

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1. General Background

A language is a systematic means by the use of sounds or conventional symbols. It is the system for communicating ideas and feelings using sounds, signs or marks. Human languages are usually referred to as natural languages. In case of Nepal, different languages are spoken. The census 2001 has identified 92 languages spoken as mother tongue. Generally, language is spoken first and then produced in written form. Some languages have both spoken and written form and some languages have only spoken form. Such as Limbu language has both written and spoken form but Thakali and Bajika languages do not have any written form. They have only spoken form. The Limbu language is a language which is spoken in the eastern part of Nepal in the Limbu community.

Subba and Baral (2008, p. 26) say that many historians believe that Limbu is a Gorkha term given to the Limbu by Gorkha administration after 1774. In 1874, Hudson used the term Limbuwan in his book.

Driem (1987, p. XIX) says:

The Limbus designate themselves by the yakthungba and their language by the first part of the autonym of the more northerly dwelling Kirati people the component-thungba may derive from the etymon thung of which the adjective kedhumba 'brave, heroic, manly, bold appears to be an active participle.

Compbell (1840, p. 595) writes:

The Limbus consider themselves to be the original inhabitants of the country they now occupy, at least they are satisfied that none of the

neighboring tribes have any claims of name yakthungpan or yakthungba pan .The component ‘yak’ is probably identical to the preoccupation but they are not agreed among themselves, on the point of nativity. (as cited in Driem 1987, p. XIX)

Chemjong (2003, pp. 51-52) says that, the leaders of Shan Mokwan people challenged their rulers in the battle field. The eight Kirant chief raised their troops and ordered them to massacre all the people of the village occupied by the children of Shan Mekwan and annihilate them. Thus, they declared war with the Shan Mokwan people, later seized the country as their town. After the victory, they fixed the Northern boundary in Tibet, the Southern boundary in the Indian plain at Jalal Garh near Purnea, the eastern boundary at river Teesta and Western boundary at river Dudhkoshi. They further held meeting at the holy place of Ambe Pojoma, discussed and consulted and decided to name the Kirant land by the name of ‘Limbuwan’. After naming the land Limbuwan they elected ten chiefs or Hang, divided the Kirat land of Limbuwan into ten districts and placed each chief or hang in each district.

Limbu is an ethnic group who has its own culture, literature, custom, festivals, language, script, etc. The Limbu people speak the Limbu language and they use Sirijonga script.

Yadav (2006, p. 83) says that, there are 145511 Limbu population in Nepal. (as cited in National Language Policy Recommendation Commission,2008)

Limbu people have their own festival. They celebrate different festivals in different occasions. Lawati (2006, p. 5) says Yakwa Tangnam, Shisekpa Tangnam, Balihang Tanganam, Chasok Tangnam, Kokfekwa Tangnam etc. are the Limbu festivals which are celebrated in different occasions. (as cited in Tanchoppa, 2006, 11.5)

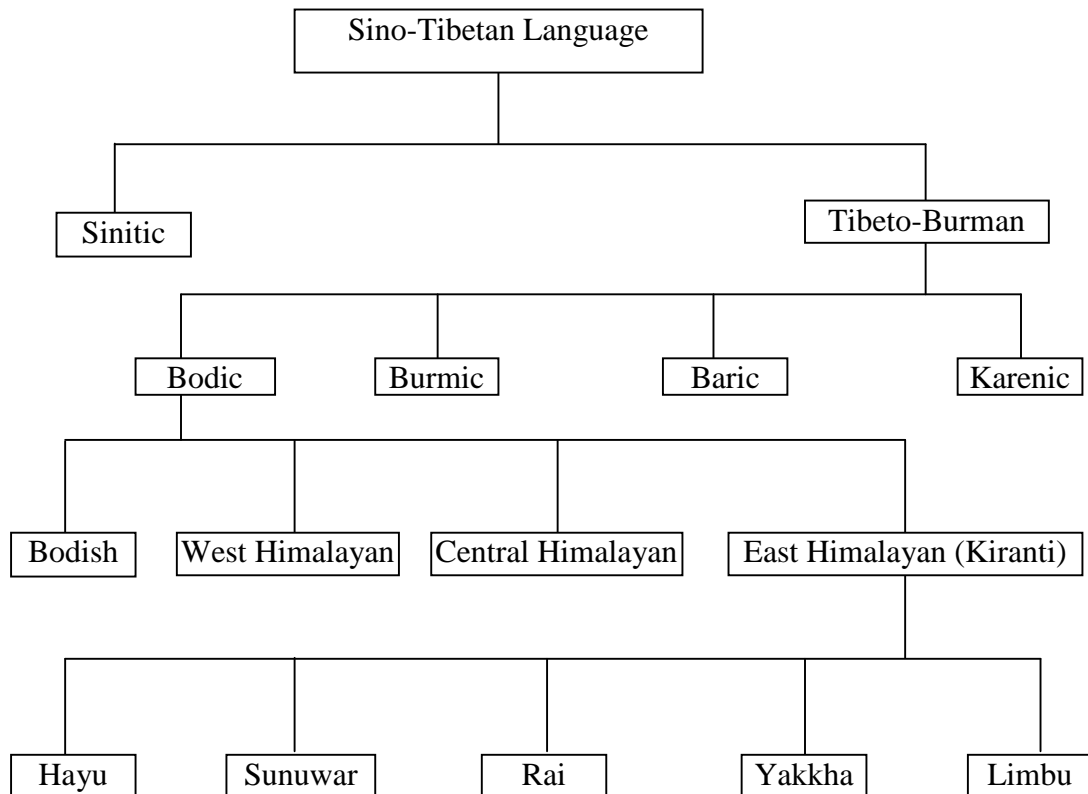
Regarding literature, Limbu language has its own literature. Poem, novel, story and essay are found in the Limbu language. Subba (2002, pp.34-36) says Limbu has the folk literature, poem, novel, story, life literature, play-literature, Akkangki, essay-literature, dialogue literature and journals. Such as 'Kirati Dantya Katha' by I. S. Chemjong (1965), 'Nepali Jana Sahitya' by Kajiman Kandanga (1992), 'Kirati Lok Kathaharu' by Shiva Kumar Shrestha are Limbu folk-literature, 'Nisam Sewasamlo' by Bajbir and Chemjong (1930), 'Kirant Mikhon Samla' by K.B. Nembang are the Limbu poem books. Similarly, 'Thothama' by Muringla (1983), 'Chosaplungama' by B.B. Parthin (1991) are the Limbu novels, 'Yakthungbahang Mundhum' by J.S. Limbu (1903), 'Seema Mesukten' by H. B. Khamdak (1982) etc. are the Limbu stories. Likewise, 'Muyegum Ongsi' by Maden and Laoti (1977), 'Sangramba Mon Bhadur Lekwahang Khamdak' by Muringla and Phurumbo are the life literature. Similarly, Limbu people have their own festivals. They celebrate different festivals in different occasions. Subba (1998, pp.41-47) says that Sappok Chomen, (Ceremonies preceding the birth), Yangdang Phongma (Naming the child), Mangenna (Wording off evil influences), Nahangma (Anointing the family head), Tongsing (A link with the ancestors and the present) etc. are the customs and religion of Limbus.

1.1.1. The Limbu Language

The Limbu language is one of the languages spoken in Nepal. It has both spoken and written form. It is spoken in eastern Nepal including Bhutan, Sikkim, and Darjeeling district of India. The speakers of the Limbu language are called Yakthungaba and Limbu language Yakthung pan in the Limbu native language. In case of Nepal, according to CBS report (2002, p.140), the Limbu language is spoken by about 333633 people which is the 1.47% of the total population of Nepal. Subba (2002, p. 1) says that the Limbu language is spoken by about two lakh people of India mostly in the state of Sikkim, hill areas of West Bengal,

Assam, and other North-Eastern States. About six lakh Limbus speak this language in the world throughout India, Nepal, Butan, Hongkong, Singapore, Brunoi, Myanmar, UK and in the other parts of the world.

The Limbu language belongs to the Sino-Tibetan language family. It is shown in the following diagram (as cite in Tumbahang, 2007, p. 15):



Subba (2002, p. 4) says:

The Limbu community believes that the historical King Sirijonga Hang of Yangrok Garh (882-925 A.D.) of Limbuwan country first codified the Limbu language in ‘Akranta Script’ to educate illiterate through the teaching of Yuma religion. His work was continued by brother king Yongjonga after his death. In the honor of the codifiers name the script has been named as ‘Sirijonga Script’.

Subba (1997, pp. 41-42) says that, ‘Sirijonga Script’ was invented by the Sirijonga as early as in 9th century A. D. (as cited in Subba and Baral, 2008, p. 4)

According to Subba (1998, pp. 41-42) Sirijonga script had almost disappeared for 800 years and it was brought in practice by Te-Ongsi Sirijonga Thebe (1704-41A.D.) of Telok, Sinam. A person called Lalshor Sendang again revived the Limbu language development activities of Sirijonga script reading and writing. Limbu proverbs and Mundhum recitation were started by Te-Ongsi Sirijonga from 1740 to 41. He also taught Sirijonga script to Imansingh Chemjong and others. In 1925, Maita Singh Thegim of Dungra Basty, Kalimpong organized a meeting of Limbus and formed an organization of Limbu community and named “Yakthung Hang Chumlung”. The Chumlung used to have monthly meeting to review the progress of language development activities.

In 1953, Imansingh Chemjong was elected as a president of Limbu literary Chumlung of Nepal. As time passed, Imansingh Chemjong was appointed as specialist in the department of Kiranti language and culture in Tribhuvan University Kathmandu in 1961. During that period, he published books like ‘Kirant Folklore’ and Kirant Mundhum, Khahuh and many others from Kathmandu. (as cited in Subba 2002, p. 8)

According to Chemjong (1956, p. 73) Puspa Subba Tangsuhang of Yangnam Lungchok, Thoba village started the first Limbu magazine known as ‘Sirijonga Sap Inghong’ in Sirijonga script in 1972 (as cited in Subba 2002, p. 18).

According to Subba (2002, p. 20) by 1998 there were 226 primary teachers, 36 graduate teachers and 5 post graduate teachers in 77 numbers of government schools in Sikkim and they were teaching altogether 3,982 students in Limbu. In case of Nepal, Nepali Limbu people are backward in the development of the Limbu language. In Srawan 7, 2047, Nepal Rajakiya Pragya Pratisthan had decided to collect and publish Limbu ‘Ukhan and Tukka’ and Limbu -Nepali –

English Dictionary (as cited in Kaila, 2048). In these days, 72 schools of Terhathum, Panthar and Taplejung have been teaching Limbu language as an optional subject in primary level under initiation of Local Management Committees of schools.

The limbu language has its own vowel and consonant phonemes which are called ‘Sirijonga Script’ in Limbu native language. (As cited in Kaila 2048, pp. 14-15):

Consonant Letters

s	v	u	P	i	r	
/k/	(kha)	/ɣ/	(gha)	/N/	/tΣ/	
p	h	t	y	b	w	
(chha)	/z/	/t/	/ /	/ð/	(dha)	
g	k	m	a	e	d	
/n/	/p/	(pha)	/b/	/v/	/m/	
o	F	n	j	z	;	x
/j/	/r/	/l/	/w/	/s/	/Σ/	/h/

Vowels Letters

c	cf	cl	c'
/ /	/a/	/i/	/u/
c]	c}	cf]	cf}
/e/	/ i/	/O/	/au/
c{	c[
/e/	/ /		

In case of Limbu phonemes, consonant phonemes are 24 in number and vowel phonemes are 10.

The Limbu language has its own existence and own script which have been used by the speaker of the Limbu language.

As other languages, Limbu language also has four dialects. According to Wiedert and Subba (1985, p. 7), Limbu language has, for the first time, divided four major dialects on the basis of linguistic analysis. The dialects are Panthare Limbu (consisting Yang Rokke Limbu), Phedappe Limbu, Taplejung and Mewakhole and Chhathare Limbu.(As cited in Tumbahang,2007, p. 18)

Kaila (2059, pp.10-11) classifies the Limbu language into four dialects: Panthare, Phedappe, Chhathare and Tambar khole.

a. Panthare Dialect

Among the four dialects of the Limbu language, it is taken as a standard dialect. This dialect is spoken in Yangrok (Taplejung) Chaubis Thum (Dhankuta), and Ilam and Panchthar districts. Most of the Limbu literary books have been published in this dialect.

b. Phedappe Dialect

The term phedappe is a Nepali adjectival form of 'Phedap', the region where the Phedappe dialect is spoken and formally the designation for all of the present day Limbuvan. This dialect is mainly spoken in Tehrathum district.

c. Chhathare Dialect

This dialect is comparatively a bit different than other dialects. It is spoken in the eastern part of Dhankuta district and in the southeastern part of Terathum district. Although the Limbus living in the above mentioned area speaks the same dialect, there are some marked differences within the territory itself; and if we call them the sub-dialects of Chhathare dialect, we will have to say that there are

approximately six of them. Even within a small area covered by the Tangkhuwa village, there are three sub-dialects, mutually intelligible to the speakers of one another but not in their grammar

d. Tumbarkhole Dialect

Tambarkhole dialect (including the Taplejung, Yangrupe and Mewakhole sub-dialect) is the dialect spoken to the north of Phedap along especially north of the Tamor River in Taplejung district and across the Tamor between Terhathum and Yashok. This dialect is spoken in Panchthar and mainly in Tamar Khola and Maiwa Khola.

1.1.1.1. Limbu Mother Tongue Education

Among the kiranti languages, the Limbu language became such a language which could inscribe its own history. It is only language which has own script and written form. Nepal along with Sikkim of India, Limbu language got an opportunity to be a medium of imparting education in primary level for the first time. Many students of 72 primary schools of Taplejung, Panchthar, and Tehrathum district have been getting education in their mother tongue as an optional subject. 'Ani Pa:n' written by Ram Meyangbo, Dilli Lingdam, Dilendra Kurumbang and edited by Bairagi Kainla is the main text book for the primary education.

