

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 General Background

Communication is a process whereby information is channelled and imparted by a sender to a receiver via some media. The receiver then decodes the message and gives the sender a response. All forms of communication require a sender, a message, and an intended recipient, however, the receiver does not need to be present or aware of the sender's intent to communicate at the time of communication in order for the act of communication to occur. For any kind of communication to occur, the interacting units must share a common communicative atmosphere, i.e., the verbal means or language must be the same, all the participants should be aware of the topic with which they deal whenever they are set to an interactional activity and they must co-operate with each other. There are verbal and non-verbal means of using a language. Speech is the verbal means. Similarly, body language, sign language, paralanguage, eye contact and media such as pictures, graphics, and writing come under non-verbal means.

The ability of flexible communicate is the key factor for distinguishing the human beings from rest of the creatures. It is the basic tool for development and human civilization. Thinking and acting accordingly, probably, is the main basis on which all the other demarcations between the human and non-human beings are established. Thus, thought supported by language and a common platform shared by the members of a speech community being bound by established norms of inter-personal interaction is communication. In doing so, they exchange information and message. Communication or any act of exchanging information does not merely mean discussing some matter through face to face interaction, it also includes the events like talking on the phone,

reading printed materials, exchanging letters, listening to/watching records or broadcasts, etc. To communicate means to make one's ideas, feeling, thoughts, etc. known to other people or vice versa, so that understanding each other is possible. Technically defined, communication is an act of exchanging the message formed by systematic organization of some specific forms of particular substance (sounds into words and words into sentences in the case of human language) to mean something in internal and external world which leaves an open possibility to mean more. What happens when communication takes place is dependent on its outcome or the effect it leaves on the interlocutors- the participants in a communicative event. The result of a father's enquiry on his daughter's love affair may result into the latter's sobbing saying, "I hate you". It means that communication is just a process or a means not an end. According to Crystal (2003), "Communication is the transmission and reception of information (a message) between a source and receiver using a signaling system" (p. 85).

Theoretically, communication refers to the transmission and reception of information between a source and receiver using a signalling system. In doing so, the information received by the receiver must be the same as the one produced by the source. So far human communication is concerned; the signalling system is a language. It is the means of communication. If communication is considered as a process, language is its means. Language is a very complex human phenomenon; all the attempts made to define it so far have proved insufficient. In a nutshell, language is an organized noise used in actual social situations. That is why; it has also been defined as contextualized systematic sounds.

An ancient Indian linguist, Patanjali, as cited in Varshney, (1995, p. 1) has defined language as "Human expression which is uttered out by speech organs." It is a conventional spoken or written system by means of which human beings communicate as members of a social group and participants in its culture. Language is ubiquitous. It is present at every aspect of our life. It is

an instrument of thinking as well as a source of delight such as singing. It carries history and helps form new history. Varshney (ibid, p. 4) puts, “It is the use of language that makes our life bitter or sweet”. It provides us with a complete ground for creating demarcation amongst various fields of human concern like sociology, anthropology, philosophy, logics, psychology, politics, science, literature, etc. These fields and several others develop in their own ways with language as the main asset. It is the characteristics of language that make us much clearer about it.

We can take a number of noteworthy scholars expressing genuine views on language. According to Sapir (1921) as cited in Lyons (2009, p. 3) “Language is a purely human and non-instinctive method of communicating ideas, emotions and desires by means of voluntarily produced symbols.” This definition states that language is a human endeavour that is culturally acquired and plays a significant role in bringing the members of a society closer through a mutual exchange of ideas, thoughts, emotions and desires. It binds them. Though this definition seems insufficient as there are still some other means of communicating things like these such as gestures, postures, eye sights and several other physical movements, the most convincing point it leaves for us is that language is a purely human method of communication.

Similarly, Hall (1968) as cited in Lyons (2009, p. 3), states, “Language is the institution whereby humans communicate and interact with each other by means of habitually used oral-auditory arbitrary symbols”. This definition, like Sapir, also treats language as purely human institution. The difference that we can feel here is that he regards language as ‘habitually used oral-auditory arbitrary symbols.’ This is a behaviouristic view in which language is treated within the stimulus-response theory learning.

A recent theoretical ground for new innovation in defining a vast field like language comes along with the 1957 Doctoral dissertation submitted by the veteran scholar Noam Chomsky, an American linguist cum political analyst.

Chomsky (1957) as cited in Lyons (2009, p. 7) , states, “From now on I shall consider a language to be a set of (finite or infinite) sentences, each finite in length and constructed out of a finite set of elements.” This definition opens up a new concept on language that all the normal languages have finite number of sounds, words and sentence structures and out of which an infinite set of sentences or utterances are produced.

All these definitions have tried to create a clear word picture about what language is and how it functions for the fulfilment of human communicative desires. No definition is complete in itself and there is no doubt that several other definitions will emerge in future on the same topic- language. A clearer concept about language could be attained if we had a brief look at the following points:

1. Language is verbal, vocal
2. Language is a means of communication
3. Language is a social phenomenon
4. Language is non-instinctive, conventional
5. Language is arbitrary
6. Language is symbolic
7. Language is systematic
8. Language is unique, creative, complex and modifiable
9. Language is human and structurally complex

Varshney (ibid, pp. 3-5)

1.1.1 Levels of Language

Linguistic analysis is an extremely difficult task. In order to simplify this difficult task, linguists have set up various levels of analysis. Though there is no uniform opinion on the number of levels of analysis, linguists are customarily convinced of the four levels: the sound level (Phonology), the

morphological level, the syntactic level and the meaning level (semantic level). Sometimes, pragmatics- the study of language with reference to its context is also taken as one of the aspects of linguistic studies. Whatever be the evolving thoughts in this concern, we have phonology, morphology, syntax and semantics as the accepted levels of linguistic study.

1.1.1.1 Phonology

Phonology is the sound level study of a particular language. It studies the functional aspects of the sounds that lie within the particular language. There are over three thousand languages in the world and they match and contrast at different levels. They differ from each other because of the pattern of arrangement of the sounds. In order to fulfill the everyday communicative functions, languages organize their material, the speech sounds, into recurrent bits and pieces arranged in sound patterns. Phonology, therefore, is the study of the formal arrangement of the vocal sounds in a particular language. Phonology differs from phonetics in that the latter is the study of speech sounds in general with respect to their production, transmission and reception unlike the former one in which the functional aspects of those speech sounds in a particular language are studied.

Phonology answers the questions like- What is sound? How and where is it produced from? How is it received by ears? How and why is one sound different from the other? Does a sound discriminate meaning or not? In what environment does it occur? Etc.

1.1.1.2 Morphology

Morphology is the study of the internal structure of words of a language. According to Hockett (1970, p. 177), “Morphology includes stock of segmental morphemes, and ways in which words are built out of them. Syntax includes the ways in which words and suprasegmental morphemes are arranged relative to each other in utterances.”

Morpheme is the smallest unit of grammatical analysis. For example, the word *cats* has two morphemes {cat} and {s}. The grammar of English cannot further analyze the two morphemes any further. To analyze them, we have to enter the sound level called phonology. Thus, morphology is the study of the ways of word formation. A word, therefore, is the study of how morphemes unite together to form a word. Each word consists of at least one morpheme and the number of morphemes extends as per the requirement of the grammatical norms employed by the construction of a sentence or an utterance.

1.1.1.3 Syntax

Syntax, in Greek, refers to ‘ordering together’, ‘systematic arrangement’ or ‘putting together’. It is the study of sentence formation i.e., the ways in which words are arranged together in order to make larger units. Sentences and their constituents are the concerns of syntactic analysis. The chief concern of syntax is the sentence which is the maximal unit of grammatical analysis, whereas the minimal level is the morpheme. So far the analysis of a sentence is concerned, it can be segmentally analyzed into phonological units called ‘phonemes’ and ‘syllables’; into morphological units called ‘morphemes’ and ‘words’; and into syntactic units called ‘phrases’ and ‘clauses’. At the same time, a sentence can also be described suprasegmentally with respect to tone, stress and pitch.

Morphology deals with the ways in which words are built up and syntax with the ways in which they combine with each other to form sentences.

Nevertheless, syntax is the core of grammar not only to the transformational grammarians but also to a number of other linguists. They are interested in two aspects of this structuring of language. Firstly, they are interested in the patterns underlying the sentence and its constituents. Secondly, they are interested in the syntactic devices used to link the constituents together, and the rules that transform one structure into another.

1.1.1.4 Semantics

The word semantics comes from the Greek noun 'sema' meaning 'sign' and the verb 'semains' meaning 'signify'. The Oxford Advanced Learners' Dictionary (ed. 6) defines the term semantics as 'The study of the meaning of words and phrases.' It is the study of meaning in a language. Broadly speaking, semantics is the branch of linguistics which deals with the relations between 'referents' and 'references' - i.e., linguistic levels (words, phrases, sentences) and the objects or concepts or ideas in the real world to which they refer to. And, the history and changes in the meaning of words is also the concern of semantic studies. Diachronic linguistics studies the change of meaning in course of history and the synchronic linguistics studies the current trends in meaning.

