

CHAPTER - ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 General Background

Language is a means of human communication. Every normal human child acquires his/her first language effortlessly in a natural way. But second language learning is quite different from it. Second language learning is, as linguists view, extremely affected by the linguistic habits of the first language. A contrastive analysis, comparing and contrasting two different languages, is the best way of pinpointing the areas of second language in which second language learners are likely to commit errors due to the influence of their mother tongue. This study attempts to find out S-V Agreement System in the Puma language and compare and contrast it with that of the English language. It also tries to identify the areas of English in which Puma native speakers are likely to commit errors in S-V Agreement and give some suggestions for pedagogical purpose.

1.1.1 Defining Language

Language is one of the various modes of communication. Only human beings can use language as a means of communication. So, the possession of language makes the human beings different from other animals. It is extremely complex and highly versatile code used for human communication. Moreover, It is a dynamic and open system that allows human beings to communicate their thoughts, feelings, desires, emotions, experience and ideas. It can also be taken as a social phenomenon which is used in our society to establish the relationship among the human beings.

There is the existence of human civilization due to language in use. Our civilization cannot be imagined in absence of language.

In Sapir's (1921, p.9) words "Language is a purely human and non-instinctive method of communicating ideas, emotions, and desires by means of voluntarily

produced symbols". Besides, it is a chain of arbitrary sounds produced voluntarily. According to Bloch and Trager (1942, p.5), "A language is a system of arbitrary vocal symbols by means of which a social group co-operates".

Chomsky (1957, p.13) defines language from formal point of view. To quote him, "Language is a set of sentences, each finite in length and constructed out of a finite set of elements". Likewise, Widdowson (2003, p.12) defines from functional point of view. He says, "Language is a system of arbitrary vocal symbols which permits all people in a given culture, or other people who have learned the system of that culture, to communicate or to interact".

Various linguists and scholars have defined language from various perspectives. No matter whoever and however defines it, no definition is perfectly satisfactory one. All these definitions try their utmost to incorporate almost all features of a language. But no one is universally acceptable definition of a language. Thus, with reference to the complexity of a language Sthapit (On 23rd Annual Conference of LSN held on Nov. 27-28, 2002) argues, "Even ten thousands best linguists of the world cannot describe a language perfectly".

1.1.2. English in Nepal

In a rough statistics, more than 6,000 distinct languages have been identified in the world. All languages are thought to possess different status. No language is considered to be superior or inferior to others in terms. However, some languages play more dominant role in a particular situation in a particular society. In this regard, English is one of such languages which is regarded as the world's most prestigious and important language. It is used as lingua franca around the world. People from different linguistic backgrounds who do not share any mode of communication in common use it. English is one of the official languages of United Nation (UN) others being French, German,

Spanish and Russian. It is internationally accepted and widely used medium of communication in which most of the books, newspapers, journals, e-mails etc. in the world are published.

The modern western civilization is being transmitted to the eastern world via the English language. It is also considered as a treasure house of knowledge. It is also a vehicle by which non-English communities have imported foreign inventions, ideas, culture, literature, modern technology etc. from developed world. We can say that English is serving as an important vehicle for the transmission of civilization, culture, knowledge etc.

Bhattarai (1995, p.226) views, "English has become indispensable vehicle to the transmission of modern civilization in the nation. It is a passport through which one can visit the whole world and one who knows English can enjoy the advantages of a world citizen. He is received and understood everywhere. Therefore, English is the means of preventing our isolation from the world and we will act unwisely if we allow ourselves to be enveloped in the folds of dark curtain of ignorance".

Teaching English in Nepal began for the first time at Durbar High School in 1853 A.D. after the then prime minister Janga Bahadur Rana's visit to England. Since then, Nepal Government has given a great importance to the teaching of English in the education system of Nepal. It is taught from the very beginning of schooling to the bachelor level of higher education as a compulsory subject. It is also taught as a major subject in higher education up to its peak. Then His Majesty's Government of Nepal brought an educational act into effect in 1982 A. D. that allowed anybody to open English medium school at national and regional level. After the restoration of permitting Nepali citizen to open schools at private level. As a consequence a large number of private schools have been giving education in English as a medium of instruction.

1.1.3. Linguistic Scenario of Nepal

Although Nepal is small in its size, it is rich in terms of culture and language. Cultural diversity and linguistic plurality are the important features of Nepal. As population census-2001 reports, more than 92 languages are spoken as the mother tongue in Nepal. Besides, a number of languages have been reported as unknown languages (CBS, 2001). But a bitter fact is that most of these languages have a pitiful situation. They are declining in terms of their use in communication and the number of their native speakers. They do not have their script, so no question of having documented literature as well. They exist only in their spoken form. Because of a number of reasons such as migration, inter-caste marriage, cultural influence, communication with the speakers of other languages, Nepali language as a means of instruction in schools and colleges, emphasis on teaching English and the opportunities for the people having good command over English, such languages (especially tribal languages) are at the verge of extinction. But the most remarkably, the government's discriminatory policy regarding the preservation and promotion of languages is very much responsible. The government's policy is obviously partial to such languages. The government allocates a large sum of money for Sanskrit university and colleges but does not allocate even a rupee for the preservation of other languages. In the name of preserving such languages, the government came with the policy that gave permission to run a school in a mother tongue up to primary level. But this policy did not talk much about the economic support to such schools from the part of the government. It was not the proper provision for the preservation of tribal languages. So, they need a proper provision from the government or they are likely to die one after another in near future.

The languages spoken in Nepal can be divided into the following four language families. They are described below in brief;

I. Indo–Aryan

As Gurung (2003) records in his book entitled *Social Demography of Nepal*, this language family consists of 17 languages spoken in Nepal including Nepali. On the basis of the number of languages, it is the second largest language family and the largest language families in terms of the number of speakers about 80 percent of the total population speak languages of this family.

This family consists of the following language of Nepal.

Nepali	Hindi
Mangahi	Urdu
Maithili	Rajbanshi
Marwadi	Darai
Bhojpuri	Awadhi
Majhi	Kumal
Tharu	Danuwar
Chureti languages	Bote
Bengali	

[Source: Gurung(2003)]

II. Tibeto-Burman

According to Gurung(2003), Tibeto-Burman is the largest language family regarding the number of languages fall under this family. But in comparison to Indo-Aryan family, lesser number of people speak these languages. Moreover, this number is declining day –by- day rapidly.

Languages like Chepang, Thami, Jirel, Raute, Dura and Lepcha are spoken by a very few speakers. They are in the verge of extinction. Limbu and Newar, are such languages in this family which have their own scripts and rich literature.

Following languages have been recorded as the Tibeto-Burman languages.