In Sikkim of India, there is the provision of mother tongue in Limbu up to college level. In case of Nepal, it is up to class five i.e. in primary level. (as cited in Rapacha et.al, 2008, pp. 438-439)

1.1.1.2. Limbu Children's Literature

In Kiranti Yakthung (Limbu) language Children's Literature can be taken into consideration. Some of the literary books are: Angenare Kubok /part-I (collection

of story related Mundhum), Ani Chosambaha /part-II (collection of biography of 10 people), Kelang /part –III (Amar Tumyahang and others, 2062). These all literary books have been published by Curriculum Development Centre, Ministry of Education Bhaktapur.

1.1.1.3. Limbu Textbooks and Pedagogical Materials

Many more Limbu textbooks and pedagogical materials are available in the Limbu language. Some Limbu textbooks have been implemented in formal and informal education in Nepal. A list of Limbu textbooks and pedagogical materials are given in the appendix-iv.

- a. Ani Pa:n -class I
- b. Ani Pa:n –classII
- c. Ani Pa:n –classIII
- d. Ani Pa:n –class IV
- e. Ani Pa:n –class V
- f. Tarang (informal education)

1.1.1.4. Limbu Dictionaries and Glossaries

It has been observed that the Limbu language is the first language to have glossaries in a large extent. Due to the contribution of late Iman Singh Chemjong, Ranadhir Subba and Bairagi Kainla (Tila Bikram Nembang), present chairperson of Nepal Academy Limbu language got preservation, promotion and respect in comparison to other Kiranti languages. Nepal Academy helped to publish the Dictionary, Literary Survey, collection of stories and reference materials etc. which helped the Limbu language to be institutionalized (Rapacha et.all, 2008, p. 440). A list of the glossaries and dictionaries are given in the appendix-v:

- a. Limbu Glossary -W.J. Corkpatric 2007, pp. 249-251. (1st edition 1811)

- b. A Vocabulary of the Limbu Language-H.W. R. Senior, 1908. (2nd edition 1977A.D.)
- c. Limbu -English Dictionary -Charls Kemble mid 19th century.
- d. Limbu Hijje Shabdakosh-Dilendra Kurumbang Subba, 2062 B.S.

1.1.1.5. Limbu Language Grammar

Limbu language is rich in its grammar books. There are so many native as well as foreign grammarians in the Limbu language. Among them some of the grammar books are listed below:

- a. The Kiranti (Limbu) Grammar -Iman Singh Chemjong, 1970 A.D.
- b. Concise Limbu Grammar and Dictionary -Alfonse, Wedrt and Bikram Subba, 1958A.D.
- c. A Grammar of Limbu -Jorge Vandrem, 1987A.D.
- d. Yakthung Huppsn Nu Ichhap (Lathik class-v and vi), B.B. Muringla.
- e. Yakthung Huppsn Nu Ichhap (Lathik class- vii and viii), B.B. Muringla.
- f. Yakthung Huppsn Nu Ichhap (Lathik class-ix and x),B.B. Murimgla.etc.

1.1.1.6. Online Limbu Literature

In this 21st century none of the area or field can exist without the influence of science and technology. So it is the case with the Limbu language and literature. Though we don't find many information related to Limbu literature in internet, if we log on [www. Shahitya.com.np](http://www.Shahitya.com.np). we can see column of Indigenous Literature. In that column, we can see or find especially different poems of Limbu writers from Burundi, Hong Kong, U.S.A., U. K. etc.

We can find the glimpse of Diaspora Literature. Similarly, we have seen Ajamari Home Page from U.K. Now a day, Kiranti Sathi.com has also become popular and it has been making the people aware.A list of blogs and home pages are given in appendix-vi.

<http://www.limbuwan.blogspot.com>

<http://www.limbuwan.blog.com>

<http://www.yakthunnew.com>

<http://www.yakthungsamaj.com>

If we search or see these websites in internet we can find different information, literary materials related to the Limbu language. (Rapacha et al.2008, pp. 448-449)

1.1.2. Contrastive Analysis (CA)

Contrastive analysis is the comparative study of linguistic system of two or more languages to find out similarities and differences. Comparison can be made at various levels such as phonological and grammatical level.

James (1980, p.3) says:

Contrastive analysis is a hybrid linguistic enterprise. It is linguistic enterprise aimed at producing inverted (i.e. contrastive not comparative) two valued typologies (a CA is always concerned with a pair of languages) and founded on the assumption that language can be compared.

CA is a linguistics which is inter-language study in the sense that it is based on the comparative study between L1 and foreign language.

CA is a branch of applied linguistics. It is applied based. It applies knowledge formulated by the pure linguistics in practical field and tries to find out the similarities and differences between two languages.

Corder (1973, p. 10) says:

The application of linguistic knowledge to some object or applied linguistics as its name applies – is an activity. It is not a theoretical study. The applied linguistics is a consumer or user, not a producer of theories (as cited in James, 1980, p. 6).

Applied linguists are not producer but users. In this sense, contrastive analysis is concerned with practical use. Similarly, CA tries to provide the insights regarding similarities and differences between the languages and suggests the implication in second language teaching. CA investigates deeper aspects of linguistic form.

CA has great role in comparative study of language because it helps to find out similarities and differences between two or more languages. CA examines the influence of the mother tongue in learning second language in different linguistic levels i. e. phonological, morphological and syntactic levels.

Comparison between two languages in these aspects or levels gives knowledge about the possible difficulty area in learning second language. Evaluation of the two languages helps to predict the possible error that can be made by the L2 learners. CA helps to compare the two languages at all level of their structure, to arrive at categories, similar features, partially similar features and dissimilar features for the target language.

CA helps to diagnose the errors which teachers and learners failed to find out. It focuses on the study of phonology, morphology and lexis of two or more languages. Therefore, the learners also get chance to be familiar with the similarities and differences between languages in different levels.

Constructivists see it as their goal to explain certain aspects of L2 learning, CA helps to find out the similarities and differences between two languages in phonological, morphological and syntactic aspects. That's why it is a very useful tool for the deep study between languages.

1.1.3 Clause

A clause is a group of words that includes a subject and a verb, and forms a sentence or part of it.

Carter and McCarthy (2008, p.486) say:

A clause must typically consist of a subject (which is noun phrase), a verb and other elements which may or may not be necessary, such as an object (which is noun phrase), a predicative complement (most typically an adjective or noun phrase), an adjunct (which is typically an adverb phrase or a prepositional phrase).

According to Leech and Svartvik (1992, pp.56-67), clauses are the principle structures of which sentences are composed. A sentence may consist of one; or more than one clause. They describe and classify clauses in three important ways:

- a. In terms of the clause elements (subject, verb, etc.) from which they are constructed.
- b. In terms of the amount of use which a clause makes of verb phrase structure.
- c. In terms of clause function, i.e. the function a clause performs in a sentence.

There are different types of clauses among them nominal clause is also one type of clause. Here nominal clause is described below:

1.1.3.1. Nominal Clause

Clause approximating in function to noun phrase is called nominal clause. It is a type of subordinate clause. It is the classification of clause on the basis of potential function.

Leech and Svartvik (1985, p. 1047) say:

Nominal clauses have functions that approximate to those of noun phrases: Subject, object complement, appositive and prepositional complement.

Every nominal clause may function in some of all of these functions unlike noun phrase; however nominal clauses may also function as adjective complementation without a preposition. For example, *I am not sure that I can remember the exact detail.*

Carter and McCarthy (2008, p. 565) say, “Nominal clauses function in a way similar to noun phrase in that they may function as subjects or objects/complements in the main clause”

1.1.3.2. Types of Nominal Clause

Leech and Svartvik (1985. p. 1048) classify nominal clause into six major categories:

1. That Clause

According to Leech and Svarvik (1985, p. 1049), Nominal that clause is a subordinate clause that consists of the word ‘that’ and that clause may function as the subject, direct object, subject complement, appositive and adjectival complementation. For example,

That the invading troops have been withdrawn has not affected our government’s trade sanctions. (that functions as a subject)

My assumption is that interest rate will soon fall. (that functions as subject complement)

I noticed that he spoke English with an Australian accent. (that function as direct object)

Your criticism; that no account has been taken of psychological factor, is fully justified. (that functions as appositive)

We are glad that you are able to join us on our wedding anniversary. (that function as adjectival complement)

Nominal that clause however may not function as object complement or prepositional complement. When ‘that clause’ is direct object or complement, the conjunction ‘that’ is omitted except in formal use, which is known as ‘zero that clause’. For example,

I know it’s late.

2. Subordinate Interrogative Clause

Leech and Svartvik (1985, pp. 1050-1054) have divided subordinate interrogative clause into two types:

a. Wh-Interrogative Clause

Leech and Svartvik (1985, p. 1051) say:

Wh interrogative clause is identified with the word 'wh', wh subordinate, wh interrogative clause occur in whole range of function available of nominal that clause and in addition may function as prepositional complement. For example,

How the book will sell depends on the reviewers. (wh-function as subject)

I can't imagine what they want with your address. (wh-clause function as direct object)

The problem is who will water my plants when I am away. (wh functions as subject complement)

Your original question, why he did not report it to police earlier has not yet been answered. (wh functions as an appositive)

I am not sure, which she prefers. (wh functions as adjective complement)

They did not consult us on whose names should be put forward. (wh functions as a prepositional complement)

b. Yes/No and Alternative Interrogative Clause

Leech and Svartvik (1985, p. 1053) say that, subordinate yes-no interrogative clauses and subordinate alternative interrogative clauses occur in whole range of functions available to subordinate wh-interrogative clause and may include infinitive clauses. The yes-no clause is introduced by the subordinators 'whether' or 'if'. For example,

Do you know whether the banks are open?

I wonder if you help me.

3. Nominal Exclamative Clause

Leech and Svartvik (1985, p. 1050) say that, subordinate exclamative clause generally functions as extra posed subject, direct object or prepositional complement. For example,

It is incredible how fast she can run. It is incredible that she can run so fast.
(function as extra posed subject)

I remember what a good time I had in your party. (function as direct object)

I read an account of what an impression you had made. (function as prepositional complement)

According to Carter and Mc Carthy (2006, p. 543), exclamative clause consists of phrase with what and how (or a clause with how) follow by a subject -verb- construction. It usually expresses a reaction of surprise or shock of the experience of a strong impression on the part of the speaker. In writing they are often punctuated with an exclamation mark (!). For example,

What nonsense you talk!

4. Nominal Relative Clause

Leech and Svartvik (1985, p. 1056) say that nominal relative clauses resemble wh-interrogative clauses in the sense that they are introduced by a wh- element. In some respect nominal relative clauses are more like noun phrases, since they can be concrete as well as abstract and can refer even to person. In fact we can paraphrase them by noun phrase containing noun head with general reference that is modified by a relative clause. For example,

Whoever did that should admit frankly. [The person who did that ...]

The nominal relative clause is basically a noun phrase modified by an adnominal relative clause except that its *wh-* element is merged with its antecedents (the phrase to which the *wh-*element refers).

Nominal relative clause shares with noun phrase a wide range of functions than are available to other nominal clauses. In addition like noun phrase, they may display number concord with the verb of the sentence. (as cited in Leech and Svartvic, 1985, p, 1056) For example,

Whatever books you see is yours to take.

Whatever books I have in the house are borrowed from the public library.

Nominal relative clauses have the same range of function as noun phrase. In addition to the functions available generally to the nominal clauses, they can function as indirect object and object complement. (as cited in Leech and Svartvic, 1985, p. 108) For example,

You should see whoever deals with complaints. (direct object)

You can call me whatever you like. (object complement)

Like noun phrase, nominal relative clauses require prepositions in adjective complementation. For example,

He is aware of {what I write/the book I write.}

5. Nominal to Infinitive Clause

Leech and Svartvik (1985, p. 1061) say, “Nominal to- infinitive clause may function as a subject, direct object, subject complement, appositive and adverbial complement.” For example,

To be neutral in this conflict is out of question. (subject)

He likes to relax. (direct object)

The best excuse is to say that you have an examination tomorrow morning.

(subject complement)

Your ambition to become a farmer requires the energy and perseverance that you so obviously have. (appositive)

I am very eager to meet her. (adjectival complementation)

The presence of subject in a 'to infinitive clause' normally requires the presence of preceding of 'for'. When the subject is pronoun, which distinguishes the 'subjective' and 'objective' case. For example,

I am very eager to meet her.

When the clause is direct object 'for' is generally absent before the subject. For example,

He likes everyone to relax.

The 'to infinitive clause' may refer clearly to preposition that is assumed to be true or (through the use of perfective have) to a situation that is assumed to have already occurred. For example,

I am happy to have met you.

6. Nominal –ing Clause

According to Leech and Svartvik (1985, pp. 1063-64), "Nominal-ing clauses are sometimes called 'gerundive or gerundival clauses, their verb is commonly called gerund.' These may function as subject, direct object, subject complement, appositive, adjectival complementation and prepositional complementation." For example,

Watching Television keeps them out of mischief. (subject)

He enjoys playing practical jokes. (direct object)

Her first job had been selling computers. (subject complement)

His current research investigation attitudes to racial stereotypes, takes place up most of his time. (appositive)

They are busy preparing a barbecue. (adjectival complementation)

I am responsible for drawing up the budget. (prepositional complement)

Leech and Svartvic (1985, p. 1063) say, “nominal –ing clauses may refer to a fact or an action.” For example,

- a. Fact: Your driving a car to New York in your condition disturbs me greatly.
- b. Your driving a car to New York took longer than I expected.

Leech and Svartvic (1985, pp.1065-66) has discussed some other nominal clauses which are as follows.

i. Bare Infinitive

According to Leech and Svartvic (1985, p.1067), “The nominal bare infinitive clause (without to) is severely limited in its function. It may be the subject complement or (rarely) subject in pseudo cleft sentence.” For example,

What the plan does is ensure the fair pension to all. (subject complement)

Mow the lawn was what I did this afternoon. (rare and informal)

Bare infinitive clause may also be the subject or subject complement of a variant of pseudo-cleft sentence, where a noun phrase of general reference replaces what. For example,

Turn off the tap was all I did. (subject)

The best thing you can do now is write her an apology. (subject)

The ‘to’ of the infinitive is obligatorily absent when the infinitive clause is subject in these construction, but it is optionally present when the clause is subject complement. For example,

What they must do is (to) propose an amendment to the resolution. (subject)
A thing you should do is (to) show them your diploma. (subject complement)

A bare infinitive clause may function as an object complement with relatively few subordinate verbs. For example, have, let, make, feel, hear, notice, observe, see, watch, help etc.

