

VERBAL AFFIXATION IN ENGLISH AND TAMANG

**A Thesis Submitted to the Department of English Education
in Partial Fulfilment for the Master's Degree in Education**

**Submitted by
Padam Ghising**

**Faculty of Education
Tribhuvan University, Kirtipur
Kathmandu, Nepal
2009**

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(Specialization in English Education)**

By

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DECLARATION

I hereby declare to the best of my knowledge that this thesis is original, no part of it was earlier submitted for the candidature of research degree to any university.

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Padam Ghising

DEDICATION

Dedicated
to
My parents

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Padam Ghising

ABSTRACT

This present research entitled ‘Verbal Affixation in English and Tamang’ is an effort to describe, compare and contrast the verbal affixation in English and the Tamang languages. In order to carry out this study, the researcher collected data from the native speakers of the Tamang language in Panchthar district. Data for the English language were obtained from the reference books. The total sample population of the study consisted of 80 Tamang speakers who were selected by using stratified random sampling procedure and judgmental sampling procedure. The main tool the researcher made use of was questionnaire, which was filled in by making a face to face interview with the informants. The major finding of this research is that Tamang uses the affixes such as /a-/, /-pa/, -ba/, /-la/, /-mula/, /-pan/, /-ban/, /-pala/, /-bala/, /-ci/, /-zi/, /-cim/, /-zim/, /-bar/, /-u/, /-go/, /-ge/, /-gai/, etc.

The thesis consists of four chapters altogether. **Chapter one** is an introductory chapter which deals with the background ideas as to the study of the topic. It sets the necessary theoretical background, justifies the significance of the study and presents the objectives and limitations of the study. Similarly, **chapter two** states the methodology followed in the study. It deals with the sources of data, population and sampling procedure, and process of data collection and limitation of the study. **Chapter three** entails analysis and interpretation of data. It deals with the description, comparison of the verbal affixation available in both English and the Tamang languages. The analysis has been done under different headings using descriptive- comparative structural procedures. Finally, **chapter four** deals with the findings and recommendation made in light of analysis and interpretation. It presents the areas in which verbal affixation system differs in the two languages. It also includes recommendations from the perspective of pedagogical significance.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

1 st	-	First
2 nd	-	Second
3 rd	-	Third
ABL	-	Ablative Case Marker
DAT	-	Dative Mood Marker
eg.	-	For Example
ERG	-	Ergative Case Marker
i.e.	-	That is
IMP	-	Imperative Mood Marker
INF	-	Infinitive
LOC	-	Locative Case Marker
NEG	-	Negative
Npt	-	Non-past
OPT	-	Optative Mood Marker
PERF	-	Perfective
Pl	-	Plural
PROG	-	Progressive
Pt	-	Past
Sg	-	Singular
Upt	-	Unknown-past
VDC	-	Village Development Committee
Viz	-	Namely

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 General Background

Language is the 'species-specific' and 'species-uniform' possession of man. It is God's special gift to mankind. It is the universal medium through which human beings can express their thoughts, feelings, emotions and desires as well.

Language makes understanding between each other. It is the broadest means of communication. We can not think of any social, academic and artistic activities going on without language. It stores knowledge, transmits messages, knowledge and experiences from one person to another and from one generation to another.

The word 'language' has been defined in various ways by various linguists. According to Sapir (1921), "Language is a purely human and non instinctive method of communicating ideas, emotions and desires by means of a system of voluntarily produced symbols" (as cited in Lyons, 2002, p. 3). To Bloch and Trager (1942), 'Language is a system of arbitrary vocal symbols by means of which a social group cooperates' (as cited in Lyons, 2002, p. 4). Similarly, Pei and Frank (1954) define language as 'a system of communication by sound, i.e. through the organs of speech and hearing, among human beings of a certain group or community, using vocal symbols possessing arbitrary conventional meanings' (as cited in Varshney, 1998, p. 2).

The English language is of extreme importance for development, maintenance and transmission of human civilization. Hence, it is inevitable for academic and communicative purpose. The rapid growth of English medium schools and their impact on society prove that the importance of English is very high in the

world. It is the main language of books, newspaper, international business, academic conference, science, medicine, advertising, etc. So, it has gained the status of an international language. However, all languages have their own significant roles and statuses in human communication.

Language is used for communication. There are many languages which are least studied but linguistically rich in Nepal. According to CBS (2002), there are ninety-two identified languages in Nepal. Among them, Tamang is the fifth largest language which includes 5.19% of the total population. Most of the languages have not been studied linguistically yet. So, the researcher is going to study the inherent linguistic properties of 'Affixation in the Tamang and English Languages' intensively.

1.1.1 Linguistic Scenario of Nepal

Nepal is a multi-racial, multi-cultural, multi-religious and multi-lingual country. It is well known that Nepal is a small country in terms of its area but it is a very fertile place for languages. Nepal has been one of the most engrossing areas of linguistic research. More than ninety-two languages are identified and spoken in this small country (ibid). However, most of these languages do not have their written scripts; they exist only in spoken forms. The languages used in Nepal can be divided into four groups which are given as follows.

1.1.1.1 Indo-Aryan Family

The earliest evidence of the group is in Vedic Sanskrit, the language used in the ancient preserved texts of the Indian subcontinent, the foundational canon of Hinduism known as the Vedas. The Indo-Aryan supersaturate in Mitanni is of similar age, but the only evidence is a number of loanwords.

(<http://www.answers.com/topic/indo-aryan-languages>, retrieved on July 26, 2008).

In the context of Nepal, the Indo-Aryan family includes the following languages, Gurung (2003, p. 13):

Nepali	Rajbanshi	Darai
Maithili	Hindi	Kumal
Bhojpuri	Danuwar	Bote
Tharu	Bengali	Churauti
Awadi	Marwari	Magahi
Urdu	Manjhi	Panjabi
English		

1.1.1.2 Tibeto-Burman Family

The Tibeto-Burman family of languages (often considered a sub-group of the Sino-Tibetan language family) is spoken in various central and south Asian countries, including Myanmar (Burma), Tibet, northern parts of Nepal and various regions of India (<http://www.answers.com/topic/tibeto-burman-languages>, retrieved on July 26, 2008).

In the context of Nepal, this family includes the following languages, Gurung (2003, p. 13):

Tamang	Newar	Magar
Bantawa	Gurung	Limbu
Sherpa	Chamling	Chepang
Sunuwar	Thami	Kulung
Dhimal	Yakha	Thulung
Sangpang	Khaling	Thakali
Chhantyal	Tibetan	Dumi
Jirel	Puma	Duri

Meche	Pahari	Lepcha
Bahing	Raji	Chhiling
Byangshi	Ghale	Mewahang
Lohorung	Chinese	Tilung
Kaile	Raute	Dzonkha
Lingkhim	Koche	Hoyu
Chhintang	Mizo	Dongmali

1.1.1.3 The Austro-Asiatic Family

The Austro-Asiatic languages are a large language family of Southeast Asia, and also scattered throughout India and Bangladesh.

(http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/austro-asiatic_family retrieved on July 28, 2008).

But in Nepal, it includes only one language i.e., Sattar/Santali which is spoken in Jhapa district of the eastern part of Nepal.

1.1.1.4 The Dravidian Family

The Dravidian family of languages includes approximately 73 languages that are mainly spoken in southern India and northern Sri Lanka, as well as certain areas in Pakistan, Nepal, Bangladesh and eastern and central India

(http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/dravidian_family, retrieved on July 28, 2008).

