## CHAPTER-ONE

## INTRODUCTION

### 1.1 General Background

Language is an abstract entity that uniquely equips human beings for their communication demarcating them from other living creatures. So, it has become the most valuable asset in human life. What people want to express is expressed in one or the other language. Even people, who are unable to speak, express their ideas by using sign language. Thus, language is a medium of expressing thoughts, ideas, feelings and emotions. Hence, it makes no denial to the fact that language has become a basic need like food and shelter particularly for human life. We can not ignore the fact that the present world would get paralyzed if there was no language coined. So, language can be regarded as an uncomparable possession of mankind helping humans for communication in their daily life.

Hornby (2005, p. 862) defines language as "the system of communication in speech and writing that is used by people of a particular country or area."

Similarly, Robins (1964, p.14) says, "Languages are a symbol systems ...based on pure or arbitrary convention ... infinitely extendable and modifiable according to the changing needs of the speakers."

In accordance with these definitions cited above, language is a differentdifferent entity in the eyes of different-linguists and scholars. So, there is no universal definition of language in that it is a complex phenomenon. However, language can be described as a vocal, systematic, conventional, symbolic, unique, complex and modifiable means of communication.

Besides, it can be defined as a marker of speakers' identity since a person, most often, is identified in terms of caste, nationality and geography by the language or a dialect of the language he/she uses. Language displays not only identity but also culture, civilization and intellectual power of speakers.

There are innumerable languages existing in the world. Whatever languages available in the world are neither completely different nor completely similar. The degree of differences and similarities between languages depends upon the language families they are related to. In this connection, CA (Contrastive Analysis) has been introduced to study similarities and differences found between languages.

In this way, every language deserves importance from the view point of a medium of expression, a means of communication, a marker of identity, a reflector of culture, civilization and so on. This is because every language needs to be explored and studied as far as possible, for their richness and advancement.

### 1.1.1 Status of the English Language in Nepal

Status refers to the position of something that has occupied in various fields. So, status of English refers to its influence over the areas such as education, business, mass-media, culture, religion, tourism, military forces and other scientific explorations.

According to UNESCO in Chhetri (2009, p. 2), more than sixty countries of the world use the English language as an official-language, about one hundred million people listen to English radio programmes and over sixty million children study it at the primary level. One third of books of the world have been written in the English language, and more than three hundred million people of the world speak English as their native language. Most of the seminars, workshops, conferences, meetings etc. are held in the English language nationally and internationally. It is also a medium to learn history, culture and life style of the people belonging to English speech community natively.

So far as the status of the English language in Nepal is concerned, almost no fields have remained untouched with it. English is a chief international language that is taught in schools, colleges and universities of Nepal. There are
growing private boarding schools where the medium of instruction is English. English has occupied a corner of Nepalese parents' hearts that they want to get their children educated in English despite its expensiveness. Mass media is another field in which high status of English language is reflected. Likewise, The Rising Nepal, The Kathmandu Post and The Himalayan Times are the major English newspapers published daily in Nepal. Similarly, Radio Nepal and Nepal Television have become no exception to this point of occupying high position by the English language. Tourism in Nepal is the another field which is being developed due to the influence and access of the English language. Obviously, tourism development keeps in relationship with economy and cultural transfers. Hence, the contribution of the English language should be sincerely consented in uplifting economy and exchanging cultures and traditions as well. Trade is also the field that can not be excluded from the fields influenced by the English language.

But, English is yet to be the official language in Nepal. English language education is not within the access of all Nepalese students because of geographically complex diversities and economical inequalities. So it has not been extended and developed as satisfactorily as demanded by the people in Nepal.

### 1.1.2 Linguistic Scenario of Nepal

Nepal is a country of linguistic and cultural diversity. According to population census 2001, ninety-two languages are identified as mother tongues in Nepal. Besides, many other languages are categorized under 'Unknown Group' in the lack of authenticity and strong evidence. In comparison to the geographical size, such a big linguistic diversity is an important characteristic and a matter of glory for Nepal.

Most of the languages spoken in Nepal do not have their own scripts. They are found only in spoken form in day to day communication. Some of these languages are in a verge of extinction. Analyzing and studying the linguistic
situation of a country is significant from the view point of promoting such disappearing languages and language planning.

The major languages spoken in Nepal are categorized into four language families as follows: (CBS, 2002)

### 1.1.2.1 Indo-Aryan Group

The major, Indo-Aryan languages spoken in Nepal are Nepli, Maithili, Bhojpuri, Tharu, Awadhi, Urdu, Rajbanshi, Hindi, English, Danuwar, Bengali, Marwari, Manjhi, Dariei, Kumal and so on. (see App. V)

### 1.1.2.2 Tibeto-Burman Group

Tibeto-Burman group includes the languages such as Tamang, Newar, Magar, Bantawa, Gurung, Limbu, Sherpa, Chepang, Sunuwar, Dhimal, yakha, Thulung, Sampang, Khaling, Thakai, Chhantyal and so on (see App. VI). These languages are spoken in different parts of Nepal.

### 1.1.2.3 Dravidian Group

Jhangar is the only one language which belongs to this group. Jhangar is spoken around the Koshi River in the eastern region of Nepal (Yadav and Grove 1994, p. 48). According to the population census, 2001, there are 28,415 people speaking the Jhangar language natively.

### 1.1.2.4 Austro-Asiatic Group

Santhali is the only language belonging to this group. It is spoken in Jhapa district of Nepal (Yadav, 2003, p. 149). The population census, 2001 records 40,260 people speaking the Santhali language natively.

## The classification of different language families is given below: (Yadav and

 Glover, 1994)
(Unclassified: Darai, Kumal, Sadhani, Danuwar, Charauti)

Diagram No. 2

## Sino-Tibetan Langugages




### 1.1.3 An Introduction to the Dhimal Language

Most of the mother tongue languages spoken in Nepal are used as a means of daily communication within the same language speech communities. Dhimal is one of those mother tongues which is still spoken within its speech community.

Though little is known or recorded about the history of the Dhimal, it is thought that prior to settling down, the Dhimals used to be those people who practised cultivation. After land became less available and there were fewer animals to hunt, they began to settle in specific areas. What is thought to be the original settlement of the Dhimal is located in northern Morang (Williams \& Larsen, 2001, p. 2). There are several legends as to the Dhimal origin.

However, the most frequently told is about two Kirat brothers who went on a pilgrimage to Varanasi. On the way home, the older brother walked faster than
the younger one, cutting trees as he went. The younger brother got lost as the trees grew back and decided to remain on the plains, becoming the father of the Dhimal people. The older brother continued walking until he reached the mountains and founded the group known today as the Limbu people (Regmi, 1991, p. 56). To this day the people of the hills often refer to the Dhimals as "Limbu of the Plains". Ukyab and Adhikari (2057 B.S., p. 34) have remarked the Dhimal origin with the similar idea, "These Dhimals are also called the Limbus of the Terai because they resemble Limbu ethnicity in relation to face, religion and language". They have their own language, clothing and culture.

The Dhimals are minority ethnic people of Nepal. The Dhimal settlements are concentrated in the district of Morang and the Western part of Jhapa (Yadava \& Glover, 1999, p. 27). Some anthropologists have claimed that the Dhimals living in the Terai to be the brothers of the Limbus living in the mountains, but all do not agree with this point (Pandey, 2065 B.S., p.58).

According to Diwas (2039 B.S. p.4), the Dhimals are found to be living at Hariacha, Kaseni, Dangihat, Bahuni, Keraun, Bayarban, Amardaha, Rajghat, Letang, Madhumalla, Babiyabirta and Govindapur of Morang district and Damak, Gauradaha, Topgachi, Anarmani, Sanichare, Dhaijan, Duhagadi, Shantinagar, Nakalbanda, Bahundangi and Dhulabaree of Jhapa district. Damak, Urlabaree, Rajghat, Madhumalla and Mangalbare are the most densely populated areas of the Dhimal people. Dhimal people are divided into two groups: Eastern Dhimals and Western Dhimals (ibid, 2039, p. 6). The Kankai (Mai) river is all accepted as a natural-boundary division of the Dhimals. According to this division, the Dhimals living in areas to the east of the Kankai River are called 'Eastern Dhimals' and to the west of the Kankai River are called 'Western Dhimals’.

Dhimal language is named after caste. So far as its genetic affiliation is concerned, it falls under the group of Tibeto-Burman language family (Yadava \& Glover, 1999, p.27). No script of the Dhimal language is made yet. Either Devanagari or Roman is used for the written Dhimal language. No articles and
important books promoting this language have been written so far in comparison to the articles and books written on other languages. The Dhimal language is influenced by the neighbouring languages, but mostly it is influenced by the Nepali language. The Dhimals are born bilingual (Rimal, 2045 B.S., p.30). The Nepali language has begun to be used more than the Dhimal language in many of the Dhimal villages. The Dhimal language is spoken within the Dhimal community only. Its separate existence is, undoubtly, accepted because of its own characteristics, structural patterns and the area of Dhimal linguistic use (ibid, p. 30).

Talking about the total population of Dhimals, Yadava and Glover (1999, p.26) report them to be at most 30,000 . But the census, 2001 has recorded them numbering 17308. The population census, 1991 shows that 89.5 percent of the total Dhimal population was speaking the Dhimal language. But the population census, 2001 has reported 88.6 percent of the total Dhimal population to be speaking their language.

In this way, the comparative study of Dhimal speaking population between the census 1991 and 2001 informs us that the Dhimal speakers are decreasing and it is in danger of dying out. Thus, the Dhimal language needs to be studied and promoted.

### 1.1.3.1 Varieties of the Dhimal Language

The Dhimal language contains two dialects spoken within the Dhimal communities.

## I. Eastern Dialect

As mentioned earlier (p. 10), the Kankai (Mai) River, flowing through the Jhapa district, is all accepted as a natural boundary division of the Dhimals. According to this division, the Dhimals living in the areas to the east of the Kankai River are called 'Eastern Dhimals' and the dialect they use is 'Eastern Dialect' (Yadava \& Glover, 1999, p. 28). The Eastern Dialect of the Dhimal
language tends to mix with the language of their Rajbansi neighbours (Willams \& Larsen, 2001, p. 2).

## II. Western Dialect

The dialect used within the Dhimal communities by the 'Western Dhimals' living in the areas to the west of the Kankai river, is the Western Dialect (Cooper, 1997, p. 28). Mainly, it is found to be influenced by the Nepali language due to the Nepali speaking communities around.

### 1.1.4 Importance of Grammar

Grammar refers to the mechanism (body of rules) directing the pattern of language. It is not a book written about language. It is grammar that makes language understandable and meaningful.

Harmer (1987, p.1) says, "Grammar, then, is the way in which words change themselves and group together to make sentences. The grammar of a language is what happens to words when they become plural or negative, or what word order...to make one sentence."

Similarly, Palmer (1978, p.9) defines grammar as "A device that specifies the infinite set of well-formed sentences and assigns to each of them one or more structural descriptions." This is to say that grammar generates infinite number of well formed possible sentences and explains them descriptively.

According to the definitions mentioned above, grammar is that system of language studying how words change themselves to make sentences which are meaningful. Thus, it is the central component of language and has a significant place in its proper use.

The complex mechanism of the human body should be informed to understand its whole function; similar is the case with grammar in relation to language. Besides, as it occupies the central position in language, there is also a practical reason to emphasize the study of grammar. It is quite difficult to consult grammar books without a considerable knowledge of grammar. Greenbaum
and Nelson (2002, p.6) mention the following applications of grammatical study:
a. A reorganization of grammatical structures is often essential for punctuation.
b. A study of one's native grammar is helpful when one studies the grammar of a foreign language.
c. A knowledge of grammar is a help in the interpretation of literary as well as nonliterary texts, since the interpretation of a passage sometimes depends crucially on grammatical analysis.
d. A knowledge of grammar helps one to revise an earlier written draft.

Thus, knowledge of grammar is essential for competent users of a language. It is indispensable property for language teachers, language experts and language learners as well.

### 1.1.5 Subject-Verb Agreement

Subject, verb, object and so on are grammatical functions in a language. Agreement refers to a formal relationship between these grammatical elements. Formal relationship means a form of one word needs a corresponding form of another. To put it obviously, number agreement between the subject and verb takes place in the English language and many others. But, this does not mean subject-verb agreement applies to every language.

Greenbaum and Nelson (2002, p.141) write, "The verb agrees with its subject in number and person." The appropriate form of the verb is used according to the number of subject whether the subject is singular or plural. Selection of one linguistic-item determines the presence or absence of another linguistic item. Subject-verb agreement system is language specific. This is to say that subjectverb agreement rules differ from language to language.

In English, for all verbs other than 'be', the distinctions are found only in the present tense, where the third person singular has the $-S$ form and the third person plural -like the first and second persons -has the base form: The noise distracts them.

The noises distract them. (ibid, p. 141)
English is the reference language of this study. So, the major subject-verb agreement rules in English are presented as follows:
(Celce-Murcia and Larsen-Freeman, 1983, pp. 59-74).
a. A plural verb is agreed with a plural subject and singular verb is agreed with a singular subject:
E.g. Girls play badminton.

Mr. Sharma teaches English.
b. Somebody, something, everybody etc agree a singular verb.
E.g. Someone has phoned me.
c. A unit noun takes a singular verb.
E.g. Five miles is a long distance.
d. If an adjective is made a subject, it agrees a plural verb.
E.g. The young are brave.
e. Arithmetical operation takes a singular verb.

## E.g. Two plus two is four.

f. None of + plural noun takes either a singular or a plural verb.
E.g. None of the students has passed/have passed the test.
g. A verb clause agrees a singular verb.
E.g. To teach needs qualification.
h. When two nouns joined with and work as a subject, it takes a plural verb.