They made her play for the damage.

Sarha helped us (to) edit the script. (as cited in Leech and Svartvic, 1984 pp. 1067 and 1205)

ii. Verbless Clause

Aarts and Aarts (1992, p. 85) say that verbless clause does not contain a verbal form. It often consists of a noun phrase or adjective phrase only. Frequently it lacks a subject and it may be looked upon as a clause in which a form of the verb has been omitted. For example,

A friend in need is a friend indeed.

1.2. Review of Related Literature

Many researches have been carried out in clauses of the English and Limbu languages and other languages such as Rai, Maithili, and Newari. However, this research on nominal clause in English and Limbu is the first in its kind. Some of the researches carried in the field of comparative linguistics study are as follows:

Phyak (2004) conducted a research on “English and Limbu pronominal: A linguistic comparative study.” His study focused on determining the Limbu pronominal in relation to English and similarities and differences between the Limbu and English pronominal. His findings were that the Limbu language system is different from English pronominal system. The Limbu language has more number of pronouns and has more complex pronominal system than the English. The Limbu language has inclusive and exclusive pronominal system which is not

found in English. Similarly, Tumbapo (2005) has carried out research on “Verbal Affixation in Limbu and English: A Comparative Study.” His study focused on finding of Limbu verb affixes that are attached to verb and on pointing out similar and different verbal affixes in relation to English verbal affixes. His findings were Panthare dialect of Limbu has personal marker prefixes, infixes and suffixes, whereas English has only personal marker suffixes and it marks the third person singular and Panthare dialect of Limbu has tense marker suffixes in great number. Likewise, Limbu (2008) conducted a research on tense aspect in English and Limbu to determine tense aspect system in Limbu using the primary and secondary sources of data through the stratified random sampling procedure. His findings were morphologically, the Limbu language has past tense within the absolute tense. It codes futurity lexically, periphrastically and contextually and both the English and Limbu languages have binary tense division - past and non-past.

The researches carried out comparing clause system of English and other languages are reviewed below:

Phombo (2008) has done research work on non-finite clause in Limbu. His objectives were to find out Limbu non-finite clause, and to find out how and why affixes translate verbs into non-finite clauses. The findings of his research were that six types of non-finite clauses are found in the Limbu language. Lamichhane (2006) carried out a research on “Adverbial clauses in English and Nepali: A comparative study.” The objectives of his research were to identify and analyze the structure of adverbial clauses in English and Nepali and to find out the similarities and differences in adverbial clauses of these two languages. He found that there are finite and non-finite adverbial clauses in both languages and two types of converb clauses are found in English but five types of converb clauses can be found in Nepali. Chalise (2007) conducted a research on “Clause Combining in Baram and English: A comparative study.” The objectives of his research were to

find out the clause combining system in Baram and to compare and contrast the clause combining system in Baram and English. The findings of his study were the Baram language has its own subordinators and coordinators. Likewise, Limbu (2008) carried out a study entitled “subordination in Limbu and English: A comparative study.” The objectives of his study were to determine subordinators in the Limbu language and to find out similarities and differences between subordination of the English and Limb languages. His findings were finite and non-finite subordinate clauses are found in both English and Limb and the full clause can be found as subordinate clause in both languages. In the same way, Limbu (2009) conducted a research on “Clause Combining in English and Limbu.” The objectives of his study were to find out clause combining system in Panthare Limbu and to compare and contrast the clause combining system in English and Panthare Limbu language. His findings were Limbu preset participle clause is marked by simultaneous suffix l /r which occurs in the final position for the reason clause and the to-infinitive clause marker ‘-ma’ occurs in the clause final position of subordinate clause in Limbu whereas in English to-infinitive clause occurs in clause initial position.

All the above researches have been concerned only on the other different types of clauses like, non-finite and adverbial clauses, subordination and clause combining system but here researcher has keen interest to find out nominal clauses in Phedappe Limbu and similarities and differences between nominal clause in the English and Phedappe Limbu language. Moreover no study has been carried out on this topic till now.

1.3. Objectives of the Study

This study had the following objectives:

1. to find out nominal clauses in Phedappe Limbu,
2. to compare and contrast the nominal clause in English and Phedappe Limbu and
3. to suggest the pedagogical implications of the findings.

1.4. Significance of the Study

This study is significant in the sense that, the research had found out the nominal clause in Phedappe Limbu language. It also has helped to compare and contrast the nominal clauses in English and Limbu as a result the similarities and differences between nominal clauses in English and Phedappe Limbu have been identified. On the basis of findings, some pedagogical implications have been suggested which will provide deep insights to the EFL/ESL teachers, linguists, syllabus designers, students and those who have been interested in linguistics.

1.5. Definition of the Specific Terms

Some specific terms used in this study are defined below:

Dialect - It is use based variety of language. Dialect is generally determined by geographical and social boundaries.

Subordination - It involves the use of a sentence as an element in the structure of another sentence.

Finite - A term used in the grammatical classification of types of verbs and clauses. A finite verb is a form that can occur on its own in an independent sentence.

Apposition- When two words, phrases or clause in a sentence have the same reference they are said to be in apposition.

Form - It refers to the phonological/grammatical/lexical characteristics of linguistic units, such as sentences, morphemes, lexemes, noun etc. these being referred to as linguistic form.

Adverb - A word that adds more information about place time, manner, cause or degree to a verb, an adjective.

Phedap - It is the place which lies in the Tehrathum district in which Phedappe dialect is spoken.

Verbless - It is a term which does not contain a verbal form. They often consist of a noun phrase or adjective phrase only.

Adjective clause - It is a clause which takes the place of an adjective in another clause or phrase.

Condition - A situation that must exist in order for something else to happen.

Comparison - The process of comparing two or more things or people.

Sentence - The largest structural unit in terms of which the grammar of a language is organized.

Infinite - A traditional term for the non-finite form of the verb usually cited as its unmarked or base form.

Extrapolation - The process of moving a word, phrase or clause to a position in a sentence which is different in a position it usually has.

CHAPTER TWO

METHODOLOGY

The following methodology was adopted to fulfill the above mentioned objectives.

2.1. Sources of Data

The study was based on both primary and secondary sources of data.

2.1.1. Primary Sources of Data

The native speakers of the Phedappe Limbu language were the primary sources of data. The data was collected from Sabla V.D.C. of Terhathum district. The Limbu nominal clause system was elicited by interviewing the informants (the native speakers of Phedappe Limbu language) but the English nominal clause system was taken from secondary sources of data.

2.1.2 Secondary Sources of Data

As the secondary sources of data, the researcher used the following English and Limbu grammar books:

Van Derim (1987), Close (1987), Leech and Svartvik (1985), Carter and Carthy (2008), Aarts and Aarts (1997) and James (1980).

2.2. Sampling Procedure

The researcher used non-random sampling i.e. judgmental and snowball sampling procedure to elicit the data. The size was 83 Phedappe Limbu native speaker of Sabla V.D.C. of Terhathum district.

2.3. Tool for Data Collection

The researcher used a set of interview schedule (Appendix-II) to elicit the data. A set of interview questions were prepared to draw the information on the nominal clause system of the Limbu language from the Limbu native speaker. English sentences were given to the Limbu speakers to translate them into the Limbu language for the collection of data and to facilitate informants corresponding Nepali sentences were also used.

2.4. The Process of Data Collection

The researcher followed the following procedures to conduct her research:

- a. First of all the researcher prepared the interview sheet then confirmed the area from where she decided to take eighty-three informants above 18 years of age from ward no.1, 2 and 3 of Sabla V.D.C., 28, 30, 25 from each wards respectively through judgmental sampling procedure.
- b. The researcher established good relationship with the selected informants and convinced them for taking part in research. After that, the researcher fixed the convenient date, time and place and took structured interview on that date.
- c. She interviewed the Limbu native speakers according to the structured interview sheet. The researcher translated the question into Nepali for the informants who failed to understand the questions in English. The researcher herself wrote the responses of those who could not read and write.
- d. The answers provided by the Limbu native speakers were recorded using Roman transliteration of Devanagari Script (Appendix-I).

2.5. Limitations of the Study

- a. This study was concerned with studying nominal clauses in the Phedappe Limbu language.
- b. It was limited on similarities and differences between the English and Limbu nominal clauses.
- c. This study only concerned with:
 1. That clause or subordinate declarative clause
 2. Subordinate interrogative clause
 3. Nominal exclamative clause
 4. Nominal relative clause
 5. Nominal infinitive clause
 6. Nominal-ing cluse
 7. Bare infinitive clause
- d. This study was based on only Phedappe dialect.
- e. The researcher used both primary and secondary sources of data.
- f. Only 83 Limbu native speakers were included in the study and mainly 3 ward numbers of the Sabla V.D.C. were selected for the study.
- g. Nominal clause system was taken from secondary sources of data.

CHAPTER THREE

ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION

3.1.1. Nominal That Clause

As English, nominal that clause functions as subject, object and subject complement in the Phedappe Limbu language. For example,

- a. *khen a ga ca -ben kuzakenuba cok*
that 1sg eat.NPT delicious be.NPT
That I have eaten is delicious.

- b. *kh ne? nir -ba khen sapla -in phi la cok*
3sg read.NPT -NOM that book -ABS blue be.NPT
That book she reads is blue in colour.

In the example (a), nominal that clause **'khen'** function as a subject for the clause, **kuza kenu?ba cok** and in (b), **'khen'** nominal that clause functions as a subject in **khen sapla-in phi la cok**.

Similarly, nominal that clause functions as direct object in the Phedappe Limbu language. For example,

- c. *yakthu sambha -o peni panda par -ba a ga*
Limbu tune -LOC Nepali language speak.PT -NOM 1sg
kheps -u
listen -PT.1sg

I heard that he spoke Nepali language with Limbu tune.

In the example (c), nominalizer **'-ba'** functions as a nominal that clause which functions as a direct object in **yakthu sambha -o pene panda par-ba a ga kheps-u .**

As the same way, nominal that clause functions as a subject complement in the Phedappe Limbu language. For example,

- d. sira? hara? le wa po -bo? a -ni si wa.
 interest soon change be.NPT -NOM 1sg -assumption be.NPT
 My assumption is that interest will soon change.
- e. kh ne?-in ku-ni wa? -g him -o pek -ma wa
 3sg -ABS 3sg-desire -that house -LOC go -INF be.NPT
 His desire is that he wants to go home.
- f. kukca -sa khene? mikphula pan ken -les -un
 sure -that 2sg English language NEG-know -NPT.NEG.2sg
 Sure is that you don't know English language.

In the example (d), nominalizer ‘-ba’ functions as a nominal that clause which is subject complement as in **sira? hara? le wa po -bo? ani -si wa**. In the example (e), nominal that clause marker ‘g ’ functions as a subject complement as in **kh ne?-in ku-ni wa?-g him-o pek-ma wa**.

3.1.2. Nominal Relative Clause

A relative clause functions as nominal modifiers. For example,

- a. khen menchuma kh ne? t k khe?yo c
 that woman who rice there eat.NPT.

That woman who eats rice there

In this clause ‘khen menchuma’ is a noun ‘he?yo c ’. Thus, in this example (a), ‘khen menchuma’ is the relativised noun phrase modified by the relative clause ‘kh ne? t k khe?yo c ’. Relative clause is often introduced by relativizer such as ‘khe?yo in the example (a).

In addition, the choice of a relative pronoun depends on the grammatical relationship of the relativised noun to the relative clause. For example,

- b. khen menchuman -e a -k ppen pir -u
 that woman -whom 1sg. -pen give -PT.1sg

That woman whome I gave pen.

- c. khen yambiccha? kh ne? khe?yo pek
 that boy who there go.NPT

That boy who goes there.

In the example (c), the relative clause ‘kh ne? khe?yo pek’ is modifying the head noun ‘yambiccha?’. The relative pronoun ‘kh ne?’ is selected and used here because the head noun ‘yambiccha’ is understood as the subject of the verb ‘pek’ in the relative clause. Likewise, the morphem ‘e’ (whom) is appropriate in the example (b) because it is the object of the relative clause verb ‘pir-u’.

In the Limbu language, nominal relative clauses have the same range of functions as noun phrases. In addition to the functions available generally to nominal clauses, they can function as a subject, direct object, indirect object, possessive and different adjunct positions which are explained below:

3.1.2.1. Subject Position

In the Limbu language, Limbu relative clause occurs in subject position and functions as a subject in the nominal relative clause. For example,

- a. am-ba a -sra -tha kh ne? we m na-ha? fa?r-si
 1sg father 1sg -like -come who other man-pl help-3sg

I like my father who helps other.

- b. a -sira me -dha ne -n khen yapm -in kh ne?
 1sg -like NEG -come -ABS that men -ABS who
 ya khut -u?
 money steal.NPT -3sg

I dislike that man who steals money.

- c. a ga? kappen-in pir -u khen sap -ma -re -lagi
 1sg pen -ABS give -PT.1sg that write -INF -ERG -for
 ogap a -zogu -m
 use 1pl -do -positive
 I gave that pen which is used to write.

In the examples (a), (b) and (c), the relative clauses ‘kh ne?’, ‘kh ne?’ and ‘khen’ occur in the positive of the subject in the clauses **we? mana-ha?for-si, ya khut-u** and **sap-ma-re-lagi ogap a-zogu-m** respectively.

