but lack infixes.

Ale (2009) has conducted research on “Verbal Affixation in Magar and English”. The main objective of the research was to find out verbal affixation system in the Magar and English languages. He divided the total population into four groups who were sampled through stratified random sampling. He found that Magar affixation system is more complex in comparison to the affixation system found in English.

Rai (2010) has conducted research on “Verbal Affixation in English and Bantawa”. The main objective of the research was to compare the verbal affixation in the Bantawa and English language and identify the verbal affixes in the Bantawa language. Eighty native speakers of the Bantawa language were his primary respondents who were divided into four groups by stratified random sampling. He found that a verb root is always monosyllabic in Bantawa. Bantawa has more number of verbal affixes and more complex than those of English.

Shah (2010) has conducted a research entitled “Verbal Affixation in English and Doteli Dialect of Nepali.” His main objectives were to find out the verbal affixation in the Doteli dialect of Nepali and to compare and contrast them with that of English. For these 80 native speakers of Doteli dialect living in Dadeldhura district, who were selected using the stratified random sampling procedure. His main conclusion was that both the English and Doteli dialect have only person marker suffixes and lack infixation system.

This is the brief overview of the researches that have been carried out in the Department of English Education in the field of affixation in Department of English Education, but there these carried in the title verbal affixation in Nepali and English.

CHAPTER TWO

METHODOLOGY

2.1 Sources of Data

The researcher collected the data from both primary and secondary sources.

2.1.1 Primary Sources of Data

The native speakers of the Nepali of Soyak VDC of Ilam district were be the primary sources from whom the researcher collected the required data for he research.

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 reports and websites related to the topic. Some of them are Plamer (1965), Quirk et al. (1973), Quirk et al. (1985), Aarts and Aarts (1986) Matthews (1991), Katambis (1993), Ebert (1997).

2.2 Sampling Procedure

The total sample population of the study was eighty native speakers of Nepali residing in Soyak VDC of Ilam district. There were equal number of literate males and females. They were sampled through stratified random sampling procedure. The researcher divided them into four groups. Each stratum consisted of 20 native speakers.

2.3 Tools for Data Collection

The researcher used a questioner as a tool to collect primary data from the selected native speakers of the Nepali language.

3.4 Process of Data Collection

The researcher followed procedures to collect the primary data. After preparing the questionnaire sheet, the researcher visited the selected VDC (Soyak) of Ilam district and build a good rapport with the information. The researcher selected eighty respondents from Soyak, VDC Ilam. The eighty respondents were divided into four age groups such as below 16, 17-24 years, 25-38 and 33-40. He explained the research objectives to the sampled population. He provided the sheets of structured questionnaire to those who are literate and asked them to translate English sentences into their mother tongue.

CHAPTER THREE

ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATIONS

3.1 Affixes System in Person

The person marker affixes are divided into the following types. Nepali language contains three persons and it is equivalent with English language. But we can find some differences. Both English and Nepali language have three persons but we can find some differences, which are shown below:

3.1.1 First Person

Nepali: In Nepali language *ma* and *hami* are first person. *ma* is singular and *hami* is plural. It has found that speakers have been used *haru* suffixes even after plural number *hami*. *hami* itself is plural but speakers use *haru* plural marker even after *hami*

'ma' khana khanchhau- singular

(I eat rice)

Hami khana khanchhau- plural

(We eat rice)

Hamiharu khana khanchhau- plural

(We eat rice)

English: English language 'I' and 'we' do not use any suffix. 'I' is singular and 'we' is plural.

I eat rice.

We eat rice.

3.1.2 Second Person

In Nepali language *timi* only doesn't cover to all persons and it has status marker. These are following:

Timi- general, *Tapai*- respectful, *Hajur*- more respectful

According to person's status even verbs are changed and added suffixes.

Timi khana khanchhau. (general)

(You eat rice)

Tapai khana khanuhunchha. (respectful)

(You eat rice)

Hajur khana khaisinchha. (more respectful)

(You eat rice)

('haru' is common for all in making plural.)

English: Unlike Nepali language English language has one pronoun which is used for all, 'you' which doesn't have any status marker. It is used for all.