## E.g. John and Smith are friends.

i. Many + singular noun agrees a singular verb.
E.g. Many a man learns English.
j. 'A number of' takes a plural verb but 'the number of' takes a singular verb.

## E.g. A number of students were absent in the class.

The number of students was absent in the class.
k. When fraction and percentage modify a mass noun, they take a singular verb and a plural verb is agreed when they modify a plural noun. When they modify a collective noun, either the singular or the plural may be used.
E.g. Half of the milk was drunk.

One third of the students are failed.
One tenth of the population is/are illiterate.

1. Quantifiers take a plural verb when they modify a plural noun and a singular when they modify a mass noun.
E.g. Some of the girls are dancing.

All of the water is polluted.
m . Collective noun may be either singular or plural form of a verb depending on the meaning.
E.g. Our team has won the game. (The team as a whole)

Our team have won the game. (The individual team members)
n. Some common and proper nouns which end in 's' or 'ics' take a singular verb.
E.g. News is good today.

Politics is a dirty game.
o. Neither/Either/Each of + plural takes a singular verb.
E.g. Each of the boys is honest.
p. One of + plural noun agrees a singular verb.
E.g. One of the teachers is awarded.
q. The proximity rule is applied for the correlatives either...or, neither...nor

## E.g. Either R am or Ram's friends are coming.

r. $A /$ The majority + of + plural noun generally agrees a plural verb.
E.g. The majority of people present here are the Dhimals.
s. Exception: When two subjects together represent a single idea, a singular verb is agreed.
E.g. Slow and steady wins the race.

The Headmaster and accountant has just gone out.

### 1.1.6 Contrastive Analysis (CA): An Overview

In course of studying about different languages, the practice of comparison and contrast is naturally made between two or among different languages. It was Sir William Jones who made the first attempt to compare and contrast between languages in 1786. It was the birth of comparative philology- the study of historical or genetic connection between languages in which two languages are related. This is to say that languages are developed from one and the samelanguage or single source of two or more languages does not indicate that their formal characteristics are similar in all or most respects. In this situation, CA
was initiated and developed in the late 1940s and 50s by C.C. Fries and Robert Lado with the opinion that languages with different sources or genetically unrelated languages may resemble each other sharing some features. On the contrary, genetically related languages may be different in the same features. In this regard, historical approach (diachronic) to language comparison was shifted into contemporary- approach (synchronic). This is also termed typological comparison. In this way, the credit of comparing languages goes to CA (Corder, 1973).

Contrastive analysis, which is a branch of 'Applied linguistics', attempts to draw a systematic analysis of similarities and differences between languages. James (1980, p. 3) defines CA as "a linguistic enterprise aimed at producing inverted (i.e. contrastive, not comparative) two valued typologies (a CA is always concerned with a pair of languages), and founded on the assumption that languages can be compared." Thus, CA is carried out to compare the linguistic systems of two languages. Mainly it is done for pedagogical purpose. It has two functions: Firstly, to predict the likely errors of a group of learners and secondly, to provide input to language teaching and learning. There are similarities and differences between the first language (L1) and the second language (L2). The study of these similarities and differences helps us to predict the areas of ease or difficulty in learning L2. More obviously, the greater the difference between the languages, the greater the difficulty in learning L2 and accordingly, the greater the number of errors in performance. James (ibid, p. 14) quotes Lado (1957, p. 2) "CA is founded on the assumption that L2 learners will tend to transfer . . . . . to the foreign language and culture." While learning L2, the learners transfer the system of their L1. If there are similarities between two languages i.e. L1 and L2, the L1 facilitates L2 in learning. If there are differences between two languages (L1 and L2), the L1 interferes L2. The facilitation made by L1 is called positive transfer and interference made by L1 is called negative transfer. CA not only predicts the tentative errors but also explains the sources and reasons of the L2 learners' errors.

CA, the theory of comparison, is divided into two types. The first is known as interlingual comparison in which two languages are compared. The second one is intralingual comparison in which one can compare dialectal differences occurring within a language. Corder (1973, p. 227) says "English belongs in
 language manifests itself formally". It can be inferred from the illustration that comparative linguistics is, therefore, an important part of the study of human language.

### 1.2 Review of Related Literature

Almost every discipline has a long and glorious tradition. Similar is the case with language and literature that they can not be separated from each other. The history of literature is literary tradition. Any related new creation is undoubtly born to it. The main aspect of any research study is to review the previous literature as well. Review of the related literature gets the researcher informed of the appropriate use of sources and their whereabouts.

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

Various research studies can be found about various languages and subjectverb agreement. But, less research studies are found about the Dhimals and the Dhimal language in comparison to the others. However, some foreign as well as Nepalese scholars can not be forgotten for their hands at writing about the Dhimal language.

It was, for the first time, Hodgson who wrote about the Dhimal language in 1847 (Rimal, 2045 B.S. p.14). But George-Grierson is considered to be the first person carrying out a wide study about the Dhimal language in his Linguistics Survey of India in 1929. In this book, he has given an introduction to the Dhimal language, its language family and word groups (ibid, p. 15). Diwas (2039 B.S.) has written a book entitled ‘dhimal lok-dharma ra sanskriti'. He
has talked about tribe identification, settlements, ancestors, villages, houses, their cultures and traditions in this book. His work is considered as a milestone in uplifting Dhimal-people and their culture. But, language has remained untouched in his volume. Similarly, a study done in 1997 (from Nov. 1996 to Mar. 1997) by Kathrin Cooper from University of Zurich, Switzerland deserves a greater importance in studying the Dhimal people and their language (Yadava \& Glover, 1999, p.26). The researcher has talked about Dhimal people, their distribution, dialectal varieties of the Dhimal language and genetic-affiliation. But, the study made by Cooper (1997) is not found to be specific to any single aspect of the Dhimal language. Toba, et al. (2002) have written 'Dhimal-Nepali-English Glossary' which adds to promoting the Dhimal language. In this glossary, Dhimal words with their Nepali equivalents are translated into English. Regmi (2007) has written ‘The Dhimals: Cultural Patterns and Economic Change'. He talks about Dhimals' cultures and their change in relation to economy in this book. In spite of these aforesaid studies, there are still too many aspects which are yet to be studied in the Dhimal language.

A lot of research studies have been carried out on comparative study among different languages such as Limbu, Gurung, Santhali, Newari and English under the Department of English Education and other departments of Social Sciences and Humanities, T.U. Likewise, some research studies can be found about Dhimal socio-economic culture and the Dhimal language. Thus, the related literature specifically carried out on CA and particularly on subject-verb agreement is reviewed here.

Rimal (2045 B.S.) has carried out a research on 'dhimal bhasako addhayan'. The main purpose of this study was to find out the Linguistic pattern of the Dhimal language. Mainly, he found that Dhimal sentences are structured in $\mathrm{S}+\mathrm{O}+\mathrm{V}$ pattern, similar to that of Nepali pattern. It was not the study specific to any aspect of the Dhimal language, rather a whole study of linguistic pattern.

Khatiwada (1999) has done a research study on 'Dhimal Verb Morphology'. The main objective of this study was to analyze the morphology of Dhimal
verbs. He found that the verb morphology of the Dhimal language shows different inflectional and derivational processes. Further, he found that the process of casuativization and intransitivization is morphological in the Dhimal language and the negative prefix, ma negates the Dhimal verb forms.

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

Sah (2000) has carried out a research on 'A comparative study of the SubjectVerb Agreement in Maithili and English’. The main purpose of this study was to find out the similarities and differences between Maithili and English subject-verb Agreement systems. He drew the findings that subject-verb agreement system between these two languages is different from each other except in case of gender. Honorific forms, which are not found in English, are used in Maithili.

Mahato (2001) has done a research study on 'A comparative study of the Subject-Verb Agreement in the English and Tharu languages'. The purpose of this study was to identify the system of subject-verb agreement in the Tharu language and to compare it with the English subject-verb agreement. He found that the second and third person pronouns change for honorific forms where as they do not do in the English. The system of marking for formal and informal forms is found in the Tharu verbs whereas this does not happen in the English. Both English and Tharu verbs do not agree with the categories of gender.

Paudyal (2007) has carried out a research study on 'A Comparative Study of the Subject-Verb Agreement in the English and Jhagar Languages'. The research aimed at identifying the subject-verb agreement system of the Jhagar language and comparing it with the subject-verb agreement in the English. He
found that there is a distinction between male and female of the first person and third person in Jhagar but it lacks in English. As a whole, Jhagar subject-verb agreement system is different from that of the English in spite of a few similarities.

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

Still, some other comparative studies have been carried out in the Department of English Education, and other departments. But, no study has been carried out to compare and contrast between English and Dhimal-subject-verb agreement systems. Hence, the present study is expected to be remarkable one in the Department of English Education. T.U.

### 1.3 Objectives of the Study

The main objectives of this study were as follows:
a. To identify the subject-verb agreement system of the Dhimal language.
b. To find out similarities and differences in the subject-verb agreement systems between English and Dhimal.
c. To suggest some pedagogical implications.

### 1.4 Significance of the Study

This study will be significant to the people who want to conduct research on the Dhimal language. It will also be helpful in developing the grammar of Dhimal. Further, it will be significant to all those students, teachers, textbook
writers, syllabus designers, etc. who are involved in English Language
Teaching in Nepal. It will be an extra work of appreciation on the Dhimal language in the Department of English Education, T.U.

### 1.5 Definitions of the Difficult Terms

The terms listed below are defined by Richards et al. (1985) except dual, habitual and proximity rule.
i. Subject: It refers to something about which a statement or assertion is made in the rest of the sentence.
ii. Verb: It refers to a word which occurs as a part of the predicate of a sentence, carries markers of categories such as tense, aspect, person, number and mood and refers to an action or state.
iii. Agreement: The term 'agreement' commonly refers to some systematic covariance between a semantic or formal property or one element and a formal property of another.
iv. Dialect: A variety of language spoken in one part of country (regional dialect), or people belonging to a particular social class (social dialect or sociolect) which is different in some words, grammar/or pronunciation from other forms of the same language.
v. Dual: Hornby (ed. 2005, p. 473) defines dual as "having two parts or aspects". It refers to the grammatical category 'number' representing the meaning of two or double. Dual number contains two entities in itself.
vi. Inflection: The process of adding an affix to a word or changing it in some other way according to the rules of the grammar of a language. For example, in English, verbs are inflected for the third person singular.
vii. Habitual: The feature that is common to all habitual whether or not they are also iterative, is that they describe a situation which is characteristic of an extended period of time, so extended in the fact that the situation
referred to is viewed not as an incidental property of the moment but, as a characteristic feature of a whole period (Comrie, 1976, p. 28).
viii. Proximity rule: For the correlatives either . . . or and neither . . . nor, traditional grammarians argue for a rule; that is, subject-verb agreement should occur with the subject noun nearest to the verb (Celce-Murcia \& Larsen-Freeman, D. 1983, p. 67).

## CHAPTER-TWO

## METHODOLOGY

The following methodology was adopted to carry out this research study.

### 2.1 Sources of Data

Both the primary and secondary sources of data were used to obtain information.

### 2.1.1 Primary sources of data

The primary sources of data were forty western Dhimal native speakers representing literate and illiterate from different areas of Damak Municipality, Jhapa (Nepal).

### 2.1.2 Secondary sources of data

The secondary sources of data were books, journals, newspapers and profiles. Some of the secondary sources were Regmi (2007), Hornby (2005), Yadava (2003), Toba et al (2002), Yadava and Glover (1999), Khatiwada, (1999), Kumar (1996), Celce-Murcia and Larsen Freeman (1983) and Diwas (2039 BS).

### 2.2 Population of the Study

All the western Dhimal native speakers were the population of the study.

### 2.3 Sampling Procedure

Damak Bazzar, Kharkhare, Aadiyamal, Krishnamandir and Chiyadokan in Damak Municipality of Jhapa district were selected for the study area using judgemental-sampling procedure. And forty Dhimal native speakers were selected for interview using purposive sampling procedure.

### 2.4 Tools for Data Collection

The researcher used the structured interview questions and participant observation to get the required information (see App. I).

### 2.5 Process of Data Collection

In order to carry out the research, the researcher went to the selected area and developed rapport with the Dhimal native people. He told them the purpose of his visit to them. Then, he took interview with the native speakers of Dhimal selected through purposive sampling procedure. During the interview the researcher asked them the questions in Nepali and wrote the answers of respondents in transliteration form. Finally, the researcher took the subject-verb agreement of English from secondary materials.

### 2.6 Limitations of the Study

This research study was limited in the following ways.
a. The area of the study was confined to 5 Dhimal villages of Damak Municipality, Jhapa.
b. The study was based on the 'Western Dialect' of the Dhimal language.
c. Only the subject-verb agreement was studied.
d. Only forty Dhimal informants were included in the study.
e. The researcher himself discussed on the grammatical aspects with the expert of the Dhimal language.

## CHAPTER-THREE

## ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION

This chapter deals with the analysis and interpretation of the data. Likewise, it includes similarities and differences between the English and Dhimal subjectverb agreement. The data, which were collected from 40 Dhimals, were analysed and interpreted descriptively using tables and illustrations. The English subject-verb agreement system has been described by many scholars and it has been developed both scientifically and systematically. But the Dhimal subject-verb agreement is yet to be described.

This chapter includes the detail analysis of the Dhimal subject-verb agreement system.