3.1.2.2. Direct Object Position

As in the English language, relative clause occurs in direct object position in the Limbu Language. For example,

- a. ahimzezum -le n san cog -u khen him -in khe? yo ku-me?
 my neighbour-ERG believe do -3sg that house -ABS where 3sg-wife
 ine kuzo:lakpa cok.
 ABS unfaithful be.NPT
 My neighbor believes that house where his wife is unfaithful.
- b. mukum-re sapla khob -u khen numa -re appu -su
 3sg -ERG paper pick.PT -3sg which 3sg -ERG throw -PT.3sg
 Mukum picked up the paper which Numa threw.
- c. khen m na -n cit -u kh ne? nchen mi sa -re
 that man -ABS dislike-NPT whom yesterday Mingshang -ERG
 hi:pt -u.
 hit.PT -3sg
 I dislike that man whom Mingshang beat yesterday.

In examples (a), (b) and (c), the relative clauses, ‘**khe?yo**’, ‘**khen**’ and ‘**kh ne?**’ occur in the direct objective position of the clauses, **ku-met-ine**

kuzo: lakpa cok, numa-re appu-su and nchen mi san -re hipt-u respectively.

3.1.2.3. Indirect Object Position

Limbu relative clause also occurs in indirect object position in the clauses. For example,

- a. khen wamame-en ser-u khen -in a ga? nchen ca
 that hen -ABS kill-PT.3sg which -ABS 1sg yesterday food
 pir -u
 give -PT.1sg

He killed that hen to which I gave food yesterday.

- b. khen him -o ke -yu -i khen a ga? netchi t be
 that house -LOC 2sg -live -Q which 1sg two years
 t gi s s -u -a w y -e
 before sell -1sg -PT be -PT

Do you live in that house which I had sold two years before?

- c. khen m na -n tum -u khen-in a ga? ya
 that man- ABS meet -PT.1sg whom 1sg money
 pir -u -a w y -e
 give -PT.1sg -PT. be -PT

I met that man whom I had given money.

In the example (a), the relative clause *khen-in* occurs in the indirect object position of the clause **a ga nchen ca pir-u**, in (b), the relative clause *hen* occurs in the indirect object position of the clause, **a ga? netchi t be t gi? s -su -a w y-e** and in (c), the relative clause *khen-in* occurs in the indirect object position of the clause, **a ga? ya pir-u -a w y-e**.

3.1.2.4. Possessive Position

Possessors can be relativised in Limbu using the more explicit relative pronoun strategy. For example,

- a. khen yapmi -in cit -u [khen-len ku -him -in
 that man -ABS dislike -NPT.1sg whoes Poss -house -ABS
 nub me -zok -nen]
 good NEG -be.NPT -NEG
 I dislike that man whose house is not good.
- b. khen kocho -in me -de?r -un [khenlen ku -habo? -ha?
 That dog -ABS NEG -take -3sg.NPT whose Poss -teeth -pl
 s m s m -ba cok]
 sharp sharp -NOM be.NPT
 He doesn't take that dog whose teeth are sharp.
- c. khen menchuma? -in ku-sira? me -dha -nen [khenlen
 that woman -ABS 3sg-like NEG -come -NEG Whose
 ku -thegekpa -n m kumba cok]
 Poss -hair -ABS grey be.NPT
 He does not like that woman whose hair is grey.

In the examples (a) and (c), the bracketed clauses are the relative clause and the possessive personal pronoun **'khenlen'** is a relativizer in both relative clauses. Similarly, in the example (b), the relative clause in the bracket contains non-personal pronoun **'khenlen'** as a relativizer.

3.1.2.5. Adjunct Position

Adjunct position of Limbu relative clause is analyzed under the manner, place and time.

a. Manner

Adverbial clauses specify the manner in which the adverb specifies the action of the verb. For example,

- a. a ga? khen k ppen-in tar -u [khen-re carik -nurik sapt-u]
1sg that pen -ABS bring-PT.1sg which-ERG very well write-PT
I brought that pen which writes very well.

- b. nchen a ga? khen yapmi nis -u [kh ne? lipt-r
yesterday 1sg that man see -PT.1sg who heavily
k ?k kuy -u]
load carry -PT.2sg
Yesterday, I saw that man who took load heavily.

In the example (a), the bracketed clause is a relative clause with a relativizer ‘**khen-re**’ and adverb ‘**nurik**’ specifies the mode of action of the verb ‘**sapt-u**’. Similarly, in the example (b), the relative clause in the bracket with the relativizer **khene?** contains an adverb ‘**lipt-r**’ which specifies the mode of action of the verb ‘**kuy-u**’.

b. Place

In the Limbu language, the Limbu relativizer ‘**khe?yo**’ indicates place in this relative clause. For example,

- a. kh ne? khen him -o yu [khe?yo kum-fu -a Yu]
2sg that house -LOC stay.NPT where his -brother also live.NPT.
He says in that house in which his brother also lives.

- b. a ga? khen him -o pek -e [khe?yo y k mana -ha?
1sg that house -LOC go -NPT.1sg [where many people-pl
me -yu]
3pl -live.NPT.]
I go to that house where many people live.

c. kh ne? khe?yo me -bek -nen [khe?yo mana-ha?
 3sg there NEG -go.NPT -NEG [where people-pl
 tum men -det -nen]
 meet NEG.pl -passive -NEG]

He does not go there where people are not met.

In the example (a), the relative clause in the bracket contains a relativizer **'khe?yo'** which indicates place, in (b) the racked relative clause with the relativizer **'khe?yo'** focuses the place and in (c), the relativizer **'khe?yo'** of the bracked relative clause indicates the place.

c. Time

The adverbial clauses (hekkelle, -ille) are relativized in phedappe Limbu. For example,

a. khene? khen yen -o ki -nis -a [hekkelle na
 2sg that time -LOC 2sg -see -PT.1sg [when fish
 ser -u -l w y-a]
 Kill -PT.1sg -PROG be-PROG.1sg]

You saw me that time when I was fishing.

b. kh ne? khen yen -o tye -[ille khene? ki-ipse
 3sg that time -LOC come.PT -[when 2sg 2sg-sleep
 a w y -e]
 PROG be -PT]

He came at that time when you were sleeping.

In the example (a), the bracketed clause is the relative clause which has been relativized by the relativizer **'hekkelle'** and in (b), the bracketed clause is the relative clause which has been relativised by the relativizer **'-ille'**.

3.1.3. Nominal Relative Clause According to the Position of the Clause

Similarly, Phedappe Limbu relative clauses can occur in different places of the sentence according to the position of the clause with respect to the head. They can occur in the following positions.

3.1.3.1. Prenominal

Limbu relative clauses are noun modifiers and can occur in the same positions as other noun modifiers. For example,

- a. *khen ke -ghup -pa m na -pe*
that Ap -steal -Ap man go.PT
That man who steals went.
- b. *khen ke -uppa -pa menchu?ma se*
that Ap -call -Ap woman die.PT
That woman who calls died.
- c. *khen ke -nip -pa m na -n se.*
that -Ap -study -Ap man -ABS die.PT
That man who used to study died.

In the examples (a), (b) and (c), '**m na**', '**menchuma**' and '**m na**' are the head which are modified by the adjective clauses '**khen ke-gup-pa**', '**khen ke-up-pa**' and '**khen ke-nip-pa**' respectively. In all sentences, the adjective clauses precede the heads.

3.1.3.2. Post Nominal Relative Clause

In phedappe Limbu, the pre-nominal and post nominal positions of the relative clause follow the typology of the basic constituent order of the language. OV languages tend to prefer both orders while VO language is almost used in the post

nominal relative clause. The Phedappe Limbu Language is an OV language and it follows both orders. For example,

- a. khen m na -ha? -o en -ha?-re a -w ccha? me-de?r-u
 those man -pl LOC who -pl- ERG 1sg - paddy 3pl-take-pl
 ya mu -hu r po
 money 3pl -pay must

Those who take my paddy must pay money.

- b. khen m na -ha? -o en him -o yu khen -le t k
 those man -pl -LOC who hose -LOC stay 3sg -ERG rice
 thokma -po
 Cook -must

Those people who stay in the home must cook rice.

In the examples (a) and (b), the clauses ‘**en-ha?-re a-w ccha me-de? ru**’ and ‘**en him –o yu** ’ are post modified respectively by the noun phrase head ‘**khen m na-ha?-o**’.

3.1.3.3. Headless Nominal Relative Clause

In the Limbu Language, headless nominal relative clause can be found. Headless relative clauses are the clauses without head. For example,

- a. ke -bek -pa -ha? peg -em -e
 Ap -go -Ap -pl go -3pl -IM

Those who (want to go) go.

- b. ke -zab -ha? -re ce -m -e
 Ap -eat -pl -ERG eat -3pl -IM.

Those who (want to eat) eat.

- c. ke -yu -ba -ha? -re hinza -ha? m ? -ma -po
 Ap -stay -NOM-pl -ERG child -pl care -INF -must

Whoever stays in the house must see the children.

In the examples (a), (b) and (c), ‘**ke-bek-pa-ha?**’, ‘**ke-zab-ha?**’, and ‘**ke-yu -ba-ha? -re**’ are headless clause respectively.

3.1.3.4. Internally Headed Relative Clause

Internally headed relative clauses are those for which the head is within the relative clause which can be found in the Limbu language. For example,

- a. kh ne? l thik ya pir -a [khen-le a ga? thi i -u
 3sg one money give-PT.1sg which-ERG 1sg beer buy -PT.1sg
 thu -u
 drink -PT.1sg

He gave me one rupee by which I bought beer and drank.

- b. a ga? sapla pi? -ne [khen -in khene? ni?ma ke-yan-du]
 1sg book give -NPT.2sg which -ABS 2sg read AP-can-2sg
 I give you a book which you can read.

In the examples (a) and (b), ‘**khen-le**’ and ‘**khen-in**’ make the bracketed clauses as a relative clause respectively. The head nouns ‘**ya**’ and ‘**sapla**’ remain within the relative clauses and are not external the relative clauses.

3.1.3.5. Correlative Relative Clause

Correlative is a clause that refers to a construction which uses a pair of connecting words. In the Limbu language, correlative clause is found. For example

- a. khen? atto -atto ke-bek? khe?yo khe?yo me -bek -en
 2sg where -where Ap-go.NPT there there NEG -go.NPT -NEG
 I can’t go to the places where you go.

- b. kh ne? hen-hen patu-i khen-khen cok-ma-ba -i
 2sg what-what say-NPT.Q that-that do-INF-NOM-Q
 Should we do whatever he says?

c. atto -nu ke -de he?yo -nu peg -e?
 where-from 2sg -come.PT there -from go -IM

Go to the place from where you came?

d. hen-hen pa:t-u? khen-khen cok -ma -po
 what-what say-NPT.2sg that-that do -INF -must

We should do whatever he says.

In the example (a) ‘atto-atto’ correlates with ‘khe?yo-khe?yo’, in (b) ‘hen-hen’ correlates with ‘khen khen’ in (c) ‘atto’ correlates with he?yo ‘nu ’ and in (d) ‘hen hen’ correlates with ‘khen khen’.

3.1.4. Nominal Wh-Interrogative Clause

Nominal wh-interrogative clause can be found in phedappe Limbu. It functions as subject, direct object and subject complement in nominal relative clause. For example,

a. akkhenu sapla s ma -g ki -i -bo? tetnam po
 how book sell -that 3sg -buy -NOM depend be.NPT

How book will sell depends on the receiver.

b. phendhok po -ma-re hen khei wa thai hop
 accident be-INF-ABS what cause be.NPT know be.NEG

what caused the accident is unknown.

In the example (a), wh- interrogative clause ‘**akkhenu** ’ occurs as a subject in **tetnam pon** and in example (b) the nominal wh- interrogative clause ‘hen’ occurs as a subject in **phendhok po -ma-re hen khei** .

c. thakwa cok -ma me -ya?n-en hen khuni?-in caha wa
 imagine do.NPT -INF 1sg -can-1sg.NEG what 3pl -ABS want be.NPT

I can’t imagine what they want.

d. kh ne? me -bat-un hen khos-u.
 3sg NEG -say -2sg.PT what find -PT.3sg
 She didn't say what she found.

In the example (c) and (d), wh-interrogative clause 'hen' occurs as a direct object in **thakwa cok-ma meya?nen hen hu?n-in caha wa** and **me-batun hen khos-u** respectively.

In the same way, wh-interrogative clause also functions as an indirect object. For example,

e. enle k n su?ma yandu kh ne? silapt-a
 who 3sg complete can 3sg ask -PT.1sg
 She asked me who would complete it.

f. kun-de -ba -ha? silap-tu-si en nichamsa w y -e
 3sg -friend -NOM-3pl ask -PT-3sg who student be -PT
 He asked his friends who was a student.

In example (e) and (f), the wh- interrogative clause subordinator 'enle' and 'en' function as indirect object in **enle k n su?ma yandu kh ne? silapt-a** and **kun-de -ba-ha? silap-tu-si en nichamsa w y-e** respectively.

3.1.5. Yes /No and Alternative Interrogative Clause

In the Phedappe Limbu language, the yes/no alternative clause is introduced by the subordinators '-i' and 'g r'. For example,

a. fa? -ma ke -yan -e g r s ?n-e
 help -INF 2sg -can -1sg if wonder-1sg
 I wonder if you can help me.

b. ya dha - ha? me -h nd -ba thai wa -i
 bank -pl pl -open -NOM know be -Q
 Do you know whether the banks are open?

In the examples (a) and (b), yes –no alternative clause have been introduced by the subordinators ‘g r ’ and ‘-i’ as in **fa?ma ke-yan-e g r s ?ne** and **ya dha - ha? me-h nd-ba thai wa- i** respectively.

Similarly, in the Phedappe Limbu language, the alternative clauses are formed with the correlative ‘i- i -i’ or ‘i-i’. For example,

c. thai me -g t-u -nen nisam him h nde -i
 know NEG -get-1sg.NPT-NEG school open.PT -whether
 i me -sub -i
 or 3pl -close.Passive-whether
 I don’t know whether the school has been opened or it has been closed.

d. wahit tha -i namse -i me-batu-n
 rain fall -whether sunny -or NEG-say-PT.NEG
 He didn’t say whether it will rain or be sunny.