A semantic theory should systematically represent the meaning of the single word with reference to the syntactic structure. It also shows how the structure of the meaning of words and the syntactic relations interact in order to constitute the interpretation of sentences, and indicate how these interpretations are related to the things spoken about.

1.1.2 Media of Language

Language is for communication. Communication does not only refer to oral interactions. It is said to have taken place, provided, there is a situation in which an exchange of information takes place. Communication or exchanging information does not merely mean discussing some matter through face to face interaction; it also includes the events like talking on phone, reading printed materials, exchanging letters, listening to/ watching records or broadcasts, delivering speeches etc. If we examine the core of this definition, we can conclude that we have two clear media of communication- oral and written.

1.1.2.1 Aural-oral Medium

Aural-oral medium refers to the language used while speaking. It has been

developed much before the development of writing system. The spoken form of language is a stream of vocal sounds where phonemes, allophones, morphemes, their structures and many suprasegmental features give meaning and make communication possible. Speech undergoes the process of production, transmission and reception of speech sounds. Speech is older than any other civilization. It is the first and the most powerful means of communication ever since the beginning when human beings started exchanging their feelings, ideas, aspirations and opinions with each other in a human community.

1.1.2.2 Written Medium

Writing differs from speech in that it is the system of written symbols which represent the sounds, syllables or words of a language. Bloomfield (1985, p. 21) mentions, “Writing is not language but merely a way of recording language by means of visible marks.” So far its history is concerned; the Sumerians were the first people to use a writing system. Among the oldest systems of writing, Hebrew, Arabic, Phoenician and Brahmi come on the forth.

Writing possesses a very significant importance in human life. It helps us record our present activities to make it known to the upcoming generations. All the rich literatures of our past, different branches of knowledge and the lifestyle of the people of the past have all been to our access by means of the written records. Though the invention of computer has almost replaced the manual pen and paper work, it has just come as advancement in the writing system not as a cause of its extinction. Man is a unique creature of learning from the past and improving the future. Writing, as a fact, has played a significant role in this progressive attitude of human beings.

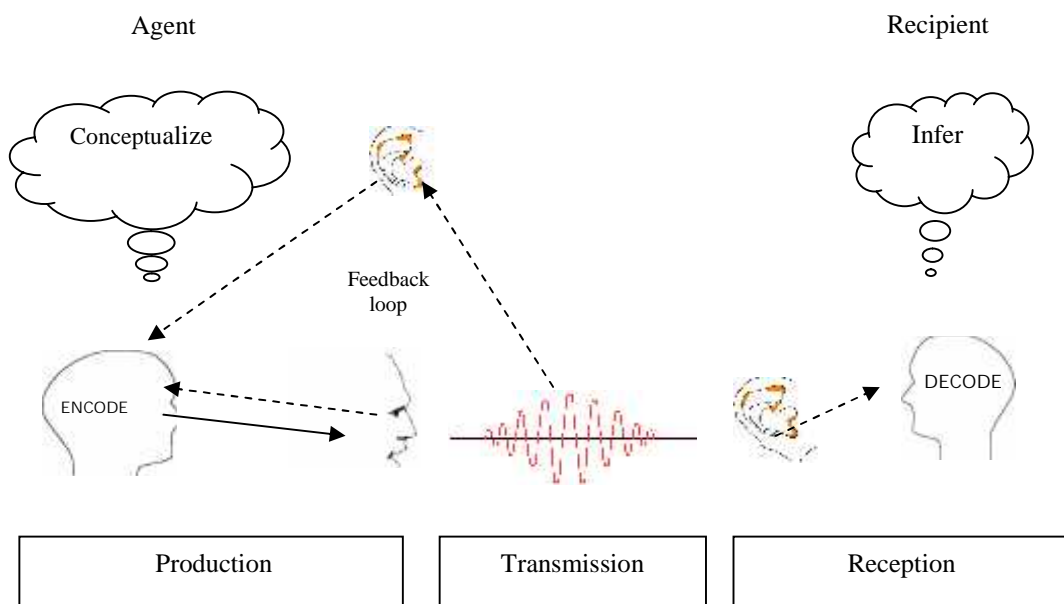
1.1.3 Speech

Speech is the vocal form of human communication with the syntactic combination of lexical items. It is studied in terms of the speech production,

transmission and its perception. Normal human speech is primarily produced with the pulmonary pressure provided by the lungs which produces the speech sounds in the glottis in the larynx that then is modified by the vocal tract to yield different sounds.

Language is basically an aural-oral system of sound signals conveying ideas between its users. A writing system cannot completely represent the features of speech. There is production, transmission and reception of sounds in speech. A message formulated in the brain of the speaker (source) is transmitted through the air or electronic system and finally it reaches the ears of the receiver. It is technically called communication chain. The following figure illustrates the concept of communication chain in a precise way.

Fig. 1 Communication Chain



Source: www.speech-therapy-information-and-resources.com

The circumstances in which the speech is used, determine what sort of vocabulary to choose (register), what kind of tone, pitch and intonation to adopt, and what gestures to make while speaking.

A common understanding regarding speech is that it is language in oral manifestation. It is true in several respects. But, what actually should we understand for a clear demarcation between these two- language and speech? To answer the question, we can take reference of the terms- langue and parole- introduced by Ferdinand de Saussure. Langue, according to Crystal (1985, p. 176) is, “The language system shared by a community of speakers.” It is the ideal form of a language. It is shared by all the members of a particular speech community. As it is a collective consciousness, it is possible for the member of a particular speech community to understand one another. Parole, on the other hand, is the set of all the utterances that have actually been produced. It is speech. While language is the sum of all possible grammatical sentences in a language, parole is like a personal dialect that is manifested in actual speech. A speaker’s total store of linguistic knowledge is language and its use is parole. The analogous term for ‘parole’ is ‘performance’ or speech in general.

Being based on Saussure’s ‘parole’, we can enumerate the following characteristics of speech. :

1. Speech is the encoding of message.
2. Speech is actualized.
3. Speech is individual.
4. Speech is free.
5. Speech is ephemeral/transitory/temporary
6. Speech is a psycho-physical.

Speech serves various functions in human life. These functions comply with various fields which we term as registers in linguistics. Some of the genuine fields of human endeavour in which speech specifically functions are;

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|----------------------|--------------|
| 1. Common household | 2. Politics |
| 3. Business/Commerce | 4. Education |
| 5. Sports | 6. Medicine |

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|-------------------|--------------------|
| 7. Engineering | 8. Foreign affairs |
| 9. Travel | 10. Economics |
| 11. Entertainment | 12. Culture |
| 13. Law etc. | |

1.1.4 Politics

The prime goal of the present research is to deal with the linguistic aspects associated with some selected political speeches. Therefore, a brief account of politics has been presented below.

The word Politics comes from the Greek word 'politika', modeled on Aristotle's "affairs of the city". Politics refers to the science of government or governing, especially the governing of a political entity, such as a country, and the administration and control of its internal and external affairs. Politics is the concern of a government or a political party. As the citizens of a country are directly or indirectly influenced by the type of political system prevalent in that particular country, they cannot be considered apart from it. Formation of a state and ruling over it has gone a long course of time and politics has shown its presence there ever since. So far the formal discussions on Politics is concerned, it dates back to Plato. Plato, in his book Republic (written circa 373 B.C.), has mainly concerned with details of an ideal state.

Some scholars have also shown their concern about whether politics is a sole concern of human beings or it is also concerned with other creatures. A modern view in this regard is that it is concerned only with human beings. The supporters of this view state that politics can exist only where the individuals can interact, agree, disagree and consent. Politics occurs where people disagree about the distribution of resources, power and opportunities and have at least some procedures for the resolution of such disagreements. The history of politics is reflected in the origin and development of the institutions of government.

In the democratic era, politics is much concerned with party politics. The present day world is the period of political transformation from monarchy, feudalism, autocracy and total communism to liberal democratic system. This system is also called multi-party democracy. Democracy emphasizes agreements and disagreements; a prominent practice in party politics. Unlike in communism, the multiparty democratic system allows diversity in belief. Therefore, the politics of a country differs from the politics of another country and also that the politics of a party within the same country differs from another party. All these parties have their own ways of seeking solutions to the problems which concern the country. For example, the politics of the Democrats differs in several respects from the Republicans in the USA. A similar contrast can be drawn between the two major political parties of Nepal; the UCPN (Maoist) and the Nepali Congress (NC). The former is all set to establish a proletarian communist state in Nepal whereas the latter is the advocate of mixed political system and liberal economic policies.

This shows that certain political party is guided by a particular political ideology. Different political parties have different electoral manifestos and commitments in front of the mass. In party politics, persuasion is always in the centre. Persuading the mass and winning their belief towards their own strategies is the key to party politics, which, later, can be the base for the implementation of their plans and policies. Persuasion is possible through language.

