

# CHAPTER ONE

## INTRODUCTION

### 1.1 Introduction

Language, being many things, is like a chameleon which changes its color according to its surroundings. So, a wide range of definitions given by various linguists can be assembled, printed somewhere in the pages of books, journals, articles or sometimes in newspapers. It may be so partly due to the influence of the field where the expert is working and partly because of the individual difference in the perception of the world. However, we can go through the fields searching the common states where the experts from the diverse areas meet or appear and see, observe and study thoroughly, and analyze and define human language genuinely and tactfully. If so, then, it is one of the means of communication, and, therefore, can be used to express personal feelings, emotions and thoughts as well. In this context, some definitions of the language given by different linguists are given below.

“... a language is a purely human and non-instinctive method of communicating ideas, emotions and desires by means of a system of voluntarily produced symbols...”(Sapir 1921:8).

“... a language is conceived of in the first place as an instrument of social interaction between human beings, used with the primary aim of establishing communicative relations between speakers and addressees”(Dik 1978:1, cited in Givon, 2001:2).

“... a language to be a set (finite or infinite) of sentences, each finite in length and constructed out of a finite set of elements”(Chomsky 1968:2).

“ Language is many things – a system of communication, a medium for thought, a vehicle for literary expression, a social institution, a matter for political controversy, a catalyst for nation building”(O’Grady 1997:1).

“...The essence of language is human activity- activity on the part of one individual to make himself understood by another, activity on the part of that other to understand what was in the mind of the first...”  
(Jespersen 1934: 17, cited in Givon 2001:1).

...language is primarily a representation of experience. It may represent experience as a report of direct perceptual experience, such as in an account of a football game or in a description of some scene or event. Or it may represent tendencies to act and may be viewed as representative of potential activity, such as in an oration to persuade others to modify their behavior in accord with the wishes of the speaker... a function of the linguistic representation is to preserve or restore equilibrium. This equilibrium may be of two types: (a) inter-personal and (b)intra-personal...(Zipf 1935:294-95, cited in Givon 2001:2).

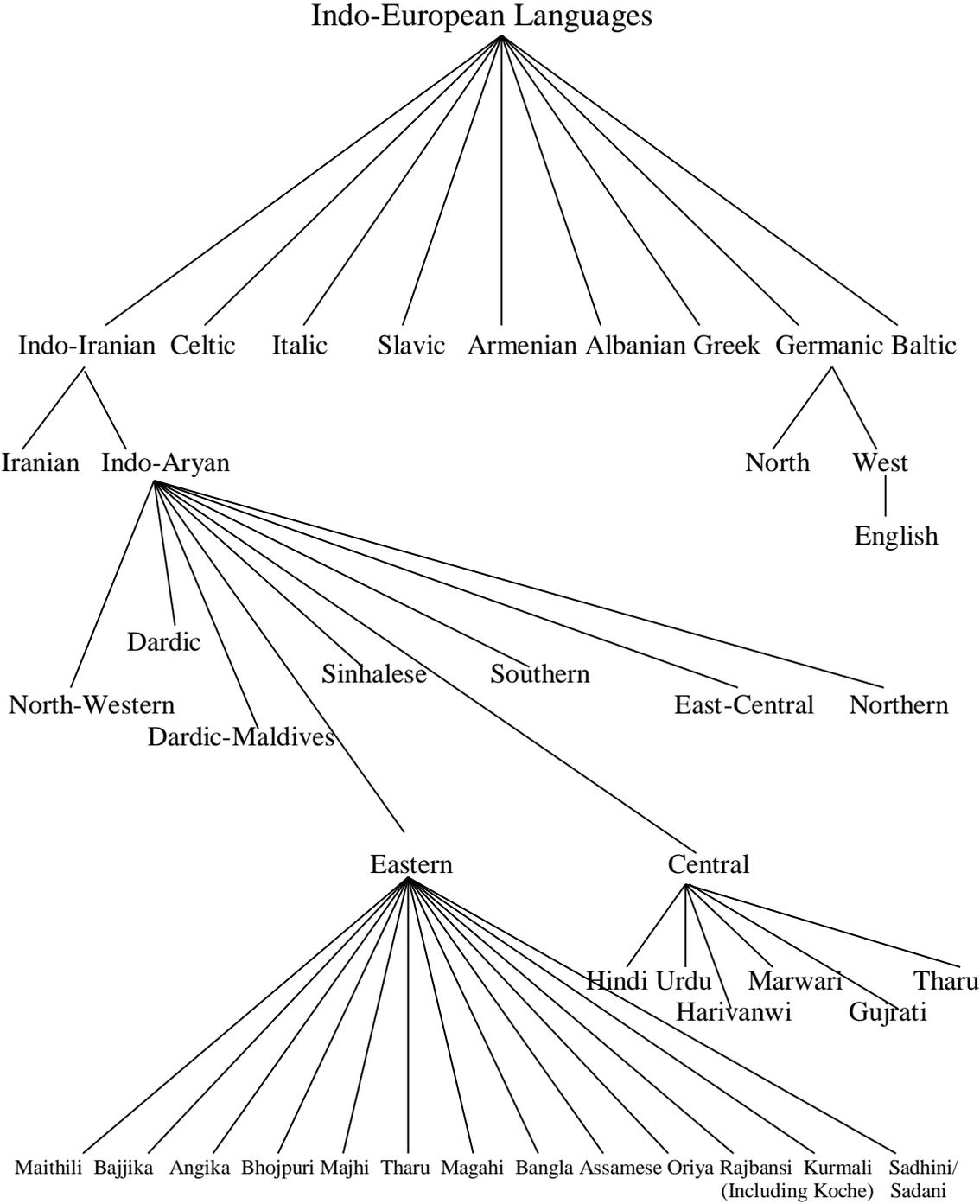
Thus, what can be said by having a close observation of the above quoted definitions of language is that linguists are not at one pole while defining language. Rather they are found to have language according to their field where they belong to. For example, anthropologists regard language as a form of cultural behavior, sociolinguists regard it as an interaction between members of social groups, philosophers as a means of interpreting human experience, generativists as a set of sentences, literary figures as a vehicle for literary expression, etc.

### **1.1.1 Genetic Affiliation: A Bird's Eye-View**

The existence of systematic correspondences allows us to make at least educated guesses about the sounds that must have been present in particular words in ancestral proto-languages. But we can often go much further than this, in several respects. First, we may be able to work out, not just individual ancestral sounds, but all the ancestral sounds in individual words. Second, as an immediate consequence, we may be able to work out roughly what whole words must have sounded like in the ancestral language. Third, as a further consequence, we may be able to work out what the entire phonological system of the ancestral language must have been like: what phonemes it had, and what the rules were for combining those phonemes. This process is comparative reconstruction, and the procedure we use for doing it is the comparative method (Trask 1995 : 208).

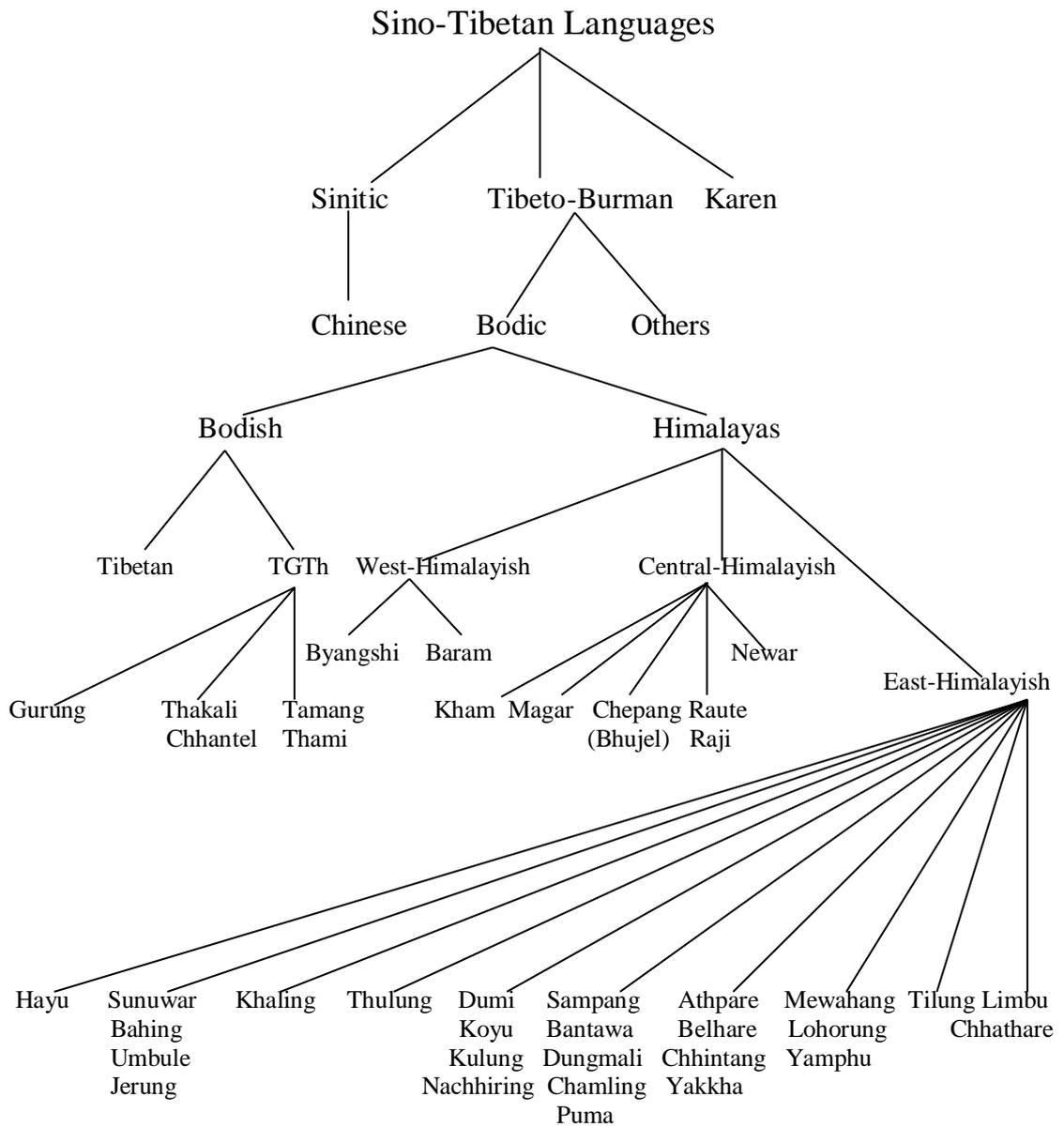
And, this comparative method is the most essential toolkit for any philologist to go through the languages to determine the proto-language from which other daughter languages emerged, so that the languages of the world can be grouped into different language family. Comparative philologists put the languages of the world into the four broad language families, viz. Indo-European, Sino-Tibetan, Austro-Asiatic and Dravidian. They are presented diagrammatically as follows:

**Diagram 1: Indo-European Languages**



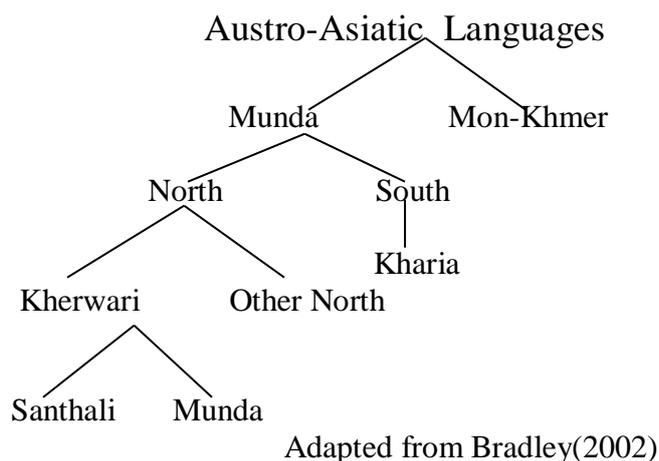
Adapted from Bradley(2002)

**Diagram 2: Sino-Tibetan Languages**

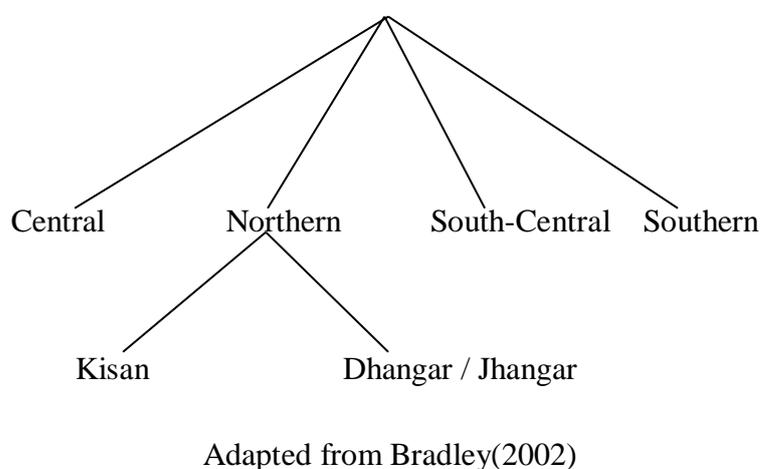


Adapted from Bradley(2002)

**Diagram 3: Austro-Asiatic Languages**



**Diagram 4: Dravidian Languages**  
Dravidian Languages



Surprisingly, the languages of all four families are spoken in Nepal. For example, Nepali, Maithili, Bhojpuri, etc. shelter under Indo-Aryan languages of Indo-European language family; Limbu, Rai, Sherpa, etc. belong to Tibeto-Burman languages of Sino-Tibetan language family; Santhali, Munda, Kharia, etc. come under Austro-Asiatic Languages; and Kisan, Jhangar/ Dhangar, etc, are affiliated to Dravidian languages.

### 1.1.2 Linguistic Scenario of Nepal

Nepal is a common playground of multi-racial, multi-religious and multi-lingual human beings with their own prototypical identities. It is a

small but very beautiful country where varieties of fertile linguistic gardens have been existed and, therefore, a number of colorful languages are flowering beautifully. That is why Nepal is rich in terms of linguistic diversity. Population census 2002 shows that there are more than 92 languages in this small country. Unfortunately, most of these languages do not have their own writing system; they exist only in the mouth of their native speakers.

The linguists and other well-known native and non-native scholars claim that the languages of the following four families are spoken in Nepal.

- a. Indo-European
- b. Tibeto-Burman
- c. Austro-Asiatic
- d. Dravidian

A brief description of all language families are given below.

**a. Indo-European**

The following languages are spoken in Nepal under this family.

Table 1: Indo-European Languages Spoken in Nepal

Nepali	Maithili
Bhojpuri	Tharu
Awadi	Urdu
Rajbansi	Hindi
Danuwar	Bangala
Marwari	Majhi
Darai	Kumal
Bote	Churauti
Magahi	Angika
Bajjika	

(Adapted from CBS, 2002)

## **b. Tibeto-Burman**

The following Tibeto-Burman languages are spoken in Nepal.

Table 2: Tibeto-Burman Languages Spoken in Nepal

Tamang	Newar
Magar	Gurung
Limbu	Chepang
Sunuwar	Thami
Thakali	Dhimal
Kaike	Chhantyal
Kham	Lepcha
Syang	Hayu
Marpha	Ghale
Manang	Raute
Baram	Toto
Nar	Pahari
Sherpa	Raji
Tibetan	Byansi
Jirel	Kagate
Meche	Koche
Lhomi	Dura
Yholmo	Bhujel
Rai languages (more than 33)	

(Adapted from CBS, 2002)

## **c. Dravidian**

Population census 2002 mentions that only one language, i.e. Jhagad is spoken in Nepal under this language family. It is found to have been spoken on the province of Koshi River in the eastern part of Nepal.

#### **d. Austro-Asiatic**

Satar/ Santhali is reported to have been spoken in Nepal under this language family.

Census in Nepal was first introduced in 1911 to carry out a survey of population, its growth, migration, social structure, etc. However, languages have been regularly reported since the first modern census in 1952/54. Yet, varying number of languages have been reported in different censuses. Except ‘other’, ‘unknown’ and ‘not stated’ languages, there were recorded 44 (1952/54), 36(1961), 17(1971), 18(1981) and 32(1991) languages in the last five censuses (Gurung 2002:37), but their figure have drastically increased to 92 (CBS 2002). However, there still remain quite a few languages which are lumped together into an ‘unknown’ slot in the lack of adequate information.

All the individual attempts including censuses for identifying languages spoken in Nepal as mother tongue are just some sort of approximation or rationalization of information, and so, can not be deemed final.

### **1.2 English: A Brief Introduction**

It is said that more than 6000 languages are spoken in the world. Among them English, genetically affiliated to West Germanic branch of Indo-European language family, is one of the languages existed in this universe which has got an opportunity to travel throughout the world due to two major reasons: the expansion of British colonial power which was in the highest culmination towards the end of the nineteenth century; and the emergence of the United States of America as the leading economic power of the twentieth century.

English is said to be the first language in twenty-three countries, and an official or a joint official language in about fifty other countries. It has been estimated that over 300 million speakers speak English as their first language. And, it is widely used as a second and/or foreign language. Similarly, it is one of the six UNO languages, and the mostly used language as a lingua franca in the world. So, English is used in every nook and cranny of the academic world as well as day to day life. It is said that one in every seven human beings can speak English. Of all languages, English has the largest vocabulary, and one of the noblest bodies of literature. It is claimed that anyone who can read English can keep in touch with the whole world without leaving his own home. So, it has become a common tongue for the worldly living people by which they can introduce and interact themselves with one another, exchange feelings and ideas and share experiences and knowledge. In the similar vein, it has become a universal passport to go and visit in each and every part of the world. Moreover, it is the most prestigious and mobile vehicle in the field of language all over the world. If it is so, English has become an indispensable language for the human being in the present era.

### **1.3 Limbus and Their Language**

The ethnonym of the Limbus is **Yakthungba** for male and **Yakthungma** for female and they designate their language as **Yakthungpan**.

The **Limbus** are a sedentary agriculturalist people of the Mongoloid race dwelling in the hills of the Kosi and Mechi zones of eastern Nepal, parts of Sikkim to the west of Tista and in Darjeeling district. By far the largest part of the Limbu nation lies

within eastern Nepal, which is the home of approximately 180,000 speakers of Limbu (Widert & Subba 1976:142).

