CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 General Background

Language is one of the chief means of communicating ideas, thoughts, feelings and emotions. Language is species-specific. It is a uniquely human trait, shared by the cultures so diverse and by individuals physically and mentally so unlike one another. Language is one of the most important characteristic features of human behaviour. This is the feature that distinguishes human beings from other creatures in the world.

A human language is a signaling system which uses vocal sounds and is based on man's ability to speak. According to Chomsky (1968), "When we study human language, we are approaching what some might call 'human essence', distinctive qualities of mind that are so far as we know, unique to man" (as cited in Verma and Krishnaswamy, 1998, p. 16). It is the system of sounds, words, patterns, etc. used by humans to communicate thoughts and feelings. Richards et al. (1999, p. 196) defines language as "the system of human communication which consists of the structured arrangement of sounds into larger units, e.g. morphemes, word, sentences, utterances."

Language is a complex social phenomenon. It is a distinct property of human beings. Language is one of the widely used means of communication. This system of communication is as essential for human beings as food, shelter and clothes. It is the tool which has made human civilization possible. It plays a pivotal role in the scientific and technological developments. It is language through which human beings have been able to achieve what they have got so far.

1.1.1 Sociolinguistic Situation of Nepal

Despite being small in size, Nepal is full of diversity. In fact, it is a multi-racial, multi-cultural, multi-religious and multi-lingual country. It accommodates an amazing cultural diversity including linguistic plurality. Nepal is so fertile from the linguistic point of view that it has been one of the most engrossing areas of linguistic research.

More than ninety-two languages are found to be spoken in Nepal (CBS Report 2001). However, most of them do not have their own scripts. They are still confined to their oral traditions. Some of them are even in the verge of extinction. There are a number of factors responsible for language loss in Nepal. The major factors include lesser number of speakers, migration to urban areas or foreign countries, lack of language transmission to younger generation and such others.

1.1.2 The Language Family

All the languages identified and spoken in Nepal are classified under the four language families viz. Indo-European, Sino-Tibetan, Austro-Asiatic and Dravidian (Kansakar, 1999 as cited in Rai, 2003, p. 132). An attempt has been made to elicit a brief description of each of them.

1.1.2.1 The Indo-European Family

The Indo-European family of languages mainly comprises Indo-Aryan group of languages, which forms the largest group of languages in terms of speakers, viz. nearly eighty percent. In the context of Nepal, this family of languages consists of the following languages:

Nepali	Rajbansi	Darai
Maithily	Hindi	Kumal
Bhojpuri	Danuwar	Bote
Tharu	Bengali	Churauti
Awadhi	Marwari	Magahi
Urdu	Manjhi	Panjabi
English		

<p style="text-align:center">(Source: CBS, 2001)</p>

Some of the Indo-Aryan languages spoken in Nepal are yet to be sub-classified in the lack of their adequate description. These languages include Tharu, Bote, Kumal, Churauti, and Danuwar.

1.1.2.2 The Sino-Tibetan Family

The Sino-Tibetan family of languages can further be classified into three sub- groups, i.e. Sintic, Tibeto-Burman and Karen. The Tibeto-Burman family of languages, which is a sub-group of the Sino-Tibetan language family, consists of the larger number of languages and is spoken in various central and South Asian countries, including Myanmar (Burma), Tibet, Northern regions of Nepal and parts of India. In Nepalese context, this family of languages consists of the following languages:

Tamang	Newar	Magar
Gurung	Bantawa	Limbu
Sherpa	Chamling	Chepang
Sunuwar	Thami	Kulung
Dhimal	Yakha	Thulung
Sangpang	Khaling	Thakali
Chhantyal	Tibetan	Dumi
Jirel	Puma	Dongmali
Meche	Pahari	Lepcha
Baing	Raji	Hayu
Byangshi	Ghale	Chhiling
Lohorung	Chinese	Tilung
Kaile	Raute	Dzonkha
Lingkhim	Koche	Hoyu
Chhintang	Mizo	

(Source: ibid)

1.1.2.3 The Austro-Asiatic Family

The Austro-Asiatic family of languages is the mostly spoken language family of South-East Asia. In the context of Nepal, it comprises only one language, i.e. Santhali/Satar which is spoken in Jhapa district, one of the Eastern regions of Nepal.

1.1.2.4 The Dravidian Family

The Dravidian family of languages includes approximately seventy three languages that are mainly spoken in Southern India and Northern Sri Lanka, as well as certain areas in Pakistan, Nepal and Bangladesh. Jhangar/Dhangar and Kisan are the languages spoken in Nepal. Of these two languages, the former one is spoken on the province of the Koshi River and the latter one in Jhapa district.

1.1.3 The English Language: A Glimpse

There are several languages spoken in the world. Some of them have entertained prestige everywhere whereas some others are confined within certain places. English is one of those prestigious languages. It is the world's most widely used language. It deserves to be regarded as a world language. English is the common means of communication between the people of different nations.

The English language is the mother tongue of the people of Great Britain. Americans, Canadians and Australians are also the native speakers of English. It is taken as a second language in many countries including India. It is learned and taught as a foreign language in Nepal, with several other countries. The use of English is spread over almost everywhere.

A very important reason for regarding English as a world language is that the world's knowledge is enshrined in English (Verghese, 1989, p. 2). The books written in English are the main sources of getting scientific and technical knowledge. It is the language used in international conferences and seminars as an international lingua-franca. English deserves a special position since it has become the international language for communication.

English is the most dominant language in the world. It covers a wide range in human life. It is a medium to get to know the English speaking people and their ways of life. The English language is important for academic and specific purposes. It helps to

establish diplomatic relation with the foreign countries, to run trade, to enhance science and technology. In a nutshell, English has become a language of survival.

1.1.3.1 The English Language in Nepal

Throughout history, foreign language learning has always been an important practical concern. Today English is the world's most widely studied foreign language. The need of ELT is greatly felt throughout the world.

In the context of Nepal, the historical development of the English language goes back to the early 1850s. English has been learned and taught in Nepal since Rana regime. It is taught as a core subject from primary to the graduate level at present. It is taken as a major subject as well as a medium of instruction at various academic institutions. English has got the status of a foreign language in Nepal. It has been used mostly for academic purposes for years.

Teaching a foreign language aims at enabling the learners in such a way that they can participate to some degree and for certain purposes as a member of a community other than their own. The main objective of teaching English, therefore, is to make the learners able to communicate in English. But the problem is that even with years of efforts to learn English; the Nepalese learners of English seem to have problems in communicating English. The use of English is confined to formal situations only. Teaching of English in Nepal does not seem to proceed satisfactorily. There maybe various reasons behind it. The most affecting factor is the education system. The present education system of Nepal is not favorable for developing English. Providing a single period per day and a single subject on English is not sufficient to learn English. Another problem that Nepal is facing is the lack of expertise in ELT. Despite long institutional efforts of the government, the lack of trained English teachers is always being felt. Most of the English teachers are untrained. Even trained teachers are failure due to the lack of adequate and appropriate support materials (Bhattarai, 2006). They are still using the traditional methods of teaching language emphasizing on reading and writing skills. Listening and speaking skills are neglected without

which communicative purpose of teaching language will always be failure. The students are taught about the language not the language itself.

1.1.4 An Introduction to the Tamang Language

According to Yonjan (2006, p. 1), "Tamang people have been living in the Himalayan regions for 5000 years". They are one of the major aboriginal ethnic groups of Nepal, pertaining to the Mongoloid sub-branch of Tibeto-Burman language speaking community. They hold different perceptions about their societies, different notions of living and maintaining livelihood, different sets of ideas and methodologies associated with their customs and traditions. Now, they are found to be living almost all over the country. However, the dense population of Tamang remains in the surrounding districts of the Kathmandu valley. The main areas occupied by them are the Himalayan regions of the Central Development Region of Nepal. They are also found to be living outside Nepal especially in Darjeeling, Sikkim, Asam, Nagaland and Arunanchal Pradesh of North-East India, Bhutan, Myanmar and even in Tibet.

Tamang is a language of the Tibeto-Burman language family belonging to the same branch as classical Tibetan. It is the language spoken by Tamang people as a mother tongue. The Tamang langauge is called Tamang or Tamang Gyoi/ Gyot. In Tamang, Gyoi or Gyot refers to speech or voice of Tamang. Tamang is known under several appellations such as 'Tamang Tam', 'Tamang Lengmo'; 'Tamang Kyat', 'Tamang Kayi', 'Tamang Gyot', and 'Tamang Gyoi' within the Tamang communities. These different words stand for the 'Tamang Language'. The Tamang language has eighteen vowel phonemes and thirty-seven consonant phonemes (Poudel, 2006, p. 5). One of the special features of this language is the maximum use of the phoneme '*nga*'. It has its own classical written script, which is called Tamgyhig. Tamang community has also accepted Devanagari script. Most of the Tamang publications are based on Devanagari script.

1.1.4.1 Dialects of the Tamang Language

It is well acknowledged that there are two regional varieties of the Tamang language: Eastern and Western. Trisuli River is considered as the boundary line of these regional varieties. These regional varieties differ phonologically, grammatically as well as lexically. The Eastern variety has been recognized as the standard form in which a variety of literature and linguistic description including its phonology, grammar, and lexicography, and teaching materials are available in comparison to the Western variety (Lama, 2005, p. 16).

