Chapter-I

Introduction

1.1 General Background of the Study

Language is species specific means of communication. It is a unique possession of mankind and a tool of human communication. It is also a social phenomenon by means of which one can express one's ideas, thoughts, feelings, emotions, problems, likes, dislikes and so on. It is a special gift for communication among human beings. So, it can be claimed that language has made us different from other living beings. Hockett (1981, p. 3) says, "Language is a purely human and non-human instinctive method of communicating ideas, emotions and desires by means of voluntarily produced symbols." English among the various languages existing in the world is the most popular and widely used and accepted means of international communication, and it is spoken all over the world in different forms as a first language or as a second language or as a foreign language.

On the other hand, language is not only the means of communication but also a means of transmission of the culture, history, literature and achievements of human beings from older generations to younger generations. All the names of medicines and information are written in English. English has become important for the world in order to accelerate the modernization process.

Today, we can see or observe that all the countries in the world have given a great emphasis on the English language.

Many linguists have defined language differently. It shows the individual and social status of the users. It has different varieties, fields, characteristics etc. and also it is complex and modifiable. Some definitions by scholars are given below.

Crystal (2003) says, "Language is concrete act of speaking, writing or signing in a given situation" (p. 255). Human language, spoken and written, can be

described as a system of symbols and the grammars by which the symbols are manipulated. Language develops our thoughts, transfers views and attributes from one person to another and to forthcoming generation too.

Hockett (1981) says, "Language is a purely human and non-instinctive method of communicating ideas, emotions and desires by means of voluntarily produced symbols". No species other than human beings have been endowed with language. Animals cannot acquire language because of its complex structures and their physical inadequacies. It is completely different from animal communication.

Chomsky (1957) views that a language is a set of well-formed strings produced by well-formed sentences using underlying rules which are finite in numbers. He opines that language is "a set (finite or infinite) of sentences each finite in length and constructed out of finite set of elements" (p. 13). So, according to Chomsky, all natural languages, in either their spoken or their written form, are languages in the sense of his definition: since (a) each natural language has a finite number of sounds in it; and (b) although there may be infinitely many distinct sentences in the language, each sentence can be represented as a finite sequence of these sounds (or letters).

Widdowson (2003), as cited in Rai, (2008, p. 2) defines, "Language is a system of arbitrary vocal symbols which permit all people in a given culture or other people who have learned the system of that culture to communicate or to interact."

1.2 Statement of the Problem

Language is a unique phenomenon of mankind. It is a means of communication implied to share feelings and information. It consists of arbitrary vocal symbols transmitted to the receiver through audio codes produced by the sender. These vocal symbols are set in different systems. The systems make up a language. A number of sets of systems prevailing in different social contexts have emerged different languages. By the inter-mingling of the people of different social

contexts, different languages are seen being used in the same society too. In such a condition, a man has to learn more than one language so as to adjust in the society.

The study area is made up of people from different ethnic groups who speak different languages. Among them, majority of the Tamang people speak their own language, Tamang language, as the mother tongue. The children of this community have to use Nepali language during their schooling. This bilingual condition has been accepted as the problem and this research has been conducted mainly with prime focus on the sentence pattern of the students from Tamang community.

1.3 Objectives of the Study

The objectives of the study were as follows:

- To identify the use of present perfect and past perfect tenses in the Tamang language.
- b. To compare and contrast the structures of present perfect tense and past perfect tense in Tamang and English languages.
- c. To suggest some pedagogical implications.

1.4 Research Questions

To accomplish the present study, the following research questions were set.

- a. What is the process of present perfect tense in Tamang language?
- b. What is the process of past perfect tense in Tamang language?
- c. What is the process of present perfect tense in English language?
- d. What is the process of past perfect tense in English language?
- e. What are the similarities between present perfect tense markers in English and Tamang language?
- f. What are the differences between present perfect tense markers in English and Tamang language?
- g. What are the similarities between past perfect tense markers in English and Tamang language?

h. What are the differences between past perfect tense markers in English and Tamang language?

1.5 Significance of the Study

This research particularly deals with the comparison of Tamang and English languages in terms of present perfect and past perfect tense markers. This comparative study deals with the similarities and the differences between the two languages. Our assumption is that similarities between two languages make the learning of the target language easy and differences difficult. Therefore, this study will be significant for all the people who are directly and indirectly involved in Tamang and English language teaching in particular and all other languages in general and prospective researchers who are eager to know the tense system in the Tamang and English languages. Similarly, linguists, grammarians, textbook writers may use this research as a reference material. The findings of the study will be of immense value for teachers and be beneficial for planners, curriculum experts and all the members who are involved with the Tamang community.

1.6 Delimitations of the Study

The study was carried out with the following limitations:

- a. The study was limited to 40 Tamang native speakers of only Rajgadh and Jalthal VDCs of Jhapa district of Nepal.
- b. The study was limited only to present perfect and past perfect tense in Tamang and English.
- c. The study was only limited to verb inflection and word order in Tamang language.
- d. The data were collected only from structured interview.

1.7 Operational Definition of the Key Terms

Native speakers: People speaking any language as a mother tongue, as Tamang people in the case of Tamang language

Expert : A person who has the excellent knowledge or skill on Tamang language.

Scripts: The symbols that signify Tamang language.

Pedagogical: Concerning to learning Tamang language.

Indigenous people: The first people who lived in any region, Tamang people.

Generations: A group of Tamang people born about the same time.

Literate: A person able to read and write Tamang language.

Illiterate: A person unable to read and write Tamang language.

Chapter -II

Review of Related Literature and Theoretical Framework

2.1 Review of Theoretical Literature

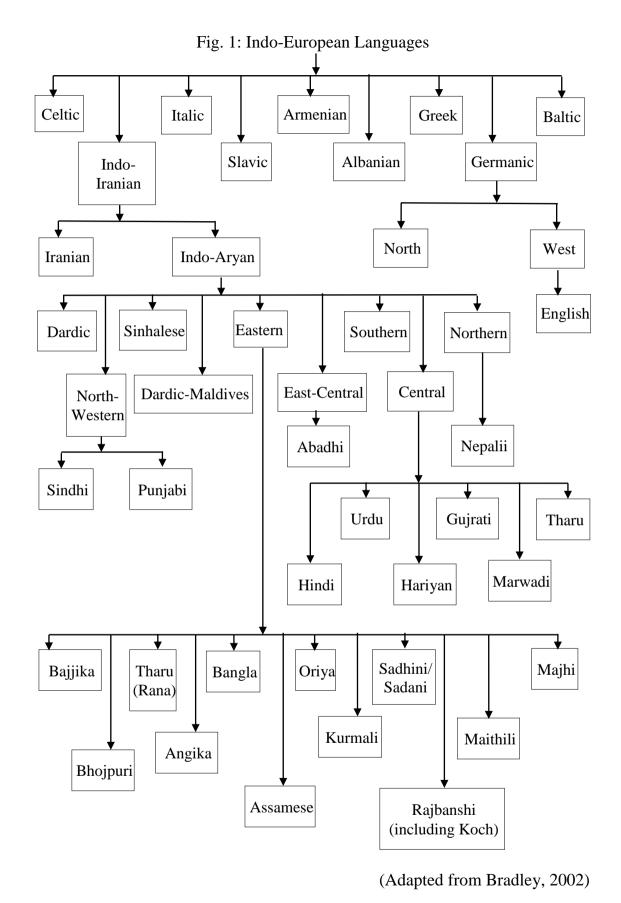
2.1.1 Languages of Nepal

Nepal is small landlocked and a fertile country for languages. It is also known as multi-lingual, multi-cultural and multi-religious country. So, it is a unique asset of the country. Comprising an area of 1,47,181 square kilometers with a length of 805 km from east to west and a breadth of 193 km from north to south, the topography of Nepal is rich and varied, and so is the language. There are about 125 officially recognized castes and ethnic groups who speak 123 languages (CBS 2011). However, most of these languages spoken in Nepal do not have their own written scripts but they only exist in spoken forms.

Among all the languages in Nepal, there are 1037 people speaking English as mother tongue and 44.61% (11826953) of the total population of Nepal use Nepali language as their mother tongue (CBS 2011). Nepali is the national official language of Nepal and it is used in every field like; administration, education, mass media etc. It is used as a lingua franca throughout the country and has a large number of speakers. It is also used in Bhutan, India, Burma etc. In some parts of India, Nepali language is used in administration and taught as compulsory subject. The languages spoken in Nepal belong to the following language families.

