## CHAPTER ONE

## INTRODUCTION

### 1.1 General Background

Generally, language is a chief means of communication. It is the voluntary, vocal system of human communication. It is a system of communication in speech and in writing that is used by the people of a particular place or a country. It is a dynamic and open system that makes human beings communicate their thoughts, ideas, feelings, emotions and expressions. According to Sapir (1921:8) "Language is a primarily human and non-instinctive method of communicating ideas, emotions and desires by means of a system of voluntarily produced symbols".

Language is common to all and only human beings. It is the most unique gift that sets apart from rest of living beings. The possession of language makes us dominant to the rest of the creatures. It is the greatest accomplishment of human civilization. It is not only a personal phenomenon but also a social phenomenon which we use in the whole community to express our ideas and feelings by means of which we establish the relationship in the society. In this context, we can say that a language is a system of vocal symbols by means of which a social group co-operates. It is the medium through which we create the religion, history, literature, philosophy, politics, etc. and transmit them to upcoming generation. We can not think of any social, academic and artistic activities going on without language. It is perhaps the most significant assets of human life. Thus, language is the species-specific and specificuniform possession of man.

### 1.1. The English Language and its Significance in Nepal

English is one of the most widely used language in the world, which comes under the West-Germanic sub-branch of the Indo-European family. It is the means of international communication and is recognized by the UNO. It is spoken more widely among different countries than any other language, as such it is recognized as an international language. It has achieved a world wide status and has been a global language. It is spoken more than any other language as a lingua franca among the international speech communities. Most of the significant deeds in any discipline of
the world are found in English. It has the largest body of vocabulary and the richest body of literature. Most of the books and articles are written and published in the English language. Thus, English is not only a principal language for international communication but also a gateway to the world body of knowledge.

The development of the English language in Nepal is closely connected with the rise of the Prime Minister Jung Bahadur Rana. After his visit to England, he established Durbar High School in 1953. It was the first school to teach the English language in Nepal. Since then it has been included in curriculum right from primary to the bachelor's level. It has been introduced as a compulsory subject from one grade to bachelor's level and taught and learnt in almost all the educational institutions of Nepal. Therefore, English has been an important tool for any pupil to become successful in local, national and international communication. So, its importance in the present day world need not be over emphasized.

English is being taught and learnt as a foreign language in many countries including Nepal. Basically, teaching English in Nepal aims at making the students enable to communicate their ideas and feelings with one another and with the people of any nationality who speak or write English. Language, here, is seen as a skill that enables one to get things done. It will be suitable to conclude that language is learnt in terms of enhancing four skills namely, listening, speaking, reading and writing. To achieve certain degree of mastery over these skills would mean achieving fluency and accuracy in communication. Accuracy is related to grammatical competence.

## 1. 1. 2 The Tharu Language

Nepal is a multiracial, multilingual, multireligious, multicultural and multiethnic nation. Nepal is small in area but very rich in terms of language, culture and religion. According to the Population Census Report 2001, there are 92 identified languages spoken in Nepal. Many of them do not have their written script but only used in daily communication.

In Nepal, more than hundred ethnic people live in different parts. Those indigenous people have their own language, religion and culture. Among them, the Tharus, indigenous people of Nepal, live from the east to the west, are highly populated ethnic group found in almost all the districts of Terai, the southern part of Nepal. The majority of Tharu speakers are found in Dang, Banke, Bardiya, Deukhuri,

Kapilbastu, Rupandehi, Kailali, Kanchanpur, Chitwan, Nawalparashi, Bara, Parsa, Saptari, Udaypur, Sunsari and Morang districts. Very few Tharu speaking people live in the hill and even fewer of them live in the high mountain (CBS: 2002). They have their own language and culture.

According to the Population Census Report 2001, the Tharu language is the fourth largest language of Nepal, as it is used by 13,31,546 people from Mechi to Mahakali. Though, there are $15,33,879$ total population of the Tharu people, it is spoken by 5.86 percentage Nepalese of the total population as their mother tongue.

Tharu is an Indo- Aryan language written in Devanagari script. Though, it has a long history, it does not have its own script. Language is a personal and social phenomenon. It varies from place to place (regional), from society to society and even from person to person (idiolects). Not a single language is spoken exactly in the same way from one part of country to the other. It is full of regional dialects and sociolects. This is also true in case of the Tharu language. Because of geographical barriers, there is variation in the Tharu language, which are named geographically as Morangiya, Saptariya, Mahotariya, Chitwaniya, Dangoriya and Deukhuriya, Kathariya, and Rana dialects.

