## CHAPTER- ONE

## INTRODUCTION

### 1.1 General Background

Language is defined as a complex phenomenon, known as a means of communication through which we express our thoughts, ideas, desires, feelings, emotions, etc. This extra ordinary feature is species specific, i.e. only for human beings, It plays vital role in human civilization. Without language, human civilization becomes meaningless and worthless. It is language, indeed, which makes it possible and keeps human civilization alive and attributable. Generally, language takes place in a certain pattern and order. According to Richards et al. (1999, p, 196) "A language is the system of human communication which consists of the structured arrangement of sound into larger units, e.g. morphemes, sentences, utterances."

It is very difficult to define language. That means a single definition cannot cover the whole aspect of language. Sapir (1921) says, "Language is a purely human and non-instinctive method of communicating ideas, emotions, and desires by means of voluntarily produced symbols" (as cited in Lyons, 1981, p.3). Like wise, Bloch and Trager (1942) say. "a language is a system of arbitrary vocal symbols by means of which a social group co-operates" (as cited in Lyons, 1981). In addition, Hall (1968) infers language as " the institution where by humans communicate and interact with each other by means of habitually used oral-arbitrary symbols" (as cited in Lyons, 1981, p.5).

Similarly, Saussure (1978) proposes his view as "What is language? It is not to be confused with human speech, of which it is only a definite part, though, certainly an essential one. It is both a social product of the faculty
of speech and a collection of necessary conventions that have been adopted by a social body to permit individuals to exercise that faculty" (as cited in Allen and Corder 1978, p. 7). Some definitions given in dictionaries are as follows.

The above- mentioned definition focuses on communicative and social functions of language. Most of them express the view that view that languages are system of symbols and sign designed, for the purpose of communication. Language is that asset of human beings by which communication and socialization occurs in society, community and country. Indeed, among several modes of communication language is the most powerful and widely used unique means gifted to humans to share their feelings, emotions, thought, and ideas, As language is common to all and to only human beings, it is regarded as the greatest accomplishment of human civilization.

### 1.1.1 Importance and Status of the English Language in Nepal

Languages are usually not spoken in exactly the same way from one place to another place. There are several varieties of languages: dialects, registers. The English language is an international language and it can function as a lingua franca all over the world. It covers wide area, for example, science and technology, culture and religion, education and literature, politics and business and media and commutation. Hence, the English language is the demand of the day. Without English, our life becomes difficult. We need English language to link people having different languages and cultures. Furthermore it is the age of science and technology, discoveries and inventions. Therefore, the English language is essential for human beings.

It is clear that English plays an important role in society because it serves as lingua franca at the national and international level. Thus, it is the main
medium of expressing our ideas, Because of the latest scientific discoveries and development in the field of communication the importance of the English Language an international language has increased.

The emergence of the English language in Nepal is closely connected with the Rana regime. After the visit to England, Jung Bahadur Rana established Durbar High School in 1853 A.D. It was the first English school for teaching English in Nepal. Presently English has been included in the curriculum right from grade four to master's level as compulsory and optional subject. In Nepal we mainly need English for two purposes: as an international language and academic purpose. Malla (1977) expresses "English is undoubtedly of vital importance for accelerating the modernization process of Nepal.

### 1.1. 2 Linguistic Situation of Nepal

Nepal is small country having an area of $1,47,181$ square km . It is $0.03 \%$ and $0.3 \%$ of the world and Asia respectively. However, Nepal is a multicultural and multilingual country. It is very rich from linguistic perspective. It is amazing to have more than ninety-three languages in a small country most of the language does not have written from, i.e. script, they exist only in spoken from in day -to-day communication. Some of the langue is in the verge of extinction. On the basis of the language family, the language of Nepal categorized into four groups as follows:

### 1.1.2.1 Indo-Aryan Language Group

The following languages are included in Indo-Aryan Group:

| Nepali | Maithili | Bhojpuri | Tharu | Awadhi |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Urdu | Hindi | Rajbansi | Bengali | Danuwar |
| Marwadi | Majhi | Darai | Kumal | English, etc |

### 1.1. 2. 2. Tibeto- Burman language Group

The following languages are included in Tibeto-Burman group:

| Tamang | Newari | Rai group | Magar | Gurung |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Limbu | Sherpa | Chepang | Dhimal | Thami |
| Thakali | Jirel | Surel | Raji | Byansi |
| sunuwar | Lepcha | Meche | Pahari | Hayu, etc. |

### 1.1.2.3 Dravidian language Group

The Jhangar language is the only one language, which is related to this group. It is spoken in the eastern terai region of Nepal.

### 1.1.2.4Austro-Asiatic Group

The Satar is only one language of this family, which is spoken in Jhapa district.

### 1.1.3 An Introduction to the Thami Language

Nepal is a common gender of many races and tribes. There are more than one hundred different types of races and castes in Nepal. It appears that for the size of the country, Nepal possesses a great variety of races in its population. The pre-history and the early history of Nepal are largely unknown. The ancient history of Nepalese like that of all other nations which affect to trace their origin beyond the data of authentic record is clouded by mythological fable.

The origin of Thami of Nepal can be found in Suspa Kshamawati VDC of Dolakha district in 17th century. Later they migrated to different part of the country. But the original Thami speakers are found only in Lapilang, Sunkhani, Sundrawati, Aalampu and Kshmawati VDCs of Dolakha district. They are known as labourious and honest tribes of Nepal. According to the current report, the total number of Thami people is about 65,000 . It is also speculated that out this population $55 \%$ people
can speak their mother tongues and about $70 \%$ people can understand their language.

Thami language has its own recognition like many other languages. This language belongs to Tibeto-Burman language family. This language is mostly spoken in Lapilang and Aalampu VDCs of Dolakha district.

### 1.1.4. Grammar

Grammar is defined as the exposition of the principles, which underline the use of language; a system of general principles and of particular rules for speaking or writing a language. a book containing such principles and rules, language as regulated by rules of usage; propriety of speech (to violate grammar correct or incorrect language), a treatise on the element or principles of any science; and outline of the principles of any subject. In generative sense grammar is defined as a device with a set of rules, whose output is all the sentences that are permissible in a given language, while excluding those that are not permissible. Grattan and Gurey: (1928) argue that the grammar of a language is not a list of rules imposed upon its speakers by scholastic authorities but is a scientific record of the actual phenomena of that language written and spoken. If any community habitually uses certain from of speech, these forms are part of grammar of the speech of that community. (As cited in Randolph, \& Green Baum 1973, p.200.)

### 1.1. 5 Subject-Verb Agreement

In simple term, agreement refers to the state of having the same number, gender or person in language. It is a formal relationship of different parts of speech. Crystal (2003) views agreement as, a formal relationship between elements. Where by a form of one word requires a corresponding from of one another. So, selection of one linguistic item determines the
presence or absence $r$ absence of another linguistic item. In English for example, singular verb is used with singular noun.

## 1. 1. 6 Subject-Verb Agreements in English

Language is composed up of different underlying rules. These underlying rules are language specific. Subject-verb agreement system is unique. It has both marked and unmarked Features. Errors in agreement of subject and verb are most common. Imam (2003) views errors at time pose a difficult problem because they are invariably the result of $n$ grained speech habits. The difficulties arises when
a) Several other words intervene between subject and verb,
b) The subject seems to be singular and plural at the same time, and
c) Word order is such that one may forget what subject was and so makes an error.

Regarding subject verb agreement, the general principle is that: the subject agrees with the verb in person and number. However, very few errors are made due to the lack of person. Most mistakes arise out of your failure to match a singular verb, or a plural subject with a plural verb.

The following subject-verb Agreement rules have been taken from CelceMurcia and Larson Freeman (1986) 'The rules of Subject- Verb Agreement in English' are as follows.

1. A plural verb is used with plural noun
e. g. Girls eat rice,
2. Somebody, something, everybody, etc take a singular verb, e.g. Somebody is going to school.
3. A unit of noun takes a singular verb. e. $g$ Ten kilos of sugar is not much amount.
4. If an adjective functions as subject, it takes a plural verb. e.g. The rich are happy.
5. Arithmetical operation can take the singular verb. e.g. two plus two is four.
6. When two nouns are joined a plural verb is used. e.g. Mohan and Hari are working in the field.
7. None of +plural noun can take both form of verb. e.g. None of the students play/plays volleyball.
8. A verb clause takes a singular verb.
e. g. To teach needs qualifications.
9. 'Many' at singular noun take a singular verb.
e. g. Many a man learns English language.
10. Fractions and percentage take the singular verb when they modify a mass noun and the plural verb when modify a plural noun. When they modify a collective noun, either the singular or the plural verb may be used.
e.g. One third of the milk is spilled. (Mass)

One tenth of students are absent.
One third of the Thami population is/are literate.
11. Quantifiers take a plural verb when they modify a mass noun but they take the singular verb when they modify a mass noun. e. g. Some of the boys are absent today.