In the examples (d) and (e), the alternative clauses are formed by ‘i- -i -i’ and ‘i- -i’ as in **thai me-g t-u - nen nisam -him h nde-i i me-sub-i** and **wahit tha-i namse-i me-batu-n** respectively.

3.1.6. Exclamative Clause

Limbu subordinate exclamative clauses generally function as extra posed subject and direct object. For example,

a. pa?ma yan me-det-nen akkhen sarik kh ne lok -ma yan
 say can NEG-able-NEG how fast 3sg run -INF can
 It’s incredible how fast she can run.

b. pa?ma yan me -det -nen kh ne akkhen sarik lok-ma yan
 say can NEG -able -NEG 3sg how fast run-INF can
 It's incredible how fast she can run.

In the examples (a) and (b), Phedappe Limbu exclamatory subordinator ‘**akkhen sarik**’ functions as extra posed subject as in **pa?ma yan me-det-nen akkhen sarik kh ne lokma yan** and **pa?ma yan me-det-nen kh ne akkhen sarik lokma yan**. In the example (a), the exclamative subordinator ‘**akkhen sarik**’ is in subject position but in the example (b), the exclamative subordinator ‘**akkhen sarik**’ is in object position.

Similarly, exclamative subordinator ‘**akkhen**’ functions as a direct object. For example,

c. ni wa itu cumlu -ca -o akkhen nuba yem w y -e
 desire remember party -food -LOC how good time be -PT
 I remember what a good time I had at party.

In the example (c), the exclamative subordinator ‘**akkhen**’ functions as a direct object as in **ni wa itu cumlu -ca-o akkhen nuba yem w ye**.

3.1.7. To -Infinitive Clause

In the Phedappe Limbu language, nominal to- infinitive clause functions as subject, direct object, subject complement, and appositive. For example,

a. p wa -ma kh ne? ku-sira -tha
 relax -INF 3sg 3sg -like -come
 He likes to relax.

In the example (a), to –infinitive subordinator ‘**ma**’ functions as a subject as in **p wa -ma kh ne? ku-sira-tha** .

Similarly, in the Phedappe Limbu language, to -infinitive functions as a direct object. For example,

b. kh ne? -in tarappa tumba po -ma -ro
 3sg -ABS goal first be -INF -be
 To be first is her goal.

In the example (b), to - infinitive subordinator ‘**ma**’ functions as a direct object as in **kh ne?-in tarappa tumba po –ma-ro**.

In the Phedappe Limbu language, to- infinitive clause functions as a subject complement. For example,

c. nub lepmi nak -ma g tadik bhyadik
 best excuse say -INF that tomorrow morning
 khene? -in son wa
 2sg -ABS exam be.NPT

The best excuse is to say that you have an examination tomorrow morning.

Similarly, Phedappe Limbu nominal to- infinitive clause functions as an appositive. For example,

d. khene? -in tarap g ya gham -ba po -ma
 2sg -ABS ambition that farmer -NOM become -INF
 yambudhik cahab cok.
 hard labour require be.NPT

Your ambition to become a farmer requires hard labour.

In the example (d), nominal to infinitive subordinator ‘**ma**’ functions as an appositive as in **khene?-in tarap g ya gham-ba po -ma yambudhik cahab cok**.

3.1.8. Bare Infinitive Nominal Clause

The nominal bare infinitive clause is severely limited. In English, nominal bare infinitive clause functions as a subject, subject complement and object

complement but in the Phedappe Limbu language, nominal bare infinitive clause functions as object complement only. For example,

- a. kerek tu:ki -ha? sep -ma yamb k a ga cogu -
 all lamp -pl turn off -INF work 1sg do -PT.1sg

Turn off the lamp were all I did.

In the example (a), we can find nominal bare infinitive clause functions as a subject only in English but in the Phedappe Limbu language, it is not found.

Similarly, in the Phedappe Limbu language, subject complement nominal bare infinitive clause is not found but it is found in English. For example,

- b. kh ne? -nu lepmi nak -ma kere?k -nu -ille
 3sg -with apology write -INF all -better-than

nu:b yamb k-lo.

best work

The best thing you can do now is write her an apology.

In the example (b), nominal bare infinitive clause doesn't function as subject complement in the Phedappe Limbu language.

In the Limbu language, object complement nominal bare infinitive clause can be found. For example,

- c. khe -ha? -re kh ne? nisam him ca -re lagi
 3 -pl -ERG 3sg school uniform -ERG for

hu me -ba -su

pay 3pl -make -2sg.PT

They made her pay for the school uniform.

In the example (c), object complement 'hu' comes as a bare infinitive nominal clause as in **khe -ha? - re kh ne? nisam him ca -re lagi hu me- ba -su.**

3.1.9. Nominal Present Participle Clause

In the Phedappe Limbu language, nominal present participle clause functions as subject, subject complement, direct object and adjectival complement. For example,

a. si -ha? ta -ma nuba - men.

tree -pl cut -PROG good -NEG

Cutting trees is harmful.

b. phese:pa thu -ma yamzik -re meo nub -men

cigarette smoke -PROG health -ERG to good - NEG

Smoking is not good for health.

In the examples (a) and (b), present participle subordinator ‘**ma**’ functions as a subject in **si -ha? ta -ma nuba- men** and **phese:pa thu -ma yamzik -re meo nub-men**.

Similarly, present participle subordinator ‘**ma**’ functions as subject complement in the Phedappe Limbu language. For example,

c. kh ne? -in tumb yamb k su hek -ma

3sg -ABS first job grass cut -PROG

poks -e -a wa

become -NPT -SEQ be.NPT

His first job has been cutting grass.

In the example (c), present participle subordinator ‘**ma**’ functions as subject complement because the word ‘**hek-ma**’ is related to the subject, ‘**kh ne? -in tumb yamb k**’ as in **kh ne? -in tumb yamb k su hek-ma poks-e-a wa**.

In the same way, present participle subordinator ‘**ma**’ functions as a direct object. For example,

d. ce:pe ca? -ma ku -sir -a? -tha
 card play -PROG 3s -like -NPT -come
 He likes playing card.

e. kh ne? samlo samlo -ma -o s ?
 3sg song sing -PROG -LOC enjoy.NPT
 He enjoys singing a song.

In the examples (d) and (e), present participle word ‘**ca-ma**’ and ‘**samlo-ma**’ functions as a direct object as in **ce:pe ca?-ma ku-sir-a?-tha** and **kh ne?samlo samlo-ma-o s ?** respectively.

Similarly, Phedappe Limbu present participle functions as an adjectival complement in nominal present participle clause. For example,

f. tapfe:mba i gh khepsu -ba -o kh ne? emakpa
 bad news hear -NOM-LOC 3sg sad
 pokes -a wa
 become-NPT.SEQ be
 He has been sad hearing the bad news.

In the example (f), Phedappe present participle word ‘**khepsu-ba-o**’ functions as an adjectival complement because which gives emphasis on adjective ‘**emakpa**’ as in ‘**tapfe:mba i gh khepsu-ba-o kh ne? emakpa poks-e-a wa**’.

3.1.10. Converb Clause

Noonan (1999, p.401) defines, “The verbal noun, in association with an appropriate case clitic, can also be used for adverbial subordination, but adverbial subordination can also be accomplished by means of a set of specialized nonfinite forms referred to as converb”. (as cited in Yadava and Glover, 1999)

Haspelmath (1995:03) defines “A converb is defined as a non-finite verb whose main function is to mark adverbial subordination.”(as cited in Abbi,2001)

Converbs are verbal conjunctive elements and are used to join clauses. Converb is the participle form of the verb in an adverbial clause which can function both as a conjunctive and as non-finite verb. In Limbu language following converbs can be found.

3.1.10.1. Morphological Properties

The Simultaneous converbs in Limbu language is formed by attaching the suffix 'r ' and 'i' to the verbal root. For example,

- a. samlo -i mi -im
song -SIM 3pl -sleep.NPT.
They sleep singing a song.
- b. i gh kheps -u -r sapla ni:r -u?
news listen -2sg .-SIM book read -2sg
He reads book listening news.

In the example (a) and (b), the suffix ‘.i’ and ‘.r ’ occur with the verbal roots 'samlo' and 'khepsu' in the final position of the subordinate clause for the simultaneous converbs as samlo-i mi-im and i gh kheps-u-r sapla ni:r-u? respectively.

In the same way, the sequential converb is formed by adding the suffix ‘.a ’ to the verbal root in the final position of the subordinate clause. For example,

- c. mukum-re yamb k sur -u -a nisamhim pe.
mukum-ERG work complete -3sg SEQ school go.PT. 3sg.
Mukum went to school, having completed his work.

- d. mirak -re ut -a -a sabla pe
 mirak -ERG call -1sg -SEQ sabla go.PT. 3sg
 Mirak went to Sabla having called me.

In the examples (c) and (d), the suffix ‘..a ’ occurs with person and number, ‘..u’ and ‘..a ’, in the final position of the subordinate clause.

3.1.10.2. Semantic Properties

Noonan (1999) says that Chantyal employs the simultaneous converbal constructions to express an activity which is simultaneous, or temporally overlapping with, another activity expressed by the matrix predicate. (as cited in N.L., 2008)

Similarly, Limbu language also employs the simultaneous converbal constructions to express an activity which is simultaneous, or temporally overlapping. For example,

- a. ninne? hab-r nisamhim pe
 sister cry-SIM school go. PT.3sg
 The sister went to school, crying.
- b. a ga? samlo-i p kwa f y -u
 1sg sing -SIM basket make -PT.1sg.
 I made a basket, singing a song.

The Limbu sequential converb basically refers to anteriority i.e. the event occurring immediately prior to the event encoded in the following verbs, which may be another sequential converb or a finite verb in the matrix clause. In other words, the major function of the Limbu sequential converb is to encode the event which is assumed to have occurred prior to the event coded in the matrix predicate. For example,

c. a ga? ma gh sa -a t k ca -
 1sg worship -SEQ rice eat.PT.-1sg

After having worshiped the god I ate rice.

d. mukum p w ye -a him -o pe
 mukum play.PT. -SEQ house -LOC go.PT.2sg.

After having played game Mukum went to house.

In the example (c) the event ‘t k ca ’ occurs immediately after the event ‘a ga? ma gh sa -a ’. Similarly, in the example (d), the event ‘him-o pe’ occurs immediately after the event ‘mukum p w ye-a ’. The examples (c) and (d) contain a sequence of the events.

3.1.10.3. Syntactic Properties

Under this topic, Limbu converb is analyzed according to the position tense, aspect and mood, negation and question, control of subject and lexically overt subject.

a. Position

Limbu simultaneous and sequential converb clause are normally joined to the left of the matrix clause but sometimes they can also be postposed as a discourse strategy to express focus. For example,

a. ninne? te kt -r
 sister come PT. cry -SIM.

Crying, the sister came.

b. keghu:pan lokt -e, samya khut -r
 thief ran.PT.-3sg gold thief -SIM.

Thieving the gold, the thief ran.

c. pappa? te t k c -a
 father came.PT. rice eat -SEQ

Having eaten rice, father came.

- d. mukum -re t k c p kwa ph yu -a
 Mukum -ERG rice eat.PT. basket weave -SIQ.
 Having made a basket, Mukum ate rice.

In the example (a), simultaneous converb ‘ kt-r ’ has been joined to the right of the matrix clause ‘ninne? te’. Similarly, in the example (c), sequential converb ‘c - r ’ has been joined to the right of the matrix clause ‘pappa? te’ to focus on ‘c -a ’.

b. Tense, Aspect and Mood

In Limbu language, the tense and mood of the matrix clause have a broad scope which extends to the simultaneous and sequential converbs. Noonan (1999) notes that, the time reference of the converbs is secondary, i.e. relative to the primary tense of the main clause, and thus does not independently establish a time reference relative to the moment of speaking. (as cited in N.L. 2008: P, 337) For example,

- a. t k ca -a tambhu -o peg -a
 rice eat -SEQ jungle -LOC go.PT. -1sg.
 After eating rice, I went to Jungle.
- b. thi thu u -l tamghu -o peg -a
 alcohol drink -SIM jungle -LOC go.PT. -1sg
 Drinking alcohol, I went to jungle.

In these example (a), the tense of the sequential and (b) simultaneous converbs match with the past tense of the verb in the Matrix clauses. In Limbu language, the sequential converb is associated with the perfective aspect which indicates an action happened to the anterior to that of the main verb. Similarly, the simultaneous converb can be analyzed as imperfective aspect indicating that the action indicated by the non finite clause is simultaneous with the main verb.

c. Negation and Question

In the Limbu language, negative and question have narrow scope in sequential converb. The scope of the negation and the question doesn't extend to the sequential coverb. For example,

- a. andhba? tum -u -a mem -be?k -pan
my grandfather meet -1sg -SEQ NEG go.PT. -1sg

After having met my grandfather, I didn't go.

- b. siz wa thu -u -a en se
alcohol drink -3sg -SEQ who dye.PT.3sg.

Drinking alcohol, who died?

In the example (a) and (b), the scope of negation and question has been restricted in sequential converb.

In the same way, the scope of the negative and questions does not extend to the simultaneous converb too. For example,

- c. hap -a -r , apha?lea nisam him me-be?k -e -n
weep -1sg -SIM never school NEG-go.PT. -1sg. -NEG

I never go to school, weeping.

- d. yamb k cok -a -r t k me -za -e -n
work do -1sg -SIM rice NEG -eat.PT. -1sg -NEG

I don't eat rice, doing work.

- e. siz wa thu -r en tambhu -o pe
alcohol drink -SIM who jungle -LOC go.PT.

Drinking alcohol, who went to Jungle?

- f. t k thokt -r en samlo -g
rice cook -SIM who sing -NPT.

Cooking rice, who sings a song?

In the example (c) and (d), the scope of negation has been restricted in simultaneous converb and in the example (e) and (f), the scope of question has been restricted in simultaneous converb.

d. Control of Subject

In the Limbu language, the subject of the converbal construction has two options i.e. a null N.P and lexically overt NP. For example,

- a. him -o te -a mukum se
house -LOC arrive -SEQ mukum die.PT.

