

CHAPTER–ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 General Background

English is the second largest mother tongue spoken in the world (Poudel 2010, p.3) but it is spoken in almost all parts of the world. It is spoken even in Nepal as a mother tongue by 1037 people, a small number of populations (Yadava 2003, p.170). It is taught up to bachelor level as a compulsory subject, and thereby a large number of populations in Nepal speak English as a foreign language.

When Prime Minister Janga Bahadur Rana completed his official visit of England, he established English Primary School on the ground floor of his own Thapathali Palace, on 27th Asouj 1910 BS. His only intention of establishing this school was to educate the privileged children in English in order to make international relationship easier and better. This school got affiliated to Calcutta University when Dhir Samsheer was Director General of Public Instructions. Its affiliation was later shifted to Patna University. Then, English was only the medium of instructions.

SLC Board of Nepal, which was established on 16th Kartik 1990, prescribed 8 papers to be completed by the students. Then, English comprised 2 papers; equivalent to 200 marks. Tribhuvan Chandra Intermediate College (now, Tri-Chandra Campus) was opened on 27th Bhadra, 1975 BS. First, it was affiliated to Calcutta University. Thereafter, its affiliation was shifted to Patna University in 1980 BS.

Their medium of instructions except the subjects of languages was English.

English as a foreign language has been a compulsory subject from the primary level to the Bachelor level in Nepal. Even after completing Bachelor level, students are not able to acquire the desired English language competence. It may have several reasons. In Nepal, many languages are spoken. Thereafter, Nepali, which is the only official language till now and *lingua franca* is prescribed as a compulsory subject from the primary school level to Bachelor level.

Rajbangsi children speak Rajbangsi at home and Nepali with their friends and neighbours at school. So, they have double interferences, i.e. they are interfered in learning English by their mother tongue Rajbangsi and their *lingua franca* Nepali. To this researcher, it is not possible to compare the differences between English and Rajbangsi as a whole. So, this research has attempted to study only one language category (i.e. pronominal system) in order to compare and contrast Rajbangsi and English to find out similarities and differences as well as to suggest the pedagogical implications.

While learning ESL or EFL, there remain the effects of mother tongue. Such effects can be either positive or negative or both. Comparative study of any category of the languages (i.e. mother tongue and target language) can make us aware of the situation of both languages. Such awareness may enhance our teaching learning situations.

1.1.1 General Introduction to Language

Language is purely human. In a sense, animals talk to one another. But it is different from human talk. Every human language uses sounds. Not all animal languages do, however. The language of the bees and some other kinds of insects, for instance, uses body movements. Every person has to learn his language. A human baby raised by apes would learn only the language of apes and other animals. To learn a human language, a human baby would have to hear it from humans. But animal talk is not learned. On the contrary, it is inborn. A cat will purr and meow even if it never hears another cat. With any human language, a person can talk about the future and the past. He can discuss ideas—kindness, truth, honesty, justice. He can make almost any number of sentences—including sentences he never heard before. No animal language is so rich in uses and possibilities.

The origins of human language will perhaps remain for ever obscure. By contrast the origin of individual languages has been the subject of very precise study over the past two centuries. It refers to the acquisition of the human ability to use language at some point. The main difficulty of the question stems from the fact that it concerns a development in deep prehistory which left no direct fossil traces and for which no comparable processes can be observed today.

Different definitions of language are found. Language is a systematic resource for expressing meaning in context. According to Halliday (1985), linguistics is the study of how people exchange meanings through the use of language. This view of language as a system for meaning potential implies that language is not a well defined system not “the set of

all grammatical sentences”. It also implies that language exists and therefore must be studied in contexts such as professional settings, classrooms, and language tests.

Because language is defined as a systematic resource, the organizing principle in linguistic description is system (rather than structure). Since language is viewed as a semiotic potential, the description of language is a description of choice. Systemic linguists chart their analyses by diagramming the choices that language users can make in a given setting to realize a particular linguistic product. The available choices depend on aspects of the context in which the language is being used. Choices can be charted on different levels, or strata of language.

Although language has been defined differently, most linguists agree with the fact that language is a body of words and the systems for their use common to people who are of the same community or nation, the same geographical area, or the same cultural tradition. It is a communication by voice in the distinctively human manner, using arbitrary sounds in conventional ways with conventional meanings.

There are about 6500 languages spoken in the world today, but scholars group them together into relatively few families - probably less than twenty. Languages are linked to each other by shared words or sounds or grammatical constructions. The theory is that the members of each linguistic group have descended from one language, a common ancestor. In many cases that original language is judged by the experts to have been spoken in surprisingly recent times - as little as a few thousand years ago.

Speech is what most writing starts out from. Writing is a second hand method of trying to say what the sounds and the signals of language say. Written language is separate from spoken language. Children learn to speak without any special training. But reading and writing—written language—have to be specially taught.

Written language has a life of its own. Every written language was invented long after spoken language began. In fact, not all languages have a written form. Written language also has its own style. For one thing, written language does not change as fast as spoken language. For another thing, people do not commonly write the way they speak. Often writing is more formal. A language is considered to be a system of communicating with other people using sounds, symbols and words in expressing a meaning, idea or thought. This language can be used in many forms, primarily through oral and written communications as well as using expressions through body language.

Primarily, there is a distinction between one language and another; usually it may be through country boundaries, population culture, demographics and history. Each country through combinations of blending cultures, environment and other factors has evolved their own unique style of a language. Although English is spoken in Australia, the United States and the United Kingdom, they all possess different mannerisms, words used and accents. It is also common that many dialects have formed over time in many different towns within the same country. For example, in Nepal eastern dialects differ much from the western dialects.

Three basic strata are the semantics, lexico-grammar, and phonology. However, the number of strata one chooses to include in analysis should depend on the purpose of a given description. For example, in the study of register variation, one might want to add a stratum above the semantic one which would constrain the range of semantic potential (i.e., the meanings that can be expressed) based on aspects of the context. Because language is rich and multi-faceted, the relevant aspects to be highlighted in linguistic research must, in part, be determined by the research objectives. The "strata" perspective of systemic linguistics allows for this flexibility across research.

1.1.2 Introduction to Contrastive Analysis

It was after World War II that a great interest of foreign language teaching took place in the US, and as part of interest, Contrastive Analysis (CA) was recognised as an important part of foreign language teaching methodology to them.

CA was founded on the assumption that language could be compared, and as the term contrastive implies, contrastivists were more interested in differences between languages than in their similarities. As a result, many researches began to appear with pedagogically oriented bases. Their aim was to discover and predict learning difficulties by comparing the native and the foreign language.

Since 1940s, the linguists and teachers were basically interested not only in contrastive analysis but also error analysis, performance analysis and inter-language studies. All of them were interested in the comparison of languages.

Larsen-Freeman and Long mentions,

The role of L_1 is considerably more complex than not as negative as (it) was first thought by proponents of the contrastive analysis hypothesis. L_1 influence can lead to errors, overproduction and constraints on hypotheses but it works in cooperation, rather than in conflict, with universal developmental processes (1991, p 106).

Contrastive analysis studies are still conducted and in the use of language teaching, even though more research needs to be done in order to determine how to incorporate L_1 in foreign language teaching. To ignore L_1 in the foreign language teaching means almost certainly to teach with less than maximum efficiency. In the FLT there is inevitable association in the mind between the new language and the one already known.

Contrastive analysis is considered to have first advocated by Fries-Lado school in America. Fries brought the idea of contrastive analysis, whereas Lado made it more direct and explicit by developing a technique to carry out it.

Contrastive analysis assumes that language learning is the matter of habit formation. The mind at birth is tabula rasa like a blank sheet of paper. When a child learns L_2 his mind is full of L_1 . Lado (1957) opines that mother tongue interference is the main cause of difficulties in learning a second language. The greater the differences between L_1 and L_2 , the greater the difficulties the learners feel. It means learning is hindered by the differences between past and present learning. Hindrances cause learning difficult. If there are difficulties in learning, there are errors in performance.

Comparison between L₁ and L₂ helps predict the areas of difficulties. Likewise, appropriate teaching learning materials can be prepared on the basis of contrastive analysis.

This contrastive analysis will help finding out pronominal similarities and differences between Rajbangsi and English languages. It helps find out the difficulties that a Rajbangsi faces while learning English as a foreign language.

1.1.3 Sociolinguistic Situation

Ninety-two languages are identified according to Population Census 2001 (CBS 2003, pp.169-171) in Nepal. Only 34 languages have more than ten thousand native speakers. Twenty-nine languages contain the population less than one thousand. Seventeen languages have less than one hundred speakers. Even the foreign languages are also included in the census report of 2001. Poudel (2010, p.2) mentions,

Previously, some languages were supposed to be the dialects but not the separate languages in the reports of population censuses but the later census report has recognized them as the separate languages. Some linguistic works might have clarified their linguistic positions. Twenty-three languages recorded in 2001 were not enumerated in the earlier censuses. For example, the Rai\ Kiranti was a single entry in the censuses held from 1952\54 to 1991, whereas it has been separated into 24 languages in 2001. Sunuwar was mentioned as a separate language since the 1st Census in 1952/54....