All of the area is polluted.
12. Collective nouns may take either singular or plural from of verb depending on the meaning. e. g. The team of seven has defeated (the teams as a whole) The team of seven has been awared. (The individual team members)
13. Noun in sets of two can take the singular verb when the noun pair is present but they take the plural verb when pair is absent regardless of whether one pair or more is being referred to.
e.g. A pair of shoes is under the table.

My scissors are on the table.
14. 'A' number of takes the plural verb but 'the number of' takes the singular verb from.
e. g. a number of girls are dancing.

The number of boys is poor in science.
15. Some common and proper nouns ending in's' and 'ics' take singular verb.
e.g. No news is good.

Mathematics is my favorite subject.
16. Neither/each of +plural noun takes a singular verb.
e. $g$ neither of them is absent.
17. One of +plural non-takes verb singular.

One of the men has gone out.

## 18. The proximity rule applies in sentences beginnings with 'there' followed by conjoined nouns/pronouns.

e. g. There is a tiger and a leopard in the jungle.
19. A/the majority (of.noun+plural) may take a plural. e.g. The majority of English are absent.

### 1.1. 7 Tense Aspect and types

"Aspect is a grammatical category which deals with how the event is described by a verb $\qquad$ and tense is the relationship between the form of the verb and the time of the action or state it describes' Richards et al (1999,p.22). Hence, tense and aspect are related with time and the internal structure of the action occurring at much time. There are three tenses: present, past and future; and four aspects: simple, progressive, perfect, and perfect progressive in English.

### 1.1. 7.1. Simple or Zero Aspect

Hirtle (1967) explains, "Simple aspect refers to events that are conceptualized as complete wholes" (as cited in Celce-Murcia and Larsen-Freeman (1983:112). Celce-Murcia and Larsen-freeman (1983, p, 112) give their view, as "the events are not presented as following for further development this aspect stands in contrast to progressive aspect..

### 1.1. 7.2. Perfect Aspect

It is another aspect of tense; Richards et al. (1999, p. 269) explain perfect aspect as "an aspect, which shows a relationship between one state or event and a later state. In English the perfect is formed from the auxiliary verb have and the past participle. " Similarly, Celce- Murcia and Larsen-

Freeman (1983,p.115) define perfect as " the core meaning of perfect is 'prior' and is used in relation to some point in time."

### 1.1.7.3. Progressive Aspect

"Progressive aspect is a grammatical aspect which indicates that an action is incomplete in progress of developing "Richard et al (1999:293). Similarly, Celce-Muricia and Larsen-freeman (1983,p.116) give their view as "the core meaning of progressive aspect as being imperfective meaning that is portrays an event in a way that allows for it to be incomplete or somehow limited."

### 1.1.7.4. Perfect Progressive Aspect

"This aspect combines the since of prior of the perfect with the meaning of 'incompleteness' inherent in the progressive aspect" (Celce-Murcia and Larsen-Freeman (1983, p.118). In Thami, it does not have frequent occurrence. That is to say, progressive aspect of this language represents perfect progressive aspect of this language.

## 1. 1.8. Contrastive Analysis and its Importance

The term 'Contrastive Analysis' means - '(in linguistics) showing the differences between language' and 'the detailed study or examination of something in order to understand more about it' or 'a careful examination of a substance in order to dined out what it consists of ' respectively (Oxford 2007) Therefore, contrastive analysis is the linguistic description of at least two languages L1 and L2 which are compared in order to highlight points of similarity or difference. Indeed contrastive analysis is a way of finding similarities and differences between two languages.

Hence, Varshney (2002:2003.p) presents his view as follows:
Comparative and historical linguistics is the diachronic study of languages based on comparison between two or more
languages comparative linguistics describes changes in language systems over periods and consider the familiar and genealogical relationships of language. It is widely known as comparative philology.

In the mid twentieth century, one of the most popular pursuits for applied linguistics was the study of two languages in contrast. Therefore, contrastive analysis is interested in the comparison of languages. Ellis (1966) view "While every language may have its individuality, all languages have enough in common for them to be compared " (as cited in James, 1980, p.2). It is central concern of applied linguistics. There is involvement of two languages, the L1 and L2. Regarding this fact, James (1980), p.3) defines CA as, 'a linguistic enterprise aimed at producing inverted (i.e. contrastive not comparative) two valued typologies (a CA is always concerned with a pair of language), and founded on the assumption that languages can be compared, "So, contrastive analysis is a systematic study o a pair of languages with a view to identify their structural differences and similarities.

Regarding the presence of comparative study of languages in the linguistic domain, Varshney (2002:003 rep. P. 366) presents the fact that Comparative historical linguistics said to be have begun in 1786 when Sir William Jones made his famous speech pointing out that Greek, Latin, Sanskrit, Celtic and Germanic appeared to have sprung from a common source. The next stage began in 1816 with the publication of Franz Bop's 'On the system of Conjugation in Sanskrit........... But CA was developed and practiced in 1950 'and 60's and application of structural linguistics to language teaching. Thus, 'CA plays a vital role in language learning and language teaching.

But (Brown 1994, p. 193) claims "CA is concerned with teaching rather than learning." It is rooted on the following assumptions.

1. The main difficulties in learning a new language are caused by interference from the first language.
2. Contractive Analysis can predict these difficulties.
3. Teaching materials can make use of contrastive Analysis to reduce the effects of interference.

Brown (1994, p. 192) says,
CA is deeply rooted in the behavioristic and structuralism approaches of the day. The Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis (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 enable the linguist to predict the difficulties a learner would encounter. Nevertheless, CA is highly influenced by behaviorist psychology. In short, it can be presented as follows.

1. Difference between the past and present learning causes hindrance whereas the learning is facilitated by the similarity between the past learning and present learning.
2. Hindrance leads to difficulty in learning whereas facilitation leads to ease in leering.
3. Learning difficulty, in turn leads to errors in performance whereas learning ease leads to errorless performance.

Indeed, CA has application in predicating and diagnosing proportion of the L2 errors committed by learners with a common L1. It compares learner's two languages viz. Their mother tongue and the target language to find out similarities and differences and then predicts the areas of ease and difficulty. The basic assumption of CA is that learner transfers the
system of ease and difficulty. The basic assumption of CA is that learner transfers the system of his native language to the foreign language learning.

In CA, the description of the learner's native language is put side by side with the description of the foreign language. Such comparison would be helpful in pointing the areas of the difficulties in learning and errors in performance, determining and specifying the area, which the learners have to learn with greater emphasis and helping to design teaching learning materials for these particular areas that need more attention. The findings of CA would be useful for course designers, teachers, testing experts as well as learners. Therefore, it plays a vital role in language teaching and learning. However, it can make contribution on machine translation, linguistic typology, designing teaching materials, syllabus designers, curriculum development and language planning. In recent years, CA has been applied to discourse systems. This is called contrastive discourse analysis. Hence, CA is important from pedagogical point of view. CA has two significant functions: primary and secondary. The primary function of CA is to predict errors likely to be committed by learners. CA here, functions as a predictive tool. Oller (1971.79) again speaks about CA as 'a devise for predicting point of difficulty and some of the errors that learners will make." (As cited in James, 1980). CA can facilitate in language learning in following ways:

1. Pointing the area of difficulties in learning and errors in performance.
2. Determining the areas that the learners have to learn with greater effort.
3. Assisting to design teaching materials for those particular areas that need more attention.

### 1.2 Review of Related Literature

Keeping in view the importance of reviewing related literature, an attempt has been made here to draw the previous works about Thami, the Thami-language and subject-verb agreement.

Various research studies can be found about various-languages and subject verb agreement. But, no researches studies are found about Thami and the Thami language in comparison to the others. However, some foreign as well as Nepalese scholars cannot be forgotten for writing about Thami language.