Rai

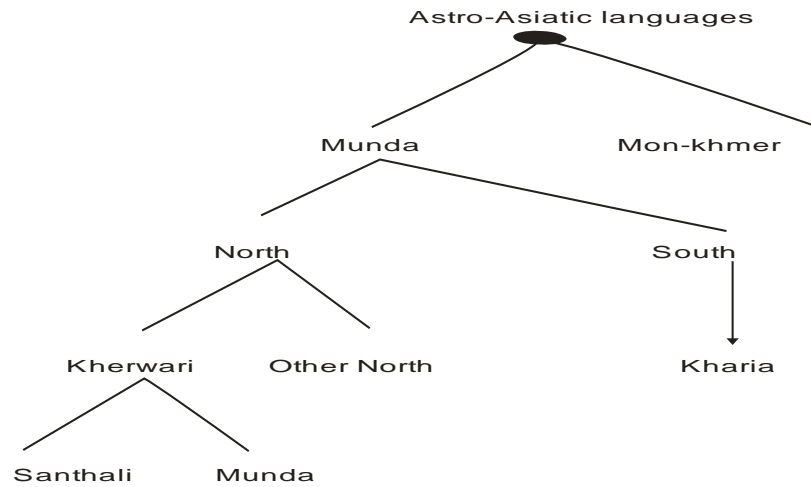
Yakkha	Raute	Raji
Toto	Sherpa	Marpha
Tebatan	Pahari	Lhomi
Chepang	Koche	Lepcha
Thami	Dura	Byangshi
Dhimal	Chhantal	Newar
Limbu	Tamang	Kham
Magar	Sunuwar	Manang
Thakali	Kaike	Kagate
Jirel	Meche	Bhujel
Hayu	Yholmo	Nar
Syang	Baram	Gurung

[Source: Gurung,(2003)]

III. Austro-Asiatic

The Austro-Asiatic language family includes Santhal of the northern munda group and Kharia of the Southern Munda group. The Austric languages are spoken by the tribal people living in the eastern Terai and make up approximately 0.19 percent of the total population of Nepal.

The following diagram shows the genetic affiliation of the Austric languages spoken in Nepal.

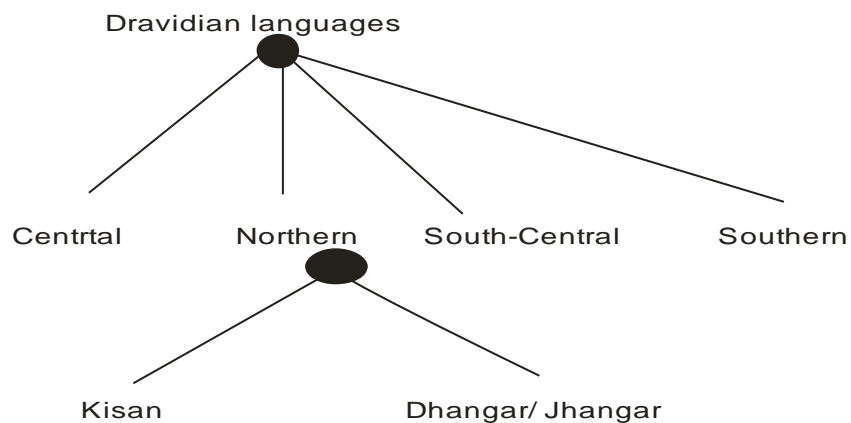


[Source: Yadav(2003)]

IV. Dravidian

Only two languages i. e. Jhangar and Kisan are the Dravidian languages spoken in Nepal. Jhangar is spoken in the eastern province of the Koshi river whereas Dhangar (a dialect of Jhangar) is spoken in the west of the Koshi river.

The genetic affiliation of Dravidian languages can be presented as follows;



[Source: Yadava, (2003)]

1.1.4. An Introduction to the Rai Community and the Puma Language

Nepal is a multilingual, multicultural and multiracial country. Its diversity in language, culture and ethnicity has made it distinct from other countries and has been the right place of study for the researchers from the various countries. The Rais, one of the ethnic groups of Nepal, also has a role to add up these characteristics because it is only one ethnic group in the world which has diverse cultures and more 22 languages (Census, 2001). The Rais belong to the Kirat dynasty. The term 'Kirat' has been variously defined by various scholars. Hodgson (2003, p.1), a well known scholar of general history of Kirat people, says, "The Kirat on account of their distinctively traceable antiquity as a nation and the peculiar structure of their language are perhaps the most interesting of all the Himalayan races."

Kirat Rais with distinct identity in culture, language, physical appearance and ritual functions are the main inhabitants of the eastern hilly region of Nepal. They are originally living in more than 16 districts of Nepal. Furthermore, they are found in different states of India like Sikkim, West Bengal, Assam, Meghalaya and Nagaland and Bhutan, Burma and some of the European countries. According to population Census 2001, their population in Nepal is 6,35,151. They speak 22 languages. But the remarkable thing here is that some of the languages like Belhare, Athpaharia, Phangduwali and Mugali, which are also spoken as Rai languages, have not been included in Census- 2001.

Puma is one of the endangered Kirati languages of Nepal spoken by the ethnic group of the same name as their mother tongue that belongs to the Kirati subgroup of the Sino-Tibetan language family. Puma is densely spoken as mother tongue in some of the southern VDCs of Khotang district viz. Diplung, Devisthan, Pauwasera, Mauwabote and Chisapani. It is also spoken in Beltar, Siddhipur Basaha and Chaudandi VCDs of Udayapur. They also live in different districts of Nepal including Sunsari and Kathmandu. CBS (2001)

reports 4,310 Puma speakers in Nepal which is 0.02 percent of the total population of Nepal. However, this figure seems unrealistic. Puma people living in aforementioned areas claim that there should be at least 10,000 Puma people. Moreover, according to CBS (2001), the distribution of Puma speaking people is confined mostly in eastern part of Nepal.

The Puma is one of the various Kirati languages spoken primarily in the eastern hilly region of Nepal. It is one of the endangered languages in the world. Having few native speakers, being influenced by other languages like Nepali, Maithali are some evidences of its endangered state. Being a Kirati language, it is very close to other Kirati languages in many respects. Its basic sentence pattern (i.e. S+O+V), pronominal system (i.e. three number: singular, dual, plural), glottal sound /ʔ/ bring it close to other Kirati languages. Some of the features of the Puma language are cited below;

- i) It has a glottal sound /ʔ / but new generation of the native speakers are replacing it with velar /k/.
- ii) It has double negative markers (e.g. a khulaitni **pʌpu nʌ** /I don't go to jungle.)
- iii) It has derived some of the Maithali words (e.g. kʌcija/ hʌsija, gʌnda/ a group of four, sona/ sun, kori/ bis).
- iv) It has compound verbs (e.g. namlama/ dry at sun, camadima/ finish to eat).
- v) It has multi meaning words (e.g. banma: to stir food, to roam somewhere. Bhukma: to uproot, to fill a ditch or others).

1.1.5 Grammar: An Overview

Grammar is the skeleton of a language. It gives a shape to language. It is the underlying structure or pattern of a language, rules of language and can be called as the frame of language. But grammar in its broad sense is a central idea in linguistics, which covers a wide range of phenomena. Regarding grammar, Arts (1997, p.3) says, "The linguistic ingredients that language is made up of are arranged in accordance with a set of rules. This set of rules we call the grammar of a language".

Yadava (2004, p.225) says," A grammar is a model of the native speaker's competence. That is to say, it contains a finite numbers of rules which generate (i.e. specify how to form, interpret, and pronounce) the infinite number of all and only grammatical sentences in the language". Likewise Celce- Murcia and Larsene-Freeman (1999, p.4) view, "Grammar is not merely a collection of forms but rather involves the three dimensions of what linguists refer to as (morpho) syntax, semantics and pragmatics."

Grammar, in a summary, is a science that deals with the system of arranging linguistic elements in a proper order to convey intended meaning. Thus, grammar occupies a great importance in teaching second/foreign language.

1.1.6 English Grammar and the Rules of Subject-Verb Agreement

Every language is distinct and unique. Every language has its own grammar which differs from other languages. English grammar possesses its own features that make English different from others. The basic sentence pattern of English is S+V+O whereas that of Puma is S+O+V. However, there is concordance between subject and verb in both languages.