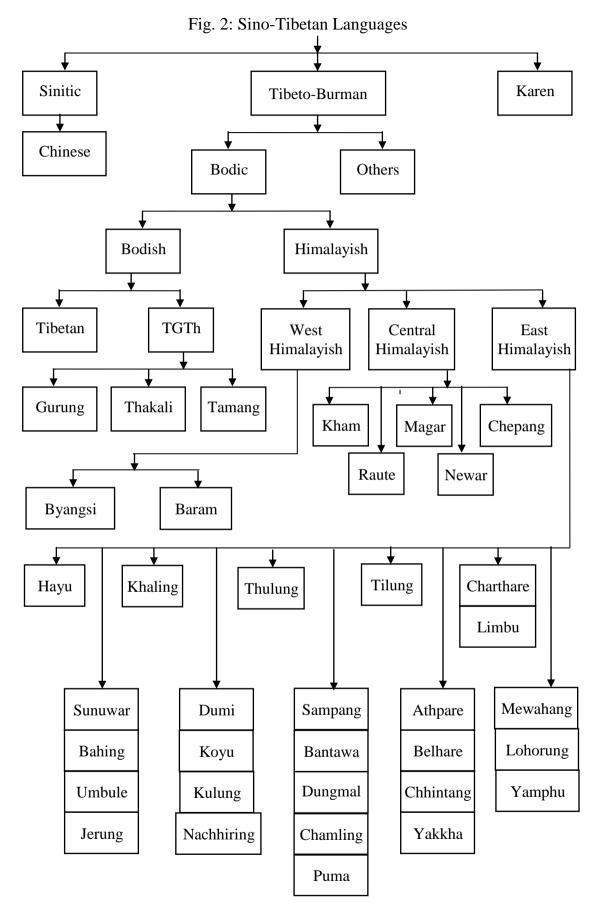
Indo-Aryan Family

Indo-Aryan group of languages is a branch of Indo-European language family. It is a large group of languages in terms of speakers. Nearly 80% of the Nepal's total population uses this group of languages. So, it can be said that the majority of people in the world speak the Indo-Aryan group of language. These languages are shown in the following diagram.



Sino-Tibetan language

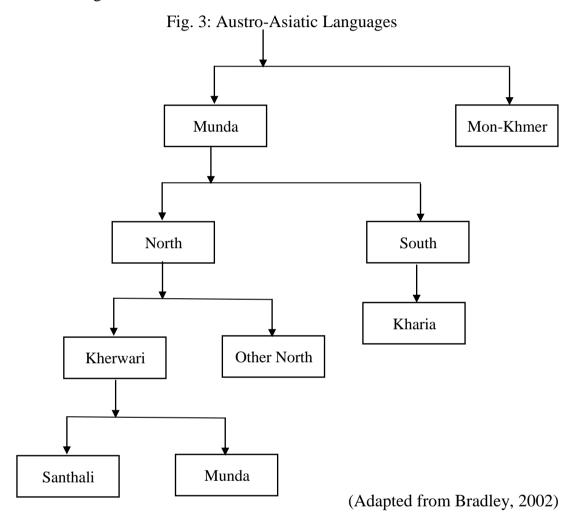
It is another group of Nepal's languages which comes under Sino-Tibetan language family. It is spoken by relatively less number of people than the Indo-European family although it consists of the large number of languages, i.e. 57 languages. Those languages are shown in the diagram given below.



(Adapted from Bradley, 2002)

Austro-Asiatic language family

This is a minor language family. It is spoken by the groups of tribal people from the Eastern Terai approximately 0.19% of the total population (CBS 2002). It includes Santhal and Munda languages spoken in Nepal which are shown in diagram.



Dravidian language family

According to population Census 2001, Dravidian language family includes only 2 languages spoken in Nepal. They are Jhagad and Kisan. Jhagad is spoken in the province of the Koshi River in the eastern region of Nepal and Kisan with 489 speakers settled in Jhapa district. According to NLPAC 2050, there are 70 languages in Nepal out of which 63 languages are the languages of indigenous nationalities. They are classified into 4 types.

a. Languages with a written script

Awadi Hindi Nepali Bhojpuri Limbu Newari Bhote /Tibetan Maithili Urdu

b. Languages having written scripts in emerging condition

Bantawa Kulung Tamang Chamling Magar Thakali Gurung Rajbanshi Tharu **Khaling** Sherpa Thulung

c. Languages without written scripts

Athpahariya Jirel Northen Lohorung

Bhote Kagate Raji

Kaike Byanshi Sampang

Kham Satar Chepang

Chhantyal Kumal Southern Lohorung

Lumba Yakkha Danuwar Thami

Darai Marwadi Western Mewahang

Dhimal Majhi Yakkha

Eestern Mewahang **Nachhiring** Yamphu

Hyolmo

d. Moribund languages

Phanduwali **Baling** Hayu

Belhare Polmacha Jerung

Koyu /Koyee Chakwa Puma Chintang Kusunda Pura Chhulung Lamibiching Raute Mugali Chhukwa

Tilung

Dungmali

Source: CBS, 2011

The data mentioned above clearly show that there are nine languages in Nepal which have their own written scripts, the written scripts of other 12 languages are in emerging condition, other 92 languages have no written scripts and 20 languages are in the verge of extinction, i.e. Moribund languages. Similarly, the linguists claim that any language which has at least 100,000 speakers remains tolerable and languages spoken by fewer than 100,000 speakers are in the verge of extinction (Rai, 2008, p. 14).

2.1.2 Tamang Ethnic Group and Tamang Language

Tamang is a Tibeto-Burman language spoken by over a million people in central Nepal. The two major varieties of Tamang are Eastern Tamang with approximately 759,000 speakers and Western Tamang with approximately 323,000 speakers (CBS 2002) which are mutually unintelligible languages. Eastern Tamang is divided into two dialects, Outer-Eastern Tamang and Central-Eastern Tamang (Varenkamp 1996:45). This research is based on Tamang grammar mainly tense and their aspects. Some linguistic research has been done on Tamang phonology, grammar, and dictionaries; however, most of the research on Tamang grammar has been done in piecemeal fashion (Lee, 2011, p.1).

The word Tamang has been found to be used in a document of the thirteenth century. That document found by David Jackson (2976:53) mentions that King Bumlde Mgon built the Shrin fortress in Mustang to suppress the ethnic group Tamang of Lower Glo (Mustang). Although the word Tamang was used as early as the thirteenth century to denote an ethnic group, following the expansion of the Gorkhali kingdom the use of the word was prohibited. The Tamang were addressed in a derogatory manner as 'Bhote' and 'Murmi'. The Tamangs have, however, continued to call themselves Tamang. The Tamangs are an ancient and major indigenous people of Nepal. Their traditional area is the hilly region between the Budhigandaki River and the Likhu River. At present, they live in large numbers in the districts of Rasuwa, Nuwakot, Dhading, Makawanpur, Sindhuli, Ramechhap, Dolakha, Lalitpur,

Sindhupalchok and Kavrepalanchok in the Central Development Region. They are also scattered all over the country, and outside Nepal they are found in large numbers in Darjeeling, Sikkim, Assam and Nagaland of India and in Burma and Bhutan. The total population of Tamang in Nepal, according to the census of 2011, is 1,539,830, i.e. 5.8 percent of the total population of the country. Tamang language occupies fifth place in the country in terms of the numbers of speakers speaking any one language and first place among the Tibeto-Burman languages. (nefin.org.np/indigenous-nationalities/hill-in/52)

For Khyungba Tamang; Jhapa Morang, Sarlahi, Dhankuta, Bhojpur, Dolakha, Dhading, Ramechhap, Sankhuwasava etc. are the main places of eastern part of Nepal. Tamang Ethnic groups have their own identity, culture, tradition, ritual function etc. Traditionally, according to ancestors, it is said, "12 Tamangs and 18 sub-castes" in Tamangs. But now there are 140 sub-castes in Tamangs. Tamangs were deprived from education, health, occupation, freedom in different sectors. It is because of social and religious discriminations. But the ancestors of Tamangs ethnic group preserved them and kept on transferring to their new generations. And when there was the re-establishment of democracy in 2046, then after, Tamangs got quite freedom in every sector. Tamang language is one of the endangered and least studied languages of Nepal. The census 2068 gives the number of mother tongue speakers as 1539830, out of the total population 23100000. But according to 'All Indian Tamang Buddhist Association Report 2059', there were 14 lakh Tamang populations in India who had migrated from Nepal. So, the distribution of the native speakers in census 2058 was not reliable which needs further explanation. (Tamang, 2062, p. 5, 25, 26)

Gautam Buddha was the founder of Buddhim. He was born in Lumbini, Nepal in 563 B.C. When he was young, he understood the world and wanted to get rid from those suffering, realities of human life. So, he left all the luxuries in the palace and went outdoors. He meditated for a long under a Peepal Tree at Bodhagaya, India. After that he gained enlightenment and then he spread his

teachings all over the world through his disciples. So, nowadays the great number of Buddhists live in different countries in the world like; Nepal, India, China, Srilanka, Myanmar, Mongolia, Korea, Thailand, Vietnam and Japan. These days, Lumbini and Bodhagaya are the main pilgrimage destinations of the world's millions of people.

Tamang ethnic group including Gurung, Magar, Sherpa etc. follow Buddhism. Their holly book is Tripitak. While performing their ritual functions they call 'Lama' as their religious leader. Their main festivals are; Lhosar, Buddha Purnima etc. Buddhist religion had two branches viz: Mahayan and Bajrayan. They follow them after 'Bonpo' culture in Stone Age. Tamang language is the languages of Bodish sub-group within Tibeto-Burman group of Sino-Tibetan language family. Tamangs used to speak 3 types of Tamang languages i.e. dialects. But, nowadays, there are varieties of dialects within Tamang language. The language spoken in eastern part, western part is different. Similarly, people in Terai, Hilly and Himalayas also speak Tamang language differently. Especially their tongues or rhymes are different.

The distribution of the density of Tamang population is given below.