A lot of research studies have also been carried out on comparative study among different languages such as Limbu, Gurung, Santhali, Maithili, Bhojpuri, Newari etc and English the Department of English Education and other departments of social sciences and Humanities, T.U. Some of them are presented below:

Giri (1982) has done a research study on 'English and Nepali kinship terms: A comparative Linguistic Study. The main objective of this study was to determine the English and Nepali Kinship relations and then to compare and contrast the terms. She got more Nepali Kinship terms than the kinship terms in English and most of the English kinship relations are addressed by the Nepal kinship terms.

Shrestha (1989) has carried out a research on 'Errors on Subject-Verb Agreement'. The main aim of this study was to find out the structures in which errors are most likely to be committed. This was the second study in which native speakers were included. The researcher found that students are likely to commit high frequency of errors when the headword is preceded or followed by a word of opposite nature in grammatical
number. Similarly, least errors were found in structures such as either $\mathrm{N}+\mathrm{PI}$ or $\mathrm{N}-\mathrm{PI}$.

Mahato (2001) has carried out a research on' A Comparative Study of the Subject-Verb Agreement in the English and Tharu languages.' The purpose of this study was to identify the system of subject-verb agreement in the Tharu language and to compare it with the English subject-verb agreement in the Tharu language and to compare it with the English subject-verb agreement. He found that the second and third person pronouns change for honorific forms where as they do not do in the English. The system of marking for formal and informal forms is found in the Tharu verbs whereas this does not happen in the English. English and Tharu verbs do not agree with the categories of gender. Paudyal (2007) has carried out a research study on 'A Comparative Study of the Subject-Verb Agreement in the English and Jhagar Languages'. The research aimed at identifying the subject-verb agreement system of the Jhagar language and comparing it a distinction between male and female of the first person and third person in Jhagar but it lacks in English. As a whole, Jhagar subject-verb agreement system is different from that of the English in spite of a few similarities.

Sabehang (2007) has done a research study on 'Subject-Verb Agreement in Limbu and English: A comparative study '. The objective of his study was to identify the subject-verb agreement system in the Limbu and to find out the similarities and differences in subject agreement between English and Limbu. He found that the Limbu verbs agree in terms of tense, aspect, object, person, and number, He found that the Limbu and English number system are different. The English language possesses only two numbers. Viz. singular and plural but the Limbu language contains dual number including singular and plural.

Some more other comparative studies have been carried out in the Department of English Education, and in other department. But no study has yet been carried out to compare and contrast between English and Thami subject-verb agreement systems. Hence, the proposed study is expected to be useful one in the Department of English Education. T.U.

### 1.3. Objectives of the study

The objectives of the study were as follows:

- To identity the subject-verb agreement system of the Thami language
- To find out similarities and differences in subject-verb agreement between English and Thami.
- To suggest some pedagogical implications.


### 1.4. Significance of the study

This study will be significant to the people who want to conduct research on the Thami language. It will also be helpful in developing the grammar of Thami language. Further, it will be significant to all those students, teacher, textbook writers, syllabus designers, etc. Who are involved in the English language teaching in Nepal, It will be an extra aid for the researchers or linguists who are interested in the study of the Thami language.

## CHAPTER-TWO

## METHODOLOGY

The following methodology was adopted to fulfil the objectives:

### 2.1 Sources of Data

Both primary and secondary sources were used to obtain information

### 2.1.1 Primary Sources of Data

The primary sources of data were forty Thami native speakers representing literate and illiterate from Lapilang and Aalampu VDC of Dolakha, Nepal.

### 2.1. 2. Secondary Sources of Data

The secondary sources of data were books, journals, newspapers and document. Some of the other secondary sources were Kumar (1996) Celece Murcia and Larson-Freeman (1999), Yadava (2003), Regmi (2007).

### 2.2. Population of the Study

Population of the study was native speakers of the Thami language of Lapilang and Aalampu VDC of Dolakha district.

### 2.3 Sampling Procedure

Lapilang and Aalampu VDC of Dolakha district were selected for the study area using judgmental sampling procedure. Forty native speakers were selected for interview using snowball-sampling procedure.

### 2.4. Tools for Data Collection

Structured interview schedule and participant observation were the tools to elicit the required information. A set of interview schedule was developed with simple statements in English and the data were collected in Roman form.

### 2.5. Process of Data collection

The following stepwise procedures were followed to obtain required data.

1. The selected study area was visited to develop rapport with the Thami native speakers.
2. Native speakers of the Thami language were interviewed. They were selected from purposive random sampling.
3. The responses were transliterated in Roman form.

## 2. 6. Limitations of the study

1. The area of the study was confined to the comparative aspect of subject-verb agreement system in only two villages of Dolakha district.
2. The study attempted to find out only subject verb agreement system in Thami and English
3. Only forty informants were included in the study.

## CHAPTER-THREE

## ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION OF DATA

This chapter is an important chapter of this study because it deals with the analysis and interpretations of the data. The data that were collected from forty Thami language speakers are analyzed and interpreted descriptively using illustrations as given below:

### 3.1. Subject-verb Agreement System of Thami in terms of Person and Number.

The subject-verb Agreement of the Thami language in terms of person and number is given below.

### 3.1.1. First Person Singular Subject and Verb Agreement.

| a. gai | isa | čhya. yađu |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| $1^{\text {st }} \mathrm{sg}$ | rice | sim pres eat $1^{\text {st }} \mathrm{sg}$ |
| I eat rice. |  |  |
| b. gai | nem | ya.yađu |
| $1^{\text {st }} \mathrm{sg}$ | home | sim pres go $1^{\text {st }} \mathrm{sg}$ |

I go home.
In Thami, pronoun gai is used to denote first person singular subject. To agree with the first person singular subject the suffix- with Øadu is added in the root form of verb as in cya. Jadu and ya. Jadu.

## 3. 1.2 First Person Dual Subject and Verb Agreement

a. ni
isa
čy.iđu
$1^{\text {st }} \mathrm{dl}$
rice
sim-pres eat $1^{\text {st }} \mathrm{dl}$

We (two) eat rice.
b. ni
$1^{\text {st }} \mathrm{dl}$ home sim-pres $1^{\text {st }} \mathrm{dl}$
We go home.
c.ni
nem
ya.iđu
$1^{\text {st }} \mathrm{dl}$ home sim-pres go $1^{\text {st }} \mathrm{dl}$
We (two) go home.
In Thami pronoun ni is used to denote both inclusiveness and exclusiveness of the speakers. To agree with inclusive and exclusive subject, the verbs are suffixed with-iđu as in čya.iđu and ya. iđu.

## 3. 1.3 First Person Plural Subject and Verb Agreement.

a. ni
isa
čya.iđu
$1^{\text {st }} \mathrm{pl}$ incl
rice
sim-pres eat $1^{\text {st }} \mathrm{pl}$

We eat rice.
b. ni
nem
ya.iđu
$1^{\text {st }} \mathrm{pl}$ incl
home
sim-pres go $1^{\text {st }} \mathrm{pl}$
We go home.
c.ni
kitab
padha.iđu
$1^{\text {st }} \mathrm{pl}$ incl book
sim-pres read $1^{\text {st }} \mathrm{pl}$
We read book.
These examples show that the verbs are suffixed with iđu to agree with first person plural subject ni as in čya,iđu and padha. iđu.

## 3. 1. 4 Second Person Singular Subject and verb Agreement.

a. naŋ
isa
čya.nađu
$2^{\text {nd }} \mathrm{sg}$
rice sim-pres eat $1^{\text {st }} \mathrm{pl}$

You eat rice.

| b nay | nem | ya. nađu |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| $2^{\text {nd }} \mathrm{sg}$ | home | sim-pres go $1^{\text {st }} \mathrm{pl}$ |

You go home.
c. nay
kitab
padhai. nađu
$1^{\text {st }} \mathrm{sg}$
book
sim-pres read $2^{\text {nd }} \mathrm{sg}$
You read book.
These examples show that second person singular subject marker is na引, which agrees with the verb, suffixed with- nađu as in čya.nađu, ya.nađu and

## Padhai.nađu.

## 3. 1. 4 Second Person Dual Subject and verb Agreement.

| a. nin | isa | čya.niđu |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| $2^{\text {nd }} \mathrm{dl}$ | rice | sim-pres eat $2^{\text {nd }} \mathrm{dl}$ |

You eat rice.

| b .yin | nem | ya.nidu |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| $2^{\text {nd }} \mathrm{dl}$ | home | sim-pres go 2 ${ }^{\text {nd }} \mathrm{dl}$ |
| You go home. |  |  |
| c. yiŋ | kitab | padhai.niđu |
| $2^{\text {nd }} \mathrm{dl}$ | book | sim-pres read $2^{\text {nd }} \mathrm{dl}$ |

You read book.
Indeed, second person dual subject marker is nin in Thami, which agrees with the suffix-nidu to the verb as in ya.niđu. and padhai. niđu.