This study aims at comparing S-V Agreement system in English and Puma. In this context the rules of S-V agreement in English is worth mentioning as follows;

- a. A singular verb agrees with a singular subject and a plural verb agrees with a plural subject.
- i) He laughs. (Singular subject- singular verb)
 - ii) They laugh. (Plural subject-plural verb)
- b. *Somebody, something, everyone*, etc. take a singular verb.
- i. Somebody comes to open a door.
 - ii. Everyone likes to swim in the summer.
- c. A verbal clause takes a singular verb.
- i. To cheat is a crime.
 - ii. To smoke makes you unhealthy.
- d. A unit noun agrees with a singular verb.
- i. Fifteen seconds is a short period.
 - ii. Ten hundreds makes a thousand.
- e. The adjective functioning as a subject takes a plural verb.
- i. The poor always come to work.
 - ii. The wounded were carried to the hospital.
- f. Fraction and percentage take the singular verb when they modify a mass noun and the plural verb when they modify a plural verb. Furthermore, they concord with either the singular or the plural verb when they modify a collective noun.
- i. Two third of the milk is spilled. (Mass)
 - ii. One third of the rice was eaten. (Mass)
 - iii. Ten percent of the students are from remote area. (Plural Noun)
 - iv. Seventy percent of the workers were absent on the strike. (plural noun)
 - v. Half of the population of Nepal is/are illiterate. (Collective noun)
 - vi. One third of the army was/were marching. (Collective noun)

- g. Quantifiers take a plural verb and a singular verb if they modify a plural noun and a mass noun respectively.
- i. Some of the students are not in a uniform (plural noun)
 - ii. A few of the businessmen take part in a strike. (Plural noun)
 - iii. All of the water is polluted. (Mass)
 - iv. Only a little coffee was spilled. (Mass)
- h. A number of + N takes a plural verb whereas 'the number of +N' takes singular verb.
- i. A number of people die of diarrhea.
 - ii. A number of cattle were grazing.
 - iii. The number of animals she has is ten.
 - iv. The number of students in my class is fifty.
- i. Depending on the meaning, collective noun takes either singular or plural verb.
- i. A crowd of people is passing through the jungle. (A crowd as whole)
 - ii. A crowd of people are passing through the jungle. (Members in a crowd)
- j. A noun in sets of two takes a plural verb but it takes a singular verb when it is modified by 'a pair of'.
- i. Spectacles are smashed.
 - ii. Scissors are very sharp.
 - iii. A pair of Spectacles is smashed.
 - iv. A pair of scissors is very sharp.
- k. Some common and proper nouns ending in 's' and 'ics' take singular verb.
- i. The news is good.
 - ii. Physics is my interesting subject.
 - iii. Mathematics is very hard subject to him.

- l. Neither/either/each/one of +plural noun takes a singular verb.
 - i. Neither of them is Christian.
 - ii. Each of the giraffes has a long neck.
- m. None of + plural noun' agrees with a singular verb.
 - i. None of her relatives helps her.
 - ii. None of the invitees brings gift.
- n. Arithmetical operation receives singular verb.
 - i. Two plus two is four.
 - ii. Six minus six is zero.
- o. Nouns joined with 'and' take a plural verb.
 - i. Snake and crocodile are reptiles.
 - ii. Nepal and Switzerland are landlocked countries.

Note: When two nouns joined by 'and' together express one idea or refer to the same person or thing the singular verb is used.

- i. The editor and publisher is very helpful.
 - ii. The bread and butter makes us alive.
- p. The majority of +plural noun' take a plural verb.
- i. The majority of the members are from dalit community.
 - ii. The majority of the ministers were against a bill.

1.1.7 The Function 'subject' in English Sentence

Aarts (1997, p.8) defines "The subject of a sentence is the constituent that on the one hand tells us who performs the action denoted by the verb (i.e. who is the agent), and on the other hand tells us who or what sentence is about."

According to Aarts (1997, p.8) to find out what is the subject of a particular sentence we can ask 'who or what carried out the action denoted by the verb and also 'who or what is this sentence about? The answers to these questions pinpoint the subject.

1.1.8 Verb and its Kind

Verb is the main component in a sentence. Verb plays a vital role in conveying meaning. The change in a verb brings a great deal of change in the meaning of a sentence. It is an obligatory component in a sentence in the sense that the sentence can not give a complete meaning without verb. But even a single verb can function as a whole sentence. Being or doing words are called verbs. The verb denotes the action (work) done by subject.

Celce- Murcia and Larsene-Freeman (1999p.6) define, "A verb is a word that denotes an action or state of being." Richards et al. (1999, p.) assert, "A word which, a) Occurs as a part of the predicate of a sentence b) Carries markers of grammatical category such as tense, aspect, person, number and mood, and c) refers to an action or state." Aarts (1997, p.33) defines, "Any word that can take a tense inflection is a verb."

Crystal (2003, p.490) asserts, "A verb refers to an element which can display MORPHOLOGICAL contrasts of TENSE, ASPECT, VOICE, MOOD, PERSON and NUMBER. FUNCTIONALLY, it is the ELEMENT which, singly or in combination with other verbs (i.e. as a 'verb phrase'), is used as the minimal PREDECATE of a sentence, co-occurring with a SUBJECT.

I) Action verb

Aarts (1997, p.34) views, "verbs which can stand on their own in a sentence without another verb preceding or following are called main verbs". The verbs which show the visual or audible action are known as action verbs. They are also known as main verbs or ordinary verbs. Such verbs are further sub-divided into two groups in English viz. transitive and intransitive verbs.

II) Auxiliary verbs

According to Aarts (1997, p.34), "Verbs which cannot occur independently but instead function as 'helping verbs' are called auxiliary verbs". Wren and Martin(2006p.90) from functional point of view define, " The verbs *be* (am, is,

was, etc.), *have* and *do*, when used with ordinary verbs to make tenses, passive forms, questions and negatives, are called auxiliary verbs or auxiliaries.

1.1.9 Contrastive Analysis: An Overview

Contrastive analysis is one of the branches of applied linguistics which means 'a systematic analysis of similarities and differences between languages: CA is the comparison of the linguistic systems of two languages'. CA studies a target language (i.e. learners want to learn) in relation to the learner's mother tongue. It aims at predicting the area of difficulties where the learners are likely to commit mistakes. Contrastivists see first language interference as the main reason of difficulty and errors in second language learning. In this regard Brown (1987, p.193) says, "The CAH claimed that the principal barrier to second language acquisition is the interference of the first language system with the second language system and that a scientific structural analysis of the two languages in question would yield a taxonomy of linguistic contrasts between them which in turn would enable the linguist to predict the difficulties a learner encounter. Second language learning basically involves the overcoming of the differences between the two linguistic systems- the native and target languages."

1.1.9.1 Functions of CA

Contrastive analysis is mainly done for the pedagogical purposes. It has mainly two functions.

a. Predictive Device

As a predictive device, it works to find out the areas of difficulties in learning certain languages. The prediction of the likely errors to be committed by learners in learning a particular language is regarded as the primary function of CA. This function of CA has the implications to language teaching and learning by:

- i) pointing the areas of difficulty in learning and errors in performance.
- ii) specifying the areas which the teachers have to learn with greater emphasis.
- iii) helping to design teaching and learning materials for those particular areas that need more attention.

b. An explanatory Device

As an explanatory device, CA explains the causes of errors in one's performance. This function of CA is known as secondary function of CA. CA assumes that the L1 interference is the principal barrier in learning a foreign language. A learner's L1 habits may hinder or facilitate L2 learning. If there is similarity between two languages (i.e. learner's mother tongue and target language), it facilitates L2 learning and the learners feel ease to learn a target language. The more the similarity, the more the language learning be easier. But this is not always the case. The dissimilarity between two languages makes obstacles in learning foreign language. For instance, a Nepali student learning English commits error in uttering /f/. It is a labio-dental, voiceless, fricative sound which is not there in Nepali sound system. S/he utters /ph/ which sounds quite similar to /f/.