### 1.1.3 Importance of Grammar

Grammar is a system of general principles for speaking and writing a language. Grammar is the rules in a language for changing the form of words and combining them into sentences. Grammar is a science that treats of the principles that govern the correct use of language in either oral or written form. Richards et al. (1999:161) define grammar as "a description of the structures of a language and the way in which linguistic units such as words and phrases are combined to produce sentences in the language. It usually takes into account the meaning and functions. These sentences have in the overall system of the language. It may or may not include the description of sound of a language."

There is a set of rules which govern how grammatical units of meaning may be constructed in any language. Grammar is a mechanism of language to produce correct sentences according to rules of the language. It teaches us to manipulate a language in speech and writing. The aim of grammar is to help the learners in constructing structures which accurately express the intended meaning they want to create. In this way, grammar is the means to improve accuracy in the use of language.

### 1.1.4 Need and Importance of Contrastive Analysis

According to James (1980:3), "Contrastive Analysis is a linguistic enterprise aimed at producing (i.e. contrastive not comparative) two valued typologies (a CA is always concerned with pair of languages) and founded on the assumption that languages can be compared". Contrastive analysis (CA henceforth) is a scientific study of similarities and differences between languages. It is the branch of linguistics which compares learner's two languages, viz. their mother tongue and target language to find out their similarities and differences and then to predict the areas of ease and difficulty in learning. The comparison may be between two different languages (e.g.: English and Tharu) which is called interlingual comparison and between two dialects of the same language which is called intralingual comparison. Similarly the comparison between two or more languages on phonological, morphological, syntactic level and other levels also enables us to identify the similarities and differences between L1 and L2 and those similarities and differences help us in predicting the area of ease and the difficulty in learning L2.

CA was introduced in the late 1940s and 50s, highly popularized in the 60s and its popularity declined in the 70s. The development of CA for foreign language teaching can be advocated first by the American linguist C.C. Fries. In 1945, his work "Teaching and Learning English as a Foreign Language" was published in which he quotes that "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".

Later, making the concept more direct, clear and explicit, Robert Lado published his classical work entitled "Linguistic Across Culture" in 1957. In this book, Lado (1957:1,2) provided three underlying assumptions of CA which have significant roles in language teaching:
a) "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 the language... and receptively when attempting to grasp and understand the language".
b) "In the comparison between native and foreign languages lies the key to ease or difficulty in foreign language learning".
c) "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 problems are and can better provide for teaching them".

CA is based on the behaviouristic theory of learning. According to this theory, learning a language is a matter of habit formation. When learners come in contact with an L2, they have already mastered an L1. In such case, they transfer the knowledge of L1 in learning L2. While learning an L2, some features of it are easier to learn and some are difficult because of the transfer of the old habit/knowledge (L1). If the old habit/knowledge (L1) is similar to the new knowledge (L2), there is positive transfer which facilitates in learning new habit (L2) but if the old habit (L1) is different from the new (L2), there is negative transfer which hinders in learning a new habit (L2).

In short, the more similarities between the two languages, the more easier to learn and the more differences between the two languages, the more difficult to learn. We can say that the greater the similarities the greater the ease, and the greater the ease the lesser the chances of errors; the greater the differences the greater the difficulty, and the greater the difficulty the greater the chances of errors. But sometimes, similarity may cause difficulty and dissimilarity may cause ease in learning the target language. This paradoxical remark is made by Osgood (1949) called similarity paradox. The following statements are in favour of similarity paradox:
a) Difficulty is clearly a psychological matter whereas difference is linguistic one.
b) Because a particular feature of the target language is different from that of the mother tongue, it does not necessarily follow that it is difficult to learn.
c) Relatively similarity, rather than difference is directly related to levels of difficulty.

CA has its significant contribution to the L2 teaching. It provides sound conceptual insight about the language a teacher teaches. It helps the teacher to diagnose the level of difficulty and cause of the errors that learner commits.

Contrastive Analysis has great importance in language learning. It is mainly important when a language is taught and learnt as a second language. There are mainly two functions of CA. Firstly, CA predicts the likely errors to be committed by
a particular group of learners in learning a particular language, is also regarded as the primary function of CA. In this regard, CA is very 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. Secondly, CA explains the sources of error in one's performance. This is the secondary function of CA. So, a language teacher should have the knowledge of CA to treat the learners psychologically and academically. The syllabus designers and text book writers also get benefits from the findings of CA.