I. Eastern Dialect

This dialect is spoken in the Eastern side of the Trishuli River; in Sindhupalchok, Kabhrepalanchok, Makawanpur, Ramechhap, Dolakha, and the Eastern parts of Nepal, and the North-Eastern region of India. It has also been classified into two parts: 'Sailunge dialect' which is spoken in the North-Eastern part of the Sunkoshi River and 'Temale dialect' which is spoken in the Southern part of the Sunkoshi River. The Eastern variety has been recognized as the standard form in which a variety of literature and linguistic description including its phonology, grammar, and lexicography, and teaching materials are available in comparison to the Western variety.

II. Western Dialect

This dialect is spoken in the Western side of the Trishuli River; in Dhading, Nuwakot, Rasuwa and Gorkha districts. The number of varieties that the Western dialect includes has not been identified yet. This variety lacks literature and linguistic description in comparison to the Eastern variety.

1.1.4.2 Distribution of Tamang Population

According to the census report 2001, the Tamang constitutes 5.64 % of the country's population. The number of active speakers is 11, 79,145 (5.19%). The dense population of Tamang remains in the districts of Central Development Region mainly in Rasuwa (63.75%), Makawanpur (47.34%), Nuwakot (38.52%), Kabhrepalanchowk

(33.78%), Sindhupalchowk (30.93%), Sindhuli (25.36%), Dhading (21.48%), Ramechap (20.56%), and Dolakaha (13.52%). They undoubtedly constitute the largest Tibeto-Burman language group in Nepal. According to the CBS 2001, Tamang is the fifth largest language spoken in the country as a mother tongue.

Table No. 1

Distribution of Tamang Population

SN	Districts	Total Population	Tamang Population	Percentage of Tamang population
01	Rasuwa	44,731	28,515	63.75
02	Makawanpur	3,92,604	1,85,874	47.34
03	Nuwakot	2,88,478	1,11,112	38.52
04	Kavrepalanchowk	3,85,672	1,30,261	33.78
05	**Sindhupalachok**	**3,05,857**	**94,614**	**30.93**
06	Sindhuli	2,79,821	70,968	25.36
07	Dhading	3,38,658	72,746	21.48
08	Ramechhap	2,12,408	43,669	20.56
09	Dolakha	2,04,229	27,619	13.52
10	Lalitpur	3,37,785	40,059	11.86
11	Bhaktapur	2,23,461	14,728	6.53
12	Kathmandu	10,81,845	92,378	8.53
Total Population		40,97,549	9,12,543	22.27

(Source: CBS, 2001)

1.1.5 Contrastive Analysis: An Overview

Contrastive analysis has been defined as 'a systematic analysis of similarities and differences between languages' concerning the nature and principles of second or foreign language teaching and learning. CA was introduced in the late 1940s in the United States strongly advocated by C. C Fries and Robert Lado. Fries made the first clarion call for CA in 1945 in his book entitled 'Teaching and Learning English as a Foreign Language'. Later in 1957, Lado made it more direct and explicit by developing a technique to carry out CA. Lado, in his book 'Linguistics Across Culture' (1957, pp. 1-2) has given the following assumptions of CA which have significant role in language teaching and learning.

i. Individuals tend to transfer the forms and meanings and the distribution of forms and meanings of their native language and culture to the foreign language and culture both productively when attempting to speak the language…and receptively when attempting to grasp and understand the language.

ii. In the comparison between native and foreign language lies the key to ease or difficulty in foreign language learning.

iii. The teacher who has made comparison of a foreign language with the native language of the students will know better what the real problems are and can better provide for teaching them.

CA compares two or more languages in order to find out similarities and differences between them. Often these two languages are source language and target language or L1 and L2. CA claims that the greater the differences between the target language and the learner's native language, the greater is difficulty in learning and the greater the similarities between them the greater is ease in learning. Lado (1957, p. 2 as cited in Corder 1973, p.229) writes:

We assume that the student who comes in contact with a foreign language

will find some features of it quite easy and others extremely difficult. Those

elements that are similar to his native language will be simple for him, and

those elements that are different will be difficult.

The basic assumption of CA is that while the learner is learning a second language, she will tend to use her first language structures in her learning and where structures in her target language differ from her native language, she will commit an error. Similarly, it is also assumed that the past learning may facilitate present leaning if L1 and L2 are similar and the past learning may hinder present learning if L1 and L2 are different.

This hypothesis when analyzed is said to have two components: linguistic and psychological. The first one is based on the following assumptions:

i.   Language learning is a matter of habit formation.
ii.   The mind of a child at birth is a tabula rasa.
iii. Languages are comparable.

Psychological hypothesis which is also known as interference or transfer theory maintains that greater the differences greater is the difficulty and greater the similarities greater is the ease.

1.1.5.1 Importance of Contrastive Analysis

Contrastive analysis is carried out mainly for pedagogical purpose. It has two functions: firstly to predict the likely errors of a group of learners and secondly to predict input to language teaching and learning. It provides input to language teaching and learning by: a) pointing the areas of differences and errors in performance, b) determining what the learners have to learn, and c) designing teaching/learning materials for those particular areas that need more attention. Thus, the functions of CA are called predictive and explanatory.

The ultimate objective of pedagogically oriented CA is the improvement of foreign-language teaching. It facilitates the teaching of foreign language by explaining TL

errors. In course of teaching, a language teacher should have a sound knowledge of CA to treat the learners psychologically and academically. Unless she knows the resources and types of the errors that they commit she will not be able to teach them effectively. Such a comparison helps in pointing the areas of difficulty in learning and errors in performances. It also helps in designing teaching/learning materials for those particular areas that need more attention. The findings of CA are useful not only for language teachers but also for course designers, testing experts and learners.

1.1.6 Transformational Theory: An Overview

The transformational generative grammar is a linguistic theory, the most influential one, for about half a century. It was first proposed by Noam Chomsky in his book 'Syntactic Structures' in 1957. With the publication of his book, he has become not only a prominent but also a controversial figure in the field of linguistics. Technically, TG grammar is a set of formal rules which projects a finite set of sentences upon the potentially infinite set of sentences that constitute the language as a whole, and it does this in an explicit manner, assigning each set of structural descriptions.

Generative grammar is transformational as well as generative. Transformation refers to the rules which transform a sentence onto another one. It is the process which enables two levels of structural presentation to be placed in correspondence.

Generative, on the other hand, refers to the capacity of grammar to define the set of grammatical sentences in a language. To generate means to enumerate something. In linguistics, the limited set of rules can generate unlimited number of sentences. For instance, the following rule can enumerate almost all of the sentences of the English language.

$$S \rightarrow NP+ (AUX) +VP$$

Chomsky believes that there is only one human language in the world; the innumerable languages that are in existence are varieties of a single language. A grammar should therefore be universal, i.e. it should describe all the natural

languages. It should be able to discover the linguistic universals applicable to all the natural languages.

Sentences of all languages have both a deep structure, which gives the meaning of the sentence, and a surface structure, which gives the form of the sentence as it is used in communication. Thus, a deep structure is an abstract object; it is a structure one assumes on the basis of the meaning of a sentence and its syntax. A surface structure is closer to physical reality in that it concretely specifies the syntactic structure necessary for spoken or written communication. A deep structure becomes a surface structure through transformations.

Grammatical transformation is a linguistic operation which changes the order of elements or constituents in the structure. More specifically, transformation is a process which changes deep structure (underlying structure) into surface structure (concrete structure) applying T-rules. Transformations relate deep structure and surface structure or more specifically, they transform one constituent structure into another.

<div align="center">Transformation</div>

| DEEP STRUCTURE | $\Rightarrow$ | SURFACE STRUCTURE |
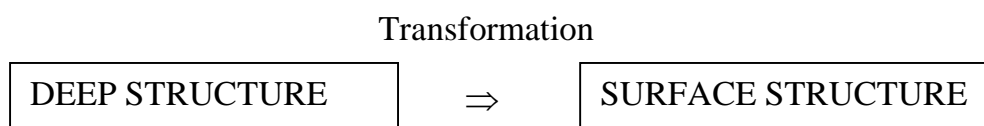
The rules which generate the deep structure of sentences in all languages are the same, and that they differ outwardly or superficially, only because the same underlying structure has undergone a different transformational derivation.

According to Chomsky (1965, pp.15-16):

A generative grammar must be a system of rules that can iterate to generate an indefinitely large number of structures. This system of rules can be analyzed into the three major components of a generative grammar: the syntactic, phonological, and semantic components.

TG offers a framework which ensures that there are a common set of categories and relations for the comparison of two languages. A transformational model specifies that

the grammar has two components, an inner syntactic component, and a transformational component which generates the outer or surface structure of sentences.

1.1.6.1 Advantages of Using TG in CA

The advantages of using TG in contrastive analysis can be listed as follows (Nickel, 1971, pp. 4-5):

i. Differences between languages are formulated as differences between systems and domains of rules.

ii. The concept of 'deep structure' and 'surface structure' is formulated in TG. In the light of this notion many structural differences between source and target language turn out to be merely superficial: a deep structure feature common to both languages maybe manifested differently in the surface structure of the languages and vice-versa.

iii. A further point in favour of using TG in CA is the current preoccupation of TG grammarians with linguistic universals, i.e. with linguistic statements which include all languages in their scope.