1.2 Review of the Related Literature

Some linguistic comparative researches have been carried out on different languages like Nepali, Newari, Maithili, Bhojpuri, Tharu, Rai Bantawa, Gurung, and Limbu at the Department of English Education. There are eight dissertations on subject – verb agreement in different languages. The review of the literature available in this department is as follows:

Shrestha (1986) has carried out a research on "Errors on subject – Verb Agreement in English." Her objectives were to identify the errors in S-V Agreement committed by the Nepali learners of English and find out the gravity of these errors. First of all, she classified S-V Agreement types and developed two different questionnaires one for seventy native speakers from

Britain, The United States, Canada, Australia and New Zealand available in Kathmandu and Pokhara and the other for one hundred grade ten students of Nepal she administered these questionnaires to them to elicit information. She analyzed the errors made by learners in terms of gravity and frequency in her study and found that students are likely to commit high frequency of errors when the head word is preceded or followed by a word of opposite nature in grammatical number.

Karki(1999) has carried out a research on " Teaching subject-Verb Agreement Inductively and Deductively". The aim of this study was to compare the effectiveness of inductive and deductive method. He divided students into two groups, taught each group differently (i.e. inductively and deductively) and conducted test with the questionnaire consisting of one hundred items with 'Be', 'Have' and 'V' verbs. He found that inductive method was more effective than deductive method.

Sah (2000) has worked on" A Comparative study of the subject – Verb Agreement in Maithali and English Languages." The objectives of his study was to find out the main similarities and differences of S-V Agreement in Mithali and English languages. To gather the required information, he prepared a questionnaire consisting of four main items. The first tow items were binary choice and third and fourth items were translation. He randomly chose the Maithali speaking students from Saptari district who were studying in three different secondary boarding schools. The finding of this study was that the subject – Verb agreement systems in Maithali and English are different except with gender only in present tense.

Mahato (2001) has carried out a research entitled " A comparative Study of subject – Verb Agreement In English and Tharu Languages."The main objective of this research was to find out the S –V Agreement System of the Tharu Language and to compare it with that of English Language . He found

that in English the second and third Person Pronouns don't change for honorific forms whereas they do in the Tharu . Similarly, the Tharu verbs are marked for formal and informal forms, which are not found in English verbs.

Neupane (2002) has worked on " A comparative Study of Verb forms in English and Gurung Language" to analyze the verb form in Gurung in the light of structural and transformational linguistic insight and to compare and contrast the verb forms in Gurung And English languages. She found that English has S+V+O Sentence structure but Gurung has S+O+V Sentence structure and English as well as Gurung have no discrimination of the verb on the basis of gender.

Pant (2004) has carried out a research on " A study on the Effectiveness of Discovery Technique in Teaching Subject–Verb Agreement in Grade nine. " The main objective of this study was to find out effectiveness of discovery technique in teaching S –V agreement in English in the context of Nepal. Researcher found the discovery technique was relatively more effective and successful than explanation technique for teaching S-V agreement.

Rai (2004) has worked on " A comparative Study on English and Rai Bantawa kinship Terms" with the target of determining, comparing and contrasting the English and Rai Bantawa kinship terms. The findings of this study are; English has a few number of kinship terms in comparison to Bantawa's in terms of number and there is no distinction between elder and younger in English whereas there is distinction between elder and younger in Rai Bantawa.

Rai (2005) has done a study on "Pronominal in English and Chhintang" to determine pronominal in chhintang language and to compare and contrast them with those of English language. Rai selected six native speakers of chhintang language from Mulgaun and Sambugaun of chhintang VDC Dhankuta. He divided informants in three categories i.e. educated, literate and illiterate, each

category containing twenty informants. He made an interview schedule, visited selected villages and asked questions from interview schedule translating them into Nepali. He found that Chhintang has more number of pronouns in comparison to English and they are more complex than those of English.

But even a single study has not been done on Puma Rai language in this department. This study is the first research carried out on Puma Rai language in this department.

1.3 Objectives of the Study

The Objectives of the present study were:

- i) to identify the system of Subject-Verb Agreement of the Puma language
- ii) to compare and contrast the nature of Subject-Verb Agreement of Puma with those of English
- iii) to suggest some pedagogical implications.

1.4 Significance of the Study

Even a single research has not been carried out yet on the Puma language in the Department of English Education. This research, so, will be invaluable for the Department of English Education itself. The findings of this research work will be beneficial for the Puma students learning English, teachers teaching English to Puma students and researchers, textbook writers, subject experts, curriculum designers and language trainers as well. The findings of the study which provide the Puma students and teachers with the similarities and dissimilarities between the S-V agreement systems in the Puma and the English languages. They will be the area of difficulty where the students are likely to make mistakes. They will be quite careful while learning and teaching to avoid mistakes in those areas.

Researchers can take this dissertation as a reference for further research in the Puma language. Similarly, textbook writers, subject experts, curriculum designers and language trainers can make the use of the findings as guidelines in their respective fields and works.

1.5 Definition of the specific terms

The specific terms used in this dissertation have been defined as follows;

I. Subject: It refers to something about which a statement or assertion is made in the rest of the sentence.

II. Verb: It (in English) refers to a word which:

- a) occurs as a part of the predicate of a sentence,
- b) carries marks of categories such tense, aspect, person, number and mood, and
- c) Refers to an action or state.

III. Agreement: A type of grammatical relationship between two or more elements in a sentence, in which the choice of one element causes the selection of a particular form of another element.

IV. Honorifics: Politeness formula in a particular language which may be specific affixes, words or sentence structures.

V. Demography: Study of statistics of births, deaths, diseases, etc. in order to show the state of a community.

VI. Syntax: This term refers to the study of word structure.

VII. Morphology: The branch of grammar which studies the structure or form of words, primarily through the use of the morpheme constructs.

VIII. Semantics: It is a major branch of linguistics devoted to the study of meaning in language.

IX. Personal Pronouns: They replace a name or a person or an object.

X. Person: pronoun or noun referring to speaker, addressee or someone who is being talked.

XI. Number: a term referring to quantity of a noun or pronoun in number.

XII. Gender: a term to refer to whether a noun or pronoun is male or female of none of them.

XIII. Tense: a term to refer to the form of the verb to denote the time of action.

XIV. Mother tongue: a language that a child learns first to speak.

XV. Native speaker: a person who speaks a particular language as a first language.

XVI. Lingua franca: a contact language, a language used for communication by the native speakers of two or more than two languages.

XVII. Multilingual: a state of being used more than two languages.

XVIII. Quantifier: a word or phrase that modifies a noun in quantity.

XIX. Predicate: a term to refer to the part of a sentence except subject. **XX.**

Suffix: an element attached after a word.

XXI. Prefix: an element attached before a word.

CHAPTER-TWO

METHODOLOGY

This chapter deals with the methodology, I adopted while doing this study. I carried out the study adopting following methodology.

2.1 Sources of Data

I used both primary and secondary sources to collect necessary data.

2.1.1 Primary Sources of Data

The native speakers of the Puma Rai language from Diplung, Mauwabote and Devisthan VDCs of Khotang district were the primary source of the study.

2.1.2. Secondary Sources

In addition to primary sources, I consulted books, magazines, journals, theses, articles from the internet sources as the secondary sources of data. The major secondary sources of data were; Chomsky(1957), Sapir (1921), Aarts (1997), Celce-Murcia and Larsen- Freeman(1999), Richards et al.(1999) setc.