Unlike Nepali language verb doesn't change. The following examples show.

You eat rice- singular

You eat rice- plural

3.1.3 Third Person

Nepali: In Nepali language has 'u' 'uni' 'tini' 'uha' etc are even third person; there is status marker and it also effect upon verb level and verb changes. 'chha' 'chhe', 'chhan' etc more are used suffixes.

Ram khana khanchha

(Ram eats rice)

Sita khana khanchhe

(Sita eats rice)

Tiniharu khana khanchhan

They eat rice

Uhaharu khana khanuhunchha

They eat rice

English: -s is only one person marker that is added in verb and shows that having -s is singular and without having -s is plural.

As a whole, Nepali language has varieties of suffixes are added on the basis of gender, status and person. But in English language only -s is added to verbs.

3.2 The Tense Marker Affixes

Tense can be categorized into three types in Nepali language as well as English language. These are

Nepali	English
<i>Bartaman kal</i>	Present Tense
<i>Bhutkal kal</i>	Past Tense
<i>Bhabishyat kal</i>	Future Tense

In Nepali every tense has three sub types whereas English has four.

Nepali	English
<i>Samanya</i>	Simple
<i>Apurna</i>	Continuous
<i>Purna</i>	Perfect
	Perfect Continuous

3.2.1 Past Marker in Nepali Language

In Nepali language 'yo', 'ye', and 'T' are past markers which are added to verb.

- a) 'Yo': it is added to verb and it also shows gender. It specially shows male and 'T' is used for female.

Usle khana khayo.

(He ate rice.)

- b) 'Ye' also shows past tense and it is used with plural pronoun. It is added after verb.

Uni harule khana khaye.

(They ate rice.)

English Language: In English language 'ed, d, t are suffixes, which are used in making past tense and these suffixes are added to verbs. Here, end of letter determines that which suffix is used. Infix is used at making past tense in English Language.

Irregular suffix/ He ate rice.

Regular suffix (ed-): They played game.

3.2.2 Future Marker Affixes

Nepali Language: In Nepali language 'nechha' is future marker and it varies on the basis of status of subject. It is added to verb.

U khana khanechha.

(He will have rice)

Uniharu khana khanechhana

(They will eat rice)

English Language: Unlike Nepali language, auxiliary verbs ‘shall’ and ‘will’ are used instead of suffixes in the English language. These two auxiliary verbs show future tense.

Shall: /We shall eat rice.

Will: /He will eat rice.

3.2.3 Continuous Marker

Nepali Language: In Nepali language 'daichha' and 'iraheko' or 'iraheki' are suffixes which are added in verbs. But according to gender it is changed slightly.

U khana khadaichha

(He is eating rice)

Uni khana khadaichhin.

(She is eating rice)

U khana khairahkochha.

(He is eating rice)

English Language: in English language '-ing' is used in continuous tense and it is added in verb. Auxiliary is used along with '-ing'. It is similar with male and female gender.

He is eating rice.

They are eating rice.

3.2.4 Perfect Tense Marker

Nepali Language: in Nepali language *yeko chha* is used for all singular pronouns and *yeka chhan* is used for all plural.

Usle khana khayekochha.

(He has eaten rice.)

Uniharu le khana khayekachhan.

(They have eaten rice.)

English Language: *ed, en, t* are used for perfect tense but before using these sufficient English has only perfective marker suffixes. In regular verbs, ***-ed*** is the perfective marker suffix in English which is added to verb to mark all the persons and numbers to both non-past and past tense. It has of course, different allomorphs and the occurrence of one allomorph differs from the occurrence of another. They are as follows:

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

She has parked***ed*** the car.

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

He had been killed***ed***.

(iii) [-***id***] is attached to the regular verbs if the verbs end in /***t***/ and /***d***/ sound.

For example,

He has guided***ed*** me 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 the persons and numbers in both non-past and past tense. For example,

It has written*en*.

They had broken*en* the window.

3.3 The Negative Marker Affixes

Nepali Language: In Nepali language generally 'na' is negative marker and it can be used as prefix as well as suffix in verb. Generally, 'na' is added to verb.