1.1.7 Grammatical Class

Grammatical class is one of the basic concepts in grammar. It generally refers to a set of entities sharing certain formal or semantic properties. The items that have the same possibility of occurrence in a certain linguistic context belong to the same class.

If words are assigned to the same class it implies that they share a number of properties. Word class membership is said to depend on at least two kinds of properties: morphological and syntactic. The class to which a word belongs can be established on morphological grounds if the word in question has inflectional and/or derivational characteristics that are typical of that class. Thus, the words that belong to the class of verbs generally take the inflectional endings *-s, -ing* and *-ed*. Typical inflectional endings for nouns are *-s*, and *-s'*. Typical endings for adjectives are the

comparative and superlative endings *-er* and *-est*. The same three classes also contain many members that are derivationally identifiable. Thus, words ending in *-ify*, and *-ize* are verbs, words ending in *-ation*, *-ity* and *-ness* are nouns, and words that are formed by the suffixes *-able*, *-ish* and *-less* are adjectives.

Syntactic properties of word classes are reflected by the typical ways in which their members function in sentences and phrases. Thus, nouns are typically associated with the subject and object, verbs with the predicator, adjectives with the subject attribute and object attribute, and adverbs with the adverbial.

An attempt has been made to identify word classes on the basis of semantic criteria. Nouns have been traditionally defined as words denoting persons, animals, places, objects. Verbs are the words denoting actions, states and processes; and adjective are the words referring to qualities. Semantic criteria are less reliable indicators of word class membership than morphological and syntactic ones. Grammatical class includes noun, verb, adjective, adverb and so on.

1.1.8 Noun: Kinds of Nouns

Noun is one of the grammatical categories referring to a name of a person, place, thing, quality and event. The groups of words that are names and can be identified by the following tests are nouns.

They can, as a rule, change their form to make plurals, i.e. *pot-pots*,
They can take determiners, or markers, that point to them, i.e. *one lake.*
They have possessive forms i.e. *dog's tail.*
They occur in their typical positions.

Nouns are classified into five groups in English (Wren and Martin, 1989, pp. 4-6).

1.1.8.1 Proper Noun

A proper noun is the name of some particular person or place. Generally, proper noun refers to one's own. Hence, a proper name is a person's own name. Proper nouns are always capitalized. For example: *Henry* (Person), *America* (Place).

Proper nouns are sometimes used as common nouns if they denote some class/rank of person or thing. For example: Kalidas is often called the *Shakespeare* (= the greatest dramatist) of India.

1.1.8.2 Common Noun

A common noun is a name given in common to every person or place or thing of the same class or kind. Common nouns name any one of a class of persons, places, or things: *boy* (person), *country* (place), *book* (thing).

1.1.8.3 Collective Noun

A collective noun is the name of a number (or collection) of persons or things taken together and spoken of as one whole. Collective nouns name groups.

A *fleet* = a collection of ships

An *army* = a collection of soldiers

A *crowd* = a collection of people

1.1.8.4 Abstract Noun

An abstract noun is usually the name of a quality, action, or state considered apart from the object to which it belongs. Abstract nouns name a quality or an idea that is formed in the mind.

Quality = *goodness, honesty, wisdom*

Action = *love, hatred, judgement*

State = *childhood, youth, poverty*

1.1.8.5 Compound Noun

Compound nouns have two or more words in them. In some, the words are written separately: *bank account*. In others, the words are hyphenated: *son-in-law*.

Nouns may also be classified as count nouns or mass nouns. Count nouns are ones that can be counted: three minutes, six tickets. They can be tested by putting a, an, or many

before them. Mass nouns are the ones which are not ordinarily countable: weather, blood. They are also called non-count nouns.

1.1.9 Pronoun

A pronoun is a word that stands for a noun or for a group of words used as a noun. Simply, it is a word used instead of a noun. It is a useful part of speech because it is a substitute word. Without it, expression would be very dull and monotonous. Pronouns can be used in the ways that nouns can be used: as subjects, direct objects, indirect objects, objects of prepositions and so on. They differ from nouns in one important respect: a noun remains the same in all the different uses but a pronoun may change its form depending upon its use, i.e.

> *Anu* was there. (*subject*)   Pasang saw *Anu*. (*direct object*)
>
> *She* was there. (*subject)*   Pasang saw *her*. (*direct object*)

1.1.9.1 Personal Pronouns

Personal pronouns refer to (a) the speaker: *I, me, my, mime, we, us, our, ours*; (b) the person spoken to: *you, your, yours*; or (c) the person spoken about: *he, him, his, she, her, hers, it, its, they, them, their, theirs*. They are called personal pronouns because they stand for the three persons: first, second and third.

The pronouns *I* and *we*, which denote the person or persons speaking, are said to be personal pronouns of the first person. The pronoun *you*, which denotes the person or persons spoken to, is said to be a personal pronoun of the second person. The pronouns *he*/*she* and *they*, which denote the person or persons spoken of, are said to be personal pronouns of the third person. *It*, although it denotes the thing spoken of, is also called a personal pronoun of the third person.

1.1.10 Grammatical Category

In the field of grammar, categorization refers to the establishment of a set of classificatory units. The term in some approaches refers to the classes themselves, i.e.

noun, verb, subject, predicate, etc. More specifically, it refers to the defining properties of the general units: the categories of the noun, for example, include number, gender, and case; the categories of the verb include tense, aspect, voice, etc. The category is also found to be classified into two types: primary (parts of speech) and secondary (notions associated with parts of speech, e.g. number, person, gender, etc.).

1.1.11 Number

Number is one of the grammatical categories. It is a feature of nouns, demonstratives, personal pronouns and verbs. Nouns have singular or plural number and verbs in the third person vary for singular and plural agreement with the subject noun. The nouns, which according to the main rule are singular, are (Leech and Svartvik, 1975, p. 252).

  i.   Singular count nouns, i.e. nouns denoting 'one': a boy, the table, this idea, etc.
 ii.   Mass nouns: advertising, our music, the butter, etc.
iii.   Proper nouns: John, Mars, the Thames, etc.

The only nouns which normally occur in the plural are plural count nouns, i.e. denoting 'more than one': two boys, these ideas, etc.

A noun can have the feature (+singular) on one occasion and (-singular) on other. Number is not normally a part of meaning of most nouns. It is hardly surprising that number normally has to be signaled in surface structure form of nouns by the presence or absence of the suffix *'s'*. Such syntactic phenomena as number on nouns raise a very important question, one to which a definite answer cannot be given at the present time: How can number be represented in deep structures? First, it could be represented in terms of the features (+singular) and (-singular) generated on noun segments by the segment structure rules. Second, number can be thought of in terms of constituent structure. Here, one might suppose the existence of two constituents, SG and PL, generated by the PS rule for noun phrases. The noun phrase "the books" would appear roughly as follows in the two systems. (Jacobs et al. 1968, p. 82).