2.2. Population of the Study

I selected the native speakers of the Puma language dwelling in Diplung, Mauwabote and Devisthan VDCs of Khotang district as the population of the study.

2.3 Sampling procedure

I adopted the snowball, non-random sampling procedure to sample the population. There was the sample size consisting of 60 native speakers from three selected VDCs of Khotang district. Twenty native speakers including 10 female were chosen from each VDC.

The sample size of the study is shown in the table below.

Table No:1 Number of the Informants from Selected VDCs

VDCs	Numbers		Total
	Male	Female	
Diplung	10	10	20
Mauwabote	10	10	20
Devisthan	10	10	20
Total	30	30	60

2.4 Tools for Data Collection

For collecting data, a structured interview schedule was developed in English. It consisted of the statements which were developed taking 'Person', 'Number', 'Tense' 'Gender' and 'Honorifics' into consideration to check whether or not the verb changes form in accordance with the aforementioned grammatical categories.

2.5 Process of Data Collection

- i. I prepared a structured interview schedule in English to elicit information from the native speakers, visited chosen VDCs of Khotang district and established rapport with Puma native speakers.
- ii. I explained the objectives and significance of study and administered the questionnaire. I translated them into Nepali and recorded the data following the paper and pen technique.

2.6 Limitations of the study

The study has following limitations:

- i. This study was limited to the identification of Subject – Verb Agreement system of the Puma language.
- ii. This study was confined to the comparison of S-V Agreement system of the English and the Puma languages.
- iii. The area of study is limited to only 3 Puma language speaking VDCs of Khotang.
- iv. The sample size is limited to only 60 native speakers from three VDCs of Khotang.

CHAPTER – THREE

ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION

This chapter deals with the presentation, analysis and interpretation of the data. The data has been presented, analyzed and interpreted descriptively with the help of simple statistical tools like tables, diagrams, etc. Analysis and interpretation have been carried out with reference to 'Person' 'Number', 'Gender', 'Tense' and 'Honorifics'.

3.1 Puma S-V Agreement

The subject-verb agreement system in Puma has been presented in the following categories;

3.1.1 S-V Agreement With Reference to Person

Puma personal pronouns are marked for three persons viz first person, second person and third person. Furthermore, all nouns are regarded as third person in Puma. Puma verbs show agreement with all persons i.e. first person, second person and third person differently.

i) a ro ca a (1st, sing)

I (1st sing) food eat-pres

I eat food.

ii) khanna ro taca (2nd, sing)

You (2nd sing) food eat-pres.

You eat food.

iii) khokku ro ca (3rd, sing)

S/he food eat-pres.

S/he eats food.

In the above examples, all subjects are singular and tense is present. But the person is different. In the example (i), 'ja' is first person singular. To agree with it, suffix 'ja' is attached to the root verb. 'khakku' is second person singular. To agree with it, prefix 'ta' is placed with the root verb. Similarly, to

agree with third person singular pronoun ‘khakku’, the verb changes into root verb ‘ca’. Thus, we can conclude that Puma verbs agree with persons.

3.1.2 S-V Agreement with Reference to Number

The Puma personal pronouns are marked for singular, dual and plural numbers. Furthermore, first person dual and first person plural show the inclusiveness and exclusiveness of second person (i.e. addressee). There are, altogether, eleven personal pronouns in the Puma language and each pronoun agrees with different forms of verbs. The table given below illustrates it.

Table No: 2 Puma Personal Pronouns

person	Puma				
	singular	Dual		Plural	
1 st		Inc	Exc	Inc	Exc
	a	keci	kecika	ke	Keka
2 nd	Kh nna	kh nnaci		Kh nnanin	
3 rd	khokku / tokk	khokkuci / tokk ci		khokkuci /tokk ci	

The table illustrates that the Puma language has more personal pronouns than the English language has and no two pronouns agree with the same form of verb. To make this concept clearer, let’s have a look at some examples;

i) a pi a (1st,sing)

I talk-pres.

I talk.

ii) keci pisci (1st, dual)

We talk-pres.

We talk.

iii) ke pissi (1st,pl)

We talk-pres.

We talk.

iv) KhAnna tΛba . (2nd, sing)

You talk – pres.

You talk.

v) KhAnnaci tΛba ci. (2nd, dual)

You talk –pres.

You talk.

vi) KhAnnandin tΛba i. (2nd, plural)

You talk – pres.

You talk.

A noun, in Puma language, is considered as third person and marked for singular, dual and plural numbers. It appears in the same form in dual and plural numbers but agrees with different forms of verb.

i) ΛrΛ ba . (3rd, sing)

A boy speak- pres.

A boy speaks.

ii) ΛrΛ ci pΛba ci. (3rd, dual)

Two boys speak- pres.

Two boys speak.

iii) ΛrΛ ci mΛba . (3rd, pl)

Boys speak- pres.

Boys speak.

In examples (ii) and (iii) 'ArΛ ci' refers to 'two boys' and 'many boys' respectively but agrees with different forms of the verb. Thus, a verb in Puma language agrees with singular, dual and plural numbers.

3.1.3 S-V Agreement with Reference to Gender:

Rai et. al assert (2009, p.462), "semantic genders are found in persons and some animals and birds. Suffixes 'Pa' and 'ma' signify 'masculine' and 'feminine' gender respectively. For example, 'wapa' (cock), 'wama' (hen), 'dippa' (grandfather), 'dima' (grandmother). But there is not grammatical gender in Puma language like in other Kirati language viz. Bantawa and Chamling (Rai, 1985, Rai 2005).

Puma verb does not agree with 'gender'.

- | | | |
|---------------------------|-------------|--------------|
| i) wapa | pan. (Masc) | |
| A cock | fly – pres. | |
| A cock flies. | | |
| ii) wama | pan. (Fem) | |
| A hen | fly – pres. | |
| A hen flies. | | |
| iii) dippa | cham | mu. (masc) |
| Grandfather | a song | sing – pres. |
| Grandfather sings a song. | | |
| iv) dima | cham | mu. (fem) |
| Grandmother | a song | sing-pres. |
| Grandmother sings a song. | | |

Above examples signify that 'wapa' and 'dippa', are masculine gender and 'wama' and 'dima' are feminine gender. Though 'wapa' and 'dipa' belong to different category of gender, they agree with the same form of the verb. Similarly, 'dippa' and 'dima' are masculine and feminine genders respectively. But they agree with the same form of verb.

3.1.4 S-V Agreement with Reference to Tense:

The Puma verb changes its form to denote the action that happens in different times. It changes its form to denote the actions happen in the present and past times. The form to denote the action that will happen in the future time resembles with the form to denote the action that happens in the present time. In other words, the same form of verb agrees with the subject to denote the actions happening in the present and the future times. But the future action is distinguished from the present action with the help of the use of future time adverbials. Thus, the Puma verb is marked for past tense and non- past tense. The following sentences exemplify it.

i) a ro ca a. (Pres)

I rice eat- pres

I eat rice.

ii) a ro cao (past)

I rice eat- past

I eat rice.

iii) a setlamΛ ro ca a. (future)

I tomorrow rice eat-future

I shall eat rice tomorrow.

In examples (i) and (iii), verb 'ca' does not change its form for present and future tenses. But in example (ii), it changes its form for past tense.

Aforementioned examples illustrate that Puma verbs agree with subject with reference to tense. Puma grammar shows the distinction of two tenses i.e. Non past tense and past tense. 'o' suffix functions as the past tense marker. For example 'cao' (ate), 'pio' (spoke), 'io' (came down) etc.