In Nepal, this family includes only one language i.e., Jhangar/Dhangar which is spoken on the province of the Koshi river in the eastern part of Nepal.

Among the four language families mentioned above, the Tibeto-Burman language family is the largest one as it includes a large number of languages.

1.1.2 An Introduction to the Tamang Language

Tamang people are one of the major indigenous ethnic groups in Nepal pertaining to the mongoloid sub-branch of Tibeto-Burman community. They have their own language, culture, tradition and a distinct life style. They embrace different perceptions about their societies, different notions of living and maintaining livelihood, different sets of ideas akin to their customs and traditions (Tamang, 2003, p. 4).

The Tamang language is one of the largest minority languages in Nepal. Its two major dialects, the Eastern and the Western varieties are mutually unintelligible, and may legitimately be referred to as separate languages. The Eastern variety can further be sub-divided into two major dialects-central Eastern and outer Eastern. The Eastern Tamang dialects alone have a greater number of speakers.

The Tamang language falls into the Sino-Tibetan family under the sub-family branch of Tibeto-Burman. Some people believe that Tamang language is a dialect of Tibetan language but Mazaudon (1993, p. 23, cited in Tamang) disagrees with this view and writes as;

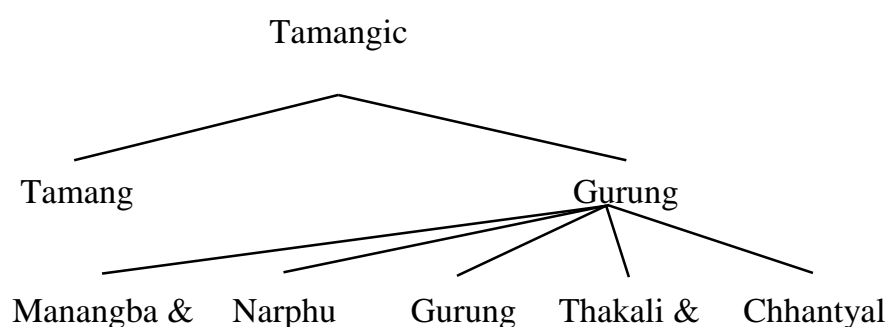
'Tamang is a language of the Tibeto-Burman language family, belonging to the same branch as classical Tibetan, but it is not a descendent of classical Tibetan, it is not a Tibetan dialect. To use a family metaphor, Tamang is a grandnephew of classical Tibetan, not a grand child.'

Many linguists, who have worked on Himalayan languages, have shown the Tamang language in diverse group and sub-groups. Grierson (1968, as cited in Tamang, 2003, p. 6) has classified the Tamang language under the Himalayan

group of languages along with Gurung, Magar and Newar. He called Tamang as Murmi.

Shafer (1966, p. 6, cited in Tamang, 2003) has included Tamang into Gurung Branch of Bodic division. According to him, Tamang is part of the Gurung Branch. Gurung branch comprises Tamang, Gurung and Thakali.

Noonan (1998, p. 6, cited in Tamang, 2003) has classified Tamang, Gurung, Manange, Nar, Thakali and Chhantyal languages as a Tamang group. They sub-grouped it into two groups which are as follows :



The language spoken by the Tamang people is called Tamang or Tamang Gyoi. In Tamang, 'Gyoi' means speech or voice of Tamang. The Tamang language has its own classical written scripts, which is called Tamyhing and Tamang Community has also accepted Devanagari script that is named Tamyhing Devanagari Script. Most of the Tamang publications are based on Devanagari Script.

The major concentration of Tamang settlement is found in the surrounding hills of the Kathmandu valley and they are also scattered all over the country. They are also found outside Nepal mainly in Darjeeling, Sikkim, Asam, Nagaland and Arunanchal Pradesh of North-East India and Bhutan, Myanmar and even in Tibet. According to the CBS (2002), Tamang constitutes 12,82,304 (5.64%) of

the country's total population of 2,31,51,423 and the active speakers are 11,79,149 (5.19%).

The dense population of Tamang in 9 districts of Central Development Region is mainly in Rasuwa (63.75%), Makawanpur (47.34%), Nuwakot (38.52%) Sindhupalchowk (30.93%), Kavrepalanchowk (33.78%), Sindhuli (25.36%), Dhading (21.54%), Ramechhap (20.56%), Dolakha (13.52%). The table 1 below displays the numeral strength of Tamangs in around the Kathmandu valley.

Table 1: Distribution of Tamang Population (Census Report, 2001)

S.N.	Districts	Total population	Tamang population	Percentage of Tamang population
1.	Rasuwa	44,731	28,515	63.74
2.	Makawanpur	392,604	185,874	47.34
3.	Nuwakot	288,478	111,112	38.51
4.	Sindhupalchok	305,857	94,614	30.93
5.	Kavrepalanchok	385,672	130,261	33.78
6.	Sindhuli	279,821	70,968	25.36
7.	Dhading	338,658	72,476	21.54
8.	Ramechhap	212,408	43,669	20.55
9.	Dolakha	204,229	27,619	13.52
10.	Lalitpur	337,785	40,059	11.52
11.	Bhaktapur	225,461	14,728	6.53
12.	Kathmandu	1,081,845	92,378	8.53
	Total	4,097,549	912,273	22.26

Table 1 above indicates the population of the Tamangs and constitutes the largest Tibeto-Burman language group in Nepal. The focal point here is the number of mother tongue speakers of the Tamang language. According to the Census Report 2001, 1,179,145 people claim Tamang as their first language making Tamang the largest Tibeto-Burman language in the country. The matter of fact is that a significant number of people from other ethnic groups also speak Tamang as their mother tongue. The position of the Tamang population by mother tongue is shown in the table 2 below:

Table 2: Position of Tamang Population by Mother Tongue (Census Report, 2001)

S.N.	Mother Tongue	Total Population	Percentage
1.	Nepali	11,053,255	48.61
2.	Maithili	2,797,582	12.30
3.	Bhojpuri	1,712,536	7.53
4.	Tharu	1,331,546	5.86
5.	Tamang	1,179,145	5.19
6.	Newar	825,458	3.63
7.	Magar	770,116	3.39
8.	Awadhi	560,744	2.47
9.	Bantawa	371,056	1.63
10.	Gurung	338,925	1.49

In general, the core areas of Tamang encompass all the districts surrounding the Kathmandu valley, it means higher concentrations of Tamang in the Central and Eastern Development Regions than in any of the Western Region.

1.1.3 Affixation: A Brief Overview of English and the Tamang

Words are the asset of a language. These words are formed through various processes like acronymy, borrowing, compounding, affixation, coinage and so on. Among them, affixation is one of the major processes involved in the formation of words. This process of word formation has been viewed differently by different scholars. Quirk et al. (1973, p. 430) defines 'Affixation as one of the chief processes of word formation by which the base can be modified'. Similarly, to define 'affixation', Crystal (1985, p. 15) links morphology with syntax and demands the interaction between these two and says, 'The morphological process where by grammatical or lexical information is added to a stem is known as affixation (prefixation, suffixation and infixation)'.

In this way, affixation can be defined as one of the chief processes of word formation in which the base can be modified by the addition of prefix or suffix or infix. Affixation, thus, in terms of addition of affixes to a base, can be further divided into three viz, prefixation, suffixation and infixation.

Prefixes are the bound morphemes attached to the beginning of the free morphemes to form new words.

Suffixes are added to root or a base or a stem like prefix. In other words, suffix is affix, which is attached after a root or stem or base. Suffix also does not have its own existence. It is merely a bound morpheme.