<div align="center">

Fig. No. 1   **Fig. No. 2**

</div>

Absence of the Suffix 'S'   **Presence of the Suffix 'S'**

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          NP                              NP
         /  \                           / | \
        /    \                         /  |  \
      ART     N                      ART  N   PL
       |      |                       |   |
       |      |                       |   |
      the   ┌ book ┐                 the ┌ book ┐
            │ (+N) │                     │ (+N) │
            │-singular┘                  └      ┘
            └      ┘
```
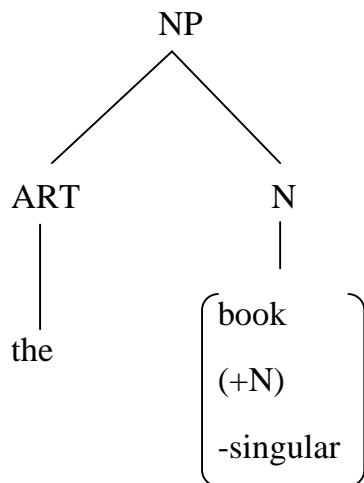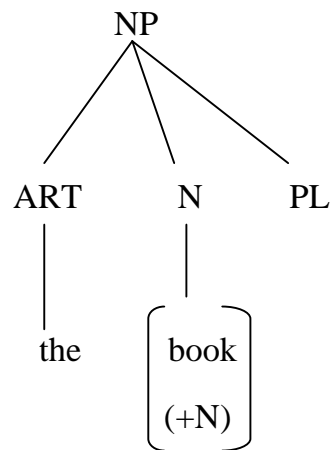
1.1.12 Pluralization in English

Plural is a term used in grammar to refer to more than one. Pluralization, therefore, is a linguistic process of transferring singular forms of nouns or verbs into the plural ones. This process of making plural exists in all the languages of the world. But this very linguistic process may vary from language to language.

Generally, a noun or a pronoun that denotes one person or thing is said to be in the singular number and if that denotes more than one person or thing that is said to be in plural number. English has following rules of pluralization of nouns (Wren and Martin, 1989, pp. 9-13).

    i.   The plural of nouns are generally formed by adding **-s** to the singular.

Singular	**Plural**
boy	*boys*
book	*books*

    ii.   Nouns ending in *-s, -sh, -ch, or -x* form the plural by adding **-es** to the singular.

Singular	**Plural**
class	*classes*
dish	*dishes*
watch	*watches*
box	*boxes*

iii.   Most nouns ending in *-o* form the plural by adding **-es** to the singular.

Singular	Plural
hero	*heroes*
cargo	*cargoes*

But a few nouns ending in *-o* merely add **-s**.

Singular	Plural
piano	*pianos*
photo	*photos*

iv.   Nouns ending in *-y* preceded by a consonant form their plural by changing *-y* into *-i* and adding *-es*.

Singular	Plural
baby	*babies*
city	*cities*

But nouns ending in *-y* preceded by a vowel, form their plural simply by adding *-s*.

Singular	Plural
key	*keys*
day	*days*

v.   Most nouns ending in *-f* or *-fe* form their plural by changing *-f* or *-fe* into *-ve* and adding *-es*.

Singular	Plural
thief	*thieves*
knife	*knives*

But the nouns like *dwarf, hoof, scarf etc*. take either *-s* or **-ves** in their plural.

Singular	Plural
dwarf	*dwarfs/dwarves*
hoof	*hoofs/hooves*

And nouns like *chief, safe, gulf, cliff, proof* etc. add only *-s*.

Singular	Plural
chief	*chiefs*
proof	*proofs*

vi.   Some nouns form their plural by changing the inside vowel of the singular.

Singular	Plural

man	*men*
foot	*feet*

vii. Some nouns form their plural by adding the *-en* to the singular.

Singular	**Plural**
ox	*oxen*
child	*children*

viii. A compound noun generally forms its plural by adding *-s* to the principal word.

Singular	**Plural**
son-in-law	*sons-in-law*
passer-by	*passers-by*

But a few compound nouns take double plural.

Singular	**Plural**
man servant	*men servants*
woman worker	*women workers*

ix. Many nouns taken from foreign languages keep their original plural form.

Singular	**Plural**
index	*indices(Latin)*
criterion	*criteria(Greek)*

x. Letters, figures and other symbols are made plural adding apostrophe (′) and *s*. There are more *e′s* than *a′s* in this page.

xi. Some nouns have the singular and the plural alike.

Singular	**Plural**
swine	*swine*
sheep	*sheep*

xii. Some nouns are used only in the plural. (a) Names of instruments which have two parts forming a kind of pair; as, *scissors, spectacles*. (b) Names of certain articles or dresses; as, *trousers, shorts*.

xiii. The following nouns look like plural but are in fact singular: (a) Names of subjects; as, *physics, mathematics*. (b) Names of some common diseases; as, *measles, mumps*. (c) The word *news*. (d) Names of some games; as, *billiards, droughts*.

xiv.   Certain collective nouns, though singular in form, are always used as plurals; as, *cattle, poultry*.

1.2 Review of the Related Literature

Some researchers have carried out the researches on comparative study of different languages. The researcher has reviewed the following research works which are related to the present study.

Lama (2005) made a comparative study on English and Tamang pronominals. He came up with the result that unlike in English, Tamang has not only greater number of pronouns, but also the complex pronominal system. He also found that Tamang personal and possessive pronouns are categorized under three numbers: singular, dual and plural. This shows the distinction between inclusive and exclusive references in the first person, dual and plural numbers in the Tamang language.

Similarly, Tamang (2007) conducted a comparative research on the forms of address of Tamang and English. He tried to find out the forms of address used in Tamang and English languages and to compare the common equivalents in Tamang. His study showed that the Tamang language has several forms of address in comparison to the English language. English has also less number of kinship terms.

In the same way, Sah (2007) carried out a comparative study on pluralization of nouns in English and Bajjika to identify the process of pluralization in the Bajjika language. He found that *'sa'* suffix is added to the singular Bajjika noun to make it plural. Sometimes both a determiner and a suffix are found to be used to make a singular noun plural. He concluded that there is limited number of rules of pluralization in Bajjika than in English and the rules of that language differ from that of the rules of English.

Likewise, Serma (2008) conducted a study on pluralization in English and Limbu to compare and contrast the Limbu pluralization with that of English. The interview schedule and participant observation were used as major tools for collecting data. He found that '-*si*' and '-*ha*' are the suffixes to change a singular noun into a plural one. Sometimes both determiner and suffix are used to pluralize a singular noun into a plural

one in Limbu. His study showed that the process of pluralization in Limbu is very much similar to that of English.

In the same way, Yadav (2008) carried out a comparative study on pluralization of nouns in English and Maithili to identify the process of pluralization in the Maithili language. His study showed that the suffix '-*sab*' is used while transforming a singular Maithili noun into the plural one. The suffix '-*lokain*' is also used with human nouns to make them plural. He concluded that there are a limited number of rules of pluralization of nouns in Maithili in comparison to English.

Similarly, Bamjan (2009) carried out a research on cases in English and Tamang. He identified ergative, instrumental, genitive, agentive, comitative, locative, ablative, dative and vocative cases in the Tamang language. Suffixes are used to mark them. His study showed that the cases like instrumental locative, comitative, genitive, ablative, dative, and vocative are common to both languages. However, they are marked differently.

There are a very few research works available on pluralization. No attempt has been made to carry out research on pluralization in the Tamang language. Thus, the researcher am interested in conducting a research on this topic.

1.3 Objectives of the Study

The objectives of the study were as follows:

i.   To identify the pluralization system in the Tamang language.
ii.   To compare and contrast the pluralization system of the Tamang language with that of English.
iii. To suggest some pedagogical implications on the basis of the findings.

1.4 Significance of the Study

The present study is expected to be helpful in the field of linguistics in particular, and in the field of language teaching and learning in general. This research will be fruitful to all the linguists, language planners, language teachers, students, textbook writers, syllabus designers and the researchers who are interested in carrying out research on the Tamang

language. Supervisors and other interested persons can derive information from this research work to facilitate their works in the related field.

1.5 Definitions of the Specific Terms

Dative case: The case which expresses an indirect object relationship is called dative case.

Deep structure: Abstract or underlying structure which is endowed in speaker's, reader's, listener's and writer's mind.

Locative case: The case which denotes the location or spatial orientation of the state or action identified by the verb is called locative case.

Noun: Noun is a naming word.

Number: Number is a special feature of a noun and a pronoun which reflects in verb and adjective, i.e. adjective and verb can be inflected to show a particular number.

Pluralization: A linguistic process of turning the singular form of nouns, verbs, personal pronouns and demonstratives into the plural one.

Pronoun: A word which is used instead of a noun.

Suffix: A morpheme added at the end of a word to change it into another form.

Surface structure: Concrete structure that can be seen and realized in writing and speaking.

CHAPTER TWO

METHODOLOGY

The researcher used the following methodology to accomplish the objectives of the study.

2.1 Sources of Data

The researcher used both primary and secondary sources of data to carry out the study.

2.1.1 Primary Sources of Data

The primary sources of data were the Tamang native speakers of Chautara VDC of Sindhupalchok district.

2.1.2 Secondary Sources of Data

The secondary sources of data were different books, journals, magazines, research reports, theses and other materials which were related to the present study. Some of the sources consulted were: Wren and Martin (1989), Kumar (1996), Rai (2000), Yonjan (2003), Lama (2005), Poudel (2006), Yonjan (2006), Sah (2007), Tamang (2007), Serma (2008) and Yadav (2008).

2.2 Population of the Study

The population of the study was eighty Tamang native speakers of the selected VDC of Sindhupalchok district. Both male and female informants were consulted to find out if they had different processes of forming plurals in Tamang.

2.3 Sampling Procedure

Chautara VDC of Sindhupalchok district was selected for the collection of data. Eighty native speakers of Tamang were selected from the selected VDC representing both male and female. Snowball sampling procedure was adopted to sample the population. First, a few individuals, who were thought to have the required

information and be willing to share it, were selected and the information was collected from them. They were then asked to identify other people who were close to them, and the people selected by them became a part of the sample. Information was collected from them as well.

2.4 Tools for Data Collection

The researcher used interview schedule and questionnaire as major tools to elicit the required data. The former one was for the illiterate informants, the ones who were unable to read and write and the latter one was for the literate informants, the ones who were able to read and write. He also had a group discussion with native speakers of Tamang to verify the collected data.

2.5 Process of Data Collection

The researcher himself was involved in the process of data collection. Having constructed the interview schedule and questionnaire, he visited the selected area in order to establish rapport with the informants. The needs and objectives of the study were briefly explained. The illiterate informants were interviewed using the pre-structured interview schedule. Similarly, the literate informants were distributed questionnaire. The researcher also engaged in daily conversation with the informants. Their responses were kept for the analysis.

2.6 Limitations of the Study

The limitations of the study were as follows:

i.   The study was confined to 80 native speakers of the Tamang language.
ii.   The area of study was limited to Chautara VDC of Sindhupalchok district.
iii. The study was limited to the process of pluralization of nouns and personal pronouns of English and Tamang.
iv.   The interview schedule and questionnaire were the major tools for data collection.

CHAPTER THREE

ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION OF DATA

This chapter deals with the analysis and interpretation of the data. The collected data have been analyzed on the basis of semantic and structural nature of nouns with the help of tables and illustrations. Having analyzed the data, the processes of pluralization are identified and they are compared with those of English. Thus, this chapter consists of two parts: identification of the pluralization system in the Tamang language and comparison of the Tamang pluralization system with that of English.

3.1 Pluralization in the Tamang Language

The pluralization system in Tamang has been presented in terms of both nouns and pronouns.

3.1.1 Pluralization of Nouns in the Tamang Language

A noun in Tamang can be defined as that class of word which syntactically functions as a subject or an object of a finite verb, and can take number and case suffixes with assigned gender, and also can be followed by a postposition or functions as the head of a noun phrase (Yonjan, 1997 as cited in Yonjan, 2003, p. 20). Consider the following sentences.

> ***naagi*** *kaan cha-ban mu-la.*
> A ***dog*** is eating rice.
> ***naagi-uttu*** *kaan cha-ban mu-la.*
> ***Dogs*** are eating rice.

Here, ***naagi*** (dog) and ***kaan*** (rice) are nouns; the former being subject and the latter being object of the verb *cha-ban mu-la* (eating) respectively.

How different groups of nouns are pluralized in Tamang is presented below.

3.1.1.1 Semantic Classification of Nouns

Semantically the nouns in Tamang are classified into two major groups following their sub-groups on the basis of common shared features, i.e. animate (±human, +number, +dative, -locative), inanimate (-human, +number, -dative, +locative). Animate nouns can further be classified as human and non-human.

Fig. No. 3

Semantic Classifications of Nouns