### 1.1.5 Pluralization

A language may have different grammatical processes. Among them, pluralization is one. Pluralization is the process of converting the singular form of noun/pronoun/verb into the plural and the singular sentences into the plural ones. In English, to convert a singular noun into plural one, the bound morpheme is used. Thus, Pluralization is the part of morphology that studies about the morphemes. It not only alters the meaning of words but also adds something in meaning. It is a linguistic process which occurs in every language in the world. Pluralization is found in both the languages: English and Tharu. The process of transforming the singular noun/pronoun/verb into plural one and the singular sentence into plural one differs from English to Tharu.

The study of Pluralization falls under number. Number is called $w \partial \mathrm{c} \partial \mathrm{n}$ in both Tharu and Nepali. Number is of two kinds: singular and plural. Singular denotes one and plural denotes more than one person or thing. Generally, in English, singular nouns are turned into plural ones by adding-s/es suffix with singular countable noun, e.g. cup - cups, bench - benches. Some singular nouns are also pluralized by adding en suffix, e.g. ox -oxen, child - children. In some case, singular nouns are turned into plural ones by mutation (the change of internal vowels), e. g. man - men, foot - feet, etc. Pluralization is not only in noun but also in pronoun and verb. Pronouns have plural forms but they are fixed in English, e.g. I-we, me-us, etc. The Pluralization system of verbs is just opposite to that of nouns because singular verbs attached $-s / e s$ suffix is removed in their plural form e.g. teaches - teach, eats - eat, etc. Pluralization takes place on word, phrase and sentence level. Here, it can be shown on these levels as follows:

## A. Word Level

Pluralization can be made by adding-s/es suffix as well as -en suffix, by changing vowel sounds in noun and by removing -s/es suffix from the singular verbs. Pronoun has definite plural form.

For example

| Noun |  | Pronoun |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Singular | Plural | Singular | Plural |
| girl | girls | he/she | they |
| bench | benches | me | us |
| ox | oxen | I | we |
| foot | feet | him/her | them |
| fly | flies | my | our |

Verb

| Singular | Plural | Singular | Plural |
| :--- | :--- | :---: | :---: |
| looks | look | is/am | are |
| touches | touch | has | have |
| cries | cry | was | were |

## B. Phrase Level

| Singular | Plural |
| :--- | :--- |
| one pen | pens |
| a book | books |
| a mat | several mats |
| a cup | many cups |

## C. Sentence Level

The pluralization of noun/pronoun must show agreement with verb. Singular noun/pronoun takes singular form of verb and plural noun/pronoun takes plural one.

For example,
Singular : A parrot is sitting on the wall.
Plural : Parrots are sitting on the wall.

Singular: A buffalo is in the pond.
Plural: Buffaloes are in the pond.
Singular: She writes a letter.
Plural: They write letters.
Singular: I am a student.
Plural: We are students.
Singular: He has a baby.
Plural: They have babies.
Singular: She is coming because she has invited.
Plural: They are coming because they have invited.
Singular: The town in which he lives is very large.
Plural: The town in which they live are very large.
Singular: That was a house.
Plural: These were houses.

The pluralization of the English main verb is just opposite to that of noun because plural noun takes $-s / e s$ suffix whereas plural verb removes $-s / e s$ suffix. The pluralization of some auxiliary verbs is similar to that of pronouns because both verb and pronoun have definite plural form. Some auxiliary verbs have same form in both singular and plural numbers. The pluralization of the English verbs falls into two categories:
i) Main verb/Lexical verb is pluralized by removing -s/es suffix from the singular form.

For example,

## Singular

He walks into the room.
The boy likes candy.
She carries a bag on her back.
The man catches sight of the plane.
The girl goes to market to buy some fruits.

## Plural

They walk into the room.
The boys like candy.
They carry bags on their back.
The men catch the sight of plane.
The girls go to market to buy some fruits.
ii) Some auxiliary verbs have definite plural form and some auxiliary verbs don't have.

For example,

## Singular

I am looking for an alternative solution.
He is writing a new novel.
He has eaten all biscuits.
The man was waving a black and white flag.

The boy does not realize what he is doing.

The man will be punished.
The woman may have escaped.
The teacher should be preparing his lecture.

She can't come since her mother is ill.

## Plural

We are looking for an alternative solution.
They are writing new novels.
They have eaten all biscuits.
The men were waving black and white flags.

The boys do not realize what they are doing.

The men will be punished.
The women may have escaped.
The teachers should be preparing their lecture.

They can't come since their mothers are ill.

But in Tharu, verbs are pluralized neither by removing nor by adding a suffix from or to the singular form. Since they don't have plural form, same form is used in both singular and plural.