Affixes are used in word formation which can behave differently. Taking their different behaviour into consideration, they are derivational affixes and inflectional affixes.

Deviational affixes create new words. English derivational affixes can be both prefixes and suffixes. For example, -un (in unhappy) is a prefix while -ly (in kindly) is suffix. On the other hand, inflectional affix, the attachment of an affix to a stem changes the form of the stem. For example, the affix '-ed' is attached to the stem 'play' to form 'played', which is not a new word but another form of the same word class 'play'.

Infixes, in the process of word formation, are added within a root. Infixes are inserted in the root itself. This process of word formation is not found in many languages. A very few languages have got this process of word formation. For example, 'Tagalog' language uses several infixes which are added before the first vowel of the underlying form: from ['su:lat] 'a writing' are derived [su'mu:lat] 'one who wrote' with the infix [-um-] and [si'nu:lat] 'that which was written', with infix [-in-] (Bloomfield, 1985, p. 218).

Every language has its own rules of word formation. They are similar to each other in one or the other way. Affixation, in every language, plays a significant role in the formation of new words. There are lots of books on grammar in many languages. The Tamang language has also grammar books but very few writers have written on grammar in the Tamang language. Poudel (2006) has written 'Dhankute Tamang Grammar' where a short description has been made on affixation system of the Tamang language. According to him, affixes are of two types in the Tamang language i.e., inflectional and derivational.

Inflectional affixes in Tamang are -dugu/-zugu (plural) in m^h i-dugu/-zugu (men), -ba, -zi (tense) in 'ni-ba' (go) 'ni-zi' (went) respectively. Similarly, the Tamang language has very small number of derivational affixes. Negative marker / - / is only the derivational prefix in Tamang eg. -zjaba, (bad or not good), -kla ba (not to play), etc.

1.1.4 Need and Importance of Contrastive Analysis (CA)

Contrastive Analysis (CA) is a linguistic enterprise founded on the assumption that language can be compared. CA is concerned with teaching rather than learning. It is founded on the assumption that L₂ learners tend to transfer the formal features of their L₁ to their L₂. So, CA believes that the greater the differences between the two languages, the greater the number of errors in performance is.

CA compares two languages viz the students' mother tongue and the target languages, find out similarities and differences and then predicts the area of ease and difficulty.

i) Theory of Transfer

Lado (1957) states that 'individuals tend to transfer the forms and meanings and distributions of forms and meanings of their native language and culture to the foreign language and culture.' (as cited in Maharjan, 1996, p.141).

Individuals do this rather to ease the process of acquisition during his period of learning a foreign language.

Regarding transfer, an individual attempts to transfer what he has already acquired from his mother tongue. His transfer would be justified in the case that the structures of the two languages resemble one another. Eventually the learner gets that learning a foreign language is much easier. In such cases, we get 'positive transfer' or 'facilitation'. Such identities between the structures of the mother tongue and the foreign language will stimulate him to apply the mother tongue forms and meanings or structures in the target language without any hesitation, forgetting that even a slight difference may lead into a large difficulty. Thus, in such cases and when the structures between the two

languages are dissimilar, the transfer is unlikely or it will be unjustified. This gives a 'negative transfer' or 'interference.'

ii) Principles of Contrastive Analysis

Comparative linguistics is more familiarly concerned with comparative historical linguistics. There is usually historical comparison of the languages there which are genetically related. There are principles of contrastive analysis which are usually considered fundamental. They are 'description before comparison' and 'comparison of patterns not whole languages' (Carroll 1966, as cited in Maharjan, 1996, p. 143).

The first principle signifies that one should first describe how each of the things works. Unless he describes it, he cannot compare how each of them works. By this we understand that the learner of a foreign language who is going to compare the specific systems of his language with the foreign language and its systems, should know something about it. Sometimes there happens that the description is not necessary and one thinks it is well understood but there is a danger in this, of thinking one has understood more than one has.

The second principle, 'comparison of patterns, not whole languages', gives us that languages as whole can never be compared. There is no question of comparing 'the Tamang and English' languages as whole. Since each language involves complex systems within it, one should often take some specific patterns or systems (i.e. grammar, phonology, semantics, graphology, etc.) for comparative purposes in the foreign language teaching. And since there can be no any single statement that can account all within languages, one can never show all the differences between the two or more languages. It is because to compare languages as whole is quite general. If he wants to be more specific in

his comparison of the two or more languages, he is to follow this principle and accordingly he is always explicit and systematic.

iii) Assumptions of Contrastive Analysis

Lado (1957) quotes that individuals tend to transfer the forms and meanings, and the distribution of forms and meanings of their native language and culture both productively when attempting to speak language and to act in the culture, and receptively when attempting to grasp and understand the language and the culture as practised by natives' (as cited in Maharjan, 1996, p. 145). He also presents the following as the assumptions of the contrastive analysis;

- The most effective materials are those that are based upon a scientific description of the language to be learned, carefully compared with a parallel description of the native language of the learner,
- That in the comparison between native and foreign language lies the key to ease or difficulty in foreign language learning,
- The teacher who has made a comparison of the foreign language with native language of the students will know better what the real learning problems are and can better provide for teaching them.

1.2 Review of the Related Literature

There are some comparative research works done on different languages like Gurung, Rai, Limbu, Newar, Nepali, Tharu and others in the Department of English Language Education, T.U. and in other departments as well. But no research work has yet been carried out on the affixation in the Tamang language. The available literature of the present study are as follows.

Shah (2000) has carried out a research entitled 'A comparative study of subject-verb-agreement in the Maithili and English languages.' He finds out that s-v agreement is determined by inflectional affixes not only with subjects but with the objects also. The committed errors were due to overgeneralization, mother tongue interference and hypercorrection.

Basnet (2002) carried out a research entitled 'Noun phrase structure in the Thulung and English languages.' He compared and analysed comprehensively the types of noun phrase structure of the two languages in terms of both grammatical categories and grammatical functions. He found that Thulung and English are similar with respect to the realization of noun phrase head as both languages have single noun, pronoun, adjective, gerunds and infinitives functioning as the head of a noun phrase. He also found that the head of a noun phrase in the Thulung language can be preceded by determiners and pre-modifiers but cannot be followed by post-modifiers. However, English allows both pre and post modification of the head.

Sah (2004) made a research on "Comparative study of the simple present tenses and simple past tense of English and Maithili'. He found that both languages have verbal suffixes to mark present and past tenses. Maithili alone has the additional honorific distinction in its past tense form. He also found that Maithili learners of English tend to translate subject-object-verb sentence structure of Maithili while producing English sentences.

Tumbapo (2005) has conducted research on 'Verbal affixation in English and Panthare dialect of Limbu: A comparative study.' This study shows that verbal affixes of Panthare dialect of Limbu are determined by inclusiveness and exclusiveness of the first person, dual and plural pronouns as subject in a sentence whereas such type of system is not available in English.

Similarly, Khanal (2006) has carried out a research on 'Tense and aspect system in Awadhi and English verbs: A comparative study.' His study shows that Awadhi and English verbs are quite different. In the Awadhi language verbs inflect to agree with person, number, gender and honorificity of the subject but English verbs do not normally inflect to agree with person, gender and honorificity of the subject. But in present tense third person singular subject takes-s for agreement.