```
                      Nouns
                     /      \
                    /        \
              Animate      Inanimate
              /     \
             /       \
        Human      Non-human
```
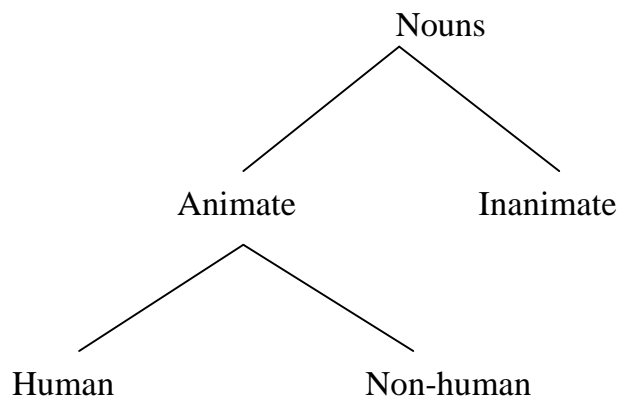
I. Animate Nouns

Animate nouns are inflected for numbers and cases, except the locative case. Human nouns are inflected for plural and the dative case. The third person pronoun *the* 's/he' substitutes the singular human noun. Non-human nouns are also inflected for plural and the dative case. The singular non-human noun is substituted with *chu* 'it'. The pluralization system of animate nouns in the Tamang language is presented below.

i.   **The Names of Human Kinship**

Generally, the names of singular human kinship terms are made plural by adding the suffix *-na* to them. However, the suffix *-dugu/-jugu* is also found to be used with them as a common plural marker, e.g. *jaa-dugu*.

Singular	**Plural**
aagu 'an uncle'	*aagu-na* 'uncles'
jyojyo 'an elder brother'	*jyojyo-na* 'elder brothers'
jaame 'a daughter'	*jaame-na* 'daughters'

<div align="center">

anga 'a younger sister'   *anga-na* 'younger sisters'

jaa 'a son'   *jaa-na* 'sons'
</div>

nga-ni-la aagu-na yambu ri seji.

Our uncles went to Kathmandu.

The number of human kinship nouns used in interview schedule/questionnaire and the number of informants with different plural markers can be illustrated as follows:

<div align="center">

Table No. 2

Plural Markers with Human Kinship Nouns

</div>

The Number of Nouns	The Number of Informants	
	With *-na*	With *-dugu*
7 (8.75%)	67 (83.75%)	13 (16.25%)

The above table shows that 83.75% of the total Tamang informants used *-na* as a plural marker with human kinship nouns. Similarly, 16.25% of them used *-dugu* as a plural marker with those nouns.

ii.   **The Names of Humans**

The singular names of human are pluralized adding the suffix *-dugu/   -jugu* to them. The plural markers *-bagal* and *-uttu* can also be used with them, e.g. *mhi-uttu*.

<div align="center">

Singular	Plural
mring-kola 'a lady'	*mring-kola-dugu* 'ladies'
rhembo-kola 'a man'	*rhembo-kola-dugu* 'men'
jaja-kola 'a child'	*jaja-kola-dugu* 'children'
chhame-kola 'a girl'	*chhame-kola-dugu* 'girls'
mhi 'a person'	*mhi-dugu* 'men'

</div>

nga-i mring-kola-dugu kkyat la-ban mrang-ji.

I saw ladies working.

The number of human nouns used in interview schedule/questionnaire and the number of informants with different plural markers can be illustrated as follows:

Table No. 3

Plural Markers with Human Nouns

The Number of Nouns	The Number of Informants		
	With *-dugu*	With *-bagal*	With *-uttu*
19 (23.75%)	41 (51.25%)	9 (11.25%)	30 (37.50%)

The above table shows that 51.25% of the total Tamang informants used *-dugu* as a plural marker with human nouns. Similarly, 11.25% of them used *-bagal* and 37.50% of them used *-uttu* as plural markers with those nouns.

 iii. **The Names of Non-humans**

The plural suffix *-uttu* is used with singular non-human nouns to pluralize them. The suffix *-gaade* is also found to be used with them as *naaga-gaade*.

Singular	**Plural**
ghuri 'a cat'	*ghuri-uttu* 'cats'
raa 'a goat'	*raa-uttu* 'goats'
taarnga 'a fish'	*taarnga-uttu* 'fish'
naame 'a bird'	*naame-uttu* 'birds'
naaga 'a hen'	*naaga-uttu* 'hens'

ghuri-uttu chhat-ban mu-ba.

Cats were fighting.

The number of non-human nouns used in interview schedule/questionnaire and the number of informants with different plural markers can be illustrated as follows:

Table No. 4

Plural Markers with Non-human Nouns

The Number of Nouns	The Number of Informants	
	With *-uttu*	With *-gaade*
13 (16.25%)	74 (92.5%)	6 (7.5%)

The above table shows that 92.5% of the total Tamang informants used *-uttu* as a plural marker with non-human nouns. Similarly, 7.5% of them used *-gaade* as a plural marker with those nouns.

II. Inanimate Nouns

Inanimate nouns are also generally inflected for numbers and cases, except the dative case. The singular inanimate noun is also replaced by *chu* 'it'. The suffix *-uttu* is a common plural maker used with the inanimate singular nouns while making them plural. However, the plural marker *-bagal* and *-gaade* are also used with them as *chhang-bagal* and *kaadi-gaade* respectively**.**

Singular	**Plural**
chyoi 'a book'	*chyoi-uttu* 'books'
*chhan*g 'a basket'	*chhang-uttu* 'baskets'
mrap 'a door'	*mrap-uttu* 'doors'
kaadi 'a stick'	*kaadi-uttu* 'sticks'
dim 'a house'	*dim-uttu* 'houses'

nga-ni-la pab den chhyoi-uttu mu-la.

My father has books.

The number of inanimate nouns used in interview schedule/questionnaire and the number of informants with different plural markers can be illustrated as follows:

Plural Markers with Inanimate Nouns

The Number of Nouns	The Number of Informants		
	With *-uttu*	With *-bagal*	With *-gaade*
41 (51.25%)	63 (78.75%)	12 (15%)	5 (6.25%)

The above table shows that 78.75% of the total Tamang informants used *-uttu* as a plural marker with inanimate nouns. Similarly, 15% of them used *-bagal* and 6.25% of them used *-gaade* as plural markers with those nouns.

3.1.1.2 Structural Classification of Nouns

There are four types of noun stems in Tamang viz. simple, complex, compound and derived. A brief introduction of each is attempted to be dealt with.

Fig. No. 4

Structural Classifications of Nouns

Nouns

Simple   Complex   Compound   Derived
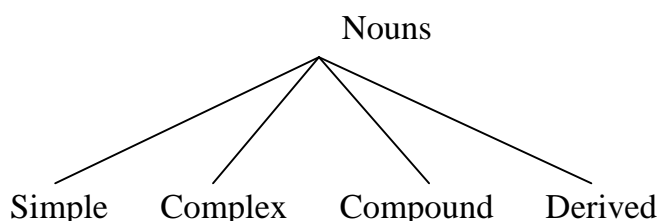
I. Simple Noun Stems

A simple noun stem consists of one morpheme which is usually monosyllabic. It belongs to indigenous source like *mhe* 'cow', *kaang* 'leg', *dim* 'house' etc. There are a large number of simple noun stems in Tamang.

Singular	**Plural**
yaa 'a hand'	*yaa-uttu* 'hands'
lhe 'a tongue'	*lhe-uttu* 'tongues'
chyan 'a tiger'	*chyan-uttu* 'tigers'

mhi 'a man'	*mhi-**dugu*** 'men'
kaa 'blood'	*kaa* (W) 'blood'

*bajar gyam raa-la lhe-**uttu** klusi pau.*

Buy goat's tongues from market.

Singular simple nouns in Tamang are pluralized using the suffixes **-uttu, -bagal** and **-dugu** depending upon the nature of nouns being used. *Kaa* 'blood' is an uncountable noun which remains unmarked.

II. Complex Noun Stems

A complex noun stem is formed by adding a formative suffix to a noun stem. The noun stem and suffix in complex noun stems are always bound forms. Complex noun stems are thus polymorphemic as well as polysyllabic. There are a large number of formative suffixes in Tamang which can easily be added to the noun stems. As a result, complex noun stems are also large in number. Some examples of complex noun stems are given below:

Table No. 6

Complex Noun Stems

Noun stems	Formative suffixes	Complex noun stems
khep	*-paa*	***khep-paa*** 'old person'
ser	*-paa*	***ser-paa*** *'hail'*
khu	*-ku*	***khu-ku*** 'liquid of curry'
don	*-bo*	***don-bo*** 'guest'
bon	*-bo*	***bon-bo*** 'priest'

The formative suffixes *-paa, -ku* and *-bo* are added to the noun stems to form the complex nouns. Singular complex nouns are pluralized as follows:

Singular	Plural
phyukpaa 'a rich person'	*phyukpaa-**uttu*** 'rich persons'
chhopaa 'a fat person'	*chhopaa-**bagal*** 'fat persons'
kakhre 'a crab'	*kakhre-**uttu*** 'crabs'