3.1.6 Rules of Subject – verb Agreement in Puma

Puma is under the process of documentation. Chhintang and Puma Documentation project (CPDP) has been carrying out a research on Puma and Chhintang languages. But it has not completed the research. A detailed study is required to know the subject – verb Agreement system in Puma. The present study carried out in a limited resources and time has found following nature of subject – verb agreement in Puma.

- a. Puma verbs agree with subject of a clause or sentence no matter whether subject or object occurs in a subject position.

i) a (Sub) ro ca a. (Obj)
I rice eat – pres.

I eat rice.

ii) ro (Obj) a (Sub) ca a.
Rice I eat – pres.

I eat rice.

In the example (i), the position of the subject in the initial position and in the example (ii), its position is in between object and verb. However, the form of verb does not change.

- b. Normally, the nominative forms of personal pronouns or nouns perform the function of grammatical subject of a clause or sentence and the verb agrees with it. But, sometimes, the accusative forms perform the function of the grammatical subject in a clause or a sentence. However, the verb agrees with the nominative form (semantic subject) of the personal pronoun or noun.

i) a(sem. Sub) khAnnalai kitab itna.
I you – to book give – pres.

I give you a book.

ii) Kh Λ nnalai(gram. Sub) a kitab itna.
 You – to I book give – pres.
 I give you a book.

In the example (i), ‘ η a’ is a semantic subject that occurs in the initial position and verb agrees with it. But in the example (ii), ‘kh Λ nnalai’ is a grammatical subject which occurs in the initial position. However, the verb does not agree with it. It agrees with ‘ η a’ (sem. sub) which follows ‘kh Λ nnalai’(gram. Sub).

c. Puma verbs agree with person (i.e. 1st, 2nd and 3rd persons). In the examples given below, the verb ‘muma’(to sing) changes its form to agree with different persons in the present tense.

i) a cham mu a. (1st, sing, pres)
 I a song sing – pres.
 I sing a song.

ii) kh Λ anna cham t Λ mu.(2nd, sing, pres)
 You a song sing – pres.
 You sing a song.

iii) Khokku cham mu. (3rd, sing, pres)
 S/he a song sing – pres.
 S/he sings a song.

In the above examples, all subjects are singular and tense is present. But the person is different. In the example (i), ‘ η a’ is first person singular. To agree with it, suffix ‘ η a’ is attached to the root verb. ‘kh Λ kku’ is second person singular. To agree with it, prefix ‘t Λ ’ is placed with the root verb. Similarly, to agree with third person singular pronoun ‘kh Λ kku’, the verb changes into root verb ‘mu’.

d. Puma verbs show agreement with number.

i) Khokku t Λ raii yu
 S/he terai – in live – prest.

S/he lives in terai.

ii) Khokkuci tʌraii pʌyu ci
They (dual) terai – in live – prest.
They live in terai.

iii) Khokkuci tʌraii mʌyu
We (plural) terai – in live – pres.
We live in terai.

e. Puma verbs do not agree with gender.

i) Wapa pan (masc)
A cock fly – pres.
A cock flies.

ii) Wama pan (fem)
A hen fly – pres.
A hen flies.

f. The change in the tense causes change in the form of Puma verb.

i) a ro ca a
I rice eat-pres.
I eat rice.

ii) a ro cao
I rice eat-past
I ate rice.

g. Puma personal pronouns do not possess honorific form and the verbs do not agree with honorifics. But pluralization of subject and verb asserts honorificity.

i) khokkuci ro mʌca
s/she rice eat-pres.
S/she eats rice.

h. First person singular personal pronoun (a) takes a verb with a suffix ' a ' in the non past tense and ' o ' in the past tense.

i) a pu a (NPT)

I go-prest.

I go.

ii) a pukso (PT)

I go-past.

I went.

i. First person dual inclusive personal pronoun (keci) agrees with the verb ending with suffix 'ci' in non past and 'aci' in past tense.

i) keci pu ci (NPT)

We (du-inc) go-prest

We go.

ii) keci pu ci (PT)

We go-past.

We went.

j. First person dual exclusive personal pronoun (kecika) agrees with the verb having suffix 'cika' in non-past and 'acika' in past tense.

i) kecika pu cika (NPT)

We go-prest

We go.

ii) kecika pu ca cika (PT)

We go-past

We went.

k. First person plural inclusive (ke) agrees with the verb ending in 'I' suffix in non-past and 'anin' in past tense.

i) Ke puksi (NPT)

We go-prest.

We went.

ii) ke puksanin (PT)

We go-past

We went.

l. First person plural exclusive (keka) takes the verb ending with suffix 'ika' in non past and 'aninka' in past tense.

i) keka puksika (NPT)

 You go-prest

 You go.

ii) keka puksaninka (PT)

 You go-past.

 You went.

m. Second person singular personal pronoun (khanna) takes verb with prefix 'tʌ' in non past and verb with prefix 'tʌ' and suffix 'a' in past tense.

i) khanna tʌpu (NPT)

 You go –prest

 You go.

ii) khanna tʌpuksa (PT)

 You go past.

 You went.

n. Second person dual personal pronoun (khAnnaci) agrees with the verb having prefix 'tʌ' and suffix 'ci' in non-past tense and with the verb having prefix 'tʌ' and suffix 'aci' in past tense.

i) KhAnnaci tʌpu ci (NPT)
You go-prest
You go.

ii) KhAnnaci tʌpuksaci(PT)
You go-past
You went.

o. Second person plural personal pronoun (khAnnandin) takes verb with prefix 'tʌ' and suffix 'e' or 'I' in non past tense and the verb with prefix 'tʌ' and suffix 'andin' in past tense.

i) khannandin tʌpuksi (NPT)
You go –prest
You go.

ii) khannandin tʌpuksandin (PT)
You go-past
You went.

p. Third person singular personal pronoun (khokku/tokku) agrees with root form of verb and verb with suffix 'a' in non-past and past tense respectively.

i) khokku pu (NPT)
S/he go –prest
S/he goes.

ii) khokku puksa (PT)
S/he go-past
S/he went.

q. Third person dual personal pronoun (khokkuci) shows the agreement with the verb with prefix 'pʌ' and suffix 'ci' in non past tense and the verb with prefix 'pʌ' and suffix 'aci' in past tense.

i) khokkuci pʌpu ci (NPT)

S/he go –prest.

S/he goes.

ii) khokkuci pʌpu aci (PT)

S/she go-past.

S/he went.

r. The verb follows prefix 'mʌ' to agree with third person plural in non past tense and follows same prefix and precedes 'a' suffix in past tense.

i) khʌnnaci mʌpu (NPT)

S/he go-prest.

S/he goes.

ii) khʌkkuci mʌpu a (PT)

S/he go-past.

S/he went.

3.2 S-V Agreement Systems of Puma and English

S-V Agreement systems of the Puma and English languages have been compared and contrasted on following bases;

3.2.1 Comparison of verbs of the English and the Puma:

There are two classes of verbs in English, i.e. the auxiliary and ordinary verbs (Thomson 1960, p.105). Verbs which cannot occur independently, but instead function as 'helping verbs' are called auxiliary verbs (Arts 1997, p.34). Auxiliary verbs have a role to form different aspects, to negativise sentence, to make question, etc. Verbs which can stand on their own in a sentence without another verb preceding or following are called main verbs (Aarts, 1997, p.34). On the contrast, there is not such a classification of verbs in Puma. Auxiliary verbs do not exist in the Puma language. The main verbs themselves perform the role of forming aspects, negativising sentences, making questions, etc. They change into different forms to do so.

i) Prema ipsa. (3rd, sing, pres. perf.)