## 3. 1.6 Second Person Plural Subject Verb Agreement.

a. niy
čya. niđu.
$2^{\text {nd }} \mathrm{pl}$
sim pres eat $2^{\text {nd }} \mathrm{pl}$
You eat rice.

| b.nin | nem | ya. niđu |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| $2^{\text {nd }} \mathrm{pl}$ | home | sim pres go $2^{\text {nd }} \mathrm{pl}$ |
| You go home. |  |  |
| c. . nin | kitab | padhai.niđu |
| $2^{\text {nd }} \mathrm{pl}$ | book | sim pres read $2^{\text {nd }} \mathrm{pl}$ |

c. . nin
$2^{\text {nd }} \mathrm{pl}$
rice
isa
kitab
book sim pres read $2^{\text {nd }} \mathrm{pl}$

## You read book.

Theses instances show that second person plural subject marker is nif in Tami, which agrees with the suffix- nin u to the verb as in čya. niđu, ya.niđu and padhai.niđu

## 3. 1. 7 Third Person singular Subject and Verb Agreement

a. to
isa
$3^{\text {rd }} \mathrm{sg}$
rice
She eats irce.
b. to
$3^{\text {rd }} \mathrm{sg}$
He eats rice.
c. to
nem
$3^{\text {rd }} \mathrm{sg}$
home
sim pres go $3^{\text {rd }} \mathrm{sg}$
She goes home.

Pronoun to represent both male and female third person singular subject is to in Tami, which requires the verb, suffixed with-đu to agree as in čya.đu

## 3. 1.8 Third Person Dual Subject and Verb Agreement.

| a. tobay | nem | ya.yoyđu |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| $3^{\text {rd }} \mathrm{pl}$ | home | sim pres read $3^{\text {rd }} \mathrm{pl}$ |

They go home.
b. . toban
$3^{\text {rd }} \mathrm{pl}$

Kitab book

They read book.
In Tami language the third person dual marker is toban, which agrees with the suffix-yonđu to the verb as in ya.yoŋđu.

### 3.2 The Thami Subject Verb Agreement in Terms of Gender.

| a. Shankar | isa | čya.đu |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| $3^{\text {rd }} \operatorname{sg}(\mathrm{m})$ | rice | sim pres eat $3^{\text {rd }} \mathrm{sg}$ |
| Shankar eats rice. |  |  |
| b. Radha | isa | čya.đu |
| $3^{\text {rd }} \mathrm{sg}(\mathrm{f})$ | rice | sim pres eat $3^{\text {rd }} \mathrm{sg}$ |
| Radha eats rice. | nem | čya.đu |
| c. aapaye | home | sim pres go $3^{\text {rd }} \mathrm{sg}$ |

Father goes home.
These examples show that gender does not have any role in subject verb agreement in the Thami language. Both masculine and faminine subjects have
identical verb inflection. For instance, both subject's Shankar and Radha correspond with the same verb inflection đu.

### 3.3 The Thami Subject Verb Agreements in Term of Tense and <br> Aspect

This topic includes the interpretations of the collected data in term of tense and aspect system. There are four aspects viz simple or zero aspect, prefect aspect, prograssive aspect and prefect progressive aspect.

### 3.3.1 Simple or Zero Aspect

This aspect is described in terms of present, past and future tense.

### 3.3 1. 1 simple present

Here Simple present aspect is present in terms of person and these person first, second and third are exemplified separately as follows.

## First person

| a. gai | isa | čya. yađu |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| $1^{\text {st }} \mathrm{sg}$ | rice | sim pres eat $1^{\text {st }} \mathrm{sg}$ |
| I eat rice. |  |  |
| b. ni | isa | čya.iđu |
| $1^{\text {st }} \mathrm{pl}$ | rice | sim pres eat $1^{\text {st }} \mathrm{pl}$ |
| We eat rice. |  |  |
| c.ni | nem | ya.iđu |
| $1^{\text {st }} \mathrm{pl}$ | home | sim pres go $1^{\text {st }} \mathrm{pl}$ |

We go home.
The above-mentioned instances clearly indicate clearly indicates that-yađu has been added as a suffix to the verb to agree with the first person singular subject. The verb of first person dual subject and plural subject has been suffixed with iđu to the verb as in čya.iđu and ya.iđu.

## Second Person

a. nay
nem
ya.nađu
$2^{\text {nd }} \mathrm{sg} \quad$ home $\quad$ sim pres go $2^{\text {nd }} \mathrm{sg}$
you go home.

| b. nin | isa | čya.niđu |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| $2^{\text {nd }} \mathrm{pl}$ | rice | sim pres eat $2^{\text {nd }} \mathrm{pl}$ |

You eat rice.
The verbs of the second person singular and plural subjects are suffixed with nađu and niđu respectively to agree with subjects as in ya.nađu and čya.niđu.

## Third person

a. to
isa
čya.đu
$3^{\text {rd }} \mathrm{sg}$
rice
sim pres eat $3^{\text {rd }} \mathrm{sg}$
He eats rice

| b. to | isa | čya.đu |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| $3^{\text {rd }} \mathrm{sg}$ | rice | sim pres eat $3^{\text {rd }} \mathrm{sg}$ |

She eat rice.
c. tobay
isa
čya. yoŋđu
$3^{\text {rd }} \mathrm{pl}$
rice
sim pres eat $3^{\text {rd }} \mathrm{pl}$
They ear rice.
Here the third person singular subject has taken suffix-đu in the root form of verb to agree with singular subject. The verb of third person person plural has been suffixed with-yoŋđu as in čya.yoŋđu.

### 3.3. 1.2 Simple Past

Simple past aspect is described in terms of person: first person, second person and third person as follows:

## First Person

| a gai | isa | čya. yan |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| $1^{\text {st }} \mathrm{sg}$ | rice | sim pt eat $1^{\text {st }} \mathrm{sg}$ |
| I ate rice. |  |  |
| b. ni | isa | čya.ygan |
| $1^{\text {st }} \mathrm{pl}$ | rice | sim pt eat $1^{\text {st }} \mathrm{pl}$ |
| We ate rice. |  | ya. ygan |
| c. ni | nem | sim pt go $1^{\text {st }} \mathrm{pl}$ |

We went home.
These examples show that suffix- $\boldsymbol{y}$ an is added in the root from of verb to agree with the first person singular subject in simple past tense. Like wise, the verb has been suffixed with- クgan to agree with first person dual as well as plural inclusive and exclusive subjects as in čya. ŋgan. and ya. クgan.

## Second Person

| a nan | isa | čya. nan |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 2nd sg | rice | sim pt 1st sg |
| You ate rice. |  |  |
| b. nin | isa | čya. nin |
| 2nd pl | rice | sim pt 2nd pl |
| You ate rice. |  |  |

Here, the second person singular subject has taken suffix-nan in the root form of verb to a free with singular subject. The verb of second person plural subjects have been suffixed with-nin as in čya.nin

## Third Person

| a. to | isa | čya. han |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| $3^{\text {rd }} \mathrm{sg}$ | rice | sim pt $3^{\text {rd }} \mathrm{sg}$ |

He ate rice.
b. to
$3^{\text {rd }} \mathrm{sg}$
isa
rice
She are rice.
c. tobay
$3^{\text {rd }} \mathrm{pl}$
They are rice.

Here, the third person singular subject has taken suffix-han in the root form of verb to agree with singular subject. The verb of third person plural has been suffixed with- yoŋan as čya. yojan

### 3.3.1.3 Simple Future

In this aspect as well different persons are presented separately as follows:

## First Person

| a. gai | isa | čya. yanađu |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| $1^{\text {st }} \mathrm{sg}$ | rice | sim ft eat $1^{\text {st }} \mathrm{sg}$ |
| I shall eat rice. |  |  |
| b. ni | isa | čya. yaiđu |
| $1^{\text {st }} \mathrm{pl}$ | rice | $\operatorname{simfteat~} 1^{\text {st }} \mathrm{pl}$ |

We shall eat rice.

| c.ni | nem | ya. yaiau |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| $1^{\text {st }} \mathrm{pl}$ | home | $\operatorname{sim~ft~go~} 1^{\text {st }} \mathrm{pl}$ |

We shall go home.