Table 1 : Distribution of Tamang Population

| Density of Tamang Population | Districts | No. of Districts |
|------------------------------|--|------------------|
| More than 1 lakh | Kavre, Nuwakot and Makawanpur | 3 |
| 50 to 1 lakh | Sindhuli, Sindhupalchok, Dhading and Kathmandu | 4 |
| 20 to 50 thousands | Sarlahi, Lalitpur, Chitwan, Ramechhap, Dolakha and Rashuwa | 6 |
| 15 to 20 thousands | Ilam, Jhapa, Morang, Sankhuwasava, Bhojpur, Udaypur and Bara | 8 |
| 10 to 15 thousands | Panchthar, Sunsari, Solukhumbu, Okhaldhunga and Bhaktapur | 5 |
| 5 to 10 thousands | Taplejung, Tehrathum, Siraha, Dhakuta, Khotang, Dhanusha, Mahottari, Rautahat, Parsa, Lamjung, Gorkha, Kaski, Nawalparasi and Kanchanpur | 14 |
| Less than 5 thousands | EDR 1, WDR 11, CDR 15 and FWDR 8 | 35 |

Source: Tamang Journal, 2009

2.1.3 The English Language

At the beginning of the 21st century, it is beyond question that English language has become the *lingua franca*, the language used for communication between people living in different countries in the world. The famous British linguist, Professor David Crystal in his book English as a Global Language states that English has become a global language because it has been at the right place at the right time.

Speakers of English nowadays, comprise a very large number of people across the globe. Figures vary considerably, but it is believed that nearly one quarter of the world's population, or between 1.2 and 1.5 billion people, are already

fluent or competent in English (Crystal, 1997). The British Council estimates that about 375 million people speak English as a first language, another 375 million speak it regularly as a second language, and about 750 million more people speak English as a foreign language (retrieved from www.google/ English_language). English currently is the language most often taught as a second language around the world.

Today, English is considered the universal language for business, international communications, entertainment, tourism, trade and technology. Majority of the resources on the internet are in English, affecting people to learn English to take full advantage of it. Above all, learning English is important for being able to exchange views and make friends with people all over the world. English has an official or special status in more than 70 countries with a total population of over two billion.

English is part of the Germanic branch of the Indo-European family of languages. It is spoken as a native language by around 377 million and as a second language by around 375 million speakers in the world (ibid). Speakers of English as a second language will soon outnumber those who speak it as a first language.

Around 750 million people are believed to speak English as a foreign language. English has an official or a special status in 75 countries with a total population of over 2 billion (ibid).

The domination of the English language globally is undeniable. English is the language of diplomacy and international communications, business, tourism, education, science, computer technology, media and Internet. Because English was used to develop communication, technology, programming, software, etc, it dominates the web. 70% of all information stored electronically is in English.

British colonialism in the 19th century and American capitalism and technological progress in the 20th century were undoubtedly the main causes for the spread of English throughout the world.

The English language came to British Isles from northern Europe in the fifth century. From the fifteenth century, the British began to sail all over the world and became explorers, colonists and imperialists. They took the English language to North America, Canada and the Caribbean, to South Africa, to Australia and New Zealand, to South Asia (especially India), to the British colonies in Africa, to South East Asia and the South Pacific.

The USA has played a leading role in most parts of the world for the last hundred years. At the end of the 19th century and first quarter of the 20th, it welcomed millions of European immigrants who had fled their countries ravaged by war, poverty or famine. This labour force strengthened American economy. The Hollywood film industry also attracted many foreign artists in quest of fame and fortune and the number of American films produced every year soon flooded the market. Before the Treaty of Versailles (1919), which ended the First World War between Germany and the Allies, diplomacy was conducted in French. However, President Woodrow Wilson succeeded in having the treaty in English as well. Since then, English started being used in diplomacy and gradually in economic relations and the media.

The future of English as a global language will depend very largely on the political, economic, demographic and cultural trends in the world. The beginning of the 21st century is a time of global transition. According to some experts, faster economic globalization is going hand in hand with the growing use of English. More and more people are being encouraged to use English rather than their own language. On the other hand, the period of most rapid change can be expected to be an uncomfortable and at times traumatic experience for many people around the world. Hence, the opposite view, that the next 20 years or so will be a critical time for English language and for those

who depend upon it. The patterns of usage and public attitudes to English which develop during this period will have long-term.

There are more than 6000 languages in the world. A living language is simply one that is in wide use as a primary form of communication by specific group of living people. Among them, English is the one which is the most widely used language that crosses the boundary of geographical and the national territory. It is the most important language of the world.

English belongs to the Indo-European family of language and it is, therefore, related to the most other languages spoken in Europe and western Asia from Iceland to India. It is widely spoken among different countries than any other languages. That is why it is recognized as an international language. It is the most widely used language as an international medium of communication. It is the most developed and the most frequently used language in every field such as business, office, media, science, literature, medicine, e-mail and internet etc. It can be observed that more than half of the world's books are written in English; two third of international mails are found in English. So, it is recognized as the largest treasure house of knowledge too. And it can be expressed that it is identified as lingua-franca or link language at the international level. Because of this quality, the popularity of English language in the world is growing up by leaps and bounds. And people of the world are eagerly motivated towards learning English language.

In the context of Nepal, English language was started to be taught from 1910 B.S. But the education (based on Indian curriculum) was only limited to Rana family. After the abolition of the Rana autocracy, English language education system was modified and all Nepalese got chance to read and write. When Trichandra College, SLC Exam Board, Tribhuwan University etc. were established, the scope of teaching learning English was enlarged. Now English language is taught as a compulsory subject from grade one to Bachelor level in Nepal. Nowadays, there are several private schools and English language

institutes which are devoted to teach English language. And at present, some public schools are also running the English medium classes in primary levels because of its importance. It is an inevitable language in the present day. So, everybody is learning English language. In this way, we can conclude that English language is an international, link language as well as the demand of the modern era.

2.1.4 Importance of Grammar

Grammar is a backbone of language which comprises of several rules. There is a set of rules which governs how the units of meaning may be constructed in any language.

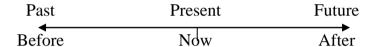
Richards et al. (1999, p. 128) define that grammar as "A description of the structure of a language and the way in which linguistic units such words and phrases are combined to produce sentences in the language."

Robins (1967, p. 178) states that, "Grammar is concerned with the description and analysis of stretches of utterances or elements by virtue of the functional of their recurrent elements places they occupy and the relations they contract with one another."

Grammar is a mechanism of language structure through which we produce the correct words and sentences are considered as bricks and cements in buildings. In this way, grammar rules make us produce the correct sentences. Thus, learning a language essentially requires learning its grammar rules. When people produce some word or sentences, they should follow the structures of grammar rules. So, grammar is meant for improving the accuracy of language.

2.1.5 Tense and Aspect system in English

Etymologically tense is derived from translation of Latin word 'tempus' and of the Greek word 'Chronos' that means 'time'. Hence, the category of tense has to do with time relation. Traditionally the tense is used as a cover term to refer both tense and aspect. Tense is classified as the time relation; i.e. now (present), before now (past) and after now (future). They suppose that the same three-way opposition of tense is universal feature of language. Time is a universal non-linguistic concept with three divisions viz: present, past and future. Tense places temporal references along a conceptual time. The commonest tenses are found in languages though not all languages distinguish these three tenses; present, past and future. A situation described in present tense is located temporally as simultaneous with the moment of speaking. (eg. Ram is playing.), one described in the past tense as located prior to the moment of speaking (eg. Ram played / Ram was playing) and one described in the future as located subsequent to the moment of speaking (eg. Ram will play.). This can be shown in the following diagram.



Different scholars view tense and aspect from different perspectives. Richards et. Al (1999, p. 197) define tense 'as the relationship between the form of verbs and the time of the action or state it describes'.

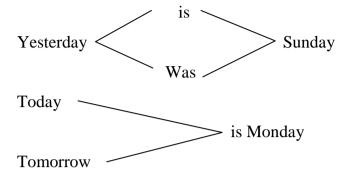
Crystal (2003, p. 459) defines it 'as a category used in grammatical descriptions of verbs along with aspect and mood'.

Arts and Arts (1986, p. 74) define tense 'as an obligatory category in the finite verb phrase'. It forms a small part of grammar.

Lado (1961, p.144) says, 'Grammar governs the central structure of the utterance'. The central structural means the way of arranging the morphemes in the words and the phrases in the sentences.

Modern English grammarians have reduced the three fold oppositions of tense into two; Past and non-Past. Since, morphologically, English has no future form of verb. But it is only a model verb construction (eg. will + infinite). They avoid the use of the term 'Present' in reference to tense but prefer 'non past'.

The tense is semantic justification to the extent that the present tense may be used to express not only present but future time too. Examples are given below.



Hence, the tense system of a language can be categorized into two types viz: Past and non-past, where non past tense includes both the present and the future tenses.

On the other hand, aspect is a grammatical category of verb that indicates the degree of completeness of an action. It is the expression of the temporal structure of an action or state. It is different from tense but related to tense. The tense which expresses the time relation of verbal actions and states is aspect. So, it cannot be separated from aspect.

Some scholars have defined aspect in the following ways.

Crystal (1997, p. 29) states that 'aspect is a category used in the grammatical description of verbs (along with tense and mood) referring primarily to the way grammar marks the duration or type of temporal activity denoted by the verb.' It refers to the temporal ever not action of a situation expressed through verbal morphology having closer relationship with tense and mood.