Limbus are one of the major ethnic groups dwelling in the eastern part of Nepal. They consider themselves to be the original inhabitants of the homeland they occupy now. They are often identified by the exonym **Kirata** or Kirati. Although some typologists use the term Kirata as an umbrella term covering all mongoloid people living along the northeastern fringe of the subcontinent, it is the speakers of the Kirati group of Tibeto-Burman languages in the eastern Nepal to which the term strictly applies. In the writings of some contemporary Limbu authors writing in Nepali, the terms Kirata and Kirati are used to refer specially to the Limbus.

The homeland of Limbu people is named as **Limbuwan** which is traditionally known as **pallo Kirat** including Tehrathum, Dhankuta, Sankhuwasabha, Taplejung, Panchthar, Ilam, Sunsari, northern parts of Morang district and Darjeeling and Sikkim of India.

The Limbu language (Yakthungpan), following **Sirijanga** script, is found to have been roughly divided into four dialects: Phedappe, Pachtare, Chathare and Taplejunge.

**Phedappe** is spoken in the Tehrathum district and even Indo-Aryans who live outside Tehrathum bazaar, especially those of lower caste, speak some Limbu in addition to their mother tongue.

The largest centre of population in the Phedappe speaking area of Limbuwan is Tehrathum, although Tehrathum bazaar itself is largely Nepali and Newari speaking. Nepali living in the bazaar

seldom speak Limbu, in fact many Limbus living in the bazaar do not speak Limbu either (Driem 1987:XXII).

**Pacthare** is the dialect of the **panch thar** or ‘five clans’ and Chathare of the *cha thar* or ‘six clans’.

Pacthare is spoken to the east of the Tamor river. Centre of population in Pacthare speaking Limbu are Yasok, Phidim, Ilam, beyond which Pacthare speaking Limbu extends to the east and establishment (Ibid 1987:XXII).

As already has been said, **Chathare** is the dialect of *cha thar*, which is spoken in most villages of Dhankuta district where Limbus have made their homeland. In addition to this, it is also spoken in some parts of Tehrathum district fringing Dhankuta district.

Though previous typologists put Chathare Limbu under the dialectal form of the Limbu language, the recent studies and researches claim the Chathare Limbu as a separate language. It may be so because Chathare Limbu is totally unintelligible to other Limbu speakers who belong to other dialects (Ibid 1987:XXII-XXIII).

**Taplejung** includes **Tamarkhole**, **Yanrupe** and **Moiwakhole** sub-dialects. It is spoken to the north of Phedap and especially north of the Tamor river in Taplejung district and beyond.

Whereas the dialect boundary between Phedappe and Pacthare is an abrupt transition as one crosses the Tamor river between Tehrathum and Yasok, the differences between Phedappe and Taplejung as one moves north appear to be gradual, and the

differences are on the whole less pronounced than between any of the other two dialects (Ibid 1987:XXIII).

Thus, Limbu seems to have been divided into four dialects but some linguists are not very much satisfied with this division.

#### **1.4 Grammar: An Overview**

Etymologically, the term ‘grammar’ goes back through French and Latin to a Greek word ‘grammatika’ or ‘grammatica techne’ which may be translated as ‘the art of writing’. But for a long time this term has been used very loosely to incorporate the whole study of language. The Greeks considered grammar to be a branch of philosophy concerned with the art of writing. By the middle ages grammar had come to be regarded as a set of rules, usually in the form of a textbook, dictating correct usage. So in the traditional sense, grammar came to mean a set of normative and prescriptive rules in order to set up a standard of correct usage. And grammar was both art and the science of language. Thus, traditional notion of grammar is prescriptive.

Structuralists take grammar as an inventory or catalogue of elements classified with restrictions enumerated and relations made physically manifested: it is a discovery of the organization of a sentence upon its immediate and ultimate constituents: it is thus an inventory of units such as phonemes, morphemes, words, lexical categories, phrases and clauses.

Some contemporary grammarians or linguists regard grammar as an all-encompassing theory of linguistic analysis, i.e. transformational generative grammar, systemic grammar, tagmemics, stratificational grammar.

Whatever the school of linguist or scholars or grammarians say about the grammar, it is among various other, a skeleton of language. That is it is an architectural aspect of the language and it differs from language to language though universalists believe in the uniformity across the language structures throughout the world, and therefore in world perception which is supported by a famous hypothesis – ‘Whorfian Hypothesis’ or ‘Sapir-Whorf Hypothesis’ or ‘A Theory of Linguistic Relativity and Determinism’.

### **1.5 Contrastive Analysis: Its Need and Importance**

As it has already been said in earlier section over 6,000 languages exist throughout the world, some of them are related genetically and some others not. Though the languages which are unrelated genetically, they may have several common features. Similarly, some genetically related languages are found to have uncommon features. With this background assumption, contrastive analysis (CA) was initiated and developed. CA is the scientific study of the linguistic systems of two or more than two languages to find out similarities and differences.

In the early decades of the second half of the 20<sup>th</sup> century, linguists toiled hard in the vineyard of observation and study of two languages contrastively so as to draw a sketch of the structural differences between these languages. Various projects were launched to study the languages contrastively in Europe and United States America of (USA). This very activity of studying languages appeared with the name of CA.

The history of CA, developed for foreign language teaching, can be traced back to the American linguists who made the first clarion call for it. CA reached to its ultimate peak in Europe and the USA in 60’s when pattern practice teaching method, based on structural linguistics was

commonly used in teaching a foreign language. Actually, it became popular with the publication of Robert Lado's work entitled "Linguistics Across Culture" (1957). Lado (1957: 2) provides three underlying assumptions of CA, which have significant role in language teaching.

1. Individuals tend to transfer the forms and meanings and the distributions of forms and meanings of their native language and culture to the foreign language and culture, both productively when attempting to grasp and understand the language.
1. In the comparison between native and foreign languages lies the key to ease or difficulty in foreign language learning.
2. The teacher who has made a comparison of the foreign language with the native language of the students will know better what the real learning problem are and can better provide for teaching them.

Lado (1957:2) asserts that the student who comes in contact with a foreign language will find some features of it quite easy and others extremely difficult. Those elements that are similar to his native language will be simple for him to learn and those elements that are different to his native language will be difficult.

Comparison between languages can be done at various levels of the language, for example, phonological and grammatical level. However, more specifically, contrastive analysis is looked upon as the field to carry out systematic study of similarities and differences of some of the characteristic sounds in two or more languages. And, if the comparison is made between two languages, it is called inter-lingual comparison and it is intra-lingual comparison if it is made between two dialects of the same language. After comparison between two or more languages to find out

similarities and differences, contrastivists predict the areas of difficulty and ease in learning the target language.

According to the behaviorists, similarities between languages lead to ease in learning the second language which in turn lead to errorless performance and vice versa. However, CA hypothesis holds the view that the matter of similarity and difference is the matter of degree. For example, the greater the difference between languages the greater the difficulty in learning the target language and accordingly the greater the number of errors in performance and vice versa.

Two major functions of CA are:

- to predict the likely errors of a group of learners;
- to explain the sources of errors in one's performance.

Thus, these predictive and explanatory functions of CA are also known as primary and secondary functions of CA or sometimes as the 'strong and weak versions of CA'.

CA is helpful in identifying the areas of difficulties in learning and errors in performance, determining the areas which the learners have to learn with greater emphasis and designing teaching learning materials for those particular areas that need more attention. CA not only predicts the likely errors to be committed by L2 learners but also explains the sources of errors in one's performance. CA is important from pedagogical point of view. The language teachers, learners, testing experts and syllabus or course designers get benefits from the findings of CA.

## 1.6 Time

Though the societies may have radically different conceptualization of time, it is a universal phenomenon. And, therefore, it would be somewhat foolishness to claim that some cultures have absolutely no concept of time.

What is true of many cultures, however, is that they seem to lack any conceptualization of progress, i.e. in many cultures it is taken for granted that today will be much the same as yesterday, and that tomorrow, or indeed the day fifty years into the future from today, will be much the same as today. But it is one thing to lack any concept of (or interest in) progress, and another to have no concept whatsoever of time: even if tomorrow is exactly like today, it will still be characterized by a temporal sequence whereby the sun first rises in the east then moves across the sky, then sets in the west, rather than vice versa or arbitrarily jumping about the sky...the claim that a certain culture lacks any concept of time, or has a radically different concept of time, is based simply on the fact that the language in question has no grammatical device for expressing location in time, i.e. has no tense (Comrie 1985: 4).

A culture takes time either as a static or cyclic phenomenon. Furthermore, the culture can take the cyclic concept of time as microscopically or macroscopically. Though it is the fact, we can generally represent the time with a straight line.

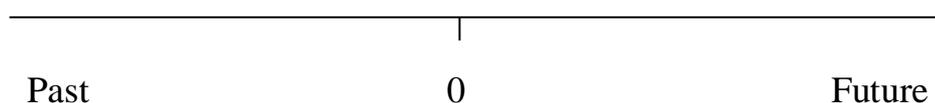
...in cultures which have such a cyclic conceptualization of time, the cycles are invariably of such long duration that it makes no difference to the activities of daily life that they are taking place in a cycle of time rather than on a straight time line. In other words,

this difference in conceptualization of time overall is no more relevant to a study of tense than would be the difference between Euclidean and non-Euclidean geometry to a study of the meaning of terms like here and there. Moreover, even in societies that have a cyclic concept of time, the individual cycles seem to be viewed as chronologically arranged, i.e. there are earlier cycles and later cycles, so that at best the cyclicity would be superimposed on an overall conceptualization of time that is linear...(Ibid 1985:5).

Thus, whether the society takes time in a static or cyclic way or in both, we take time as a straight line with unknown beginning and ending points for our current purpose, i. e. to study tense and aspect.

... we will assume that time can be represented as a straight line, with the past represented conventionally to the left and the future to the right. The present moment will be represented by a point labeled 0 on the line given below. Such representation enables us to represent diagrammatically a range of ordinary-language statements about time....More importantly, it will be claimed that this diagrammatic representation of time is adequate for an account of tense in human language (Ibid 1985: 2).

Diagram 5: Time line with unknown beginning and ending



The situation, a single mosaic term of events, processes, actions, states, etc. can be related to the timeline differently which in turn yields different grammatical notions, i. e. tense and aspect.

There are basically two ways in which one can relate a situation to the time line. One is to locate the situation somewhere on the time line, necessarily in relation to some other specified point or segment of the line, since in one sense all time location is relative, these being no absolutely specified points. This concept of time location is essential to the linguistic category of tense. The second possibility for relating situations to the time line is that one might be interested in discussing the internal temporal contour of a situation, for instance in discussing whether it is to be represented as a point on the time line, or as a stretch of the time line. The internal temporal contour of a situation provides the conceptual basis for the notion of aspects, which refers to the grammaticalization of expression of internal temporal constituency. (Ibid 1985:6)

Although all human languages have ways of locating situations in time, it is being a purely conceptual notion, they differ from one another. The first is the degree of accuracy of temporal location that is achievable in different languages. The second is the way in which situations are located in time, in particular the relative weight assigned to the lexicon and to the grammar in establishing location in time.

The sum total of expressions for locating in time can be divided, in terms of their importance for the structure of the language, into three classes: the set of lexically composite expressions; the set of lexical items; and, the set of grammatical (tense) categories such as present, future, past, pluperfect, future perfect, etc. The first set is potentially infinite in a language that has linguistic means for measuring time intervals. 'Ten minutes after Ram left' is an

example of it in English. The second set that is the set of lexical items would include such items as now, today, yesterday etc. The third set turns out to be the least sensitive of the three (Ibid 1985:8).

## 1.7 Tense

Britannica Concise Encyclopedia defines tense in grammar as an inflected form of a verb indicating the time of a narrated event in relation to the time at which the narrator is speaking.

Comrie (1985:9) defines tense as grammaticalised expression of location in time. He claims that there are languages which express location in time by means of grammatical categories. He further mentions that all clear instances of tense cross-linguistically can be represented in terms of the notion of deictic centre (whether this is the present moment, as in absolute tense or some other point in time, as with relative tense); whether the event referred to is located prior to, subsequent to, or simultaneous with the deictic centre; and the distance in time at which the event referred to is located from the deictic centre.

There is a major distinction between the kinds of location in time concepts that are characteristically grammaticalized, versus those that are characteristically lexicalized. The notions that are most commonly grammaticalized across the languages of the world are simple anteriority, simultaneity, and posteriority, i.e. with the present moment as deictic centre, past, present and future. (The commonest tenses found in most languages)

In most languages, tense is indicated on the verb, either by the verb morphology or by grammatical words adjacent to the verb, as with the auxiliaries in some languages. Much traditional grammarians regard tense

as a category of the verb on the basis of its morphological attachment to the verb, more recently it has been argued that tense should be regarded as a category of the whole sentence, or in logical terms of the whole proposition, since it is the truth value of the proposition as a whole, rather than just some property of the verb, that must be matched against the state of the world at the appropriate time point. Even more recently, however, there have been suggestions that the earlier analysis, assigning tense to the verb, may be correct. The reason is that the noun phrase arguments of a verb are very often outside the scope of the tense, whereas the verb is necessarily within the scope of the tense.

Comrie (1985:13) mentions that under the tense as a sentential category analysis, the tendency for tense indicators to adhere to the verb has to be explained in terms of the verb's being head of the verb, the adherence of tense to the verb falls out without any further specification. But, occasionally tense is found expressed elsewhere or with a different domain.

Tense relates the time of the situation referred to to some other time, usually to the moment of speaking. The commonest tenses found in languages are present, past and future. The situation described in the present tense is located temporally as simultaneous with the moment of speaking (e.g. John is singing). The situation described in the past tense is located prior to the moment of speaking (e.g. John sang). And, the situation described in the future is located subsequent to the moment of speaking (e.g. John will sing). Since tense locates the time of a situation relative to the situation of the utterance, we may describe tense as deictic (But aspect is non-deictic).

### 1.7.1 Binary Tense System

Although the general theory of tense allows us a three-way distinction within absolute tense, many languages in fact have a basic two-way split, with either an opposition between past and non-past or between future and non-future.

Past versus non-past is the basic tense split in many European languages, with sub-divisions within non-past (especially future as opposed to present ) being at best secondary. The so-called present tense in such languages is frequently used for future time reference, and in some languages such as Finnish, it is the basic means of expressing future time reference. The so-called future tense has modal uses which do not require future time reference. There exist other languages where, although the present can be used with future time reference, there are severe constraints on this use of that form. English is an example of this category, since the present can be used with future time reference only under highly specific circumstances.

Comrie (1985:49) states that Hua, one of the few New Guinea languages, does seem to present an example of a language with a clear and basic tense opposition between future and non-future; while there are various sub-divisions within the future, primarily of a modal nature, all have future time reference, and thus contrast with the non-future, which never has future time reference. He further mentions that in a few languages, tense marking, or at least some tense marking, takes place in the position reserved for sentence-particles.

There are languages (mostly isolating languages, like Chinese ) where tense is not expressed anywhere in the verb or any auxiliaries, but only as adverbs of time.

The exact number of tenses in a language is often a matter of some debate. It might be so because some grammarians put clear cut demarcation lines among tense, aspect and mood, and, therefore, introduce binary tense division by limiting the tense category to verb class morphology to syntax by treating even aspects and moods as tenses which certainly increases the number of tenses in a language.

### **1.7.2 Classification of Tenses**

There are various ways of classifying tenses and, therefore, varying number of tenses. In general, tenses can be broadly classified as:

- a. Absolute; indicates time in relationship to the time of the utterance (i.e. 'now'). For example, 'I am sitting down', the tense is indicated in relation to the present moment.
- b. Relative; in relationship to some other time, other than the time of utterance, e.g. 'While strolling through the shops, she saw a nice dress in the window'. Here, the 'saw' is relative to the time of the 'strolling'. The relationship between the time of 'strolling' and the time of utterance is not clearly specified.
- c. Absolute–relative; indicates time in relationship to some other event, whose time in turn is relative to the time of utterance. Thus, in absolute-relative tense, the time of the verb is indirectly related to the time of utterance. For example, 'When I walked through the park, I saw a bird'. Here, 'saw' is present relative to the 'walked', and 'walked' is past relative to the time of the utterance, thus 'saw' is in absolute-relative tense.

Moving on from this, tenses can be quite finely distinguished from one another, although no language will express simply all of these

distinctions. Though some of these tenses in fact involve elements of modality, they are difficult to classify clearly as either tenses or moods.

Many languages define tense not just in terms of past /future/ present, but also in terms of how far into the past or future they are. Some other languages also distinguish not just between past, present and future, but also non-past, non-present, non-future. Each of these later tenses incorporates two of the former, without specifying which.

### **Some Tenses**

The webpage [http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/grammatical\\_tense](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/grammatical_tense) (February 20, 2008) presents the following tenses and sub-tenses.

- a. Absolute Tenses
  - Future tenses: some languages have different future tenses to indicate how far into the future we are talking about. Some of them are;
    - Close future tense: in the near future, soon
    - Hodiernal future tense: sometime today
    - Post-hodiernal future tense: sometime after today
    - Remote future tense: in the more distant future
    - Predictive future tense: a future tense which expresses a prediction rather than an intention.
  - Non-future tense: refers to either the present or the past, but does not clearly specify which, and contrasts with future.
  - Non-past tense: refers to either the present or the future, but does not clearly specify which, and contrasts with past.
  - Not-yet tense: has not happened in present or past (non-future), but often with the implication that it is expected to happen in the future.

As such, is both a tense and a modality. In English it is expressed with ‘not yet’, hence its name.