1.1.4.1 Language and Politics

Language and politics are closely connected with each other. Language is the vehicle for political expressions. It is the means of persuading the public and attracting them to the direction of a political party's agendas. Ali (1975 p. 48) opines that "Language is the most important point of entry into habits of thought of a people. It embodies within itself cumulative association derived from the total experience of its people". This opinion resembles the Whorfian Hypothesis and states that language is the entrance to the people's thoughts and

behaviours. Furthermore, the more one gets closer to a linguistic community, the stronger influence he can leave in its people. An instance can be taken from our own domestic politics- the Terai based political parties are more concerned with the Hindi and its regional dialects than the Nepali language because the communities of the southern belt of Nepal are linguistically closer to the people of neighbouring Indian states of Bihar and Uttar Pradesh (UP).

Harris (1979, p. 58) asserts, “In politics, words have a powerful effect”. So language is such a powerful means by which political ideas are transmitted to the community. There is an enormous effect of language in politically gripping people. “With words we govern men” (ibid, p.53).

A striking remark regarding language and politics comes from Ranney (1975, p. 130). He submits that four hostile newspapers were the equivalent of 100,000 enemy troops on the field of battle underlining the extent to which political language is itself a weapon.

In fact, politics has a lot to do with language. Language is power in non-military form.

The politics of a country centres around the above mentioned concerns. Any political party is all committed to the seizure of power and implementation of their political commitments as stated in their manifestos. As a real opportunity comes on their part, the issues associated to these areas are directly or indirectly influenced.

1.1.4.2 Political Leaders

Political leaders are the professional political practitioners who involve in the activities for getting and using power in public life, and become able to influence decisions that affect a country or a society. They are guided by certain political doctrine and work for the execution of a governance system as per the spirit of that doctrine. A political party is an organization of politically

bound people who exercise unitedly for the achievement of their ultimate goal-governing the nation as per their political interests. The job of the political leaders is to make their party organizationally strong and keeping the national interests, as a general assumption, in the centre.

1.1.4.3 Political Speech

Political speeches are generally addressed to a huge mass by political leaders and normally remain one way. The mass remains as an audience. So far the aim of a political speech is concerned; it focuses on the political agenda backed by a particular political party and an intention to motivate the mass towards it. To a large extent, it is directed to the aspirations of the mass and drawing their attention and support towards their interest. In the mean time, the purpose of a political speech is to make a severe criticism of an opposition party and their way of dealing with the issues of national interest. The pragmatic features of a political speech can be drawn from the vocabulary selection, defence of self, and criticism of opposition, and stress on certain point of view and denial of others. The political speech is generally persuasive in nature.

However, the aim of the present study is to deal with the syntax of political speeches in terms of various variables such as completeness of sentence, grammaticality, formality of utterances and length.

1.1.5 Special Features of Language Under Study

The main objective of the present research is to find out some facts with respect to grammaticality, types and formality of the sentences of the political speeches. Therefore, the features of language concerning these issues are briefly discussed in the following sub-sections.

1.1.5.1 Grammar

Grammar can be best defined as the precise and scientific description of the structure of a language. The speakers of a language are bound by certain established norms while producing their utterances so that their utterances do

not seem awkward in hearing. The norms that bind all the speakers of a language to a similar structural patterns at word level, phrase level and sentence level is what we generally refer to as grammar. In linguistics, grammar refers to the theory intended to describe the rules of a language. A pedagogical grammar differs from the theoretical grammar in that it is an inventory of rules presented as a teaching material in the classroom. According to Yadav (2007, p. 274) a pedagogical grammar is “A set of rules of a language the knowledge of which enables a person to produce and understand sentences of the language.”

Grammar, therefore, is either theoretical or pedagogical; the former explicitly defines the rules that govern a language, and the latter presents a set of rules for pedagogical purpose.

1.1.5.2 Formal and Informal Language

Formal language is used on special occasions such as conferences, meetings, classroom etc. Such occasions are called formal occasions. It is very important for the speaker to pay attention to the situation in which he is speaking. The speakers have to maintain certain norms by means of language in some special circumstances. A formal use of language is associated with the selection of appropriate vocabulary items, sentence structures and avoidance of fuzziness. It also refers to the controlled use of language. Similarly, a formal language minimizes the use of proverbs, jokes, incomplete sentences, cliché etc.

A formal use of language takes place making a good judgment of the situation. It is an agreement to the situation that does not conform to the everyday use of language.

An informal use of language, on the other side, is the language of everyday domesticity. It is used in casual talks, gossip, jokes, humour etc. It does not maintain the standard norms of a language. An informal use of language makes use of irony and rhetoric, cliché, gestures, proverbs, pauses and incomplete

utterances. The speaker is not bound by the situation, so, the speaker cares very little about well-formedness of the structures.

1.1.5.3 Sentence

It has already been stated that morpheme is the smallest unit of grammatical description. Similarly, the sentence is the highest level unit. This ranking is made because a morpheme cannot be further segmented into units smaller than this and the sentence, on the other side, cannot function in the structure of a unit higher than itself.

Traditionally, a sentence is defined as the complete expression of a single thought. But, the modern linguists have blamed this definition as an incomplete one. A complete thought does not necessarily need a whole sentence. Even a single word such as *pumpkin* may give a complete thought depending upon the situation.

From Linguistic perspective, a sentence is an independent Linguistic form, not included by any larger grammatical form. Linguists also agree that sometimes a sentence may omit its parts and yet give the realization of the whole structure depending on the previous sentences. In the piece of construction below, the utterance *twenty* produced by 'A' gives the realization of the complete sentence *I am twenty years old* depending on 'B's' question *How old are you?*

B: How old are you?

A: Twenty.

Bhattarai (1994, p.47)

Sentences can be of different types. On the basis of structure, they are of three types; simple, compound and complex. A thorough description of these types has been made in the analysis section. Therefore, no further discussion has been made here.

Similarly, sentences can be divided into four types on the basis of their

functions namely; assertive, interrogative, imperative and exclamatory.

1.1.6 Syntactic Analysis of Speech

Once the data are collected, the researcher has to adopt certain analytical procedure as the data are the only source of research outcome. He/she involves in a number of closely related operations such as categorizing, ordering, manipulation and summarizing of the data to get answer to research questions. In linguistic research, data are generally collected from human linguistic endeavours. Such endeavours are either in spoken form or in written form. The spoken form is what we call speech.

When we show our concern relating to the research works on spoken form of a language, a number of variables float about in our mind, confusing us which of them to include and which to exclude. Speech can be analyzed from various aspects such as syntactic features, segmental and suprasegmental features, discourse features and so on. It depends upon the interest of the researcher.

So far syntactic analysis of speech is concerned; we can approach it in terms of the grammaticality of the sentences uttered by the speaker, their completeness and incompleteness, length, types, degree of formality etc. These features are person specific to a large extent, and, therefore, a comparative study can vividly illustrate them.

The present study aims to bring out such facts through a close examination of some selected native English and Nepali political leaders' public speeches on various topics related to politics.

1.2 Review of the Related Literature

The content of the present study is speech and the methodology adopted is ethno-methodology. Several researches on oral data have been carried out in

the English Education Department, T.U. Some of the research works (including the ones carried out by non-Nepalese scholars) that are relevant in this context have been reviewed and their abstracts have been presented below.

Baral (1999) conducted a research on “Language Used in the Field of Tourism: A General Study”. His study was concerned with finding out the most frequent vocabulary items, sentence patterns and language functions used in the tourism field. His study revealed that the English language used in the tourism field in Nepal contained a frequent use of word abbreviations, borrowed words from different languages and lacked structural appropriateness. Similarly, everyday functions like greeting, farewell, welcoming, introducing people, apologizing, inviting etc were the major language functions in this field.

Similarly, **Heylighen & Dewaele (1999)** carried out a study on “Formality of Language: Definition, Measurement and Behavioral Determinants,” in the non-Nepalese context. They discussed the concept of "deep" and ‘surface’ formality. They suggested that the ‘deep’ formality can be defined as avoidance of ambiguity by minimizing the context-dependence and fuzziness of expressions. Similarly, the ‘surface’ formality is just the consciousness of the speakers towards appropriate forms without regard to the factors discussed under deep formality. They further suggested that formality increases when the distance in space, time or background between the interlocutors increases, and when the speaker is male, introverted or academically educated.

Ayeomoni (2005) carried out a study on “A Linguistic-Stylistic Investigation of the Language of the Nigerian Political Elite”. It was obvious from the analysis of the political speeches, that the language of the political elite in Nigeria, more often than not, exhibited some unique language features to grasp power and to consolidate it. There was always a preponderant use of simple declarative sentence types. They also used figurative or metaphoric language. They adopted this style when they intended to convey their intentions or

message convincingly so that the impression and intention projected could be printed and lasting in the minds of their listeners.

Similarly, **Paudel (2007)** carried out a research entitled ‘The English Language Used in News Broadcasting: A Comparative Study’. The main objective of the study was to compare the English language used in news broadcasting. She found that the English language used in the BBC news was more comprehensive, simpler and cohesive than the ones used in Nepal based radio and TV news channels.