### 3.1 Dhimal Subject-verb Agreement in Terms of Person and Number

Subject-verb agreement system in terms of person and number in the Dhimal language (Western Dialect) has been stated below:

### 3.1.1 First Person Singular Subject and Verb Agreement

a. kā
$\varnothing$-kalam
I 1 ${ }^{\text {st }} \mathrm{sg} \quad$ a-pen buy-sim pres $1^{\text {st }} \mathrm{sg}$
I buy a pen.
b. $k \bar{a}$
um
cā-khā

I 1 ${ }^{\text {st }} \mathrm{sg} \quad$ rice eat-sim pres $1^{\text {st }} \mathrm{sg}$ I eat rice.
c. k
rhutā
tori-khā

I 1 ${ }^{\text {st }} \mathrm{sg} \quad$ high $\quad$ jump-sim pres $1^{\text {st }} \mathrm{sg}$
I jump high.
d. $k a \bar{a}$ itā
hi-ghā

$$
\text { I 1 }{ }^{\text {st }} \mathrm{sg} \quad \text { here } \quad \text { aux-pst (ind. ext) } 1^{\text {st }} \mathrm{sg}
$$

I am here.
$k \bar{a}$ is the first person singular subject in the Dhimal language. To agree with the first person singular subject in the Dhimal language, the suffix khā is added to the base form of verbs as in col-khā, cā-khā and ton'-khā. Similarly, the 'auxiliary' verb hi has been made existential with the past marker ghā suffixed to it as in hi-ghā.

### 3.1.2 First person dual subject and verb agreement

we $1^{\text {st }} \mathrm{dl}$ a pen buy-sim pres-1 ${ }^{\text {st }} \mathrm{dl}$
a. kidhinnhemi
$\varnothing$-kalam we (two) buy a pen.
b. kidhin̉nhemi
$ø$-kalam
a pen bought a pen we dl
we (two) col-khe-nin
kidhiminhemi is the first person dual subject. To agree with this subject in the Dhimal language, nin is suffixed to the tense marker as in col-khe-nin and colnhin.

### 3.1.3 First Person Plural Subject and Verb Agreement

a. kelāi
we $1^{\text {st }} \mathrm{pl}$

We buy a pen.
b. kelāi
rhutā
tori-nhā-khe
we $1^{\text {st }} \mathrm{pl}$
high
jump- $1^{\text {st }}$ pl-sim pres
We jump high.

> c. kelāi
> itā
> hi-nhā-hi
> we $1^{\text {st }} \mathrm{pl} \quad$ here aux $-1^{\text {st }} \mathrm{pl}$-pst (ind. ext)

We are here.
In these examples illustrated above, kelāi is the first person plural subject. To agree with this subject, nhā (the plural marker) which is followed by the tense marker, khe is suffixed to the root form of verbs as in col-nhā-khe and ton' nhā-khe. Similarly, the past marker hi has been preceded by the number marker nhā in the verb paradigms to indicate existential. hi in the Dhimal language seems to be having multi-functions.

### 3.1.4 Second Person Singular Subject and Verb Agreement

a. n̄̄
you $2^{\text {nd }}$ sg You buy a pen.
b. nā
you $2^{\text {nd }} \mathrm{sg}$
rice

You eat rice
c. nā
you $2^{\text {nd }} \mathrm{sg}$
here
hi-nhā
aux-pst (ind. ext) $2^{\text {nd }} \mathrm{sg}$
You are here.
nā is the second person singular subject in the Dhimal language. The subject marker nā has been suffixed to the tense marker khe as in col-khe-nā and cā-khe-nā. Similarly the past marker nhā for the second person singular, has been suffixed to the 'auxiliary' verb hi to indicate existential as in hi-nhā.

### 3.1.5 Second Person Dual Subject and Verb Agreement <br> a. nidhiṅnhemi $\quad$-kalam col-khe-nif

$$
\text { you } 2^{\text {nd }} \mathrm{dl} \quad \text { a-pen } \quad \text { buy-sim pres-2 }{ }^{\text {nd }} \mathrm{dl}
$$

You (two) buy a pen.
b. nidhiṅnhemi $\quad$-kalam col-nhin

You 2 ${ }^{\text {nd }} \mathrm{dl} \quad$ a-pen buy-sim pst-2 ${ }^{\text {nd }} \mathrm{dl}$
You (two) bought a pen.
nidhininhemi is the second person dual subject. nini is suffixed to the tense markers (khe and nhā) which are preceded by verbs as in col-khe-nini and colnhiri.

### 3.1.6 Second Person Plural Subject and Verb Agreement

a. nelāi
you $2^{\text {nd }} \mathrm{pl}$ a-pen

You buy a pen
b. nelāi
ø-kalam
col-su-nhā
you $2^{\text {nd }} \mathrm{pl} \quad$ a-pen buy-pl-sim pst $2^{\text {nd }}$
You bought a pen.
nelāi is the second person plural subject. su, the plural marker, has been suffixed to the base form of the verb and has been followed by the tense and person markers as in col-su-khe-nā and col-su-nhā (present and past respectively).

### 3.1.7 Third Person Singular Subject and Verb Agreement

a. wā
$\varnothing$-kalam col-khe-ø
$\mathrm{He} / \mathrm{s} 3^{\text {rd }}$ sg
a-pen buy-sim pres $3^{\text {rd }} \mathrm{sg}$
$\mathrm{He} / \mathrm{s}$ buys a pen.
b. wā
um
cā-khe-ø
$\mathrm{He} / \mathrm{s} 3^{\text {rd }} \mathrm{sg} \quad$ rice eat-sim pres $3^{\text {rd }}$ sg.
$\mathrm{He} / \mathrm{s}$ eats rice.
c.
c. $w \bar{a}$
$\mathrm{He} / \mathrm{s} 3^{\text {rd }} \mathrm{sg} \quad$ here
hi- $\varnothing-\varnothing$
aux-pst (ind. ext) $3^{\text {rd }} \mathrm{sg}$
$\mathrm{He} / \mathrm{s}$ is short.

In the examples illustrated above, wā (the third person male/female pronoun) in the Dhimal language corresponds with both he and she in the English language. These subjects remain unmarked for person and number in the Dhimal language as in col-khe- $\varnothing$, cā-khe- $\varnothing$ and hi- $\varnothing-\varnothing$.

### 3.1.8 Third Person Dual Subject and Verb Agreement

a. udhinhemi $\varnothing$-kalam col-khe- $\varnothing$

They $3^{\text {rd }}$ dl a-pen buy-sim pres-3 ${ }^{\text {rd }}$
They (two) buy a pen.
b. udhinhemi $\quad$-kalam col-hi- $\varnothing$

They $3^{\text {rd }} \mathrm{dl}$ a-pen buy-sim pst- $3^{\text {rd }} \mathrm{pl}$
They (two) bought a pen.
udhinhemi is the third person dual subject in the Dhimal language. This subject has been unmarked for both person and number as in col-khe-ø and col-hi-ø (present and past respectively).

### 3.1.9 Third Person Plural Subject and Verb Agreement

| a. | obālāi | $\emptyset$-kalam | col-khe-ø |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | they $3^{\text {rd }} \mathrm{pl}$ | a-kalam | buy-sim pres-3 $3^{\text {rd }} \mathrm{pl}$ |

They buy a pen.
b. obā 1 à
um
cā-khe-ø
they $3^{\text {rd }} \mathrm{pl} \quad$ rice eat-sim pres- $3^{\text {rd }} \mathrm{pl}$
They eat rice.
c. obālāi
itā
hi- $\varnothing-\varnothing$
they $3^{\text {rd }} \mathrm{pl}$
here
aux-pst (ind.ext) $3^{\text {rd }} \mathrm{pl}$
They are here.
obālāi is the third person plural subject in the Dhimal language. This has been unmarked for person and number as in col-khe-ø, cā-khe- $\boldsymbol{\varnothing}$ and hi- $\boldsymbol{\varnothing}-\boldsymbol{\varnothing}$. The past marker, hi has been incorporated with the 'auxiliary' hi to indicate existential in the Dhimal language.

Table No. 1
Person and Number System of the Dimal Langauge

|  | Number |  |  |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Person | Singular | Dual | Plural |
| First | kā | kidhininhemi | kelāi |
| Second | nā | nidhiǹnhemi | nelāi |
| Third | wā | udhinhemi | obālāi |

### 3.2 Dhimal Subject-Verb Agreement in Terms of Gender

$\begin{array}{ll}\text { a. } \quad \text { bejālāi } \\ \operatorname{girl}(\mathrm{F}) 3^{\text {rd }} \mathrm{pl} \\ & \text { Girls play chess. }\end{array}$
b.
wājālāi
remphā
nhā-khe
$\operatorname{Boy}(\mathrm{M}) 3^{\text {rd }} \mathrm{pl} \quad$ well dance-sim pres $3^{\text {rd }} \mathrm{pl}$

Boys dance well.
c. wā potoka hi- $\varnothing-\varnothing$

She(F) $3^{\text {rd }}$ sg short be-sim aux (ind. ext) $3^{\text {rd }} \mathrm{sg}$

She is short.
d.
d. wā
potokā
hi-ø-ø
$\mathrm{He}(\mathrm{M}) 3^{\text {rd }} \mathrm{sg}$ short
aux (ind. ext) $3^{\text {rd }}$ sg

He is short.
e. garimā kabita-gelāi lekhi-khe-ø

Garima $3^{\text {rd }} \mathrm{sg}$ poem-pl compose-sim pres-3 ${ }^{\text {rd }} \mathrm{sg}$
Garima composes poems.

The examples illustrated above indicate that gender has no role to play in the Dhimal subject verb agreement. Masculine and feminine have the identical verb inflection. This is to say that gender does not determine the verb forms. For an example, both bejālāi (girls) and wajālāi (boys) correspond with the same verb inflection, khe in the Dhimal language.

### 3.3 The Dhimal Subject-Verb Agreement with Correlatives and, Arithmetical Operation

| a. | $\emptyset$-rām | wā | rām-ko | sānāiti-gelāi kālej-tā-hi |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
|  | either-ram | or | ram-poss friend-pl | college-loc-aux (ind. ext) sg | Either Ram or Ram's friends are in college.

b. nheloń nheloń dyaloǹ je-nāń
two two four aux (st.)-fut (ind. pres)
In the example (a), the existential auxiliary verb hi has been singularly used to agree with the subject, 'Either Ram or Ram's friends'. This indicates the fact that the proximity rule is not applied to the subjects joined with correlatives. Similarly, in the example (b) jeni (state verb) has been inflected with ani (the future marker) indicating present singularly in the Dhimal language.

### 3.4 The Dhimal Subject-Verb Agreement in Terms of Tense and Aspect

### 3.4.1 Simple Aspect

Simple aspect refers "to events that are conceptualized as complete wholes, the events are not presented as allowing for further development" (Celce-Murcia and Larsen-Freeman, 1983, p. 112).

## I. Simple present

a. kā
$\varnothing$-kalam
col-khā

I 1 ${ }^{\text {st }} \mathrm{sg} \quad$ a-pen buy-sim pres $1^{\text {st }} \mathrm{sg}$
I buy a pen.
b. kidhiñnhemi
ø-kalam col-khe-nin
we $1^{\text {st }} \mathrm{dl}$
a-pen
buy-sim pres- $1^{\text {st }} \mathrm{dl}$
we (two) buy a pen.
c. kelāi
ø-kalam
col-nhā-khe
we $1^{\text {nd }} \mathrm{pl}$
a-pen
buy- $1^{\text {st }} \mathrm{pl}$ - sim pres
We buy a pen.
d. nā
you $2^{\text {nd }} \mathrm{sg}$
a-pen
buy-sim pres- $2^{\text {nd }} \mathrm{sg}$
You buy a pen.
e. nidhiñnhem
ø-kalam col-khe-nin
you $2^{\text {nd }} \mathrm{dl}$
a-pen
buy-sim pres- $2^{\text {nd }} \mathrm{dl}$

You (two) buy a pen.
f. nelāi
$\varnothing$-kalam
col-su-khe-nā

You $2^{\text {nd }} \mathrm{pl}$
a-pen
buy-pl-sim pres-2 ${ }^{\text {nd }}$
$\mathrm{He} / \mathrm{s}$ buys a pen.
g
g.
wā
he/s $3^{\text {rd }} \mathrm{sg}$
$\mathrm{He} / \mathrm{s}$ buys a pen
h.
udhinhem
$\varnothing$-kalam
they $3^{\text {rd }} \mathrm{dl}$
a-pen
buy-sim pres $3^{\text {rd }} \mathrm{dl}$
They (two) buy a pen.
i.

| obālāi | $\varnothing$-kalam | col-khe |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| they $3^{\text {rd }} \mathrm{pl}$ | a-pen | buy-sim pres $3^{\text {rd }} \mathrm{pl}$ |

They buy a pen.
In the above sentence (a), khā has been suffixed to the base form of the verb, col to agree with the first person singular subject in the simple aspect of present tense. Similarly khe followed by nin has been suffixed to the base form of the verb to agree with the first person dual subject. Likewise, the verb col has been suffixed with nhā (person and number marker) followed by khe to agree with the first person plural subject, kelāi. nini has been suffixed to the tense marker, khe to agree with first person dual subject as in col-khe-nin. Similarly, nā has been suffixed to the tense marker, khe to agree with the second person singular subject nā as in col-khe-nā. The root form of the verb, col has been inflected with khe-nini (tense marker and number marker respectively) to agree with the second person dual subject, nidhirinhemi. The worth remarkable is that the first and second person dual subjects have identical verb inflection as in col-khe-nini. Similarly, su as the suffix has inflected the verb col and other verb paradigms for the second person singular subject have remained the same to agree with the second plural subject nelāi as in col-su-khe-nā. The verb, col has been inflected identically with the suffix khe for the third person singular, dual and plural subjects as in col-khe.