Many languages are endangered because of migration of the people to the urban areas and their contact with the people of other language groups.

Besides, low prestige for the language, contact with other languages, and government policy are strong reasons of their being backward.

1.1.4 Language Families in Nepal

The greater Himalayan region sustains over 150 million people and is home to many of Asia's most endangered languages. Moving across the region, Afghanistan boasts 47 living languages, Bangladesh is home to 39, Bhutan has 24, China 235, India 415, Myanmar 108, Nepal 123, and Pakistan 72 (*Ethnologue* 2005, online edition).

There are a good number of language families in the world. In Nepal languages from 4 distinct language families are spoken. They are Indo-European, Tibeto-Burman, Austro-Asiatic, and Dravidian.

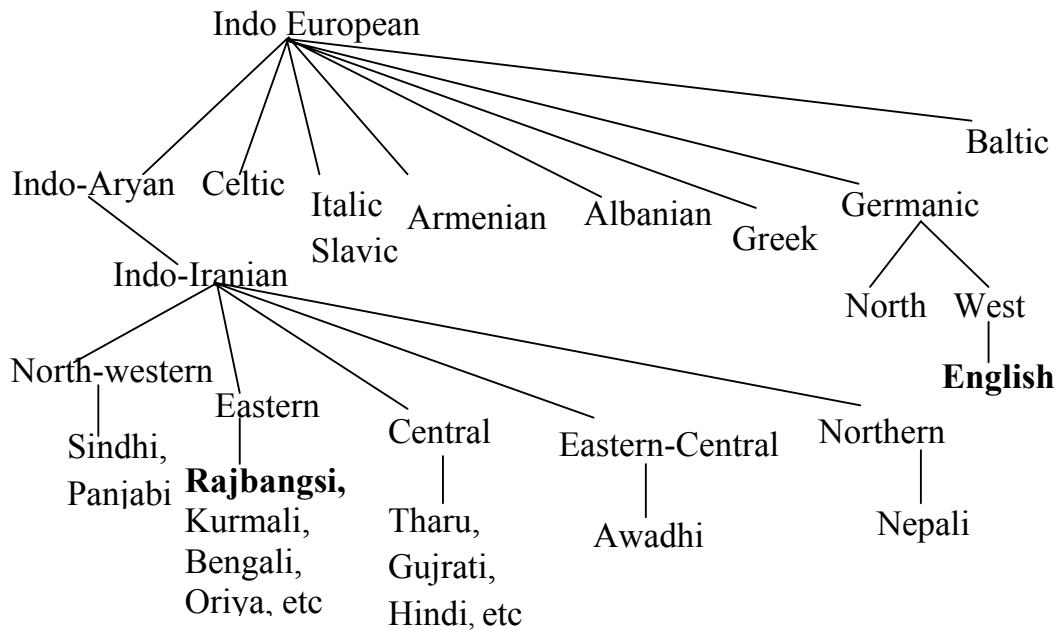
1.1.41 Indo-European Languages

The most widespread group of languages today is the Indo-European, spoken by half of the world population. This entire group, ranging from Hindi and Persian to Norwegian and English, is believed to descend from the language of a tribe of nomads roaming the plains of eastern Europe and western Asia (in modern terms centring on the Ukraine) as recently as about 3000 BC.

From about 2000 BC people speaking Indo-European languages begin to spread through Europe, eventually reaching the Atlantic coast and the northern shores of the Mediterranean. They also penetrate far into Asia - occupying the Iranian plateau and much of India.

Indo-Iranian languages are a branch of the Indo-Aryan languages¹, which belong to the Indo-European language family. Both Rajbangsi and English belong to Indo-European language family. Let us identify them in a tree diagram of Indo-European family of languages:

Figure No. 1
Rajbangsi and English in Indo-European family



(Source: Yadava, 2003, p.145)

As mentioned above, both Rajbangsi and English have been derived from the same language family, *i.e.*, Indo-European. Indo-European family consists of many groups of languages. The Germanic, or Teutonic, group includes the Scandinavian languages—Danish, Norwegian, Swedish, and

¹ SIL International in a 2005 estimate counted a total of 209 varieties, the largest in terms of native speakers being Hindustani (Standard Hindi and Urdu, about 640 million), Bengali (about 260 million), Punjabi (about 100 million), Marathi (about 90 million), Gujarati (about 45 million), Oriya (about 30 million), Nepali (about 20 million), Sindhi (about 20 million), Sinhala (about 16 million), Saraiki (about 14 million) and Assamese (about 14 million) with a total number of native speakers of more than 900 million. They form a subgroup of the Indo-Iranian languages, which consists of two other language groups: the Iranian and Nuristani.

Icelandic. German is commonly divided into High German and Low German. High German includes the dialects of southern Germany, the dialects of Austria, and the German dialects of Switzerland. Dutch, Flemish (spoken in Belgium), and the dialects of northern Germany make up Low German. Afrikaans, an offshoot of Dutch, is spoken in South Africa. English, which is also a Germanic language, is closely related to Dutch. But even closer to English is Frisian, spoken mostly in the northern Netherlands. Yiddish, a language of the Jewish people, is for the most part a High German of the Middle Ages.

The Romance group of languages descended from Latin. After the Roman Empire fell apart, the Latin dialects of the different regions grew farther and farther apart. Best known of the Romance languages are French, Spanish, Portuguese, Italian, and Romanian. Provençal, a name for the dialects of southern France, is sometimes considered a separate language. Catalan is spoken mostly in eastern Spain. Romansh is spoken in Switzerland.

The Balto-Slavic group consists of the Baltic languages and the Slavic languages. Lithuanian and Latvian (or Lettish) languages are Baltic. The Slavic languages include Russian, spoken in Russia; Ukrainian, spoken in Ukraine; and Belarusian (or White Russian), spoken in Belarus. Czech and Slovak, spoken in the Czech Republic and Slovakia, are closely related. Indeed they might be called varieties of the same language. Serbo-Croatian is one language written in two alphabets—Croatian in Roman letters, Serbian in the Cyrillic alphabet. It is spoken chiefly in Serbia, Croatia, and Bosnia and Herzegovina. Other Slavic languages include Polish and Bulgarian.

The Celtic group of languages, once spoken over a large territory, today is used only in the British Isles and northwestern France. The number of speakers is small. Irish Gaelic and Scottish Gaelic are Celtic languages. Welsh, spoken in Wales, and Breton, a language of Brittany in northwestern France, form another branch of Celtic.

The Indo-Iranian group consists of Indic languages and Iranian languages. Persian (or Farsi) is an Iranian language. So are Pashto (or Pushtu), spoken in Afghanistan and Pakistan; and Kurdish, spoken in Kurdistan. Baluchi, spoken mostly in Pakistan and Iran, also is an Iranian language. Sanskrit is an Indic language. It is the oldest living Indo-European language, and is now used chiefly as the sacred language of Hinduism. Hindi, the leading language of northern India, and Urdu, the national language of Pakistan, are also Indic languages. Both Hindi and Urdu are varieties of the same language. But Urdu has more Persian and Arabic words and is written with a different alphabet. Other Indic languages include Bengali, Panjabi, Gujarati, Marathi, Rajasthani, Bihari, Kashmiri, Oriya, Sindhi, Assamese, and Nepali. Sinhalese, spoken in Sri Lanka, is also an Indic language. And so is the Romany language of the Rom people, a group formerly referred to as Gypsies.

Greek belongs to a separate language group within the Indo-European family. The same is true of Armenian and of Albanian. An Indo-European language called Tocharian was once spoken in what is now Xinjiang, China. The language of the Hittites, a people who inhabited Anatolia in ancient times, was also Indo-European.

Geographically the most widespread language on Earth is English, and it is second only to Mandarin Chinese in the number of people who speak

it. English is the national language of the United Kingdom, the United States, Australia, and New Zealand. It is one of the two national languages of Canada. It is an official or semiofficial language in many former and present British possessions such as South Africa, India, and Hong Kong.

Forging the English language into its present form was dependent on the bringing together of several early linguistic traditions over many centuries, dating from pre-Roman times in the British Isles. To this process was added a measure of standardization at a much later date.

The language of the ancient Britons was Celtic, and it survives in Modern Welsh, which is still the language of Wales. When the Romans conquered England, they introduced a number of Latin words. After the Romans withdrew, the conquest lost impact, and Latin had to be reintroduced when the islands were converted to Christianity in the 6th and 7th centuries.

The periods of development of the English language are called Old English (or Anglo-Saxon), Middle English, and Modern English. Old English was spoken from about AD 449 to 1100. The first invasion by the Jutes, Angles, and Saxons from the area of northern Germany and southern Denmark occurred in 449. Old English was very inflected: it had a complicated system of grammatical changes to indicate case, number, person, and tense. Because of the settlement patterns of the invading tribes, four Old English dialects developed: Northumbrian, Mercian, West Saxon, and Kentish.