After having arrived at home mukum died.

- b. t k c -a pe
rice eat -SEQ go P.T.

After having eaten rice, he went.

In the example (a) and (b), the subject of the converbal construction is a null NP. Similarly, the subject of the converbal construction is a lexically overt NP. For example,

- c. munuri him -o te -a ips -e
munuri house-LOC arrive -SEQ sleep -3sg.P.T.

After having arrived at home, Munuri slept.

- d. namsa ma t k c -a pe
Namsang poridge eat -SEQ go.PT.3sg.

After having eaten poridge, Namsang went.

In the example (c) and (d), the subject of the converbal construction is a lexically overt NP.

Yadav (2005, p. 447) says that the controllers of obligatorily null is the nominative ergative subject in sequential converbal construction in Hindi, Nepali and Maithli. (as cited in N.L., 2008, P. 339). Similarly, Limbu is a consistently ergative language the controllers of obligatorily null NP is the absolutive/ergative subject. For example,

e. him -o te -a mi sa -re t k c
 house -LOC arrive -SEQ mingsang -SEQ rice eat P.T.
 After having arrived home, Mingsong ate rice.

f. ya pir -u -a camzik -re kusa silap -tu
 money give -3sg -SEQ camzik -ERG son ask -PT.3sg.
 After having given money, Chamzik asked his son.

The examples (e) and (f) show that Limbu is a consistently ergative language, the controller of obligatorily null NP is the ergative subject.

3.2. Similarities and Differences between the Clauses of the Phedappe Limbu and English Language

Similarities and differences between the nominal clause of the Limbu and English language have been given in the following ways:

3.2.1. Nominal That Clause

Nominal that clause is found in both Limbu and English language as a subject, object and subject complement. In the Limbu language the word '**khen**' functions as a subject but in English '**that**' functions as a subject. For example,

a. khen a ga ca -ben kuzakenuba cok
 that 1sg eat.NPT delicious be.NPT
 That I have eaten is delicious.

Direct object can be found in both English and Limbu language. In English the word **‘that’** comes in the object position but in the Limbu language the nominalizer **‘-ba’** functions as a ‘that clause in object position. For example,

- b. yakthu sambha -o peni panda par -ba a ga kheps-u
 Limbu tune -LOC Nepali language speak.PT-NOM 1sg listen -PT.1sg
 I heard that he spoke Nepali language with Limbu tune.

Subject complement can be found in both the English and Limbu language. In the Limbu language, subordinator **‘g’**, **‘sa’** and nominalizer **‘-ba’** function as a subject complement. For example,

- c. sira? hara? le wa po -bo? a -ni si wa.
 interest soon change be.NPT -NOM 1sg -assumption be.NPT
 My assumption is that interest will soon change.
- d. kh ne?-in ku-ni wa? -g him -o pek -ma wa
 3sg -ABS 3sg-desire -that house -LOC go -INF be.NPT
 His desire is that he wants to go home.
- e. kucca -sa khene? mikphula pan ken-les -uns
 sure -that 2sg English language NEG-know -NPT.NEG.2sg
 Sure is that you don’t know English language.

In the examples (c), (d) and (e), subject complement ‘that’ has occurred after ‘be’ verb but in the Phedappe Limbu language, the subject complement **‘g’** has occurred after noun **‘ni wa’** in (d), **‘sa’** after **‘kucca’** in (e) and nominalizer **‘-ba’** after verb **‘po’** in (c).

3.2.2. Nominal Relative Clause

Nominal relative clause can be found in both Limbu and English language. Following types of nominal relative clause are found. They are given below:

3.2.2.1. Subject Position

Subject position nominal relative clause can be found in both English and Limbu language. In the Limbu language, Limbu relative clause ‘**kh ne?**’ occurs in the subject position which functions as a subject in the clause, but in English, relative clause ‘that’ or ‘who’ occurs immediately after noun. For example,

- d. am-ba a -sra -tha kh ne? we m na-ha? fa?r -si
1sg father 1sg-like -come who other man -pl help -3sg

I like my father who helps other.

- e. a -sira me -dha ne -n khen yapm -in h ne?
1sg -like NEG -come -ABS that men -ABS who
ya khut -u?
money steal.NPT -3sg

I dislike that man who steals money.

In the English, the relative clause ‘who’ has been occurred immediately after the noun ‘father’ and ‘man’ in the example (a) and (b) respectively but in the Limbu language, the relative clause ‘**kh ne?**’ has not been occurred immediately after noun.

3.2.2.2. Direct Object Position

Nominal relative clause can be found in direct object position in both English and Limbu. In the English language, nominal relative clause in direct object position occurs immediately after the noun but in the Limbu language, nominal relative clause in object position occurs sometimes after number and sometimes after absolutive case. For example,

d. ahimzezum -le n san cog -u hen him -in khe? yo ku-me?
 my neighbour-ERG believe do -3sg that house -ABS where 3sg-wife
 ine kuzo:lakpa cok.

ABS unfaithful be.NPT

My neighbor believes that house where his wife is unfaithful.

e. mukum-re sapla khob -u khien numa -re appu-su
 3sg -ERG paper pick.PT -3sg which 3sg -ERG throw-PT.3sg

Mukum picked up the paper which Numa threw.

In the examples (a) and (b), nominal relative clause ‘where’ and ‘which’ has occurred in object position immediately after noun ‘house’ and ‘paper’ in English respectively but in the Limbu language, nominal relative clause ‘**khe?yo**’ and ‘**khen**’ has occurred in the objective position immediately after the absolutive case and number respectively.

3.2.2.3. Indirect Object Position

Nominal relative clause occurs in indirect object position in both English and Limbu languages. Nominal relative clause occurs in indirect object position immediately after noun in English but it is not the case in the Phedappe Limbu language. For example,

a. khien wamame-en ser-u khien -in a ga? nchen ca
 that hen -ABS kill-PT.3sg which -ABS 1sg yesterday food
 pir -u
 give -PT.1sg

He killed that hen to which I gave food yesterday.

b. khien m na -n tum -u khien-in a ga? ya
 that man- -ABS meet -PT.1sg whom 1sg money
 pir -u -a w y -e
 give -PT.1sg-PT. be -PT

I met that man whom I had given money.

In the example (a) and (b), Limbu nominal relative clause ‘khen-in’ has been occurred in indirect object position immediately after the number.

3.2.2.4. Possessive Position

Nominal relative clause can be found in possessive position in both English and Limbu languages. In both English and Limbu languages, possessor can be relativised using more explicit relative pronoun strategy. For example,

- a. khen yapmi -in cit -u [khen-len ku -him -in
 that man -ABS dislike -NPT.1sg whoes Poss -house-ABS
 nub me -zok -nen]
 good NEG -be.NPT -NEG

I dislike that man whose house is not good.

- b. khen kocho -in me -de?r -un [khenlen ku -habo?-ha?
 that dog -ABS NEG -take -3sg.NPT whose Poss -teeth -pl
 s m s m -ba cok]
 sharp sharp -NOM be.NPT

He does not take that dog whose teeth are sharp.

In the example (a), the possessive person pronoun ‘**khenlen**’ relativises the relative clause ‘**khenlen ku- him-in nuba me-zok –nen**’ but in English the possessive pronoun ‘whose’ occurs immediately after the noun ‘man’ to relativise the relative clause ‘whose house is not good’.

3.2.2.5. Adjunct Position

Nominal relative clause can be found in adjunct position in both English and Limbu. In both English and Limbu languages, nominal relative clause can be found in the following positions:

a. Manner

In the Limbu language, adjunct **'nurik'** specifies action of the verb **'sapt-u'** for the manner but in English, adverb 'well' specifies the verb 'write' for the manner. For example,

- c. a ga? khen k ppen-in tar -u [khen-re carik-nurik sapt-u]
1sg that pen -ABS bring-PT.1sg which-ERG very well write-PT
I brought that pen which writes very well.

In the example (a), adjective **'nurik'** specifies the action of the verb **'sapt-u'** for manner in the Limbu language but in the English language, adverb 'well' specifies the verb of action 'write'.

b. Place

In the Limbu Language, Limbu relativiser **'khe?yo'** indicates place in the nominal relative clause but in the English Language, the relativiser 'where' indicates place in the nominal relative clause. For Example,

- a. kh ne? khe?yo me -bek -nen [khe?yo mana
3sg there NEG -go.NPT -NEG where people
-ha? tum men -det -nen]
-pl meet NEG.pl -passive -NEG
He does not go there where people are not met.

In the example (a), Limbu relativiser **'khe?yo'** indicates place in the relative clause **'khe?yo m na-ha-tum men-de?t-nen'** but in the English language, relativiser 'where' indicates place which occurs immediately after the place pronoun.

c. Time

In the Limbu language, the adverbial clauses ‘**hekkelle**’, ‘**-ille**’ are relativisor for the time relative clause but in the English language, the adverbials ‘when’ and ‘while’ are relativisor for the time clause. For Example,

- a. khene? khen yen -o ki -nis -a [hekkelle na
2sg that time -LOC 2sg -see -PT.1sg [when fish
ser -u -l w y-a]
kill -PT.1sg -PROG be-PROG.1sg]
You saw me that time when I was fishing.

In the example (a), the adverbial clause ‘hekkelle’ has been relativised for the time relative clause in the Limbu language but in English, the adverbial clause ‘when’ has been relativised immediately after the time.

3.2.3. Nominal Relative Clauses According to Place

Nominal relative clause according to place is found in both Limbu and English Language. In both languages, following types of nominal relative clauses are found according to the place.

3.2.3.1. Pre-nominal Relative Clause

In both English and Limbu, nominal relative clause can be found in pre-nominal position. For Example,

- a. khen ke -ghup -pa m na -pe
that Ap -steal -Ap man go.PT
That man who steals went.

In this example (a), in the limbu language, the head, ‘**m na**’, has been modified by the adjective clause ‘**khen ke-ghup-pa**’ and in English, head ‘man’ has been modified by ‘that’.

3.2.3.2. Post Nominal Relative Clause

In both English and Limbu, nominal relative clause can be found in post nominal position. In both languages, object has been modified by head. For example,

- a. khen m na -ha? -o en -ha?-re a -w ccha? me-de?r-u
those man -pl LOC who -pl- ERG 1sg- paddy 3pl-take-3pl
ya mu -hu r po
money 3pl -pay must

Those who take my paddy must pay money.

3.2.3.3. Headless Nominal Relative Clause

In the English and Limbu Language, headless nominal relative clause can be found. For example,

- a. ke -bek -pa -ha? peg -em -e
Ap -go -Ap -pl go -3pl -IM

Those who (want to go) go.

In the example (a), the Limbu language, **ke-bek-pa-ha? peg-em-e?** is the headless nominal relative clause but in English, ‘those who(want to go) go’ is the headless nominal relative clause.

3.2.3.4. Internally Headed Relative Clause

Internally headed relative clause can be found in both English and Limbu language. In both languages, the head is within the relative clause. For example,

- a. kh ne? l thik ya pir-a [khen -le a ga? thi i -u
3sg one money give-PT.1sg which-ERG 1sg beer buy -PT.1sg
thu -u
drink -PT.1sg

He gave me one rupee by which I bought beer and drank.

3.2.3.5. Correlative Relative Clause

Correlative relative clause can be found in both Limbu and English language. In Limbu language, a clause that refers to a construction which uses a pair of connecting words but in the English language, the relative clause precedes the main clause and both are overtly marked clause by wh-item and the main clause by demonstrative clause. For example,

- a. khen? atto -atto ke-bek? khe?yo khe?yo me -bek -en
2sg where -where Ap-go.NPT there there NEG -go.NPT -NEG
I can't go to the places where you go.

3.2.4. Nominal Wh-interrogative Clause

Nominal wh-interrogative clause can be found in both English and Limbu. In both languages, wh-interrogative clause functions as subject, direct object and subject complement. Nominal Wh- interrogative clause occurs as a subject in both Limbu and English language. For example,

- a. akkhenu sapla s ma -g ki -i -bo? tetnam po
how book sell -that 3sg -buy -NOM depend be.NPT
How book will sell depends on the receiver.

In the example (a), wh-interrogative relative clause subordinator ‘**akkhenu**’ occurs as a subject in the Limbu language but in English, ‘How’ occurs as a subject.

Similarly, wh-interrogative clause occurs as a direct object in both English and Limbu language. For example,

- a. kh ne? me -bat-un hen khos -u
3sg NEG -say -2sg.PT what find -PT.3sg
She didn't say what she found.

In this example (b), Limbu wh-interrogative subordinator ‘**hen**’ occurs as a direct object in khene? me-bat-u hen khos-u but in English, ‘what’ wh-interrogative subordinator occurs as a direct object.

In the same way, in both Limbu and English language, wh-interrogative occurs as an indirect object. For example,

- b. kun-de -ba -ha? silap-tu-si en nichamsa w y -e
 3sg -friend -NOM-3pl ask -PT-3sg who student be -PT
 He asked his friends who was a student.

In the example (c), Limbu wh-interrogative subordinator ‘**en**’ occurs as an indirect object in nominal clause but in English ‘who’ occurs as an indirect object. In the Limbu language, wh-interrogative subordinator, ‘**en**’ has occurred after number but in the English language, wh-interrogative subordinator ‘who’ has occurred after noun.

3.2.5. Yes/No and Alternative Interrogative Clause

Yes/no and alternative interrogative clause can be found in both Limbu and English language. In the Limbu language, yes-no clause is introduced by the subordinators ‘-i’ and ‘g r ’ but in English, yes/no interrogative clause is introduced by if/whether. For example,

- a. fa? -ma ke -yan -e g r s ?n-e
 help -INF 2sg -can -1sg if wonder-1sg
 I wonder if you can help me

In the example (a), yes/no interrogative is introduced by the subordinator ‘g r ’ in Limbu but in English, yes/no interrogative has been introduced by ‘if’.