- Past tenses: some languages have different past tenses to indicate how far into the past we are talking about.
  - Hesternal past tense: yesterday or early, but not remote
  - Hodiernal past tense: sometime earlier today
  - Immediate past tense: very recent past tense, e.g. in the last minute or two
  - Recent past tense: in the last few days /weeks/months(exact definition varies)
  - Remote past tense: more than a few days /weeks/ months ago(exact definition varies)
  - Non-recent past tense: not recent past tense, contrasting with recent past tense
  - Non-remote past tense: not remote past tense, contrasting with remote past tense
  - Pre-hesternal past tense: before hesternal past tense
  - Pre-hodiernal past tense: before hodiernal past tense
  - Preterit: past tense not marked for aspect or modality
- Present tense
- Still tense: indicates a situation held to be the case, at or immediately before the utterance.
- b. Relative Tenses
  - Relative future tense: is in the future of some unspecified time
  - Relative non-future tense: is in the past or present of some unspecified time
  - Relative non-past tense: is in the present or future of some unspecified time
  - Relative past tense: is in the past of some unspecified time

- Relative present tense: is in the present of some unspecified time
- c. Absolute-Relative Tenses
- Future perfect tense: will have completed by sometime in the future, will occur
- Future-in-future tense: at sometime in the future, will still be in the future
- Future-in-past tense: at some time in the past, will be in the future
- Future-perfect-in-past tense: will be completed by sometime which is in the future of some time in the past
- Past perfect tense: at some time in the past, was already in the past

## 1.8 Aspect

Like various other terms or notions, aspect would have born somewhere in the world of linguistics in a certain point or say period of time in earlier historical days.

The ancient Greek grammarians had neither a term for aspect nor for tense. In the first century AD, Marcus Terentius Varro treated the opposition between completed and incompleted action, i.e. perfectum vs infectum or imperfectum, as the fundamental dichotomy in the temporal system of the Latin verb. It shows that the binary opposition between perfect and imperfect has been around at least since the time of Varro. But the terms ‘perfective and imperfective’ were coined and introduced by Bartholomaeus Kopitar to distinguish the Slavic binary opposition from the classical categories of ‘perfect and ‘imperfect’, precisely because he saw that the Slavic opposition was of a fundamentally different kind than the classical distinction. Moreover, the term ‘aspect’ was coined by Carl Philip Reiff, alias Charles Philippe Reiff. Actually, it was originated as a translation of the Russian term ВИДЪ ‘vid’

which itself originated as a straight forward translation by the monk Meletij Smotriskij or Smotrickyj of the Greek term εἶς ‘kind, type, sort’ in his grammar of Old Church Slavic in 1619... (Driem 1997:651-52)

### 1.8.1 Lexical Aspect

Wikipedia gives the following idea about lexical aspect.

The ‘aktionsart’, plural ‘aktionsarten’ or lexical aspect of a verb is a part of the way in which that verb is structured in relation to time. Any event, state, process, or action a verb expresses – collectively any eventuality- may also be said to have the same aktionsart...

Lexical aspect is a classification of verbs. Grammatical aspect is a classification of different (conjugated) forms of a single verb.

([http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/lexical\\_aspect](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/lexical_aspect) (February 20, 2008))

Perfectivity is concerned with an inherent property of all lexical verbs (predicates). One can not fully understand what grammatical aspect does to verbs without understanding first their inherent aspectuality.

Givon (2001:287-88) divides the verbs (or predicates) in the lexicon of all languages into four major groups in terms of their inherent aspectuality which are presented below.

- a. Compact (short duration ) verbs: at one extreme of the perfectivity scale one finds – verbs that depict temporally compact events of extremely short duration. Events coded by such verbs are also sharply bounded at both ends – inception and termination.
- b. Accomplishment (completion) verbs: verbs in this group code the accomplishment or completion of an event. The event itself may be of longer duration than in the case of compact verbs. But the communicative perspective here is on the event’s sharp terminal

boundary – unless duration is brought into focus by the use of a specific grammatical aspect.

- c. Activity (process) verbs: the bulk of the verbs in the lexicon of most languages seem to depict actively or process events. The event coded by such verbs may be of considerable duration, but its duration is not the focus of the communicative perspective- unless the verb is marked by a specific grammatical aspect (durative). Likewise, the coded event may in fact have initial and terminal boundaries. But the boundaries are not focused on – unless the verb is marked with a specific grammatical aspect (perfective or perfect).
- d. Stative verbs: finally, at the other extreme of the perfectivity scale, one finds stative verbs or adjectives, depicting states of relatively long duration whose initial and terminal boundaries are not focused on- unless the verb is marked by a specific grammatical aspect (perfective or perfect).

### **1.8.2 Grammatical aspect**

In the similar vein, Wikipedia presents the following idea about grammatical aspect.

Aspect, unlike tense, is not concerned with placing events on a time line. Rather, aspect is concerned with making distinctions about the kinds of actions that are described by verbs: progressive actions, punctual actions, habitual actions, etc.

([http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/grammatical\\_aspect](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/grammatical_aspect)(February 20,2008)

Comrie (1985:6) asserts that the internal temporal contour of a situation provides the conceptual basis for the notion of aspect, which refers to the grammaticalization of expression of internal temporal constituency. That is aspects are different ways of viewing the internal temporal constituency of a situation. Thus, the difference between ‘John

was singing’ and ‘john is singing’ in English is one of tense, namely a location before the present moment versus a location including the present moment; while the difference between ‘John was singing ‘ and ‘John sang’ is one of aspect.

Let us observe a sentence given below.

English: John was reading when I entered.

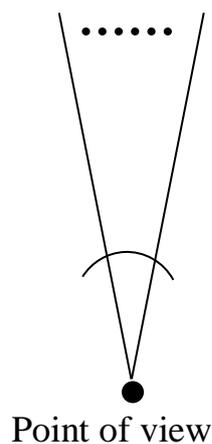
In this sentence, the verb of the matrix clause presents the background to some event, while that event itself is introduced by the second verb. The second verb presents the totality of the situation referred to (here my entry) without reference to its internal temporal constituency. The whole of the situation is presented as a single unanalyzable whole, with beginning, middle, and end rolled into one. Here no attempt is made to divide this situation up into the various individual phases that make up the action of entry. Verbal forms with this meaning will be said to have perfective meaning, and where the language in question has special verbal forms to indicate this, it is said to have perfective aspect.

The first verbs (verbs of matrix clause) which refer to the situation of John’s reading do not present the situation in this way, but rather make explicit reference to the internal temporal constituency of the situation. In particular, reference is made to an internal portion of John’s reading, while there is no explicit reference to the beginning to the end of his reading. So the sentences can be interpreted as meaning that my entry is an event that occurred during the period that John was reading, i.e. John’s reading both preceded and followed my entry. Thus the difference between perfective and imperfective meaning is to say that the perfective looks at the situation from outside, without necessarily distinguishing any of the internal structure of the situation, where as the imperfective looks at the situation from inside, and on such is crucially concerned with the

internal structure of the situation, since it can both look backwards towards the start of the situation, and look forwards to the end of the situation, and indeed is equally appropriate if the situation is one that lasts through all time, without any beginning and without any end. In this context, Givon (2001:288-89) presents a vivid picture to distinguish these two aspects. He mentions that the metaphor of photographic lenses, through which the event is viewed as an object, is most useful for explaining the contrast between the communicative perspective of the perfective and imperfective aspects. Like a zoom lens, grammatical aspects can impose varying perspectives on the very same event. He further states that using the perfective aspect is akin to observing an event from far away, thus through a narrow-angle zoom lens. The event is so far that it appears small, compact and well-bounded.

Diagram 6: Perfective lens focus

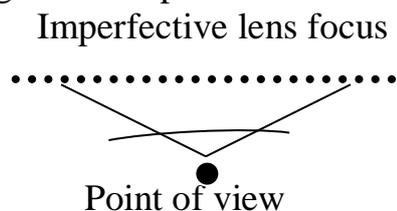
Perfective lens focus



Adapted from Givon (2001:289)

Using the imperfective aspect is akin to observing the event from nearby, through a wide-angle ('fish-eye') lens. The event is so near that its boundaries are outside the lens's field of vision. All one can see is a continuous unbounded stretch.

Diagram 7: Imperfective lens focus



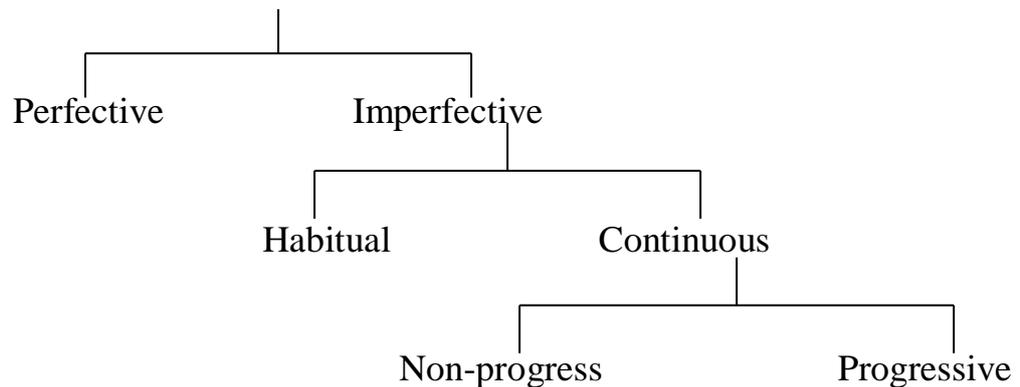
Adapted from Givon (2001:289)

In many languages that have a distinction between perfective and imperfective forms, the perfective forms of some verbs in particular of some stative verbs, can in fact be used to indicate the beginning of a situation (ingressive meaning).

Comrie (1976:75) mentions that resultative is one possible type of perfectivity, and the term 'resultative' like the term 'completed', puts unnecessary emphasis on the final stage of the situation rather than on its totality. He further writes that while many languages do have a single category to express imperfectivity, there are other languages where imperfectivity is subdivided into a number of distinct categories, and yet others where there is some category that corresponds to part only of the meaning of imperfectivity. The following classification of aspectual oppositions which reattempts the most typical subdivisions of imperfectivity.

Diagram 8: Classification of aspectual opposition

Classification of aspectual opposition



Adapted from (Comrie 1976:20)

In traditional grammars of many languages with a category covering the whole of imperfectivity, the impression is given that the general area of imperfectivity, must be subdivided into quite distinct concepts of habituality and continuousness. Thus, the imperfective form expresses either a habitual situation or a situation viewed in its duration, and the term ‘imperfective’ is glossed as ‘continuous-habitual’ or ‘durative-habitual’. But, this approach, in Comrie’s eye, fails to recognize that these various subdivisions do in fact join together to form a single unified concept irrespective of such divisions as habituality and continuousness.

In discussing perfectivity, it is possible to use perfective forms to refer to situations that have internal structure. However, imperfective forms can not be used to refer to situations lacking internal structure.

Habituality is assumed to be essentially the same as iterativity, i.e. the repetition of a situation, the successive occurrence of several instances of the given situation. But what Comrie believes is that this terminology is misleading in two senses. Firstly, the mere repetition of a

situation is not sufficient for that situation to be referred to by a specifically habitual form. If a situation is repeated a limited number of times, then all of these instances of the situation can be viewed as a single situation, albeit with internal structure, and referred to by a perfective form. Secondly, a situation can be referred to by a habitual form without there being any iterativity at all. Comrie (1976:27-28) defines habituality as the feature that is common to all habituals, 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 fact that the situation referred to is viewed not as an incidental property of the moment but, precisely, as a characteristic feature of a whole period. If the individual situation is one that can be protracted indefinitely in time, then there is no need for iterativity to be protracted, then the only reasonable interpretation will involve iterativity.

Since any situation that can be protracted sufficiently in time, or that can be iterated a sufficient number of times over a long enough period, can be expressed as habitual, it follows that habituality is in principle combinable with various other semantic aspectual values, namely those appropriate to the kind of situation that is prolonged or iterated.

Definitions of progressiveness found in some traditional grammar, along the lines of describing a situation in progress, often fail to bring out the difference between progressiveness and imperfectivity. Imperfectivity includes as a special case habituality, and a situation can be viewed as habitual without its being viewed as progressive, as with the English non-progressive habitual in ‘John used to write poems’ contrasting with the progressive ‘John used to be writing poems’. In this respect, progressiveness is similar to continuousness, which is definable as

imperfectivity that is not occasioned by habituality. As example like ‘John used to be writing poems’ shows, progressiveness is not incompatible with habituality: a given situation can be viewed both as habitual, and as progressiveness. But, just as habituality does not determine progressiveness, so equally progressiveness does not determine habituality, i.e. a situation can be viewed as progressive without being viewed as habitual. However, one might still conclude that progressiveness is the same as continuous, since continuousness is itself imperfectivity not determined by habituality. If we compare languages with special progressive forms and those without, then we find that even if we exclude sentences with habitual meaning, the range of progressiveness is still narrower than that of non-progressive forms.

The general definition of progressiveness is given as the combination of progressive meaning and non-stative meaning.

It is evident to talk about aspect and perfect together. As already has been said, aspect is concerned with different ways of representing the internal temporal constitution of a situation. The perfect is rather different from these aspects, since it tells nothing directly about the situation in itself, but rather relates some state to a preceding situation. More generally, the perfect indicates the continuing present relevance of a past situation. The difference between the perfect and the other aspect has led many linguists to doubt whether the perfect should be considered an aspect at all.

One way in which the perfect differs from the other aspects that we have examined is that it expresses a relation between two time-points, on the one hand the time of the state resulting from a prior situation, and on the other the time of that prior situation.

The present perfect (often simply called the perfect ) is one of the possible tenses of the perfect aspect that express a relation between present state and past situation. In other tenses we find a past perfect (pluperfect) expressing a relation between a past state and an even earlier situation ; and a future perfect expressing a relation between a future state and a situation prior to it.

So far as talking about the types of perfect, Comrie(1976:56-61) presents four types: the perfect of result, the experiential perfect, the perfect of persistent situation, and the perfect of recent past.

The perfect is retrospective, in that it establishes a relation between a state at one time and a situation at an earlier time. If languages were completely symmetrical, one might equally well expect to find prospective terms, where a state is related to some subsequent situation, for instance, where someone is in a state of being about to something.

Some languages have means of giving overt expression to prospective meaning, though in some languages it is difficult to find exact equivalent without going into long periphrasis. As already said, languages are not in fact symmetrical about the axis of present time, so that it should not be surprising that there is no direct correspondence between forms with perfect meaning and forms with prospective meaning.

Typical English expression of prospective meaning are the construction ‘to be going to’, ‘to be about to’, to be on the point of’, as in the ship is about to sail, the ship is on the point of sailing – both of which describe the ship’s present state relative to some future event, with these construction an imminently future event – and ‘the ship is going to sail’, where there is again a present state related to a future event, but here

without any implication of imminently futurity. There is important difference between the expression of prospective meaning and expressions of straight future time reference.

The webpage [http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/grammatical\\_aspect](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/grammatical_aspect) (June 29, 2008) lists various aspects with English examples which are given below.

- Perfective (aorist, simple): 'I struck the bell.' (single action)
- Perfect (sometimes confusingly called "perfective"): 'I have arrived at the cinema.' (hence, I am now in the cinema)
- Progressive (continuous): 'I am eating.' (action is in progress)
- Habitual: 'I walk home from work.' (everyday)  
'I would walk [OR: used to walk] home from work.' (past habit)
- Imperfective (either progressive or habitual): 'I am walking to work' (progressive) or 'I walk to work every day' (habitual).
- Prospective: 'I am about to eat' OR 'I am going to eat.'
- Recent Perfect or After Perfect: 'I just ate' OR: 'I am after eating.'
- Inceptive: 'I am beginning to eat.'
- Inchoative (not clearly distinguished from prospective): 'The apples are about to ripen.'
- Continuative: 'I am still eating.'
- Terminative: 'I am finishing my meal.'
- Conative: 'I am trying to eat.'
- Cessative: 'I am quitting smoking.'
- Defective: 'I almost fell.'
- Pausative: 'I stopped working for a while.'
- Resumptive: 'I resumed sleeping.'
- Punctual: 'I slept.'
- Durative: 'I slept for an hour.'

- Delimitative: 'I slept for a while.'
- Protractive: 'The argument went on and on.'
- Iterative: 'I read the same books again and again.'
- Frequentative: 'It sparkled', contrasted with 'It sparked'. Or, 'I run around', vs. 'I run'.
- Experiential: 'I have gone to schools many times.'
- Intentional: 'I listened carefully.'
- Accidental: 'I knocked over the chair.'
- Generic: 'Mangoes grow on trees.'
- Intensive: 'It glared.'
- Moderative: 'It shone.'
- Attenuative: 'It glimmered.'
- Semelfactive (momentane): 'The mouse squeaked once.'  
(contrasted to 'The mouse squeaked/ was squeaking'.)

Thus, the actual number of aspect in a language differs according to the level of the language from which we see it. And, one aspect expressed morphologically in one language may be expressed in another way, i.e. morpho-syntactically or syntactically alone.

## **1.9 Mood**

The terms mood, mode and modality are often used interchangeably, though some linguists make distinctions among them. Mode, in general, refers to the speaker's attitude toward a situation. Payne (1997:244) states that mode describes the speaker's attitude toward a situation, including the speaker's belief in its reality, or likelihood. It sometimes describes the speaker's estimation of the relevance of the situation to him / herself. The highest-level distinction in modal operations is between realis and irrealis, though like most conceptual distinctions these terms describe a continuum. A prototypical realis mode

strongly asserts that a specific event or state of affairs has actually happened, or actually holds true. A prototypical irrealis mode makes no such assertion whatsoever. Irrealis mode does not necessarily assert that an event did not take place or will not take place. It simply makes no claims with respect to the actuality of the event or situation described.

The distinction between grammatical tense, aspect and mood is fuzzy and at times controversial. For example, English continuous temporal constructions express an aspect as well as tense, and some therefore consider that aspect to be separate from tense in English. Going even further, there's an ongoing dispute among modern English grammarians regarding whether tense can only refer to inflected forms. One school contends that all complex or periphrastic time-formations are aspects rather than tenses.

### **1.10 Review of the Related Literature**

There are some linguistic comparative research works on different issues on different languages such as Nepali, Limbu, Gurung, Rai, Newari, Maithili, etc. in the departments of English education and linguistics, T.U. Not a single research work has yet solely been carried out in tense-aspect system in the Chhathare Limbu language. However, there are some works done in other languages related to this topic which are given below.