Let's see following examples given below:

Sing: u $\partial$ gur kha ch $\partial$
Pl: u-sun $\partial \square$ gur-s $\partial \mathrm{b}$ kha ch $\partial$
Sing: ok $\partial$ ra sa k $\partial l$ ch $\partial$
Pl: ok $\partial$ ra-sun-ke sa kдl-s $\partial \mathrm{b}$ ch
Sing: i dukan c yд
Pl: i - sдb dukan- sдb c yд
Sing: ote k tap phekəl cheld
Pl: ote k tap- $\mathrm{s} \partial \mathrm{b}$ phekдl chel $\partial$
Sing: h $\partial \mathrm{m}$ khet jyarวhว1 c yд
Pl: h $\partial \mathrm{m}$-sun khet jyarдhдl c yд
(He eats a grape.)
(They eat grapes.)
(She has a bicycle.)
(They have bicycles.)
(This is a shop.)
(These are shops.)
(There was a book thrown.)
(There were books thrown.)
(I am going to the farm.)
(We are going to the farm.)

### 1.1.5.1 Introduction And Classification Of Nouns

Traditionally, a noun is the name of a person, a place, a thing or an animal. Anything that can be seen or felt is a noun. Nouns can be classified into five kinds given below:

### 1.1.5.1.a. Proper Noun

Proper noun is the name of a particular person or thing, i.e. a name used for specific people, places, countries, months, days, holidays, magazines, rivers, mountains and so forth.

For example,
Mary (person), Nepal (country), June (month), Koshi (river), Everest (mountain), Sunday (day)

Proper nouns have 'unique' reference and do not share such characteristic of common nouns. A proper noun is written with initial capital letter.

Proper noun can be used as a "common noun" when it denotes i) some rank or office ii) some class of persons or things:
i) Such words as Ceasar, Caliph, Sultan, etc. are used as common nouns because they denote persons holding a certain rank or office.
ii) A proper noun is used as a common noun when it denotes a class of persons or things and is used in descriptive sense, e.g.:

Devkota is the Wordsworth of Nepal.
Bal Krishna Sama is the Shakespeare of Nepal.

### 1.1.5.1.b. Common Noun

A common noun refers to any and every person or thing of the same kind or class, not to a particular person or thing, e.g.: cow, man, girl, country, dog, bird, mountain, etc.

Here, above each noun refers to any and every one.
Common nouns are divided into two subcategories: count nouns and noncount/mass nouns. Count nouns are those which can be counted and take plural inflection, e.g.: farmer - farmers. Non-count nouns are those neither which can be counted nor take plural inflection, e.g.: water, air.

All count common nouns are pluralized in English.
For example,

| Singular | Plural |
| :--- | :--- |
| girl | girls |
| man | men |
| child | children |

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bush
bushes
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### 1.1.5.1.c. Collective Noun

A collective noun refers to a collection or group of persons or things of the same kind as a whole, e.g.: class, team, government, flock, etc. Here, class is a collective noun because it stands for a mass or a group of students or all students in a group. Every collective noun is also a kind of common noun. The term 'class' may stand for many different classes or groups of students. The collective nouns are pluralized when they are used as common nouns.

For example,

| Singular | Plural |
| :--- | :--- |
| class | classes |
| team | teams |
| herd | herds |
| flock | flocks |

### 1.1.5.1.d. Material Noun

A material noun is the name of material, substance, matter or ingredient of which things are made, e.g.: iron, gold, milk, rice, etc.

A material noun is a type of common noun but a distinction is made between the two. A common noun is usually a countable noun and a material noun is an uncountable noun: the cow gives us milk. Here, cow is a common noun (countable), but milk is a material noun (uncountable).

Sometimes, the same word can be a common noun or material noun according to the use/sense.

For example,
Let's see the following sentences:
a) Fish swim.
b) Fish is fried.

Here, in the above sentence (a) the noun 'fish' indicates individual fish or a number of fishes, is therefore a common noun and in the sentence (b), the same noun 'fish' indicates the matter (fried fish) of the bodies of it is made, is therefore a material noun.

Material noun cannot be altered into plural, e.g.:

| Singular | Plural |
| :--- | :--- |
| curd | *curds |
| milk | *milks |
| gold | *golds |

Asterick on the plural forms of nouns indicates that they are not acceptable ones.

### 1.1.5.1.e. Abstract Noun

An abstract noun is the name of a quality, state or action, e.g.:
Quality- goodness, wisdom, intelligence, humility, beauty
State- youth, pleasure, poverty, death
Action- theft, love, movement
An abstract noun also denotes the name of art and science, e.g.: literature, music, physics, economics, etc.