In conclusion, tense and aspect are inter-related and integrated with each other. So, they cannot be neglected. 'Tense' relates to the 'point of time' of an event and 'aspect' to different phases or stages of verbal actions. However, they stand with their own function in language. 'Tense' is the correspondence between the form of the verb and the concept of time and 'aspect' concerns with the manner of the verbal action.

2.1.6 Contrastive Analysis

Introduction

Contrastive Analysis (CA) is a branch of Applied Linguistics in which two or more languages are compared to find out similarities and differences between them, where one being the native language (L_1) and other being the target language (L_2) . It is developed on the assumption that second language learners tend to transfer the formal features of their first language while learning second language. There are several languages in the world. Only one language is not enough for the people who need to learn a variety matters in the present world. So, learning a foreign language is an important issue in this modern era. Some languages are genetically related and they have several common features and some are not related and they have uncommon features. Such features can be distinguished after comparison of those languages.

CA was used extensively in the field of second language acquisition in the 1960's and early 1970's, under the title Comparative Philology as a method of explaining why some features of a target language were more difficult to acquire than others. However, the aims and methods of Comparative Philology differ considerably from those of contrastive linguistics. The comparativists compare languages in order to establish history of genetic connection between languages on the basis of their similarities. They focus on comparison of individual sound and word. CA on the other hand, for most part, compares languages with the quite utilitarian aim of improving the method of second language teaching and facilitating the learning of the second language learners. It is not interested in classification of languages, not concerned either with language families or with other factors of languages history. CA's comparisons range over a wider area of language structure than those of traditional Comparative Philology viz: phonological, morphological, syntactic, discourse, semantic and pragmatic levels. CA, as the term suggests, focuses on language differences rather than in their similarities.

Principles of CA

CA compares the learners' two languages i.e. mother tongue and target language to find out similarities and differences, and predict the areas of difficulty. Chaturvedi (1973) suggests the following guiding principles for contrastive study (as cited in Pokhrel, 2007, p. 202-3).

- a. To analyze the mother tongue and the target language independently and completely.
- b. To compare the two languages item-wise at all levels of their structure.
- c. To arrive at the categories of (i) similar features (ii) partially similar features (iii) dissimilar features- for the target language.
- d. To arrive at the principles of text preparation, test framing and target language teaching in general.

Theory of CA

The theoretical foundations of CA are based on the propositions of behaviourist school of psychology and structural linguistics. In the 1950's and 1960's the techniques of language teaching were based on a behaviourist view of language. Language, under this view is essentially a system of habits; learning proceeds by producing a response to a stimulus and receiving either positive or negative reinforcement. If you receive enough positive reinforcement for a certain response, it will become a habit. If this is the way language works, language teaching should involve a lot of pattern repetitions, to form proper habits in the learner. For second language learning, there is also the matter of interfering habits from L₁. Based on these insights of behaviourism, CA embraces the following convictions:

a. If language is a set of habits and if L_1 habits can interfere the TL habits, then the proper focus of teaching should be done where the L_1 and TL differ, since these are going to be the places which cause the most trouble for learners.

- b. Language is a set of habits and learning is the establishment of new habits.
- c. The major source of errors is located in the L_1 habits.
- d. We should be able to account for errors by considering differences between L_1 and TL.
- e. The greater the difference between the two languages, the greater the errors.
- f. Differences must be taught, similarities will be implicitly transferred from the L_1 .
- g. Difficulty /Ease of learning a particular TL is determined by the difference between L_1 and TL.

However, the structural linguistic theory and the behaviourist psychological theory have been seriously criticized in the late 1950s and 1960s. Generative linguists claim that structural linguists and behaviourists psychology are inadequate to account for the nature of language and that of language learning particularly the creative potential of language. Consequently, against the classical CA model as developed by Robert Lado and C. C. Fries and with the focus on surface differences between L₁ and L₂, a new generative model of CA has been proposed with the due focus on comparing deep level similarities between languages, not on the surface differences between languages.

Assumptions of CA

The theoretical foundation of CA is also known as the Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis (CAH) or assumptions of CA were formulated in Lado's "Linguistic across Culture" (1957). The basic assumptions of CA is that a learner learning a second language will tend to use his first language structures in his learning and where structures in his target language differ from his native language, he will commit an error. To put in Lado's words, "We assume that the students who come in contact with a foreign language find some features of it quite easy and some others extremely difficult. Those elements which are similar to native language will be simple for him, and those elements that are

different will be difficult" (as cited in Sharma, 2003, p. 204-5). In his book, he has made the following propositions as the assumptions of CA:

- a. Individuals tend to transfer the forms and meanings of the distribution of forms and meanings of their native language and culture to the foreign language and culture both productively when attempting to grasp and understand the language.
- b. In comparison between native and foreign language lies the key to ease and difficulty in foreign language learning.
- c. The teacher who has made a comparison of the foreign language with the native language of the students will know better what the real learning problems are and can provide for teaching them.

Uses and Implications of CA

CA not only predicts the likely errors to be committed by L_2 learners but also explains the sources of errors in one's performance. It also explains how great their degree of difficulty is and which steps must be undertaken to avoid these difficulties. So, CA is helpful in determining the area, which the learners have to learn with greater emphasis and designing teaching learning materials for those particular areas that need more attention. Thus, CA is important from the pedagogical point of view.

The results of CA are used to make language teaching materials, tests and research. CA is not merely relevant for second language teaching but it can also make useful contributions to machine translation and linguistic typology.

In recent years, CA has been applied to other areas of language, for example, the discourse system. It also provides insights of different languages, which can be great empirical assets for the description of languages to theoretical linguistics as well.

2.2 Review of Empirical Literature

To find out the similarities and differences in languages, comparative study is the most important one. There are many linguistic comparative researches carried out by different researchers in the Department of English Language Education, T.U., Kirtipur. Different languages such as Limbu, Tamang, Sherpa, Bantawa Rai, Nepali dialect have been compared with English language and some pedagogical implications have been stated. Some relevant researches on different aspects of tenses have been reviewed below:

Parajuli (1997) has carried out a research entitled "A Compartive Study on the Proficiency in the Use of Simple Present Tense Attained by the Students of Grade VII'. The main objectives of the study were to find out and compare the status of proficiency in the use of Simple Present Tense by the students. And his study shows that the students form private schools were better than the public school.

Bhusal (1998) has carried out a research entitled "A Study on Proficiency in the Use of Present Perfect and Past Perfect Tenses by Nine Graders." The main objective of the study was to find out the proficiency of (boys and girls) students in the use of present perfect and past perfect tenses. The study shows that the boys were far better than the girls in using and understanding present perfect and past perfect tenses.

Paneru (2000) has carried out a research entitled "A Comparative Study of the Present Perfect Tense and the Simple Past Tense in English and Nepali". The main purpose of the study was to compare between Present Perfect and Simple Past Tense in English and Nepali. His study shows that Simple Past Tense was easier than Present Perfect Tense in English for Nepalese students.

Shah (2004) has carried out a research entitled "A Comparative Study on the Simple Present Tense and the Simple Past Tense of English and Maithili'. The main purpose of the study was to compare between Simple Present and Simple Past Tense in English and Maithili. His study shows that English tense system

differs from Maithili one in various aspects. However, there are similarities as well.

Dewan (2009) completed his research entitled "Tense-Aspect System in English and Yakkha language. The main objective of the study was to find out the tense and aspect system in Yakkha language. The finding showed that morphologically, the Yakkha language has the past and non past tense. It codes the future tense with the help of future time adverbials.

Budha (2011) completed his research entitled "Tense and Aspects in English and Achhami. The main objective of the study was to find out the tense and aspect system in Achhami language. He came up with the findings that Achhami language has past and non past tense. In Achhami language, the verbs are also inflected in all tenses.

2.3 Implication of the Review for the Study

While reviewing the literature, the researcher had gone through different existing literature, different articles, journals, and books. Similarly, I had also developed my insight from the research works which are conducted in the nation. All the reviewed literatures were related to grammar of different languages. After reviewing these research tasks, the researcher got information on background information about the grammar and its characteristics, its objectives, historical background and so on. In order to conduct those research works, the researcher got ideas about the process of survey design. In their research, they have used questionnaire and observation as the research tools for the data collection. Here, the researcher used the questionnaire as the research tool for the data collection. Thus, these research works become very helpful for the researcher to accomplish his task since it helps me to broaden my insights and knowledge about the grammar and Tamang language. And different grammar books and articles also help the researcher to explore the theoretical concepts on his study. So, the review of the literature becomes milestone to make the researcher's task more informative and reliable.

2.4 Conceptual Framework

A conceptual framework is the representation of the understanding of the theories by the researchers and his/ her own conceptualization of the relationship between different variables. According to Miles and Huberman (1994, p. 18), "conceptual framework is a written or visual or visual representation that explains either graphically, or in narrative form, the main things to be studied - the key factors, concepts, or variables and the presumed relationship among them" (as cited in Bhandari, 2013, p. 60)

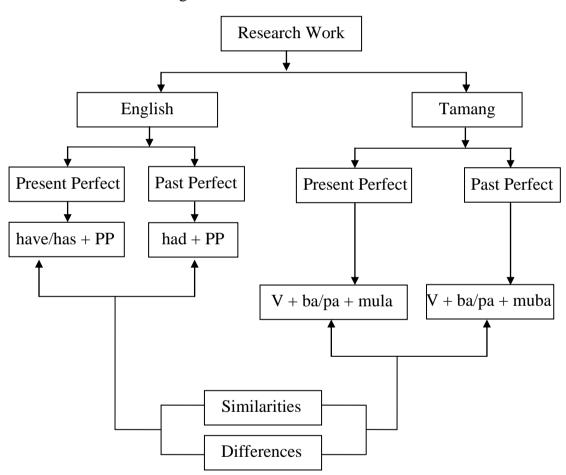


Fig. 4: Framework of the research

Chapter-III

Methods and Procedures of the Study

The researcher adopted the following methodology in his research work.