The most comprehensive study of the Tamang language done so far is by Poudel (2006), who analyses the grammatical classes such as gender, case, pronouns, voice, noun phrase etc. in his 'Dhankute Tamang Grammar'. He has also described the major characteristics of verbs and subject-object constituents in the Tamang language. He has devoted in detail on the analysis of morphemes and their arrangement in relation to the major classes of words.

These literatures so far reviewed show that affixation in Tamang is basically an untouched area till date. Moreover, a systematic comparison of this with English provides a fresh and promising area for study.

1.3 Objectives of the Study

The objectives of the present study were as follows:

- i. to identify the verbal affixation system in the Tamang language,
- ii. to find out the similarities and differences in verbal affixation systems between English and the Tamang languages,
- iii. to suggest pedagogical implications.

1.4 Significance of the Study

Being a new research work on the Tamang language in the faculty of Education, Department of English Education, this research will be invaluable for the Department itself. This research particularly deals with the comparison of English and Tamang verbal affixation systems. The comparative study deals with the similarities and the differences between the two languages. Our assumption is that similarities between two languages make the learning of the target language easy and differences not. Therefore, this study will be beneficial to the students and teachers of the English and Tamang languages. Similarly, linguists, grammarians, researchers, textbook writers and all those who are involved in teaching and learning the English and Tamang languages will benefit from this study.

CHAPTER TWO

METHODOLOGY

The study used the following methodology.

2.1 Sources of Data

Both primary and secondary sources of data have been used while undergoing the study.

2.1.1 Primary Sources of Data

The primary source of data was the responses provided by the native speakers of the Tamang language from Hangum, Limba and Arubote VDCs of Panchthar district.

2.1.2 Secondary Sources of Data

For native English data, different books, related to English Grammar and General linguistics were consulted and referred to for all the data necessary for English verbal affixation. The researcher has made heavy use of such pivotal books as CBS (2002), Quirk and Greenbaum (1973), Poudel (2006), Tamang (2003), Lyons (1981), Sapir (1921), Varshney (1998), Bloomfield (1985) for deriving the methodology of analysis and all the data necessary for English and the Tamang affixation.

2.2 Population of the Study

This study was based on the eighty informants to elicit the Tamang verbal affixation. Eighty Tamang speakers were selected from three VDCs of Panchthar district. The following table shows the informants of the study.

VDC	Educated	Literate	Illiterate	Total
Hangum	15	10	5	30
Limba	15	5	5	25
Arubote	15	5	5	25
Total	45	20	15	80

2.3 Sampling Procedure

The total sample size was eighty Tamang native speakers of Hangum, Limba and Arubote VDC of Panchthar. The researcher took both male and female informants. The total sample population were divided into three groups i.e., illiterate, literate and educated. The sample of the study was selected using stratified random sampling procedure and judgemental sampling procedure.

2.4 Tools for Data Collection

An interview schedule / questionnaire prepared in advance was used in order to elicit the data for verbal affixation in the Tamang language. The questionnaire was piloted before administrating to the sample population. Educated and literate people belonging to the Tamang native language background were distributed the questionnaire to be filled in by themselves, whereas the illiterate informants were interviewed by the researcher himself and filled in the questionnaire with transcription.

The data for English verbal affixation were obtained from secondary sources.

2.5 Process of Data Collection

First, the researcher visited the selected VDCs i.e. Hangum, Limba and Arubote of Panchthar district. Then he built rapport with the native speakers of the Tamang language. He explained his objectives of the study to the native

speakers of Tamang and conducted oral interview with the illiterate respondents on the basis of predetermined interview schedule and recorded their responses in written form. Likewise, he provided some interview schedule as a questionnaire to the literate and educated informants and asked them to write their responses clearly themselves.

2.6 Limitations of the Study

The study has the following limitations:

- i. The present study was based on the data provided by eighty native speakers of the Tamang language.
- ii. The English data on verbal affixation were purely based on secondary sources of data.
- iii. This study was limited to the comparison between Tamang and English verbal affixation only.
- iv. The study was based on only Eastern dialect of the Tamang language.

CHAPTER THREE

ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION

The Tamang verbal affixes are identified as person markers, tense markers, progressive markers, perfective markers, infinitive markers, mood markers and negative markers. As this study is comparative in nature, the verbal affixes in Tamang are compared and contrasted with those of English to find out whether these two languages have equivalent verbal affixes and the rules of verbal affixation are equivalent or not.

This chapter has been divided into the following headings and sub-headings.

3.1 Verbal Affixes in the Tamang Language

Verbal affixes are categorized into person markers, tense markers, progressive markers, perfective markers, infinitive markers, mood markers and negative markers. Each of them is illustrated and compared with English below:

3.1.1 Person Marker Affixes

There are no person marker prefixes in Tamang. Therefore, only the person marker suffixes are discussed below:

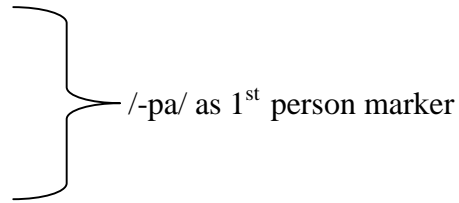
i) /-pa/ or /-ba/ is the person marker suffix in the Tamang language, both of which mark the first person singular and plural. Whereas it is to be noted that /-pa/ is added after words ending in /p, t, k & t̚ / and /-ba/ elsewhere other than this.

For example,

- a pukhri saṭ -pa.

I snake kill-Npt

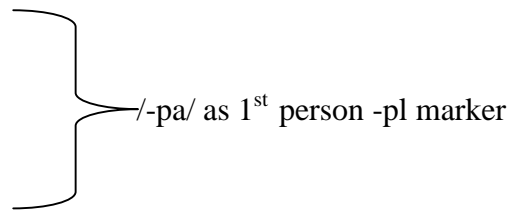
I kill a snake.



-hja t^hteda rop-pa.

we him/her beat-Npt

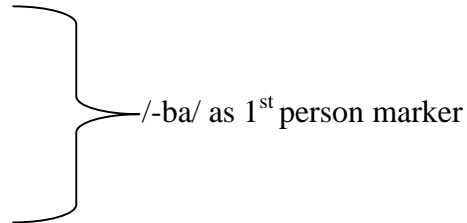
we beat him/her.



- a kan ca-ba

I rice eat-Npt

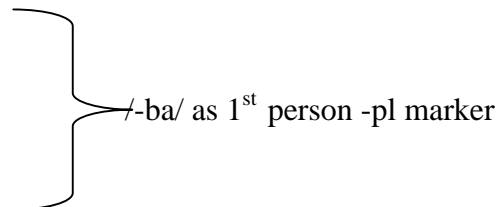
I eat rice.



-hja dugugu iskul ni-ba.

we school go-Npt

we go to school.



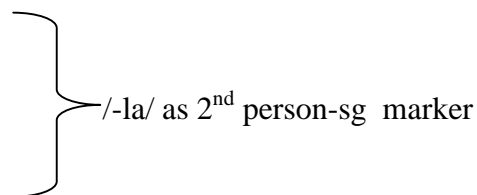
ii) /-la/ is also person marker suffix in the Tamang language. It is added to the verbs to mark the second and third person singular and plural.

For example,

- ai kan ca-la

you rice eat-Npt

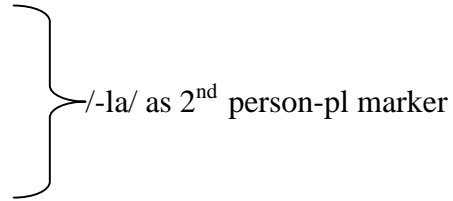
You eat rice



-aidugu kan ca-la.

you rice eat-Npt

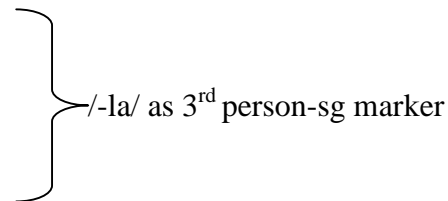
You eat rice.