Yadava(1980) worked on "Time, Tense and Aspect in English and Maithili". He found that the main areas of difficulty while learning English tenses are created chiefly by the learner's mother tongue, faulty learning strategies and faulty teaching methods and materials.

Dahal (1997) carried out his research on “A Study on Proficiency in the Use of Present Perfect and Past Perfect Tenses by Nine Graders.” The objectives of his study was to analyze the free writing of the ninth graders in terms of the use of tense and aspect, and to identify errors committed by them. He found that nearly 20 percent sentences out of total were found to be erroneous in tense and aspect. Thus, he worked in only one aspect that is perfect and his observation is primarily oriented to the practical dimension of perfect aspect rather than theoretical dimension.

Khatri(2000) also completed his research work entitled ‘Aspect System in English and Nepali; A Comparative Study’, and the objective of his study was to identify the aspects in English and Nepali languages, and to compare and find out the similarities and differences between English and Nepali aspect system. One of his findings was that English has three aspectual categories whereas Nepali has five aspectual categories grammatically. Here, he widened the area of research in aspects in comparison to that of Dahal.

Paneru (2001) studied on ‘ A comparative Study of the Present Perfect and Simple Past Tense in English and Nepali’, and the objective of the study was to show the comparison between the present perfect and the simple past tenses in English and Nepali. His main finding is that the Nepalese students perform better in the use of past tense than the perfect one in English, and false concept hypothesized, pen slip and haste were found to increase the number of mistakes committed by the Nepalese students. Thus, he also primarily worked on practical field rather than on theoretical grounding.

Regmi(2004) worked on “A Study on the Effectiveness of Group Work Techniques in Teaching English Tenses.” The objective of the study was to find out the effectiveness of group work technique Vs Explanation technique in teaching the present tense. He found that the group work technique was relatively more effective and successful than explanation technique for teaching English tense. Thus, he did his research on the application level of tense rather than theory.

Ray (2005) completed his thesis on ‘Tense-Aspect System in English and Bhojpuri ; A Contrastive Study’, and the objectives of the study were: to compare the tense aspect system between these two languages; and, to find out their similarities and differences. One of his findings was that the Bhojpuri tense-aspect was a bit easier than English tense aspect for the students who were the native speakers of Bhojpuri. Here, the researcher perhaps forget his major objective of comparing the theoretical systems of tense and aspect. Therefore, like almost others mentioned above, he only talks about application level of tense-aspect system. Though he worked on the practical level, his study area is wider than others mentioned above.

Thus, due to the sufficient research materials already carried out by the scholars on the respective languages, the researchers given above might have grounded their study primarily on the practical dimension, but Limbu lacks such works. So, the researcher primarily directs his study on the theoretical footing of tense-aspect system in Limbu.

### **1.11 Objectives of the Study**

The objectives of the study are:

- a. to determine tense-aspect system in Limbu;
- b. to compare the tense-aspect system in English and Limbu, and find out their similarities and differences;
- c. to suggest some pedagogical implications.

### **1.12 Significance of the Study**

The study will be useful:

- a. to the Limbu learners of English;
- b. to the language researchers, syllabus designers, textbook writers and language teachers in Limbu;
- c. to provide feedback to the related language teachers and learners by exploring the relevance of tense-aspect system to language teaching.

## **CHAPTER TWO**

### **METHODOLOGY**

For the present study, the researcher adopted the following methodology.

#### **2.1 Sources of Data**

The researcher used the following primary and secondary sources for this study.

##### **2.1.1 Primary Sources**

The Limbu native speakers (of Chhathare dialect ) of Hattikharka VDC of Dhankuta district were the primary source of data.

##### **2.1.2 Secondary Sources**

The following books and journals were consulted as major secondary source.

Comrie (1976), Comrie (1985), O’Grady(1997), Givon (2001), Payne (1997), Driem (1987), Internet (The webpage <http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/>...).

#### **2.2 Tools for Data Collection**

A structured interview schedule was the main tool of collecting data for this study. Sixty English sentences with their Nepali translation were designed to translate into the Limbu language. Especially each and every sentences were collected to reflect tenses and aspects. Similarly, these all sixty items were for each individual of the study population.

### **2.3 Sampling Procedure**

The total population of this study were Limbu native speakers of Chhathare Limbu above fifteen years of age. The total population was divided into three groups as illiterate, literate and educated. The group of native speakers who were unable to read and write the Limbu and Nepali languages was considered as illiterate, the group of speakers who had academic qualification below SLC was taken as literate, and the group of people with academic qualification of SLC or above it was considered as educated. Each stratum consisted of twenty native speakers of the Chhathare Limbu language. The stratified random sampling procedure was used to sample the population.

### **2.4 Process of Data Collection**

The researcher himself visited the Hattikharka VDC of Dhankuta district. He visited the houses of the native speakers, randomly selected the language teachers and established a good rapport with the selected ones. Then, he took interview and recorded them on a tape recorder. Later, he transcribed them by following paper and pen technique.

### **2.5. Limitation of the Study**

- a. Present study was bounded within the perimeter of tense-aspect system of the Chhathare Limbu.
- b. The study was based on the binary tense system.
- c. The study was limited to the verbal morphology for tense.
- d. The study was primarily based on the verb types classed under the transitivity.
- e. The study was limited to the morpho-syntactic area for aspect.
- f. Since Chhathare Limbu has sub-dialects, it dealt with only the dialect spoken in Hattikharka VDC of Dhankuta district.

## **CHAPTER THREE**

### **ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION**

This chapter deals with the analysis and interpretation of the collected data descriptively.

#### **3.1 Tense and Aspect System in English**

##### **3.1.1 Tense System in English**

If tense is put within the boundary of morphology, English is said to have only two tenses: past and non-past, the former indicated by ‘-ed’ and the latter by ‘Ø’ inflection on the finite verbs. The same fact is written on the page of the wikipedia as below.

Viewed in the strictest linguistic sense, English has only two tenses, marked in the verb alone: non-past tense (present tense) and past tense. They are shown by the verb endings -  $\emptyset$  and -ed. ... Some linguists consider ‘will’ a future marker and give English two more tenses, future tense and future-in-past tense, which are shown by ‘will’ and ‘would’ respectively. Also, in nonlinguistic language study, aspects and mode are viewed as tenses (<http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/tense...>February 22, 2008).

##### **3.1.2 Aspect System in English**

So far as the aspect system is concerned, English seems to consist of two aspectual oppositions.

English has two aspectual oppositions that pervade the whole of the verbal system, that between progressive (verb ‘ to be’ and verbal form in -ing ) and non-progressive, and that between perfect (verb ‘ to have’ and past participle ) and non-perfect. With

non-stative verbs the difference between progressive and non-progressive is in general that between progressive and non-progressive meaning. However, this formal opposition is also found with stative verbs, in English, as opposed to many other languages with a similar opposition, and here the meaning distinction is usually that between a temporally restricted state (progressive) and a temporally unrestricted state (non-progressive). The difference between perfect and non-perfect is that between perfect and non-perfect meaning, although the pluperfect and future perfect can also indicate relative time reference. In addition, in the past tense only, English has a separate habitual, using the auxiliary ‘used to’; this form is replaced by the non-habitual equivalent, i.e. the non-habitual does not exclude habitual meaning (Comrie 1985:124).

Leech (1971: 14-29) asserts that the finite verb forms in English exhibit the following aspectual oppositions in the indicative mode.

- |                |                 |
|----------------|-----------------|
| a) Aspect      | perfect         |
|                | Non-perfect     |
| b) Non-perfect | Progressive     |
|                | Non-progressive |
| c) Perfect     | Progressive     |
|                | Non-progressive |

If we follow Leech, his aspectual oppositions, given above, clearly images the different forms of aspects (some alone, other in combination with tenses or aspects themselves) existed in English. Thus, the combination of non-perfect-non-progressive indirectly mirrors the **simple aspect** (V+present /past/future); the combination of non-perfect plus progressive gives **progressive aspect (be+tense+V-ing)**; that of perfect

and non-progressive yields **perfect aspect** (have+tense+V-en); and of perfect with progressive gives **perfect progressive** (have+tense be+-en+V-ing) aspect in English.

Examples:

- |                                |   |                             |
|--------------------------------|---|-----------------------------|
| - Sita dreams.                 | } | Simple aspects              |
| - Sita dreamt.                 |   |                             |
| - Sita will dream.             |   |                             |
| - Sita is reading.             | } | Progressive aspects         |
| - Sita was reading.            |   |                             |
| - Sita will be reading.        |   |                             |
| - Sita has written.            | } | Perfect aspects             |
| - Sita had written.            |   |                             |
| - Sita will have written.      |   |                             |
| - Sita has been writing.       | } | Perfect progressive aspects |
| - Sita had been writing.       |   |                             |
| - Sita will have been writing. |   |                             |

### 3.2.1.1 Types of Perfect in English

As already has been said, perfect continues relevancy of a previous situation. This general property of perfect appears in some more specific manifestations. Comrie (1985:56) states that not all languages that have forms with perfect meaning have the full range of the meanings listed below while in some languages there are distinct forms for some of these meanings. Comrie (1976:58-60) further gives the following types of perfect in English.

➤ Perfect of result

In this type of perfect, a present state is referred to as being the result of some past situation – one of the clearest manifestations of the present relevance of a past situation.

Examples,

- John has arrived.
- I have had a bath.

➤ Experiential perfect

The experiential perfect indicates that a given situation has held at least once during sometime in the past leading up to the present.

Example,

- Bill has been to America.

➤ Perfect of persistent situation

One use of the English perfect, indeed one that seems to be characteristic of English, is the use of the perfect to describe a situation that started in the past but continues (persists) into the present.

Examples,

- We've lived here for ten years.
- I've shopped there for years.

➤ Perfect of recent past

In many languages, the perfect may be used where the present relevance of the past situation referred to is simply one of temporal closeness, i.e. the past situation is very recent.

Examples,

- I have recently learned that the match is to be postponed.
- Neera has just (in this minute) arrived.

### 3.2.1.2 Prospective Aspect in English

The perfect is said to be retrospective in that it establishes a relation between a state at one time and a situation at an earlier time.

If languages were completely symmetrical, one might equally well expect to find prospective forms, where a state of being about to do something. Many languages do have means of giving overt expression to prospective meaning, though in some language it is difficult to find exact equivalents without going into long periphrasis....Typical English expression of prospective meaning are the construction to be going to, to be about to, to be on the point of, as in the ship is about to sail, the ship is on the point of sailing... (Comrie 1985:64).

### 3.1.2.3 Habitual Aspect in English

English codes the habitual aspect periphrastically, i.e. using the modal 'used to'.

Example,

- I used to smoke during my teens.

Thus, the following chart shows how T/A (Tense/Aspect) is expressed in English.

Table 3: Tense-Aspect system in English

Tense	Aspect		Verb
	Perfect	Progressive	
-∅(non-past)	∅(none)	∅ (none)	do
-ed(past)	have -en(perfect)	be-ing(progressive)	

Adapted from(<http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/...February 22, 2008>)

## 3.2 Tense and Aspect System in Limbu

### 3.2.1 Tense System in Limbu

There are two kinds of tense- past and non-past in Limbu. They are morphologically marked in a finite verb. The past is marked by the suffix <-A> and non-past is unmarked. When the past tense morpheme occurs before the vocalic suffix such as third person object <-v> or plural non-third person object morpheme or plural subject morpheme <-I>, it is neutralized and past and non-past of the verb forms become identical in their phonetic shape (Tumbahang 2007:259).

Although Tumbahang proposed two tenses in Limbu as past and non-past, there is a big question which remains unsolved if we observe the whole area of verbal morphology. It is so because if we see thoroughly the inflected forms for tenses in Limbu, we find only the intransitive verbs and the verbs occurring before the second and first person transitive objects inflected for tense, and all other verbs in other position uninflected for it.

In many Kirati languages, there is a binary tense distinction in the simplex verb forms, whilst periphrastic forms are used to form more tenses. I have always used the term ‘preterite’ and ‘non-preterite’ as labels for such tenses in Kirati languages because these traditional terms can be taken to suggest a distinction between a realized and non-realized event or perception. I have avoided the terms ‘past’ and ‘non-past’(Driem 1957: 657-58).

Thus, Driem introduced ‘preterite’ and ‘non-preterite’ tenses in all Kirati languages including Limbu to distinguish between a realized and non-realized event or perception, but non-realized events or perception

can also be found in preterite tenses in Limbu when the verbs denoting such events or perception occur before the 1<sup>st</sup> and 2<sup>nd</sup> person (singular/plural) object positions. So I am in dilemma to which I should follow. I think it is better to side with Tumbahang though he does not observe the whole area of inflectional morphology of verbs.

Examples,

### 3.2.1.1 In Past

- α. A/AγA πΘNσI-o φΘ)βοκ τΣυγ-O-υ-N  
 1<sup>st</sup>sg /NOM field /LOC work do PST 3<sup>rd</sup>OBJpron  
 1<sup>st</sup>sgSUBpron  
 I worked in the field.
- β. κHove β↔σ λοκσ-O-υ  
 3<sup>rd</sup>sg /NOM bus drive PST 3<sup>rd</sup>OBJpron  
 He drove a bus.
- χ. ν↔ρσ-γHA-NA) σιδΑβΑΝΔΑ πΑΝ-ο κΑΔυκπΑ-γHA ο-μ↔-  
 μεττ-O-υ-σI  
 nurse pl ERG hospital house/ LOC patient pl Look after pl  
 Ifx/DIRM/3<sup>rd</sup>plSUBpron Look after PST 3<sup>rd</sup>OBJpron 3<sup>rd</sup>plOBJpron  
 Nurses looked after patients in hospital.
- δ. ρΑμ-NA) φορIk μυσοκ-γHA σΑπ-O-υ-σι  
 Ram ERG many story pl write PST 3<sup>rd</sup>OBJpron 3<sup>rd</sup>plOBJpron  
 Ram wrote many stories.
- ε. τΣΑIνIζ-γHA-NA) πρIντIN μυ-ζυγ-O-υ  
 Chinese pl ERG printing pl Pfx/DIRM make PST 3<sup>rd</sup>OBJpron  
 Chinese made printing.
- φ. A/AγA ρΑμ-μIN φον τΣυγ-O-υ-N  
 1<sup>st</sup>sg/NOM Ram /DAT phone do PST 3<sup>rd</sup>OBJpron 1<sup>st</sup>sgSUBpron  
 I phoned to Ram.
- γ. Σφυ-NA) λ↔τHIκ κΑρ IN-O-υ  
 Sue ERG one car buy PST 3<sup>rd</sup>OBJpron  
 Sue bought a car.

- η. τομ-NA) τ6IμIk μAρ-O-υ  
Tom ERG key lose PST 3<sup>rd</sup>OBJpron  
Tom lost a key.
- ι. η↔ρI-NA) κοκ κυφ -O-υ  
Hari ERG luggage carry PST 3<sup>rd</sup>OBJpron  
Hari carried luggage.
- φ. εν ζ↔ρμ↔ν πAv πA-τ5-A  
Ann Zerman language speak Ins PST  
Ann spoke Zerman.
- κ. ↔νυ Iπ-σ-A  
Anu sleep Ins PST  
Anu slept.
- λ. σAvυ Iτ5 - τ5-A  
Sanu laugh Ins PST  
Sanu laughed.
- μ. σA)ε) σI-φ-A  
Buffalo die Ins PST  
Buffalo died.
- ν. vAvI λοκ-κ-A  
Child run Ins PST  
Child ran.
- ο. πυ πε-φ -A  
Bird fly Ins PST  
Bird flew.
- π. ↔ρυνA σAμ λο-φ -A  
Aruna song sing Ins PST  
Aruna sang a song.
- θ. ωAηI/ TA-η-A  
rain fall Ins PST  
It rained.
- ρ. vA/μI κε-ρ-A  
man come(upward) Ins PST  
A man came.
- σ. vAμ πIv-Δ-A  
sun rise Ins PST

The sun rose.

- τ. Α-κκο-NA) Α-οκ-Α-Ν  
1<sup>st</sup>sg/POSS uncle ERG DIRM cry PST 1<sup>st</sup>sgOBJpron  
My uncle cried me.
- υ. μΑμμΑ-NA) ΑvI Α-ζΑ)-Δ-Α  
mother ERG 1<sup>st</sup>pl/ACC DIRM beat Ins PST  
Mother bit us.
- ϖ. κΗΘβΑ-NA) ΑντΣΗ I Α-σε-ρ-Α-τΣΗ I  
tiger ERG 1<sup>st</sup>pl(Excl)/ACC DIRM kill Ins PST  
1<sup>st</sup>plOBJpron(Excl)  
A tiger killed us (two).
- ω. ↔vυπ-NA) ΑvI λ↔τΗικ ρεδιο Α-βI-φ-Α  
Anup ERG 1<sup>st</sup>pl(Incl)/ACC one radio DIRM give Ins PST  
Anup gave us a radio.
- ξ. κοτΣυ-NA) Α/ΑγΑ Α-vΑ)- τ̣-Α-Ν  
dog ERG 1<sup>st</sup>sg/ACC DIRM chase Ins PST 1<sup>st</sup>sgOBJpron  
A dog chased me.
- ψ. κΗενε Α/ΑγΑ κΑ-ηυ-ρ-Α-Ν  
2<sup>nd</sup>sg/NOM 1<sup>st</sup>sg/DAT DIRM teach Ins PST 1<sup>st</sup>sgOBJpron  
You taught me.
- ζ. σΑvυ-NA) κΗενε κΑ-ηομ-Δ-Α  
sanu ERG 2<sup>nd</sup>sg/DAT DIRM disturb Ins PST  
Sanu disturbed you.
- αα. κοτΣυ-NA) κΗενε κΑ-ηΑ-ρ-Α  
dog ERG 2<sup>nd</sup>sg/ACC DIRM bite Ins PST  
A dog bit you.
- αβ. γορυ-NA) κΗενε κΑ-ΔΗο-Ν-Α  
ox ERG 2<sup>nd</sup>sg/ACC DIRM horn 2<sup>nd</sup>sgOBJpron PST  
An ox horn you.