Similary, in the Limbu language, the alternative clauses are formed with the co-relative ‘i-i-i’ or ‘i-i’ but in English, the alternative clauses are formed with the co-relative whether...or. For example,

- b. thai me -g t-u -nen nisam him h nde -i
 know NEG -get-1sg.NPT-NEG school open.PT -whether
 i me -sub -i
 or 3pl -close.Passive-whether
 I don't know whether the school has been opened or it has been closed.

In the example (b), the co-relative ‘i-i-i’ has been used for the alternative clause but in English the alternative clause ‘whether..or’ has been used.

3.2.6. Exclamative Clause

Exclamative clause can be found in both Limbu and English language. In both languages, subordinate exclamative clauses generally function as extra posed subject and direct object. For example,

- a. pa?ma yan me-det-nen akkhen sarik kh ne lok -ma yan
 say can NEG-able-NEG how fast 3sg run -INF can
 It's incredible how fast she can run.

In the example (a), Limbu exclamatory subordinator ‘**akkhen sarik**’ functions as subject which has come in the subject position but in English, exclamatory subordinator ‘how fast’ has functioned as a subject.

In both English and Limbu languages, exclamatory clauses come in the position of direct object. For example,

- b. ni wa itu cumlu -ca -o akkhen nuba yem w y -e
 desire remember party -food -LOC how good time be -PT
 I remember what a good time I had at party.

In the example (b), Limbu exclamatory subordinator ‘akkhen’ has occurred in the position of the direct object in the Limbu language but in English, the exclamatory subordinator ‘what’ has been occurred in the direct object position.

3.2.7. To- infinitive Clause

Nominal to-infinitive clause can be found in both Limbu and English languages. For example,

- a. p wa -ma kh ne? ku-sira -tha
 relax -INF 3sg 3sg -like -come
 He likes to relax.

In the example (a), to-infinitive subordinator ‘-ma’ has been occurred in the subject position which has functioned as a subject in the Limbu language but in English, to-infinitive subordinator ‘to’, which has functioned as an object, has occurred in direct object position.

In the Limbu language, to-infinitive subordinator ‘-ma’ comes in the direct object position as a direct object but in the English language to-infinitive subordinator ‘to’ occurs as a subject. For example,

- b. kh ne? -in tarappa tumba po -ma -ro
 3sg -ABS goal first be -INF -be
 To be first is her goal.

In the example (b), to- infinitive subordinator ‘-ma’ has been occurred in the position of direct object as an object in the Limbu language but in English, to-infinitive subordinator ‘to’ has occurred in the subject position as a subject.

Similarly, to infinitive subject complement can be found in both Limbu and English language. For example,

c. nub lepmi nak -ma g tadik bhyadik
 best excuse say -INF that tomorrow morning
 khene? -in son wa
 2sg -ABS exam be.NPT

The best excuse is to say that you have an examination tomorrow morning.

In the example (c), Limbu to infinitive subordinator ‘-ma’ functions as the subject complement as in **nub lepmi nak-ma g tadik bhyadik khene?- in son wa**. But in English to infinitive subordinator ‘to’ has functioned as the to infinitive subject complement as in ‘The best excuse is to say that you have an examination tomorrow morning’.

In the same way, nominal to-infinitive can function as appositive in both English and Limbu language. For example,

d. khene? -in tarap g ya gham -ba po -ma
 2sg -ABS ambition that farmer -NOM become -INF
 yambudhik cahab cok.
 hard labour require be.NPT

Your ambition, to become a farmer, requires hard labour.

In the example (d), Limbu nominal to-infinitive subordinator ‘-ma’ functions as an appositive as in ‘**khene? in tarap-g ya gham-ba po -ma yambudik cahab cok**’ but in English, nominal to-infinitive subordinator ‘to’ function as an appositive as in ‘Your ambition, to became a farmer, requires hard labour’.

3.2.8. Bare infinitive Nominal Clause

Bare infinitive nominal clause can be found in both English and Limbu language. In English, nominal bare infinitive functions as a subject, subject complement and object complement but in the Limbu language, bare infinitive nominal clause functions as object complement only. For example,

- a. kerek tu:ki -ha? sep -ma yamb k a ga cogu -
 all lamp -pl turn off -INF work 1sg do -PT.1sg

Turn off the lamp were all I did.

In the example (a), nominal bare infinitive clause ‘Turn of the lamp’ has functioned as subject in English as in ‘Turn off the lamp, all I did’ but in Limbu it is not found.

In the Limbu language, object complement nominal bare infinitive clause can be found. For example,

- b. khe -ha? -re kh ne? nisam him ca -re lagi
 3 -pl -ERG 3sg school uniform -ERG for
 hu me -ba -su
 pay 3pl -make -2sg.PT

They made her pay for the school uniform.

In the example (b), the object complement ‘hu ’ has functioned as bare infinitive clause as in khe -ha?-re kh ne nisam-him ca -re lagi hu me-ba -s-u.

3.2.9. Nominal Present Participle Clause

Nominal present participle clause can be found in both English and Limbu language. In both languages, nominal present praticiple clause functions as subject, subject complement, direct object and adjectival complement. For example,

- a. si -ha? ta -ma nuba - men.
 tree -pl cut -PROG good -NEG

Cutting trees is harmful.

In the example (a), present participle subordinator ‘-ma’ has functioned as a subject as in ‘**si -ha ta -ma nuba men**’ but in English, present participle ‘-ing’ has occurred in the subject position in ‘cutting trees is harmful’.

Similarly, present participle nominal clause functions as subject complement in both English and Limbu. For example,

b. kh ne? -in tumb yamb k su hek -ma
 3sg -ABS first job grass cut -PROG
 poks -e -a wa
 become -NPT -SEQ be.NPT

His first job has been cutting grass.

In the example (b), in the Limbu participle ‘-ma’ has functioned as a subject complement because the word ‘**hek-ma**’ is related to the subject as in **kh ne? -in tumb yamb k su hek-ma poks-e - a -wa** but in English, the present participle subordinator ‘-ing’ has functioned as the subject complement in ‘His first job has been cutting grass.’

In the same way, present participle nominal clause functions as direct object in both English and Limbu language. For example,

c. ce:pe ca? -ma ku -sir -a? -tha
 card play -PROG 3s -like -NPT -come
 He likes playing card.

In the example (c), in the Limbu language, the present participle word ‘**ca?-sma**’ has functioned as a direct object as in ‘**ce:pe ca?-ma ku-sir-a tha**’ but in English, the present participle subordinator ‘-ing’ has functioned as a direct object as in ‘He likes playing card.’

Similarly, present participle nominal clause functions as an adjectival complement in both English and Limbu language. For example,

d. tapfe:mba i gh khepsu -ba -o kh ne? emakpa
 bad news hear -NOM-LOC 3sg sad
 poks -e -a wa
 become -NPT.SEQ be

He has been sad hearing the bad news.

In the example (d), present participle word **'khepsu-ba-o'** has functioned as an adjectival complement in the Limbu language as in **'tafe:mba i gh khepsu-ba-o kh ne? emakpa poks-e-a -wa'** but in English, the present participle word 'hearing' has functioned as an adjectival complement as in 'He has been sad hearing the bad news'.

CHAPTER FOUR

FINDINGS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This chapter deals mainly with the findings and recommendations. Under findings, nominal clause system in Phedappe Limbu language, similarities and differences between English and Phedappe Limbu nominal clause system have been discussed. On the basis of research, some recommendations have also been given below:

4.1. Findings

The findings of the study are as follows:

4.1.1. Clause System in Phedappe Limbu Language

1. In the Phedappe Limbu language, nominal that clause ‘khen’ functions as a subject, nominalizer ‘-ba’ functions as direct object and nominalizer ‘-bo’ and nominal that clause marker ‘-g ’ function as subject complement.
2. In the Phedappe Limbu language, nominal relative clause ‘kh ne?’ functions as a subject, nominal relative ‘he?yo’ and ‘khen’ function as direct object, nominal relative clause ‘khen-in’ functions as indirect object.
3. Nominal relative clause is found in possessive position.
4. Nominal relative clause is found in adjunct position in the Limbu language.
5. In Phedappe Limbu, adjunct of place and adjunct of time are found.
6. In the Phedappe Limbu adjunct of manner ‘nurik’, adjunct of place ‘khe?yo’ and adjunct of time ‘hekkelle’ (meaning, well, there, when/while respectively) are found in the adjunct position of nominal relative clause.
7. Nominal relative clauses according to place in the Phedappe Limbu language are found in pre-nominal and past-nominal position.
8. In the Phedappe Limbu language headless nominal relative clause and internally headed relative clauses are found.

9. Correlative clause is marked by a clause that refers to a construction which uses a pair of connecting words. (i.e. atto-atto 'where where', khe?yo-khe?yo 'there there')
10. In Phedappe Limbu 'wh- interrogative relative clause' subordinators 'akkhenu ' 'hen' and 'en' function as the subject, direct object and indirect object respectively in -nominal wh-interrogative clause.
11. Yes-no and alternative interrogative clause in Phedappe Limbu is marked by the sub-ordinators '-i' and '-g r '.
12. Limbu alternative clauses are formed with the correlative 'i...i...i' or 'i...i'.
13. Nominal exclamative clauses in phedappe function as extra posed subject and direct object.
14. Nominal exclamatory subordinator 'akkhen sarik' and 'akkhen' function as subject and direct object respectively in phedappe Limbu.
15. To infinitive subordinator '-ma' functions as subject, direct object, subject complement and appositive in phedappe Limbu.
16. In Limbu, the object complement 'hu ' functions as bare infinitive clause.
17. Present participle subordinator '-ma' functions as subject, subject complement and direct object in phedappe nominal present participle clause.
18. Present participle subordinator 'ba-o' functions as an adjectival complement in phedappe nominal present participle clause.

4.1.2. Similarities between English and Phedappe Limbu Clauses

1. Nominal that clause is found in both Limbu and English.
2. In both languages 'nominal that clause' functions as subject, object and subject complement.
3. Nominal relative clause has been found in both English and Limbu.
4. In both languages, nominal relative clause functions in subject, direct object, indirect object, possessive and adjunct position.

5. In both languages we can find adjunct of manner, place and time.
6. English and Limbu nominal relative clause occurs in pre-nominal and post-nominal position.
7. Headless nominal relative clause is found in both English and Limbu.
8. Internally headed relative clause has been found in both the language.
9. Co-relative clause is found in both English and Limbu.
10. Nominal wh-interrogative clause is found in both English and Limbu.
11. In both languages, nominal wh-interrogative clause functions as subject, direct object and subject complement.
12. Yes-no and alternative interrogative clause is found in both English and Limbu.
13. In both English and Limbu languages nominal exclamative clause is found which functions as extra posed subject and direct object.
14. To-infinitive nominal clause is found in both English and Limbu languages.
15. In both languages to infinitive subordinator functions as subject complement and appositive.
16. Bare infinitive nominal clause is found in both the languages.
17. In nominal present participle clause, Limbu subordinator ‘-ma’ is equivalent with the English subordinator ‘to’
18. Nominal present participle clause is found in both languages which function as subject, subject complement, direct object and adjectival complement.

4.1.3. Differences between English and Limbu Clauses

1. The Limbu subordinators ‘khen’ ‘g ’, ‘sa ’ and nominalizer ‘bo’ are used instead of English subordinator ‘that’. In the Limbu language three different subordinator, ‘khen’ ‘g ’, ‘sa ’ and nominal ‘bo’ have functioned as only one subordinator ‘that’ in English.

2. In English nominal relative clause relativizer ‘who’, ‘which’, ‘where’ function as subject, direct object, indirect object occur immediately after noun but in the Limbu language, the relativizer ‘khene?’, ‘kheyo?’, ‘khen’ don’t occur immediately after noun. They occur some times after number and sometimes after absolutive case.
3. In English relative adjunct mostly occurs after verb, place and time but Limbu relative adjunct occurs mostly before verb, place and time to specify them.
4. In Limbu co-relative clause, a clause that refers to a construction (which) uses a pair of connecting words but in English, the relative clause precedes the main clause and both are overtly marked by ‘wh item’ and the main clause by a ‘demonstrative clause’.
5. Limbu wh-interrogative subordinator ‘en’ occurs after number whereas in English wh-interrogative subordinator ‘who’ occurs after noun.
6. To infinitive subordinator ‘-ma’ occurs in the clause final position whereas in English to infinitive subordinator ‘to’ occurs in the initial position.
7. English to infinitive subordinator ‘to’ occurs in the subject position and function as a subject but in Limbu, the to-infinitive subordinator ‘-ma’ occurs in the object position and functions as an object.
8. In English, Bare infinitive nominal clause functions as a subject, subject complement and an object complement whereas Limbu bare infinitive nominal clause functions as an object complement.
9. The suffixes ‘-r /l ’ and ‘-i’ are the subordinators of simultaneous converb in Limbu whereas in English the suffix ‘-ing’ functions as the simultaneous converb.

4.2. Recommendations

On the basis of findings listed above, the researcher recommends the following pedagogical implications:

4.3.1. Recommendations for Language Teachers and the Learners

1. In the Limbu language, three subordinators 'khen', 'g ', 'sa ' and nominalizer 'bo' are used instead of the English subordinator 'that'. So, teacher should be aware of this fact while teaching English language to the Limbu native speakers.
2. In the English nominal relative clause, relativizers 'who', 'which', 'where' occur immediately after noun but in the Limbu relativizer 'kh ne?', 'kheyo?', 'khen' don't occur immediately after noun. They occur sometimes after number and sometimes after absolutive case. While teaching and learning the English language, the teacher and the students should be aware of this fact.
3. In English relative clause adjunct mostly occurs after verb, place and time but in Limbu relative clause, adjunct mostly occurs before verb, place and time to specify them. The students learning English as a second language having Limbu as a first language and the teacher should be careful in this matter.
4. In Limbu, to infinitive subordinator '-ma' occurs in the clause final position whereas the English to infinitive subordinator 'to' occurs in the clause initial position. So the teacher as well as students should be conscious about this fact.
5. In English, 'to infinitive clause', to infinitive subordinator 'to' occurs in the subject position and functions as a subject but in Limbu to infinitive subordinator '-ma' occurs in the object position. Therefore, while teaching 'to infinitive clause', the teacher should show this difference to the Limbu native and non native learners.