Table No. 2
Subject-Verb Agreement in the Simple Aspect of Present Tense

| Person | Subjects | Verb inflection |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| First | kā (sg) <br> kidhirinhemi (dl) <br> kelāi | col-khā col-khe-nisi col-nhā-khe |
| Second | nā (sg) <br> nidhifinhemi (dl) <br> nelāi (pl) | col-khe-nā col-khe-niin col-su-khe-nā |
| Third | wā (sg) <br> udhinhemi (dl) <br> obālāi (pl) | col-khe col-khe col-khe |

II. Simple past
a. $\mathrm{k} \overline{\mathrm{a}}$

I $1^{\text {st }} \mathrm{sg}$
I bought a pen
b. kidhin'nhemi
we $1^{\text {st }} \mathrm{dl}$
$\varnothing$-kalam
a-pen
We (two) bought a pen.
c. kelāi
$\emptyset$-kalam
we $1^{\text {st }} \mathrm{p} /$
a-pen
We bought a pen.
d. nā
you $2^{\text {nd }} \mathrm{sg}$
a pen
ø-kalam
a-pen
col-nhā-hi
col-ghā
buy-sim pst $1^{\text {st }} \mathrm{sg}$
col-nhin
buy-sim pst $1^{\text {st }} \mathrm{dl}$
buy- $1^{\text {st }}$ pl-sim pst
col-nhā
buy-sim pst $2^{\text {nd }} \mathrm{sg}$
col-nhini.
buy-sim pst $2^{\text {nd }} \mathrm{dl}$

You (two) bought a pen.
f. nelā
you $2^{\text {nd }} \mathrm{pl} \quad$ a-pen buy-pl-sim pst $2^{\text {nd }}$
You bought a pen.
g. wā
he/s $3^{\text {rd }}$ sg a-pen
h. udhinhemi
$\varnothing$-kalam
col-hi
they $3^{\text {rd }} \mathrm{dl}$
a-pen
They (two) bought a pen.
i. obālai
ø-kalam
col-hi
They $3^{\text {rd }} \mathrm{p}$
a-pen
buy-sim pst $3^{\text {rd }} \mathrm{pl}$
They bought a pen.
The suffix ghā has been added to the base form of the verb, col to agree with the first person singular subject in the simple past tense of the Dhimal language. Similarly, nhiri has been suffixed to the root form of the verb, col to agree with the first and second person dual subjects as in col-nhini. The suffix nhā followed by hi has been added to the root form of the verb to agree with the first person plural subject, kelāi as in col-nhā-hi. The second person singular and plural subjects have agreed with the suffixes nhā and su-nhā respectively as in col-nhā and col-su-nhā where su has stood as the plural marker for the second person subject in the Dhimal language. The third person singular, dual and plural subjects have been suffixed with hi. This is to say that the singular dual and plural subjects of the third person have the identical suffix, hi to agree in the simple past tense of the Dhimal language.

Table No. 3
Subject-Verb Agreement in the Simple Aspect of Past Tense

| Person | Subjects | Verb inflection |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| First | kā (sg) <br> kidhizinhemi (dl) <br> kelāi | col-ghā col-nhisi col-nhā-hi |
| Second | nā (sg) <br> nidhi ${ }_{\text {(nhemi }}$ (dI) <br> nelāi ( $\mathbf{p l}$ ) | col-nhā <br> col-nhiil <br> col-su-nhā |
| Third | wā (sg) <br> udhinhemi (dl) <br> obālāi (pl) | col-hi <br> col-hi <br> col-hi |

## III. Simple future

a. $k \bar{a}$

I $1^{\text {st }} \mathrm{sg}$

I shall buy a pen.
b. kidhiñhemi
$\emptyset$-kalam
a-pen
we $1^{\text {st }} \mathrm{dl}$
We (two) shall buy a pen.
c. kelāi
we $1^{\text {st }} \mathrm{pl}$
a-pen
We shall buy a pen.
d. nā
you $2^{\text {nd }} \mathrm{sg}$
a-pen
You will buy a pen.
e. nidhiñnhemi
$\varnothing$-kalam
col-ā-nin

$$
\text { you } 2^{\text {nd }} \mathrm{dl} \quad \text { a-pen } \quad \text { buy-fut } \operatorname{sim}-2^{\text {nd }} \mathrm{dl}
$$

You (two) will buy a pen.
f.

| nelāi | $\varnothing$-kalam | col-su-ā-nā |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| you $2^{\text {nd }} \mathrm{pl}$ | a-pen | buy-pl-fut sim-2 $2^{\text {nd }}$ |

You will buy.
g. wā col- āí/col-ā-wā
$\mathrm{He} / \mathrm{s} 3^{\text {rd }} \mathrm{sg} \quad$ a-pen buy-fut $\operatorname{sim} 3^{\text {rd }}$ sg/buy-fut $\operatorname{sim}-3^{\text {rd }} \mathrm{sg}$
$\mathrm{He} / \mathrm{s}$ will buy a pen.
h
udhinhemi
ø-kalam
col-ān!/col-ā-wā
they $3^{\text {rd }} \mathrm{dl} \quad$ a-pen
buy-fut $\operatorname{sim} 3^{\text {rd }} \mathrm{dl} /$ buy-fut $\operatorname{sim}-3^{\text {rd }} \mathrm{dl}$
They (two) will buy a pen.
i. obālāi $\quad$-kalam
col-ānı/col-ā-wā
They $3^{\text {rd }} \mathrm{pl} \quad$ a-pen buy-fut $\operatorname{sim} 3^{\text {rd }} \mathrm{pl} /$ buy-fut $\operatorname{sim}-3^{\text {rd }} \mathrm{pl}$
They will buy a pen.
In the Dhimal language, $\overline{\text { ann }} \mathrm{i}$ is suffixed to verbs to indicate the future tense. The first person singular subject agrees with verbs inflected with the suffixes āıi-kā as in col-āni-kā. Similarly, verbs are suffixed with $\overline{\mathbf{a}}$ and nin to agree with the first person dual subject. The same verb inflection is applied to agree with the second person dual subject as well, as in col-ā-nini. The first person plural subject and all the third person subjects (singular, dual and plural) agree with the same verb inflection as in col-ānı. At the same time, verbs are alternatively suffixed with ā-wā to agree with all the third person subjects in the simple aspect of future tense. The thing to remark is that $\overline{\mathbf{a}}$-wā is not applied to agree with the first person plural subject as in col-ān. Verbs are suffixed with ā-nā and su-ā-nā to agree with the second person singular and plural subjects
respectively in the simple aspect of future tense as in col-ā- nā and col-su-ānā.

Table No. 4
Subject-Verb Agreement in the Simple Aspect of Future Tense

| Person | Subjects | Verb inflection |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| First | kā (sg) <br> kidhifinhemi (dl) <br> kelāi ( $\mathbf{p l}$ ) | $\begin{aligned} & \text { col-ān-kā } \\ & \text { col-ā-niıí } \\ & \text { col-āni } \end{aligned}$ |
| Second | nā (sg) <br> nidhiżınheni (dl) <br> nelāi ( $\mathbf{p l}$ ) | $\begin{aligned} & \text { col-ā-nā } \\ & \text { col-ā-nìn } \\ & \text { col-su-ā-nā } \end{aligned}$ |
| Third | wā (sg) <br> udhinhemi (dl) <br> obālāi (pl) | col-āıı/col-ā-wā col-āıı/col-ā-wā col-āıi/col-ā-wā |

### 3.4.2 Perfect Aspect

The core meaning of the "perfect is prior, and it is used in relation to some other point in time" (Celce-Murcia and Larsen-Freeman, 1983, p. 115).
I. Present prefect
a. k̄̄a $\quad$-kalam col-kā-hi-ghā

I 1 ${ }^{\text {st }} \mathrm{sg} \quad$ a-pen $\quad$ buy-perf-aux-pst (ind. pres) $1^{\text {st }} \mathrm{sg}$
I have bought a pen.
b. kidhiñnhemi $\quad$-kalam col-kā-hi-nhiñ
we $1^{\text {st }} \mathrm{dl} \quad$ a-pen buy-perf-aux-pst (ind-pres) $1^{\text {st }} \mathrm{dl}$
We (two) have bought a pen.
c. kelāi $\quad$-kalam col-kā-hi-nhā-hi
we $1^{\text {st }} \mathrm{pl}$ a-kalam buy-perf-aux-1 ${ }^{\text {st }} \mathrm{pl}$-pst (ind. pres)

We have bought a pen.
d. nā
ø-kalam col-kā-hi-nhā
you $2^{\text {nd }} \mathrm{sg} \quad$ a-kalam $\quad$ buy-perf-be-pst (ind. pres) $2^{\text {nd }} \mathrm{sg}$
You have bought a pen.
e. nidhiṅnhemi $\quad$-kalam col-kā-hi-nhin
you $2^{\text {nd }} \mathrm{dl}$ a-pen buy-perf-aux-pst (ind. pres) $2^{\text {nd }} \mathrm{dl}$
You (two) have bought a pen.
f. nelāi
$\varnothing$-kalam
col-kā-hi-su-nhā
you $2^{\text {nd }} \mathrm{pl} \quad$ a-pen buy-perf-aux-pl-pst (ind. pres) $2^{\text {nd }}$
You have bought a pen.
g. $\quad \mathrm{w}$
ø-kalam
col-kā-hi
he/s $3^{\text {rd }}$ sg a-pen buy-perf-aux pst (ind. pres) $3^{\text {rd }} \mathrm{sg}$
$\mathrm{He} / \mathrm{s}$ has bought a pen.
h.
udhinhemi
$\varnothing$-kalam
col-kā-hi
they $3^{\text {rd }} \mathrm{dl}$
a-pen buy-perf-aux pst (ind. pres) $3^{\text {rd }} \mathrm{dl}$

They (two) have bought a pen.
i.
obālāi $\quad$-kalam col-kā-hi
they $3^{\text {rd }} \mathrm{pl} \quad$ a-pen buy-perf-aux pst (ind. pres) $3^{\text {rd }} \mathrm{pl}$
They have bought a pen.
kā has stood for the perfect marker and it has been followed by hi (auxiliary) which has been suffixed with ghā indicating the tense, person and number agreement to agree with the first person singular subject in the present perfect tense of the Dhimal language as in col-kā-hi-ghā. Similarly, the first person dual subject has agreed the verb inflected with the three suffixes, kā-hi-nhiıi
where $\mathbf{k} \overline{\mathbf{a}}$ has functioned as the perfect marker, hi as the 'auxiliary' verb and the tense, person and number agreement have been carried by nhiri. Similar is the verb formation to agree with the second person dual subject in the perfective aspect of the present tense as in col-kā-hi-nhin. The first person plural subject has agreed the verb inflected with the suffixes kā-hi-nhā-hi (prefect marker, auxiliary, number and person marker, tense marker respectively) as in col-kā-hi-nhā-hi. nhā in kā-hi-nhā (the second person singular subject agreement) has been preceded by su to agree with the second person plural subject as in col-kā-hi-su-nhā. Thus, su represents the plural marker for the second person subject in the Dhimal language. The verb, col has been identically inflected with the suffixes, $\mathbf{k a}$ (the perfect marker) and hi (representation of the tense, person and number) for all the third person subjects (singular, plural and dual). In this way, the main verb col has been suffixed with kā and the auxiliary verb hi has been inflected with the simple past tense agreement system (see table no. 7) as the suffixes to agree with the subjects in the present perfect tense of the Dhimal language.

Table No. 5
Subject-Verb Agreement in the Prefect Aspect of Present Tense

| Person | Subjects | Verb inflection |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| First | kā (sg) <br> kidhizinhemi (dl) <br> kelāi ( $\mathbf{p l}$ ) | col-kā-hi-gha col-kā-hi-nhín col-kā-hi-nhā-hi |
| Second | nā (sg) <br>  <br> nelāi ( $\mathbf{p l}$ ) | col-kā-hi-nhā col-kā-hi-nhini col-kā-hi-su-nhā |
| Third | wā (sg) <br> udhinhemi (dl) <br> obālāi (pl) | col-kā-hi <br> col-kā-hi <br> col-kā-hi |

## II. Past prefect

a. $k \bar{a}$

I 1 ${ }^{\text {st }} \mathrm{sg}$
$\varnothing$-kalam
a-pen
I had bought a pen.
b. kidhiñnhemi
we $1^{\text {st }} \mathrm{dl} \quad$ a-pen
We (two) had bought a pen.
c. kelāi
$\varnothing$-kalam
We $1^{\text {st }}(\mathrm{pl}) \quad$ a-kalam
We had bought a pen.
d. $n \bar{a}$
you $2^{\text {nd }} \mathrm{sg}$
ø-kalam
a- pen
You had bought a pen.
$\begin{array}{llc}\text { e. } & \text { nidhiṅnhemi } & \varnothing \text {-kalam } \\ \text { you } 2^{\text {nd }} \mathrm{dl} & \text { a-pen } \\ & \text { You (two) had bought a pen. }\end{array}$
f. nelāi
ø-kalam
col-kā-hi-su-ghā-nhā
you $2^{\text {nd }} \mathrm{p}$
a-pen
You had bought a pen.
g. $w \bar{a}$
he/s $3^{\text {rd }} \mathrm{s}$
a-pen
$\mathrm{He} / \mathrm{s}$ had bought a pen.
h. udhinhemi
$\varnothing$-kalam
col-kā-hi-ghā-hi
they $3^{\text {rd }} \mathrm{dl}$ a-kalam buy-noml-aux-ph-pst $3^{\text {rd }} \mathrm{dl}$
They (two) had bought a pen.
i. obālāi

They $3^{\text {rd }} \mathrm{pl}$ a-pen buy-noml-aux-ph-pst $3^{\text {rd }} \mathrm{pl}$
They had bought a pen.
In the examples illustrated above, the main verb col has been nominalised with the suffix kā and the 'auxiliary' verb hi has been inflected with ghā (past habit marker) which has been followed by the markers for the tense, person and number agreement except the verb agreement with the second person plural subject in the past perfect tense of the Dhimal language. In this connection of using the nominal verb, Khatiwada (1999, p. 54) is worth mentioning. He has remarked that kā can be used as the nominalizer of the verb as well as the aspectivizer. In regard to the use of ghā just after the 'auxiliary' verb hi, Cooper (1997, p. 38) has remarked it as a speciality of the western Dhimal. In this issue, Khatiwada (1999) seems to be plausible in remarking the use of ghā as the past habit. In the verb agreement with the second person plural subject, the plural marker, su has been located between the 'auxiliary' verb hi and past habit gha as in col-kā-hi-su-ghā-nhā. That is to say hi (auxiliary verb) has been inflected with ghā (past habit) for the agreement with all the other subjects in the perfective aspect of past tense whereas the auxiliary verb, hi has been inflected with the number marker su to agree with the second person plural subject in the past perfect tense of the Dhimal language. Likewise, all the third person subjects (singular, dual and plural) have the identical verb combination as in col-kā-hi-ghā-hi.