The Norman Conquest of 1066 brought in Norman French and eventually placed the four Old English dialects on an even footing. The center of

culture gradually shifted to London, and usages there slowly came to dominate. Latin persisted for centuries as the language of the church and of learning.

Middle English lasted from about 1100 to 1450 and was less highly inflected than its predecessor. During this period the Statute of Pleadings (1362) made English instead of French the official language of Parliament and the courts.

After the dawn of the 16th century the movement toward the development of Modern English prose was swift. It was aided by the printing of certain literary works that helped standardize the language. In 1525 William Tyndale published his translation of the New Testament. The next 90 years were the golden age of English literature, culminating in the plays of Shakespeare and in publication of the King James Version of the Bible in 1611. Apart from printing literary works, another means of standardization was the dictionary. The first significant dictionary was compiled and published by Samuel Johnson in 1755.

Rajbangsi belongs to eastern sub-group of Indo-Aryan group, Indo Iranian sub-family of Indo European family of languages. Rajbangsi people reside in Jhapa, Morang and Sunsari. They have their own language, i.e. Rajbangsi.

1.1.42 Tibeto-Burman Languages

The Sino-Tibetan family has many groups of languages. Of these, the best known is the group called Chinese. Chinese has about half a dozen main dialects, so-called. But they are, for practical purposes, separate languages. They are very different—in sounds and vocabulary mostly.

And the speakers of one dialect cannot understand the speakers of another. Northern Chinese (or Mandarin) is considered the standard language of China. Other Chinese languages include Wu, Min (or Fukienese), Hakka, and Cantonese (or Yue). Most Chinese in Taiwan speak Min. Cantonese is used by most of the Chinese speakers in the United States.

Tibetan and Burmese also belong to the Sino-Tibetan family. Sometimes they are considered one group, sometimes two. Another group includes Thai and Lao. Thai is spoken in Thailand mostly, Lao mostly in Laos. The Miao-Yao languages are sometimes considered Sino-Tibetan. They are spoken by tribal people in southwest China, northern Myanmar, and Indochina.

The Tibeto-Burman family of languages comprises languages spoken in various central, east, south and southeast Asian countries, including Burma (Myanmar), Tibet, northern Thailand, Vietnam, Laos, parts of central China (Guizhou and Hunan), northern mountains and middle hills of Nepal, eastern parts of Bangladesh (Chittagong Division), Bhutan, northern parts of Pakistan (Baltistan), and various regions of India (Himachal Pradesh, Uttarakhand, the Ladakh and Kargil regions of Jammu and Kashmir, and North-East India). It is important to note that major languages in these nations such as Vietnamese are not Tibeto-Burman (nor even Sino-Tibetan) languages while there are Tibeto-Burman languages spoken in these mentioned countries.

The family includes approximately 350 languages; Burmese has the most speakers (approximately 32 million), assuming the exclusion of Chinese.

Approximately 8 million Tibetans and related peoples speak one of several related Tibetan languages.

1.1.43 Dravidian Languages

The Dravidian family of languages is spoken mostly in southern India. They include Telugu, Tamil, Kanarese (or Kannada), and Malaya-lam. Tamil is also spoken in Sri Lanka. Brahui, a Dravidian language, is used in Pakistan and Iran.

The Dravidian family of languages includes approximately 85 languages, spoken by around 200 million people. They are mainly spoken in southern India and parts of eastern and central India as well as in northeastern Sri Lanka, Pakistan, Nepal, Bangladesh, Afghanistan, Iran, and overseas in other countries such as Malaysia and Singapore. Among them Telugu, Tamil, Kannada and Malayalam are the members with the most speakers. There are also small groups of Dravidian-speaking scheduled tribes, who live beyond the mainstream communities. It is often speculated that Dravidian languages are native to India. Epigraphically the Dravidian languages have been attested since the 6th century BC. Jhagad is the only Dravidian language spoken in Nepal.

1.1.44 Austro-Asiatic Languages

The Austro-Asiatic or Malayo-Polynesian, family is spoken from Madagascar, off the coast of Africa, to Hawaii. One of its best-known languages is Malay. The standard languages of Malaysia and Indonesia are varieties of Malay. Tagalog, Visayan, and Ilocano, all spoken in the Philippines, also belong to this family. So does Malagasy, a language spoken on the island of Madagascar.

Maori, spoken in New Zealand, is an Austro-Asiatic language. And related languages are spoken in many of the South Sea Islands. These include Fiji in the Fiji Islands, Samoan in the Samoan Islands, Tahitian in the Society Islands, and Hawaiian in the Hawaiian Islands.

The Austro-Asiatic languages are a large language family even of Southeast Asia, and also scattered throughout India and Bangladesh. The name comes from the Latin word for "south" and the Greek name of Asia, hence "South Asia." Among these languages, only Khmer, Vietnamese, and Mon have a long established recorded history, and only Vietnamese and Khmer have official status (in Vietnam and Cambodia, respectively). The rest of the languages are spoken by minority groups. Ethnologue identifies 168 Austro-Asiatic languages. These are traditionally divided into two families, Mon-Khmer and Munda, but two recent classifications have abandoned Mon-Khmer as a valid node, although this is tentative and not generally accepted.

Austro-Asiatic languages have a disjunct distribution across India, Bangladesh and Southeast Asia, separated by regions where other languages are spoken. It is widely believed that the Austro-Asiatic languages are the autochthonous languages of Southeast Asia and the eastern Indian subcontinent, and that the other languages of the region, including the Indo-European, Kradai, Dravidian and Sino-Tibetan languages, are the result of later migrations of people. Satar\Santhal is the only Austro-Asiatic language spoken in Nepal.

1.1.5 Introduction to Rajbangsi

The Rajbangsis are mainly concentrated in the Terai and Dooars region in Jalpaiguri District, India. They are considered to be one of the sixteen

numerically important schedule castes of the Jalpaiguri District, India. Though according to anthropologists, they disowned affiliation with any tribal group there are reasons to believe that they are converted Koches.

The castes like Rajbangsis, Koches and the Paliyas have the same origin and they come from a Dravidian stock with a possible admixture of Mongolian blood. Speaking a distinct dialect of Bengali, the Rajbangsis most declared Bengali as their mother tongue during Census of 1961.

Rajbangsis live in the Nepal-India borderlands of the districts of Jhapa and Morang in Nepal. Anthropologists opine that they are the kiths and kin of the peripheral Koch people of the adjacent states of West Bengal and Assam in India. Though having Mongoloid features –they consider themselves as a branch of the Kirants –their language is akin to Bengali and Assamese.

It is conjectured that they belong to a mixed race of Australasian or Dravidian and Mongolian. The name Rajbangsi was given after 1515 AD. The original tribal name of Rajbangsis is Koch or Koche. Worshippers of nature and followers of shamanistic religion were indigenous Koch people, who have changed their names to Rajbangsi after coming into contact with Hindus. Their structure is like those of a mix of Aryan-Mongoloid, Austric, Negroid, and Dravidian.

Panday (2063, p.10) mentions that Rajbangsi and Koche are synonymous. Population census reports have presented Koche and Rajbangsi as different ethnic groups and different language speakers.

Rajbangsi people are said to be originated in Zalpaigudi between Assam and Bengal of India in about ninth or tenth century AD. In the 14th

century Koch Rajbangsi by name Dhanuzmardan ruled over there, and his capital city was Danujpur. Those Koch Rajbangsi people entered Nepal and started living in Jhapa, Morang and Sunsari of Eastern Nepal.

Mythologically, Rajbangsi people were Kshatris by caste. When Parshuram started to massacre all Kshatris in Treta Yug, they entered forest and ate forbidden garlic, chicken, etc. to be disguised. They left wearing sacred thread. Thereafter, they lost their Kshatri identity (Panday 2063, p.101).

Koch Rajbangsi people are said to be the descendants of Keechak, commander of king Birat and who was killed by Bhim, as described in Mahabharata. Whatever the myths support, these people may be the descendents of royal family, as literally *raj* stands for royal and *bangsi* stands for "dynasty".

CBS has recognized Rajbangsi and Koche as distinct ethnic people and languages. According to population Census 2001, Rajbangsi people are 95,812 and Koche people are 1429. In totality, they are 97,241. Fifty-two people out of 1429 speak Koche, and 95,812 out of 129,771 are Rajbangsi speakers (Yadava 2003, p.141).

Rajbangsi speakers are 0.57% in Nepal. Let us show their population on the basis of reports of different population censuses held from 1952/1954 to 2001.