Bhandari (2010) also carried out a research of the similar kind entitled “Language Used in Political Speeches”. She made a comparative study of the speeches of selected native and non native speakers of English. Her study was mainly focused on the quantitative study of specific vocabularies, sentence types and language functions. She found that nouns had the highest frequency of occurrence in both the native and the non-native speakers’ speeches. Similarly, it was also found that both the native and non-native speakers used compound sentences maximally. The simple and complex sentences were used in limited number. So far the language functions are concerned, it was found that imparting and seeking factual information, expressing intellectual attitude, emotional attitude, socializing and greeting were of major concern among most of the leaders.

Another study similar from methodological point of view was carried out by **Sapkota (2010)**. The title of the study was ‘Negotiation of Meaning in EFL classroom’. The main objective of the study was to find out the current trends of meaning negotiation in Nepali EFL classrooms. The methodology adopted was conversational analysis. The majority of data showed that Nepali EFL classrooms lacked genuine interaction. Similarly it was also found that the negotiation in the interaction was even poorer than the frequency of interaction encountered.

All the above mentioned studies are related to the analytical study of language in spoken form as used in various fields. The present study is different from all these studies in that it attempts to find out the syntactic aspects associated with the political speech.

1.3 Objectives of the Study

The study had the following objectives:

- a. To make syntactic comparison of the speech of political leaders in terms of sentence types, degree of formality, and grammaticality.
- b. To suggest some pedagogical implications on the basis of the findings.

1.4 Significance of the Study

This study will be significant for the researchers who undergo a similar type of research work in future. As this study focuses on the comparative study of syntax of political speeches, the outcome of the research will be significantly important for the journalists, media houses and biography writers. It will be equally important for the teachers and students.

1.5. Definition of Key Terms

The present research includes some terminologies in their special sense. So, a brief definition of them has been presented below.

Arbitrary: The characteristic of human language which states that linguistic forms lack any physical correspondence with the entities in the world to which they refer

Body language: The conscious and unconscious bodily movements and postures by which feelings are communicated.

Cliché: A phrase or opinion that is overused in a person's speech and shows a lack of original thought.

Conventional: A characteristic feature of defining language that language is not acquired through heredity but through learning as part of culture.

Decoding: The process of associating signals (written or spoken) with their corresponding message.

Deictic expression: Any linguistic form that refers directly to the personal, temporal or locational characteristics of the situation within which it takes place and its meaning is understood from the situation.

Encoding: The process of changing the information into a conventionally shared order of symbols (auditory or visual).

Langue: A term from the French language introduced into linguistics by Ferdinand de Saussure which refers to the language system shared by a community of speakers.

Manifesto: A public declaration of policy and aims of a political party.

Parameter: The limit or boundary which defines the scope of a grammar.

Parole: A term from the French language introduced into linguistics by Ferdinand de Saussure which refers to the concrete utterances produced by individual speakers in actual situations.

Pause : A temporary stop in speech.

Politics: The activities associated with the governance of a country or area.

Referent: The entity in the external world which corresponds to the linguistic expressions.

Regional dialect: A variety of language which is spoken in a particular geographical territory which differs from the standard form of the language in various respects.

Situation: The extra-linguistic setting such as number of participants, level of formality, nature of the ongoing activities etc. in which an utterance takes place

Utterance: A stretch of speech preceded and followed by silence or a change of speaker.

CHAPTER TWO

METHODOLOGY

The present study is a qualitative research based on rationalism- the philosophical belief that human knowledge is the outcome of reasoning capacity. Such type of research is based on the phenomenological inquiry. A phenomenological approach uses an interpretive method. The researcher is guided by a subjective description of observed phenomena.

The present research is of conversation analysis (CA) paradigm which makes use of audio and video recordings of naturally occurring interaction and their transcriptions as the main source of data. Moreover, this approach undergoes a non-experimental method and places no importance on the sociological and demographic information of the members taking part in the interaction.

The topic of the present study has been selected from a socio-political phenomenon. Various tools such as observation, interview, field notes, conversation etc. are the major tools of data collection for such type of study. But, according to the nature of the topic of the present study, the researcher had to collect second hand data available in media libraries and the internet.

2.1 Sources of Data

The study was carried out being based on the second-hand data only.

2.1.1 Secondary Sources of Data

Audio-visual or audio recordings of the speeches of political leaders stored in different media houses and the internet were the secondary sources of data. Besides, the researcher also made use of several books, websites and earlier theses as the source of data. (See the data recorded on the audio CD appended on the backside cover page.)

The researcher based his research only on the secondary sources of data because he was all set to analyze the speeches of both the Nepali and the English political leaders and the feasibility of getting the firsthand data was very low.

2.2 Population of the Study

The present research is a speech relative research rather than a speaker relative one. Therefore, all the political speeches delivered by six (three Nepali and three American) political leaders namely; Mr. Pushpa Kamal Dahal ‘Prachanda’, Mr. J. N. Khanal, Mr. Sushil Koirala, Mr, William J. Clinton, Mr. George W. Bush (Junior) and Mr. Barak Obama (See appendix-1 for a brief biography of each) were the population of the study.

2.3 Sampling Procedure

A judgmental sampling procedure was used to select the leaders and the audio clips of their speeches.

A judgmental sampling was carried out because certain samples showed better evidences than the others which provided sufficient information to achieve the objectives of his study.

2.4 Sample Population

Five audio clips- each of six political leaders- were analyzed.

(See the data recorded on the audio CD appended on the backside cover page.)

2.5 Tools for Data Collection

Audio recordings of the speeches were the tools for data collection.

(See the data recorded on the audio CD appended on the backside cover page.)

2.6 Process of Data Collection

For the purpose of collecting data, first, the researcher visited the media houses based in Pokhara and Kathmandu and asked for the audio clips of the speech of the selected political leaders. And, those data which were not available in the media houses were retrieved from the internet. Five clips of each were selected and they were transcribed as thoroughly as possible following conventional technique of transcription. (See, appendix- 1 A&B)

2.7 Limitations of the Study

This research will have the following limitations:

- a. The study was confined within the domain of syntax only.
- b. Only the speeches of male political leaders were analyzed.
- c. The speeches delivered by three native Nepali and three native English leaders were analyzed.
- d. Only five audio clips of each political leader delivered on different occasions were analyzed.
- e. While collecting the data the audio clips that were `comparatively shorter were of preference.
- f. Required data were collected from the media houses based in Pokhara and the internet only.

CHAPTER THREE

ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION

I, as per the nature of the study, have adopted the technique of CA. This approach studies recordings of real conversation and their associate transcriptions. The sources of data are the pre-recorded speeches of some judgmentally selected native Nepali and English political leaders. The audio and transcribed versions of the speeches have been appended on the compact disc (CD) at the backside cover page. The analysis part includes only those segments of the speeches which are significant from the point of view of the objectives of the study.

The present study is concerned with comparison and analysis of the speeches of political leaders in purely qualitative norms and terms. It is virtually impossible to compare and contrast all the features of the speeches in question. This is why, a set of precisely defined criteria were developed to view the speech thoroughly. They include:

- a. Types of sentence**
- b. Formality**
- c. Grammaticality**

For the ease of analysis, the following section of the study is sub-divided according to the criteria mentioned above.

3.1 Types of Sentence

Native speakers of a language use a variety of sentences to make their language interesting and lively. From the eyes of a reader or listener, too many simple sentences express the immaturity of the writer or the speaker and too many long sentences happen to bring about boredom or anxiety in them.

Languages mostly have three types of sentences on the basis of their structure- simple, compound, and complex. These types are determined being based on the number of clauses, and, in addition, the type of connectives they consist of. One of the objectives of the research work is to discover the type of sentences used in the Nepali and English political speeches. Therefore, a brief account of these types has been presented below.

1. Simple Sentence

A simple sentence contains a subject and a predicate, and it expresses a complete thought. It is also called an independent clause. Aarts and Aarts (1986, p. 80) write, “A simple sentence can be defined as a sentence in which none of the functions is realized by a clause. In other words, a simple sentence does not contain an embedded (or subordinate) sentence as realization of one of its functions”. Some examples of simple sentences in English have been presented below;

- a. *The children have been quarrelling all day.*
- b. *Peter has grown a moustache.*
- c. *The two men were arrested in a pub last night.*

(Aarts and Aarts, 1986, p: 81)

Similarly, simple sentences in Nepali are called ‘saraI wakya’. The following sentences are the examples of simple sentence in the Nepali language.

- a. *Ram campus janchha.*
(Ram goes to campus.)
- b. *Sita London janchhe.*
- c. *(Sita goes to London.)*
- d. *Maile byakaran jane.*
(I learnt grammar.)

(Karki, 2060: p.198)

These examples show that a simple sentence contains a subject (single or compound) and a verb and expresses a complete thought.