The four kinds of nouns previously described relate to objects of sense, that is to say, things which can be seen, touched, heard, smelt or tested, i.e. perceived by the sense organs. But, abstract nouns relate to qualities, state, etc. which cannot be perceived by the sense organs. They are known only through our mind. Thus, abstract nouns refer to mental properties. For example, we know that sugar is sweet. We also know that chocolate is sweet. We can see or touch sugar or chocolate but can't see or touch the sweetness that is apart from sugar or chocolate or any other objects having the same quality. Thus, 'abstract' means 'drawn off' (abstracted in thoughts) from the objects. Hence, sweetness is an abstract noun.

The abstract noun is pluralized when it is used as a common noun, e.g.: movement $\sim$ movements, relationship $\sim$ relationships, etc.

### 1.1.5.2. Introduction and Classification of Pronouns

Morphologically, pronoun is made up of two parts: 'pro' and 'noun'. The word 'Pro' is Latin for 'for' and so pronoun means 'for a noun' or 'instead of a noun.' (Aarts 1997)

Simply speaking, pronoun denotes a word which is used to replace a noun or noun phrase within a text, e.g.: 'she' can be used for 'my aunt' and
'he' for 'our uncle'. It occupies the same position a noun or noun phrase does and is used to avoid the repetition of them, e.g.: Suresh went to the market because Suresh wanted to buy a pen.
i.e. Suresh went to the market because he wanted to buy a pen.

There are many different kinds of Pronouns that are stated below as follows:

### 1.1.5.2.a. Personal Pronoun

A pronoun that stands for a person or thing is called a personal pronoun. I, we, you, he, she, it and they are personal pronouns. On the basis of their role in a speech act, they can be divided into three persons:
a) The $1^{\text {st }}$ person pronoun: The $1^{\text {st }}$ person pronoun is the person of speaking. The reference of these pronouns include the speaker (s) or writer (s) of message. I and we are the $1^{\text {st }}$ person pronouns.
b) The $2^{\text {nd }}$ person pronoun: The $2^{\text {nd }}$ person pronoun is the person spoken to. The reference of these pronouns includes the addressee (s), but excludes the speaker (s) or writer (s). You is the $2^{\text {nd }}$ person pronoun.
c) The $3^{\text {rd }}$ person pronoun: The $3^{\text {rd }}$ person pronoun is the person spoken about. The reference of these pronouns excludes both speaker (s) or writer (s) and addressee (s), i.e. $3^{\text {rd }}$ person pronouns refer to third parties not directly involved in the original or reception of utterance in which they occur. He, she, it and they are the $3^{\text {rd }}$ person pronouns.

The personal pronouns are marked for person $\left(1^{\text {st }}, 2^{\text {nd }}, 3^{\text {rd }}\right)$, case (subjective and objective) and also number (singular and plural). Besides these, the $3^{\text {rd }}$ person singular personal pronouns are marked for gender, as the table shows below:

Table No. 1

| Person | Case | Gender | Number |  |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  |  | Singular | Plural |
| $1^{\text {st }}$ | Subjective <br> Objective |  | I <br> Me | We <br> Us |
| $2^{\text {nd }}$ | Subjective/ <br> Objective |  | You | You |
| $3^{\text {rd }}$ | Subjective | Masculine <br> Feminine <br> Neuter | He <br> She <br> It | They |
|  | Objective | Masculine <br> Feminine <br> Neuter | Him <br> Her <br> It | Them |

### 1.1.5.b. Possessive Pronoun

Possessive pronoun shows possession. Pronouns like mine, ours, yours, his, hers, its, theirs are possessive pronouns. These pronouns are used to express ownership/relationship.
For example,
Let's see the following sentences given below:
That car is mine. This house is ours.
In the above both sentences, pronouns mine and ours are used to express/show ownership/possession of car and house, respectively.

Pronouns like my, your, his, her, it our, their are also possessive pronouns but they have determinative functions because they are preceded nouns and modify them. Thus, they are called possessive adjectives.

For example,
Is this your present? What about mine?
Their house is up for sale.
These are my friend.

In the above each sentence, your, their and my are preceded nouns: present, house and friend, respectively. Possessive pronouns are also distinguished by number, person and the $3^{\text {rd }}$ person singular pronouns by gender, as the table shows below:

Table No. 2

| Function | Person | Gender | Number |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  |  | Singular | Plural |
| Determiner | $1{ }^{\text {st }}$ |  | My | Our |
|  | $2^{\text {nd }}$ |  | Your | Your |
|  | $3^{\text {rd }}$ | Masculine <br> Feminine <br> Neuter | His <br> Her <br> Its | Their |
| Normal | $1^{\text {st }}$ |  | Mine | Ours |
|  | $2^{\text {nd }}$ |  | Yours | Yours |
|  | $3^{\text {rd }}$ | Masculine <br> Feminine <br> Neuter | His Hers | Theirs |

### 1.1.5.2.c. Reflexive Pronoun

The pronouns like myself, ourselves, yourselves, himself, herself, itself, themselves when used as the receiver of an action, are reflexive pronouns. The action done by doer turns back upon him/her.