Table No. 1
Rajbangsi speakers in Nepal

Years	1952/54	1961	1971	1981	1991	2001
Speakers	35,543	55,803	55,124	59,384	85,558	129,771
Percentage	0.43	0.59	0.48	0.40	0.46	0.57

The above table shows that 0.40 % to 0.59 % of total population of Nepal is Rajbangsi speakers. The number of speakers has been decreased in 1971. On the basis of percentage, their number seems to be decreasing in 1971 and 1981. Thereafter, we find slightly increasing number. The highest percentage seems to be in 1961, i.e., 0.59%.

1.1.6 Bilingualism and Multilingualism

People from other language speaking communities live in the neighborhood of Rajbangsi people in Jhapa. Then, they speak Nepali as their *lingua franca*. So, most of them are obviously bilingual.

Since the Indian subcontinent was a colony of Britain, the classical Persian and Sanskrit words are increasingly being replaced by their equivalents in the English language. This development is more apparent in the urban and affluent regions and especially among the younger generation that has better access to English education and media.

English has been mentioned as one of the national languages in the population census report 2001, as 1037 people speak English² as their

² It does not state in which part of Nepal English is spoken as the mother tongue.

mother tongue in Nepal (Yadava 2003, p.156). A few Rajbangsi people are well-educated; they have acquired Master's Degree, too. Some of them go to India for job. Such people can speak Hindi, English, Nepali and Rajbangsi. Consequently, they are multilingual.

1.1.7 Pronominal System

When we use language whether it is written or spoken, repetition of the long word or group of words may make our language very tiresome and monotonous. No doubt, we can do by repeating the noun group but pronouns may make the statements less repetitive even to show how subjects and objects in clauses are connected. Pronouns may play important roles in cohesion, too.

There are different types of pronouns: personal pronouns, reciprocal pronouns, indefinite pronouns, demonstrative pronouns and relative pronouns. Personal pronouns may have possessive and reflexive forms. Personal pronouns are identified on the basis of the pronouns what the speaker uses for him\her, for the listener whom s\he is speaking to, and the persons except the speaker and listeners. The speakers and listeners can be of any number. Besides, they may have different constituent orders.

They have different grammatical agreement and uses. All categories, grammatical agreements and uses pronouns are studied in pronominal system.

1.2 Review of Related Literature

Books and articles that deal with pronouns and pronominal system have been studied to get good insight of pronouns and pronominal system.

Some books written about typological pronouns and Rajbangsi people and their language have been studied.

Givon (1984) mentions typological study of different grammatical categories. It has also portrayed pronouns and pronominal system along with the examples from different languages. It deals with how the pronouns are studied semantically and/or pragmatically. Pronouns can be studied on the basis of participant deixis, number, inclusion/exclusion, spatial deixis and case roles. Case roles can be pragmatic and semantic.

Masica has elaborated typological grammatical elements of Indo-Aryan languages. This researcher has studied mainly the pronouns (1990, pp. 251-56) along with the examples from 24 languages of Indo-Aryan language family (Table 8.3 in Masica 1990, pp. 251-56). It deals with the possible occurrences and differences of different elements of pronominal system. It provides good insight of Indo-Aryan pronouns.

Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia mentions that Rajbangsi is spoken by 3 million people in India, Bangladesh and Nepal. Its other names are Kamtapuri, Rajbangsi, Rajbongshi and Tajpuri. Its main dialects are central Rajbangsi, western Rajbangsi, eastern Rajbangsi hills (<http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Rajbangsilanguage>. Retrieved October 27, 2008). Western dialect has more diversity. Its lexical similarity is 48% to 55% with Hindi, 43% to 49% with Nepali (*ibid*).

Cowan (2008) deals with English grammar. Out of 26 chapters Chapter 13 describes pronouns (pp.266-292). It mainly deals with personal pronouns. Celce-Murcia and Larsen-Freeman (1999) deals with pronouns in English, specially, deictic shifts, emphatic reflexive, indefinite, possessive, and reciprocal.

M Ed thesis on pronouns seems to have begun in the Central Department of English Education only in 2004. Then, Phyak (2004) carried out a study on Limbu and English Pronominal: A Linguistic Comparative Study.

Thereafter, other researchers did their studies on pronouns. They are Lama (2005) on English and Tamang Pronominals: A Comparative Study, M. Rai (2005) on Pronominal in English and Chhintang Rai Language, Bhat (2005) on Pronominal in English and Raji Language: A Comparative Study, Sharma (2006) on English and Bajjika Pronominals: A Comparative Study, Rosyara (2007) on Pronominals in English and Doteli Dialect of Nepali, A. K. Yadav (2007) on Pronominals in Maithili and English, Gautam (2007) on Pronominals in English & Dura Languages: A Comparative Study, B. K. Rai (2007) on A Comparative Study on Pronominals in English & Athapahariya Rai, Bhattarai (2007) on Pronominals in English and Jhagar Languages: A Comparative Study, N. S. Rai (2008) on Sampang Rai & English Pronominals: A Comparative Study, and Ghimire (2008) on Magar and English Pronominals: A Comparative Study.

These theses are based on field work. The collected data are explained, analysed and described. Thereafter, they are compared with English pronouns. Lastly, they have suggested pedagogical implications.

All above-mentioned sources have given to the researcher certain insight of the concerning pronominal study, as they contain to any extent the information about pronominal system, Rajbangsi people and their language positions.

1.3 Objectives of the Study

The objectives of this study were:

- i) To identify pronominal system of Rajbangsi,
- ii) To compare Rajbangsi and English pronominal properties, like inclusiveness and exclusiveness, number markers, gender markers, and case markers, and verb inflections as restricted by pronouns, and
- iii) To point out pedagogical implications.

1.4 Significance of the Study

There are a good number of endangered languages, which are urgent to be documented. Rajbangsi in Nepal is one endangered and marginalized language. Consequently, documentation of pronominal system of Rajbangsi will be one important step in this field.

This study will be significant to the interested people who want further study of Rajbangsi. Students of this language will get scientific analysis or documentation of one grammatical category: i.e., pronominal system.

English language teachers working in Rajbangsi community will get way out how they have to teach English in classroom.

Other people who are interested in learning pronominal system of any language may be benefited as they may get linguistic insight to study this grammatical category. Lastly, it may be useful even for the textbook writers of Rajbangsi language.

1.5 Limitations of the Study

This study has the following limitations:

- i) It has studied only the pronominal system of Rajbangsi but not other language categories.
- ii) It has studied only the Rajbangsi variety spoken in the Rajbangsi community of Charpane Village Development Committee of Jhapa.
- iii) To study English pronominal system, Celce-Murcia and Larsen-Freeman (1999) and Cowan (2008) have been taken as the main sources. It has not gone beyond the information mentioned in these books.

CHAPTER–TWO

METHODOLOGY

This chapter deals with the methodology that was adopted to collect the language corpus, and to analyse and interpret the data as well as the preparation of this thesis.

2.1 Sources of Data

The researcher used both primary and secondary sources of the data.

2.1.1 Primary Sources

The researcher collected the data of Rajbangsi pronouns from the field visits, i.e., Charpane VDC of Jhapa. The native speakers of Rajbangsi were the primary sources of this study. These informants were from different age groups from 15 to 60.

Its field area was Charpane Village Development Committee, of Jhapa, Mechi. It has been shown in the following map of Jhapa district:

Figure 2

Map of Charpane in Jhapa district



2.1.2 Secondary Sources

Library study was another source to collect the data of English pronouns. Most specifically, Celce-Murcia and Larsen-Freeman (1999) and Cowan (2008) were studied. Other available books and articles written about Rajbangsi people and their language as well as other English grammar books were studied to acquire the insight to go into the research work.

2.2 Population of Study

Informants, who were between the age of 20 and 65, and from whom the information was obtained during the field visit of two weeks, were the population of the study.

2.3 Sampling Procedures

Rajbangsi communities of Charpane Village Development Committee were selected as the field area. This researcher visited the village and spent two weeks to collect language corpus. Nine informants of different sex and age were selected from the same locality to get the information. Random sampling technique was used to select the informants.

2.4 Tools for Data Collection

Direct observation, questionnaire, and interviews were other sources of collecting corpus from Rajbangsi. A handy tape recorder was used to record how they spoke. Books of English grammars were studied to collect the data from the English language.

2.5 Process of Data Collection

- i) The researcher visited the field and got the permission from the concerned people of Charpane of Jhapa.
- ii) She selected the informants who were fluent in their mother tongue.
- iii) She used the questionnaires and a handy tape recorder to collect the information.
- iv) A bilingual who was fluent in both Nepali and Rajbangsi was requested to help the researcher understand in Nepali.
- v) The researcher translated the whole information into English in order to describe, interpret and analyze.

- vi) Information of English pronouns was collected from Celce-Murcia and Larsen-Freeman (1999) and Cowan (2008).

2.6 Interlinear Glosses and Framework

The collected language corpuses both from the field and library study have been described and interpreted. While giving the examples of words\sentences from Rajbangsi, they have been written in *italics* along with interlinear glosses and thereafter free translation within single inverted commas (‘’). Examples from English have been given as usual, i.e., no interlinear glosses have been given.