-t^he kan ca-la

he/she rice eat-Npt

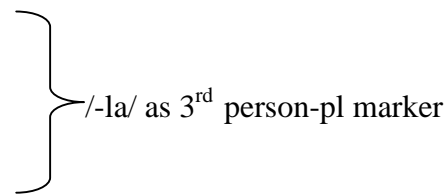
He/she eats rice.



-t^henidugu hwai go-la.

they song sing-Npt

They sing a song



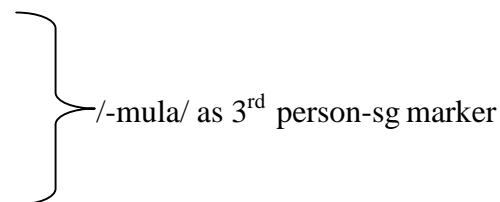
iii) /-mula/ is the person marker suffix in Tamang. It is added to the verb to mark the third person singular and plural.

For example,

-ra gh s ca-mula.

goat grass eat-Npt

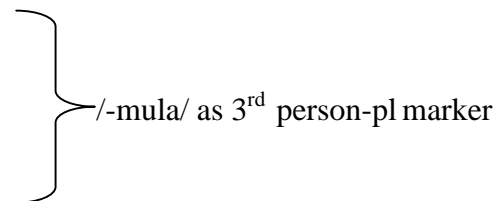
Goat eats grass.



-m^hedugu gh s ca-mula.

cows grass eat-Npt

The cows eat grass.



Moreover, the same markers such as /-pa/, /-ba/, /-la/ and /-mula/ realize the number marker suffix as well in the Tamang language. There are not any prefixes and infixes to mark number in Tamang, e.g.

-hja dugu kui thu <u>-ba.</u>	}	/-ba/ as 1 st person-pl marker
we water drink-Npt.		
We drink water.		
-thenidugu dim ni- <u>la.</u>	}	/-la/ as 3 rd person-pl marker
they home go-Npt		
They go home.		
-m ^h eglapdugu-se gh s ca- <u>mula.</u>	}	/-mula/ as 3 rd person-pl marker
oxes grass eat-Npt		
The oxes eat grass.		

3.1.2 Tense Marker Affixes

There is no tense marker prefix and infix in the Tamang language. Therefore, only suffixes are discussed below:

I. Tense Marker Suffixes

Tense marker suffixes are divided into the non-past tense marker, the past tense marker and unknown past tense marker in Tamang.

i) /-pa/ or /-ba/ or /-la/ or /-mula/ is non-past tense marker suffix in the Tamang language. It is added to the verbs to mark the non-past tense.

For example,

- a neṭ-pa.

I laugh-Npt

I laugh

} /-pa/ as Npt tense marker

-hja iskul ni-ba

we school go-Npt

we go to school.

} /-ba/ as Npt tense marker

-ai dim ni-la.

you home go-Npt

you go home.

} /-la/ as Npt tense marker

-muise gh s ca-mula.

buffalo grass eat-Npt

The buffalo eats grass.

} /-mula/ as Npt tense marker

ii) /-ci/ or /zi/ is the past tense marker suffix in the Tamang language both of which mark the past tense of all persons, singular and plural. /-ci/ is added after /p, t, k & ṭ/ and /-zi/ is added elsewhere other than this.

For example,

- a neṭ-ci.

I laugh-Pt

I laughed.

} /-ci/ as 1st person Pt tense marker

-the dim ni-zi

he/she home go-Pt

He/she went home.

} /-zi/ as 3rd person-sg Pt tense marker

-t^henidnguse hwai go-zi

they-ERG song sing-Pt

They sang a song.

} /-zi/ as 3rd person-pl Pt tense marker

-aise dimla ge la-zi.

you homework do-Pt

You did homework.

} /-zi/ as 2nd person-sg Pt tense marker

iii) /-cim/ or /-zim/ is unknown past tense maker in the Tamang language both of which mark unknown past tense of all persons, singular and plural. /-cim/ is added to the verbs after /p, t, k & ṭ/ and /-zim/ elsewhere other than this.

For example,

-pemba-se pukhri saṭ-cim.
pemba-ERG snake kill-Upt
Pemba killed a snake.

} /-cim/ as 3rd person-sg Upt tense marker

- ase t^hen a i yamburi se-zim.
uncle and aunt Kathmandu go-Upt
Uncle and aunt went to Kathmandu.

} /-zim/ as 3rd person-pl Upt tense marker

-ai dim dokha-zim.
you home arrive-Upt
You arrived at home.

} /-zim/ as 2nd person-sg Upt tense marker

3.1.3 Progressive Marker Affixes

/-pan/ or /-ban/ is the progressive marker suffix in Tamang. /-pan/ is added to the verbs after /p, t, k, and ṭ / marking progressive aspect and /-ban/ elsewhere other than this.

For example,

-cesa t^hen pasa c^haṭ-pan mula.
chesang and pasang fight-PROG be-Npt
chesang and pasang are fighting.

} /-pan/ as 3rd person-pl PROG marker

-t ^h e cit ^h i bri- <u>ban</u> mula.	}	/-ban/ as 3 rd person-sg PROG marker
he/she letter write-PROG be-Npt		
He/she is writing a letter		
-ai dim ni- <u>ban</u> mula;	}	/-ban/ as 2 nd person-sg PROG marker
you home go-PROG be-Npt		
you are going home.		
-hja dugu kha- <u>ban</u> mula.	}	/-ban/ as 1 st person-pl PROG marker
we come-PROG be-Npt		
we are coming.		

3.1.4 Perfective Marker Affixes

/-pala/ or /-bala/ is perfective marker suffix in the Tamang language both of which indicate perfective aspect both-past and non-past tense. /-pala/ is added to the verbs after /p, t, k & t̥/ and /-bala/ elsewhere other than this.

For example,

-para chat- <u>pala</u> mula.	}	/-pala/ as 3 rd person-sg PERF marker
parang fight-PERF be-Npt		
parang has fought.		

-ai-se pukhri saṭ-pala mula.
 you-ERG snake kill-PERF be-Npt } /-pala/ as 2nd person-sg PERF marker
 You have killed a snake

-t^he-se kan ca-bala muba.
 he/she-ERG rice eat-PERF be-Pt } /-bala/ as 3rd person-sg PERF marker
 He/she had eaten rice.

- a yambu ni-bala mula.
 I kathmandu go-PERF be-Npt } /-bala/ as 1st person PERF marker
 I have gone to Kathmandu.

3.1.5 Infinitive Marker Affixes

There is not any prefix and infix to mark infinitive marker in Tamang. So, only infinitive marker suffix is discussed below:

The suffix /-bar/ indicates the infinitive marker suffix in the Tamang language. It is added to the verb to mark all persons and numbers.

For example,

- a kla -bar ni-ba.
 I play- INF go-Npt } /-bar/ as 1st person INF marker
 I go to play.

-para m^he cha-bar ni-zi.
 parng cow graze-ING go-Pt
 parang went to graze the cow.

} /-bar/ as 3rd person-sg INF marker

-t^henidugu c^hjoi padti-bar ni-zi.
 they book read-INF go-Pt
 They went to read a book.