khore 'a vessel'	*khore-**uttu*** 'vessels'
digu ' breakfast'	*digu* (W) 'breakfast/s'

*chhopa-**bagal** tilda akhajim?*

Why did the fat persons not come?

The plural markers **-uttu** and **-bagal** are added to the singular complex nouns to change them into plural. The noun *digu* 'breakfast' is considered as uncountable in Tamang. Thus, it is left unmarked.

III. Compound Noun Stems

A compound noun stem consists of at least two monosyllabic morphemes. One of such morphemes is a free form and can occur as a simple noun stem. The bound form in compound noun stems cannot be treated as a derivational suffix since it is not productive in nature. The root in compound noun stems may either be the first or the last constituent unlike in complex noun stems. There are a limited number of compound noun stems in Tamang.

Singular	Plural
sungfi 'a lip'	*sungfi-**uttu*** 'lips'

*the-la sungfi-**uttu** wala mu-la.*

Her lips are red.

Compound nouns in Tamang are pluralized using the plural marker **-uttu**.

IV. Derived Noun Stems

A derived noun stem is formed by adding a derivational suffix to a noun stem. The root in derived noun stems is mostly a free form, but the suffixal morpheme is invariably a bound one and ultimately both of them serve as a base for the use of other grammatical categories.

	Singular	**Plural**

Singular	**Plural**
sung-bon 'a speaker'	*sung-bon-**dugu*** 'speakers'
bri-bon 'a writer'	*bri-bon-**dugu*** 'writers'
taam-baa 'a linguist'	*taam-baa-**dugu*** 'linguists'
gaan-baa 'a thinker'	*gaan-baa-**dugu*** 'thinkers'
chong-khen 'a seller'	*chong-khen-**dugu*** 'sellers'

*nangar bri-bon-**dugu** poprup tala.*

Tomorrow writers will gather together.

The singular derived nouns take ***-dugu/-jugu*** in forming plural.

3.1.2 Pluralization of Pronouns in the Tamang Language

A pronoun in Tamang is a word that substitutes a noun or a group of words used as a noun. It is also inflected for numbers and cases; and can function as a subject or object of a verb form. The Tamang personal pronouns are categorized into three groups: first person, second person and third person.

Table No. 7

Pluralization of Pronouns in Tamang

Persons	**Singular**	**Plural**
First Person	*nga* 'I'	*nga-**ni*** (Exclusive) 'we'
		*nga-**ni-gaade*** (Exclusive) 'we'
		*hyang-**na*** (Inclusive) 'we'
		*hyang-**na-gaade*** (Inclusive) 'we'
Second Person	*ye* 'you' (Non-honorophic)	*ye-**na*** 'you'
		*ye-**na-gaade*** 'you'
	rhang 'you' (Honorophic)	*rhang-**na*** 'you'
		*rhang-**na-gaade*** 'you'

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Third Person	*the* 's/he'	*the-**na*** 'they'
		*the-**na-gaade*** 'they'
	chu 'it'	*chu-**na*** 'they'
		*chu-**na-gaade*** 'they'

***nga-ni**-la nana **nga**-da lhana maya la-ba.*

Our elder sister loves me a lot.

*rhang**-ni-gaade** hanang se-ban mu-la?*

Where are you going?

***the-na** tanga mai-ban mu-la.*

They are looking for money.

Generally, the plural marker ***-na/-ni*** is added to the singular personal pronouns to make them plural. However, the suffixes ***-na/-ni*** and ***-gaade*** can also be used simultaneously while making them plural.

3.2 Comparison of Pluralization in Tamang and English

An attempt has been made to compare and contrast the pluralization system of Tamang with that of English on the basis of following illustrations:

Table No. 8

Comparison of Pluralization in Tamang and English

Tamang	English
*rang-la **jame-dugu** iskul-ri ni-ba?*	Do your ***daughters*** go to school?
***naagi-uttu** chu-baan mu-la.*	***Dogs*** are barking.
*ye-la **rho-dugu**-daa chu aa-pango.*	Don't tell it to your ***friends***.
*nga-i gor nhi **philim** (W) chya-ji.*	I saw two ***films***.
***yhang-na** jyaba mu-la.*	***We*** are good.
***jajakola-dugu**-se kyui thung-ji.*	***Children*** drank water.

*pasang-la **mring-uttu** chat-jim.*	Pasang's ***wives*** quarreled.
*mokon **aasu**-**aama-jugu** orong-ban hin-la.*	All ***step*-*mothers*** are same.
***taangi-uttu** chha-ban mu-la.*	***Deer*** are grazing.
***meba-bagal** poprup ta-jim.*	***Dwarfs*** have been gathered.
***asseng-na** phep kha-la.*	Maternal ***uncles*** will come.
*syaa den nhe-la lagi-ri **mhe-mai-uttu** nha-go.*	Keep ***cattle*** for meat and milk.
***bulung-uttu** samba-ri so aa-kham.*	***Insects*** cannot survive in cold.
***taang-uttu** syalo.*	Wash the ***dishes***.
***aairak** (?) thung-ba jyaaba aain.*	It is not good to drink ***wine*** (?).
***lhaana-mhi** (W) dokha-ji.*	A lot of ***people*** arrived.
*nga-la jyojyo-la **dim**-som (W) mu-la.*	My brother has three ***houses***.
*raang-la **jaame-mha-jugu** hanang?*	Where did your ***sons-in-law*** go?

Tamang noun is inflected for number having its own mechanism of inflection. The data collected so far reveal that the Tamang nouns have binary number system: singular and plural. The singular nouns are found to be unmarked or they have only a zero morpheme. For example, ***raa*** (ɸ) 'a goat', ***moje*** (ɸ) 'a banana', ***chyoi*** (ɸ) 'a book', ***ghuri*** (ɸ) 'a cat' etc do not contain any singular markers. They are left unmarked. The plural nouns, on the other hand, are found to be marked with different markers.

3.2.1 The Tamang Nouns in Relation To English

The Tamang nouns can also be classified relating them to English. They are presented below.

i. **Proper nouns**

   Like English proper nouns, Tamang proper nouns remain unmarked.

Singular	**Plural**
dorje 'Dorje'	**dorje-**dugu** '…….'

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chautara 'Chautara'   **chautara-**dugu*** '……'

yambu 'Kathmandu'   **yambu-**uttu*** '……'

*nga-la dim **chautar**-ri hinla.*

My house is in Chautara.

ii. Common nouns

Singular common nouns take **-uttu** and **-dugu/-jugu** as plural markers while pluralizing.

Singular	**Plural**
mhendo 'a flower'	*mhendo-**uttu*** 'flowers'
rho 'a friend'	*rho-**dugu*** 'friends'
mhe 'a cow'	*mhe-**uttu*** 'cows'

*the-la rho-**dugu** nangar dokha-la.*

Her friends will arrive tomorrow.

iii. Collective nouns

Singular collective nouns are pluralized using the suffix **-uttu.**

Singular	**Plural**
ghedung 'a committee'	*ghedung-**uttu*** 'committees'

*tamang-la ghedung-**uttu** se jyaba kyat lakhamdo-la.*

Tamang committees should be able to do good work.

iv. Abstract nouns

Abstract nouns are not pluralized in Tamang.

Singular	**Plural**
pang 'energy'	**pang-**uttu*** '…..'

kheppaa mhi den pang are.

An old man has no energy.

v. Compound nouns

Compound nouns add **-dugu/-jugu** to the principal words while forming plural.

Singular	Plural
jaa-chang 'a daughter-in-law'	*jaa-chang-**dugu*** 'daughters-in-law'
jaame-mha 'a son-in-law'	*jaame-mha-**dugu*** 'sons-in-law'

*dande-la jaa-chang-**dugu** plegu kha-ba.*

Nowadays daughters-in-law are lazy.

3.2.2 Similarities between Tamang and English Pluralization

The pluralization system in Tamang is similar to that of English in some respects. The major similarities are presented below.

xv.   Both the languages adopt suffixes as plural markers. For example,
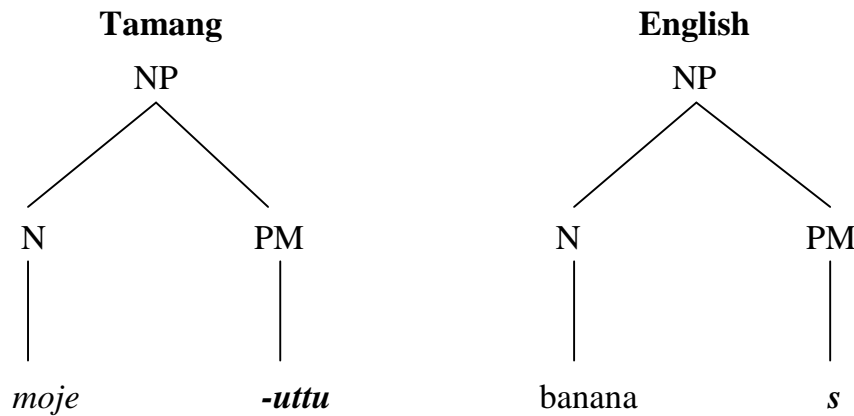
xvi.   Only singular countable nouns are pluralized in both the languages.
        Uncountable nouns remain unmarked.