The linguistic framework to study pronouns of Rajbangsi and English has been descriptive and contrastive.

CHAPTER–THREE

ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION OF DATA

Language corpus concerning pronominal system in Rajbangsi was collected from the field of study, i.e. Charpane of Jhapa, whereas such data of English was collected from English grammar books, specifically, Celce-Murcia and Larsen-Freeman (1999) and Cowan (2008).

Pronouns in both languages have been morpho-syntactically studied. Pronoun inflections in both languages are not alike. For instance, the persons in both languages have singular and plural but English lacks honorificity.

All these data have been compared, analyzed and interpreted.

3.1 Positions of Pronouns

The positions of pronouns in these two languages, i.e. Rajbangsi and English are discussed and presented below:

3.1.1 Positions of Rajbangsi Pronouns

Rajbangsi pronouns in subject position are unmarked but they can be inflected for object, genitive and ergative cases³. Besides, pronouns are compounded with free morpheme *-a:pne* to refer to reflexive meaning. Pronouns based on their positions are illustrated in Table 2.

³ Compound pronouns in Rajbangsi occur to refer to reflexive meanings.

Table No. 2

Positions of Rajbangsi pronouns

Person ↓	Hon\ Non-Hon ↓	Cases				
			Subject	Object	Genitive	Ergative
1 st		Sg	<i>mui</i>	<i>mo-k</i>	<i>mo-r</i>	<i>mui-e</i>
		Pl	<i>ha:ma:</i>	<i>ha:ma:-k</i>	<i>ha:ma:-r</i>	<i>ha:ma:-e</i>
2 nd	Non-Hon	Sg	<i>tui</i>	<i>to-k</i>	<i>to-r</i>	<i>tui-e</i>
		Pl	<i>ta:ma:-ha:</i>	<i>ta:ma:-ha:-k</i>	<i>ta:ma:ha:-r</i>	<i>ta:ma:ha:-e</i>
	Hon	Sg	<i>ta:ma:-ha:</i>	<i>ta:ma:-ha:-k</i>	<i>ta:ma:ha:-r</i>	<i>ta:ma:ha:-e</i>
		Pl	<i>ta:ma:-ha:-la:</i>	<i>ta:ma:-ha:-la:-k</i>	<i>ta:ma:ha:-la:-r</i>	<i>ta:ma:ha:-la:-e</i>
3 rd	Non-Hon	Sg	<i>ama:</i>	<i>ama:-k</i>	<i>ama:-r</i>	<i>ama:-e</i>
		Pl	<i>ama:-ha:</i>	<i>ama:ha:-k</i>	<i>ama:ha:-r</i>	<i>ama:ha:-e</i>
	Hon	Sg	<i>waha:</i>	<i>waha:-k</i>	<i>waha:-r</i>	<i>waha:-e</i>
		Pl	<i>waha:-la:</i>	<i>waha:-la:-k</i>	<i>waha:-la:-r</i>	<i>waha:-la:-e</i>

Pronoun markers are *-k*, *-r* and *-e* which refer to object, genitive and ergative, respectively. Subject pronoun lacks the morphological marker. Morphophonemically, *ui* is changed into *o* when object and genitive markers are added to the first and second person singular pronouns *mui* and *tui*, respectively.

Non-past tense and non-perfective transitive verb and intransitive verb of any tense and aspect do not take any ergative marker. Ergativity occurs when transitive verb in past tense and/or perfective aspect comes, e.g.

- (1) *mui to-k ama:-r kiṭa:p di-m*
 I you-DAT s\he-GEN book give-Npt 1
 'I give you her\his book'
- (2) *ṭama:-ha:-e k^ha: na: k^ha: -lan*
 you:Pl-PL-ERG food eat-Pt2
 'You ate food.'
- (3) *ha:ma: -e k^ha:na ha:ma:-a:pne k^ha-n*
 I:Pl-ERG food we-self eat-Pt1
 'We ate food ourselves.'

Unmarked pronoun is in subject position, as no marker is there with *mui* in (1), as it comes to subject position of the non-past verb *di:m*. Ergative marker *-e* is added to the pronouns *tama:-ha:* and *ha:ma:* in the sentences (2-3), as they are in past tense and their verbs are transitive. Object marker *-k* in *to-k* in (1) and genitive marker *-r* in *ama:-r* in (1) indicates object and genitive cases, respectively.

3.1.2 Positions of English Pronouns

English pronouns in subject position are unmarked, whereas they are inflected for object, genitive and reflexive. English pronouns based on the case markers are illustrated in Table 3.

Table No. 3

Positions of English pronouns

Person ↓		Subject	Object	Genitive		Reflexive
				Adjectival	Nominal	
1 st	Sg	I	me	my	mine	myself
	Pl	we	us	our	ours	ourselves
2 nd	Sg	you	you	your	yours	yourself
	Pl	you	you	your	yours	yourselves
3 rd	Sg	he	him	his	his	himself
		she	her	her	hers	herself
		it	it	its	its	itself
	Pl	they	them	their	theirs	themselves

Subject forms are unmarked, whereas the others are derived from the nominatives. Second person pronouns are not restricted by number except in reflexives. Reflexive markers -self and -selves refer to singular and plural markers respectively. Both object and nominal genitive of third person masculine singular is the same word 'his'. Third person non-human singular 'it' is the same in both subject and object positions. Pronouns 'his' and 'its' are the same in both genitive forms. In other cases the markers are distinctive.

3.2 Persons in Pronouns

The persons in pronouns in Rajbangsi and English are discussed and presented below:

3.2.1 Persons in Rajbangsi Pronouns

Rajbangsi pronouns based on persons are given in Table: 4.

Table No. 4
Persons in Rajbangsi pronouns

Persons →	First	Second	Third
Singular	<i>mui</i>	<i>ɬui</i> <i>ɬama:-ha:</i>	<i>ama:</i> <i>wa:ha:</i>
Plural	<i>ha:ma:-ha:</i>	<i>ɬama:-ha:</i> <i>ɬama:-ha:-la</i>	<i>ama:-ha:</i> <i>wa:ha:-la:</i>

As shown in Table 4, first person and second person singular pronouns differ only in their first sound, i. e., *m* in first person singular and *t* in second person singular. Likewise, first person and second person plural pronouns differ in the first sound, i.e., *h* in first person plural and *t* in second person plural one. All third person pronouns and first and second person plural pronouns end with vowel sound *-a:*. Personal pronouns lack the gender markers, as the same pronouns can be used for both biological genders. Pronouns can restrict the verbs, e.g.

- (4) *mui* *g^har* *za:-m*
 I house go-Npt:1
 ‘I go home.’
- (5) *ha:ma:* *g^har* *za:-m*
 I:Pl house go-Npt:1
 ‘We go home.’
- (6) *ɬui* *g^har* *za:-bo*
 you: S, Non Hon house go-Npt:2
 ‘You go home.’

- (7) *ʔa:ma:-ha:* *g^har* *za:-ban*
 you: Pl-Pl house go-Npt:2
 ‘You (one) go home.’ <Hon>
- (8) *ʔa:ma:-ha:* *g^har* *za:-ban*
 you: Pl-Pl house go-Npt:2
 ‘You (more than one) go home.’ <Non Hon >
- (9) *ʔa:ma:-ha:* *g^har* *za:-ban-go*
 you: Pl -Pl house go-Npt:2-Hon
 ‘You (one) go home’ <Hon>
- (10) *ʔa:ma:-ha:-la:* *g^har* *za:-ban-go*
 you: Pl-Pl-Pl house go-Npt:2-Hon
 ‘You go home.’ <Hon>
- (11) *ama:* *g^har* *za:-be*
 she house go – Npt:3
 ‘She goes home.’
- (12) *ama:* *g^har* *za:-be*
 he House go-Npt: 3
 ‘He goes home.’

Different pronouns restrict the verb inflections as shown in (4-12) above. First person verb marker for both singular and plural is *-m* as in (4-5). Second person singular verb marker in Non-honorific is *-bo* as in (6), whereas plural markers are *-ban* as in (8-10). To show honorificity for single person, plural pronoun and plural verb marker without honorific marker is used as in (7). To show honorificity for more than one person, honorific marker *-go* follows the plural verb marker *-ban* as in (9-10). There occurs no gender marker, and thereby no gender restricts the verbs as in (11-12).

3.2.2 Persons in English Pronouns

Persons in English pronouns are given in Table 5.

Table No. 5

Persons in English pronouns

Person→	First	Second	Third
Singular	I	You	he she it
Plural	we	you	they

So far as English persons in pronouns are concerned, they lack distinct person markers. They are distinctly free morphemes. For both singular and plural second person pronouns, the same 'you' is used. Singularity and plurality restrict the verbs in non-past tense and past 'be-verb'. Third person singular subjects (both nouns and pronouns) take the verb inflections *-s* or *-es* in simple non-past tense.