Table No. 6
Subject-Verb Agreement in the Perfect Aspect of Past Tense

| Person | Subjects | Verb inflection |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| First | kā (sg) <br> kidhirinhemi (dl) <br> kelāi ( $\mathbf{p l}$ ) | col-kā-hi-ghā-ghā col-kā-hi-ghā-nhiir col-kā-hi-ghā-nhā-hi |
| Second | nā (sg) <br> nidhif ${ }_{\text {Inh }}$ (dl) <br> nelāi (pl) | col-kā-hi-ghā-nhā col-kā-hi-ghā-nhiıí col-kā-hi-su-ghā-nhā |
| Third | wā (sg) <br> udhinhemi (dl) <br> obālāi (pl) | col-kā-hi-ghā-hi col-kā-hi-ghā-hi col-kā-hi-ghā-hi |

## III. Future perfect

a. $k \bar{a}$

I ${ }^{\text {st }} \mathrm{sg}$
a-kalam

I shall have bought a pen.
b. kidhiñnhemi
we $1^{\text {st }} \mathrm{dl}$
a-pen
We (two) shall have bought a pen.
c. kelāi
ø-kalam
a-pen
We shall have bought a pen.
d. $n \bar{a}$
$ø$-kalam
a-pen
you $2^{\text {nd }} \mathrm{sg}$
You will have bought a pen.
e. nidhiñnhemi
$ø$-kalam
col-kā-hyā-niń

$$
\text { you } 2^{\text {nd }} \mathrm{dl} \quad \text { a-pen } \quad \text { buy-perf-aux fut- } 2^{\text {nd }} \mathrm{dl}
$$

You (two) will have bought a pen.
f. nelāi $\quad$-kalam col-kā-hi-su-ā-nā
you $2^{\text {nd }} \mathrm{pl}$ a-pen buy-perf-aux-pl-fut-2 $2^{\text {nd }}$
You will have bought a pen.
g. wā $\quad$-kalam col-kā-hyāíi/col-kā-hyā-wā
he/s $3^{\text {rd }}$ sg a-pen buy-perf-aux fut $3^{\text {rd }} \mathrm{sg} /$ buy-perf-aux fut- $3^{\text {rd }} \mathrm{sg}$ $\mathrm{He} / \mathrm{s}$ will have bought a pen.
h. udhinhemi $\emptyset$-kalam col-kā-hyān/col-kā-hyā-wā
they $3^{\text {rd }} \mathrm{dl}$ a-pen buy-perf-aux fut $3^{\text {rd }} \mathrm{dl} /$ buy-perf-aux fut- $3^{\text {rd }} \mathrm{dl}$
They (two) will have bought a pen.
i. obālāi $\emptyset$-kalam col-kā-hyāñ/col-kā-hyā-wā
they $3^{\text {rd }} \mathrm{pl}$ a-pen buy-perf-aux fut $3^{\text {rd }} \mathrm{pl} /$ buy- perf-aux fut- $3^{\text {rd }} \mathrm{pl}$
They will have bought a pen.
In the perfective aspect of the future tense of the Dhimal language, the 'auxiliary' verb hi has been inflected with āıì (the future marker) being merged into a single morpheme, hyaıı which has been preceded by kā (perfect marker) and followed by kā (person and number marker) to agree with the first person singular subject as in col-kā-hyārí-kā. The first person plural subject, kelāi has been unmarked for the number and person is col-kā-hyā̀ı. The second person plural subject has uniquely agreed with the verb suffix kā and the 'auxiliary' verb hi inflected with the number marker su whereas the 'auxiliary' verb has been inflected with the tense marker anil or ā-wā for all the other subjects. All the third person subjects have the identical verb inflection as in col-kā-hyāin. This verb inflection has been altered with kā-hyā-wā as in col-kā-hyā-wā to agree with all the third person subjects in the perfective aspect of the future
tense in the Dhimal language. kā following the main verb col has perfectivised the future tense like the present tense has been perfectivised.

Table No. 7
Subject-Verb Agreement in the Perfect Aspect of Future Tense

| Person | Subjects | Verb inflection |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| First | kā (sg) <br> kidhifinhemi (dI) <br> kelāi (pl) | col-kā-hyārí-ka col-kā-hyā-niní col-kā-hyāıi |
| Second | nā (sg) <br> nidhítinhemi (dl) <br> nelāi ( $\mathbf{p l}$ ) | col-kā-hyā-nā col-kā-hyā-niıi col-kā-hi-su-ā-nā |
| Third | wā (sg) <br> udhinhemi (dl) <br> obālāi (pl) | col-kā-hyāı/col-kā-hyā-wa col-kā-hyāı̀/col-kā-hyā-wā col-kā-hyāìi/col-ka-hyā-wā |

### 3.4.3 Progressive Aspect

The core meaning of "progressive aspect as being imperfective, meaning that it portrays an event in a way that allows for it to be incomplete, or somehow limited" (Celce-Murcia and Larsen-Freeman, 1983, p. 116).
I. Present progressive
a. kā
$\varnothing$-kalam
col-doni-khā

I $1^{\text {st }} \mathrm{sg}$
a-pen
buy-prog-pres ${ }^{\text {st }} \mathrm{sg}$
I am buying a pen.
b. kidhin̉nhemi
ø-kalam
col-donl-khe-niñ
we $1^{\text {st }} \mathrm{dl}$
a-pen
buy-prog-pres- $1^{\text {st }} \mathrm{dl}$
We (two) are buying a pen.
c. kelā
$\varnothing$-kalam
col-doñ-nhā-khe
we $1^{\text {st }} \mathrm{pl}$
a-pen
buy-prog-1 ${ }^{\text {st }}$ pl-pres
we are buying a pen.
d. nā

| $\varnothing$-kalam | col-doni-khe-nā |
| :--- | :--- |
| a-pen | buy-prog-pres-2 ${ }^{\text {nd }} \mathrm{sg}$ |

You are buying a pen.
e. nidhiñnhemi $\varnothing$-kalam col-doni-khe-nin
you $2^{\text {nd }} \mathrm{dl} \quad$ a-pen buy-prog-pres- 2 nd dl
You (two) are buying a pen.
f. nelāi
$\varnothing$-kalam
col-don'-su-khe-nā
you $2^{\text {nd }} \mathrm{pl}$
a-pen
buy-prog-pl-pres- $2^{\text {nd }}$
you are buying a pen.
g. w
he/s $3^{\text {rd }}$ sg a-pen col-don'-khe buy-prog-pres $3^{\text {rd }}$ sg
$\mathrm{He} / \mathrm{s}$ is buying a pen.
h
h. udhinhem
ø-kalam
col-dori-khe
they $3^{\text {rd }} \mathrm{dl}$
a-pen
buy-prog-pres $3^{\text {rd }} \mathrm{dl}$
They (two) are buying a pen.
i. obālāi
$\varnothing$-kalam
col-doni-khe
they $3^{\text {rd }} \mathrm{pl}$
a-pen
buy-prog-pres $3^{\text {rd }} \mathrm{pl}$
They are buying a pen.
In the progressive aspect of the present tense of the Dhimal language, the main verb col has been inflected with the suffix doni as the progressive marker followed by the markers for the tense, number and person except the verb agreement with the second person plural subject in which the progressive marker dori has been followed by the number marker su. Most remarkably, the
'auxiliary' verb hi has been found to be null to agree with all the subjects of all the persons and numbers in the present progressive aspect of the Dhimal language. Similarly, all the third person subjects have the identical verb agreement. Like the verb agreement with the second person plural subject, the progressive marker doil has been followed by the number and person marker nhā to agree with the first person plural subject as in col-doil-nhā-khe.

Table No. 8
Subject-Verb Agreement in the Progressive Aspect of Present Tense

| Person | Subjects | Verb inflection |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| First | kā (sg) <br> kidhi /inhemi (dl) <br> kelāi (pl) | col-doni-khā col- dori-khe-niri col- dori-nhā-khe |
| Second | nā (sg) <br>  <br> nelāi ( $\mathbf{p l}$ ) | col- doil-khe-nā col- don'-khe-nin col- dori-su-khe-nā |
| Third | wā (sg) <br> udhinhemi (dl) <br> obālāi (pl) | col-dori-khe col-don'-khe col-doni-khe |

## II. Past progressive

a. $\mathrm{k} \overline{\mathrm{a}}$

I $1^{\text {st }} \mathrm{sg}$
a-pen
col-doń-ghā
buy-prog-ph pst ${ }^{\text {st }} \mathrm{sg}$
I was buying a pen.
b.
kidhiṅnhem
$\varnothing$-kalam
a-pen

We (two) were buying a pen.
c. kelāi
$\emptyset$-kalam
we $1^{\text {st }} \mathrm{pl}$
a-pen
col-don'-ghā-nhā-hi
buy-prog-ph-1 ${ }^{\text {st }}$ pl-pst

We were buying a pen.
d. nā
you $2^{\text {nd }} \mathrm{sg}$
$ø$-kalam
col-don'-ghā-nhā
buy-prog-ph-pst $2^{\text {nd }}$ sg
You were buying a pen.
e. nidhininhemi $\quad$-kalam col-doṅ-ghā-nhiñ
you $2^{\text {nd }} \mathrm{dl} \quad$ a-kalam buy-prog-ph-pst $2^{\text {nd }} \mathrm{dl}$
You (two) were buying a pen.
f. nelāi
ø-kalam
you $2^{\text {nd }} \mathrm{pl} \quad$ a-kalam

You were buying a pen.
g.
g. w
he/s $3^{\text {rd }}$ sg
$\mathrm{He} / \mathrm{s}$ was buying a pen.
h. udhinhem
they $3^{\text {rd }} \mathrm{dl}$
a-kalam
They (two) were buying a pen.
i. obālāi
$ø$-kalam
They $3^{\text {rd }} \mathrm{pl} \quad \emptyset$-kalam
They were buying a pen.
The subject verb agreement in the progressive and simple aspect of the past tense is identical except the use of the progressive marker don and past habit ghā. For example col-hi and col-dori-ghā-hi are the verb forms to agree with the third person singular subject in the simple past tense and the past progressive respectively. The difference between the verb form is the main
verb, col has been inflected with the progressive marker suffix don followed by ghā (past habit marker) in the past progressive whereas the verb has been suffixed with hi (the past marker) in the simple aspect of the past tense. All the third person subjects have agreed with the same verb inflection as in col-dori-ghā-hi. Similarly, the first person and the second person dual subjects have agreed the verb inflection identically as in col-doni-ghā-nhini. ghā (past habit marker) seems to be incorporated with the past marker ghā to agree with the first person singular subject. In connection to using ghā in the past progressive aspect of the Dhimal language, and Cooper's (1997, p. 38) observation on ghā as "a speciality of western Dhimal" is worth-mentioning. However, Khatiwada (1999) should be mentioned to remark it as the past habit.

Table No. 9
Subject-Verb Agreement in the Progressive Aspect of Past Tense

| Person | Subjects | Verb inflection |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| First | kā (sg) <br>  <br> kelāi ( $\mathbf{p l}$ ) | col-dori-ghā col-don'-ghā-nhinı col-dori-ghā-nhā-hi |
| Second | nā (sg) <br> nidhit ${ }^{\prime}$ nhemi (dl) <br> nelāi (pl) | col-dori-ghā-nhā col-do í-ghā-nhińı col-dori-su-ghā-nhā |
| Third | wā (sg) <br> udhinhemi (dl) <br> obālāi (pl) | col-dori-ghā-hi col-dori-ghā-hi col-dori-ghā-hi |

III. Future progressive
a. kā

I $1^{\text {st }} \mathrm{sg}$
a-pen
col-teǹ-hyāài-kā
huy-prog-aux fut- $1^{\text {st }}$ sg

I shall be buying a pen.
b. kidhiṅnhemi $\quad$-kalam col-teṅ-hyā-nin̉
we $1^{\text {st }} \mathrm{dl}$ a-pen buy-prog-aux fut-1 ${ }^{\text {st }} \mathrm{dl}$
We (two) shall be buying a pen.
c. kelāi $\quad$-kalam col-tenthyan
we 1 ${ }^{\text {st }} \mathrm{pl}$ a-pen buy-prog-aux fut $1^{\text {st }} \mathrm{pl}$
We shall be buying a pen.
d. $n a \bar{a}$
ø-kalam
col-teṅ-hyā-nā
you $2^{\text {nd }} \mathrm{sg}$
a-pen
buy-prog-aux fut- $2^{\text {nd }} \mathrm{sg}$
You will be buying a pen.
e. nidhianhemi
$\varnothing$-kalam
col-teń-hyā-niń
you $2^{\text {nd }} \mathrm{dl}$
a-pen
buy-prog-aux fut- $2^{\text {nd }} \mathrm{dl}$
You (two) will be buying a pen.
f. nelāi $\quad$-kalam col-teni-hi-su-ā-nā
you $2^{\text {nd }} \mathrm{pl}$ a-pen buy-prog-aux-pl-fut-2 ${ }^{\text {nd }}$
You will be buying a pen.
g. $w \bar{a} \quad \emptyset$-kalam col-ten'-hyāī/col-teni-hyā-wā
he/s $3^{\text {rd }} \mathrm{sg} \quad$ a-pen buy-prog-aux fut $3^{\text {rd }} \mathrm{sg} /$ buy-prog-aux fut $3^{\text {rd }} \mathrm{sg}$
$\mathrm{He} / \mathrm{s}$ will be buying a pen.
h. udhinhemi ø-kalam col-teñ-hyāni/col-ten่-hyā-wā
they $3^{\text {rd }} \mathrm{dl}$ a-pen buy-prog-aux fut- $3^{\text {rd }} \mathrm{dl} /$ buy-prog-aux fut $3^{\text {rd }} \mathrm{dl}$ They (two) will be buying a pen.
i. obālāi $\varnothing$-kalam col-teñ-hyāī/col-teñ-hyā-wā
they $3^{\text {rd }} \mathrm{pl}$ a-pen buy-prog-aux fut $3^{\text {rd }}$ - $\mathrm{pl} /$ buy-prog-aux fut- $3^{\text {rd }} \mathrm{pl}$
They will be buying a pen.