Prema has slept.

Prema has slept.

ii) Prema im en. (3rd, sing, pres. Cont.)

Prema is sleeping.

Prema is sleeping.

iii) Prema im en ? (3rd, sing, pres. Cont. int.)

Is Prema not sleeping?

Is Prema not sleeping?

iv) prema paimninja .(3rd, sing, pres. Cont. neg.)

Prema is not sleeping.

Prema is not sleeping.

English verbs have only five forms to agree with subject in different cases viz. infinitive form (eat), past form (ate), present participle form (eating), past participle (eaten) and third person singular form (eats). The same form of the verb agrees with different subjects.

- i. I eat rice. (1st, sing)
- ii. We eat rice. (1st, pl)
- iii. You eat rice. (2nd, sing)
- iv. You eat rice. (2nd, Pl)
- v. They eat rice. (3rd, pl)

Above examples illustrate that same form of verb 'eat' agrees with first person singular, first person plural, second person singular and plural, third person plural pronouns in present simple tense.

But Puma verb 'ca' equivalent to 'eat' has various forms to agree with those personal pronouns and some other personal pronouns. Following sentences exemplify it.

- i) a ro ca a. (1st, sing)
I rice eat – pres
I eat rice.
- ii) Keci ro caci. (1st, dual, incl)
We rice eat – pres
We eat rice.
- iii) khAnna ro tΛca. (2nd, sing)
You rice eat- pres
You eat rice.
- iv) khAnna ro tΛcaci. (2nd, dual)
You rice eat- pres

You eat rice.

v) khAnnandin ro tΛca-a nin. (2nd, dual)

You rice eat- pres

You eat rice.

vi) khAnnaci ro mΛca. (2nd, pl)

They rice eat- pres

They eat rice.

The fact that the same form of English verb can agree with more than one different subject whereas it is not the case in Puma verb. It is made more clear by the following table.

Table No:3 Agreement of Puma and English verbs with subjects

Types of personal pronoun	Puma pronouns	Forms of Puma verb	English pronouns	Forms of English verb
1 st sing	a	ca a	I	Eat
1 st , dual inc	Keci	caci	We	Eat
1 st , dual, exc	kecika	cacika	We	Eat
1 st , pl, inc	Ke	ceene	We	Eat
1 st , pl, exc	Keka	ceeka	We	Eat
2 nd , sing	KhAnna	tΛca	You	Eat
2 nd , dual	KhAnnaci	tΛcaci	You	Eat
2 nd , pl	KhAnnandin	tΛcaandin	You	Eat
3 rd , sing	Khokku	ca	S/he	Eat
3 rd , dual	Khokkuci	pΛcaci	They	Eat
3 rd , pl	khokkuci	mΛca	They	Eat

3.2.2 S-V Agreement System in the Puma and the English with Reference to Person:

English and Puma verbs agree with person of the subject differently. English verbs do not agree with the person of the subject. Same form of verb (i.e. eat) can agree with all three persons.

On the contrary, Puma verbs change their forms for all persons of subject to agree with them. No single form of verb agrees with more than one person. The following table illustrates it.

Table No:4 English and Puma verbs and their agreement with persons

	English	Puma
1 st , sing	I eat rice.	ηα ροη caηα
1 st , pl	We eat rice.	Ke ροη caci
2 nd , sing	You eat rice.	khanna ροη taca
2 nd , pl	You eat rice.	Khannaci ροη tacaci
3 rd , pl	They eat rice.	Khokkuci ροη maca

The table shows that English verb 'eat' has same form to agree with first person singular, first person plural, second person singular and plural and third person plural whereas Puma verb 'ca' has five different forms to agree with them.

3.2.3 S-V Agreement Systems of the Puma and English with Reference to Number:

Both English and Puma verbs agree with the number of subject. If the subject is singular, verb is also singular (i.e. root verb +s/es) and the verb is plural (i.e. root verb) if the subject plural. But, exceptionally, the same form of the English verb agrees with the singular and plural numbers of first person pronoun, the singular and plural numbers of second person pronoun and third person plural pronoun. The following sentences exemplify it.

- i) I like her hair. (1st, sing)
- ii) We like her hair. (1st, pl)
- iii) You like her hair. (2nd, sing)
- iv) You like her hair. (2nd, pl)
- v) They like her hair. 3rd, pl)

Personal pronouns and nouns are marked for singular, dual and plural numbers in Puma language and verbs agree with them differently. Let's have a look at some examples:

- i) $\Delta r\Delta$ ba . (3rd, sing)

A boy speak- pres.

A boy speaks.

- ii) $\Delta r\Delta$ ci p Δ ba ci.(3rd, dual)

Two boys speak- pres.

Two boys speak.

- iii) $\Delta r\Delta$ ci m Δ ba .(3rd, pl)

Boys speak- pres.

Boys speak.

In the given examples, the subject ‘ Δ rci Δ ’ is third person singular whereas ‘ Δ rci Δ ci’ functions as both third person dual and third person plural. ‘ Δ rci Δ ’ (3rd, sing) agrees with the form ‘ba’ of the verb ‘ba ma’ and ‘ Δ rci Δ ci’ (3rd, dual) agrees with the form ‘p Δ ba ci’ where there are prefix ‘p Δ ’ and suffix ‘ci’ attached to root verb ‘ba’. Similarly, ‘ Δ rci Δ ci’ (3rd, pl) agrees with the verb form ‘m Δ ba’ with the prefix ‘m Δ ’.

3.2.4 S-V Agreement Systems of the Puma and English with Reference to Gender:

In this respect, English and Puma verbs have similarity. Like English verbs, Puma verbs also do not agree with the gender of subject. The table given below helps us to get it clearer.

Table: 5 English and Puma verb agreement with gender

Gender	English	Puma
Masculine	A cock flies.	Wapa pan
Feminine	A hen flies.	Wama pan
Masculine	Grandfather sings a song.	Dippa cam mu
Feminine	Grandmother sings a song.	Dima cam mu

In the given example, we can see that ‘a cock’ and ‘a hen’ are masculine and feminine genders respectively. However, they agree with the same form (flies) of the verb ‘fly’ in the present tense. Similarly, though ‘grandfather’ and ‘grandmother’ are masculine and feminine genders respectively they agree with the same form (sings) of the verb in the present tense. The same is the case in the Puma language. ‘wapa’ and ‘wama’ are masculine and feminine genders and agree with the same form (pan) of the verb ‘panma’. ‘dipa’ and ‘dima’ belong to masculine and feminine genders respectively but agree with the same form (mu) of the verb ‘muma’ in the present tense. Finally, we can conclude

that both English and the Puma verbs do not agree with the grammatical category of gender.

3.2.5 S-V Agreement Systems of the Puma and English with Reference to Tense

The analysis of the forms of the Puma verbs with reference to tense proves that Puma verbs have only two tenses; Past and Non- Past tense. The nature of S-V Agreement of the Puma also resembles with that of the English with reference to tense. In other words, like English verbs, the Puma verbs agree with past and non- past tenses. The agreement of subject and verbs in the Puma and the English with reference to tense is shown in the table below;

Table:6 S-V Agreement in the Puma the English with reference to tense

Tense	English	Puma
Past	I ate rice.	a ro cao
Present	I eat rice.	a ro ca a
Future	I shall eat rice tomorrow.	a setlamΛ ro ca a

In the given table, we see the verb form ‘ate’ referring to the action happened in the past time and the same form of verb ‘eat’ referring to the actions happen in the present and the future time. The table shows that verb does not change form to agree with the subject referring to the actions happen in the present and future time.