As suffix:

U khana khadaina.

(He doesn't eat rice)

Uni khana khadinana.

(She doesn't eat rice)

As prefix:

Khanu- nakhanu

(Eat- not eat)

Janu- nanaju

(Go- not go)

Almost root forms, 'na' comes as prefix and in sentences it usually is used as suffix. As others gender also influences in verb because as gender it changes slightly.

Nepali language uses double negative when negative is made by changing word.

U khana kahilai khanna.

(He never eats rice.)

Here *kahilai* itself is taken as negative word but even negative suffix ‘-na’ is added after verb.

English Language: In English, there are no negative marker suffixes and infixes. Negative marker prefixes are added to the verbs irrespective of the inflectional suffixes attached to the verbs and irrespective of person, number and tense. So, only the negative marker prefixes are discussed below. For example,

(i) **dis-** is the negative marker prefix in English which means ‘not’ or ‘reversive’. For example:

Approve- disapprove

Continue- discontinue

(ii) **un-** is the negative marker prefix in English which means ‘reversive’. For example:

Lock - unlock

Do - undo

(iii) **mis-** is the negative marker prefix which means ‘badly’ or ‘wrongly’. For example:

Place - misplace

(iv) **mal-** is the negative marker prefix in English which means ‘bad’ or ‘badly’ or ‘not correctly’. For example:

Treat - maltreat

The second way of making negative in English language is to add not in auxiliary. 'not' is added at end of auxiliary.

Do - do not

Will - will not and so on.

3.4 The Number Marker Affixes

Nepali Language: In Nepali language *chha* and *chhu* are added in verbs and it determines number. In this language status marker plays greater role because it changes suffixes. In Nepali language only suffixes are used to mark number

U khana khanchha.

(He eats rice.)

Hami khana khanchhu.

(We eat rice.)

Here, '*chha*' shows third person singular and male gender. Similar, '*chhe*' shows third person singular but it is female gender.

Ram khana khanchha.

(Ram eats rice.)

Sita khana khanchhe.

(Sita eats rice.)

Similarly, '*chhan*' suffix is added in third person plural. It shows third person plural but it addresses both male and female.

Tiniharu khana khanchhan.

(They eat rice.)

Similarly, '*chhau*' shows second person singular and plural number. This suffix is added to verbs. Even pronoun is influenced from singular and plural.

Timi khana khanchhau.

Timiharu khana khanchhau.



(You eat rice.)

Similarly there are two suffixes in first person *chhu* and *chhau*. The first *chhu* is used for first person singular and *chhau* is for first person plural

Ma khana khanchhu.

(I eat rice.)

Hami khana khanchhau.

(We eat rice.)

In Nepali language, there is found various suffixes and which are influenced from person, person's status and gender.

English Language: English has only one number marker suffix i.e. *-s/es*. It is added to the verbs to indicate the third person singular number.

He eats rice

He plays game

He gives money

CHAPTER FOUR

FINDINGS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

4.1 Findings

- a) Nepali language has double in person marker. *Hami* itself is plural pronoun but *haru* suffix also added to it. Unlike that English language has not such case in language.
- b) Nepali language has status marker pronoun like, *Uha*, *Hajur*, etc and it also effects in verb level. But English language doesn't have that kind of relation or any status marker. One pronoun covers all status holders.
- c) There is somehow different between English and Nepali tense. Nepali language doesn't have perfect continuous. And English language doesn't have *Abhyast bhut* and *Agynat bhut*.
- d) Nepali language doesn't have any auxiliary verbs so suffixes are added to making future but in English language auxiliary verbs are used at making future.
- e) There is a slight change in verb according to gender in Nepali language but the case doesn't happen in English language. It has same verb for both Male and Female.
- f) Nepali language has used similar pattern of suffixes at making perfect tense but in English language has used different suffixes on the basis of sound. But it is not observed in Nepali language.
- g) Nepali language has double negative as negative but it is wrong in English. *U khana kahilai khanna* is negative sentence but in English *he doesn't never eat rice* is wrong. In Nepali and English language prefixes

are added at making negative but in Nepali language there is only one prefix '*na*' but in English there are many prefixes.