For example,
I enjoyed myself.
He hurt himself.
In the above each sentence, the action done by the doers ' I ' and ' He ' are the receivers of the action. I and myself, and he and himself stand for the same persons.

Reflexive pronouns end with -self (singular) and -selves (plural). These suffixes are added to the determinative possessive forms for the $1^{\text {st }}$ and $2^{\text {nd }}$ persons: myself, ourselves, yourself, yourselves, and to the objective form for the $3^{\text {rd }}$ persons: him/her/it - self, themselves.

The reflexive pronouns have two distinct uses: basic and emphatic. These pronouns in basic use function as an object (direct or indirect) and a compliment (subject or prepositional).

For example,
They helped themselves. (direct object)
She allowed herself a rest. (indirect object)
He is not himself today. (subject complement)
The cafe pays for itself. (prepositional complement)

The reflexive pronouns in emphatic use, also called emphatic pronouns, occur in apposition (relation to their antecedent) and have heavy stress/emphasis. Unlike basic reflexive pronouns, they may have appositional mobility, e.g.:

I myself wouldn't take any notice.
I wouldn't take any notice myself.
Myself, I wouldn't take any notice.
Here, the meaning of the pronoun is 'speaking personality.'
The reflexive pronouns are marked for person and number like personal and possessive, but not for case. In addition the third person singular reflexive pronouns are marked for gender, as the table shows below:

Table No. 3

| Person | Gender | Number |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
|  |  | Singular | Plural |
| $1^{\text {st }}$ |  | Myself | Ourselves |
| $2^{\text {nd }}$ |  | Yourself | Yourselves |
| $3^{\text {rd }}$ | Masculine <br> Feminine <br> Neuter | Himself <br> Herself <br> Itself | Themselves |

### 1.1.5.2.d. Demonstrative Pronouns

A pronoun that is used to point out the object or objects to which they refer is a demonstrative pronoun: this, that, these, those.

For example,
Let's see the following sentences:
a. This is John's book.
b. These are my friends.
c. Was that what you had expected?
d. Those were the days.

In the above sentence,
a. 'this' stands for book.
b. 'these' stand for friends.
c. 'that' stands for expectation.
d. 'those' stand for days.

In the above each sentence, the demonstratives have nominal functions. Besides these, they have also determinative functions. Let's see the following examples given below:

Is this book yours?
These photographs are the best.
I don't like that man.
We have all heard those stories before.
In the above all sentences, demonstratives are preceded noun and qualify them. Therefore, these demonstratives are functioned as determiners.

The demonstrative pronouns are distinguished by number and proximity, as the table shows below:

Table No.: 4

| Number | Singular | Plural |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Proximity |  |  |
| Near | This | These |
| Far | That | Those |

### 1.1.5.2.e. Reciprocal Pronoun

The pronouns, each other and one another, are used to express personal reference are the reciprocal pronouns. They are used to express mutual relationship. Reciprocal pronouns are related to the reflexive pronouns in that they can be said to express a two way reflexive relationship. Like reflexive pronouns, both each other and one another replace NP objects that typically refer back to NP subjects in the same sentences. However, for these forms the subject must be conjoined or plural, e.g.:

Bob and Dick can't stand each other.
The three sisters are devoted to one another.

### 1.1.5.2.f. Relative Pronouns

A relative pronoun relates a noun to a group of words that follows. It relates or refers back to a noun or pronoun called its antecedent. Who, whose, whom, which and that are relative pronouns. They also join clause. So, they are pronouns as well as conjunctions.

For example,
a. A farmer is a person. The farmer grows food.
b. I read a book. The book is on the table.

The above sentences are joined in the following way:
a. A farmer is a person who grows food.
b. I read a book which is on the table.

In the above sentence (a), person is the antecedent of who and in the sentence (b), book is the antecedent of which.

### 1.1.5.2.g. Interrogative Pronoun

The pronouns who, whom, whose, what and which are used to ask question, are interrogative pronouns. The interrogative pronouns who and whom are used independently only. Whose, what and which can function as determiners as well as independently. Who, whose and whom have personal references only, whereas which and what can have both personal and non-personal reference.