These examples show that first person singular subject requires suffix-yaŋadu to be aded in the root form in simple future aspect. In the case of first person plural subject, suffix- yaidu is added in the root form of the verb as in cya. yaiđu and ya. yaiđu.

## Second Person

| a. nan | isa | čya. konaiđu |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| $2^{\text {nd }} \mathrm{sg}$ | rice | $\operatorname{sim~ft~eat~} 2^{\text {nd }} \mathrm{pl}$ |
| you will eat rice. |  |  |
| b.nin | nem | ya.komaiđu |
| $2^{\text {nd }} \mathrm{Pl}$ | home | $\operatorname{sim~ft~go~} 2^{\text {nd }} \mathrm{pl}$ |

You will go home.
These examples infer that second person singular subject requires suffixkonaiđu to be added in the root form of the verb in simple future aspect. In the case of second person plural subject, suffix-komaiđu is added in the root form of the verb as in ya.komaiđu.

### 3.3. 2. Perfect Aspect

This aspect is described in terms of three tenses: present, past and future tense.

### 3.3.2.1 Present Prefect

Present Perfect aspect is exemplified in three different persons as follows:

## First Person

| a. gai | isa | čya. ko đumyan |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| $1^{\text {st }} \mathrm{sg}$ | rice | pres perf eat $1^{\text {st }} \mathrm{sg}$ |
| I have eaten rice. |  |  |
| b. ni | isa | čya.ko đumin |
| $1^{\text {st }} \mathrm{pl}$ | rice | pres perf eat $1^{\text {st }} \mathrm{pl}$ |
| We have eaten rice. |  |  |
| c.ni | nem | ya.ko đumin |
| $1^{\text {st }} \mathrm{pl}$ | home | pres perf go $1^{\text {st }} \mathrm{pl}$ |

We have gone home.
These instances show the fact that first person singular subject of present perfect aspect requires a suffix-ko đumŋan to be added in the root form of the verb to be agreed with subject. Similarly first person plural subject requires suffix-ko đumin in the root form of the verb with subject in present perfect aspect.

## Second Person

a. naŋ
isa
čya.ko đumnan
$2^{\text {nd }} \mathrm{sg}$
rice
pres perf eat $2^{\text {nd }} \mathrm{sg}$
You have eaten rice.
b.nin
isa
ya.ko đumnin
$2^{\text {nd }} \mathrm{pl}$
home
pres perf go $2^{\text {nd }} \mathrm{pl}$

You have gone home.
In present perfect aspect, second person singular person singular and plural subjects agree with verbs, which are suffixed with-ko dumnan and ko dumnin respectively.

Third Person
a. to
isa
rice
He has eaten rice.
b. to
$3^{\text {rd }} \mathrm{sg}$
She has eaten rice.
c. toban
$3^{\text {rd }} \mathrm{pl}$
rice
isa
rice
čya.ko đuman
pres perf eat $3^{\text {rd }} \mathrm{sg}$
čya.ko đuman pres perf eat $3^{\text {rd }} \mathrm{sg}$
čya.ko đumnan
pres perf eat $3^{\text {rd }} \mathrm{pl}$

They have eaten rice.
Third person singular subject agrees with the verb, which is suffixed with ko duman in present perfect aspect. Third person plural subject agrees with the verb suffixed with ko dumnan as in čya.ko đumnan

### 3.3.2.2 Past Prefect

This aspect is also described in three different persons as follows.

## First Person

| a. gai | isa | čya.nađuthyo |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| $1^{\text {st }} \mathrm{sg}$ | rice | pt perf eat $1^{\text {st }} \mathrm{sg}$ |

I had eaten rice.

| b. ni | isa | čya.ko đumithyo |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| $1^{\text {st }} \mathrm{pl}$ | rice | pt perf eat $1^{\text {st }} \mathrm{pl}$ |
| We had eaten rice. |  |  |
| c. ni | nem | ya.ko đumithyo |
| $1^{\text {st }} \mathrm{pl}$ | home | pt perf go $1^{\text {st }} \mathrm{pl}$ |

We had gone home.
Here, the suffix- nađuthyo is added in root form of the verb to agree with first person singular subject in past perfect aspect. In the case of first person plural subject the verb is suffixed with- ko đumithyo as in čya.ko đumithyo and ya. ko đumithyo.

## Second Person

| a.na | nem | ya.nale honathyo |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 2nd sg | home | pt perf go 2nd sg |

You had gone home.

| b.ni | isa | cya.nile honithyo |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 2 nd pl | rice | pt perf eat 2 nd pl |

You had eaten rice.

Here, the suffix nale honathyo is added in root form of the verb to agree with the second person singular subject in past perfect aspect. In the case of second person plural subject the verb is suffixed with- nile honithyo as in cya.nile honithyo.

## Third Person

| a. to | isa | čya.ko đumhanthyo |
| :--- | :--- | :---: |
| $3^{\text {rd }} \mathrm{sg}$ | rice | pt perf eat $3^{\text {rd }} \mathrm{sg}$ |

He had eaten rice.
b. to
$3^{\text {rd }} \mathrm{sg}$
She had eaten rice.
c. tobay
$3^{\text {rd }} \mathrm{p}$
They had eaten rice.
isa
rice
isa
rice
čya.ko đumhanthyo pt perf eat $3{ }^{\text {rd }} \mathrm{pl}$
čya.ko đumithyo
pt perf eat $3^{\text {rd }} \mathrm{pl}$
nese instances show that third person singular subject agrees with the verb suffixed with ko đumhanthyo in past perfect aspect. In the case of third person plural subject the verb is suffixed with - ko đumithyo to agree with the subject.

### 3.3. 2.3 Future Perfect

This topic includes subject verb agreement system of future prefect aspect in terms of three persons as follows:
A.gai
$1^{\text {st }} \mathrm{sg}$
isa
rice
čya.te hoŋađu
ft perf eat $1^{\text {st }} \mathrm{sg}$

I shall have eaten rice.
B. ni
$1^{\text {st }} \mathrm{pl}$
We shall have eaten rice.
c. n
$1^{\text {st }} \mathrm{pl}$
nem
home
čya. ko đumiđu
ft perf eat $1^{\text {st }} \mathrm{pl}$
ya.ko đumiđu
ft perf go $1^{\text {st }} \mathrm{pl}$

We shall have gone home.
These examples show that in future perfect aspect, first person singular subject agrees with a verb suffixed with- te hoŋađu. Similarly first person plural subject requires a verb, which is suffixed with- ko đumiđu as in čya.ko đumiđu and ya.ko đumiđu.

## Second Person

a. nan
$2^{\text {nd }} \mathrm{sg}$
You will have eaten rice.
b.nin
nem
$2^{\text {nd }} \mathrm{pl}$
isa
rice
čya. nale yase
ft perf eat $2^{\text {nd }} \mathrm{sg}$

| b.niy | nem | ya.te hose |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| $2^{\text {nd }} \mathrm{pl}$ | home | $\mathrm{ft} \operatorname{perf} 2^{\text {nd }} \mathrm{pl}$ |

You will have gone home.
From the given examples, it is clear that second person singular subject requires a verb suffixed with-nale yase in future prefect aspect. In the case of second person plural subject the verb is suffixed with-te hose to agree with the subject as in ya.te hose.

## Third Person

| a.to | isa | čya.te hođu |
| :--- | :---: | :--- |
| $3^{\text {rd }} \mathrm{sg}$ | rice | ft perf go $3^{\text {rd }} \mathrm{sg}$ |
| He will have eaten rice. |  |  |

b. to
$3^{\text {rd }} \mathrm{sg}$
isa
rice

## čya.te hođu

ft perf go $3^{\text {rd }}$ sg
She will have eaten rice
c.tobay
$3^{\text {rd }} \mathrm{pl}$
They will have eaten rice.

These examples show that, in future perfect aspect, the third person singular subject agrees with the verb-suffixed with-te hodu. Similarly third person plural subject requires the verb suffixed with- te hoyoŋđo agree with the subject as in čya.te hoyoŋđu

### 3.3.3 Progressive Aspect

This aspect is presented in terms of present, past and future tense.