αχ. κΗυνζΙ-γΗΑ-ΝΑ) κΗενε κΑ-ν-λοπ-σ-Α  
 3<sup>rd</sup>(Incl) pl ERG 2<sup>nd</sup>sg/ACC DIRM 3<sup>rd</sup>plSUBpron beat Ins PST  
 They bit you.

These examples in Limbu clearly mirror the fact that the transitive verbs in it do not inflect for tense. But when the object position of a sentence is occupied by the 1st person and/or 2nd person (singular or plural) pronouns, then the same verb inflect for tense. Similarly, these verbs inflect for past tense when the subject pronouns are dual. On the other hand, the intransitive verbs always inflect for tense in Limbu.

### 3.2.1.2 In Non-Past

#### i) Present

α. Α/ΑγΑ πΘΝσΙ-ο φΘ)βοκ τΣυγ-Ο-υ-Ν  
 1<sup>st</sup>sg/NOM field/LOC work do Pres 3<sup>rd</sup>OBJpron 1<sup>st</sup>sgSUBpron  
 I work in the field.

β. κΗονε β↔σ λοκσ-Ο-υ  
 3<sup>rd</sup>sg/NOM bus drive Pres 3<sup>rd</sup>OBJpron  
 He drives a bus.

χ. ν↔ρσ-γΗΑ-ΝΑ) σιδΑβΑΝΔΑ πΑΝ-ο κΑΔυκπΑ-γΗΑ ο-μ↔-  
 μεττ-Ο-υ-σΙ  
 nurse pl ERG hospital house/LOC patient pl Look after  
 DIRM look after Pres 3<sup>rd</sup>OBJpron 3<sup>rd</sup>plOBJpron  
 Nurses look after patients in hospital.

δ. ρΑμ-ΝΑ) φορΙκ μυσοκ-γΗΑ σΑπ-Ο-υ-σΙ  
 Ram ERG many story pl write Pres 3<sup>rd</sup>OBJpron  
 3<sup>rd</sup>plOBJpron  
 Ram writes many stories.

ε. τΣΑΙνΙζ-γΗΑ-ΝΑ) πρΙντΙΝ μν-ζυγ-Ο-υ  
 Chinese pl ERG printing DIRM make Pres 3<sup>rd</sup>OBJpron  
 Chinese make printing.

φ. Α/ΑγΑ ρΑμ-μΙΝ φον τΣυγ-Ο-υ-Ν  
 1<sup>st</sup>sg/NOM Ram/DAT phone do Pres 3<sup>rd</sup>OBJpron 1<sup>st</sup>sgSUBpron  
 I phone to Ram.

- γ. Σφυ-NA) λ↔τΗικ κΑρ IN-O-υ  
Sue ERG one car buy Pres 3rd sg OBJ pron.  
Sue buys a car.
- η. τομ-NA) τ̣Ιμικ μΑρ-O-υ  
Tom ERG key lose Pres 3<sup>rd</sup>OBJpron  
Tom loses a key.
- ι. η↔ρΙ-NA) κοκ κυ-φ-O-υ  
Hari ERG luggage carry Ins Pres 3<sup>rd</sup>OBJpron  
Hari carries luggage.
- φ. εν ζ↔ρμ↔ν πΑν πα/-O  
Ann Zerman language speak Pres  
Ann speaks Zerman.
- κ. ↔νυ Ιμ-O  
Anu sleep Pres  
Anu sleeps.
- λ. σΑνυ Ι/ -O  
Sanu laugh Pres  
Sanu laughs.
- μ. σΑ)ε) σΙ/-O  
Buffalo die Pres  
Buffalo dies.
- ν. νΑνΙ λοκ -O  
Child run Pres  
A child runs.
- ο. πυ πε/-O  
Bird fly Pres  
A bird flies.
- π. ↔ρυνΑ σΑμ λο/ -O  
Aruna song sing Pres  
Aruna sings a song.

- θ. ωΑηΙ/ ΤΑ/ -Ο  
rain fall Pres  
It rains.
- ρ. νΑ/μΙ κε/ -Ο  
man come (upward) Pres  
A man comes.
- σ. νΑμ πΙν -Ο  
sun rise Pres  
The sun rises.
- τ. Α-κκο-ΝΑ) Α-οκ-Ο-Ν-Α  
1<sup>st</sup>sgPOSS uncle ERG DIRM cry Pres 1<sup>st</sup>OBJpron 1<sup>st</sup>sgOBJpron  
My uncle cries me.
- υ. μΑμΑ-ΝΑ) ΑνΙ Α-ζΑ) -Ο- Δ-Ι  
mother ERG 1<sup>st</sup>pl(Incl)/ACC DIRM beat Pres Ins 1<sup>st</sup>plOBJpron  
Mother beats us.
- ϖ. κΗΘβΑ-ΝΑ) ΑντΣΗ Ι Α-σετΣ-Ο-τΣΗΙ  
tiger ERG 1<sup>st</sup>pl(Excl)/ACC DIRM kill Pres 1<sup>st</sup>pl(Excl)OBJpron  
A tiger kills us (two).
- ω. ↔νυπ-ΝΑ) ΑνΙ λ↔τΗΙκ ρεδΙο Α-βΙ-Ο  
Anup ERG 1<sup>st</sup>pl(Incl)/BEN one radio DIRM give Pres  
Anup gives us a radio.
- ξ. κοτΣυ-ΝΑ) Α/ ΑγΑ Α-νΑ)/-Ο-ν-Α  
dog ERG 1<sup>st</sup>sg/ACC DIRM chase Pres 1<sup>st</sup>sgOBJpron 3<sup>rd</sup>OBJ pron  
A dog chases me.
- ψ. κΗενε Α/ ΑγΑ κΑ-ηυ-Ο-Ν -Α)  
2<sup>nd</sup>sg/NOM 1<sup>st</sup>sg/DAT DIRM teach Pres 1<sup>st</sup>sgOBJpron 2<sup>rd</sup>OBJpron  
You teach me. ζ. σΑνυ-ΝΑ) κΗενε κΑ-ηομ-Ο  
Sanu ERG 2<sup>nd</sup>sg/DAT DIRM disturb Pres  
Sanu disturbs you.
- αα. κοτΣυ-ΝΑ) κΗενε κΑ-ηΑ-Ο  
dog ERG 2<sup>nd</sup>sg/DAT DIRM bite Pres  
A dog bites you.
- αβ. γορυ-ΝΑ) κΗενε κΑ-ΔΗο-Ο-Ν  
ox ERG 2<sup>nd</sup>sg/DAT DIRM horn Pres 2<sup>nd</sup>sgOBJpron

An ox horns you.

- αχ. κΗυνζΙ-γΗΑ-ΝΑ) κΗενε κΑ-ν-λομ-Ο  
3<sup>rd</sup>pl(Incl)pl ERG 2<sup>nd</sup>sg/DAT DIRM 3<sup>rd</sup>pl(Incl)SUBpron beat Pres  
They beat you.

Thus, like most others, the present tense is indicated by the root or base form of the verbs, whether transitive or intransitive, in the Limbu language.

## ii) Future

- α. Α/ΑγΑ πΘΝσΙ-ο φΘ)βοκ τΣυγ-Ο-υ-Ν  
1<sup>st</sup>sg/NOM field/LOC work do Fut 3<sup>rd</sup>OBJpron 1<sup>st</sup>sgSUBpron  
I will work in the field.
- β. κΗονε β↔σ λοκσ-Ο-υ  
3<sup>rd</sup>sg/NOM bus drive Fut 3<sup>rd</sup>OBJpron  
He will drive a bus.
- χ. ν↔ρσ-γΗΑ-ΝΑ) σιδΑβΑΝΔΑ πΑΝ-ο κΑΔυκπΑ-γΗΑ ο-μ↔-  
μεττ-Ο-υ-σΙ  
nurse pl ERG hospital house/LOC patient pl Look after  
DIRM look after Fut 3<sup>rd</sup>OBJpron 3<sup>rd</sup>plOBJpron  
Nurses will look after patients in hospital.
- δ. ρΑμ-ΝΑ) φορΙκ μυσοκ-γΗΑ σΑπ-Ο-υ-σΙ  
Ram ERG many story pl write Fut 3<sup>rd</sup>OBJpron 3<sup>rd</sup>plOBJpron  
Ram will write many stories.
- ε. τΣΑΙνΙζ-γΗΑ-ΝΑ) πρΙντΙΝ μυ-ζυγ-Ο-υ  
Chinese pl ERG printing DIRM make Fut 3<sup>rd</sup>OBJpron  
Chinese will make printing.
- φ. Α/ΑγΑ ρΑμ-μΙΝ φον τΣυγ-Ο-υ-Ν  
1<sup>st</sup>sg/NOM Ram/DAT phone do Fut 3<sup>rd</sup>OBJpron 1<sup>st</sup>sgSUBpron  
I will phone to Ram.
- γ. Σφυ-ΝΑ) λ↔τΗΙκ κΑρ ΙΝ-Ο-υ  
Sue ERG one car buy Fut 3<sup>rd</sup>sg OBJ pron.  
Sue will buy a car.
- η. τομ-ΝΑ) τ̣Ιμκ μΑρ-Ο-υ  
Tom ERG key lose Fut 3<sup>rd</sup>OBJpron  
Tom will lose a key.

- ι. η↔ρΙ-ΝΑ) κοκ κυ-φ-Ο-υ  
 Hari ERG luggage carry Ins Fut 3<sup>rd</sup>OBJpron  
 Hari will carry luggage.
- φ. εν ζ↔ρμ↔ν πΑν πα/-Ο  
 Ann Zerman language speak Fut  
 Ann will speak Zerman.
- κ. ↔νυ Ιμ-Ο  
 Anu sleep Fut  
 Anu will sleep.
- λ. σΑνυ Ι/ -Ο  
 Sanu laugh Fut  
 Sanu will laugh.
- μ. σΑ)ε) σΙ/-Ο  
 Buffalo die Fut  
 Buffalo will die.
- ν. νΑνΙ λοκ -Ο  
 Child run Fut  
 A child will run.
- ο. πυ πε/-Ο  
 Bird fly Fut  
 A bird will fly.
- π. ↔ρυνΑ σΑμ λο/ -Ο  
 Aruna song sing Fut  
 Aruna will sing a song.
- θ. ωΑηΙ/ ΤΑ/ -Ο  
 rain fall Fut  
 It will rain.
- ρ. νΑ/μΙ κε/ -Ο  
 man come (upward) Fut  
 A man will come.
- σ. νΑμ πΙν -Ο  
 sun rise Fut  
 The sun will rise.
- τ. Α-κκο-ΝΑ) Α-οκ-Ο-Ν-Α  
 1<sup>st</sup>sgPOSS uncle ERG DIRM cry Fut 1<sup>st</sup>OBJpron 1<sup>st</sup>sgOBJpron

My uncle will cry me.

- υ. μΑμΑ-NA) AvI A-ζΑ) -O- Δ-I  
mother ERG 1<sup>st</sup>pl(Incl)/ACC DIRM beat Fut Ins 1<sup>st</sup>plOBJpron  
Mother will beat us.
- ϖ. κΗΘβΑ-NA) AvτΣΗ I A-σετΣ-O-τΣΗ I  
tiger ERG 1<sup>st</sup>pl(Excl)/ACC DIRM kill Fut 1<sup>st</sup>pl(Excl)OBJpron  
A tiger will kill us (two).
- ω. ↔vυπ-NA) AvI λ↔τΗικ ρεδιο A-βI-O  
Anup ERG 1<sup>st</sup>pl(Incl)/BEN one radio DIRM give Fut  
Anup will give us a radio.
- ξ. κoτΣυ-NA) A/ AγΑ A-vΑ)/-O-v-A  
dog ERG 1<sup>st</sup>sg/ACC DIRM chase Fut 1<sup>st</sup>sgOBJpron 3<sup>rd</sup>OBJ pron  
A dog will chase me.
- ψ. κΗενε A/ AγΑ κΑ-ηυ-O-N -A)  
2<sup>nd</sup>sg/NOM 1<sup>st</sup>sg/DAT DIRM teach Fut 1<sup>st</sup>sgOBJpron  
2<sup>rd</sup>OBJpron  
You will teach me.
- ζ. σΑvυ-NA) κΗενε κΑ-ηομ-O  
Sanu ERG 2<sup>nd</sup>sg/DAT DIRM disturb Fut  
Sanu will disturb you.
- αα. κoτΣυ-NA) κΗενε κΑ-ηΑ-O  
dog ERG 2<sup>nd</sup>sg/DAT DIRM bite Fut  
A dog will bite you.

αβ. γορυ-NA) κΗενε κΑ-ΔΗο-Ο-Ν  
 ox ERG 2<sup>nd</sup>sg/DAT DIRM horn Fut 2<sup>nd</sup>sgOBJpron  
 An ox will horn you.

αχ. κΗυνζΙ-γΗΑ-ΝΑ) κΗενε κΑ-ν-λομ-Ο  
 3<sup>rd</sup>pl(Incl)pl ERG 2<sup>nd</sup>sg/DAT DIRM 3<sup>rd</sup>pl(Incl)SUBpron beat Fut  
 They will beat you.

Thus, what is found to have been reflected in the given sentences in past and non-past tenses (past, present and future) is that verbs in both present and future tenses generally remain uninflected in the Limbu language. Similarly, the transitive or ditransitive verbs do not inflect for past tense in Limbu except when these verbs as in 't' to 'ac" occur with the first and second person pronoun objects. That is the intransitive verbs inflect for the past tense in Limbu, and transitive and/or ditransitive verbs also inflect for the past tense when the first and second person pronouns are in object positions. In the similar vein, both transitive and intransitive verbs inflect for the past tense when the subject pronouns are dual. And as the example sentences show above the past marker in Limbu is {-A} and non-past is {-O}.

### 3.2.2 Aspect System in Limbu

Limbu expresses progressive and perfect aspects... **Progressive:** progressive aspect in Limbu is expressed by the affixation of the suffix <-ro or -lo > to the stem and its simultaneous occurrence with the auxiliary which denotes simultaneity with the point of orientation in a given time. Progressive is also divided into past progressive and present progressive. The present progressive denotes continuous activity in the present time whereas the past progressive denotes continuous activity in a given time... **Perfect:** perfect refers to the past situation where the event is seen as having some present relevance. It is combined with past and non-past



Police has arrested two men.

- ε. A/Αγα Αλλυ ρ↔κ τρκ τΣΑ-N-AN ωΑ-NA  
1<sup>st</sup>sg/NOM now just rice eat 1<sup>st</sup>sgSUBpron Perf be Pres  
1<sup>st</sup>sgSUBpron  
I have just had meal.
- φ. παυλ παν-ο τεγ-Α-ΑΝ ωΑ  
Paul house/LOC go PST Perf be Pres  
Paul has gone to his house.
- γ. A/Αγα κΗενε σαμμΘΝ πI-ν-Α-ΑΝ ωΑ-NA  
1<sup>st</sup>sg/NOM 2<sup>nd</sup>sg/ACC gold give 2<sup>nd</sup>sgOBJpron I<sup>st</sup>sgSUBpron Perf  
be Pres I<sup>st</sup>sgSUBpron  
I have given you gold.
- η. φανε φορικ λαζικ-ηΑ/γΗΑ τΑκκολλ-Α-ΑΝ ωΑ  
Jane many country pl visit PST Perf be Pres  
Jane has visited many countries.
- ι. τομ-ΝΑ σΙζοΝε ΤυΝ-υ-ΑΝ ωα  
Tom ERG wine drink 3<sup>rd</sup>OBJpron Perf be Pres  
Tom has taken wine.
- φ. ΑνI-NA λΑΝφονΔΑ η↔κτΣΑτ ηΑριτΣΑτ-υ-μμ-Α-ΑΝ ωΑ-ηI-NA  
1<sup>st</sup>sg/ERG football mach win 3<sup>rd</sup>OBJpron 1<sup>st</sup>plSUBpron PST Perf  
be Pres 1<sup>st</sup>pl Pron 1<sup>st</sup>plSUBpron  
We have won the footbal mach.
- **In Past**
- α. παυλ-ΝΑ κΗονεΝ τιμικ μαρ-υ-ΑΝ ωΑ-η-Α  
Paul ERG 3<sup>rd</sup>sgPOSS key lose 3<sup>rd</sup>sgOBJpron Perf be Ins PST  
Paul had lost his key.
- β. A/Αγα ΑΙΝ Α-ηυκτΣο ηεγ-υ-Ν-ΑΝ ωΑ-η-Α-Ν  
1<sup>st</sup>sg/NOM 1<sup>st</sup>sgPOSS DIRM finger cut 3<sup>rd</sup>OBJpron  
1<sup>st</sup>sgSUBpron perf be Ins PST 1<sup>st</sup>sgSUBpron  
I had cut my finger.
- χ. σΘλι πακΗΑ τεγ-Α-ΑΝ ωΑ-η-Α  
Sally out go PST Perf be Ins PST  
Sally had gone out.

- δ. τ̣IλINγA-γηA-NA νεφυ νA/μI-γηA μ↔-δεπσ-υ-σI-AN μ↔-  
ωA-h-A  
Police pl ERG two man pl DIRM arrest 3<sup>rd</sup>OBJpron  
3<sup>rd</sup>plOBJpron Perf DIRM be Ins PST  
Police had arrested two men.
- ε. A/AγA Αλλυ ρ↔κ τ̣οκ τ̣ΣA-N-AN ωA-η-A-N  
1<sup>st</sup>sg/NOM then just rice eat 1<sup>st</sup>sgSUBpron Perf be Ins PST  
1<sup>st</sup>sgSUBPron  
I had just had meal.
- φ. πAυλ πAN-ο τ̣ε-γ-A-AN ωA-η-A  
Paul house/LOC go Ins PST Perf be Ins PST  
Paul had gone to his house.
- γ. A/AγA κHeνε σAμμΘN πI-v-A-AN ωA-η-A-N  
1<sup>st</sup>sg/NOM 2<sup>nd</sup>sg/ACC gold give 1<sup>st</sup>sgSUBPron PST Perf be Ins  
PST 1<sup>st</sup>sgSUBPron  
I had given you gold.
- η. φανε φορIκ λAζIκ-γηA τ̣Aκκολλ-A-AN ωA-η-A  
Jane many country pl visit PST Perf be Ins PST  
Jane had visited many countries.
- ι. τομ-NA σIζοNe TyN-υ-AN ωA-η-A  
Tom ERG wine drink 3<sup>rd</sup>sgOBJpron Perf be Ins PST  
Tom had taken wine.
- φ. AvI-NA λANφονΔA η↔κτ̣ΣAτ̣ ηAρIτ̣ΣAτ̣-υ-μ-μ-A-AN ωA-η-I-  
N-A  
1<sup>st</sup>sg ERG football mach win 3<sup>rd</sup>sgOBJpron 1<sup>st</sup>plSUBpron Ins  
(ZEM) PST Perf be Ins 1<sup>st</sup>plSUBpron 1<sup>st</sup>SUBpron PST  
We had won the football mach.