3.1 Design of the Study

This study was based on survey design. Survey is a research design that is widely used in social and educational researches. Primarily, it is carried out in the large numbers of population to find out an attitude, belief or behavior of particular group of people or an individual as well. It is mostly useful to generalize the finding in a large number of populations. It is cross-sectional in nature. In this connection, in survey research data are gathered from relatively large numbers of population using certain sampling procedure where, the whole population for the data collection is not feasible. It is more realistic in nature. Similarly, it deals with clearly defined problems and objectives. So, the researcher conducted a survey research to study the use of Present Prefect and Past Perfect Tenses in Tamang language and English languages using stratified sampling procedures.

3.2 Population and Sample

The total sample population was 40 Tamang native speakers. They were selected from Rajgadh and Jalthal VDCs. Among them 20 were from literate and other 20 were from illiterate group. They were selected on random sampling basis.

3.3 Sampling Procedure

It is not possible to include all the population in the study because of the time and expense constraints. Therefore, the researcher selected 20 literate and 20 illiterate Tamang native speakers from Rajgadh and Jalthal VDCs using stratified random sampling procedure. In this way, the researcher selected all together 40 respondents.

3.4 Data Collection Tools

Tools are the major element of any research study. In this regard, the researcher used a set of questionnaires for interview as a research tool to elicit the required information of Present Perfect and Past Perfect Tense in Tamang language from its native speakers. The English sentences were written in the questionnaires and they were asked to translate them in the Tamang language. In the case of the illiterate respondents, they were asked the questions verbally translating in Nepali language and their responses were asked in the Tamang. Their responses were noted down by the researcher himself. Similarly, the researcher took help from the experts in Tamang language too.

3.5 Data Collection Procedures

The following procedures were used to collect the data for this research work.

- a. The researcher visited the selected areas and built a friendly relationship with Tamang native speakers.
- b. The researcher took interview to the sample population using structured interview sheet with 40 native speakers.
- c. The responses provided by the native speakers were written in Tamang language.
- d. After collecting the data, some Tamang native speakers were used to crosscheck the data for validity.

3.6 Data Analysis and Interpretation Procedure

The collected data from the native speakers of Rajgadh and Jalthal VDCs were analyzed and interpreted with the help of illustrations and tables using analytical, comparative and descriptive methods. After that, the points of similarities and differences in Tamang and English Present and Past Perfect Tenses were mentioned.

Chapter-IV

Results and Discussion

This chapter consists of detailed analysis and interpretation of the data collected from the respondents. Similarly, discussion of the results based on the data is also the content of this chapter.

In order to collect the data, the researcher prepared the set of questionnaire and they are used to the two groups of native speaker of Tamang language in Rajgadh and Jalthal VDCs. The researcher used the stratified random sampling procedure to collect the data from the respondents.

4.1 Results

The purpose of this study was to find out the Present Perfect and Past Perfect
Tenses used in Tamang and English language. This study further aimed to
develop the use of these tenses in native speaker's daily life and other second
language learners too. Similarly, this study tried to investigate the problems
faced by the native speakers due to the lack of grammar. From the two groups,
the researcher tried to find out the actual data, among them, illiterate group
gave the accurate and meaningful responses even though they cannot write in
script. On the other hand, the literate group also gave the responses correctly
but mixing up the Nepali language as well. Mostly, the native speakers of
Rajgadh VDC are not using their native language in comparison to those in
Jalhal VDC. The new generations do not know about their language and its
script. In day to day use too, they are using Nepali language at home rather
than Tamang language. So, it is very difficult to find the actual data from the
respondents.

- i. The findings of the present study show that the sentence structure and the processes of Present Perfect and Past Perfect Tense are different.
- ii. The sentence structure in Tamang language is SOV but in English, it is SVO.

- iii. These tenses don't take auxiliary verbs in Tamang language but they are found in English language.
- iv. Similarly, the third person singular pronouns 'he' and 'she' indicates male and female respectively in English language but in Tamang language, they both are indicated by 'the'.
- v. Wh-words are placed anywhere in the sentences in Tamang language but in English, Wh-words are placed at the beginning of the sentence only.
- vi. On the basis of morpheme, there are two types of tense in Tamang language past tense like khaji, niji, caji etc and non-past tense like khala, nila, cala etc.
- vii. There is the clear difference between past and non-past tenses in morpheme level. The past tense marker are /-ji/, /-ci/ and non-past marker is /-la/.
- viii. There are different aspects of tense in Tamang language. They are:
 - a. Progressive Aspect: It indicates that the work is being done at the time of speaking. While making the progressive tense, /-ban/, /-pan/ suffixes are attached to the root verb as given below.

Ex: Pema caban mula Pema caban mula

Buring kra pyatpan mula Buring kra pyatpan mula

b. Perfective Aspect: It indicates the complete work. While making this tense /-ba/, /-pa/ suffixes are attached to the root verb and copula verb comes with the tense marker /la/ and /ba/.

Ex: Dong suba muba Dong suba mula

Thenigade niba muba Thenigade niba mula

c. Habitual Aspect: It indicates the habitual action done by somebody. In this tense, /lamuba/ and /lamula/ infinitive form of the verbs are used in past and non-past tense respectively as in the example given below.

Ex: These hotelri kan caba lamuba These hotelri caba lamula

Taranga satpari niba lamuba Taranga satpari niba lamula

- ix. Tamang conforms in most respects to the patterns established by Greenberg (1966) for an SOV language (except for the place of the negation before the verb and of numbers after the noun) although there is great freedom to move the arguments about, for rhetorical purposes. In complex verb phrases modals follow the verb root. Subordinate clauses precede the main clause on the NPs and aspects on the verb. There is no agreement pattern. But they are mostly used in the participial form in –pa/-ba in the same construction.
- x. The absence of a copula is very frequent. But there exist two main copulas and some others. mu-la is mostly used for existence and attribution, and hin-pa for identifications.
- xi. The genitive is the most commonly used case for possession, but the dative is also used: The dative is the usual case when there is a transfer or attribution of possession Transitive verbs construct their subject in the ergative and their object either in the absolutive or the dative. Many verbs allow variation in the case marking of the patient for semantic or rhetorical purposes. With those verbs, it is statistically more frequent that animate objects be put in the dative, and inanimate objects in the absolutive. Definite/indefinite, the degree to which the object is affected, and the information structure of the sentence also play a part.
- xii. The verb phrase comprises the following elements, in order: adverb, negation, verb, directional, modal, {tense-aspect or subordinating suffix}.
- xiii. Basic tense-aspects are expressed by a small set of suffixes which follow the last verb, directional, or modal of the clause: -pa, present/imperfective, -ci, past/perfective, -la (-na after dentals), future/irrealis, -u/-ko imperative, -ke/-kai optative, -sai conditional. Only main clause or completive clause verbs (complements of verbs of thinking and saying) carry tense-aspect markers.

(Verb root +ba/ pa) + mula - in present perfect (Verb root +ba/ pa) + muba - in past perfect After analyzing the data, the following similarities and differences have been found. They are given below:

A. Similarities

- Both English and Tamang languages have the processes of asking in Present Prefect and Past Perfect Tenses.
- ii. Both English and Tamang languages have three persons and two numbers.
- iii. They both have equal numbers of Wh-words.
- iv. Interrogative marker is placed at the last of the sentences.
- v. In both the languages, the verbs are inflected while changing into Present Perfect and Past Perfect Tenses.
- vi. They both have auxiliary verbs in the sentences.

B. Differences

- i. There are not equal numbers of tenses in those languages. English has 2 tenses i.e. past and non past and their aspects are 12 altogether. Tamang also has two tenses but their aspects are more than 12.
- ii. In English, Wh-word always comes at the beginning of the sentences but in Tamang language, Wh-word comes sometimes at the beginning and sometimes before verb or after the verb and sometimes in between the two verbs.
- iii. In Tamang language, these tenses don't take any auxiliary verbs, so, there is no subject-auxiliary verb inversion case but it is the case in English language.
- iv. The second person pronoun 'you' means both singular and plural but in Tamang language, it has different forms in Tamang language.
 - e.g. Singular e:/ a:ini Plural e:gade/ a:ini/ a:inigade
- v. Similarly, the third person singular pronouns 'he' and 'she' indicates male and female respectively in English language but in Tamang language, they, both are indicated by 'the'
- vi. The tense markers in English are auxiliary verbs ('has/ have' –Present Perfect and 'had' Past Perfect) in those tenses. Whereas in Tamang

language, they are 'la' and 'ba'. They indicate Present Perfect and Past Perfect Tense respectively.

4.2 Discussion

On the basis of the findings of the present study, the followings data were discussed or interpreted on the basis of the respondents' reply.

4.2.1 Formation of Tense in Tamang Language

Tense indicates 'Time' or it is the Time Indication. It is found that Time is divided into three types; viz: Past, Present and Future. On the basis of morpheme, there are two types of tense in Tamang language.