### 3.3.3.1 Present Progressive

a. gai
isa
rice

Iam eating rice.
b. ni
$1^{\text {st }} \mathrm{pl}$
isa
home
čya.nale hoŋađu pres pro eat $1^{\text {st }} \mathrm{sg}$ čya.nale hokiđu pres pro go $1^{\text {st }} \mathrm{pl}$

We are going home.
These examples make clear that first person singular subject of progressive aspect of present tense agrees with the verb, which is suffixed with-nale hoŋađu as in čya.nale hoŋđu. Similarly first person plural subject agrees with the verb that is suffixed with nale hokiđu as in ya.nale. hokiđu

## Second Person

a. naŋ
$2^{\text {nd }} \mathrm{sg}$
You are eating rice.
b.nin
$2^{\text {nd }} \mathrm{pl}$
You are going home.

Second person singular subject agrees with the verb, which is suffixed with nale hona đu in present progressive aspect. Similarly the second person plural subject requires the verb suffixed with-nile honiđu as in ya. nile honiđu.

## Third Person

| a.to | isa | čya.le hođu |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| $3^{\text {rd }} \mathrm{sg}$ | rice | pres pro eat $3^{\text {rd }} \mathrm{sg}$ |

He is eating rice.
b. to
$3^{\text {rd }} \mathrm{sg}$
isa
rice
She is eating rice.

| c. tobay | isa | čya.yoyle yasiyoyđu |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| $3^{\text {rd }} \mathrm{pl}$ | rice | pres pro eat $3^{\text {rd }} \mathrm{pl}$ |

isa
rice
čya.le hođu pres pro eat $3^{\text {rd }} \mathrm{sg}$
pres pro eat 3 pl

They are eating rice.
Here third person singular and plural subjects require the verb suffixed with le hođu and yoyle yasiyondu respectively to be agreed in present progressive aspect as in čya.le hođu and čya.yople yasiyonđu.

### 3.3. 3. 2. Past Progressive

This aspect is also interpreted in terms of three different persons as follows:

## First Person

| a. gai | isa | čya.yale hoyathyo |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| $1^{\text {st }} \mathrm{sg}$ | rice | pt pro eat $1^{\text {st }} \mathrm{sg}$ |
| I was eating rice. |  |  |
| b. ni | isa | čya.yale hokithyo |
| $1^{\text {st }} \mathrm{pl}$ | rice | pt pro eat $1^{\text {st }} \mathrm{pl}$ |

We were eating rice.
c.ni nem ya.jale hokithyo
$1^{\text {st }} \mathrm{pl}$ home pt pro go $1^{\text {st }} \mathrm{pl}$

We were going home.
First person singular subject agrees with the verb, which is suffixed with ⿹ale hoŋathyo in progressive aspect of past tense. Like wise, first person plural subject requires the verb suffixed with nale hokithyo to agree with subject as in čya.nale hokithyo.

## Second Person

a. naŋ
isa
rice
čya.nale honathyo
$2^{\text {nd }} \mathrm{sg}$
pt pro eat $2^{\text {nd }} \mathrm{sg}$
You were eating rice.

| b. niy | nam | čya.nale honithyo |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| $2^{\text {nd }} \mathrm{pl}$ | home | pt pro go $2^{\text {nd }} \mathrm{pl}$ |

You were going home.
Second Person singular subject agrees with a vebwhich is suffixed with čya.nale honathyo in past progressive genes. Second person plural subject agrees with the verb suffixed with the verb suffixed with nale honithyo as in čya.nile honithyo.

Third Person
a. to
isa
čya.nale hothyo
$3^{\text {rd }} \mathrm{sg}$
rice
pt pro eat $3^{\text {rd }} \mathrm{sg}$
He was eating rice.
b. to
isa
rice
čya.nale hothyo
$3^{\text {rd }} \mathrm{sg}$
pt pro eat $3^{\text {rd }} \mathrm{sg}$

She was eating rice.
c. toban
isa
$3^{\text {rd }} \mathrm{pl}$
rice
čya. yoŋle hoŋathyo
pt pro eat $3^{\text {rd }} \mathrm{pl}$
They were eating rice.

Third person singular and plural subjects agree with the verbs which are suffixed with nale hothyo and yoŋle hoŋathyo respectively in past progressive aspect.

### 3.3.3.3 Future Progressive

This aspect is also interpreted in terms of three different persons as follows:

## First Person

| a.gai | isa | čya.jale yasinađu |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| $1^{\text {st }} \mathrm{sg}$ | rice | ft pro eat $1^{\text {st }} \mathrm{sg}$ |
| I shall be eating rice |  |  |
| b. ni | isa | čya.jpale yasiiđu |
| $1^{\text {st }} \mathrm{pl}$ | rice | ft pro eat $1^{\text {st }} \mathrm{pl}$ |

We shall be eating rice

| c.ni | nem | ya. yale yasiiđu |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| $1^{\text {st }} \mathrm{pl}$ | home | ft pro go 1 ${ }^{\text {st }} \mathrm{pl}$ |

We shall be going home.
In future progressive aspect, the first person singular subject agrees with a verb which is suffixed with-ŋale yasiiđu to agree with the subject as in čya. Øale yasiŋađu and ya. りale. yasiiđu

## Second Person

a. nay
isa
rice
čya.nale honađu yađu
ft pro eat $2^{\text {nd }} \mathrm{sg}$

You will be eating rice.
b. nin
$2^{\text {nd }} \mathrm{pl}$
You will be gong home.
nem
home
ya.nile honiđu yađu
ft pro go $2^{\text {nd }} \mathrm{pl}$

Second Person singular and plural subjects agree with the verbs, which are suffixed with-nale honađu yađu and nile honiđu yađu respectively in past progressive aspect.

## Third Person

a. to
isa
rice

> čya.le yasiđu ft pro eat $3^{\text {rd }}$ sg
$3^{\text {rd }} \mathrm{sg}$

He will be eating rice
b. to
isa
$3^{\text {rd }}$ sgo
rice
čya.le yasiđu
ft pro eat $3^{\text {rd }} \mathrm{sg}$
She will be eating rice

| c. tobay | nem | ya.pale hokyonđu |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 3 rs pl | home | ft pro $3^{\text {rd }}$ go pl |

They will be going home.
Third person singular and plural subjects agree with the verbs, which are suffixed with -le yasiđu and pale hokyoŋđu respectively in past progressive aspect as in cya.le yasiđu and ya. ŋale hokyoŋđu.

### 3.3.4. Perfect Progressive Aspect

This aspect is described in germs of three tenses: Present, past and future tense.

### 3.3.4.1 Present Perfect progressive Aspect

This aspect is interpreted in terms of three different persons as follow:

## First Person

a. gai
$1^{\text {st }} \mathrm{sg}$
isa
rice
I have been eating rice.
b ni
$1^{\text {st }} \mathrm{pl}$
isa
rice
čya.pale hoŋađu pres-perf-pro eat $1^{\text {st }} \mathrm{sg}$
čya.ıale hokiđu pres-pref- proeat $1^{\text {st }} \mathrm{pl}$

We have been eating rice.

| c. ni | nem | ya. yale hokiđu |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| $1^{\text {st }} \mathrm{pl}$ | home | pres- perf pro-go $1^{\text {st }} \mathrm{pl}$ |

We have been going home.
These examples make clear that first person singular subject of progressive aspect of present tense agrees with the verb, which is suffixed with-yale hoyadu as in čya.ŋale hoŋađu. Similarly first person plural subject agrees with the verb, which is suffixed with ŋale hokiđu and ya. ŋale hokiđu.

## Second Person

a. nay
$2^{\text {nd }} \operatorname{sg}$
isa
ya. nale honađu pres- perf pro-eat $2^{\text {nd }} \mathrm{sg}$

You have been eating rice.

| b. nin | nem | ya.nile honiđu |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| $2^{\text {nd }} \mathrm{sg}$ | rice | pres- perf pro-eat $2^{\text {nd }} \mathrm{sg}$ |

You have been going home.

| c. nin | nem | ya.nile honidu |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| $2^{\text {nd }} \mathrm{pl}$ | home | pres- perf pro-eat $2^{\text {nd }} \mathrm{Sg}$ |

You have been going home.
Second person singular and plural subjects agree with the verbs, which are suffixed with-nale honađu and nile honiđu respectively in present perfect progressive aspect.