- h) In making plural Nepali language has one suffixes '*haru*' but in English language suffixes are used according to last letters of noun.

4.2 Recommendations

- a) In many cases Nepali and English language are not equivalent. There is difference even in fundamental grammar.
- b) The verbal affixation system in Nepali language is quite different from English. Therefore, teaching should be focused on the areas of differences.
- c) There are difficulties to understand one language in relation with another language.
- d) Affixation is one of the major processes of word formations in both English and Nepali language. Teachers who teach the Nepali language should encourage the students to increase the vocabulary power through affixation process.
- e) Verbal affixation system of English is not complicated as that of Nepali language. So, 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) Exclusiveness and inclusiveness in first person non-singular pronouns as subjects influence the verbal affixation system in Nepali language. Such system is not available in English. Therefore, the language teachers teaching either English or Nepali should be made aware of this fact to the learners.
- g) The verbal affixes added to the verbs depend upon even the person and number of the object of sentence in Nepali language. But verbal affixation solely depends upon the person and number of the subject of a sentence in English. Therefore, the teachers teaching English to Nepali speakers should be made aware of this fact.

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APPENDIX- I

INTERVIEW QUESTIONARE

The schedule of questionnaire has been prepared in order to accomplish a research work in entitled. “A Comparative Study on Verbal Affixation in English and Nepali”. This research is been carried out under the guidance of Pramod Niroula assistant Lecturer, English Language Education, faculty of education, Sukuna Multiple Campus, Indrapur Murang. It is hoped that your kind cooperation will be great contribution in the accomplishment of this valuable research..

Researcher

Bhupendra Raut

English Language Education

Sukuna Multiple campus

Indrapur-4, Morang.

Name: Sex...

District:

Academic Qualification:

How do you say the following expressions in Nepali?

1. I eat rice

.....

1. You eat meat
.....
2. He eats rice.
.....
3. I read a book.
.....
4. You read a book.
.....
5. He reads a book.
.....
6. I watch T.V.
.....
7. You watch T.V.
.....
8. He watches T.V.
.....
9. We eat rice.
.....
10. They eat rice.
.....
11. We read a book.
.....
12. They read a book.
.....
13. We watch T.V.
.....
14. They watch T.V.
.....
15. I ate rice.
.....
16. You ate rice.

.....
17. He ate rice.

.....
18. We ate rice.

.....
19. They ate rice.

.....
20. The son slept.

.....
21. The daughter slept.

.....
22. I will eat rice.

.....
23. You will eat rice.

.....
24. He will eat rice.

.....
25. We will eat rice.

.....
26. They will eat rice.

.....
27. The boy goes to school.

.....
28. The girl goes to school.

.....
29. Ram reads a book.

.....
30. Sita reads a book.

.....
31. I do not read a book.

32. He does not read a book.

.....

33. They do not read a book.

.....

34. We do not read a book.

.....

35. I do not eat rice.

.....

36. He does not eat rice.

.....

37. They do not eat rice.

.....

38. We do not eat rice.

.....

39. I do not go home.

.....

40. We do not go home.

.....

41. Don't move.

.....

42. Don't open the door.

.....

43. Don't cross the road.

.....

44. Ram went to graze the cow.

.....

45. I went to sleep.

.....

46. He went to read a book.

.....

47. Ram went to eat meat.

.....
48. I am eating rice.

.....
49. You are eating rice.

.....
50. He is eating rice.

.....
51. Hari is eating rice.

.....
52. I have eaten rice.

.....
53. He has eaten rice.

.....
54. I had eaten rice.

.....
55. He had eaten rice.

.....
56. I have slept.

.....
57. He has slept.

.....
58. I had slept.

.....
59. He had slept.

.....
60. You have eaten rice.

.....
61. We have eaten rice.

.....
62. They have eaten rice.

63. We had eaten rice.

.....

64. You had eaten rice.

.....

65. They had eaten rice.

.....

We had slept.

.....

66. You had slept.

.....

67. They had slept.

.....

68. I am writing a letter.

.....

69. You are writing a letter.

.....