In the examples illustrated above, ten has been used as the suffix to the main verb col to mark the progressive aspect of future tense in the Dhimal language. The main difference between the present progressive and the future progressive lies in the use of progressive marker and 'auxiliary' verb hi. don without hi (auxiliary verb) has been used to mark the present progressive as in col-donkha (first person singular) whereas teni (future progressive marker) with hi (auxiliary) has been used in the future progressive as in col-ten'-hyān'-kā to agree with the first person singular subject. Similarly, the first and second person dual subjects have the identical verb inflection as in col-teri-hyā-niri. Likewise, all the third person subjects have the identical verb formation like in other illustrated tenses. The verb agreement with the third person subjects in the future progressive is corresponding with the verb-agreement for the first person plural subject as in col-teri-hyāri. However, the third person subjects have another alternative verb agreement (not quite matching with the first person plural subject) as in col-ten'hyā-wā. The 'auxiliary' verb hi has been inflected with su (plural marker) followed by the tense and person markers to agree with the second person plural subject in the progressive aspect of future tense as in col-teri-hi-su-ā-nā in the Dhimal language.

Table No. 10
Subject-Verb Agreement in the Progressive Aspect of Future Tense

| Person | Subjects | Verb inflection |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| First | kā (sg) <br> kidhi ínhemi (dl) <br> kelāi (pl) | col-teni-hyāıı-kā col-teri-hyä-niıi col-teń-hyāıı |
| Second | nā (sg) <br> nidhizinhemi (dl) <br> nelāi (pl) | col-teri-hyā-nā col-teri-hyā-nisi col-teri-hi-su-ā-nā |
| Third | wā (sg) <br> udhinhemi (dl) <br> obālāi (pl) | col-ten'-hyāı/col-ten'-hyā-wā col-teri-hyāıı/col-teni-hyā-wā col-terí-hyāài/col-teni-hyā-wā |

### 3.4.4 Perfect Progressive Aspect

This aspect combines "the sense of 'prior' of the perfect with the meaning of 'incompleteness' inherent in the progressive aspect." (Celce-Murcia and Larsen-Freeman, 1983, p. 118)

When the population were interviewed for the perfect progressive aspect, most of the responses corresponding with the progressive aspect of the respective tenses (present, past and future) were received (see table 8, 9 and $10 \&$ App. II). That is to say that the perfect progressive aspect has not been found to be used in the Dhimal language. Cooper (1997) has mentioned nothing regarding the perfect progressive aspect of the Dhimal language in her volume as well.

### 3.5 Dhimal Verb-Agreement in Terms of Object

a. kā
ø-kalam
a-pen (sg obj)
col-ghā
buy-sim pst ${ }^{\text {st }} \mathrm{sg}$

I bought a pen.
b. kā nhelon kalam col-ghā
I 1 ${ }^{\text {st }} \mathrm{sg}$ dl pen (obj) buy-sim pst-1 ${ }^{\text {st }} \mathrm{sg}$

I bought a pen.
c. kā
kalam-gelāi
col-ghā
I $1^{\text {st }} \mathrm{sg}$ pen-pl
buy-sim pst- $1^{\text {st }}$ sg

I bought pens.
In the above examples, the main verb col has remained with the same inflectional suffix, ghā to agree for all the singular, dual and plural object, kalam. That is to say that the number of the object has no role in the verbagreement of the Dhimal Language.

### 3.6 Similarities Between the Dhimal and English Subject-Verb Agreement

The subject-verb agreement rules that are common in the systems of both the languages are as follows:
I. Gender difference has no role in the subject-verb agreement system of both the Dhimal and English languages.
a. bejāl̄̄̄i
remphā
$\operatorname{girl}(\mathrm{F}) 3^{\text {rd }} \mathrm{pl} \quad$ well
dance-pres $3^{\text {rd }} \mathrm{pl}$
Girls dance well.
b. wājālāi
remphā
nhā-khe
boy (m) $3^{\text {rd }} \mathrm{pl} \quad$ well
dance-sim pres $3^{\text {rd }} \mathrm{pl}$
Boys dance well.
c. garimā
garima (F) $3^{\text {rd }} \mathrm{sg}$
kabitā-gelāi poem-pl

Garima composes poems.
d. rām
kabitā-gelāi
lekhi-khe
$\operatorname{Ram}(\mathrm{M}) 3^{\text {rd }} \mathrm{sg} \quad$ poem-pl compose-sim pres $3^{\text {rd }} \mathrm{sg}$
Ram composes poems.
e. wā
$3^{\text {rd }} \operatorname{sg}(\mathrm{M})$
short
hi
$3^{\text {rd }}$ aux (ext) $3^{\text {rd }} \mathrm{sg}$

He is short.
f. wā
potokā hi
$3^{\text {rd }} \operatorname{sg}(\mathrm{F})$
short

She is short.

In the examples illustrated above, the grammatical category 'gender' has caused no difference in the verb formation. For example wājālāi (male) and bejālāi (female) have agreed with the same verb form nhā-khe in the Dhimal language. Similarly, boys and girls require the identical verb form 'dance' in the English language. Thus, change in the Dhimal and English gender (Musculine and Feminine) as subject, causes no change in the verb formation.
II. Both the Dhimal and English verbs agree with tense.
a. $k a \bar{a}$

I $1^{\text {st }} \mathrm{sg}$
a-pen

I buy a pen.
b. kā

I $1^{\text {st }} \mathrm{sg}$
a-pen
I bought a pen.
c. $k \bar{a}$
$\varnothing$-kalam
col-ān'-kā

I $1^{\text {st }} \mathrm{sg}$
a-pen

I shall buy a pen.
In the examples above, both the English and Dhimal verbs agree with tense. The pronoun used as the subject in the examples is the first person singular (kā in the Dhimal and $I$ in the English). The Dhimal subject has agreed with colkhā, col-ghā and col-āri-ka in the simple aspect of the present, past and future tense respectively. Likewise, in the English language $I$ (the first person singular subject) has agreed with buy, bought and shall buy in the present, past and future tenses respectively. This depicts the fact that both the English and Dhimal verbs are marked for the change of tense.
III. Both the Dhimal and English verbs agree with aspect.
a. k̄̄a col-khā

|  | I $1^{\text {st }}$ sg a-kalam b |  | buy-sim pres $1^{\text {st }} \mathrm{sg}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| b. | kā | $\emptyset$-kalam | col-kā-hi-ghā |
|  | I 1 ${ }^{\text {st }} \mathrm{sg}$ | a-kalam | buy-perf-aux-pst (ind. pres) $1^{\text {st }} \mathrm{sg}$ |
| c. | I have bought a pen. |  |  |
|  | kā | ø-kalam | col-doni-khā |
|  | I $1^{\text {st }} \mathrm{sg}$ | a-pen | buy-prog-sim pres $1^{\text {st }} \mathrm{sg}$ |

I am buying pen.
col-khā, col-kā-hi-ghā and col-dori-khā are the Dhimal verbs inflected for the first person singular subject in the simple, perfect and progressive aspects of present tense respectively. Similarly, buy, bought and buying are the verb forms corresponding with simple, perfect and progressive aspects of the present tense respectively for the first person singular subject in the English language.
IV. Arithmetical operation takes singular verb in both the English and Dhimal languages.

| a. nhelon | nhelon | dyālon je-nāñ |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| two | two | four | aux (st)-fut (ind. pres) sg |

Two plus two is four.
In this example, jen (the state verb) corresponds with be and ānil with the future tense indicating present singularly in the English language.
V. Both animate and inanimate subjects cause no difference in the verb inflection in both the Dhimal and English languages.
$\begin{array}{lll}\text { a. } & \emptyset \text {-miñkāu } & \text { dhā-doǹ-khe } \\ \text { cat (an)-sg } & \text { run-prog-pres sg }\end{array}$
A cat is running.
b. $\varnothing$-jyān $1 \quad$ dhā-doni-khe
man (inan)sg

A man is running.
In the examples above, both mirỉkāu (animate) and jyā $\bar{n}$ (inanimate) have agreed with the same verb form dhā-doni-khe corresponding with the verb form running in the English language. That is to say both animate and inanimate subjects have the same verb inflection in both the languages.
VI. Both the Dhimal and English nouns have the system of being pluralised.

| kā | cātiyā-gelāi | dānāi-khā |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| I 1 ${ }^{\text {st }} \mathrm{sg}$ | student-pl | beat-sim pres $1^{\text {st }} \mathrm{sg}$ |

I beat students.

In this example, cātiyā in the Dhimal language corresponds with student in the English language. gelāi has been suffixed to the noun cātiyā to mark the plurality in the Dhimal like $\mathbf{s}$ to the noun student in the English language.
VII. There is no concept of exclusive and inclusive distinction in both the Dhimal and English languages
kelāi
um cā-nhā-khe
we $1^{\text {st }} \mathrm{pl}$ rice eat-1 ${ }^{\text {st }} \mathrm{pl}$-sim pers

We eat rice.

In the above example, kelāi (the first person plural subject in the Dhimal language) has agreed the first person plural simple present verb cā-nhā-khe with no distinction either exclusive or inclusive. Similar is the case with the English language as in we eat rice
VIII. The indefinite personal pronouns in both the Dhimal and English languages agree with the singular verb.

| jhārān̉ | remphā | nhā-khe |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| ind pro | well | dance-3 ${ }^{\text {rd }}$ sg pres |

Everybody dances well.
In this example, the Dhimal indefinite personal subject has agreed with the third person singular verb nhā-khe corresponding with dances in the English language.
IX. Both the Dhimal and English verbs do not agree in terms of object.
a. kā

I $1^{\text {st }}$ a-pen (sg obj) buy-sim pst $1^{\text {st }} \mathrm{sg}$
I bought a pen.
b. kā
nehlon
pen (obj)
buy-sim pst $1^{\text {st }} \mathrm{sg}$
I bought two pens.
c. kā
kalam-gelāi
pen-pl
buy-sim pst ${ }^{\text {st }} \mathrm{sg}$

I bought pens.

In these examples, no verb variation has been found to agree with singular, dual and plural objects (a pen, two pens and pens respectively) in the Dhimal language as in col-ghā and bought in the English language.

### 3.7 Differences Between the Dhimal and English Subject-Verb Agreement

More differences are found to be existing in the subject-verb agreement systems between the Dhimal and English languages. The distinctions observed in the subject-verb agreement between the languages are cited below.
I. The distinction of gender difference is realized in the third person singular pronominal in the English language but it lacks in the Dhimal.
a. wā um cā-khe
he/s $(M / F) 3^{\text {rd }} \mathrm{sg}$ rice eat-sim pres $3^{\text {rd }} \mathrm{sg}$
$\mathrm{He}(\mathrm{M})$ eats rice.
b. wā
um
cā-khe
he/s $(M / F) 3^{\text {rd }} \mathrm{sg}$ rice eat-sim pres $3^{\text {rd }} \mathrm{sg}$
She (F) eats rice
In the above examples the same wā in the Dhimal corresponds with he (male) and she (female) in the English language.
II. The Dhimal and English sentence structures are different.

Examples from the English language.
a. I write a letter.

Subject + Verb + Object
b. Garima plays chess.

Subject + Verb + Object
c. You eat rice

Subject + Verb + Object
Examples from the Dhimal language

| a. | kā |  | dudhe |  | ām-khā |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Subject | + | Object | + | Verb |
|  | I $1^{\text {st }} \mathrm{sg}$ | milk |  |  | $1^{\text {st }}$ pres sg |
|  | I drink milk. |  |  |  |  |
| b. | nā |  | um |  | cā-khe-nā |
|  | Subject | + | Object | + | Verb |
|  | you $2^{\text {nd }} \mathrm{s}$ |  | rice |  | eat-2 $2^{\text {nd }}$-pr |

You eat rice.

c. | garimā | ces |  | ghā-khe |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Subject | Object | + | Verb |
| garima 3 ${ }^{\text {rd }} \mathrm{sg} \quad$ chess |  | play-3 $3^{\text {rd }}$ pres sg |  |

Garima plays chess.

In the examples illustrated above, object is preceded by verbs and verbs follow subject in the English language (see examples from English). On the contrary, objects are followed by verbs and subjects precede objects in the Dhimal language (see examples from Dhimal).