2. Compound Sentence

A compound sentence consists of two or more than two independent clauses connected by a coordinating conjunction such as; *and, but, nor, for, or, yet, either... or, neither... nor, so* etc. The clauses in a compound sentence can give a complete meaning if they are written in isolation. According to Aarts and Aarts (ibid, p. 86), coordination may be syndetic or asyndetic. In case of syndetic, the coordinator is overt. And, in asyndetic case, it is not marked overtly. A compound sentence may consist of;

- A. Two or more simple sentences,
- B. One (or more) simple sentences+ one (or more) complex sentences.
- C. Two (or more) complex sentences.

(Aarts and Aarts, 1986, p. 87)

Here are some examples of compound sentences.

Syndetic coordination

- a. *Oil is now more expensive and that will affect our economy.*
- b. *I have bought a new shirt, but it does not fit me.*
- c. *Can you come to dinner on Saturday or are you busy?*

(Aarts and Aarts, 1986, p. 87)

Each of the above sentences has an overt coordinator; *and* in the case of sentence 'a', *but* in the case of sentence 'b' and *or* in the case of 'c'. Therefore, they are the examples of syndetic coordination.

Asyndetic coordination

- a. *He was a moody man, his temper was never equable.*

- b. *Brooks was a brilliant chemist, he was ten years ahead of his time.*

(Aarts and Aarts, 1986, p. 86)

We can easily notice that coordination is also possible even without an overt coordinator. This case, as stated earlier, is asyndetic coordination.

Compound sentences in Nepali are called 'samyukta wakya'. The coordinating conjunctions used in Nepali compound sentences are; *ra* (and), *pani*(also), *arthat* (or), *tatha* (or), *athawa* (or), *tara* (but), *kinabhane* (for), *ya...ya* (either...or), *na...na* (neither nor), etc Some examples of Nepali compound sentences are presented below.

- a. *Rameshle suntala kinyo ra jholama halyo.*
(Ram bought oranges and kept in a bag.)
- b. *Shyam sikshak ho tara murkha chha.*
(shyam is a teacher but he is foolish.)
- c. *Bas rokiyo, yatriharu utriye.*
(The bus stopped, the passengers got off.)

(Karki, 2060, p. 202)

3. Complex Sentence

A complex sentence contains one independent clause and at least one dependent clause. The clauses in a complex sentence are not equal in their meaning. The independent clause or the main clause has a complete meaning on its own but the subordinate clauses depend on the main clause to have a complete sense. Aarts and Aarts (ibid, p. 83) describes a complex sentence as "Sentences in which one or more sentence functions are realized by a clause (finite or non-finite) are complex". The clauses in a complex sentence are conjoined by the subordinating conjunctions like; *if, that, as, before, while,*

after, except, lest, since, though, till, unless, until, when, how, whither, why, whence etc.

Here are some examples of complex sentences from the English language.

- a. *That the boy is ill is obvious.*
- b. *I believe that she is English.*
- c. *As he said this, the door opened.*
- d. *That Jim is not here probably means that he has overslept.*
- e. *What matters is that he has confidence in us.*

(Aarts and Aarts, 1986, p. 84)

It is necessary to note that in the above sentences, the sentences ‘a’, ‘b’ and ‘c’ consist of only one embedded sentence as indicated by the italic letters.

Similarly, sentences ‘d’ and ‘e’ consist of more than one embedded clauses.

This has been represented in the italics.

Complex sentences in the Nepali language are called ‘misra wakya’. The following sentences are the examples of complex sentence in the Nepali language.

- a. *U kyampas ayeko matra ke thiyo sabaile gijyae.*
(Everybody teased him once he arrived at the college)
- b. *Maile byakaran lekhe jasle garda bidhyarthile sajilai byakaran sikun.*
(I wrote grammar so that the students could learn it easily.)
- c. *Harile jati janeko thiyo tyeti sikayo.*
(Hari taught what he knew.)

(Karki, 2060, p. 203)

One of the objectives of the present research is to deal with the type of sentences used in the political speeches of native Nepali and native English

political leaders. A thorough analysis of the available data showed that most of the sentences in the Nepali speeches were complex. The basis of this conclusion was the general observation of the frequency of the sentence types. Similarly, the case with the English speeches was different from the Nepali speeches. The data showed that the English speeches contained more compound sentences. Some excerpts of speeches from both the languages have been presented below;

Hami bastabma thik dhangabata paristhitiko bisleshan garera agadi jana chahanchhaun *bhane* hami yo desbata samantabdlai sabbhanda pahhhile samul ruple samapta garna sakne abasthama pugeka chhaun.

Hami sabai partyharule hastachhar garera ghosana gareka chhaun; Hami samantabdlai samapta garchhaun; samantabadka sabai dobharulai hami Nepalbata samapta garchhaun *bhani* hamile ghoshana gareka chhaun.

(See, Appendix- 1 'A'). (We want to go ahead appropriately analyzing the situation that we have come to the state of uprooting the feudalism.

We all the parties have signed and declared that we would end feudalism; we would wipe out all the traces of feudalism from Nepal; we have declared.)

The above excerpt consists of two sentences and both of which are complex sentences if some grammatical flaws are to be ignored. The subordinating conjunctions *bhane* and *bhani* append the subordinating clauses to the main clauses of both the sentences. The sentences sound a bit awkward because of the speaker's low attention to form. Frequent repetition of the same pronoun makes the utterances sound so. Some more evidences as such are present in the following excerpt;

Kul milayara aath dinko bhraman yaha Nepalma tapaiharule
dekhirakhnu bha chhha ma jati besta hunthe Nepalma *bhanda* besi
bhayo kami bhayena Americama. Bihana dekhi beluka samma hamilai
kunaipani bela phursad bhanne chahi hudainathyo. Yek pachhi arko
karyakram umm.. kaiyau karyakram ta mahatwapurna hudaa hudai *pani*
samayaka abhavle roknuparne sthiti pani bhayo. Umm.... Teti thulo
utsaha thiyo. Tyeti thulo aakarshan thiyo. Err.. yesai pani yeuta chain
aakarshanko yeuta pachhya ke bujhinthyo *bhane* sasastra bidhrohabata
ayeko manchhe pradhanmantri bhayeko chain bhanne kurale sabaitira
ummm... touching point tyo hudo rahechha. (See, Appendix- 1 'A').
(You have been observing from here in Nepal that I was busier in
America than here in Nepal. We had no free time from morning to
evening. One after another, err... so many programmes were cancelled
though they were important. Err... there was such a great enthusiasm.
Err... one of the major attractions behind it was that a rebellion leader
had become the prime minister; that was the touching point.)

Of the five sentences in the above piece of speech, three are complex. Such other evidences were found in plenty in course of analyzing the data. Some evidences also showed that the speakers' sentences were so long that a confusing awkwardness was explicitly present. The following excerpt consists of such instances;

Aba yesma hamle ke bhane kai katai byabadhan naaos **ra** ramro kura
ke hunchha *bhane* yo yeuta yug pariwartan garne parighatanama yeuta
naya model hamile tayar garna sakiyo, naya prakriya chain yeuta chai

nischit garna sakiyo *bhane* ramro hunchha bhanera hamile janatako
mandate aaisake pachhi umm.. yo mandatelai umm... gyanendrale pani
samman garnu parchha **ra** tyo samman bhayo *bhane* yeuta sahaj nikasko
watawaran unkolagi *pani* hunchha *bhanera* hamle bhaneka thiyau. (See,
Appendix- 1 'A'). (Now, what we mean is that there be no obstacle from
any side and the good thing would be if we could prepare a new model
in the sequence of events for the transformation of era; if we could
ensure a new process following the public mandate umm... this mandate
umm... king Gyanendra should also respect it, and if he does so, a
natural breakthrough could be there for him)

The speaker, in this long utterance consisting of a single sentence, has made use of both the subordinating and coordinating conjunctions. The conjunctions in bold are the coordinators and the ones in italics are subordinators. If we ignore the clichés and the repetition of certain elements, the sentence is of mixed type which in Nepali is called *samyukta wakyā*.

A very common feature in the Nepali speeches that the researcher has obtained in course of analyzing the data is that the Nepali political leaders are less conscious of the forms. It was also found that they were extending the sentences forcibly without a due care for appropriate form using an unrestricted number of conjunctions. They were only concerned with the functional aspect of the language.

On the other hand, majority of the sentences in the English speeches were compound sentences. Here are some evidences;

Immediately following the first attack, I implemented our government's emergency response plans. Our military is powerful, *and* it's prepared.

Our emergency teams are working in New York City and Washington D.C. to help with local rescue efforts. Our first priority is to get help to those who have been injured, *and* to take every precaution to protect our citizens at home and around the world from further attacks. The functions of our government continue without interruption. Federal agencies in Washington which had to be evacuated today are reopening for essential personnel tonight *and* will be open for business tomorrow. Our financial institutions remain strong, *and* the American economy will be open for business as well. (See, Appendix- 1 'B').

This excerpt consists of five sentences. Of them, four are compound sentences. In the course of data analysis, the researcher went through almost fifteen clips of audio speeches and found that the compound sentences had the highest frequency. Among the various coordinating conjunctions, *and* was used with the highest frequency. Most of the compound sentences were formed under syndetic coordination. Asyndetic coordination was rarely observed.