- a. Past Tense: khaji, niji, caji,
- b. Non-past Tense: khala, nila, cala,

So, there is the clear difference between Past and Non-past tenses in morpheme level. The Past Tense marker is /-ji/, /-ci/ and Non-past tense marker is /-la/. Similarly, in Past Tense, the work is already done whereas in Non-past, the work is not done at the time of speaking. There are different types of aspect of tense in Tamang language. They are:

- a. Simple Aspect
- b. Progressive Aspect
- c. Perfective Aspect
- d. Habitual Aspect
- e. Unknown Past, etc
- a. Progressive Aspect: It indicates the work is being done at the time of speaking. While making the progressive tense, /-ban/, /-pan/ suffixes are attached to the root verb as given below.

Ex: Pema caban mula Pema caban mula

Buring kra pyatpan muba Buring kra pyatpan mula

b. Perfective Aspect: It indicates the complete work. While making this tense /-ba/, /-pa/ suffixes are attached to the root verb and copula verb comes with the tense marker /la/ and /ba/.

Ex: Dong suba muba Dong suba mula

Thenigade niba mula

Thenigade niba mula

c. Habitual Aspect: It indicates the habitual action done by somebody. In this tense, /lamuba/ and /lamula/ infinitive form of the verbs are used in past and non-past tense respectively as in the example given below.

Ex: These hotelri kan caba lamuba

These hotelri caba lamula

Taranga satpari niba lamuba Taranga satpari niba lamula

Tamang conforms in most respects to the patterns established by Greenberg (1966) for an SOV language (except for the place of the negation before the verb and of numbers after the noun) although there is great freedom to move the arguments about, for rhetorical purposes. In complex verb phrases modals follow the verb root. Subordinate clauses precede the main clause on the NPs and aspects on the verb. There is no agreement pattern. But they are mostly used in the participial form in -pa/-ba in the same construction. The absence of a copula is very frequent. But there exist two main copulas and some others. mu-la is mostly used for existence and attribution, and hin-pa for identifications. The genitive is the most commonly used case for possession, but the dative is also used: The dative is the usual case when there is a transfer or attribution of possession Transitive verbs construct their subject in the ergative and their object either in the absolutive or the dative. Many verbs allow variation in the case marking of the patient for semantic or rhetorical purposes. With those verbs, it is statistically more frequent that animate objects be put in the dative, and inanimate objects in the absolutive. Definite / indefinite, the degree to which the object is affected, and the information structure of the sentence also play a part.

The verb phrase comprises the following elements, in order: adverb, negation, verb, directional, modal, {tense-aspect or subordinating suffix}.

Basic tense-aspects are expressed by a small set of suffixes which follow the last verb, directional, or modal of the clause: -pa, present/imperfective, -ci, past/perfective, -la (-na after dentals), future/irrealis, -u/-ko imperative, -ke/-kai optative, -sai conditional. Only main clause or completive clause verbs (complements of verbs of thinking and saying) carry tense-aspect markers.

(Verb root +ba/ pa) + mula - in present perfect (Verb root +ba/ pa) + muba - in past perfect

4.2.2 Present Perfect and Past Perfect Tense used in Tamang and English In terms of Word Order

A. Subject, Verb and Object

Table 2: Tamang sentences with first person

| Tense | English Language | Tamang Language | |
|-----------------|----------------------|-----------------------------------|--|
| rfect | I have eaten rice. | ŋa=i kan=ø caba mu-la. | |
| | | 1SG=ERG rice=ABS eat=PFV COP-NPST | |
| nt Pe | We have eaten | yang=se kan=ø caba mu-la | |
| Present Perfect | | 1PL=ERG rice=ABS eat=PFV COP – | |
| | 2200 | NPST | |
| Past Perfect | I had eaten rice. | ŋa=i kan=ø caba mu-ba. | |
| | Thud butter 1100. | 1SG=ERG rice=ABS eat=PFV COP -PST | |
| | We had eaten rice. | yang=se kan=ø caba mu-ba. | |
| | ··· o mua caton moo. | 1PL=ERG rice=ABS eat=PFV COP -PST | |

Source: Field Survey, 2015

Table 3: Tamang Sentences with second person

| Tense | English Language | Tamang Language |
|--------------------|----------------------|---|
| Present Perfect | You have eaten rice. | e:se kan=ø caba mu-la 2SG=ERG rice=ABS eat=PFV COP – NPST |
| Past Perfect | You had eaten rice. | e:=se kan=ø caba mu-ba. 2SG=ERG rice=ABS eat=PFV COP – PST |

Source : Field Survey, 2015

Table 4: Tamang Sentences with third person

| the=se kan=ø caba mu-la 3SG=ERG rice=ABS eat=PF NPST the=se kan=ø caba mu-la 3SG=ERG rice=ABS eat=PF NPST She has eaten rice. 3SG=ERG rice=ABS eat=PF NPST | |
|--|---------|
| NPST | |
| | V COP – |
| She has eaten rice. the=se kan=ø caba mu-la 3SG=ERG rice=ABS eat=PF NPST | |
| She has eaten rice. 3SG=ERG rice=ABS eat=PF NPST | |
| NPST | V COP - |
| | |
| then=se kan=ø caba mu-la | |
| They have eaten rice. 3PL=ERG rice=ABS eat=PF | V COP - |
| NPST | |
| the=se kan=ø caba mu-ba. | |
| He had eaten rice. 3SG=ERG rice=ABS eat=PF | V COP – |
| PST | |
| She had eaten rice. the=se kan=ø caba mu-ba. | |
| 3SG=ERG rice=ABS eat=PF | V COP – |
| She had eaten rice. the=se kan=ø caba mu-ba. 3SG=ERG rice=ABS eat=PF PST | |
| then=se kan=ø caba mu-ba. | |
| They had eaten rice. 3PL=ERG rice=ABS eat=PF | V COP – |
| PST | |

Source: Field Survey, 2015

The above table shows that in assertive sentence, English language has SVO form. While making present perfect sentences in English language, singular subjects take 'has' auxiliary verb (present tense marker) and it is followed by past participle and plural subjects take 'have' auxiliary verb (which is present tense marker) and past participle follows them. Similarly, in Past Perfect, all the subjects (singular or plural) take 'had' auxiliary verb (past tense marker) and past participle follows it.

But in Tamang language, sentence construction is SOV as in Nepali language i.e. 'Subject + Object + Verb'. In Tamang language, all the subjects (singular or plural) take the same form of verb i.e. root verb + '-ba' or '-pa' suffixes like Caba, braba etc. But there is no any auxiliary verb in Tamang language in these tenses. In Tamang language, present tense and past tense markers are 'mula' and 'muba' respectively where 'mu' is copula verb and 'la' and 'ba' are tense markers.

In English language, almost same form of the verb functions as honorific and non honorific but in Tamang language, there are different forms of verb used in according to honorific and non honorific nouns as in Nepali Language.

Table 5: Honorific verb stems in Tamang

| Verbs in English | Ordinary | Honorific | High honorific |
|------------------|----------|-----------|----------------|
| Go | ni | se | phep |
| Come | kha | jonga | phepka |
| Sit | chi | syhu | dhanchya |
| Eat | cha | sol | chyoi |

Source: Lee, 2011

B. Adjectives

Table 6: Tamang Sentences with adjectives

| Tense | English Language | Tamang Language |
|---------|-----------------------|--|
| Present | Father has worn black | Aapase mlangai kot kwanba mu-la. |
| Perfect | coat. | Father=ERG black coat wear=PFV COP- |
| | | NPST |
| | I have made a small | ŋa=i gik jajaba dim= ø so=ba mu-la |
| | house. | 1SG=ERG one big house=ABS make=PFV |
| | nouse. | COP-NPST |
| | Hen has made the nest | Nagase noba dimri jang soba mu-la. |
| | in the tall house. | Hen=ERG high house=LOC nest |
| | in the tan house. | make=PFV COP-NPST |
| | Pema has got a big | Pema=se grhen puraskar=ø syappa mu-la. |
| | prize. | Pema=ERG big prize=ABS get-PFV COP- |
| | prize. | NPST |
| Past | Grandfather had come | Aakhe yanla chhar dimri khaba mu-ba. |
| Perfect | to our new house. | Grandfather our new house=LOC |
| | to our new nouse. | come=PFV COP-PST |
| | | Pasang=se exam=ri jyaba aŋka baba mu- |
| | Pasang had brought | ba. |
| | good marks in exam. | Pasang=ERG exam=LOC good mark |
| | | bring=PFV COP-PST |
| | We had caught a white | yaŋ=se tar ra:=ø cuŋba mu-ba |
| | _ | 1PL=ERG white goat=ABS catch-PFV |
| | goat. | COP-PST |
| | Lama had put on red | Lamase wala kwan=ø kwanba mu-ba. |
| | cloth. | Lama=ERG red cloth=ABS wear=PFV |
| | Cioui. | COP-PST |

Source : Field Survey, 2015

The above table shows that adjective comes before the head nouns that describe in both English and Tamang languages.