Similarly, the verb form ‘caoŋ’ describes the past action and the verb form ‘caŋa’ describes both actions happen in the present and the future time. As Puma verbs do not change form to refer to the actions happen in the present and the future time, there are not present and future tenses in the Puma grammar. There are two tenses i.e. Past tense and Non- Past tense and verbs agree with them.

3.3 Similarities between English and Puma S-V agreement

English and Puma languages belong to different language families. The former belongs to Indo-European language family and the latter to the Sino-Tibetan language family. Due to their different origins, they are different with each other. However there are some similarities in S-V agreement of English and Puma languages. They are mentioned below:

a) Both English and Puma verbs agree with the subject of a verb.

i) a ro ca a
I rice eat- past.

I eat rice.

ii) a amba ca a
I mango eat-past

I eat mango.

In above examples, subjects remain same but the objects are different and the verb does not change its form because the subjects are same even if the objects are different.

b) Like English verbs Puma verbs agree with grammatical category of number.

i) khokku ri. (3rd, sing)
S/he laugh –NPT.
S/he laughs.

ii) Khokkuci mΛri. (3rd, pl)
They laugh-NPT
They laugh.

c) Like English verb, Puma verbs do not change their forms although the genders of the subject differ.

i) ma-a tit suwa. (3rd, fem)
Mother cloths wash-NPT
Mother washes cloths.

ii) papa-a tit suwa. (3rd, masc)
Father clothes wash-NPT

Father washes clothes.

d) Both English and Puma verbs agree with subject with reference to tense.

i) khokku pu . (NPT)

S/he go-pres

S/he goes.

ii) khokku puxsa. (PT)

S/he go-past

S/he went.

3.4 Differences between English and Puma S-V agreement

Although English and Puma languages possess some common features in S-V agreement, they show differences in it. The differences can be cited below:

a) English verbs do not agree with the grammatical category of person whereas Puma verbs do.

i) We love our country. (1st, pl)

ii) You love your country. (2nd, pl)

iii) They love their country. (3rd, pl)

iv) Ke ro kidi. (1st, pl)

We rice cook- NPT

We cook rice.

v) khAnnarin ro t\kidi. (2nd,pl)

You rice cook- NPT

You cook rice.

vi) khokkuci ro m\ki. (3rd, pl)

They rice cook- NPT

They cook rice.

In examples (i), (ii) and (iii) first person plural, second person plural and third person plural agree with the same form of verb in English but in

examples (iv), (v) and (vi) aforementioned personal pronouns agree with the different forms of the verb in Puma.

- b) In English, only five form of a verb can be realized to agree with the subject whereas in Puma more than eleven forms of a verb exist to agree with the subject.
- c) English verbs do not show agreement with honorifics but Puma verbs do it preceding plural verb marker.

i) khokku roŋ ca. (3rd, sing, non- honorific)
 S/he rice eat- NPT
 S/he eats rice.

ii) khokkuci ro mΛca. (3rd, pl, honorific)
 S/he rice eat- NPT
 S/he eats.

- d) The same form of the English verb can agree with the different personal pronouns whereas a single form of a Puma verb agrees with only one personal pronoun. The tables illustrate it.

Table: No.7 English verb agreeing with different personal pronouns

I (1 st , sing)	laugh
We (1st, pl, incl.)	
You (2 nd , sing)	
You (2 nd , pl)	
They (3 rd , pl)	

Table: No.8 Puma verb agreeing with different personal pronouns

a (1st, sing)	Ri a
*ke (1st, pl, incl.)	
*khAnna (2 nd , sing)	
*khAnnain (2 nd , pl)	
*khokkuci (3 rd , pl)	

Note: * refers to unacceptable agreement.

- e) English verbs never receive prefix to agree with subject but Puma verbs can take both prefix and suffix to show agreement with the subject of a sentence or a clause.

i) khAnna ro tΛca. (tΛ- prefix)

You rice eat- pres

You eat rice.

CHAPTER -FOUR

FINDINGS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The major findings of this study are mentioned below;

4.1 Puma S-V Agreement system

- i. The Puma verbs agree with the grammatical category of person. The Puma personal pronouns are marked for three persons: first person pronoun, second person pronoun and third person pronoun. The puma verbs agree with all these persons differently.
- ii. The Puma verbs agree with the grammatical category of number. The Puma grammar has three distinctions in number: singular dual and plural. Moreover, first person dual and first person plural have inclusiveness and exclusiveness of addressee. The Puma verbs agree with all numbers (i.e. singular, dual and plural) with different forms of verb.
- iii. The Puma verbs do not agree with the grammatical category of gender. The subject with any genders agrees with the same form of verb.
- iv. The Puma verbs agree with the grammatical category of tense. There are only two tenses in the Puma language: past tense and non- past tense. The verbs show agreement with them to denote the actions happening in the present and the past times. But to denote the actions

happening in the present and the future times verbs do not change form.

- v. The Puma verbs do not agree for honorifics. The Puma speakers express honour to the addressee by making subject and verb plural.

4.2 Similarities and Differences between English and Puma S-V Agreement

On completion of the study, the following findings about similarities and differences between English and the Puma S-V Agreement have been detected.

4.2.1 Similarities between English and Puma S-V Agreement

The findings about the similarities between English and the Puma S-V Agreement are as follows;

- i) Both English and the Puma verbs agree with the subject of a verb.
- ii) They agree with the grammatical category of number.
- iii) They agree with the grammatical category of tense.
- iv) They do not agree with the grammatical category of gender.
- v) They do not agree with the subject for honorifics.

4.2.2 Differences between English and Puma S-V Agreement

The major findings about the differences between English and the Puma S-V Agreement are cited below;

- i) English and the Puma S-V Agreement systems differ with reference to the person of the subject. English verbs do not agree with the Person whereas the Puma verbs do.
- ii) The same form of the English verbs can agree with more than one personal pronouns whereas a form of verb agrees with only one personal pronoun in the Puma language.
- iii) English verbs have only five forms to agree with the subject whereas the Puma verbs have more than eleven forms.
- iv) English verbs never receive prefix to agree with the subject but the Puma verbs can take both prefix and suffix as per need.

4.2 Recommendations

Based on the findings of this study following recommendations are made for the pedagogical purpose.

- i) The difference in basic sentence patterns of English and Puma should be taken into account while teaching S-V agreement of English to the Puma native speakers.
- ii) The difference in pronominal system of English and Puma i.e. distinction in number and existence of inclusive and exclusive of listener in first person dual and plural pronouns should be made clear to the Puma native speakers.
- iii) It is very important to make the students sure that English verbs do not agree with grammatical category of person whereas Puma verbs do.
- iv) A fact that there is not one-to-one correspondence between personal pronouns and the forms of verb in English but it is the case in the Puma should be emphasized.
- v) Students should be well informed that accusative form of pronoun or noun never occurs in the place of a subject in English sentence or a clause whereas it is possible in the Puma language.
- vi) It is also advisable to pre-inform students that English verb never take prefix to change the form for the purpose of agreement with subject.
- vii) It is a remarkable fact that English verbs 'be' and 'have' perform the dual functions i.e. as an auxiliary verb and a main verb. But the Puma equivalent verb 'juŋjaŋ' functions only as a main verb. So the Puma students should be very conscious while using 'be' and 'have' verbs. They are likely to change their past forms as 'ised' and 'haved' just as other main verbs have past forms.
- viii) As the Puma speakers express the honour to the addressee by pluralizing subject and verb, they may transfer this linguistic habit in English as well.

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