## Third Person

a. to
isa
čya.le hođu
$3^{\text {rd }} \mathrm{sg}$
rice
pres- perf pro-eat $3^{\text {rd }} \mathrm{sg}$
He has been eating rice.

| b. to | isa | čya.le hođu |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| $3^{\text {rd }} \mathrm{sg}$ | rice | pres- perf pro-eat $3^{\text {rd }} \mathrm{sg}$ |

She has been eating rice.

| c. toban | nem | ya.yonle yasiyonđu |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| $3^{\text {rd }} \mathrm{pl}$ | home | pres- perf pro-go $3^{\text {rd }} \mathrm{pl}$ |

They have been going home.
Here third person singular and plural subjects require the verb suffixed with-le hođu' and yoŋle yasiyoŋđu' respectively to be agreed in present perfect progressive aspect as in čya.le hođu and ya. yoŋle yasiyoŋđu.

### 3.3.4.2 Past Perfect progressive Aspect

This aspect is also interpreted in terms of three different persons as follows:

## First Person

a. gai
I had been eating rice.
isa
rice
isa
rice

| b. ni | isa | čya. nale honathyo |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| $1^{\text {st }} \mathrm{pl}$ | rice | pt perf pro eat $1^{\text {st }} \mathrm{sg}$ |

We had been eating rice.
First person singular subject agrees with the verb, which is suffixed with yale hoŋathyo in progressive aspect of past tense. Likewise, first person plural subject requires the verb suffixed with ŋale hokithyo to agree with subject as in čya. ŋale hokithyo.

## Second Person

| a nay | isa | čya.nale honathyo |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| $2^{\text {nd }} \mathrm{sg}$ | rice | pt perf pro eat $1^{\text {st }} \mathrm{sg}$ |
| You had been eating rice. |  |  |
| b. niy | nam | ya.nile honithyo |
| $2^{\text {nd }} \mathrm{pl}$ | home | pt perf pro eat $2^{\text {nd }} \mathrm{pl}$ |

You had been going home.
Second Person singular subject agrees with a verb which is suffixed with nale honathyo in past progressive tens. Second person plural subject agrees with the verb suffixed with-nile honithyo as in ya.nile honithyo.

## Third person

a. to
$3^{\text {rd }} \mathrm{sg}$
isa
rice
čya.ko dumhanthyo
pt perf pro eat $3^{\text {rd }} \mathrm{sg}$
He had been eating rice

| b. to | isa | čya.ko dumhanthyo |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| $3^{\text {rd }} \mathrm{sg}$ | rice | pt perf pro eat $3^{\text {rd }} \mathrm{sg}$ |

These instances show that third person singular subject agrees with the verb suffixed with- ko đumhanthyo to agree with the subject.

### 3.3.4.3 Future Perfect Progressive aspect

This aspect is also interpreted in terms of three different persons as follows:
First Person

| a. gai | isa | čya.jale yasijađu |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| $1^{\text {st }} \mathrm{sg}$ | rice | ft per pro eat $1^{\text {st }} \mathrm{sg}$ |

I shall have been eating rice

| b.ni | isa | čya.yale yasiiđu |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| $1^{\text {st }} \mathrm{pl}$ | rice | ft per pro $1^{\text {st }}$ eat pl |

We shall have been eating rice.
In future perfect progressive aspect, the first person singular subject agrees with a verb which is suffixed with-ŋale yasiŋađu. Likewise, the first person plural subject requires the verb suffixed with ŋale yasiiđu.

## Second Person

a. nay
isa
nale honađu.yađu

| $2^{\text {nd }} \mathrm{sg}$ | rice | ft per pro eat $2^{\text {nd }}$ eat sg |
| :--- | :---: | :--- |
| You will have been eating rice. |  |  |
| b. niy | nem | ya. nile honiđu.yađu |
| $2^{\text {nd }} \mathrm{pl}$ | home | ft per pro eat $2^{\text {nd }}$ eat sg |

You will have been going home.
Second person singular and plural subjects agree with the verbs which are suffixed with-nale honađu yađu and nile honiđu yaiđu respectively in future perfect perfect progressive aspect.

## Third person

a. to
$3^{\text {rd }} \mathrm{sg}$
isa
rice
He will e eating rice
b. to

## $3^{\text {rd }} \mathrm{sg}$

> isa
rice
She will be eating rice
c. tobay

3 rd pl
nem
home

> čya. le yasiđu
ft perf pro $3^{\text {rd }}$ eat sg

They will be going home.
Third person singular and plural subjects agree with the verbs which are suffixed with-le yasiđu and yale hokyoŋđu respectively in future perfect progressive aspect as in cya. le yasiđu and ya. りale hokyoŋđu.

### 3.4 Comparison: The Thami and English Language

It is clear that English is a member of Indo-Aryan language family in contrast Thami is a member of Tibeto-Burman language family. Because of this fact, number of differences are their in these languages. Considering subject verb agreement system, this heading includes similarities and differences between

Thami and English, Considering subject-verb agreement system. The rules, which are similar between Thami and English, are as follows.

### 3.4.1 Similarities

Similarities, which are elicited from the study, are as follows:

### 3.4. 1.1 Disagreement with Gender

| a. apaye | isa | čya.đu |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| $3^{\text {rd }} \mathrm{sg}(\mathrm{m})$ | rice | sim pres eat $3^{\text {rd }} \mathrm{sg}$ |
| Father eats rice |  |  |
| b. mapaye | isa | čya.đu |
| $3^{\text {rd } \operatorname{sg}(\mathrm{f})}$ | rice | sim pres eat $3^{\text {rd }} \mathrm{sg}$ |
| Mother eats rice. |  |  |

The grammatical category gender does not bring verb inflection in both the Thami and English. For example, in Thami both apaye (M) and mapaye (F) have agreed with the same verb form čya.đu ' in English, both Father (M) and Mother (F) have agreed with the verb 'cuts' in simple present aspect.

### 3.4. 1.2 Disagreement with Honorific Form

a. to
$3^{\text {rd }} \mathrm{sg}$
isa
rice
He eats rice. (Honorifc)

| b to | isa | čya.đu |
| :--- | :---: | :--- |
| $3^{\text {rd }} \mathrm{sg}$ | rice | sim pres eat 3 rd sg |
| He eats rice. (Neutral) |  |  |
| c. to | isa | čya.đu |
| $3^{\text {rd }} \mathrm{sg}$ | rice | sim pres eat $3^{\text {rd }} \mathrm{sg}$ |
| He eats rice. (Non-honorific) |  |  |

In both the Thami and English language, the subject pronouns and the suffixed verbs remain same either to refer seniors or juniors; therefore, both languages do not have the distinctive levels of honorific forms.

### 3.4.1.4 Agreement with Aspect

| a. gai | isa | čya. yađu |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 2 st sg | rice | sim pres eat $1^{\text {st }} \mathrm{sg}$ |
| I eat rice. |  |  |

b. gai
$1^{\text {st }} \mathrm{sg}$
I have eaten rice.
c. gai
$1^{\text {st }} \mathrm{sg}$
Iam eating rice.
d. gai
$1^{\text {st }} \mathrm{sg}$
isa
rice
čya.ko đumŋan pres perf eat $1^{\text {st }}$ ssg rice isa rice čya. ŋale hoŋađu pres pro eat $1^{\text {st }} \mathrm{sg}$

I have been eating rice.

In Thami first person singular subject agrees with the verb forms which are inflected as čhya.„ađu, čya.ko đumŋan, and, čya. ŋale hoŋđu ' in simple, prefect, progressive and prefect progressive aspects respectively. Similarly, in the English language 'go, have gone, is going and have been going' are verb forms in present tense, which correspond with simple, perfect, progressive and prefect progressive aspects respectively.

### 3.4.1.5 Agreement With Third Person Singular and Plural Personal Pronouns in Simple Present Tense

a. to
$3^{\text {rd }} \mathrm{sg}$
isa
rice

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { čya.đu } \\
& \text { sim pres eat } 3^{\text {rd }} \mathrm{sg}
\end{aligned}
$$

He eats rice.

| b toban | isa | čya. yoydu |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| $3^{\text {rd }} \mathrm{pl}$ | rice | sim pres eat 3rd p |
| They eat rice. |  |  |

These examples show that third person singular and plural personal pronouns agree with verbs in the Thami and English. Here, singular subject of Thami language to and S/he of English language agree with čya.đu and eats respectively in simple present tense. Similarly, tobaŋ agrees with čya.yoŋđu in Thami and they agrees with eat in English.

## 3. 4. 1.6 Agreement in Numbers System

a. to
isa
čya.đu
$3^{\text {rd }} \mathrm{sg}$
rice
sim pres eat $3^{\text {rd }}$ sg

He eats rice.
b. tobay
$3^{\text {rd }} \mathrm{pl}$
They eat rice.