Here are some more evidences from the English speeches;

We are the keepers of this legacy. Guided by these principles once more, we can meet those new threats that demand even greater effort -- even greater cooperation and understanding between nations. We will begin to responsibly leave Iraq to its people, and forge a hard-earned peace in Afghanistan. With old friends and former foes, we will work tirelessly to lessen the nuclear threat, and roll back the specter of a warming

planet. We will not apologize for our way of life, nor will we waver in its defense, and for those who seek to advance their aims by inducing terror and slaughtering innocents, we say to you now that our spirit is stronger and cannot be broken. You cannot outlast us, and we will defeat you! (See, Appendix- 1 'B').

Of the five sentences in the above piece of speech four are compounds. All these compounds are the results of complex sentences conjoined by coordinating conjunctions.

As a natural fact, most of the sentences in a matured native speaker's expressions are either compound or complex. Very few instances of simple sentence were observed in the data of both the languages. In the case of the Nepali language, compound sentences were found second in order on the basis of the degree of frequency. Similarly, complex sentences were in the second order in the case of the English language.

3.2 Formality

.A 'formal speech', according to Richards, Platt and Platt (1997, p. 144) is, "The style of speech used in situations when the speaker is very careful about pronunciation and choice of words and sentence structure. This type of speech may be used, for example, at official functions, and in debates and ceremonies".

Formal language is a kind of register. Register is one of the varieties of linguistic code. It reflects the situation in which the speech event takes place. The speakers determine the type of language to be used according to the demand of the situation. Two situations, for example, are taken here; first, a group of mutual friends gathered in a park and chatting, and, second, a team of medical professionals discussing the issues related to current epidemics. The

former situation demands an informal use of language whereas the latter one demands a formal one. According to Heylighen and Dewaele (1999: p, 1), “A formal style is characterized by detachment, accuracy, rigidity and heaviness; an informal style is more flexible, direct, implicit, and involved, but less informative.”

The degree of formality is determined by situational and personality factors also. If the interlocutors are spatially apart from each other; if they are from different backgrounds and if the frequency of time they meet each other is low, the degree of formality of the linguistic expressions increases. Similarly, if the speaker is a male and he is academically profound, he is found using more formal expressions. In a live speech, the degree of formality is highly associated with the note of the speaker’s voice which reflects his mood. A formal expression is context independent i.e. they are interpreted in the same way regardless of the situation of their use. It is just like the interpretation of mathematics or pure science. On the other hand, an informal expression is context dependent. They imply high degree of implicature and make use of a number of deictic words. The deictic words need points of reference or situations for their meanings. Formality is the concern of sociolinguistic. What we accept as formal in a language appears to be informal in the other. Formality, therefore, is a language specific phenomenon. Yet, some universal parameters can be established. The following table represents some criteria for the measurement of formality of linguistic expressions.

Table: 1
Criteria for Measuring Formal and Informal Language

Formal	Informal
1. Indirect expressions/polite	1. Direct expressions/impolite
2. Context independent	2. Context dependent
3. Avoidance of Ambiguity, pauses, cliché etc	3. Presence of ambiguity/fuzziness, pauses and cliché
4. Explicit; Rhetoric devices like irony, satire etc are not used.	4. Implicit; Rhetoric devices like irony, satire etc are frequently used.
5. Static	5. Flexible
6. Frequent words; nouns, adjectives, articles and prepositions	6. Frequent words; pronouns, adverbs, verbs and interjections
7. Detachment	7. Involvement
8. Special attention to form	8. Special attention to function
9. Standard form of language	9. Dialectical form
10. Passive voice	10. Active voice

(Source: Heylighen and Dewaele, 1999)

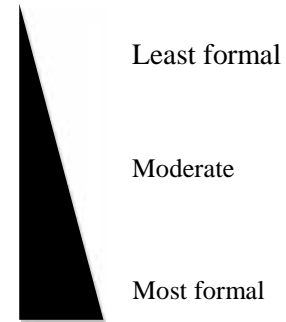
So far the situational aspect of the political speeches is concerned; it is more formal and less informal one. The thing that matters here is that the communication in such a case is not two-way. The addressee is a passive listener. Yet, the addresser is fully conscious of his selection of sentence structures, vocabulary items and forms of address. A political leader's sole concern, while delivering his speech, is to persuade the mass. Persuading people also requires an informal use of language such as making rhetoric expression, cracking jokes, scolding the political rivals, switching to regional dialects or minority languages etc. Therefore, it is not predetermined whether the language used in the political speeches is purely formal or informal.

In everyday communication, formality is mainly confined to the use of polite or impolite expressions. Such expressions are language specific. Here is an example from English language;

Making requests

- i. Hey, you. Mind closing the window?
- ii. Close the window. I'm feeling so cold here.
- iii. Please close the window.
- iv. Could you please close the window?
- v. I wonder if you could close the window.

Fig: 2 Degree of Formality

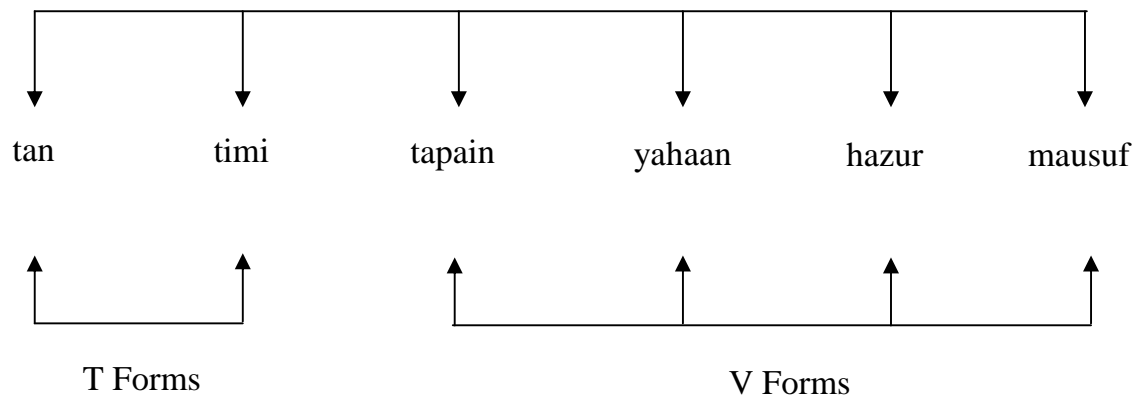


All these sentences hold almost the same meaning but bear different degrees of formality. The decreasing thickness of the triangle to the right of the expressions represents the decreasing degree of their formality.

Similarly, another dimension of the present research is associated to Nepali language. Unlike the English language, the Nepali language has several forms of the second person pronoun and posits a T/V distinction. The following figure presents it in a precise way.

Various forms of the second person pronoun in the Nepali language

Fig. 3 T/V Forms in Nepali



Therefore, the researcher has paid a special attention to the language specific aspects as well.

Most of the data taken showed that degree of formality was seen higher in the English speeches in comparison to the Nepali ones. The expressions made in Nepali were coarse and are seemingly comprising of cliché and pauses. The following data presents such evidence.

Badhaika lagi tapaiharulai dhanyabad. Err... yo samanya nirbachan nabhayera sambidhan sabhako nirbachan ho. *Yeuta yugantakari paribartan sangathit garne, yeuta yug nai pherne chain yo nirbachanma err... hamro party sabai bhanda thulo party huna nischit rupma ti tamam..... barga, jati, chhetra, lingaka janatako bijaya ho yo.* Ra, yo, err... ti hajarau sahidharu jasle naya Nepalko kalpana gardai aaphno pran utsarga garne ti mahan sahidharuko sapana sakar parne disama yeuta mahatwapurna upalabdhi pani ho yo. (See, Appendix- 1 'A').
(Thanks for congratulations. This is not a usual election; it is the election of the Constituent Assembly. In an epoch making election as such and in organizing the changes err.....out party, to be the largest party... it is the victory of the people of all classes, castes, areas and gender. And, this errs...is an important achievement for the fulfillment of the dreams of the great martyrs who sacrificed their lives dreaming a new Nepal.)

The above piece of speech bears certain grammatical awkwardness and a cliché- *chain*. Similarly, the speaker has paused for several times as represented in the dots in the above transcription. The speaker seems extremely careless

about the formal aspect of the language. It is clear if we examine the awkward sentence as represented in the italics. So, this sentence has breached the standard norms of a language. Therefore, it cannot be regarded as a formal sentence.