} /-bar/ as 3rd person-pl INF marker

3.1.6 Mood Marker Affixes

The Tamang language has different mood marker affixes. In terms of verbal affixes, imperative and optative mood markers are discussed below:

i) Imperative Mood Marker:

- /-u/ or /-go/ is the imperative marker suffix in Tamang. It is added to the verb to mark imperative mood.

For example,

-(ai) curi k^ha-u.
 you this-LOC come-IMP
 (you) come here

} /-u/ as IMP mood marker

-curi cja-go.
 this-LOC look-IMP
 Look here.

} /-go/ as IMP mood marker

• /-ge/ is also imperative marker suffix in Tamang. It is added to the verb stems.

For example,

-hja kla -ge.
 we play-IMP
 Let's play.

} /-ge/ as IMP mood marker

ii) Optative Mood Marker

/-gai/ is optative marker suffix on the other hand. It is added to the verb to mark optative mood.

For example,

-ai chiri -gai!
 you long life-OPT
 May you live long!

} /-gai/ as OPT mood marker

3.1.7 Negation Marker Affixes

There is only negation marker prefix /a-/ in the Tamang language which is added to the verb to mark all persons and numbers.

For example,

- a dim a-niba.

I home NEG-go-Npt

I do not go home

} /a-/ as 1st person NEG marker

-ai theri a-doni.

you there NEG-reach-Pt

You did not reach there.

} /a-/ as 2nd person-sg NEG marker

-hja dugu kor-bar a-nini.

we visit-INF NEG-go-Pt

we did not go to visit.

} /a-/ as 1st person-pl NEG marker

-t^he a-sjani.

he/she NEG-dance-Pt

He/she did not dance.

} /a-/ as 3rd person-sg NEG marker

-thenidugu iskul a-nini

they school NEG-go-Pt

They did not go to school.

} /a-/ as 3rd person-pl NEG marker

3.2 Comparison Between English and Tamang

Comparison of both English and the Tamang affixes are as follows:

3.2.1 Person Marker Affixes

In English, there are not any prefixes and infixes to mark person marker as well. Therefore, only the person marker suffixes are illustrated here.

/-s/ is the person marker suffix in English which is added to the verbs to mark third person singular. It has different allomorphs and the occurrence of one allomorph differs from the occurrence of another. They are as follows:

{-s} is the allomorph of the morpheme -s and it is added to the verbs ending in voiceless sound not sibilant or palatal, eg. He writess a letter.

{-iz} is also the allomorph of the morpheme -s and it is added to the verbs ending in sibilant or palatal, eg. She watchess the T.V.

{-z} is also the allomorph of the same morpheme -s and it is added to the verbs ending in voiced sound not sibilant or palatal, eg. He lovess her.

Similarly, the same marker suffix i.e. /-s/ functions as number marker as well in English.

In Tamang, /-pa/, /-ba/, /-la/ and /-mula/ are the person markers as well as number markers which are used according to different conditions.

3.2.2 Tense Marker Affixes

In English, there are not any prefixes and infixes to mark tense marker as well. It has only two tense marker suffixes-one non-past tense marker suffix and the other past tense marker suffix.

/-s/ is the non-past tense marker suffix which is added to the verbs to mark the third person singular. {-s}, {-iz} and {-z} are different allomorphs of the same morpheme-s and used in different conditions.

Similarly, /-ed/ is past tense marker suffix in English. It is added to the regular verb to mark all persons and numbers such as cooked, played, guided, etc. It has also different allomorphs and the occurrence of the one allomorph differs from the occurrence of another.

In Tamang, the following suffixes are the tense marker affixes:

- i) /-pa/ or /-ba/, /-la/ and /-mula/ are the non-past tense marker suffixes,
- ii) /-ci/ or /-zi/ is the past tense marker suffix, and
- iii) /-cim/ or /-zim/ is the unknown past tense marker suffix.

3.2.3 Progressive Marker Affixes

In English, there is only one progressive marker suffix i.e. /-ing/. It is added to the verbs to mark progressive aspect, eg. I am writing a thesis.

But in Tamang, there is alternative progressive marker suffix i.e. /-pan/ or /-ban/ which is added to the verbs in different conditions.

3.2.4 Perfective Marker Affixes

In English, [-ed] marks the perfective marker suffix along with past tense marker. It is added to the regular verbs to mark all persons and numbers.

For examples,

- She has cooked rice.
- They have played volleyball.
- He has guided me for my thesis writing.

Similarly, /-en/ is also the perfective marker suffix in English. It is added to the irregular verbs to mark all persons and numbers, e.g. She has written a letter.

But in Tamang, /-pala/ or /-bala/ is perfective marker suffix which is added to the verbs to mark both past and non-past tense as well as singular and plural.

3.2.5 Infinitive Marker Affixes

In English, there is not any infinitive marker affixes. But in Tamang, /-bar/ realizes the infinitive marker suffix which is added to the verb to mark all persons and numbers.

3.2.6 Mood Marker Affixes

In English, there is not any mood marker affixes.

But the Tamang language has the following mood marker affixes:

- i) /-u/ or /-go/ and /-ge/ are imperative mood markers,
- ii) /-gai/ is the optative mood marker.

3.2.7 Negation Marker Affixes

In English, there are no negative marker suffixes and infixes. Therefore, only the negation marker prefixes are used in English as well. English has negative marker prefixes in greater number than the Tamang language. Mainly, /dis-/, /un-/, /mis-/ etc. are the negation marker prefixes.

For examples,

- He discontinued his study.
- She unlocked her mobile.
- He misunderstood her intentions.

In Tamang, there is only one negative marker prefix i.e. /a-/.

CHAPTER FOUR

FINDINGS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Upon describing the verbal affixation in both English and Tamang, it has been found that there are both similarities and differences between them. Sufficient information on these languages in light of similarities and differences has been provided in the preceding chapter. This chapter deals with what exactly found in the two languages, and recommendations for the further study.

4.1 Findings of the Study

Since the main objectives of this study are to find out the Tamang verbal affixation and compare and contrast between English and the Tamang on the basis of analysis of collected data, the major findings of this research are that Tamang uses the affixes such as /a-/, /-pa/, -ba/, /-la/, /-mula/, /-pan/, /-ban/, /-pala/, /-bala/, /-ci/, /-zi/, /-cim/, /-zim/, /-bar/, /-u/, /-go/, /-ge/, /-gai/, etc.

This can be illustrated as follows:

1. /a-/ is only one prefix in the Tamang language. It is added to the verbs to mark negation marker.
2. /-pa/ or /-ba/ is the first person singular and plural number marker suffix. It marks non- past tense as well.
3. /-la/ is the second and third person both singular and plural marker suffix.
4. /-mula/ is also the non-past tense marker and it is the third person singular and plural marker suffix.
5. /-pan/ or /-ban/ is alternative progressive marker suffix.
6. /-pala/ or /-bala/ is perfective marker suffixed to the verb stems.

7. /-ci/ or /-zi/ is the past tense marker suffix.
8. /-cim/ or /-zim/ is the unknown past tense marker
9. /-bar/ is the infinitive marker suffix.
10. /-u/ or /-go/ and /-ge/ are the imperative mood marker suffixes.
11. /-gai/ is the optative mood marker suffix.