For example,
Let's see the following sentences:
a. Who wrote Sons and Lovers ?
b. Whose books are these ?
c. To whom did you address the letter?
d. What man would follow such device?
e. Which dictionary would you recommend ?
f. What is the square root of 144 ?
g. Whose are these books ?

In the above sentences (a) and (c), who and whom are used independently and have personal reference. In the sentences (b) and (g), whose can function as determiner and is used independently, and has personal reference. In the sentences (d), (e), (f), what and which can function as determiner, are used independently and have both personal and non-personal reference.

### 1.1.5.2.h. Indefinite Pronoun

The indefinite pronouns can stand some nouns understood or implied. Indefinite pronouns are: all, some, several, one, both, many, few, each, either, neither, anyone, everyone, someone, somebody, everybody, no one, nobody. These pronouns are used to refer to persons or things in a general way but not to refer to them in a particular way. For example,
a. Few were killed.
b. One must do one's duty.

The pronouns 'few' and 'one' indicate persons in a general way, not in particularly. In sentence a, 'few' indicate more than one person were killed. In sentence $b$, one does not indicate only one person must be his duty but more than one.

### 1.2 Review of the Related Literature

The researches existing in the Department of English Education are not directly related to this proposed topic. However, some researches on comparative study are reviewed as follows:

Mahato (2001) carried out the research on "A Comparative Study of the Subject- Verb Agreement in English and Tharu Languages" and found that in English, second and third person pronouns do not change for honorific forms whereas they do in the Tharu language spoken in the Parsa district.

Mukhiya (2001) conducted a research on "Passivization in English and Maithali: A Comparative Study." The study concluded that passivization system between English and Maithali is different in almost all grammatical aspects. He also found that there are some areas which are somehow similar in both languages.

Khanal (2004) has carried out a research on "A Comparative Study on the forms of Address of Tharu and English Languages." He found that Tharu has several forms of address but English lacks such concepts. Most of the kinship terms can be used in addressing people in Tharu but only a few kinship terms can be used as address in English.

Chaudhary (2005) has carried out a research on "Pronominals in the English and Tharu Languages: A Comparative Study". He found that both Tharu and English have more or less similar number of pronouns, except for few more words in the Tharu language. It is because of the existence of the alternative words in the Tharu language.

Thakur (2005) conducted a research on "Relativization in Maithali and English: A Comparative Study." He found that English relativization differs from Maithali one in various aspects. However, there are some similarities as well. He also found that in the Maithali language, there is honorific - non-honorific distinction in using relativizer whereas in English, there is no such distinction.

Sah (2007) has conducted a research on "Pluralization of Nouns in English and Bajjika: A Comparative Study." He found that plural noun takes - sa suffix and it is written separately in Bajjika but the suffix which is used to pluralize a singular noun is written together in English.

The related literature mentioned above shows that no researches have yet been conducted on the Pluralization in the Tharu and English Languages. Therefore, the present study has made an attempt to conduct to find out the rules of pluralization in the Tharu language.

### 1.3 Objectives of the Study

The study has following objectives:
a) To identify the rules of pluralization in the Tharu language.
b) To find out the similarities and differences between the Tharu and English pluralization systems.
c) To suggest some pedagogical implication.

### 1.4 Significance of the Study

This study is beneficial for those who prepare English text book as a second language. It is equally important for teachers and students who are involved in teaching and learning English as a foreign language at schools where the Tharu native speakers appear as students. It is also helpful to syllabus
designers, linguists, language planners, and those people who are involved in this field directly or indirectly.

### 1.5. Definitions of the specific Terms

Antecedent: A term used for a linguistic unit from which another unit in the sentence derives its interpretation (anaphoric reference), typically a later unit.
Case: A grammatical category that indicates the syntactic relation in which a noun or pronoun stands to some other words is case.

Determiner: Determiner refers to a class of items whose main role is to co-occur with nouns to express a wide range of semantic contrasts such as quantity or number.

Gender: Gender is a grammatical category used for the analysis of word classes that displays the difference such as masculine, feminine and neuter.

Honorific: Politeness formulas in a particular language which may be specific affixes, words or sentences structures.

Number: Number is a grammatical category used for the analysis of word classes displaying the variations in the forms of nouns, pronouns or verbs according to whether only one or more than one is to be indicated.

Pluralization: Pluralization is a grammatical process of transforming singular nouns/pronouns/verbs/sentences into plural ones.

Proximity: Proximity indicates the distance of object whether it is near or far.
Reduplication: Reduplication is a grammatical process of word formation in which this process duplicates or repeats all or part of a base to derive another word and changes the meaning of word.

Suffix: Suffix refers to an affix which is added following a root or stem.