Use of such cliché and repetition of the same linguistic item was rarely observed in course of analyzing the English data. Though most of the expressions were in active forms, the English speeches were not as informal as Nepali speeches in degree. Here is an excerpt from English speech;

A great people have been moved to defend a great nation. Terrorist attacks can shake the foundations of our biggest buildings, but they cannot touch the foundation of America. These acts shatter steel, but they cannot dent the steel of American resolve. America was targeted for attack because we're the brightest beacon for freedom and opportunity in the world. And no one will keep that light from shining. Today, our nation saw evil the very worst of human nature and we responded with best of America. With the daring of our rescue workers, with the caring for strangers and neighbors who came to give blood and help in any way they could. (See, Appendix- 1 'B')

The above excerpt is formal in several respects. The speaker has made use of passive structures wherever possible and there is no use of cliché. Similarly, unlike in the Nepali speeches, there is no repetition of the same word or phrase and no breaching of grammatical norms. If we compare the audio versions of both the languages, we hardly hear any pause or blurred voice in the English speech. This fact was observed in almost all the clips taken for the study.

An interesting fact that was observed in course of data analysis process was that most of the data from Nepali speeches lacked formality at some points. The following data has a lesser degree of formality in comparison to the former one.

...teskaranle chadai nai, chadai nai **hamle** yo...se...se...senako,
combatantsharuko hatiyar ra yo.....yo..... samadhan, samadhan
hos....err... chunab, sambidhan, yeuta democratic sambidhann lyaera
chunabma jau bhannne na ho hamiharuko. Mukhya lachhhe yo ho.....
ra sambidhan.....sambidhanko rachhako rachhhako nimti pani hamile
chaine.... Peace process chaaine complete chaine hamile garnaai
parchha. Tyaskaranle priority chaine peace process ho. (See, Appendix-
1 'A') (Therefore, soon..., soon..., the problem associated to the
combatants, the arms be solved, election be held issuing a new
constitution. It's our stand. This is our destination. And, we must
complete the peace process for the sake of protecting the constitution.
Therefore, peace process is on the top priority.)

The above excerpt of Nepali speech sounds informal in various respects. The blurring voice, repeated use of cliché like *chaine*, relaxed mood of the speaker, switching of English words like *combatants*, *democratic*, *peace process* and *priority* and selection of dialectical terms like *hamle* make it informal. In almost all the data observed, the Nepali speeches revealed that they are informal in comparison to the English speeches to a large extent.

Evidence observed in the English data showed that even a long utterance consisting of 138 words, showed a high 'attention to form'. Moreover, the expression does not seem fuzzy and the density of information is also considerably high. It has been presented below;

Our challenges may be new. The instruments with which we meet them may be new. But those values upon which our success depends -- honesty and hard work, courage and fair play, tolerance and curiosity, loyalty and patriotism -- these things are old. These things are true. They have been the quiet force of progress throughout our history. What is demanded then is a return to these truths. What is required of us now is a new era of responsibility -- a recognition, on the part of every American, that we have duties to ourselves, our nation, and the world, duties that we do not grudgingly accept but rather seize gladly, firm in the knowledge that there is nothing so satisfying to the spirit, so defining of our character, than giving our all to a difficult task. (See, Appendix- 1 'B')

If some features of the spoken form of a language are to be ignored, the speaker is perfectly bound by the formal norms of the English language. All the data taken for study reflected almost similar pattern of formality regardless of who the speaker was. Moreover, the above data also reveals that the speaker has nominalised the terms wherever possible. Challenges, success, tolerance etc are the examples which otherwise could be replaced by verbs like challenge, succeed, tolerate etc.

Thus, majority of the data taken for the analysis showed that Nepali political speeches were less formal than the English. A very interesting case observed

was that almost all the clips of speech delivered by various Nepali political leaders reflected a common pattern of less formal language. Similarly, the Nepali speeches also contained a number of dialectical expressions which were comparatively less in the English speeches.

There were not only differences. Some similarity definitely lay there. The similarity that was seen on both the data was the use of context dependence. Context dependence is related to the deictic expressions. Though the Nepali speeches contained more deictic expressions than the English, none was devoid of them. Most of the deixis were person deixis. These cases were prevalent even in the data presented above.

3.3 Grammaticality

When we are set to examine the grammaticality of a sentence, we happen to see whether the sentence or its constituents conform to the rules of grammar of a language. Errors are common when people involve in a speech event. Actually, the decision of stating whether certain utterance is grammatical or ungrammatical depends upon the judgment of the native speakers of the language in question. An adequate theory of grammar tries to depict the knowledge of language of its native speakers. So, grammaticality can also be scrutinized being based on the particular model of grammar. Whatever may be the judgmental bases, a sentence is said to be grammatical if it follows the normative rules, and ungrammatical if it does not. Typical features that make a sentence ungrammatical include subject-verb disagreement, number disagreement, mismatch in the sequence of tense, incompleteness i.e. missing of the necessary elements of the sentence resulting in incomplete thought.

The researcher is concerned with identifying whether the sentences spontaneously uttered by the political leaders are grammatical or ungrammatical. While analyzing the data, the researcher has tried to find out the grammatically awkward utterances as produced by the political leaders in

their respective mother tongues in course of delivery of their speech. The basis for judgment has been taken from the common pedagogical grammars of English and Nepali.

Analysis of the Nepali Speeches

Various types of mistakes at grammatical level were observed in course of the analysis of the data taken from the Nepali political speeches. Most of the mistakes were detected in long utterances. In comparison to the native English leaders, the Nepali leaders were found to utter grammatically awkward sentences.

Here is a short excerpt from a Nepali political speech;

...adaraniya sathiharu, Nepali Kangres chahe kunai pani , hamile, Nepali Kangresle yesto kam gareko chhhaina jasle garda hamile kasaiko samunne tauko nihaurauna paros. Jahile pani janataka hak, adhikarka nimti, loktantrako nimti, **yo** mulukko bikaska nimti, jahile pani hamiharu agrim panktima, hamiharu, basera hamiharule sankalpa gareka chhaun. (See, Appendix- 1 'A'). (...respected colleagues, Nepali Congress has never acted in a way so that we should have face-saving compromise. We are always on the front line in the matters of civic rights, democracy, national development, and we have always wished for that. ...)

The above excerpt consists of only two sentences. Both the sentences do not follow the standard norms of the Nepali grammar. The first sentence shows that the speaker starts another utterance without completing the previous one. Thus, there is no coordination in meaning demanded by the first incomplete utterance and the one given by the second utterance. The speaker also seems indeterminate to choose between the noun and the pronoun ultimately resulting into a grammatically ill formed sentence. The second sentence also breaches the standard norm of its grammar repeating the same time adverbial *jahilepani*

and the object pronoun *hamiharu*.

We normally expect well formed utterances from a matured native speaker of a language. But, the evidences gathered in course of research activities of this kind evidently showed that ill formed sentences are quite frequent in a spontaneous stream of speech. . In the utterance below, one of the obligatory sentence elements is not present.

...Umm... tesro pachha umm... bivinna sangh sansthaharu, New York sthit khas gari Asia Society dekhi umm... yo new school university jasta asadhyai khyati prapta tyahako sansthaharu sangako antarkriyaharu... (See, Appendix- 1 'A'). (Umm... the third aspect umm... interactions with various organizations, especially New York based highly reputed organizations like Asia Society, New School University.)

The above utterance, though bears a sense, cannot be termed as a sentence as it lacks a finite verb, and, thus, is ungrammatical.

One of the main objectives of the present researcher was to present a comparative account of native English and Nepali leaders' speeches in terms of grammaticality. A thorough analysis of the data revealed that the native Nepali leaders frequently violated the established norms of the grammar of their language. A close observation also showed that shorter expressions lacked such violations. As an expression stretches longer with various embedding parts, the latter constituents of the same sentence fail to agree with the former ones.

Sometimes, even shorter sentences sound awkward because of the selection of improper form of a pronoun. The following sentence contains such a case;

...hamiharu herda herdai comrade Madan Kumar Bhandari ra comrade Jibraj Aasritlai hamile gumayeko terha barsa pugi sakeko chha... (See,

Appendix- 1 'A'). (It has been thirteen years since we lost comrade Madan Kumar Bhandari and comrade Jib Raj Aasrit right in front of our eyes.)

In this sentence, the subject pronoun 'hamiharu' instead of 'hamiharule' and unnecessary addition of 'hamile' after the object noun 'comrade Madan Kumar Bhandari ra comrade Jib Raj Aasrit' have led the sentence to awkwardness.

Another significant fact in relation to grammatical aspect was that the Nepali political speeches showed a common pattern in which the speakers failed to maintain cohesion within their utterances. The following excerpt represents such evidence;

...bigatma bado lajaimardo tarikale samanta sasakharule bhanne gare; kunai bhasha bhashi, kunai jat jatile aafno adhikarko nimti athawa singo rastrako swotandrata ra swavimanko nimti aawaj uthauda teslai arastriya bhanne gariyo... (See, Appendix- 1 'A'). (...The feudal rulers in the past blamed it as anti-national if any linguistic community or any ethnic group raised voice for their rights or for the sovereignty of the whole nation..)

In this utterance, the speaker fails to maintain agreement between the verb phrases 'bhanne gare' and 'bhanne gariyo'. The first verb phrase 'bhanne gare' already directs the speaker towards a selection boundary of a particular inflection of the upcoming verb phrase (VP). But the speaker, here, seems carefree in this regard. The second clause in this sentence does not show any cohesiveness to the preceding one.