As has already been given, the perfect marker in Limbu (-Vroot-  
+AN +O/-ωA-/O for non-past, and -Vroot-+AN +O/-wAηA-O for past)  
has been proved by the above data.

Limbu, as English, codes all **types of perfect** with the same  
morphological structure, that is the general property of perfect –

continuing relevance of a previous situation – could be captured by the same structure.

- Perfect of result  
 φηον τ̣A-η-A-AN ωA  
 John arrive Ins PST Perf be Pres  
 John has arrived.
- Experiential perfect  
 βιλ ↔μερικA τ̣ε-γ-A-AN ωA  
 Bil America go Ins PST Perf be Pres  
 Bill has been to America.
- Perfect of persistent situation  
 ΑνΙ κυμβυ ΤΙβον τ̣↔NβΙ ηANΔο υN-I-N-A-AN ωA-η-I-NA  
 1<sup>st</sup>pl/NOM here ten year since live 1<sup>st</sup>plSUBpron 1<sup>st</sup>SUBpron PST  
 Perf be Pres Ins 1<sup>st</sup>plSUBpron 1<sup>st</sup>plSUBpron PST 1<sup>st</sup>SUBPron  
 We have lived here since ten years.
- Perfect of recent past  
 βιλ Αλλυ ρ↔κ τ̣A-η-A-AN ωA  
 Bill now just arrive Ins PST Perf be Pres  
 Bill has just arrived.

Thus, like in English, the perfect of result is coded by the general perfect marker in Limbu. In addition to this, the same morphosyntax is used to express experiential perfect, perfect of persistent situation and perfect of recent past in Limbu. But as can be seen above, pg. 41-42, in English, the past participle form of ‘be’ i.e. ‘been’ is used to express experiential perfect. And, both languages use adverbs like ‘just’, ‘recent’ in English and like ‘Αλλυ’, ‘Αλλυ ρ↔κ’ in Limbu to express recent past; and prepositions like ‘since’ in English and ‘ηANΔο’ in Limbu to express perfect of persistent situation.

For **Progressive**, let us observe the following example sentences:

- **In Non-Past**

- α. ενζιλA-NA λ↔τHIκ κH↔ΔA νIρ-υ-ρ↔/ρο ωA  
 Anjila ERG one story read 3<sup>rd</sup>OBJpron Prog be Pres

Anjila is reading a story.

- β. A/AγA Iμ-μA) τ̣ε/-NA-ρ↔/ro ωA-NA  
1<sup>st</sup>sg/NOM sleep Inf go 1<sup>st</sup>SUBpron Prog be Pres 1<sup>st</sup>SUBpron  
I am going to sleep.
- χ. ωAηI τΣΑΛIk TA-υ-ρ↔/ro ωA  
rain heavily fall 3<sup>rd</sup>SUBpron Prog be Pres  
It is raining heavily.
- δ. κΘT↔ρIν IτΑΛI↔ν πΑν ηυσIν -λ↔/λο ωA  
Catharine Italian language learn Prog be Pres  
Catharine is learning Italian language.
- ε. κHενε τΣΑΛIk Θ)βοκ κA-ζυκ-λο/λ↔ κA-ωA  
2<sup>nd</sup>sg/NOM hard work DIRM do Prog DIRM be Pres  
You are working hard.
- φ. κHυνζI-γHA τεvIσ μ↔-ζA-ρο/r↔ μ↔-ωA  
3<sup>rd</sup> (Incl)pl/NOM tennis DIRM play Prog DIRM be Pres  
They are playing tennis.
- γ. τομ τ̣οκ τΣο -ρο/r↔ ωA  
Tom rice eat Prog be Pres  
Tom is eating rice.
- η. εν τελIτωIζ↔ν μετ̣- τ̣-υ-ρ↔/ro ωA  
Ann television watch Ins 3<sup>rd</sup>OBJpron Prog be Pres  
Ann is watching television.
- ι. κHενε π↔ τ̣ρIκA κA-vIρ-υ-ρ↔/ro κA-ωA  
2<sup>nd</sup>sg/NOM magazine DIRM read 3<sup>rd</sup>OBJpron Prog DIRM be Pres  
You are reading a magazine.
- φ. κHονε πAN-ο τ̣ε-ρ↔/ρο ωA  
3<sup>rd</sup>sg/NOM house/ LOC go Prog be Pres  
He is going to the house.
- κ. μαρIΘ ↔NρεζI πΑν ηυσIν-λο/λ↔ ωA  
Maria English language learn Prog be Pres  
Maria is learning English.
- λ. ζον λοκ-λο/λ↔ ωA  
John run Prog be Pres  
John is running.

- μ. κΗονε κΗενε κΑ-ηΑΝ-ρ↔/ρο κΑ-ωΑ  
3<sup>rd</sup>sg/NOM 2<sup>nd</sup>sg/ACC DIRM wait Prog DIRM be Pres  
He is waiting to you.
- ν. κΗυντΣΙ γΙτ6Αρ μυκσ-υ-τΣΗΙ-ρο/ρ↔ ωΑ-τΣΗΙ  
3<sup>rd</sup>pl(Excl)/NOM guitar play 3<sup>rd</sup>OBJpron 2<sup>nd</sup>pl(Excl)SUBpron Prog  
be Pres 2<sup>nd</sup>pl(Excl)SUBpron  
They (two) are playing guitar.
- ο. βελε πυλ-ο ωΑζΑκ-ρο/ρ↔ ωΑ  
Bele pool /LOC swim Prog be Pres  
Bele is swimming in the pool.
- **In past**
- α. ενζΙλΑ-ΝΑ λ↔τΗΙΚ κΗ↔ΔΑ νΙρ-υ -ρ↔/ρο ωΑ-η-Α  
Anjila ERG one story read 3<sup>rd</sup>OBJpron Prog be Ins PST  
Anjila was reading a story.
- β. Α/ΑγΑ Ιμ-μΑ) τξε-γ-Α-Ν-ρ↔/ρο/λο/λ↔ ωΑ-η-Α-Ν  
1<sup>st</sup>sg/NOM sleep inf go Ins PST 1<sup>st</sup>sgSUBpron Prog be Ins PST  
1<sup>st</sup>sgSUBpron  
I was going to sleep.
- χ. ωΑηΙ τΣΑλΙΚ ΤΑ-υ-ρ↔/ρο ωΑ-η-Α  
rain heavily fall 3<sup>rd</sup>OBJpron Prog be Ins PST  
It was raining heavily.
- δ. κΘΤ↔ρΙν ΙτΑλΙ↔ν πΑν ηυσΙν-λ↔/λο ωΑ-η-Α  
Catharine Italian language learn Prog be Ins PST  
Catharine was learning Italian language.

- ε. κΗενε τΣΑλIk Θ)βοκ κΑ-ζυγ-Α-ρ↔/ρο κΑ-ωΑ-η-Α  
2<sup>nd</sup>sg/NOM hard work DIRM do PST Prog DIRM be Ins PST  
You were working hard.
- φ. κΗυνζΙ-γΗΑ τεvΙσ μ↔-ζΑ-η-Α-ρο/r↔ μ↔-ωΑ-η-Α  
3<sup>rd</sup> (Incl)pl/NOM tennis DIRM play Ins PST Prog DIRM be Ins  
PST  
They were playing tennis.
- γ. τομ ροκ τΣο-ρο/r↔ ωΑ-η-Α  
Tom rice eat Prog be Ins PST  
Tom was eating rice.
- η. εν τελIπIζ↔v μετ- ρ-υ-ρ↔/ρο ωΑ-η-Α  
Ann television watch Ins 3<sup>rd</sup>OBJpron Prog be Ins PST  
Ann was watching television.
- ι. κΗενε π↔ρIκΑ κΑ-vIρ-υ-ρ↔/ρο κΑ-ωΑ-η-Α  
2<sup>nd</sup>sg/NOM magazine DIRM read 3<sup>rd</sup>OBJpron Prog DIRM be Ins  
PST  
You were reading a magazine.
- φ. κΗονε πAN-ο ρε-γ-Α-ρ↔/ρο ωΑ-η-Α  
3<sup>rd</sup>sg/NOM house/LOC go Ins PST Prog be Ins PST  
He was going to the house.
- κ. μΑρIΘ ↔NρεζI πAv ηυσIν-λο/λ↔ ωΑ-η-Α  
Maria English language learn Prog be Ins PST  
Maria was learning English.
- λ. ζον λοκ-κ-Α-ρο/ρ↔ ωΑ-η-Α  
John run Ins PST Prog be Ins PST  
John was running.
- μ. κΗονε κΗενε κΑ-ηAN-Α-ρ↔/ρο ωΑ-η-Α  
3<sup>rd</sup>sg/NOM 2<sup>nd</sup>sg/ACC DIRM wait PST Prog be Ins PST  
He was waiting to you.

- v. κΗυντΣΙ γΙτ̣Αρ μκ-σ-Α- τΣΗ-υ-ρο/ρ↔ ωΑ-η-Α-τΣΗΙ  
 2<sup>nd</sup>pl(Excl)/NOM guitar play Ins PST 2<sup>nd</sup>pl(Excl)SUBpron  
 3<sup>rd</sup>OBJpron Prog be Ins PST 2<sup>nd</sup>pl(Excl)SUBpron  
 They (two) were playing guitar.
- ο. βελε πυλ-ο ωΑζΑκ-k-a-ρο/ρ↔ ωΑ-η-Α  
 Bele pool /LOC swim Ins PST Prog be Ins PST  
 Bele was swimming in the pool.

As the given example data mirror, both languages code progressive meaning in past and non-past tenses. English use ‘is/am/are + Ving’ in non-past and ‘was/were+Ving’ in past to express this meaning. In the similar vein, Limbu uses ‘-Vroot -+ ρ↔ /l↔ / lo /ρο + O/-ωΑ-/O’ in non-past and ‘-Vroot -+ ρ↔ /l↔ / lo /ρο + O/- wΑηΑ-/O’ in past to capture this meaning.

### 3.2.2.1 Prospective Aspect in Limbu

Limbu codes the prospective meaning morphologically.

Examples;

- a. πυ πE-vA-vε)v  
 Bird fly 3<sup>rd</sup>sgSUBpron Prosp  
 A bird is about to fly.
- b. λυN- ηΑ μ↔-γo-μ↔-vε)v  
 stone pl 3<sup>rd</sup>plSUBpron<sub>1</sub> fall down 3<sup>rd</sup>plSUBpron<sub>2</sub> Prosp  
 Stones are about to fall down.
- c. κHεvε) κΑ-γo-κΑ-vε)v  
 2<sup>nd</sup>sg/PAT 2<sup>nd</sup>sgSUBpron<sub>1</sub> fall down 2<sup>nd</sup>sgSUBpron<sub>2</sub> Prosp  
 You are about to fall down.
- d. Α/ΑγΑ πIv-vA)-vε)v-vA)  
 1<sup>st</sup>sg/NOM jump 1<sup>st</sup>sgSUBpron<sub>1</sub> Prosp 1<sup>st</sup>sgSUBpron<sub>2</sub>  
 I am about to jump.

What we find above, pg. 42-43, is that English codes prospective aspect periphrastically like using ‘about to’ but Limbu expresses this aspectual meaning morphologically{-Vroot- + -vε)v-}.

### 3.2.2.2 Unknown Aspect in Limbu

This aspect indicates an activity which is performed unknowingly and realized after the completion of the action. The marker ‘-I’ attached with ‘-τΣΗ↔’ codes this meaning in the Limbu language. Although traditional γραμμαριανσ assign this aspect to the unknown past, it refers to the non-past tense. It can be justified by the following points:

- the activity is realized just now
- the reference of the activity is not old
- it uses non past auxiliary ‘-τΣΗ↔’

Examples,

a. κηονε τσοκ χηο- ρI -τΣΗ↔  
 3<sup>rd</sup>sg/NOM rice eat UNM be Pres  
 He ate rice.

b. σIτA- NA A- δ↔τ TA- Y- ρI -τΣΗ↔  
 Sita ERG DIRM pen drop 3<sup>rd</sup>OBJpron UNM be Pres  
 Sita dropped my pen.

English uses past tense to express this aspectual meaning but Limbu uses -Vroot- +- ρI -τΣΗ↔ to express this meaning.

The following chart shows how tense and aspect are expressed in the Limbu language.

Table 4: Tense -Aspect system in Limbu.

Tense	Aspect		Verb
	Perfect	Progressive	
-O(non-past)	O(none)	O (none)	τΣAN
-A(past)	-AN +O/-wA-O (perfect)	- ρ↔ /l↔ / lo /ρο + O/wA- /O (progressive)	

### 3.3 Comparison between English and Limbu Tense-Aspect System

The existence of two or more than two entities, facts or say events hands over us the cognitive balance to weigh and compare them from one another. This comparison can be done on the basis of any given/taken

criteria, for instance, value, shape, size, weight, color and so forth. One thing may differ from another in one criterion, and the same thing may become similar in another. If it is the case similarity and difference are just the matter of polar opposites. That is to say similarity and difference are just like two sides of a single two-dimensional object of which one side is impossible to exist in the absence of another. If it is a fact, what can be said is all worldly physical entities or abstract ones differ from one another in certain respect, i.e. they all are similar to one another in certain criteria. So is the case in English and Limbu tense-aspect system. The researcher compares these two systems on the basis of given criteria.

### 3.3.1 In Tense System

#### a. Past

Generally, both the English and Limbu languages code the past situation (event, state and process) morphologically as in the following way.

#### i. In intransitive verbs

	<b>Limbu</b>	<b>English</b>
α.	↔vυ Iπ-σ-A Anu sleep Ins PST	Anu slept.
β.	σAvυ Iτ5 - τ5-A Sanu laugh Ins PST	Sanu laughed.
χ.	σA)ε) σI-φ-A Buffalo die Ins PST	Buffalo died.



- δ. πυ πε/-Ο *A bird flies.*  
Bird fly Pres
- ε. ↔ρυνα σαμ λο/-Ο *Aruna sings a song.*  
Aruna song sing Pres
- φ. τΣΑΙνΙζ-γΗΑ-ΝΑ) πρΙντΙΝ μυ-ζυγ-Ο-υ *Chinese make printing.*  
Chinese pl ERG printing DIRM make Pres 3<sup>rd</sup>OBJpron
- γ. Α/ΑγΑ ρΑμ-μΙΝ φον τΣυγ-Ο-υ-Ν *I phone to Ram.*  
1<sup>st</sup>sg/NOM Ram/DAT phone do Pres 3<sup>rd</sup>OBJpron 1<sup>st</sup>sgSUBpron
- η. Σφυ-ΝΑ) λ↔τΗΙκ κΑρ ΙΝ-Ο-υ *Sue buys a car*  
Sue ERG one car buy Pres 3<sup>rd</sup> sg OBJ pron.
- ι. τομ-ΝΑ) τ̣ΙμΙκ μαρ-Ο-υ *Tom loses a key.*  
Tom ERG key lose Pres 3<sup>rd</sup>OBJpron

In the present tense, English verbs attach ‘-s’ when the subject is the 3rd person singular subject. But Limbu verbs do not behave in this way in present tense. Anyway, both languages use citation form for present tense.

## ii. In Future

- |    | <b>Limbu</b>  | <b>English</b>                     |
|----|---|------------------------------------|
| α. | σΑνυ Ι/-Ο<br>Sanu laugh Fut   |                                    |
| β. | σΑ)ε) σΙ/-Ο<br>Buffalo die Fut  | <i>Buffalo will die.</i>           |
| γ. | νΑνΙ λοκ-Ο<br>Child run Fut   | <i>Child will run.</i>             |
| δ. | πυ πε/-Ο<br>Bird fly Fut  | <i>Bird will flie.</i>             |
| ε. | ↔ρυνα σαμ λο/-Ο<br>Aruna song sing Fut  | <i>Aruna will sing a song.</i>     |
| φ. | τΣΑΙνΙζ-γΗΑ-ΝΑ) πρΙντΙΝ μυ-ζυγ-Ο-υ<br>Chinese pl ERG printing DIRM make Fut 3 <sup>rd</sup> OBJpron | <i>Chinese will make printing.</i> |

- γ. A/ΑγΑ ρΑμ-μΙΝ φον τΣυγ-Ο-υ-Ν *I will phone to Ram.*  
 1<sup>st</sup>sg/NOM Ram/DAT phone do Fut 3<sup>rd</sup>OBJpron 1<sup>st</sup>sgSUBpron
- η. Σφυ-ΝΑ) λ↔τΗΙκ κΑρ ΙΝ-Ο-υ *Sue will buy a car.*  
 Sue ERG one car buy Fut 3<sup>rd</sup> sg OBJ pron.
- ι. τομ-ΝΑ) τ̣ΙμΙκ μΑρ-Ο-υ *Tom will lose a key.*  
 Tom ERG key lose Fut 3<sup>rd</sup>OBJpron

Already has been said that Limbu verbs do not inflect for present and future. So is the case with English, i.e. English verbs also do not inflect for future tense. And futurity is expressed lexically or periphrastically in both languages. Thus, English generally uses the model like ‘will/shall’ to show futurity.

### 3.3.2 In Aspect System

In general, both the English and Limbu languages express perfect and progressive aspects morphosyntactically.