C. Adverbs

According to Schachter and Shopen (2007:20), adverbs frequently include several different sets of words in a language and modify verbs, adjectives, or other adverbs. Kansakar (1999:24) says, —The adverbs in Tamang modify verbs in terms of time, space, quantity, and manner. There are at least five subclasses of adverbs in Tamang: manner adverbs, temporal adverbs, directional adverbs, adverbs of degree, and sentence adverbials. (as cited in Lee, 2011)

Table 7: Tamang Sentences with adverbs

| Tense | English Language | Tamang Language |
|---------|----------------------|----------------------------------|
| | Ram has already come | Ram dolon dimri khaba mu-la |
| | home | Ram already house=LOC come=PFV |
| | | COP-NPST |
| Present | You have gone inside | e: dim nongri niba mu-la. |
| Perfect | the house. | 2SG house inside go=PFV COP-NPST |
| | He has done it very | The=se chu=ø yonan laba mu-la |
| | fast. | 3SG=ERG it=ABS fast do=PFV COP- |
| | Tast. | NPST |
| | Pema had gone | Pema golchheri niba mu-ba. |
| Past | slowly. | Pema slowly go=PFV COP-PST |
| Perfect | Sister had woken up | Buring yonan rhe:-ba mu-ba. |
| | early. | Sister early wake=PFV up COP-PST |

Source: Field Survey, 2015

The above table shows that adverb occurs sometimes at the beginning, before verb and sometimes at the last of the sentence in English language. But in Tamang language, it occurs in between the subject and verb.

D. Wh-Word

Wh-words in Tamang and English languages are as follows:

Table 8: Tamang equivalent with Wh-words

| English | Tamang |
|---------------|----------------|
| Where | Khanang/ khang |
| Who | Khala |
| When | Khaima |
| How | Kharangba |
| What | Tiga/tik |
| Why | Tikda/tile |
| How many/much | Kade/gade |

Source : Field Survey, 2015

Table 9: Tamang Sentences with information questions

| Tense | English Language | Tamang Sentences |
|---------|---------------------|--------------------------------------|
| Present | What has he said? | the=se tik paŋ ba mu-la? |
| Perfect | | 3SG=ERG what say=PFV COP-NPST |
| | Where has | chhiring khanaŋ ni ba mu-la? |
| | Chhiring gone? | Chhiring where go=PFV COP-NPST |
| | Why have they | then=se tile ŋa:da ŋot pa mu-la? |
| | called me? | 3PL=ERG why 1SG=DAT call=PFV COP- |
| | | NPST |
| | How much money | e:se gade jyaba syap pa mu-la? |
| | have you got? | 2SG how much money get=PFV COP-NPST |
| Past | When had they | the=se khaima gyat jhin ba mu-ba? |
| Perfect | completed the task? | 3PL=ERG when work finish=PFV COP-PST |
| | Why had Ramesh | Ramesh=se tile chhoi bri ba mu-ba? |
| | written a book? | Ramesh=ERG why book write=PFV COP- |
| | | PST |
| | Who had come to | Dimri khala khaba mu-ba? |
| | home? | House=LOC who come=PFV COP-PST |
| | Where had you | y: khanaŋ gyam khaba mu-ba? |
| | come from? | 2SG where from come=PFV COP-PST |
| | What had Pema | Pema=se tik ba ba mu-ba? |
| | brought? | Pema=ERG what buy=PFV COP-PST |
| | I | C F: 110 2014 |

Source: Field Survey, 2014

The above table shows that Wh-word is placed at the beginning and interrogative mark is at the last in English language while making Wh questions. And subject - auxiliary verb conversion takes place there. But in Tamang language, Wh-word is placed anywhere in the sentences; sometimes at the beginning and sometimes before verb or after the verb. And sometimes in between the two verbs and interrogative mark is placed at the last. While

interchanging the place of the Wh-word in the sentence, the meaning of the sentence varies in Tamang language.

In terms of Verb inflection

Table 10: Tamang Sentences with present perfect verbs

| Tense | English Sentences | Tamang Sentences |
|---------|-------------------------|----------------------------------|
| | I have eaten rice. | ŋa:i kan ca ba mula. |
| | | 1SG rice eat=PFV COP-NPST |
| | We have gone to home. | Yangade dim ri ni ba mula. |
| | we have gone to nome. | 1PL house=LOC go=PFV COP-NPST |
| Present | He has planted trees. | the se dong su ba mula. |
| Perfect | The mas prainted trees. | 3SG tree plant=PFV COP-NPST |
| | Pasang has eaten rice. | Pasang se kan ca ba mula. |
| | T usung has eaten free. | Pasang=ERG rice eat=PFV COP-NPST |
| | Sister has woken up | Buring yonan re ba mula. |
| | early. | Sister early wake=PFV COP-NPST |

Source : Field Survey, 2015

Table 11: Tamang Sentences with past perfect verbs

| Tense | English Sentences | Tamang Sentences |
|---------|-----------------------|-------------------------------------|
| | Chhiring had gone | Chhiring yonan ni ba muba. |
| | early. | Chhiring early go=PFV COP-PST |
| | He had written a book | the se chhoi golchheri bri ba muba. |
| | very slowly. | 3SG book slowly write=PFV COP-PST |
| Past | Sister has given food | Nana se donbo da sol donba mula. |
| Perfect | | Sister=ERG guest=DAT rice (HON) |
| | to the guest. | give=PFV COP-NPST |
| | Father has made the | Aba se lungdur soba mula. |
| | flag. | Father = ERG flag make=PFV COP-NPST |
| | My father had gone to | ŋa:la aba kathmandu pheppa muba. |
| | kathmandu. | 1SG = GEN father Kathmandu go=PFV |
| | Kammanau. | (HON) COP-PST |

Source: Field Survey, 2015

The above table shows that the verb is inflected and changed into past participle where regular verbs take '-ed' suffix and irregular verbs change into new form in English language while making present perfect and past perfect tense. The present tense markers are 'has and have' and past tense marker is only one i.e. 'had'. Whereas in Tamang language, the verb is also inflected as; root verb + suffix (-ba/-pa). The present tense marker and past tense markers are 'mula' and 'muba' respectively.

Chapter – V

Summary, Conclusions and Implications

After the analysis and discussion of the study, the summary, conclusions and implications of the findings are presented in this chapter which is given below:

5.1 Summary

Basically the grammar is the backbone of any language. So, it is necessary to overcome to learn the language very well. Otherwise, learning a language has no value and it cannot erect its own position, i.e. the language is in the verge of extinction and it will disappear one day. Here the researcher also selected Tamang language in his research which is also least used language in current time in Rajgadh and Jalthal VDCs. So, the researcher prefers grammar in his study and compares and contrasts the present perfect and past perfect tenses used in Tamang and English languages. It is because the native speakers of Tamang are not using their own mother tongue but they are using Nepali language instead. Although they know their language, they are not using it. Therefore, the researcher tried to find out the aspects and elements there in Tamang language and compares it with English language. Grammar only helps the learners to write the sentences in correct form and generate the several sentences too. Speaking does not need any accuracy but while writing it is necessary to write grammatically correct sentences. In most of the cities, the language instructor of Tamang language is running Tamang script training in these days. And it was run in Birtamode just three months before and in Kathmandu valley too.

It is survey research and the researcher took stratified random sampling procedure to elicit required data from the respondents. The respondents were divided into two, viz; literate and illiterate. And the questionnaires were distributed to all where illiterate group get help from the researcher and on the other hand, literate translate it in Tamang language themselves. After collecting the required data, the researcher analysed and interpreted them at last.

5.2 Conclusions

Being a Tamang native speaker, the researcher tried to do research in his own language grammar. i.e. A comparative study on Present Perfect and Past Perfect Tense used in Tamang and English languages. Where he tried to find out the differences and similarities in those languages and also tried to find out grammatical structure and their aspects in Tamang language. While doing his research, the researcher collected a lot of materials and consulted with some of the language teachers of English and Tamang native speakers too. And after that he collected the required information. From the research, the researcher found out the following conclusions:

- Both English and Tamang languages have the processes of asking in Present Prefect and Past Perfect Tenses.
- ii. Both English and Tamang languages have three persons and two numbers.
- iii. They both have equal numbers of Wh-words.
- iv. Interrogative marker is placed at the last of the sentences.
- v. In both the languages, the verbs are inflected while changing into Present Perfect and Past Perfect Tenses.
- vi. They both have auxiliary verbs in the sentences.
- vii. There are not equal numbers of tenses in those languages. English has 2 tenses i.e. past and non past and their aspects are 12 altogether. Tamang also has two tenses but their aspects are more than 12.
- viii. In English, Wh-word always comes at the beginning of the sentences but in Tamang language, Wh-word comes sometimes at the beginning and sometimes before verb or after the verb and sometimes in between the two verbs.
- ix. In Tamang language, these tenses don't take any auxiliary verbs, so, there is no subject-auxiliary verb inversion case but it is the case in English language.
- x. The second person pronoun 'you' means both singular and plural but in Tamang language, it has different forms in Tamang language.

- e.g. Singular e:/ a:ini Plural e:gade/ a:ini/ a:inigade
- xi. Similarly, the third person singular pronouns 'he' and 'she' indicates male and female respectively in English language but in Tamang language, they, both are indicated by 'the'
- xii. The tense markers in English are auxiliary verbs ('has/ have' –Present Perfect and 'had' Past Perfect) in those tenses. Whereas in Tamang language, they are 'la' and 'ba'. They indicate Present Perfect and Past Perfect Tense respectively.