Table No. 11
Structures of the Dhimal and English Sentences

| Structures of the Dhimal | Structure of the |  | English |  |  |
| :---: | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Subject $+\quad$ object + | verb | Subject | + | verb | + |
| garimā object |  |  |  |  |  |
| ces $\quad$ ghākhe | Garima | plays | chess |  |  |

III. The Dhimal and English number systems are different.

The English language number system is marked with two numbers namely singular and plural. On the contrary, the Dhimal language possesses three numbers namely singular, dual and plural. kā, kidhirinhemi and kelāi are the first person pronouns for the singular, dual and plural numbers respectively in the Dhimal language whereas $I$ and $W e$ are the first person singular and plural numbers respectively in the English language. The dual number system is specific to the personal pronouns. That is to say that dual number system is applied to personal pronouns only.

Table No. 12
The Number System in Both the Dhimal and English Languages

| Person | English |  | Dhimal |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Singular | Plural | Singular | Dual | Plural |
| First | I | We | kā | kidhi ${ }_{\text {İ }}$ nhemi | kelāi |
| Second | You | You | nā | nidhizinhemi | nelāi |
| Third | He, she, it | They | wā/idoi | udhi ${ }_{\text {zinem }}$ | obālāi |

IV. The Dhimal verbs with the first person singular and plural subjects are differently inflected in the simple present tense whereas the verbs with the first person singular and plural subjects remain uninflected in the simple present tense of the English language.
a. $k a \bar{a}$
rhutā
tor'-khā
I 1 ${ }^{\text {st }} \mathrm{sg} \quad$ high
jump-sim pres $1^{\text {st }}$ sg
I jump high.
b. kelāi
rhutā
ton'-nhā-khe
we $1^{\text {st }} \mathrm{pl}$
high
jump- $1^{\text {st }}$ pl-sim pres
We jump high.
In the examples above, the Dhimal verb ton has been inflected with the suffixes kha and nhā followed by khe for the first person singular and plural subjects respectively in the simple present tense whereas the English verb jump corresponding with tori in the Dhimal has remained uninflected for both the first person singular and plural subjects as in jump.
V. The Dhimal verbs agree with the first and second person dual subjects identically but the English language lacks this property.
a. kidhiñnhem we $1^{\text {st }} \mathrm{dl}$
$\varnothing$-kalam
col-khe-nin
a-pen
buy-sim pres-1 ${ }^{\text {st }} \mathrm{dl}$

We buy a pen.
b. nidhiñnhemi $\quad$-kalam col-khe-nin
you $2^{\text {nd }}$ dl a-pen buy-sim pres-2 ${ }^{\text {nd }}$ dl
You buy a pen.
In the examples above, kidhirinhemi and nidhininhemi (the first person dual and the second person dual respectively) have agreed with the same verb inflection in the Dhimal as in col-khe-nin, but the English language lacks this property of having the dual number.
VI. The Dhimal second person singular and plural personal pronouns are realized with separate verb inflection whereas the English second person singular and plural pronouns are identically realized and they agree with the same verb form.
a. n
you $2^{\text {nd }}$ sg a-pen buy-sim pres-2 $2^{\text {nd }}$ sg
You buy a pen.
b. nelāi
ø-kalam
col-su-khe-nā
You 2 ${ }^{\text {nd }} \mathrm{pl} \quad$ a-pen buy-pl-sim pres
c. nidhiñnhemi $\quad$-kalam col-khe-ni』

You 2 ${ }^{\text {nd }} \mathrm{dl}$ a-pen buy-sim pres-2 ${ }^{\text {nd }} \mathrm{dl}$

You buy a pen.
nā and nelāi are the Dhimal second person singular and plural pronouns respectively. nā has agreed with the verb form col-khe-nā and nelāi with col-su-khe-nā whereas the same verb form, buy has been agreed with both the singular and plural subjects realised identically in the English language. Similarly, nidhirinhemi, which has agreed with col-khe-nin, has stood as the second person dual subject.

Table No. 13
Verb Agreement with Second Person Pronouns in the Dhimal and English Language

| Language | Pronoun | Number | Verb inflection |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| English | you <br> you | Singular <br> Plural | buy <br> buy |
| Dhimal | nā <br> nidhí $\grave{\text { nhhemi }}$ <br> nelāi | Singular <br> Dual <br> Plural | col-khe-nā <br> col-khe-ní̀ <br> col-su-khe-nā |

VII. The Dhimal auxiliary verb hi is inflected with the past marker suffix ghā to indicate the present state of being or existence whereas the English present 'be' verb itself is used to indicate the same state of being or existence. The English 'be' has been inflected with the person marker, not with the tense marker.
kā ita hi-ghā
I ${ }^{\text {st }} \mathrm{sg} \quad$ here $\quad$ be- pst (ind ext) pres $1^{\text {st }} \mathrm{sg}$
I am here.
In this example, ghā (the past marker for the first person singular pronoun) has been suffixed to the 'auxiliary' verb, hi in the Dhimal language to indicate the present existence. But the present 'be' verb, am itself has been used in the English to indicate the same present existence.
VIII. The third person singular and plural subjects agree with the separate verb form in the simple present tense of the English language whereas the same verb form is agreed with all the third person subjects (singular, dual and plural) in the Dhimal language.

| a. wā | $\emptyset$-kalam | col-khe |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| he/s 3 ${ }^{\text {rd }}$ sg a-pen | buy-sim pres 3 ${ }^{\text {rd }}$ sg |  |
| He/s buys a pen. |  |  |

b. ndhiñnhemi $\quad$-kalam col-khe
they $3^{\text {rd }} \mathrm{dl}$ a-pen buy-sim pre $3^{\text {rd }} \mathrm{dl}$

They buy a pen.

| c. obālāi | $\varnothing$-kalam | col-khe |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| they $3^{\text {rd }} \mathrm{pl}$ | a-pen | buy-sim pres $3^{\text {rd }} \mathrm{pl}$ |

They buy a pen.
In the above examples, wā, udhinhemi and obālāi are the third person singular, dual and plural subjects respectively in the Dhimal language and they all have agreed with the same verb form col-khe. But the English third person singular $\mathrm{He} / \mathbf{s}$ and plural they have agreed the separate verb forms, buys and buy respectively.

Table No. 14
Verb Agreement with Third Person Pronouns in the Dhimal and English Languages

| Language | Pronoun | Number | Verb inflection |
| :---: | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| English | He, she <br> They | Singular <br> Plural | buys <br> buy |
| Dhimal | wā <br> udhinhemi <br> obālāi | Singular <br> Dual <br> Plural | col-khe <br> col-khe <br> col-khe |

IX. don and ten are used to mark the progressive aspect in present/past and future tenses respectively in the Dhimal language whereas the only 'ing' is used to indicate the progressive aspect in all the present, past and future tenses in the English language.
a. $k \bar{a}$
ø-kalam
col-don'-kha
I 1 ${ }^{\text {st }} \mathrm{sg}$
a-pen
buy-prog-pres $1^{\text {st }} \mathrm{sg}$
I am buying a pen.
b. kā $\quad$-kalam col-doni-ghā
I ${ }^{\text {st }} \mathrm{sg}$ a-pen buy-prog-pst $1^{\text {st }}$ sg

I was buying a pen.
c. kā $\quad$-kalam col-teni-hyāṅ-kā

I ${ }^{\text {st }} \mathrm{sg}$ a-kalam buy-prog-aux fut-1 $1^{\text {st }} \mathrm{sg}$
I shall be buying a pen.
In the examples given above, the present progressive and past progressive tenses have been marked with doni and the future progressive has been marked with teni in the Dhimal language whereas the same ing has been used to mark the progressive aspect in all the tenses in the English language.
X. The perfect progressive aspect exists in the English language whereas the Dhimal language lacks this aspect (see 3.4.4)
XI. The first and second person pronominal subjects are added as suffixes to verbs in the Dhimal language but the English language lacks this property
a. $k \bar{a}$

I 1 ${ }^{\text {st }} \mathrm{sg}$
a-pen

I shall buy a pen.
b. nā
you $2^{\text {nd }} \mathrm{sg} \quad$ a-pen buy-sim fut- $2^{\text {nd }} \mathrm{sg}$
You will buy a pen

In the examples illustrated above, kā (the first person singular pronoun) has been suffixed to the tense marker ānin (future) that has inflected the verb col as in col-āıì-ka. Similarly, nā (the second person singular pronoun) has been suffixed to the tense marker (future) that has inflected the verb col as in col-ā-
na, whereas the English pronominal I and You (the first person singular and the second person singular respectively) have not been suffixed to the verb, buy.
XII. The negative marker, mā in the Dhimal language occurs before the main verb unlike in the English language.

| kā | um | ma-cā-khā |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| I 1 ${ }^{\text {st }} \mathrm{sg}$ | rice | neg-eat-sim pres 1 ${ }^{\text {st }} \mathrm{sg}$ |

I do not eat rice.
In this example, the negative marker, mā in the Dhimal language has occurred before the main verb, cā. But the negative marker not has occurred between the auxiliary verb and main verb.

## CHAPTER-FOUR

## FINDINGS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The staple objectives of this research study were to discover the subject-verb agreement system of the Dhimal language, to find out similarities and differences between the Dhimal and English subject verb agreement systems, and to suggest some pedagogical implications on the basis of the findings derived from the study.

### 4.1 Findings

The following findings have been derived after the analysis and interpretation of the data collected from the native speakers of the Dhimal language.

### 4.1.1 Dhimal Subject-Verb Agreement

i. The Dhimal language possesses three numbers namely singular, dual and plural.
ii. The Dhimal verbs agree with person and number.
iii. nini is the dual number marker which is suffixed to the person and tense markers inflecting verbs as suffixes.
iv. su with different positional property in verbs is used to mark the second person plural subject.
v. Verbs are suffixed with doni for present and past progressive and ten for future progressive.
vi. Basically, verbs are suffixed with khe and hi to mark the simple present and simple past respectively.
vii. The Dhimal verbs agree with tense.
viii. The perfect progressive aspect does not exist in the Dhimal language.
ix. mā prefixes the Dhimal verbs to indicate negation.
x. The Dhimal pronouns and verbs do not exist with inclusive and exclusive meaning.
xi. The Dhimal verbs do not agree in terms of the number of object.
xii. The Dhimal verbs do not agree in terms of gender difference.

### 4.1.2 Similarities Between the Dhimal and English Subject-Verb Agreement

i. The identical verb formation is employed for male and female in both the Dhimal and English languages. That is to say that the subject verb agreement is not determined by the gender difference in both the languages.
ii. In both languages, change in tense causes change in verb inflection.
iii. Both the Dhimal and English verbs agree with aspect.
iv. No inclusive and exclusive distinction is found in both the languages.
v. Both Dhimal and English nouns have the system of being pluralised.
vi. The indefinite personal pronouns, verb clauses and arithmetical operation agree with singular verbs in both the languages.
vii. In both the languages, the difference between animate and inanimate subjects is not distinguished in verbs. That is to say that both the animate and inanimate subjects agree with the same verb inflection in the Dhimal and English.
viii. The number of object causes no difference in the verb agreement in both the languages.

### 4.1.3 Differences Between the Dhimal and English Subject-Verb Agreement

i. Gender difference for the third person singular is realised by separate pronouns in the English language whereas the same pronoun is used for indicating both male and female in the Dhimal language.
ii. The Dhimal basic sentences are structured with subject + object + verb but subject + verb + object is the basic sentence structure in the English language.
iii. The Dhimal language possesses three numbers namely singular, dual and plural but the English language contains only two i.e. singular and plural.
iv. No verbal inflectional difference is found to agree with the third person subjects in all the aspects of each tense in the Dhimal language whereas such variation is found to agree with the third person subjects in the simple aspect of the present tense in the English language.
v. No verb variation is found to agree with the first person singular and plural subjects in the simple present in the English language but the variation in verbs is realized to agree with the subjects of the respective person and number in the Dhimal language.
vi. doni is used to mark progressive aspect of present and past tense and ten is used to indicate progressive aspect of the future tense in the Dhimal language whereas the only ing is used to mark the progressive aspect of all the tenses (present, past and future) in the English language.
vii. The first and second person pronominal subjects are suffixed to verbs in the Dhimal language but the English language does not contain this property.
viii. The perfect progressive aspect is not found to exist in the Dhimal language whereas the English language contains all the aspects of all tenses.
ix. The negative marker occurs before verbs to indicate negation in the Dhimal language whereas the negative marker occurs between auxiliary verbs and main verbs in the English language.

### 4.2 Recommendations

On the basis of the findings drawn after the analysis and interpretation of the data, the following recommendations have been made for the pedagogical implications.
i. The Dhimal sentences are structured with subject + object + verb pattern. This pattern may cause the Dhimal learners feel difficulty in learning the subject + verb + object pattern of the English language. So, language teachers should draw a comparison between the structures and should get the learners informed of it and vice-versa for the English learners learning the Dhimal language as well.
ii. Separate pronouns are used for male and female in the English language whereas the same pronoun is used for both the male and female in the Dhimal. So, language teachers should pay attention on this factor while teaching the Dhimal learners learning English and the English learners learning the Dhimal language.
iii. The Dhimal language is a pronominalised language. Prononinalisation is reflected in the verb paradigms whereas the English language lacks this property. So, the Dhimal learners should get appropriately treated in this regard.
iv. The Dhimal verbs remain identical to agree with all the third person subjects in all the aspects of all tenses. But, the verbs are separately inflected to agree with the third person singular and plural subjects in
the present tense of the English language. So, language teachers should focus on this form of verb agreement while teaching.
v. The Dhimal language possesses three numbers namely singular, dual and plural whereas the English language contains only two numbers namely singular and plural. In this case, the learners learning the Dhimal language should be well treated with the number system in the Dhimal language.
vi. Existential 'auxiliary' hi is used to indicate the present state of being or existence in the Dhimal language whereas the present be itself is used to indicate the present state of being or existence in the English language. Both the learners learning English and Dhimal may get confused with it. So, language teachers should adopt an extra caution in this issue while teaching the Dhimal language.
vii. Since the subject verb-agreement systems of the English and the Dhimal are different, the designers of the curriculum, syllabus and course books should take similarities and differences between the English and Dhimal languages into consideration while designing them.