#### a. Perfect

##### i) In Non-past

- In Present

- |    | <b>Limbu</b>  | <b>English</b>                          |
|----|---|---|
| α. | σΘλι πακΗΑ τ̣ε-γ-Α-ΑΝ ωΑ<br>Sally out go Ins PST Perf be Pres   | <i>Sally has gone out.</i>              |
| β. | παυλ παν-ο τ̣ε-γ-Α-ΑΝ ωΑ<br>Paul house /LOC go Ins PST Perf be Pres   | <i>Paul has gone to his house.</i>      |
| χ. | A/ΑγΑ κΗενε σΑμμΘΝ πΙ-ν-Α-ΑΝ ωΑ-ΝΑ<br>1 <sup>st</sup> sg/NOM 2 <sup>nd</sup> sg/ACC gold give 2 <sup>nd</sup> sgOBJpron<br>I <sup>st</sup> sgSUBpron Perf be Pres I <sup>st</sup> sgSUBpron | <i>I have given you a gold.</i>         |
| δ. | φανε φορΙκ λαζΙκ-ηΑ/γΗΑ τ̣Ακκολ-λ-Α-ΑΝ ωΑ<br>Jane many country pl visit Ins PST Perf be Pres  | <i>Jane has visited many countries.</i> |

ε. τομ-NA σΙζοΝε ΤυN-υ-AN ωα *Tom has taken wine.*

Tom ERG wine drink 3<sup>rd</sup>OBJpron Perf be Pres

• **In Future**

**Limbu**

**English**

α. σΘλι πακHA τξε-ηε/-v-A-AN πυN *Sally will have gone out.*  
Sally out go AuxPST Ins PST Perf AuxFut

β. παυλ παN-ο τξε-ηε/-v-A-AN πυN *Paul will have gone to his house.*

Paul house LOC go AuxPST Ins PST Perf AuxFut

γ. Α/Αγα κΗενε σΑμμΘN πι-v-A-ηε/-v-α-AN πυN-Nα *I will/shall have given you a gold.*

1<sup>st</sup>sg 2<sup>nd</sup>sg gold give Ins PST Aux Ins PST Perf AuxFut

1<sup>st</sup>sgSUBpron

δ. φανε φορικ λαζικ τΑκκον-he/-n-A-AN πυN *Jane will have visited many countries.*

Jane many country visit AuxPST Ins PST Perf AuxFut

ε. τομ-NA σΙζοΝε ΤυN-υ-O-he/-AN πυN *Tom will have taken beer.*

Tom ERG wine drink 3<sup>rd</sup>OBJpron PST AuxPST Ins Perf AuxFut

Thus, English codes the perfect aspects by using the structures ‘have/has + -en’ for present and ‘shall/will+have+-en’ for future. And, the latter structure, no doubt, is the mixture of tense, aspect and mode.

In Limbu, the structure ‘-Vroot- +AN +O/-ωA-/O’ is used for present perfect and ‘-Vroot- + he/- + AN +O/-πυN-/O’ is used for future perfect.

ii) **In Past**

**Limbu**

**English**

α. σΘλι πακHA τξε-γ-A-AN ωA-η-A *Sally had gone out.*

Sally out go Ins PST Perf be Ins PST

- β. παυλ παΝ-ο τξε-γ-Α-ΑΝ ωΑ-η-Α *Paul had gone to his house.*  
Paul house LOC go Ins PST Perf be Ins PST
- χ. Α/ΑγΑ κΗενε σΑμμΘΝ πΙ-ν-Α-ΑΝ ωΑ-η-Α-Ν *I had given you gold.*  
1<sup>st</sup>sg 2<sup>nd</sup>sg gold give Ins PST Perf be Ins PST 1<sup>st</sup>sgSUBPron
- δ. φανε φορΙΚ λαζΙΚ τΑκκολ-λ-Α-ΑΝ ωΑ-η-Α *Jane had visited many countries.*  
Jane many country visit Ins PST Perf be Ins PST
- ε. τομ-ΝΑ σΙζοΝε ΤυΝ-Ο-υ-ΑΝ ωα-η-Α *Tom had taken wine.*  
Tom ERG wine drink PST 3<sup>rd</sup>OBJpron Perf be Ins PST

English codes the perfect meaning in past by using the structure ‘had + V3’ and Limbu codes such meaning by the structure ‘-Vroot-+AN +O/-wAηA-O’.

## b. Progressive

### i) In Non-past

- In Present

- |    | <b>Limbu</b>   | <b>English</b>                     |
|----|--|------------------------------------|
| α. | ζον λοκ-λο/λ↔ ωΑ<br>John run Prog be Pres  | <i>John is running.</i>            |
| β. | τομ τσοκ τσο -ρο/ρ↔ ωΑ<br>Tom rice eat Prog be Pres  | <i>Tom is eating rice.</i>         |
| χ. | ωΑηΙ τΣΑλΙΚ ΤΑ-υ-ρ↔/ρο ωΑ<br>rain heavily fall 3 <sup>rd</sup> OBJpron Prog be Pres  | <i>It is raining heavily.</i>      |
| δ. | κΗενε π↔τρΙΚΑ κΑ-νΙρ-υ-ρ↔/ρο κΑ-ωΑ<br>2 <sup>nd</sup> sg magazine DIRM read 3 <sup>rd</sup> OBJpron Prog DIRM be Pres            | <i>You are reading a magazine.</i> |
| ε. | Α Ιμ-μΑ) τξε/-ΝΑ-ρ↔/ρο ωΑ-ΝΑ<br>1 <sup>st</sup> sg sleep Inf go 1 <sup>st</sup> sgSUBpron Prog be Pres 1 <sup>st</sup> sgSUBpron | <i>I am going to sleep.</i>        |
| φ. | κΗυνζΙ-γΗΑ τενΙσ μ↔-ζΑ-ρο/ρ↔ μ↔-ωΑ<br>They are playing tennis.   | <i>They are playing tennis.</i>    |

3<sup>rd</sup> (Incl)pl tennis DIRM play Prog 3<sup>rd</sup>plSUB pron be Pres

• **In Future**

	<b>Limbu</b>	<b>English</b>
α.	ζον λοκ-λο/λ↔ πυN/κIN John run Prog Aux/AuxFut	<i>John will be running.</i>
β.	τομ τσοκ τσο ρο/r↔ πυN/κIN <i>rice.</i> Tom rice eat Prog Aux/AuxFut	<i>Tom will be eating</i>
γ.	ωΑηI τΣΑλIκ ΤΑ-υ-ρ↔/ρο πυN/κIN rain heavily fall 3 <sup>rd</sup> sgOBJpron Prog AuxFut	<i>It will be raining heavily.</i>
δ.	κΗενε π↔τσοκIκA κA-υIρ-υ-ρ↔/ρο κA-βυN/γIN <i>magazine.</i> 2 <sup>nd</sup> sg magazine DIRM read 3 <sup>rd</sup> OBJpron Prog DIRM AuxFut	<i>You will be reading a</i>
ε.	A Iμ-μA) τε/-NA-ρ↔/ρο πυN/κIN-NA <i>sleep.</i> 1 <sup>st</sup> sg sleep Inf go 1 <sup>st</sup> sgSUBpron Prog AuxFut 1 <sup>st</sup> sgSUBpron	<i>I shall/will be going to</i>
φ.	κΗυvζI-γHA τεvIσ μ↔-ζA-ρο/r↔ μ↔-βυN/γIN <i>tennis.</i> 3 <sup>rd</sup> (Incl)pl tennis DIRMplay Prog 3 <sup>rd</sup> plSUBpron AuxFut	<i>They will be playing</i>

English expresses the progressive meaning in present by the structure ‘is/am/are +Ving’ and ‘will/shall+be+Ving’ in future. And the Limbu expresses this meaning by the string ‘Vroot-+ ρ↔ /l↔ /lo /ρο + O/-ωA-/O’ for present and ‘-Vroot- +ρ↔ /l↔ / lo /ρο + - πυN/κIN-/O for future.

**ii) In past**

	<b>Limbu</b>	<b>English</b>
α.	ζον λοκ-κ-A-ρο/ρ↔ ωA-η-A John run Ins PST Prog be Ins PST	<i>John was running.</i>
β.	τομ τσοκ τσο-ρο/r↔ ωA-η-A Tom rice eat Prog be Ins PST	<i>Tom was eating rice.</i>
γ.	ωΑηI τΣΑλIκ ΤΑ-υ-ρ↔/ρο ωA-η-A rain heavily fall 3 <sup>rd</sup> SUBpron Prog be Ins PST	<i>It was raining heavily.</i>

δ. κΗενε π↔ τρIκA κA-νIρ-υ-ρ↔/ro κA-ωA-η-A *You were reading a magazine.*

2<sup>nd</sup>sg magazine DIRM read 3<sup>rd</sup>OBJpron Prog DIRM be Ins PST

ε. A Iμ-μA) τ̣ε-γ-A-N-ρ↔/ro/λo/λ↔ ωA-η-A-N *I was going to sleep.*

1<sup>st</sup>sg sleep Inf go Ins PST 1<sup>st</sup>sgSUBpron Prog be Ins PST  
1<sup>st</sup>sgSUBpron

φ. κΗυνζI-γHA τενIσ μ↔-ζA-η-A-ρο/r↔ μ↔-ωA-η-A *They were playing tennis.*

3<sup>rd</sup> (Incl)pl tennis DIRM play Ins PST Prog DIRM be Ins PST

These sentences show that English codes the progressive meaning in past with the structure 'was/were + Ving' where as the Limbu codes it by the string '-Vroot- +ρ↔ /l↔ / lo /ρο + - wAηA-/O'

### c. In Types of Perfect

#### Limbu

#### English

Perfect of result

φηον τ̣A-η-A-AN ωA  
John arrive Ins PST Perf be pres

*John has arrived.*

Experiential perfect

βIλ ↔μερIκA τ̣ε-γ-A-AN ωA  
Bil America go Ins PST Perf be Pres

*Bill has been to America.*

Perfect of persistent situation

ΑνI κυμβυ TIβoN τ̣↔NβI ηANΔo υN-I-N-A-AN ωA-η-I-N-A  
1<sup>st</sup>pl here ten year since live 1<sup>st</sup>plSUBpron 1<sup>st</sup>SUBpron PST Perf be Ins  
1<sup>st</sup>plSUBpron 1<sup>st</sup>SUBpron PST *We have lived here since ten years.*

Perfect of recent past

βIλ Αλλυ ρ↔κ τ̣A-η-A-AN ωA  
Bill now just arrive Ins PST Perf be Pres

*Bill has just arrived.*

Like in English, the perfect of result is coded by the general perfect structure in Limbu. In addition to this, the same morphosyntax is used to express experiential perfect, perfect of persistent situation and perfect of recent past in Limbu. But as we see above, pg. 41-42, in English, the past

participle form of ‘be’ i.e. ‘been’ is used to express experiential perfect. And, both languages use adverbs like ‘just’, ‘recent’ in English and like ‘Αλλυ’, ‘Αλλυ ρ↔κ’ in Limbu to express recent past; and prepositions like ‘since’ in English and ‘ηΑΝΔο’ in Limbu to express perfect of persistent situation.

### i) In Prospective Aspect

- **In Past**

- |    | <b>Limbu</b>  | <b>English</b>                         |
|----|---|--|
| a. | πυ πE -φ-A-νε)v -Δ-A<br>Bird fly Ins PST prosp Ins PST  | <i>A bird was about to fly.</i>        |
| b. | λυN-ηA μ↔-γO-φ-A-μ↔-νε)v-Δ-A<br>stone pl 3 <sup>rd</sup> plSUBpron <sub>1</sub> fall down Ins PST 3 <sup>rd</sup> plSUBpron <sub>2</sub> Prosp<br>InsPST        | <i>Stones were about to fall down.</i> |
| c. | κHeνε) κA-γO-φ-A-κA-νε)v-Δ-A<br>2 <sup>nd</sup> sg 2 <sup>nd</sup> SUBpron <sub>1</sub> fall down Ins PST 2 <sup>nd</sup> SUBpron <sub>2</sub> Prosp Ins<br>PST | <i>You were about to fall down.</i>    |
| d. | A/AγA πIv-Δ -A-N-νε)v-Δ-A-N<br>1 <sup>st</sup> sg jump Ins PST 1 <sup>st</sup> sgSUBpron <sub>1</sub> Prosp Ins PST 1 <sup>st</sup> sgSUBpron <sub>2</sub>      | <i>I was about to jump.</i>            |

- **In Non-past**

- |    | <b>Limbu</b>   | <b>English</b>                        |
|----|--|---------------------------------------|
| a. | πυ πE-vA-νε)v<br>Bird fly 3 <sup>rd</sup> sgSUBpron prosp  | <i>A bird is about to fly.</i>        |
| b. | λυN- ηA μ↔-γO-μ↔-νε)v<br>stone pl 3 <sup>rd</sup> plSUBpron <sub>1</sub> fall down 3 <sup>rd</sup> plSUBpron <sub>2</sub> Prosp          | <i>Stones are about to fall down.</i> |
| c. | κHeνε) κA-γO-κA-νε)v<br>2 <sup>nd</sup> sg 2 <sup>nd</sup> sgSUBpron <sub>1</sub> fall down 2 <sup>nd</sup> sgSUBpron <sub>2</sub> Prosp | <i>You are about to fall down.</i>    |
| d. | A/AγA πIv-vA)-νε)v-vA<br>1 <sup>st</sup> sg jump 1 <sup>st</sup> sgSUBpron <sub>1</sub> Prosp 1 <sup>st</sup> sgSUBpron <sub>2</sub>     | <i>I am about to jump.</i>            |

English codes prospective aspect periphrastically like using ‘about to’, but Limbu expresses this aspectual meaning morpho-syntactically as {-Vroot- +A +-νε)-O/v-+ A} for past and {-Vroot- + -νε)v-} for non-past.

## ii) In Unknown Aspect

### • In Past

<b>Limbu</b>	<b>English</b>
Examples, κηονε τοκ χηο-O - <u>ρΙτΣΗ↔</u> 3 <sup>rd</sup> sg rice eat PST UNM be Pres	He ate rice.
σιτα- NA A- δ↔τ ΤΑ-O- Υ- <u>ρΙτΣΗ↔</u> my pen. Sita ERG DIRM pen drop PST 3 <sup>rd</sup> OBJpron UNM be Pres	Sita dropped my pen.
νΑνΙ λοκ-κ-Α-ρΙτΣΗ↔ Child run Ins PST UNM	<i>The Child ran.</i>
πυ πε-φ-Α-ρΙτΣΗ↔ Bird fly Ins PST UNM	<i>Bird flew.</i>
↔ρυνΑ σΑμ λο-φ-Α-ρΙτΣΗ↔ Aruna song sing Ins UNM	<i>Aruna sang a song.</i>

### • In Non-Past

<b>Limbu</b>	<b>English</b>
Examples, κηονε τοκ χηο-O - <u>ρΙτΣΗ↔</u> 3 <sup>rd</sup> sg rice eat Pres UNM be Pres	He eats rice.
σιτα- NA A- δ↔τ ΤΑ-O- Υ- <u>ρΙτΣΗ↔</u> pen. Sita ERG DIRM pen drop Pres 3 <sup>rd</sup> OBJpron UNM be Pres	Sita drops my pen.
νΑνΙ λοκ-O -ρΙτΣΗ↔ Child run Pres UNM	<i>The Child runs.</i>
πυ πε-O -ρΙτΣΗ↔ Bird fly Pres UNM	<i>Bird flies.</i>
↔ρυνΑ σΑμ λο-O -ρΙτΣΗ↔ Aruna song sing Pres UNM	<i>Aruna sings a song.</i>

Thus, Limbu expresses this unknown aspectual meaning by using the structure ‘-Vroot- +- ρΙτΣΗ↔’ for non-past and ‘-Vroot- +A+ρΙτΣΗ↔’ for past.

## CHAPTER FOUR

### FINDINGS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

#### 4.1 Findings

The major goal of this research work was to determine the tense-aspect system in the Limbu language particularly in the chhathare dialect of Limbu and to compare and contrast this system in Limbu with that of English.

##### 4.1.1 Tense-Aspect System in Limbu

- a. Morphologically, the Limbu language has past and non-past tenses within the absolute tense. It codes futurity lexically, periphrastically and contextually.
- b. In general, the verbal morphological marker that codes the past tense in the Limbu language is {- A}. However, transitive or di-transitive verbs do not generally inflect in past tense except 1<sup>st</sup> and 2<sup>nd</sup> person pronouns are in object positions and the pronouns in dual.
- c. The marker {-O} codes the non-past tense in Limbu.
- d. The Limbu language codes perfect, progressive and prospective aspects morpho-syntactically in both past and non-past tenses.
- e. Originally, the Limbu language might not have the aspectual markers to code both habitual and unknown aspects. But, nowadays, it uses {-Vroot-+Tφo} marker for the former and for the latter it uses the structure ‘-Vroot- +- ρIτΣH↔’ for non-past and ‘-Vroot-+A+ρIτΣH↔’ for past. Thus, Limbu codes both habitual and unknown aspects morpho-syntactically.
- f. The perfect markers in non-past tense are {-Vroot- +AN +O/-ωA-/O’ for present perfect and -Vroot- + he/- +AN +O/-πυN-/O for future perfect} and in past tense is {-Vroot-+AN +O/-wAηA-O}.

- g. The progressive markers in non-past are { Vroot-+ ρ↔ /l↔ /lo /ρo + O/-ωA-/O' for present and '-Vroot- +ρ↔ /l↔ / lo /ρo + - πυN/κIN-/O for future } and in past tense is {-Vroot- +ρ↔ /l↔ / lo /ρo + - wAηA-/O}.
- h. The prospective marker in non-past is {-Vroot- + -vε)v-} and in past tense is {-Vroot- +A +-vε)-O/v-+ A}.

#### **4.1.2 Similarities and Differences in Tense-Aspect System between English and Limbu**

##### **i) Similarities**

- a. Morphologically speaking, both English and Limbu languages have binary tense divisions- past and non-past.
- b. Both languages have simple and compound tenses.
- c. Both languages express future tense periphrastically or lexically.
- d. Both languages code perfect and progressive aspects in past and non-past tenses.
- e. Both languages express different types of perfect aspect like experiential perfect, perfect of result, perfect of persistent situation and perfect of recent past.
- f. Both languages code prospective and habitual aspects.
- g. Both languages code perfect of recent past lexically.