4.1.2 Similarities and Differences between Verbal Affixation in the Tamang and English Languages

- i. Both the Tamang and English languages lack infixation system.
- ii. English has negative marker prefixes in greater number than Tamang. Tamang has only one negation marker prefix i.e. /a-/.
- iii. Both have person marker suffixes. English has only one person suffix and it marks the third person singular whereas Tamang has all person marker suffixes.
- iv. Both have number marker suffixes. English has only one number marker suffix and it marks the third person singular whereas Tamang has same suffix for both singular and plural.
- v. Both languages have two tense marker suffixes- one non-past tense marker and the other past tense marker. But in Tamang past tense marker is further divided into two i.e. simple and unknown past tense markers.
- vi. Tamang has alternative progressive marker suffixes whereas English has no alternative progressive marker suffix.
- vii. The Tamang has imperative and optative mood marker suffixes but English has no such kind of affixes.
- viii. Tamang has infinitive marker suffix whereas it lacks in English.

4.2 Recommendations

On the basis of the findings listed above the researcher recommends the following for pedagogical implications.

- i. The differences between English and Tamang have created difficulty in learning the target language. Therefore, teaching should be focussed on the areas of difficulty.
- ii. The findings of the present study show that Tamang has quite a number of verbal affixes in comparison to English and they are quite complex than those of English. So, complexity of the Tamang verbal affixation system be considered while teaching English verbal affixation system to the Tamang native speakers.
- iii. Tamang verbal affixes do not depend upon the number and gender of the subject of a sentence. So language teachers who are teaching Tamang as a second language should be aware of this fact.
- iv. Verbal affixation system of English is not complicated as that of Tamang. So, the Tamang native speakers are to be made aware of this fact by making exposed to enough examples of English verbs to which the verbal affixes are added.

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APPENDIX - I

INTERVIEW SCHEDULE/QUESTIONNAIRE

Dear Respondents,

This interview schedule/questionnaire has been prepared in order to accomplish research work entitled '**Verbal Affixation in English and Tamang.**' It is hoped that your invaluable co-operation will be a great contribution for the accomplishment of this valuable research.

Researcher

Padam Ghising

T.U. Kirtipur, Kathmandu

Name :

Sex : (Male/ Female)

Age :.....

Address :.....

Academic Qualification:

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

(तपाईं निम्न लिखित वाक्यहरूलाई तामाङ्ग भाषामा कसरी भन्नु हुन्छ ?)

1. I eat rice. (म भात खान्छु ।)

.....

2. we^{dl} eat rice. (हामी (दुई) भात खान्छौं ।)

.....

3. We^{pl} eat rice. (हामी/हरु भात खान्छौं ।)

.....

4. You^{sing} eat rice. (तिमी भात खान्छौं ।)

-
5. You^{pl} eat rice. (तिमीहरु भात खान्छौ ।)
-
6. He eats rice. (ऊ भात खान्छ ।)
-
7. She eats rice. (उनी भात खान्छे ।)
-
8. They eat rice. (तिनीहरु/उनीहरु भात खान्छन् ।)
-
9. The man is coming. (मानिस/मान्छे आइरहेको छ ।)
-
10. Men are coming. (मानिसहरु/मान्छेहरु आइरहेका छन् ।)
-
11. Pasang and Chesang are fighting . (पासाङ र चेसाङ भगडा गरिरहेका छन् ।)
-
12. Dolma is going home. (डोल्मा घर गइरहेकी छे ।)
-
13. He is going home. (ऊ घर गइरहेको छ ।)
-
14. You are going home. (तिमी घर गइरहेका छौ ।)
-
15. We are going home. (हामी/हरु घर गइरहेका छौं ।)
-
16. They are going home. (उनीहरु घर गइरहेका छन् ।)
-
17. He has written a letter. (उसले चिठी लेखेको छ ।)

-
18. She has written a letter. (उनले चिठी लेखेकी छे ।)
-
19. You have written a letter. (तिमीले चिठी लेखेको छौ ।)
-
20. We have written a letter. (हामीले चिठी लेखेका छौं ।)
-
21. They have written a letter. (उनीहरूले चिठी लेखेका छन् ।)
-
22. Chesang has been playing. (चेसाङ खेल्दै छ ।)
-
23. You have been playing. (तिमी खेल्दै छौ ।)
-
24. We have been playing. (हामी/हरु खेल्दै छौं)
-
25. They have been playing (उनीहरु खेल्दै छन् ।)
-
26. I laughed. (म हाँसें ।)
-
27. Pasang went home. (पासाङ घर गयो ।)
-
28. She went home. (उनी घर गइन् ।)
-
29. They went home. (तिनीहरु घर गए ।)
-
30. He went to graze the cow. (उ गाई चराउन गयो ।)

-
31. I went to play. (म खेलन गएँ ।)
-
32. Lakpa went to read a book. (लाक्पा किताब पढन गयो ।)
-
33. Pemba was killing a snake. (पेम्बाले सर्प मारिरहेको थियो ।)
-
34. He was writing a letter. (उ चिट्ठी लेखिरहेको थियो ।)
-
35. You were writing a letter. (तिमी चिट्ठी लेखिरहेका थियौ ।)
-
36. They were writing a letter. (उनीहरु चिट्ठी लेखिरहेका थिए ।)
-
37. I had eaten rice. (मैले भात खाइसकेको थिएँ ।)
-
38. He had eaten rice. (उसले भात खाइसकेको थियो ।)
-
39. She had eaten rice. (उनले भात खाइसकेकी थिइन् ।)
-
40. You had eaten rice. (तिमीले भात खाइसकेको थियौ ।)
-
41. We had eaten rice. (हामीले भात खाइसकेका थियौ ।)
-
42. They had eaten rice. (उनीहरुले भात खाइसकेका थिए ।)
-
43. Pemba had beaten Chyangba. (पेम्बाले च्याङबालाई पिटेको थियो ।)

-
44. She had been doing homework. (उनी गृहकार्य गर्दै थिइन ।)
-
45. I had been doing homework. (म गृहकार्य गर्दै थिएँ ।)
-
46. You had been doing homework. (तिमी गृहकार्य गर्दै थियौ ।)
-
47. We had been doing homework. (हामी गृहकार्य गर्दै थियौं ।)
-
48. They had been doing homework. (उनीहरु गृहकार्य गर्दै थिए ।)
-
49. Dolma will come from Jomsom. (डोल्मा जोमसोमबाट आउने छिन् ।)
-
50. I will come. (म आउनेछु ।)
-
51. He will come. (उ आउनेछ ।)
-
52. We will come. (हामी आउनेछौं ।)
-
53. They will come. (उनीहरु आउनेछन् ।)
-
54. He will be coming. (उ आइरहेको हुनेछ ।)
-
55. You will be coming. (तिमी आइरहेका हुनेछौं ।)
-
56. We will be coming. (हामी आइरहेका हुनेछौं ।)

-
57. They will be coming (उनीहरु आइरहेका हुनेछन् ।)
-
58. Dolma will come. (डोल्मा आउने छिन् ।)
-
59. I live in Phidim Bazaar. (म फिदिम बजारमा बस्छु ।)
-
60. I live in Phidim Bazaar with my friends. (म मेरो साथीहरूसँग फिदिम बजारमा बस्छु ।)
-
61. There is a book. (त्यहाँ किताब छ ।)
-
- 62.. There are two books. (त्यहाँ दुइवटा किताब छन् ।)
-
63. She brought a book. (उनले एउटा किताब ल्याइन् ।)
-
64. He brought a lot of books. (उसले धेरै किताबहरु ल्याए ।)
-
65. He went home (unknown past) (ऊ घर गएछ ।)
-
66. Pemba beat Pema. (unknown Past) (पेम्बाले पेमालाई पिटेछ ।)
-
67. Buffalo ate Paddy. (unknown past) (भैंसीले धान खाएछ ।)
-
68. Goat eats grass. (बाखाले घाँस खान्छ ।)
-
69. The cows eat grass. (गाईहरुले घाँस खान्छन् ।)