Singular	Plural
dim (CN)	*dim-**uttu***
house (CN)	house*s*
kyu (UN)	*kyu* (W)
water (UN)	water (W)

xvii.   The plural suffixes are added to the principal words in case of compound nouns
        in both the languages.

Singular	Plural
Jaame-mha	*jaame-mha-**dugu***
Son-in-law	son*s*-in-law

xviii.   The singular nouns are left unmarked in both the languages.

Tamang   **English**

NP   NP

N   SM   N   SM

rho   (φ)   friend   (φ)
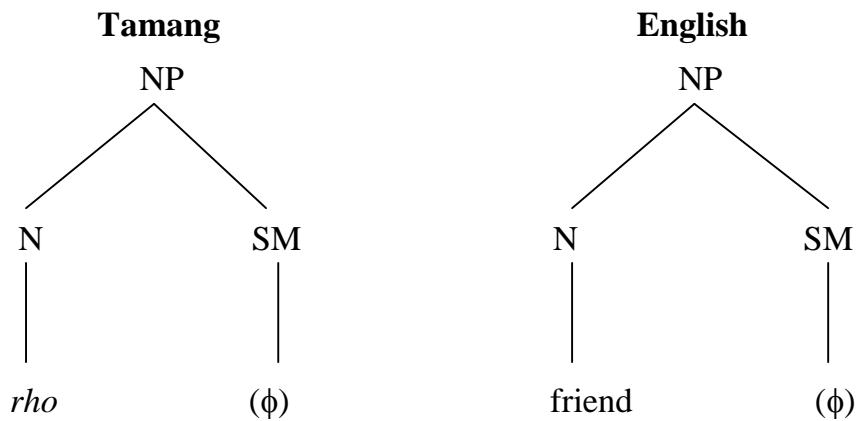
3.2.2 Differences between Tamang and English Pluralization

The Tamang system of pluralization differs from that of English in some respects. The major differences are presented below.

i.   The plural suffixes are written separately.

Singular	**Plural**
mhe	*mhe-**uttu***
cow	cow***s***

ii.   All the singular nouns are pluralized with overt plural markers in Tamang but some singular nouns in English remain unmarked, i.e. they have a zero morpheme.

Singular	**Plural**
tili	*tili-**uttu***
swine	swine (W)

iii. The changes undergone in the nouns in the process of pluralization affect the selection of verbs in English which is not the case in Tamang.

A child *is* crying. (SG)

kola kra-ban mu-la.

Children *are* crying. (PL)

*kola-**uttu*** kra-ban mu-la.

iv.   Plurality is left unmarked in Tamang if conditioned by contexts which is not the case in English.

39

The noun head followed by numerals

kaang (ɸ)-*nhi*

'leg two'

'two legs'

The noun head used with cardinal numbers preceded by classifiers

gor-bli-raa (ɸ)

'CL four goat'

'four goats'

The noun head preceded by quantifiers

lhaana-rhembokola (ɸ)

'many boy'

'many boys'

CHAPTER FOUR

FINDINGS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This chapter consists of two parts: findings and recommendations. Having analyzed and interpreted the data, some findings related to the objectives of the study have been drawn. On the basis of findings, some recommendations have also been suggested.

4.1 Findings

The major findings of the study are presented as follows:

4.1.1 Pluralization in the Tamang Language

The researcher has found the following pluralization system in the Tamang language.

xix. The suffixes, which are the major plural markers, are written separately in Tamang.

xx. The suffixes like *-dugu/-jugu, -gaade/-kaade, -na/-ni, -uttu and -bagal* are added to the singular nouns while transforming them into the plural ones in Tamang.

xxi. The plural marker *-na/-ni* is used only with human kinship nouns in case of nominal, e.g. *aagu-na* 'uncles' but not **naga-na* 'hens'.

xxii. Human nouns take *-dugu* plural marker. However, they may take *-bagal* and *-uttu* suffixes as well.

xxiii. Singular non-human and inanimate nouns are pluralized using *-uttu* suffix. They may also take *-gaade* suffix.

xxiv. The plural marker *-uttu* and *-bagal* are considered as less honorific in comparison to *-dugu/-jugu* which are mostly used with inanimate/non-human and human nouns respectively.

xxv. Only singular countable nouns are pluralized in Tamang. Proper and abstract nouns are not pluralized.

xxvi.   ***-dugu/-jugu, -uttu and -bagal*** are nominal number markers that are never used in pronominal. For example, ***rho-dugu*** 'friends', ***chyoi-uttu*** 'books', ***jajakola-bagal*** 'children', * ***the-jugu*** 'they'.

xxvii.   Generally, ***-na/-ni and -gaade/-kaade*** are used to change the singular pronouns into plural, hence are pronominal number markers. However, they can also be used with nominal. For example, ***nga-na*** 'we', ***the-na-gaade*** 'they', ***asseng-na*** 'maternal uncles', ***mhi-kaade*** 'people'.

xxviii. Both the suffixes ***-na/-ni*** and ***-gaade/-kaade*** can be used with plural pronouns. But ***-na/-ni*** is always followed by ***-gaade/-kaade*** in such cases, e.g. ***ye-na-gaade*** 'you^pl' but not ****ye-gaade-na*** 'you^pl'.

xxix.   The Tamang nouns have binary number system: singular and plural. The singular nouns are unmarked whereas the plural nouns are marked with different markers.

xxx.   The changes that undergo in the nouns and pronouns in the process of pluralization do not affect the choice of the verbs in Tamang.

xxxi.   The Tamang compound nouns add the plural markers to the principal words which are often written at the end, i.e. *jaame-mha-**jugu*** 'sons-in-law' (***mha*** is a principal word here.).

xxxii.   Plurality is left unmarked if the noun head is followed by a numeral other than 'one' or preceded by a quantifier as ***yaa-nhi*** (ϕ) 'two hands' and ***lhanaa-mhi*** (ϕ) 'many men' respectively.
         *Note: **nhi** is a numeral 'two' and **lhana** is a quantifier 'many' in Tamang.*

xxxiii. The singular nouns indicate plurality if used with cardinal numbers preceded by classifiers. For example, ***mhendo som donbo*** (ϕ) 'three guests', ***gor bli raa*** (ϕ) 'four goats'.
         *Note: **mhendo** and **gor** are the Tamang classifiers used before the cardinal numbers with human and non-human nouns respectively.*

4.1.2 Similarities between Tamang and English Pluralization

The researcher has found some similarities in the processes of pluralization between Tamang and English. The major similarities are presented below.

i. Suffixes are used as the plural markers in both Tamang and English.

ii. There are different plural markers for different groups of nouns in Tamang as well as in English.

iii. Only singular countable nouns are pluralized in both the languages.

iv. Proper and abstract nouns are normally not pluralized in these two languages.

v. Mostly the principal words are pluralized in case of compound nouns in both the languages.

vi. Both Tamang and English nouns have binary number system: singular and plural.

4.1.3 Differences between Tamang and English Pluralization

The processes of pluralization in Tamang differ from that of English in some respects. The differences are discussed below.

i. The suffixes are written separately with nouns in Tamang whereas they are written together in English, e.g. *dim-**uttu*** 'house*s*'.

ii. Generally all the singular countable nouns except proper nouns are pluralized being marked with plural suffixes in Tamang if they are not conditioned by contexts. But some singular countable nouns remain unmarked in English while pluralizing, e.g. swine, deer, etc.

iii. The Tamang language has more plural suffixes in comparison to English. However, the processes of making plural are more difficult in English than in Tamang. (English:*-s,-es* and *-en*; Tamang: ***-uttu, -bagal, -dugu, -jugu, -ni, -na, -kaade,*** and ***-gaade***)

iv. Semantic category of nouns may determine the selection of suffixes while pluralizing in Tamang which is not the case in English.

v. The system of pluralization in Tamang is flexible, i.e. a particular countable singular noun can select any one plural suffix from many, i.e. *jaa-**jugu/-dugu/-uttu/-gaade/-kaade/-bagal*** but same is not the case with the English nouns.

vi. The changes that are seen in nouns due to the pluralization affect the selection of verbs in English but such is not the case in Tamang.

vii.   Obvious plural markers are used to change the singular personal pronouns into plural in Tamang whereas the plural personal pronouns do not take any obvious plural markers in English.