## ii) Differences

- a. Though both languages have binary tense division system into as past and non-past tense, only intransitive verbs, in Limbu, frequently inflect overtly in past tense. Transitive or di-transitive verbs(except when 1<sup>st</sup> and 2<sup>nd</sup> person pronouns are in object position) do not as frequently inflect as in English for past tense.
- b. English has only one perfect and progressive marker each(-en for perfect and -ing for progressive), but in Limbu both aspect markers have allomorphs(-ηAN/ -AN for perfect and ρ↔/ρo/λ↔/λο φορ προγρεσιωε).
- c. English perfect and progressive aspects are combined to yield perfect progressive, but Limbu language does not combine two aspects to yield the third i.e. perfect progressive. It uses progressive aspect with time adverbials to code perfect progressive meaning.
- d. English uses experiential aspect lexically but Limbu expresses it suprasegmentally.
- e. English expresses the perfect of persistent situation periphrastically, but Limbu codes this meaning using perfect or progressive aspects.
- f. English codes prospective aspect periphrastically, but Limbu does it morphologically.
- g. Limbu codes unknown aspect using {ϖ+ρI +τΣH↔} but English lacks it.
- h. English codes the habitual aspect by using model such as ‘used to’ and Limbu codes it morphologically, using {ϖ+Tφo} structure.

## 4.2 Recommendations

On the basis of the findings of the present study, the following recommendations have been made for teaching learning process of tense-aspect system in the Limbu language especially in the classroom where the students are learning the Limbu language.

- a. Crystal clear picture about time, tense and aspect and their relations on one another should be drawn on the mind of the students who are learning tense-aspect system in a language.
- b. Students should be made clear about the different levels of language.
- c. Attention should be given to the technical terms related to tense-aspect.
- d. Comparative method should be followed while teaching tense-aspect system.
- e. It is better to make students familiar with the lexical aspects and grammatical aspects.
- f. Care should be given to the architectural dimension of the tense and aspect system.

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## APPENDICES

### Appendix I: Interview Questionnaire

### Appendix II: Verbal paradigm of transitive verbs (related to tense)

Verb: tfugma		Meaning: to do	
Pronoun s	Past	non-Past	
		Present	Future
1 <sup>st</sup> sg	tfugun	tfugun	tfugun
1 <sup>st</sup> du	tfugatʰuŋa	tfugtʰuŋa	tfugtʰuŋa
1 <sup>st</sup> pl	tfugumma	tfugumma	tfugumma
2 <sup>nd</sup> sg	kazugu	kazugu	kazugu
2 <sup>rd</sup> du	kazugatʰu	kazugtʰu	kazugtʰu

2 <sup>rd</sup> pl	kazugum	kazugum	kazugum
3 <sup>rd</sup> sg	tʃugu	tʃugu	tʃugu
3 <sup>rd</sup> du	tʃugatʃ <sup>h</sup> u	tʃugtʃ <sup>h</sup> u	tʃugtʃ <sup>h</sup> u
3 <sup>rd</sup> pl	məzugu	məzugu	məzugu

Verb: Loŋma

Meaning: to drive

Pronoun s	Past	non-Past	
		Present	Future
1 <sup>st</sup> sg	loksuŋ	loksuŋ	loksuŋ
1 <sup>st</sup> du	loksatʃ <sup>h</sup> uŋa	loŋtʃ <sup>h</sup> uŋa	loŋtʃ <sup>h</sup> uŋa
1 <sup>st</sup> pl	loksumma	loksumma	loksumma
2 <sup>nd</sup> sg	kaloksu	kaloksu	kaloksu
2 <sup>rd</sup> du	kaloksatʃ <sup>h</sup> u	kaloksatʃ <sup>h</sup> u	kaloksatʃ <sup>h</sup> u
2 <sup>rd</sup> pl	kaloksum	kaloksum	kaloksum
3 <sup>rd</sup> sg	loksu	loksu	loksu
3 <sup>rd</sup> du	loksatʃ <sup>h</sup> u	loŋtʃ <sup>h</sup> u	loŋtʃ <sup>h</sup> u
3 <sup>rd</sup> pl	məloksu	məloksu	məloksu

Verb: iŋma

Meaning: to buy

Pronoun s	Past	non-Past	
		Present	Future
1 <sup>st</sup> sg	iŋuŋ	iŋuŋ	iŋuŋ
1 <sup>st</sup> du	iŋatʃ <sup>h</sup> uŋa	iŋŋtʃ <sup>h</sup> uŋa	iŋtʃ <sup>h</sup> uŋa
1 <sup>st</sup> pl	iŋumma	iŋumma	iŋumma
2 <sup>nd</sup> sg	kaiŋu	kaiŋu	kaiŋu
2 <sup>rd</sup> du	kaiŋatʃ <sup>h</sup> u	kaiŋtʃ <sup>h</sup> u	kaiŋtʃ <sup>h</sup> u
2 <sup>rd</sup> pl	kaiŋum	kaiŋum	kaiŋum
3 <sup>rd</sup> sg	iŋu	iŋu	iŋu
3 <sup>rd</sup> du	iŋatʃ <sup>h</sup> u	iŋtʃ <sup>h</sup> u	iŋtʃ <sup>h</sup> u
3 <sup>rd</sup> pl	məiŋu	məiŋu	məiŋu

Verb: māmā

Meaning: to loose

Pronoun s	Past	non-Past	
		Present	Future
1 <sup>st</sup> sg	maruŋ	maruŋ	maruŋ

1 <sup>st</sup> du	maratʃ <sup>h</sup> uᅇa	mātʃ <sup>h</sup> uᅇa	mātʃ <sup>h</sup> uᅇa
1 <sup>st</sup> pl	marumma	marumma	marumma
2 <sup>nd</sup> sg	kamaru	kamaru	kamaru
2 <sup>rd</sup> du	kamaratʃ <sup>h</sup> u	kamatʃ <sup>h</sup> u	kamaratʃ <sup>h</sup> u
2 <sup>rd</sup> pl	kamarum	kamarum	kamarum
3 <sup>rd</sup> sg	maru	maru	maru
3 <sup>rd</sup> du	maratʃ <sup>h</sup> u	matʃ <sup>h</sup> u	matʃ <sup>h</sup> u
3 <sup>rd</sup> pl	məmaru	məmaru	məmaru

Verb: kuma

Meaning: to carry

Pronoun s	Past	non-Past	
		Present	Future
1 <sup>st</sup> sg	kujun	kujun	kujun
1 <sup>st</sup> du	kujatʃ <sup>h</sup> uᅇa	kutʃ <sup>h</sup> uᅇa	kutʃ <sup>h</sup> uᅇa
1 <sup>st</sup> pl	kujumma	kujumma	kujumma
2 <sup>nd</sup> sg	kaguju	kaguju	kaguju
2 <sup>rd</sup> du	kagujatʃ <sup>h</sup> u	kagutʃ <sup>h</sup> u	kagutʃ <sup>h</sup> u
2 <sup>rd</sup> pl	kagujum	kagujum	kagujum
3 <sup>rd</sup> sg	kuju	kuju	kuju
3 <sup>rd</sup> du	kujatʃ <sup>h</sup> u	kutʃ <sup>h</sup> u	kutʃ <sup>h</sup> u
3 <sup>rd</sup> pl	məguju	məguju	məguju

Verb: sapma

Meaning: to write

Pronoun s	Past	non-Past	
		Present	Future
1 <sup>st</sup> sg	sapun	sapun	sapun
1 <sup>st</sup> du	sapatʃ <sup>h</sup> uᅇa	saptʃ <sup>h</sup> uᅇa	saptʃ <sup>h</sup> uᅇa
1 <sup>st</sup> pl	sapumma	sapumma	sapumma
2 <sup>nd</sup> sg	kasapu	kasapu	kasapu
2 <sup>rd</sup> du	kasapatʃ <sup>h</sup> u	kasaptʃ <sup>h</sup> u	kasaptʃ <sup>h</sup> u
2 <sup>rd</sup> pl	kasapum	kasapum	kasapum
3 <sup>rd</sup> sg	sapu	sapu	sapu
3 <sup>rd</sup> du	sapatʃ <sup>h</sup> u	saptʃ <sup>h</sup> u	saptʃ <sup>h</sup> u
3 <sup>rd</sup> pl	məsapu	məsapu	məsapu

### Appendix III: Verbal paradigm of intransitive verbs (related to tense)

Verb: lokma

Meaning: to run

Pronoun s	Past	non-Past	
		Present	Future
1 <sup>st</sup> sg	lokaŋ	lokŋa	lokŋa
1 <sup>st</sup> du	lokkatʃ <sup>h</sup> iŋa	loktʃ <sup>h</sup> iŋa	loktʃ <sup>h</sup> iŋa
1 <sup>st</sup> pl	lokkiŋa	lokkiŋa	lokkiŋa
2 <sup>nd</sup> sg	kalokka	kalok	kalok
2 <sup>rd</sup> du	kalokkatʃ <sup>h</sup> i	kaloktʃ <sup>h</sup> i	kaloktʃ <sup>h</sup> i
2 <sup>rd</sup> pl	kalokki	kalokki	kalokki
3 <sup>rd</sup> sg	lokka	lok	lok
3 <sup>rd</sup> du	lokkatʃ <sup>h</sup> i	loktʃ <sup>h</sup> i	loktʃ <sup>h</sup> i
3 <sup>rd</sup> pl	məlokka	məlok	məlok

Verb: keʔma

Meaning: come (upward)

Pronoun s	Past	non-Past	
		Present	Future
1 <sup>st</sup> sg	keʔaŋ	keʔna	keʔna
1 <sup>st</sup> du	keʔatʃ <sup>h</sup> iŋa	keʔtʃ <sup>h</sup> iŋa	keʔtʃ <sup>h</sup> iŋa
1 <sup>st</sup> pl	keʔiŋa	keʔiŋa	keʔiŋa
2 <sup>nd</sup> sg	kageʔa	kageʔ	kageʔ
2 <sup>rd</sup> du	kageʔatʃ <sup>h</sup> i	kageʔtʃ <sup>h</sup> i	kageʔtʃ <sup>h</sup> i
2 <sup>rd</sup> pl	kageʔi	kageʔi	kageʔi
3 <sup>rd</sup> sg	keʔa	keʔ	keʔ
3 <sup>rd</sup> du	keʔatʃ <sup>h</sup> i	keʔtʃ <sup>h</sup> i	keʔtʃ <sup>h</sup> i
3 <sup>rd</sup> pl	məgeʔa	məgeʔ	məgeʔ

Verb: pimma

Meaning: to jump

Pronoun s	Past	non-Past	
		Present	Future
1 <sup>st</sup> sg	pinḏaŋ	pinna	pinna
1 <sup>st</sup> du	pinḏatʃ <sup>h</sup> iŋa	pinntʃ <sup>h</sup> iŋa	pinntʃ <sup>h</sup> iŋa
1 <sup>st</sup> pl	pinḏiŋa	pinḏiŋa	pinḏiŋa
2 <sup>nd</sup> sg	kabinḏa	kabin	kabin

2 <sup>rd</sup> du	kabinðatʰi	kabintʰi	kabintʰi
2 <sup>rd</sup> pl	kabinði	kabinði	kabinði
3 <sup>rd</sup> sg	pinða	pin	pin
3 <sup>rd</sup> du	pinðatʰi	pintʰi	pintʰi
3 <sup>rd</sup> pl	məbinða	məbin	məbin

Verb: imma

Meaning: to sleep

Pronoun s	Past	non-Past	
		Present	Future
1 <sup>st</sup> sg	ipsaŋ	imma	imma
1 <sup>st</sup> du	ipsatʰiŋa	imtʰiŋa	imtʰiŋa
1 <sup>st</sup> pl	ipsiŋa	ipsiŋa	ipsiŋa
2 <sup>nd</sup> sg	kaipsa	kaim	kaim
2 <sup>rd</sup> du	kaipsatʰi	kaimtʰi	kaimtʰi
2 <sup>rd</sup> pl	kaipsi	kaipsi	kaipsi
3 <sup>rd</sup> sg	ipsa	im	im
3 <sup>rd</sup> du	ipsatʰi	imtʰi	imtʰi
3 <sup>rd</sup> pl	məipsa	məim	məim

Verb: iʔma

Meaning: to laugh

Pronoun s	Past	non-Past	
		Present	Future
1 <sup>st</sup> sg	iʔaŋ	iʔna	iʔna
1 <sup>st</sup> du	ittatʰiŋa	itʃtʰiŋa	itʃtʰiŋa
1 <sup>st</sup> pl	ittiŋa	ittiŋa	ittiŋa
2 <sup>nd</sup> sg	kaiʔta	kaiʔ	kaiʔ
2 <sup>rd</sup> du	kaiʔtatʰi	kaiʔtʃtʰi	kaiʔtʃtʰi
2 <sup>rd</sup> pl	kaiʔti	kaiʔti	kaiʔti
3 <sup>rd</sup> sg	itta	iʔ	iʔ
3 <sup>rd</sup> du	ittatʰi	itʃtʰi	itʃtʰi
3 <sup>rd</sup> pl	məiʔta	məiʔ	məiʔ

Verb: sima

Meaning: to die

Pronoun s	Past	non-Past	
		Present	Future

1 <sup>st</sup> sg	sijaŋ	siŋa	siŋa
1 <sup>st</sup> du	sijatʃ <sup>h</sup> iŋa	sitʃ <sup>h</sup> iŋa	sitʃ <sup>h</sup> iŋa
1 <sup>st</sup> pl	siŋa	siŋa	siŋa
2 <sup>nd</sup> sg	kasija	kasiʔ	kasiʔ
2 <sup>rd</sup> du	kasijatʃ <sup>h</sup> i	kasitʃ <sup>h</sup> i	kasitʃ <sup>h</sup> i
2 <sup>rd</sup> pl	kasii	kasii	kasii
3 <sup>rd</sup> sg	sija	siʔ	siʔ
3 <sup>rd</sup> du	sijatʃ <sup>h</sup> i	sitʃ <sup>h</sup> i	sitʃ <sup>h</sup> i
3 <sup>rd</sup> pl	məsija	məsiʔ	məsiʔ

#### Appendix IV: Verbal paradigm of transitive verb (related to aspect)

Verb: tʃugma                      Meaning: to do

Pronouns	Perfect		Progressive	
	Past	non-Past	Past	non-Past
		Present /Future		Present /Future
1 <sup>st</sup> sg	tʃugun-aŋ/haŋ	tʃugun-aŋ	tʃugun-ro/rə/lo/lə	tʃugun-ro/rə/lo/lə
1 <sup>st</sup> du	tʃugatʃ <sup>h</sup> uŋa-aŋ/haŋ	tʃugatʃ <sup>h</sup> uŋa-aŋ	tʃugatʃ <sup>h</sup> uŋa-ro/rə	tʃugtʃ <sup>h</sup> uŋa-ro/rə
1 <sup>st</sup> pl	tʃugumma-aŋ/haŋ	tʃugumma-aŋ	tʃugumma-ro/rə	tʃugumma-ro/rə
2 <sup>nd</sup> sg	kazugu-aŋ/haŋ	kazugu-aŋ	kazug(u)-ro/rə/lo/lə	kazug(u)-ro/rə/lo/lə
2 <sup>rd</sup> du	kazugatʃ <sup>h</sup> u-aŋ/haŋ	kazugatʃ <sup>h</sup> u-aŋ	kazugatʃ <sup>h</sup> u-ro/rə	kazugtʃ <sup>h</sup> u-ro/rə
2 <sup>rd</sup> pl	kazugum-aŋ/haŋ	kazugum-aŋ	kazugum-ro/rə	kazugum-ro/rə
3 <sup>rd</sup> sg	tʃugu-aŋ/haŋ	tʃugu-aŋ	tʃug(u)-ro/rə/lo/lə	tʃug(u)-ro/rə/lo/lə
3 <sup>rd</sup> du	tʃugatʃ <sup>h</sup> u-aŋ/haŋ	tʃugatʃ <sup>h</sup> u-aŋ	tʃugatʃ <sup>h</sup> u-ro/rə/lo/lə	tʃugtʃ <sup>h</sup> u-ro/rə/lo/lə
3 <sup>rd</sup> pl	məzugu-aŋ/haŋ	məzugu-aŋ	məzug(u)-ro/rə/lo/lə	məzug(u)-ro/rə/lo/lə

## Appendix V: Verbal paradigm of intransitive verb (related to aspect)

Verb: lokma

Meaning: to run

Pronoun s	Perfect		Progressive	
	Past	non-Past	Past	non-Past
		Present /Future		Present /Future
1 <sup>st</sup> sg	lokaŋ- aŋ/haŋ	lokaŋ-aŋ	lokaŋ- ro/rə/lo/lə	lokaŋ- ro/rə/lo/lə
1 <sup>st</sup> du	lokkatʰiŋa- aŋ/haŋ	lokkatʰiŋa-aŋ	lokkatʰiŋa - ro/rə	lokkatʰiŋa- ro/rə
1 <sup>st</sup> pl	lokkiŋa- aŋ/haŋ	lokkiŋa- aŋ	lokkiŋa- ro/rə	lokkiŋa- ro/rə
2 <sup>nd</sup> sg	kalokka- aŋ/haŋ	kalokka- aŋ	kalokka- ro/rə	kalok- ro/rə/lo/lə
2 <sup>rd</sup> du	kalokkatʰi - aŋ/haŋ	kalokkatʰi -aŋ	kalokkatʰi- ro/rə	kalokkatʰi- ro/rə
2 <sup>rd</sup> pl	kalokki- aŋ/haŋ	kalokki- aŋ	kalokki- ro/rə	kalokki- ro/rə
3 <sup>rd</sup> sg	lokka- aŋ/haŋ	lokka- aŋ	lokka - ro/rə/lo/lə	lok- ro/rə/lo/lə
3 <sup>rd</sup> du	lokkatʰi- aŋ/haŋ	lokkatʰi- aŋ	lokkatʰi- ro/rə/lo/lə	lokkatʰi- ro/rə/lo/lə
3 <sup>rd</sup> pl	məlokka- aŋ/haŋ	məlokka- aŋ/haŋ	məlokka- ro/rə/lo/lə	məlok- ro/rə/lo/lə