-
70. The sun rises in the east. (सुर्य पुरवमा उदाउंछ ।)
-
71. Pasang and Dolma went home. (Unknown past) (पासाड र डोल्मा घर गएछ ।)
-
72. My uncle and aunt went to Kathmandu. (Unknown past) (मेरो मामा र माइजु काठमाडौंमा जानुभएछ ।)
-
73. Pasang, Palsang, Dorje and I are writing. (पासाड, पाल्साड, दोर्जे र म लेखिरहेका छौं ।)
-
74. There is a house. (त्यहाँ घर छ ।)
-
75. There is my house. (त्यहाँ मेरो घर छ ।)
-
76. Chyangba gave a book. (च्याङ्वाले किताब दियो ।)
-
77. Chyangba gave a book to me. (च्याङ्वाले मलाई किताब दियो ।)
-
78. They gave a book to me. (उनीहरूले मलाई किताब दिए ।)
-
79. They gave a book to him. (उनीहरूले उसलाई किताब दिए ।)
-
80. I gave a book to you. (मैले तिमीलाई किताब दिएँ ।)
-
81. They are good. (तिनीहरु असल छन् ।)

.....
82. They are not good. (तिनीहरु असल छैनन् ।)
.....

83. They are bad. (तिनीहरु खराब छन् ।)
.....

84. Chhiring speaks English. (छिरिङ अंग्रेजी बोल्छ ।)
.....

85. Chhiring does not speak English. (छिरिङ अंग्रेजी बोल्दैन ।)
.....

86. He does not eat rice. (उ भात खादैन ।)
.....

87. She did not eat rice. (उनले भात खाइनन् ।)
.....

88. We do not eat rice. (हामी/हरु भात खादैनौं ।)
.....

89. We didn't dance. (हामी नाचेनौं ।)
.....

90. They don't sing a song. (उनीहरु गीत गाउँदैनन् ।)
.....

91. I didn't dance. (म नाचीन ।)
.....

92. They didn't dance. (उनीहरु नाचेनन् ।)
.....

93. Don't smoke. (धुम्रपान नगर ।)
.....

94. Don't open the door. (ढोका नखोल ।)

-
95. We did not eat rice. (हामीले भात खाएनौं ।)
.....
96. He won't play. (उ खेल्नेछैन ।)
.....
97. She won't play. (उनी खेल्ने छैनन् ।)
.....
98. We won't play. (हामी खेल्ने छैनौं ।)
.....
99. They won't play. (उनीहरु खेल्ने छैनन ।)
.....
100. She cooks rice everyday. (उनी दिनहुँ भात पकाउँछिन ।)
.....
101. Pasang always drinks black tea . (पासाङ सधैं कालो चिया पिउँछ ।)
.....
102. Pema must give me a book. (पेमाले मलाई किताब दिनुपर्छ ।)
.....
103. You have to write a letter. (तिमीले चिठी लेख्नुपर्छ ।)
.....
104. I beat you. (म तिमीलाई पिट्छु ।)
.....
105. I kill a snake. (म सर्प मार्छु ।)
.....
106. (You) come here. ((तिमी) यहाँ आउ ।)
.....
107. Look here. (यता हेर ।)

.....
108. Let's play. (हामी खेलौं ।)

.....
109. Let's go home. (हामी घर जाऔं ।)

.....
110. May you live long ! (तिमी धेरै बाँच !)
.....

Thank you for your cooperation.

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APPENDIX- II

Distribution of Tamang Population in Nepal (CBS, 2001)				
S.N.	Total Population of Nepal	23151423	Total Population of Tamang	Total Tamang Percentage
	District	Total Population	1282304	5.64
Eastern Development Region		5286890	196264	3.71
1	Taplejung	134698	5530	4.11
2	Panchthar	202056	13788	6.82
3	Ilam	282806	19302	6.83
4	Jhapa	633042	16338	2.58
5	Morang	843220	18953	2.25
6	Dhankuta	166479	9939	5.97
7	Tehrathum	113111	6548	5.79
8	Sunsari	625633	13452	2.15
9	Sankhuwasava	159203	15048	9.45
10	Bhojpur	203018	17246	8.49
11	Solukhumbu	107686	10153	9.43
12	Okhaldhunga	156702	14371	9.17
13	Khotang	231385	9251	4.00

14	Udayapur	287889	19470	6.76
15	Saptari	570282	637	0.11
16	Siraha	569880	6238	1.09
Central Development Region		7988612	1031847	12.92
17	Dhanusha	671364	8699	1.30
18	Mahottari	553481	7471	1.35
19	Sarlahi	635701	33740	5.31
20	Sindhuli	277259	70968	25.60
21	Ramechhap	313408	43669	20.46
22	Dolakha	175912	27619	15.70
23	Sindhupalchowk	293719	94614	32.21
24	Kavrepalanchowk	385672	130261	33.78
25	Lalitpur	337785	40059	11.86
26	Bhaktapur	225461	14728	6.53
27	Kathmandu	1081845	92378	8.54
28	Nuwakot	288478	111112	38.52
29	Rasuwa	44731	28515	63.75
30	Dhading	338658	72746	21.48
31	Makawanpur	392604	185874	47.34
32	Rautahat	545132	6536	1.20
33	Bara	559135	19405	3.47
34	Parsa	497219	8716	1.75
35	Chiwan	472048	34737	7.36
Western Development		4571013	40261	0.88

Region				
36	Gorkha	288134	9184	3.19
37	Lamjung	177149	11919	6.73
38	Tanahu	315237	3216	1.02
39	Syangja	317320	205	0.06
40	Kaski	380527	7983	2.10
41	Manang	9587	343	3.58
42	Mustang	14981	188	1.25
43	Myagdi	114447	96	0.08
44	Parbat	157826	159	0.10
45	Baglung	268937	440	0.16
46	Gulmi	296654	34	0.01
47	Palpa	268558	87	0.03
48	Nawalparasi	562870	5220	0.93
49	Rupandehi	708419	1117	0.16
50	Kapilbastu	481976	61	0.01
51	Arghakhanchi	208391	15	0.01
Mid western Development Region		2707244	4603	0.17
52	Pyuthan	212484	252	0.12
53	Rolpa	210004	29	0.01
54	Rukum	188438	18	0.01
55	Salyan	60643	42	0.07
56	Dang	462380	227	0.05
57	Banke	385840	552	0.14

58	Bardiya	382649	1002	0.26
59	Surkhet	269870	168	0.06
60	Dailekh	225201	243	0.11
61	Jajarkot	134868	15	0.01
62	Dolpa	22071	237	1.07
63	Jumla	69226	471	0.68
64	Kalikot	11510	26	0.23
65	Mugu	31465	991	3.15
66	Humla	40595	330	0.81
Far western Development Region		2183175	9329	0.43
67	Bajura	100626	23	0.02
68	Bajhang	167026	84	0.05
69	Achham	231285	23	0.01
70	Doti	207066	66	0.03
71	Kailali	616697	1382	0.22
72	Kanchanpur	377899	7664	2.03
73	Dadeldhura	126162	30	0.02
74	Baitadi	234418	32	0.01
75	Darchula	121996	25	0.02