viii.   Plurality is left unmarked in Tamang if conditioned by contexts which is not the case in English.

4.2 Recommendations

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

i.   It is to be noted that lexical classification of nouns plays significant role in the English pluralization system whereas semantic classification of nouns plays significant role in the Tamang pluralization system.

ii.   Plural suffixes in Tamang language are written separately whereas they are written together in English. The language teachers should give much emphasis on this fact while teaching.

iii.   The Tamang learners of English should be made aware that some of the nouns in English do not have plural forms, i.e. they do not take plural markers. Similarly, some nouns are used only in plural forms.

iv.   The English learners of Tamang may face problem in learning pluralization of personal pronouns in Tamang since there are not any obvious rules of pluralizing personal pronouns in English.

v.   The English learners of Tamang should be taught with ample of examples that the noun heads preceded /followed by cardinal numbers / classifiers remain unmarked while pluralizing in Tamang.

vi.   There is male-female distinction on the third person singular personal pronouns in English but the Tamang language lacks it, i.e. *'the'* is common to both. Such distinction may create problem for the Tamang learners of English.

vii.   The teachers should teach pluralization process creating meaningful situations and using support materials as far as practicable.

viii.   The syllabus designers and textbook writers should consider the similarities and differences in pluralization process between Tamang and English while designing course and textbooks for the learners of these languages.

Appendices

Appendix-I

Interview Schedule/Questionnaire

This interview schedule/questionnaire has been prepared in order to accomplish a research work entitled **"Pluralization in English and Tamang"**. This research is being carried out under the supervision of **Ms. Hima Rawal**, Teaching Assistant of the Department of English Education, Faculty of Education T. U., Kirtipur. It is hoped that your invaluable co-operation will be a great contribution for the accomplishment of this research work.

<div align="right">

Researcher

Jasman Tamang

M. Ed. (English)

T. U., Kirtipur, Kathmandu.

</div>

Name: …………………………………..………………

Address: ……………………………………………….

Academic Qualification: ………………………………..

Age: …………………….   **Sex:** ……………………….

How do you say the following sentences in Tamang?

1. I bought some *books* yesterday. (हिजो मैले केही पुस्तकहरू किनें ।)

   …………………………………………………………

2. Do your *daughters* go to school? (के तपाइँका छोरीहरू विद्यालय जान्छन ?)

   …………………………………………………………

3. *Dogs* are barking. (कुकुरहरू भुक्दैछन् ।)

   …………………………………………………………

4. Those *girls* live in Kathmandu. (ती केटीहरू काठमाडौंमा बस्छन् ।)

   ....

5. There are beautiful *flowers* in the garden. (बगैंचामा राम्रा फूलहरू छन् ।)

   ....

6. *Farmers* keep cattle for milk and meat. (किसानहरू दूध र मासुका लागि
   गाईभैंसीहरू पाल्छन् ।)

   ....

7. Dorje and Dolma are *friends*. (दोर्जे र डोल्मा साथीहरू हुन् ।)

   ....

8. They like tall *trees*. (तिनीहरू अग्ला रुखहरू मन पराउँछन् ।)

   ....

9. We listen to old *songs*. (हामी पूराना गीतहरू सुन्छौं ।)

   ....

10. *Guests* are welcome. (अतिथीहरूलाई स्वागत छ ।)

    ....

11. She has eaten *bananas*. (उनले केराहरू खाएकी छिन् ।)

    ....

12. Don't kill the *birds*. (चराहरूलाई नमार ।)

    ....

13. You sell *caps*. (तिमी टोपीहरु बेच्छौ ।)

    ....

14 Send us *letters*. (हामीलाई चिठीहरू पठाऊ ।)

    ....

15. These *glasses* are clean. (यी गिलासहरू सफा छन् ।)

    ....

16. I have not seen *witches* yet. (मैले अहिलेसम्म बोक्सीहरू देखेको छैन ।)

    ....

17. Mingma showed me *boxes*. (मीङ्माले मलाई बाकसहरू देखाइन् ।)

    ....

18. Her father has three *buses*. (उनको बुवासँग तीनवटा गाडीहरू छन् ।)

....

19. Show her golden *watches*. (उनलाई सुनका घडीहरू देखाऊ ।)

....

20. I bought a pair of wedding *dresses* for her. (मैले उनको लागि एक जोडी विवाहका पोशाकहरू किनि दिएँ ।)

....

21. Don't throw the *dishes*. (भाँडाहरू नफाल ।)

....

22. Look at those *mangoes*. (ती आँपहरू हेर ।)

....

23. *Buffalos* are grazing. (भैंसीहरू चर्दैछन् ।)

....

24. I love *potatoes*. (मलाई आलुहरू मन पर्छ ।)

....

25. Bring *tomatoes*, too. (गोलभेंडाहरू पनि ल्याऊ ।)

....

26. Send me some *photos*. (मलाई केही फोटाहरू पठाइदेऊ ।)

....

27. My house is made of *bamboos*. (मेरो घर बाँसहरूले बनेको छ ।)

....

28. His *stories* are very long. (उसका कथाहरू धेरै लामा छन् ।)

....

29. *Ladies* are talkative. (महिलाहरू कुरौटे हुन्छन् ।)

....

30. *Boys* are playing. (केटाहरू खेल्दैछन् ।)

....

31. I have spent funny *days*. (मैले रमाइला दिनहरू बिताएको छु ।)

....

32. The *monkeys* do not eat meat. (बाँदरहरू मासु खादैनन् ।)

....

33. *Keys* are made here. (यहाँ चाँवीहरू बनाइन्छ ।)

....

34. Pluck the tea *leaves*. (चियाका पातहरू टिप ।)

....

35. The *thieves* were stronger than me. (चोरहरू म भन्दा बलिया थिए ।)

....

36. An old man has two *wives*. (बूढो मान्छेका दुइटी श्रीमतीहरू छन् ।)

....

37. The goat has got two *hoofs* / *hooves* in a leg. (बाखाको एउटा खुट्टामा दुई खुरहरू हुन्छन् ।)

....

38. *Dwarfs* have danced. (पुड्काहरू नाचेका छन् ।)

....

39. The *houses* in Mustang have flat *roofs*. (मुस्ताङको घरहरूका छानाहरू सम्म हुन्छन् ।)

....

40. *Women* work at home. (आइमाईहरू घरमा काम गर्छन् ।)

....

41. *Cats* are running after *mice*. (बिरालाहरू मुसाहरूका पछाडि दगुर्दै छन् ।)

....

42. My *feet* are aching. (मेरा पैतालाहरू दुख्दैछन् ।)

....

43. Your *teeth* are dirty. (तिम्रा दाँतहरू फोहोर छन् ।)

....

44. *Men* work in the field. (लोग्ने मानिसहरू खेतमा काम गर्छन ।)

....

45. Do you have *children*? (के तपाईंका बच्चाहरू छन् ?)

....

46. There were a lot of *people* at the party. (भोजमा धेरै मानिसहरू थिए ।)

....

47. *Oxen* plough the field. (गोरुहरू खेत जोत्छन् ।)

....

48. Our *sons-in-law* are good. (हाम्रा ज्वाँइहरू असल छन् ।)

....

49. I helped *passers-by* showing the way. (मैले बटुवाहरूलाइ बाटो देखाएर सहयोग गरें ।)

....

50. We do not want *step-mothers*. (हामी सौतेनी आमाहरू चाहन्नौं ।)

....

51. *Washer-men* are better than *washer-women*. (महिला धोवीहरूभन्दा पुरुष धोवीहरू असल हुन्छन् ।)

....

52. She is looking for *men servants*. (उनी पुरुष नोकरहरू खोज्दैछिन् ।)

....

53. *Sheep* are kept for wool. (भेडाहरू ऊनका लागि पालिन्छन् ।)

....

54. *Deer* run very fast. (मृगहरू अति छिटो दौडन्छन् ।)

....

Thank you! (धन्यवाद !)

Appendix-II

Table No. 9

Ten Major Mother Tongues in Nepal

SN	Languages	Native speakers	Percentage
01	Nepali	11053255	48.98
02	Maithili	2797582	12.40
03	Bhojpuri	1717536	7.59
04	Tharu	1331546	5.90
05	**Tamang**	**1282304**	**5.22**
06	Newar	825458	3.66
07	Magar	770116	3.41
08	Abadhi	560744	2.48
09	Bantawa	371056	1.64
10	Gurung	338925	1.50

(Source: CBS, 2001)

Fig. No. 5

The Tamang Language Family

Tamangik

Tamang   Gurung

Manangwa-Nar-phu   Gurung   Thakali-Chhantyal
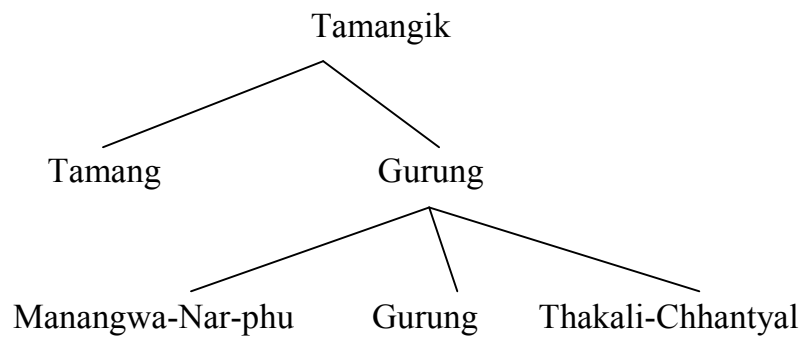
(Source: Nunan, 1998 as cited in Yonjan, 2006, p. 63)