3.3 Honorific Labels

While addressing or referring to a person, the word or expression that conveys esteem or respect is called honorific. Typically honorifics are used for second and third persons. But honorific for the first person is less common. Some languages have anti-honorific first person forms (meaning something like "your most humble servant" or "this unworthy person") whose effect is to enhance the relative honor accorded a second or third person.

There are honorific nouns in language. For example, in English some honorific nouns denote the honored person's occupation, for instance

Doctor as in Dr. Malla, Coach as in Coach Thapa, Officer Singh, Father as in Father Smith, or Professor as in Professor Adhikari. Traditionally, honorifics can be used of any adult of the appropriate sex include "Mr.", "Mrs." and "Miss\Ms". Some honorifics act as complete replacements for a name, as "Sir" or "Ma'am", or "Your Honour". There are either honorific inflections or the distinct pronominal words to refer to honorifics.

Here, personal pronouns are only studied. As a result, honorifics of nouns are excluded. English lacks honorific pronominal markers. So, honorific labels of Rajbangsi pronouns are only described.

3.3.1 Honorific Labels in Rajbangsi Pronouns

In Rajbangsi second and third person pronouns have two honorific labels, i.e., honorific and non-honorific. They are illustrated in Table 6.

Table No. 6
Honorific labels in Rajbangsi pronouns

Persons →	Second Person		Third Person	
	Non-Honorific	Honorific	Non-honorific	Honorific
Singular	<i>tui</i>	<i>ʈa:ma:-ha:</i>	<i>ama:</i>	<i>waha:</i>
Plural	<i>ʈa:ma:-ha:</i>	<i>ʈa:ma:-ha:-la:</i>	<i>ama:-ha:-la:</i>	<i>waha:-la:</i>

Some examples of above-mentioned pronouns are as follows:

- (13) *tui* *b^ha:t* *k^ha:-lo*
you: Non Hon b. rice eat-Pt:2
‘You ate boiled rice.’ <Non-Hon>

- (14) *ʈa:ma:-ha:* *b^ha:t̚* *k^ha:-n*
 you: Pl-Pl b. rice eat-Pt:2
 ‘You (many) ate rice.’ <Non Hon>
- (15) *ʈa:ma:-ha:* *b^ha:t̚* *k^ha:-n*
 you: Pl-Pl b. rice eat-Pt:2
 ‘You (one) ate rice.’ <Hon>
- (16) *ʈa:ma:-ha:-la:* *b^ha:t̚* *k^ha:-ban*
 you: Pl-Pl-Pl b. rice eat-Pt:2
 ‘You (two or more) ate rice.’ <Hon>
- (17) *waha:* *g^har* *za:-be*
 s\he: Hon home go-Npt:3
 ‘S\he goes home.’ <Hon>
- (18) *ama:* *g^har* *za:-be*
 s\he home go-Npt 3
 ‘S\he goes home.’ <Non Hon>

Same pronoun *ta:ma:-ha:* may function as honorific singular and non-honorific plural as in (14-15). When additional plural marker is added to singular honorific or plural non-honorific pronoun *ta:ma:-ha:*, it becomes 2nd person honorific plural *ʈa:ma:-ha:-la* (you: Pl-Pl) as in (16). So far as the third person is concerned, honorific and non-honorific roots are distinct, as *ama:* is non-honorific and *waha:*⁴ is honorific as in (17-18). Biological genders do not restrict the honorific labels in pronouns.

3.4 Number in Pronouns

Number in Rajbangsi and English languages are presented below:

⁴ This pronoun *waha:* may be a derived term from Nepali, their *lingua franca*.

3.4.1 Number in Rajbangsi Pronouns

Pronouns in Rajbangsi are two numbers: singular and plural (see, Table 2). Even the number restricts the verbs, e.g.

(19) *ʈa:ma:-ha:* *usna:* *dima:* *k^ha:-n*
 you: S, Hon boiled egg eat-Pt 2
 ‘You (one) ate boiled eggs.’ <Hon>

(20) *ʈa:ma:-ha:-la:* *usna:* *dima:* *k^ha:-ban*
 you: HON-Pl boiled egg eat-Pt 2
 ‘You ate boiled eggs.’ <Hon>

Morphologically, singular pronoun *ʈa:ma:ha:* and its plural counterpart *ʈa:ma:ha:-la* are distinct as mentioned in (19-20). Verbs *k^ha:-n* and *k^ha:-ban* are restricted by the singular honorific pronoun *ʈa:ma:ha:* and plural honorific pronoun *ʈa:ma:ha:-la:*, respectively.

3.4.2 Number in English Pronouns

As mentioned in Table 2, English pronouns have two distinct numbers: singular and plural.

Table No. 7

Number in English pronouns

Persons →	First	Second	Third
Singular	I	you	he, she, it
Plural	we	you	they

Second person pronoun ‘you’ is used for both numbers and rather it can be said that second person pronoun lacks the distinctive number markers. First and third person pronouns have morphologically two numbers: singular and plural.

3.5 Reflexive Pronouns

Reflexive pronouns in both Rajbangsi and English are presented below:

3.5.1 Reflexive Pronouns in Rajbangsi

Reflexivity is indicated by pronoun plus free morpheme -a:pne. It is compounded but the inflection (i.e., bound morpheme) is not added. Reflexive pronouns are illustrated in Table 8.

Table No. 8

Reflexive pronouns in Rajbangsi

Person	Honorificity	Number	Reflexive by compounding
1 st		Sg	<i>mui-a:pne</i>
		Pl	<i>ha:ma:-a:pne</i>
2 nd	Non-Hon	Sg	<i>ɽui-a:pne</i>
		Pl	<i>ɽa:ma:-ha:-a:pne</i>
	Hon	Sg	<i>ɽa:ma:-ha:-a:pne</i>
		Pl	<i>ɽa:ma:-ha:-la:-a:pne</i>
3 rd	Non Hon	Sg	<i>ama:-a:pne</i>
		Pl	<i>ama:-ha:-a:pne</i>
	Hon	Sg	<i>waha: -a:pne</i>
		Pl	<i>waha:-la:-a:pne</i>

Reflexive inflection does not occur in Rajbangsi but free morpheme -a:pne is added to the pronouns.

3.5.2 Reflexive Pronouns in English

Reflexive pronouns in English are marked by ‘-self’ and ‘-selves’ that indicate singularity and plurality, respectively. They are illustrated in Table 9:

Table No. 9

Reflexive pronouns in English

Person	Number	Nominative	Reflexive
1st	Sg	I	myself
	Pl	we	ourselves
2nd	Sg	you	yourself
	Pl	you	yourselves
3rd	Sg	he	himself
		he	herself
		it	itself
	Pl	hey	themselves

To mark reflexivity, -self and -selves are affixed to the pronouns. In the above-mentioned table even the second person pronoun ‘you’ is inflected by ‘-self’ to refer to singularity and ‘-selves’ to mark plurality.

Reflexive pronouns are used in three main situations.

- a. Reflexive pronouns are used when the subject and object are the same, e.g.

- (21)
 - i. I hurt **myself**.
 - ii. The bands call **themselves** “Dire Straits”.
 - iii. He shot **himself**.

- b. They are used as the object of a preposition, when the subject and the object are the same, e.g.

- (22)
 - i. I bought a present for **myself**.
 - ii. She did it by **herself**. (She did it alone.)

- iii. That man is talking to **himself**.
- c. They are used when you want to emphasize the subject, e.g.
 - (23) i. I'll do it **myself**. (No one else will help me.)
 - ii. They ate all the food **themselves**. (No one else had any.)

3.6 Interrogative Pronouns

An interrogative pronoun is a pronoun used in order to ask a question. Some of them refer only to people, like "who" and others refer to people and objects, etc like "what". They do not distinguish between singular and plural, so they only have one form. Interrogative pronouns produce information questions that require more than a "yes" or "no" answer.

3.6.1 Interrogative Pronouns in Rajbangsi

Interrogative pronouns in Rajbangsi are human, non-human and adverbial. They are illustrated in Table 10:

Table No. 10

Interrogative pronouns in Rajbangsi

	Subject	Object	Comitative	Genitive
Human	<i>ka:e</i> 'Who'	<i>kaha:k</i> 'Whom'	<i>karsaŋe</i> 'With whom'	<i>kaha:r</i> 'Whose'
Nonhuman	<i>kir</i> 'What'	<i>kirak</i> 'What'	<i>ki-ðe</i> 'With what'	<i>kira:r</i> 'Of what'
Adverbial				
Manner	Reason	Time	Place	Frequency
<i>keŋkar</i> 'How'	<i>kiya:</i> 'Why'	<i>kunbala:</i> 'When'	<i>kunha:</i> 'Where'	<i>ketla:</i> 'How often'

All interrogative pronouns begin with k- but their markers are not distinctive. Human and non-human interrogatives occur in subject, object, comitative and possessive positions. Adverbial interrogatives are distinctive for manner, reason, time, place and frequency.

3.6.2 Interrogative Pronouns in English

Interrogative pronouns in English can act as a subject, object or genitive positions in a sentence.