5.3 Implications

On the basis of the major findings of the present study, the following suggestions and implications for the different levels are provided as follows:

5.3.1 Policy Level

The most determinant factor in any job or profession is the policy implemented by the country or the state. Similarly, the use of grammar in any language is also most necessary to develop the native language of the nation of any community. In this regard, the researcher would to point out some of the implications effective for the policy making level below

- For the development of Tamang language, government should bring some special programs to the native speakers of Tamang and give them opportunities too.
- ii. Tamang people are now quite aware of their customs, tradition, language and so on. So, the government should give them equal opportunities and places to bring up them too.

5.3.2 Practice Level

i. The researcher divided the group into two, viz; literate and illiterate groups. The illiterate group had good knowledge about their native language than the literate group. So, it is suggested that the language teacher use the illiterate people to pronounce the words or sentences the

- researcher helps them to write and the other hand the literate people are told to write the transformations of the given sentences if possible.
- ii. Writing Tamang language is quite difficult than Nepali and English languages. So, more focus is to be given to the grammar of Tamang language as it is the backbone of the language.

5.3.3 Further Research

This study is survey research. It was only limited to Rajgadh and Jalthal VDCs and only 40 Tamang native people. Therefore, I do not claim that it is complete in itself. As it is survey it could not cover all the people and the areas. So, further research can be carried out in this area. Here I have tried to mention some of the suggestions and related areas for further research.

- i. The sample of the study should be larger than this that helps us to derive the real findings. It is suggested that more population should be included to find out the effectiveness of language use. It helps us to make the results more reliable and valid.
- ii. This research is only carried out in Rajgadh and Jalthal VDCs but it is suggested that the further study should be carried out in other areas as well depending on the variations of the language. Like; Eastern Tamang, Western Tamang and so on.
- iii. This research is only limited to short period of time. So, for the more exploration of the study, the language teacher can conduct action research in their real teaching.

References

- Adhikari, S. & Ukyab, T. (2000). *The nationalities of Nepal*. Kathmandu: HMG of Nepal, Ministry of Local Development, National committee for Development of Nationalities.
- Arts & Arts (1986). English Syntactic Structure. London, Longman.
- A.C., Ghan B. (2009). A comparative study of vocabulary of hamar Tharu: pahil kilas and my English book: grade one. An Unpublished M. Ed. Thesis, Tahachal, Kathmandu.
- Bamjan, L.B. (2009). *Cases in English and Tamang*. An Unpublished M. Ed. Thesis, T.U., Kirtipur.
- Basnet, P.R. (2002). *Noun prhase structure in Thulung and English : A comparative study.* An Unpublished M. Ed. Thesis, T.U., Kirtipur.
- Bista, D.B. (2000). People of Nepal. Kathmandu: Ratna Pustak Bhandar.
- CBS (2001). Population Census 2001. National reports, Kathmandu: CBS.
- Chomsky, N.(1957). Syntactic Structure. The Hague: Mouton.
- Corder, S.P. (1973). *Introducing applied linguistics*. Harmondsworth: Penguin Books.
- Cowan, R. (2008). The teacher's grammar of English. Cambridge: CUP.
- Crystal, D. (2003). *A Dictionary of Linguistics and Phonetics*. London: Blackwell.
- Gautam, R. & Thapa Magar, A. (1994). *Tribal ethnography of Nepal, Vol. II.*Delhi: Book Faith.
- Ghising, P. (209). *Verbal affixation in English and Tamang*. An Unpublished M. Ed. Thesis, T.U., Kirtipur.
- Halliday, M.A.K. & et al (1964). *The linguistic science and language teaching*. London: Longman.
- Harmer, J. (1987). Teaching and learning grammar. London: Longman.
- Harmer, J. (1991). *The practice of English language teaching*. London: Longman.
- Jadeja, R.M. (1992). Languages in India and Indian sub-continent. New Delhi.

- Kansakar, T.R. (1996). Language planning and modernization in Nepal. Vol. III. Linguistic Society of Nepal.
- Khanal, K.P. (2006). *Tense and aspect system in Awadhi and English verbs : A comparative study*. An Unpublished M. Ed. Thesis, T.U., Kirtipur.
- Kumar, K.P. (1996). Research Methodology. London: Sage Publication.
- Kumar, R. (2007). Research Methodology. Delhi: Pearson Education.
- Lado, R. (1957). *Linguistics Across Culture*. Ann Arbor Michigan: University of Michigan Press.
- Paneru, N.R. (2001). A Comparative study of the present perfect tense and simple past tense in English and Nepali: An Unpublished M. Ed. Thesis, T.U., Kirtipur.
- Ramamurthi, L. (1998). A history of English language and elements of phonetics. Chennai: Macmillan.
- Shah, B.N. (2000). A comparative study of subject verb agreement in Maithili and English languages. An Unpublished M. Ed. Thesis, T.U., Kirtipur.
- Shah, P.K. (2004). A Comparative Study on the Simple Present Tense and the Simple Past Tense of English and Maithili: An Unpublished M. Ed. Thesis, T.U., Kirtipur.
- Sharma, A.R. (2003). *Aryotpatti* (origin of Aryas). Varanashi : Vyas Publication.
- Sharma.V. (1994). The position of English language and some ways to improve it. *Curriculum Quarterly* (year 7, no. 15). Kathmandu: CDC, TU. .
- Tamang journal Vol. 1 (2009), Tamang Pragya Sava.
- Tamang, P. (2054). *Tamang Jati*. Kathmandu: Nepal Rajkiya Pratisthan.
- Tamang, S. (2062). *Tamang jati itihashdekhi bartamansamma*. Kathmandu: Express Collours Press C. P. Ltd.
- Toba, S. (1992). *Language issues in Nepal*. Kathmandu: Samdan Books and Stationers.

- Tumbapo, P.B. (2005). Verbal affixation in English and Panthare dialect of Limbu: A comparative study. An Unpublished M. Ed. Thesis, T.U., Kirtipur.
- Wardaugh, R. (1998). *An introduction to sociolinguistics*. Massachusetts: Blackwell.
- www. google/eng/English _language
- Yadav, Y. P.(2003). *Theories of grammar*. Kathmandu: Students Books Publishers and Distributors.
- Yadav, Y. P.(2006). *Linguistics : A basic course*. Kathmandu: New Hira Book Enterprises.
- Yule, G. (1984). The study of language. Cambridge: CUP

Appendix I

A Comparative Study on Present Perfect and Past Perfect Tense used in Tamang and English Language

Structured Interview Sheet

| Dear sir/ miss/ madam, | |
|--|--|
| This is structured interview taken to accomplish a research work entitled "A | |
| Comparative Study on Present Perfect Tense and Past Perfect Tense used in | |
| Tamang and English Language". I hope you will help me honestly by saying/ | |
| writing the following expressions in Tamang language. | |
| Name: Sex: Age: | |
| VDC: Rajgadh / Jalthal District: Jhapa | |
| How do you say the following expressions in Tamang language? | |
| 1. I have eaten rice. | |
| Answer: | |
| 2. We have eaten rice. | |
| Answer: | |
| 3. We had eaten rice. | |
| Answer: | |
| 4. You have eaten rice. | |
| Answer: | |

| 5. | You had eaten rice. |
|-----|----------------------------------|
| | Answer: |
| 6. | She has eaten rice. |
| | Answer: |
| 7. | He has eaten rice. |
| | Answer: |
| 8. | He had eaten rice. |
| | Answer: |
| 9. | They have eaten rice. |
| | Answer: |
| 10. | They had eaten rice. |
| | Answer: |
| 11. | Pasang has eaten rice. |
| | Answer: |
| 12. | He has planted trees. |
| | Answer: |
| 13. | We have gone to home. |
| | Answer: |
| 14. | My father had gone to Kathmandu. |
| | Answer: |
| 15. | My father has made the flag. |
| | A mayram. |

| 16. | Lama had put on re cloth. |
|-----|---|
| | Answer: |
| 17. | We had caught a white goat. |
| | Answer: |
| 18. | Pasang had brought good marks in exam. |
| | Answer: |
| 19. | Grand father had come to our new house. |
| | Answer: |
| 20. | Pema has got a big prize. |
| | Answer: |
| 21. | Hen has made the nest in tall house. |
| | Answer: |
| 22. | I have made a small house. |
| | Answer: |
| 23. | Father has worn black coat. |
| | Answer: |
| 24. | Sister has woken up early. |
| | Answer: |
| 25. | Sister had woken up early. |
| | Answer: |
| 26. | Pema had gone slowly. |
| | Angyram |

| 27. | What had pema brought? | |
|-----|-------------------------------------|--|
| | Answer: | |
| 28. | Who had come to the house? | |
| | Answer: | |
| 29. | Why had Ramesh written a book? | |
| | Answer: | |
| 30. | When had they completed the task? | |
| | Answer: | |
| 31. | How much money have you got? | |
| | Answer: | |
| 32. | Chhiring had gone early. | |
| | Answer: | |
| 33. | He had written a book very slowly. | |
| | Answer: | |
| 34. | Sister has given food to the guest. | |
| | Answer: | |
| 35. | Sister had given food to the guest | |
| | Answer: | |
| 36. | Pema has gone slowly. | |
| | Answer: | |
| 37. | Pema had gone slowly. | |
| | Answer: | |

| 38. | He has done it very fast. |
|-----|---------------------------------|
| | Answer: |
| 39. | You have gone inside the house. |
| | Answer: |
| 40. | Ram has already come home. |
| | Answer: |

Thank you.