Both the Thami and the English language have two numbers: singular and plural. to and $\mathbf{S} / \mathrm{he}$ are third person singular number in Thami and English respectively. Similarly, toban and they are third person plural in Thami and English respectively.

### 3.4.2 Differences.

The points, which differentiate these two languages, are as follows:

### 3.4.2.1 Difference in Agreement with First Person Singular and Plural Personal Pronouns :

| a. gai | isa | čya. yađu |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| $1^{\text {st }} \mathrm{sg}$ | rice | sim pres eat $1^{\text {st }} \mathrm{sg}$ |
| I eat rice. |  |  |
| b. ni | isa | čya.iđu |

$1^{\text {st }} \mathrm{pl} \quad$ rice $\quad$ sim pres eat $1^{\text {st }} \mathrm{pl}$

We eat rice.
These examples present that English first person singular and plural personal pronouns I and we respectively agree with same verb 'eat'. But in Thami language first person singular pronoun gai agrees with čya.,ŋađu and plural pronoun ni agrees with čya.iđu. Hence, first person singular and plural personal pronouns agree with the same verb inflection in English whereas they require separate verb forms in Thami language.

### 3.4.2.2 Difference in Agreement with second Person singular and plural personal pronouns.

a. nay
$2^{\text {nd }} \mathrm{sg}$ you eat rice.
b. nin
$2^{\text {nd }} \mathrm{pl}$
isa
home
isa rice
čya.nađu sim pres go $2^{\text {nd }} \mathrm{sg}$ čya.niđu sim pres eat $2^{\text {nd }} \mathrm{pl}$
You eat rice.

These examples render the fact that English second person singular and plural personal pronouns are realized by the same pronouns and they agree with the same verb inflection, for example, 'you eat rice'. In contrast, the Thami second person pronouns agree with separate verb inflections čya.nađu and čya. niđu respectively.

### 3.4.2.3 Structural difference

Examples from the English Language:
$\begin{array}{ll}\text { a. } & I \\ S\end{array}$
go
V
eat
V
home
O
rice.
O
c.
They
play
V
football O

Examples from the Thami Language:
a.
gai
S
b.
ni
S
c.
nay
These instances are sufficient to show the fact that the basic structure of simple sentences of the English and Thami language is different. In English object is preceded by verb and verb follows subject. In contract, object is followed by verb and subject precedes object in the Thami language.

## CHAPTER-FOUR

## FINDINGS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This section contains the findings of the study. The main objectives of this study were to identify the subject verb agreement of the Thami language, to compare and contrast the subject-verb agreement system of the Thami and English language and to point out pedagogical implications on the basis of the finding elicited from the research study.

### 4.1 Findings of the Study

After the analysis and interpretations of the collected data from native speakers of Thami language, the following facts and figures were found as the major findings.

### 4.1.1 The Thami subject-verb Agreement are as follows

a) The Thami verbs agree with person and number.
b) This language has two numbers: singular and plural.
c) The verbs in Thami do no agree with gender.
d) The Thami verbs agree with aspect.
e) The Thami verbs agree with tense.
f) This language has $\mathbf{S}+\mathbf{O}+\mathbf{V}$ structure.
g) The Thami pronouns and verbs do not agree with honorific forms.

### 4.1.2 The Similarities between the Thami and English Subject-verb Agreement

a) Thami and English verbs do not agree with gender. Same verb form is used for masculine and feminine in both the languages.
b) Thami and English verbs agree with tense i.e. change in tense causes change in verb inflection.
c) Thami and English verbs agree with tense aspect.
d) Thami and English verbs agree with number system.
e) Thami and English verbs agree with the person singular and plural personal pronouns of present tense.

### 4.1.3. The differences between the Thami and English Subject-verb <br> Agreement

a) The Thami sentence structure is $\mathbf{S} \mathbf{+} \mathbf{O}+\mathbf{V}$ but English structure is $\mathrm{S}+\mathrm{O}+\mathrm{V}$.
b) The first person singular and plural personal pronouns agree with the same verb inflection in English where as they require separate verb forms in the Thami language.
c) The Thami second person singular and plural personal pronouns agree with separate verb inflections.
d) Both masculine and feminine third person singular pronouns are represented by the same pronouns in Thami language but different in English.

### 4.2 Recommendations

On the basis of the findings of the study, the recommendations have been made for the pedagogical implications for Thami learners who are learning English as well as for the Thami language learners who are learning English and those who are making plan to study the Thami language.

### 4.2.1 Recommendations for the Thami Learners Learning the English Language

i. The sentence structure of the Thami Language is ' $\mathrm{S}+\mathrm{V}+\mathrm{O}$ ' and English structure is 'S+V+O'. Because of this difference learners may encounter difficulty on this area. Hence, language teachers should make clear comparison between these areas.
ii. The pronouns 'He' and 'She' are used in English to realize male and female respectively but in Thami both are realized by the same pronoun 'to'. The confusion or difficulty created by this fact should be addressed by the teacher in a proper way.
iii. The tense aspect i.e. perfect progressive aspect of Thami and English is different. Hence, the language teachers should make appropriate treatment on this area.
iv. There are several exceptions in English subject-verb agreement system. These exceptions create hindrance for mastering the language in the side of the Thami learners. Therefore, the Thami learners should be made clear about these exceptions with appropriate instances.
v. The curriculum and syllabus designers, course book and text book writers should be careful while designing curriculum and syllabus, and writing text book and course book for the Thami learners who are learning the English language as a second language, because there are many aspects in the Thami subject-verb agreement system which English subject-verb agreement system lacks and vice-versa.

### 4.2.2 Recommendations for Learners of Thami Language

i. The sentence structure of both languages is different. This structural difference can be problematic for English learners. Therefore, the language teachers should focus their teaching on this area.
ii. The subject-verb agreement systems of English and Thami languages are different in most of the aspects. So, the learners having the English native language definitely feel differently in mastering the subject -verb agreement system of the Thami and vice-versa. Hence, language teacher should care and focus on those points and areas where the possibility of committing errors is high.

It would be exaggeration if the researcher claims that this research study is complete, and covers all the subject-verb agreement system of Thami language. It is a small portion of the contrastive analysis but the researcher has spent a deal of time and effort on the study.

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## APPENDIX-1

## Interview Schedule

This interview schedule/ questionnaire is prepared to accomplish the information for research work on 'Subject-Verb Agreement in Thami and English: A Comparative Study' for M.Ed. thesis in English Education under the guidance of Prof. Dr. Tirth Raj Khania. I seek your kind co-operation by responding the following set of questions. Your co-operation will be highly appreciated.
Name: $\qquad$ Date: : $\qquad$
Age: : $\qquad$ Tole : : $\qquad$
District: $\qquad$ VDC: : $\qquad$
Education: : $\qquad$
How do you say the following sentences in Thami language?

1. I follow her.
2. I go home.
3. Shankar! Go to school.
4. You cook rice.
5. Somebody goes there.
6. Two plus two is four.
7. There is a girl.
8. My father is illiterates.
9. He mows grass.

## 10.Shankar and Shambhu are father and son.

11.No news is good news.
12. you are cooking news.
13.I am playing marbles.
14.She is reading a poem.
15.Some boys are crying.
16.He is writing a letter.
17.Pramila is carrying a basket.
18.One third of the people are leaving the village.
19.I have washed my clothes.
20.He has gone to Charikot,
21.They have killed a leopard.
22.I kicked my brother.
23.Sita visited Katmandu.
24.He bought a book yesterday.
25.They built a house.
26.I was painting my house.
27.None of them is my teacher.
28.The majority of people were absent.
29. Neither you nor I was able to catch the fish.
30. You were drawing a picture.
31.He was knocking the door.
32.We were dancing.
33.They were playing volleyball.
34. Some clothes were washed.
35.I had prepared meal.
36. You had lost your pen.
37. He had called me.
38.They had built the temple.
39.Father had beaten me.
40. She had stolen my bag.
41.I had been watching television.
42. You had been crying.
43.It had been running.
44.it had been snowing.
45.They had been working in the field.
46.We shall visit India.
47.I shall wait for $u$
48.He will leave charikot.
49. She will come here.
50.They will prepare local wine.
51.He will be writing a letter.
52.Two boys will be dancing.
53.They will have been waiting.
54.I shall be taking exam.
55. She will have been planting rice.