6. English bare infinitive clause functions as a subject; object, subject complement and object complement but Limbu bare infinitive clause functions only as an object complement. That is why, the Limbu native and non native speakers should be made aware of this fact while teaching the English language.
7. The suffix 'r ' 'l ' 'i' are the subordinator of simultaneous converb in Limbu whereas in English, suffix '-ing' functions as a simultaneous converb. The Limbu native and non native speaker of Fedappe should be made aware of this fact.

APPENDIX - I

ROMAN TRANSLITERATION OF DEVANAGARI SCRIPT

Based on Turner's (1931) Nepali Alphabet and Diacritic Marks

Nepali Alphabet	Roman Transliteration	Nepali Alphabet	Roman Transliteration
अ	α	व्	v)
आ	α#	ट्	τ
इ	ι	ठ्	τη
ई	ι#	ड्	δ
उ	υ	ढ्	δη
ऊ	υ#	ण्	v
ऋ	ρ	त्	τ
ए	ε	थ्	τη
ऐ	αι	द्व	δ
ओ	ο	ध्व	δη
औ	αυ	न्	v
अँ	αμ, αν	प्	π
अं	α)	फ्	πη
:	η	ब्	β
क्	κ	भ्व	βη
ख्	κη	म्	μ
ग्	γ	य्व	ψ
घ्	γη	र्	ρ
ङ्	v	ल्	λ
च्	χ	व्व	ω/ω
छ्	χη	श्	σ
ज्	φ	ष्व	σ
झ्	φη	स्	σ
		ह्व	η

Note

- In the study, /v/ is used instead of Turner's /v/.
- In the study, /{/ is used which has not given in the chart.
- In the study, /N/ is used instead of Turner's /η/.
- The sound /Σ/ has been used which is not found in Turner's chart.

APPENDIX-II

ROMAN transliteration of LIMBU SCRIPT Based on Kaila's (2059) Limbu-Nepali-English Dictionary

इन्सान / कथापत्रिका	सन्तु / चोमज्जो	सुन्ना	इन्सानपरी	IPA
क	क	क	क	k
ख	ख	ख	ख	kh
ग	ग	ग	ग	g
घ	घ	घ	घ	gh
ङ	ङ	ङ	ङ	ŋ
च	च	च	च	c/ts
छ	छ	छ	छ	ch/tsh
ज	ज	ज	ज	j/dz
झ	झ	...	झ	jh/dz
ञ	ञ	...	ञ	...
ट	ट	ट	ट	t
ठ	ठ	ठ	ठ	th
		ड	ड	d
	ड	ड	ड	d
न	न	न	न	n
प	प	प	प	p
फ	फ	फ	फ	ph
	ब	ब	ब	b
	भ	भ	भ	bh
म	म	म	म	m
य	य	य	य	j
र	र	र	र	r
ल	ल	ल	ल	l
व	व	व	व	w
श	श	श	श	sh
	ष	...	ष	...
स	स	स	स	s
ह	ह	ह	ह	h
त्र	त्र	...	त्र	tr
	ञ	...	ञ	...

APPENDIX - III

Interview Schedule

Questionnaire for Clauses in English and Phedappe Limbu

This interview schedule is prepared in order to accomplish a thesis on “**Clauses in English and Phedappe Limbu Language**”. This thesis is being carried out under the supervision of **Dr. Tapashi Bhattacharya**, Reader of the Department of English Language Education, T.U. Kirtipur, Kathmandu. It is hoped that your valuable assistance extended to me will be a great contribution in the accomplishment of this work as an M.Ed. thesis.

Name:

Sex:

VDC:

Age:

Occupation:

Second language:

First Language:

How do you say the following sentences in the Limbu language?

1. Nominal That Clause

- a. That I have eaten is delicious.

.....

- b. That book she reads is blue in colour.

-
- c. I heard that he spoke Nepali language with Lumbu tune.
.....
- d. My assumption is that interest will soon change.
.....
- e. His desire is that he wants to go home.
.....
- f. Sure is that you don't know English language.
.....

2. Nominal Relative Clause

- a. That woman who eats rice there.
.....
- b. That man whom I gave pen.
.....
- c. That boy who goes there.
.....
- d. That man who called me.
.....
- e. That student who studied in school.
.....

2.1. Subject position

- a. I like my father who helps other.
.....
- b. I dislike that man who steals money.
.....

c. I gave that pen which is used to write.

.....

d. I like my mother who cares me.

.....

2.2. Direct Object Position

a. My neighbor believes that house where his wife is unfaithful.

.....

b. I dislike that man whom Mingshang beat yesterday.

.....

2.3. Indirect Object Position

a. He killed that hen to which I gave food yesterday.

.....

b. Do you live in that house which I had sold two years before?

.....

c. I met that man whom I had given money.

.....

2.4. Possessive Position

a. I dislike that man whose house is not good.

.....

b. He doesn't take that dog whose teeth are sharp.

.....

c. He does not like that woman whose hair is grey.

.....

2.5. Adjunct Position

2.5.1. Manner

- a. I brought that pen which writes very well.
.....
- b. Yesterday, I saw that man who took load heavily.
.....
- c. I called that man who stole my book.
.....

2.5.2. Place

- a. He says in that house in which his brother also lives.
.....
- b. I go to that house where many people live.
.....
- c. He does not go there where people are not met.
.....

2.5.3. Time

- a. You saw me that time when I was fishing.
.....
- b. He came at that time when you were sleeping.
.....
- c. Mukum hit him that time when he was in class.
.....

3. Nominal Relative Clause According to the Position of the Clause

3.1. Prenominal

- a. That man who steals went.
.....
- b. That woman who calls died.
.....
- c. That man who used to study died.
.....

3.2. Post Nominal Relative Clause

- a. Those who take my paddy must pay money.
.....
- b. Those people who stay in the home must cook rice.
.....
- c. Those who stole my money must return back.
.....

3.3. Headless Nominal Relative Clause

- a. Those who (want to go) go.
.....
- b. Those who (want to eat) eat.
.....
- c. Whoever stays in the house must see the children.
.....

3.4. Internally Headed Relative Clause

- a. He gave me one rupee by which I bought beer and drank.
.....
- b. I give you a book which you can read.
.....

3.5. Correlative Relative Clause

- a. I can't go to the places where you go.
.....
- b. Should we do whatever he says?
.....
- c. Go to the place from where you came?
.....
- d. We should do whatever he says.
.....

4. Nominal Wh Interrogative Clause

- a. How book will sell depends on the receiver.
.....
- b. What caused the accident is unknown.
.....
- c. I can't imagine what they want.
.....
- d. She didn't say what she found.
.....
- e. She asked me who would complete it.
.....
- f. He asked his friends who was a student.
.....

5. Yes -no and Alternative Interrogative Clause

- a. I wonder if you can help me.
.....
- b. Do you know whether the banks are open?

.....
c. I don't know whether the school has been opened or it has been closed.

.....
d. He didn't say whether it will rain or be sunny.

.....
6. Exclamative Clause

a. It's incredible how fast she can run.

.....
b. It's incredible how fast she can run.

.....
c. I remember what a good time I had at party.

.....
7. To -Infinitive Clause

a. He likes to relax.

.....
b. To be first is her goal.

.....
c. The best excuse is to say that you have an examination tomorrow morning.

.....
d. Your ambition to become a farmer requires hard labour.

.....
8. Bare Infinitive Nominal Clause

a. Turns off the lamp were all I did.

.....
b. The best thing you can do now is write her an apology.

.....
c. They made her pay for the school uniform.

.....

9. Nominal Present Participle Clause

- a. Cutting trees is harmful.
.....
- b. Smoking is not good for health.
.....
- c. His first job has been cutting grass.
.....
- d. He likes playing card.
.....
- e. He enjoys singing a song.
.....
- f. He has been sad hearing the bad news.
.....

10. Converb Clause

10.1. Morphological Properties

- a. They sleep singing a song.
.....
- b. He reads book listening news.
.....
- c. Mukum went to school, having completed his work.
.....
- d. Mirak went to market having called me.
.....

10.2. Semantic Properties

- a. The sister went to school, crying.

-
- b. I made a basket, singing a song.
.....
- c. After having worshiped the god I ate rice.
.....
- d. After having played game Mukum went to house.
.....

10.3. Syntactic Properties

10.3.1. Position

- a. Crying, the sister came.
.....
- b. Thieving the gold, the thief ran.
.....
- c. Having eaten rice, father came.
.....
- d. Having made a basket, Mukum ate rice.
.....

10.3.2. Tense, Aspect and Mood

- a. After eating rice, I went to Jungle.
.....
- b. Drinking alcohol, I went to jungle.
.....

10.3.3. Negation and Question

- a. After having met my grandfather, I didn't go.

-
- b. Drinking alcohol, who died?
.....
- c. I never go to school, weeping.
.....
- d. Drinking alcohol, who went to Jungle?
.....
- e. Cooking rice, who sings a song?
.....

10.3.2. Control of Subject

- a. After training arrived at home mukum died.
.....
- b. After having eaten rice, he went.
.....
- c. After having arrived at home, Munuri slept.
.....
- d. After having eaten millet, Namsang went.
.....
- e. After having arrived home, mingsong ate rice.
.....
- f. After having given money, Chamgik asked his son.
.....

Thank you for your cooperation.

Researcher

Anita Tambahangphe

APPENDIX - IV

Interview Schedule

Questionnaire for Clauses in English and Phedappe Limbu

This interview schedule is prepared in order to accomplish a thesis on “**Clauses in English and Phedappe Limbu Language**”. This thesis is being carried out under the supervision of **Dr. Tapashi Bhattacharya**, Reader of the Department of English Language Education, T.U. Kirtipur, Kathmandu. It is hoped that your valuable assistance extended to me will be a great contribution in the accomplishment of this work as an M.Ed. thesis.

Name:

Sex:

VDC:

Age:

Occupation:

Second language:

First Language:

How do you say the following sentences in the Limbu language?

1. Nominal That Clause

a. That I have eaten is delicious.

.....

b. That book she reads is blue in colour.

.....

c. I heard that he spoke Nepali language with Lumbu tune.

.....

d. My assumption is that interest will soon change.

.....

APPENDIX-V

Limbu Text books and Pedagogical Materials

- g. Ani Pa:n -class I
- h. Ani Pa:n –classII
- i. Ani Pa:n –classIII
- j. Ani Pa:n –class IV
- k. Ani Pa:n –class V
- l. Tarang (informal education)
- m. Chotlung (informal education)
- n. Ani Chobasambaha(Biography edited by Amar Tumyahang)
- o. Ke Lang: Culture & Poetry-edited by Amar Tumyahang, 2063.
- p. Manggare Kubok: story- Amar Tumyahang
- q. Samjik Sikchha :Class-I -translated by Amar Tumyahang
- r. Ganit Sikchha: Class -I -Translated by Amar Tumyahang, 2063 B.S.
- s. Bigyan Saririk Sikchha: Class –I –Translated by Amar Tumyahang, 2063 B.S
- t. Padhai Bolichali-Anju Khadka, Kesharjung Magar and Bidhyanath Koirala, 2063B.S.
- u. Praramvik Kirant Barnamala- Sangita Thebe, Samjiri Semi and Mangming Sohang, 2060B.S.
- v. Sikkum Phona Lathik-B.B.Muringla, Sikkim
- w. Sikkum Phona Lanechhi- B.B.Muringla, Sikkim.
- x. Yakthung Husing Lam- B.B.Muringla, Sikkim.
- y. Limbu Akshar Gaid-unknown.
- z. Limbu Barnamala-Dilendra Kurumbang, Subba, 2004 A.D.etc.

APPENDIX-VI

Limbu Dictionaries and Glossaries

- e. Limbu Glossary -W.J. Corkpatric 2007, pp. 249-251. (1st edition 1811)
- f. A Vocabulary of the Limbu Language-H.W. R. Senior, 1908. (2nd edition 1977A.D.)
- g. Limbu -English Dictionary -Charls Kemble mid 19th century.
- h. Limbu Hijje Shabdakosh-Dilendra Kurumbang Subba, 2062 B.S.
- i. Limbu-Nepali-English Dictionary -Iman Singh Chemjong, 2018 B.S.
- j. Limbu- English Dictionary of Mewakhola Dialect with English and Limbu Index-Bodi Mikhailovsy, 2002 A.D.
- k. Hindi-Limbu Dictionary-Bajra Bihari Kumar, P.S. Subba and B.B. Subba, 1980A.D.
- l. Limbu-Nepali-English Dictionary: History and challenges -Bairagi Kainla, 1980A.D.
- m. Nepali-Limbu-English Dictionary -Hastalal Limbu, 2051 B.S.
- n. Mundhum Dictionary: Kirant -Nepali -English -Mangmingsohang Lingden, 2060 B.S.
- o. Limbu-Nepali-English Dictionary-B.B. Subba, 1980 A.D.
- p. Sirijunga Lipima Kehi Sabda -Hari Chongbang, 2050 B.S.
- q. Sanchhipta Khas -Limbu Sabdakosh -Nara Yonghang, 2052 B.S.
- r. Yakthung Chokthim -Rishi Kumar Sangbhangphe, 1992 A.D. etc.

APPENDIX-VII

On Line Limbu Literatures' Blog and Home Pages

<http://www.limbuwan.blogspot.com>

<http://www.limbuwan.blog.com>

<http://www.yakthunnew.com>

<http://www.yakthungsamaj.com>

<http://www.chumlung.org.np>

<http://www.limbulibrary.com>

<http://www.kirants.com>

<http://www.kirantisathi.com>

<http://www.tigela.com.np>

<http://www.kirant.org.np>

<http://www.nefin.org.np>

<http://www.limbuwanvoice.wordpress.com>

<http://www.limbuwan.com>

<http://www.limbuwan.com.np>

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