Table No. 11

Interrogative pronouns in English

	Subject	Object	Genitive	
Human	who	Whom	whose	
Nonhuman	what	what	of what	
Adverbial				
Manner	Reason	Time	Place	Frequency
how	why	when	where	how often

All interrogatives in English begin with wh- , except in manner ‘how’. Frequency marking word ‘often’ is added to refer to frequency in interrogative forms. Non-human interrogative pronoun ‘what’ can be followed by ‘of’ to refer to genitives.

Some examples of interrogative pronouns are as follows:

- (24)
- i. Who is in charge?
 - ii. Which wants to see the dentist first?
 - iii. Who wrote the novel Rockbound?

- iv. Whom do you think we should invite?
- v. What did she say?
- vi. Whose book do you like?
- vii. When do you go?
- viii. Why do you go?
- ix. Where do you go?
- x. How do you go?
- xi. How often do you go?

Information question words are substitution words to the nouns and adverbs. In (24 vii-xi), information question words substitute the adverbs.

3.7 Indefinite Pronouns

Both Rajbangsi and English contain indefinite pronouns.

3.7.1 Indefinite Pronouns in Rajbangsi

In Rajbangsi indefinite pronouns replace nouns without specifying which noun they replace. Such pronouns are given in the following Table:

Table No. 12
Indefinite pronouns in Rajbangsi

Singular	Plural ⁵	Contextual count plural or uncount
<i>ekta:</i> 'one'	<i>đui</i> 'two'	<i>ca:rik</i> 'few\little'
<i>đasra:</i> 'latter\next one'	<i>ca:rik</i> 'few\little' <i>b^hella:</i> 'many\much'	<i>b^hella:</i> 'many\much' <i>gatla:e</i> 'all'
<i>ka:wa</i> 'no one'	<i>gatla:e</i> 'all' <i>kuhula:</i> 'some'	<i>kuhula</i> 'some'

The pronouns *ekta:*, *đasra:*, and *ka:wa* are singular. *đui* is singular. The other pronouns *ca:rik*, *b^hella:*, *gatla:e* and *kuhula:* are both uncount and count plural in the context.

Plurality is expressed by the pronouns but not by the verbs because verbs are not restricted by number, e.g.

- (25) i. *ekta:* *a:sbe*
one come
'One comes.'
- ii. *ca:rik* *a:sbe*
some come
'Some come.'
- iii. *b^hella:* *a:sbe*
many come
'Many come.'

⁵ Same indefinite pronouns in Rajbangsi can be used as uncount, and count plural.

- iv. *gatla:e* *a:sbe*
 all Come
 ‘All come.’

In (25 i-iv), the pronouns *ekta:*, *ḍasra:*, *ca:rik,b^hella:*, and *gatla:e* are used to refer both uncounted noun and count plural in the context. They do not restrict the verbs, as *a:sbe* is the verb to the singular pronouns *ekta:*, and *ḍasra:*, and plural ones *ca:rik,b^hella:* .

3.7.2 Indefinite Pronouns in English

In English indefinite pronouns are words which replace nouns without specifying which noun they replace.

Table No. 13

Indefinite pronouns in English

Singular	Plural	Contextual singular\plural
another, anybody, anyone, anything, each, either, everybody, everyone, everything, little, much, neither, nobody, no one, nothing, one, other, somebody, someone, something	few, many, others, several	all, any, more, most, none, some

The pronouns ending with **-body** or **-one** such as **anybody**, **somebody**, **no one**, or **anyone** are singular. So are pronouns like **each** and **every**. Words like **all** or **some** *may* be singular or plural in the context.

Singular indefinite pronouns take singular verbs or singular personal pronouns, e.g.

- (26) i. Each (of the members) has one vote. (The subject, each, is singular.)
- ii. One (of the girls) gave up her seat. ('Her' refers to one, which is singular.)

Plural indefinite pronouns take plural verbs or plural personal pronouns, e.g.

- (27) A few of the justices were voicing their opposition. ('Few' is plural, so are 'were' and 'their'.)

For indefinite pronouns that can be singular or plural, it depends on what the indefinite pronoun refers to.

- (28) i. All clapped their hands. ('All' refers to people, which is plural.)
- ii. All (of the newspaper) was soaked. (Here 'all' refers to newspaper, which is singular.)

3.8 Demonstratives⁶

Demonstratives that function as pronouns are called demonstrative pronouns. Such pronouns occur in both languages: Rajbangsi and English.

⁶ This, that, these, those can be used as demonstrative adjectives as well as demonstrative

3.8.1 Demonstrative Pronouns in Rajbangsi

Rajbangsi contains proximity and distance, as well as the singular plural demonstratives pronouns.

Table 14

Demonstrative pronouns in Rajbangsi

	Proximity	Distance
Singular	<i>iha:\ ikha:n</i> 'this'	<i>ema:</i> 'that'
Plural	<i>uha:</i> 'that'	<i>ama</i> 'those'

Some examples of Rajbangsi demonstrative pronouns are given below:

(29) *uha: a:sbe*
that come:s
'That comes.'

(30) *iha: a:sbe*
this come:s
'this comes.'

3.8.2 Demonstrative Pronouns in English

English contains proximity and distance, as well as the singular plural demonstratives pronouns. The four demonstrative pronouns are – 'this, that, these, those'. A demonstrative pronoun identifies and specifies a noun or pronoun.

‘This’ and ‘these’ refer to nouns that are nearby in time or space. ‘That’ and ‘those’ refer to nouns that are further away in time or space. ‘This’ and ‘that’ refer to singular nouns; ‘these’ and ‘those’ refer to plural nouns. The demonstrative pronouns are in italics.

- (31) i. *This* tastes delicious. (‘This’ is the subject of the sentence.)
- ii. I don't like *this*. (‘This’ is the direct object of the sentence.)
- iii. *That* will run for an hour. (‘That’ is the subject of the sentence.)
- iv. Jim wrote *that*. (‘That’ is the direct object of the sentence.)
- v. *These* look good. (‘These’ is the subject of the sentence.)
- vi. I'll take *these*. (‘These’ is the direct object of the sentence.)
- vii. *Those* belong to Linda. (‘Those’ is the subject of the sentence.)
- viii. Jack brought *those*. (‘Those’ is the direct object of the sentence.)

CHAPTER-FOUR

FINDINGS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

On the basis of analysis and interpretation of the data, the findings of the research along with recommendations and pedagogical implications are mentioned.

4.1 Findings

Findings are categorised into two main points: (i) identification of Rajbangsi pronominals and (ii) comparison. The latter is further divided into similarities and differences.

1) Identification of Rajbangsi pronominals

- i) In Rajbangsi, *mui*, and *ha:ma:* are first person pronouns. *tui* and *tama:* are second person pronouns. Likewise, *ama:*, and *waha:* are third person pronouns.
- ii) Nominative pronouns are unmarked but they can be inflected for object, genitive and ergative. Morphophonemically, *ui* is changed into *o* when object and genitive markers are added to the first and second person singular pronouns *mui* and *tui*, respectively.
- iii) Rajbangsi pronouns inflect for both singular and plural numbers. *-ha:* and *-ha:la:* are plural markers.
- iv) *-la:* is both plural marker and additional plural marker.

- v) Second person honorific singular pronoun can function as non-honorific plural. *-ha:* in singular and *-ha:la:* in plural are honorific markers that can be added to second and third person pronouns.
- vi) Free morpheme *a:pne* is added to indicate reflexivity.
- vii) Interrogative pronouns are distinctive for human and non-human, and thereby refer to subject, object, comitative and genitive. Besides, they are distinctive for reason, time, place and frequency adverbials.
- viii) Demonstrative pronouns refer to singular and plural as well as proximity and distance.
- ix) Indefinite pronouns in Rajbangsi refer to (i) singular, (ii) plural, and (iii) count plural or uncount in the context.
- x) This language marks four pronominal cases syntactically. They are nominative, objective (accusative/dative), genitive and ergative cases. Case markers *-k*, *-r*, and *-e* refer to objective, genitive and ergative cases in pronouns. Ergativity occurs with past tense and perfective aspects.

2) Comparison

a) Similarities

- i) In both languages, all interrogative pronouns begin with the same letters, as in Rajbangsi they begin with k and English interrogative pronouns begin with wh- (exception 'how').

- ii) In both languages, human and non-human interrogatives occur in subject, object, comitative and possessive positions.
- iii) In both languages, adverbial interrogatives are distinctive for manner, reason, time, place and frequency.
- iv) In both languages, pronouns inflect for object, genitive and reflexive.
- v) In both languages singular and plural demonstrative pronouns occur to refer to both proximity and distance.
- vi) In both languages indefinite pronouns occur and they refer to (i) singularity, (ii) plurality, and (iii) contextual uncount, and count plurality.

b) Differences

- i) English pronouns in subject position are unmarked, whereas in Rajbangsi if the transitive verb in past tense and/or perfective aspect comes, ergative marker occurs.
- ii) In Rajbangsi all pronouns, which refer to nominative, objective, genitive and ergative, are distinct. But in English both object and nominal genitive of third person masculine singular is the same word. Third person non-human singular is the same in both subject and object positions.
- iii) Pronouns restrict the verb inflections in Rajbangsi, whereas in English, except in third person singular in non-past tense, pronouns do not restrict verbs.