Most curiously and importantly, I would like to point out an issue of the past marker used for indicating the present existence or the state of being in the Dhimal language. In this connection, Hodgson (1880, p. 86) "The people use their language with extreme carelessness, even in regard to those grand distinctions of time, the past, the present and the future" is mentionable. However, the issue of using past marker in expressing the present existence may be left for further researches. Still, there may be some other issues requiring to be studied systematically in the Dhimal language.

Finally, I do not claim that the research has covered all the subject-verb agreement systems of this language. Nevertheless, I have attempted to identify the subject-verb agreement rules of the Dhimal language on the basis of the collected data and the secondary sources available.

I hope that the concerned authority and interested individuals will keep an eye on the recommendations made. The other research studies should be done to identify something more in the other grammatical aspects of the Dhimal language as well.

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## APPENDIX-I

## Interview Schedule

(Questionnaire Set-A)
This interview schedule is prepared for the research work on "SubjectVerb Agreement in Dhimal and English" for M.Ed. thesis in English Education under the guidance of Prof. Dr. Jai Raj Awasthi. I seek for your kind co-operation.
Name:
Date: $\qquad$
Municipality/VDC:
Age:
Village/Tole:
Male/Female
District: Literate/Illiterate

How do you say the following sentences in the Dhimal language?
1 . Girls play chess.
2. Garima composes poems.
3. Everybody dances well.
4. The young are brave.
5. Many a man learns English.
6. Five miles is a long distance.
7. To teach needs qualification.
8. The person with long moustache is my father.
9. Half of the milk is over.
10. Two third of the students were writing.
11. One tenth of the population in Nepal is illiterate.
12. Some of the students have left the class.
13. A number of teachers have used the book.
14. The number of Dhimal people is seventeen thousand three hundred and eight.
15. My trousers are on the table.
16. A pair of shoes was on the table.
17. The team of five has been awarded. (Team as a whole)
18. The team of five have been awarded. (Individual team members)
19. News is good today.
20. Politics is a dirty game.
21. None of the students pass the test.
22. Neither of the boys is present.
23. One of the dogs has a long tail.
24. Two plus two is four.
25. I beat students.
26. The Headmaster and accountant has come.
27. Either Ram or Ram's friends are in college.
28. The majority of Dhimal people are absent.
29. Girls dance well.
30. Boys dance well.
31. I write a letter.
32. I jump high.
33. We jump high.
34. She eats rice.
35. I eat rice.
37. I shall eat rice.
38. A cat is running.
39. A man is running.
40. She is short.
41. He is short.
42. I bought two pens.
43. I bought pens.
44. I bought a pen.
45. They eat rice.
46. You eat rice.
47. You ate rice.
48. Two people were sitting.
49. Ram and Shyam have gone to market.
50. It becomes wrong.
51. They become wrong.
52. I am here.
53. We are here.
54. He is here.
55. They are here.
56. You are here.
57. You go to school.
(Questionnaire Set - B)

## Subject-Verb Agreement in terms of Tense and Aspect


(Questionnaire Set - B)
Subject-Verb Agreement in terms of Tense and Aspect

(Questionnaire Set - B)

## Subject-Verb Agreement in terms of Tense and Aspect


(Questionnaire Set - B)
Subject-Verb Agreement in terms of Tense and Aspect

|  | T <br> e <br> n <br> S <br> e | Sentences in English | Sentences in Dhimal | Remarks |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | $\begin{aligned} & \mathrm{P} \\ & \mathrm{r} \\ & \mathrm{e} \\ & \mathrm{~s} \\ & \mathrm{e} \\ & \mathrm{n} \\ & \mathrm{t} \end{aligned}$ | I have been drinking milk |  |  |
|  |  | We have been drinking milk |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |
|  |  | You have been drinking milk |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |
|  |  | She has been drinking milk |  |  |
|  |  | He has been drinking milk |  |  |
|  |  | They have been drinking milk |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |
|  | PaSt | I had been drinking milk |  |  |
|  |  | We had been drinking milk |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |
|  |  | You had been drinking milk |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |
|  |  | She had been drinking milk |  |  |
|  |  | He had been drinking milk |  |  |
|  |  | They had been drinking milk |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |
|  | Future | I shall have been drinking milk |  |  |
|  |  | We shall have been drinking milk |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |
|  |  | You will have been drinking milk |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |
|  |  | She will have been drinking milk |  |  |
|  |  | He will have been drinking milk |  |  |
|  |  | They will have been drinking milk |  |  |

## APPENDIX-III

The list of the surveyed population:

| S. No. | Name | Age | Gender | Literate/Illiterate | Village |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1 | Ram Bahadur Dhimal | 49 | Male | Literate | Chiyadokan |
| 2 | Bishnu Dhimal | 34 | Male | Illiterate | Chiyadokan |
| 3 | Bam Bahadur Dhimal | 45 | Male | Literate | Chiyadokan |
| 4 | Bel Bahadur Dhimal | 40 | Male | Illiterate | Chiyadokan |
| 5 | Shanti Dhimal | 46 | Female | Literate | Chiyadokan |
| 6 | Rangamaya Dhimal | 35 | Female | Illiterate | Chiyadokan |
| 7 | Sani Dhimal | 70 | Female | Illiterate | Chiyadokan |
| 8 | Bishnumaya Dhimal | 42 | Female | Literate | Chiyadokan |
| 9 | Mohan Dhimal | 51 | Male | Literate | Krishnamandir |
| 10 | Ratan Dhimal | 60 | Male | Illiterate | Krishnamandir |
| 11 | Tulasi Dhimal | 60 | Male | Illiterate | Krishnamandir |
| 12 | Harilal Dhimal | 52 | Male | Literate | Krishnamandir |
| 13 | Kalpana Dhimal | 23 | Female | Literate | Krishnamandir |
| 14 | Hima Dhimal | 25 | Female | Literate | Krishnamandir |
| 15 | Ratini Dhimal | 52 | Female | Illiterate | Krishnamandir |
| 16 | Bhantai Dhimal | 72 | Female | Illiterate | Krishnamandir |
| 17 | San Kumar Dhimal | 35 | Male | Literate | Adiyamal |
| 18 | Raj Kumar Dhimal | 37 | Male | Literate | Adiyamal |
| 19 | Mahendra Dhimal | 41 | Male | Illiterate | Adiyamal |
| 20 | Sal Bdr. Dhimal | 45 | Male | Illiterate | Adiyamal |
| 21 | Nirmaya Dhimal | 32 | Female | Illiterate | Adiyamal |
| 22 | Anjana Dhimal | 21 | Female | Literate | Adiyamal |
| 23 | Sanmaya Dhimal | 24 | Female | Literate | Adiyamal |
| 24 | Hagoi Dhimal | 60 | Female | Illiterate | Adiyamal |
| 25 | Lok Bahadur Dhimal | 50 | Male | Literate | Damak Bazzar |
| 26 | Bhupal Dhimal | 53 | Male | Literate | Damak Bazzar |
| 27 | Suk Bahadur Dhimal | 65 | Male | Illiterate | Damak Bazzar |
| 28 | Bir Bahadur Dhimal | 48 | Male | Illiterate | Damak Bazzar |
| 29 | Sarmila Dhimal | 26 | Female | Literate | Damak Bazzar |
| 30 | Lekai Dhimal | 60 | Female | Illiterate | Damak Bazzar |
| 31 | Devimaya Dhimal | 22 | Female | Literate | Damak Bazzar |
| 32 | Dhanmaya Dhimal | 35 | Female | Illiterate | Damak Bazzar |
| 33 | Rajendra Dhimal | 36 | Male | Literate | Kharkhare |
| 34 | Modan Dhimal | 50 | Male | Illiterate | Kharkhare |
| 35 | Gyan Bahadur Dhimal | 49 | Male | Illiterate | Kharkhare |
| 36 | Ratna Dhimal | 25 | Male | Literate | Kharkhare |
| 37 | Durga Dhimal | 35 | Female | Literate | Kharkhare |
| 38 | Daneela Dhimal | 21 | Female | Literate | Kharkhare |
| 39 | Asmita Dhimal | 26 | Female | Illiterate | Kharkhare |
| 40 | Ramba Devi Dhimal | 37 | Female | Illiterate | Kharkhare |

## APPENDIX-IV

ROMAN TRANSLITERATION OF DEVANAGARI SCRIPT
Based on Turner's (1931), Nepali Alphabet and Diacritic M arks

| Nepali Alphabet | Roman Transliteration | Nepali <br> Alphabet | Roman Transliteration |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| अ | a | ज् | n |
| आ | $\overline{\mathrm{a}}$ | ट् | t |
| इ | i | ठ | th |
| ई | $\overline{1}$ | ड् | , |
| उ | u | ढ् | ${ }^{\text {d }}$ h |
| ऊ | $\overline{\mathrm{u}}$ | ण् | n |
| ॠ | $\stackrel{r}{\text { r }}$ | त् | t |
| ए | e | थ् | th |
| ऐ | ai | द् | d |
| ओ | o | ย् | dh |
| औ | au | न् | n |
| अ | am, aṅ | प् | p |
| अ | ã | फ् | ph |
| - | h. | ब् | b |
| क् | k | भ् | bh |
| ख् | kh | म् | m |
| ग् | g | य् | y |
| घ | gh | र् | r |
| ङ् | İ | ल् | 1 |
| च् | c | व् | w/v |
| छ | ch | श् | Ś |
| ज् | j | ष् | S |
| क़ | jh | स् | S |
|  |  | ह, | h |

## APPENDIX-V

Indo-Aryan Languages Spoken in Nepal

| S. No. | Language | Population | Percentage |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1 | Nepali | 11053255 | 48.61 |
| 2 | Maithili | 2797582 | 12.30 |
| 3 | Bhojpuri | 1712536 | 7.53 |
| 4 | Tharu | 1331546 | 5.86 |
| 5 | Awadhi | 560744 | 2.47 |
| 6 | Urdu | 174840 | 0.77 |
| 7 | Rajbanshi | 129829 | 0.57 |
| 8 | Hindi | 105765 | 0.47 |
| 9 | Danuwar | 31849 | 0.14 |
| 10 | Bengali | 2302 | 0.10 |
| 11 | Marwari | 22637 | 0.10 |
| 12 | Manjhi | 21841 | 0.10 |
| 13 | Dariei | 10210 | 0.04 |
| 14 | Kumal | 6533 | 0.03 |
| 15 | Bote | 2823 | 0.01 |
| 16 | Panjabi | 1165 | 0.01 |
| 17 | English | 1037 | 0.00 |
| 18 | Chueti | 408 | 0.00 |
| 19 | Megahi | 30 | 0.00 |

Source: CBS, 2002.

## APPENDIX-VI

Tibeto-Burman Languages Spoken in Nepal

| S. No. | Language | Population | Percentage |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1 | Tamang | 1179145 | 5.19 |
| 2 | Newar | 825458 | 3.63 |
| 3 | Magar | 770116 | 3.39 |
| 4 | Bantawa | 371056 | 1.63 |
| 5 | Gurung | 338925 | 1.49 |
| 6 | Limbu | 333633 | 1.47 |
| 7 | Sherpa | 129771 | 0.57 |
| 8 | Chepang | 36808 | 0.16 |
| 9 | Sunuwar | 26611 | 0.12 |
| 10 | Thami | 18991 | 0.08 |
| 11 | Kulung | 18686 | 0.08 |
| 12 | Dhimal | 17308 | 0.08 |
| 13 | Yakha | 14648 | 0.06 |
| 14 | Thulung | 14034 | 0.06 |
| 15 | Sampang | 10810 | 0.06 |
| 16 | Kahling | 9828 | 0.04 |
| 17 | Thakali | 6441 | 0.03 |
| 18 | Chhantyal | 5912 | 0.03 |
| 19 | Tibetan | 5277 | 0.02 |
| 20 | Dumi | 5271 | 0.02 |
| 21 | Jirel | 4919 | 0.02 |
| 22 | Puma | 4310 | 0.02 |
| 23 | Dura | 3397 | 0.01 |
| 24 | Meche | 3301 | 0.01 |
| 25 | Pahari | 2995 | 0.01 |
| 26 | Lepcha | 2826 | 0.01 |


| 27 | Bahing | 2765 | 0.01 |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 28 | Raji | 2413 | 0.01 |
| 29 | Hayu | 1743 | 0.01 |
| 30 | Bhyangshi | 1734 | 0.01 |
| 31 | Ghale | 1649 | 0.01 |
| 32 | Chhiling | 1207 | 0.01 |
| 33 | Lonarung | 1101 | 0.00 |
| 34 | Chinese | 904 | 0.00 |
| 35 | Mewahang | 794 | 0.00 |
| 36 | Kaike | 518 | 0.00 |
| 37 | Raute | 310 | 0.00 |
| 38 | Tilung | 270 | 0.00 |
| 39 | Jero/jerung | 97 | 0.00 |
| 40 | Lingkhim | 94 | 0.00 |
| 41 | Koche | 8 | 0.00 |
| 42 | Dzonkha | 8 | 0.00 |
| 43 | Chhintang | Mizo |  |
| 44 |  | 0.00 |  |

Source: CBS, 2002.