Similarly, in the following piece of speech, the speaker has chosen an

inappropriate form of the verb *garnu* (do). In the Nepali language the verbs must inflect to meet the requirement demanded by various forms of the same pronoun. The second person subject pronoun *tapainharule* and the verb *garyo* do not agree with each other.

Maile ke biswas dinchhu bhane yo ratriys sankalpa *tapainharule garyo* bhane yek dui dasak bhitrai hamro des sansarkai sabai bhanda sabhya, sambriddha, susanskrit, bado chai yeuta aitihāsik gaurabdwara gaurawanwit des hune chha. (See, Appendix- 1 'A'). (What I would like to assure you is that our country will be the most civilized, prosperous, well cultured and a historically proud country if you express a strong determination.)

These are the representative examples. Several other examples as such were observed in course of analyzing the data.

Analysis of English Speeches

A comparative study of a similar phenomenon in two or more than two contrasting backgrounds can frame a clearer basis for a descriptive study like the present one. Though the main goal of the present research is to analyze the syntactic features prevalent in the political speeches in general, the outcome of the business seems to be notably significant if the speeches delivered in one socio-political and linguistic background be compared with a different one. Some features are person specific, but if certain features extend over a range of individuals, they are generalizable to the whole group of individuals of its kind.

This study has made an attempt to find out the frequency of ungrammatical features prevalent in the speeches of Nepali and English political leaders on a comparative basis. The data taken from the Nepali speeches have revealed that there is a high frequency of ungrammatical structures. But a similar observation of the data from English showed that such awkward structures are significantly less. One of the major reasons for this varying state, as drawn from the close

examination of both the data, was that the English leaders utter comparatively shorter utterances. Here is a paragraph from an English leader's speech;

A great people have been moved to defend a great nation. Terrorist attacks can shake the foundations of our biggest buildings, but they cannot touch the foundation of America. These acts shatter steel, but they cannot dent the steel of American resolve. America was targeted for attack because we're the brightest beacon for freedom and opportunity in the world. And no one will keep that light from shining. Today, our nation saw evil the very worst of human nature and we respond with the best of America. (See, Appendix- 1 'B') This paragraph consists of five sentences of simple, compound and complex types. All the sentences are grammatically well formed and, therefore, give no sense of awkwardness. And, also that these sentences are significantly shorter and there are less chances on the part of the speakers to lose cohesiveness unlike in the Nepali speeches.

Some evidences observed also revealed that even long utterances that were occasionally uttered by the speakers sounded well formed. Here is such an evidence;

And, fellow Americans, Democrats, Republicans, Independents, I say to you tonight: We have more work to do more work to do for the workers I met in Galesburg, Illinois, who are losing their union jobs at the Maytag plant that's moving to Mexico, and now are having to compete with their own children for jobs that pay seven bucks an hour more to do for the father that I met who was losing his job and choking back the tears, wondering how he would pay 4500 dollars a month for the drugs

his son needs without the health benefits that he counted on more to do for the young woman in East St. Louis, and thousands more like her, who has the grades, has the drive, has the will, but doesn't have the money to go to college. (See, Appendix- 1 'B')

This is a single utterance consisting of several clauses subordinated and coordinated by several connectives. But, it is grammatically well-formed. Initially, this utterance consists of some repeated elements, but does not present that serious awkwardness as observed in the Nepali speeches.

A very important thing to be taken in mind is that the spoken discourse is not always flawless. It is not like the reading of a written text prepared after checking and rechecking. The speaker undoubtedly adopts the features of the spoken discourse such as clichés, pauses, repetition of the same item, incomplete expressions, blurred voice etc. The matter is of degree to which the speaker breaches the norms of the language. The present researcher was fully conscious about this fact. The thing that interested the researcher most was to find out the basic differences that lay in the Nepali and English political speeches on the basis of a comparative study.

CHAPTER FOUR

FINDINGS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The researcher's main objective behind carrying out this research work was to examine and deduce various facts that lay within the sentences spontaneously produced by some judgmentally selected political leaders. For this purpose, the researcher judgmentally selected thirty audio clips of political speeches delivered by judgmentally selected six different political leaders on different occasions. Of the six leaders, three were English-Native leaders and three were Nepali. This is not a personality relative research rather a speech relative one. Thus, after selecting the clips, he thoroughly transcribed them in their respective orthographic forms.

Three criteria grammaticality, sentence type and formality were taken for analysis. According to the objectives proposed, various sub-criteria were formed to judge the above mentioned main criteria.

4.1 Findings

The findings of the study are presented below in the line of objectives.

- a. The majority of the sentences in the Nepali speeches are of complex type. Among the main subordinating conjunctions, *bhani, bhane, pani, bhanda, bhanera* etc. have the highest frequency. Similarly, the English speeches consist of the compound sentences more than any other types. *And, but* and *or* are the most frequent coordinators.
- b. Nepali political speeches show that the speakers are more concerned to the functional aspect than the formal aspect whereas the speakers, in English speeches, are found to have maintained a proper balance between both the formal and the functional aspects.

- c. Majority of the data revealed that the Nepali speeches are informal because of the frequent use of clichés like *chaine*, *chahi* etc. No clichés at all, on the other hand, were found in the English speeches.
- d. Nepali political speeches are also informal due to the lack of agreement among the constituents of the sentences whereas the English speeches do not virtually show such a feature.
- e. Because of frequent borrowing of vocabulary items from other languages which are not the derivatives in their mother tongue, Nepali speeches are informal. In the English speeches, to the contrary, no or very little borrowings were found; and hence are formal.
- f. Switching to regional dialects also make the Nepali speeches informal. For instance, *huncha* instead of *hunchha*, *bhanya* instead of *bhaneko*, *hamle* instead of *hamile* etc were common in them. Except for the variation in accent, no informal varieties of the English language were prevalent in the data taken for analysis. This further strengthens the fact that the English speeches are formal.
- g. Nominalization is another feature of formal language. The English speakers were found using the noun forms of the words in several cases which otherwise could be fulfilled by their verb forms. But the Nepali speeches included more verbal forms of the words though their noun forms could make them more formal.
- h. In any language, the use of passive voice is regarded as more formal than the active voice. The English speeches contained more such structures than the Nepali speeches. Therefore, the Nepali political speeches seem more informal than the English ones.
- i. The point of similarity with regard to formality of speeches in both the

languages is associated with the use of deictic expressions. Though the Nepali political speeches consisted of more deictic depressions than the English ones, none was devoid of them.

- j. The sentences in the Nepali political speeches contained unnecessarily repeated adverbials and pronouns in the same sentence whereas the English speeches did not include such cases.
- k. The Nepali speeches consisted of some utterances without a finite verb whereas the English speeches did not consist of such utterances.
- l. Nepali speeches contained inappropriate pronominal forms making disagreement with the main verb whereas almost all the sentences in the English speeches contained no such disagreement.
- m. Inappropriate sequence of tense was common in Nepali speeches but it was not so in the English speeches.

4.2 Recommendations

Any research activity is carried out with a purpose in the mind of the researcher. The outcomes of any research activity should add something to the existing knowledge and suggest something for practical use. The present research also brings forth some facts which may function as guidelines to the pedagogical and sociological authorities of both the Nepali and English languages. The researcher has made some recommendations for pedagogical and/or sociological implications.

4.2.1 Recommendations for Pedagogical Implication

- a. The English political speeches can be used as authentic materials for language pedagogy but the Nepali political speeches cannot be as they deviate from rules.

- b. Reporters and correspondents should be conscious enough to interpret the Nepali political speeches since there may arise semantic ambiguity created by syntactic flaws.
- c. Understanding of Nepali political speeches requires knowledge of personal clichés and dialectical code.
- d. Nepali political speeches should be understood from what they do, not from what they are.
- e. Absolute Nepali monolinguals feel difficult to comprehend Nepali political speeches. Thus, mainstream political leaders are suggested to deliver their speech with no or less mixing and switching as far as possible.
- f. Deictic expressions can be an effective tool for teaching English and Nepali language as they are used in the same type and degree in both the languages.
- g. Elements in the Nepali political speeches are not predictable as there can be sudden break or reformulation whereas the English speeches can be. So the audience of Nepali political leaders should wait to deduce the meaning of an utterance till it finishes.

4.2.2 Recommendation for Further Research

Any research work carried out in a particular area cannot unfold all the facts lying within it. So far the present research is concerned; it has just dealt with the syntactic aspects associated to the selected political speeches. This field requires several other researches to discern other significant facts. The researcher would like to suggest some of the possible areas as follow;

- a. Semantic analysis of political speeches
- b. Political discourse analysis

- c. Deictic expressions used in political speeches
- d. Analysis of political speeches delivered by male and female leaders
- e. Cohesion and coherence in political speeches
- f. Rhetoric used in political speeches
- g. Language and politics
- h. Political speeches and religious sermons
- i. Political and classroom discourse etc.

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