- iv) Personal pronouns in Rajbangsi lack the gender markers, as the same pronouns can be used for both biological genders, whereas third person singular in English contains different pronouns to refer to biological genders: male and female.
- v) Honorific and non-honorific pronouns occur in Rajbangsi, and thereby these pronouns take different verbs. In English, pronouns lack honorificity.
- vi) In Rajbangsi all singular personal pronouns are free morphemes but plural pronouns contain plural markers. By changing first person plural root, plural marker is added. The same plural marker occurs in all persons. In English all personal pronouns are free morphemes. They do not inflect to refer to plurality.
- vii) Reflexive marker in Rajbangsi is free morpheme and the same morpheme is used with all pronouns to refer to reflexivity. In English reflexive markers, which are bound, are distinct on the basis of number and they are bound morphemes.
- viii) In Rajbangsi all pronouns are morphologically distinct. In English second person pronoun 'you' is used for both numbers, and rather, it can be said that second person pronoun lacks the distinctive number marker. First and third person pronouns have morphologically two numbers: singular and plural.

4.2 Recommendations

Based on the findings, some recommendations are as follows:

- i) Both languages share some pronominal features, as they are descended from the same language family. An English language teacher, who teaches Rajbangsi students, can teach English pronominal by showing their similarities.
- ii) Rajbangsi pronouns can be inflected for object, genitive and ergative. Pronouns are compounded with free morpheme *-a:pne* to refer to reflexive meaning. A Rajbangsi student may use English reflexive marker as an independent word. An English language teacher should teach such differences of inflections of both languages just by showing the formation of Rajbangsi pronouns and their counterparts in English.
- iii) The pronoun markers *-k*, and *-r* and are distinct in Rajbangsi that refer to object and genitive, respectively. Such markers do not occur in English. As a result, the Rajbangsi students may look for distinct markers. An English language teacher should tell the Rajbangsi students their pronoun markers *-k*, and *-r* that refer to object and genitive, but such distinctly separate markers do not occur in English. Then, he should use enough drills to make them learn English object and genitive.
- iv) Ergative marker does not occur in English. Ergativity occurs in Rajbangsi when transitive verb in past tense and/or perfective aspect comes. *-e* is ergative marker. An English language teacher should tell the Rajbangsi students that such marker does not occur in English. Then, he should use drill methods to make them clear about it.

- v) Reflexive markers in English are *-self* and *-selves* that refer to singular and plural numbers, respectively. In Rajbangsi, the same free morpheme *a:pne* is used to refer to reflexive meaning. Then, a Rajbangsi student may use even one reflexive marker for both numbers. For this, an English language teacher should make Rajbangsi students many practices of such structures.
- vi) Both adjectival and nominal genitive of third person masculine singular in English have the same word 'his'. Third person non-human singular 'it' is the same in both subject and object positions. Pronouns 'his' and 'its' are the same in both genitive forms. Here, a Rajbangsi student of English may not comprehend the same word functioning differently. An English language teacher should make Rajbangsi students many practices of such pronouns in the classroom.
- vii) Pronouns restrict the verb inflections in Rajbangsi. So far as English pronouns are concerned except in the third person singular non-past tense, such differences do not occur. A language teacher has to give priority to the verb agreements while teaching them pronominal in English.
- viii) In Rajbangsi second and third person pronouns have two honorific labels, i.e., honorific and non-honorific. In English such honorificity is expressed only in the sentence forms but not in the pronouns. The English teacher has to teach his Rajbangsi students very carefully.

- ix) Second person pronoun 'you' in English is used for both numbers and rather it can be said that second person pronoun lacks the distinctive number markers. Teacher should be conscious in teaching such second person pronouns.
- x) All interrogative pronouns begin with *k-* in Rajbangsi and *wh-* in English. Basically there is not such problem. Here, teacher may feel easier in teaching such interrogative pronouns.
- xi) In English the pronouns ending with '-body or '-one' are singular. So are pronouns like 'each' and 'every'. Words like 'all' or 'some' may be singular or plural in the context. Singular indefinite pronouns take singular verbs or singular personal pronouns. But indefinite pronouns do not occur in form in Rajbangsi. Their meaning can be expressed by noun phrases. Because of such big differences, the teacher should give enough care in teaching indefinite pronouns.
- xii) Both Rajbangsi and English contain proximity and distance, as well as the singular and plural demonstratives pronouns. They have both types of pronouns to refer to nouns that are nearby and further away in time or space. Here, because of similarity students may feel easier in learning English demonstrative pronouns.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX-1

Pronominal System of Rajbangsi

Tool 1: Questionnaire

Informant No:-----

Date:_____

Name:-----

Male/Female:-----

Birthplace:-----

Religion: -----

Hindu Muslim Christian Others

Age group:

15-20 20-35 35-50 50-70 70 above

Academic Qualifications

No formal education Illiterate literate

Elementary (I-V) Lower Secondary (VI-VII)

Secondary (VIII-X) Intermediate (XI-XII)

Bachelor Master's degree

Occupation:

Students Housewives Ex-army

Farmers Teachers Others

1. Mention the languages used

i) At home: Rajbangsi Nepali English

ii) With friends: Rajbangsi Nepali English

2. What words are used for 'I, we, you, he, she, it and they'?

3. What are 'me, us, you, him, her, it and them called in Rajbangsi?
4. Is there any honorific word in the third person too?
5. What is the difference between the four dialects and the Rajbangsi spoken in other area?
6. Do all the Rajbangsi people use Rajbangsi language formally and informally?

Please translate the following sentences:

- i) I go home.
- ii) We (d&i) go home.
- iii) We (d &e) go home.
- iv) We (p&i) go home.
- v) We (p&i) go home.
- vi) You go home.
- vii) You (d) go home.
- viii) You (p) go home.
- ix) He/She goes home.
- x) They (d) go home.
- xi) They (p) go home
- xii) I eat rice.
- xiii) We (d&i) eat rice.
- xiv) We (d&e) eat rice.
- xv) We (p&i) eat rice.
- xvi) We (p&e) eat rice.
- xvii) You eat rice.
- xviii) You (d) eat rice.

- xix) You (p) eat rice.
- xx) He/She eats rice.
- xxi) They eat rice.
- xxii) They eat rice.
- xxiii) You see me.
- xxiv) I see you.
- xxv) This book is mine.
- xxvi) That book is yours.
- xxvii) I go home myself.
- xxviii) You go home yourself.
- xxix) This house is mine.
- xxx) That house is yours.
- xxxi) Each of the boys goes home.
- xxxii) It comes here.
- xxxiii) There are many people in Jhapa.
- xxxiv) There are a few students in school.
- xxxv) It was Ram who ate rice.
- xxxvi) Who spoke?
- xxxvii) Whom did you see?
- xxxviii) Which do you choose?
- xxxix) Whose horse is this?

To get further clarified in Rajbangsi pronouns, the following questions will be asked:

- i) What words are used for ‘I, we, you, he, she, it, and they’ in Rajbangsi?
- ii) Are there different pronouns in Rajbangsi to refer to ‘we’ on the basis of speakers and listeners?

- iii) What Rajbangsi words are used for 'me, us, you, him, her, it and them'?
- iv) What are 'mine, ours, yours, his, hers, its and they' called in Rajbangsi?
- v) Do Rajbangsi pronouns differentiate two or more than two persons?
- vi) Does Rajbangsi use the word that denotes 'self'?
- vii) Is the same pronoun used for the 'junior and senior'?
- viii) What are Rajbangsi words which denote proximity and distance?
- ix) Are there any Rajbangsi pronouns for human and non-human?
- x) How are the words 'one, all, few, many and they' spoken in Rajbangsi?
- xi) Can these pronouns be used like 'I, we etc.' and 'me, us etc.'?
- xii) Are the words 'either, neither etc. referred to by Rajbangsi pronouns?
- xiii) Do Rajbangsi have the words that represent for 'who, which, that and whose'?
- xiv) Does Rajbangsi have question words?
- xv) Do the speech sounds of the pronouns differ from one place to another?
- xvi) Are other words also changed according to the change of pronouns?

APPENDIX-2

Telephonic Interview/Information

Tool 2: Questionnaire

(for Immediate Information)

Tentatively the following types of the questions were asked:

- i) Can you use any 1st\2nd person pronouns to include\exclude listeners\speakers?
- ii) Do all the indefinite pronouns occur in Rajbangsi?
- iii) Does Rajbangsi have the existence of relative pronouns?
- iv) What do you think of the speech sound concerning Rajbangsi pronouns?