## CHAPTER TWO

## METHODOLOGY

The researcher utilized the following methodologies:

### 2.1 Sources of Data

The researcher utilized both primary and secondary sources of data for this study.

### 2.1.1 Primary Sources

The 30 native speakers of the Tharu language from 3 VDCs, viz. Banauli, Phulwadiya and Rampur Jamuwa of Saptari district were the primary sources of data from whom the researcher collected the required data for this research study.

### 2.1.2 Secondary Sources

In addition to the primary sources, the researcher made use of different secondary sources of data, viz. different books, journals, articles and other materials related to the topic of pluralization. Some secondary sources were: Quirk et al. (1985), Thomson and Martinet (1986), Celce-Murcia and LarsenFreeman (1999) and Chaudhary (2054 B.S.).

### 2.2 Population of the Study

For this study, the total population was 30 Tharu native speakers from 3 VDCs of Saptari district. Ten informants were taken from each VDC.

### 2.3 Sampling Procedure

The total population was divided into two groups, viz. illiterate and literate, having 15 informants in each group using stratified random sampling procedure. Illiterate were those who were unable to read and write but speak well and literate were those who were able to read and write well and also had academic qualification below SLC.

### 2.4 Tools for Data Collection

The researcher utilized interview questionnaire for the literate and illiterate informants as the research tool to collect the required data for this study. (See Appendix-II)

### 2.5 Process of Data Collection

At first, the researcher prepared interview questionnaire as a research tool. He went to selected VDCs of Saptari district, met informants individually and made good rapport with them. He explained them the purpose of conducting this study. The researcher politely asked them for their invaluable co-operation to elicit the required data for the completion of this study. At the same time, he conducted the oral interview with the selected literate and illiterate informants and wrote their response in interview questionnaire.

### 2.6 Limitations of the Study

The proposed study was limited in the following ways:
a) The total population was 30 Tharu native speakers of 3 VDCs of Saptari district for this study.
b) The study focused on the pluralization in the Tharu language.
c) The study was based on only Saptari district of the Tharu language.
d) The total population was confined only to 2 groups, viz. illiterate and literate.

## CHAPTER THREE

## ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION

This chapter deals with the analysis and interpretation of the data obtained from the informants and secondary sources. Firstly, the analysis of the rules of pluralization in English was done mainly on the basis of secondary data extracted basically from Quirk et al. (1985) and Thomson and Martinet (1986). Secondly, the rules of pluralization system of Tharu were analysed on the basis of the primary data collected from 30 Tharu native informants of Three VDCs of Saptari district. Then, the collected data was analysed and interpreted descriptively and comparatively with the help of tables, diagrams and illustrations. Then, the comparison and contrast of the processes of Pluralization in Tharu with those in English was done. After the data was compared, the points of similarities and differences were drawn from the processes of pluralization in English and Tharu with illustration.

### 3.1. Introduction and Classification of the Tharu Nouns

Noun having an equivalent translation like Nepali, is called s $\partial$ gya or nam in Tharu. Nouns are also classified into five kinds in Tharu. These nouns are stated below as follows:

### 3.1.1. by $\quad$ kti wac $\partial k ~ s \partial$ gya (Proper noun)

A byдkti wac $\partial \mathrm{k}$ s $\partial$ gya denotes the name of a particular person, thing, animal or place as distinct from each other.

For example,
g ta (ekt $\square$ a ch $\partial$ uri-ke nam)
rajb raj (ego t $\square$ ham-ke nam)
nepal (ego deś-ke nam)
mt. mдkalu (ego pдhar-ke nam)

### 3.1.2. jat wac $\partial \mathrm{k} \boldsymbol{\mathrm { s }}$ gya (Common noun)

A jat wac $\partial \mathrm{k}$ s $\partial$ gya refers to the name of person or thing of same class or kind. Like English common nouns, all the Tharu count common nouns are converted into plural. To pluralize singular
common nouns in Tharu, the suffix - $s \partial b /$ sun/ $\partial u r$ is added to them and written separately.

For example,

| Singular | Plural |
| :--- | :--- |
| $\mathrm{k} \partial \mathrm{l} \partial \mathrm{m}$ (pen) | $\mathrm{k} \partial l \partial \mathrm{~m}-\mathrm{s} \partial \mathrm{b}$ (pens) |
| ch $\partial \mathrm{ura}$ (boy) | ch $\partial$ ura- $\partial \mathrm{ur}$ (boys) |
| $\mathrm{g} \partial \mathrm{i}$ (cow) | $\mathrm{g} \partial \mathrm{i}$-sun (cows) |

The above all singular and plural nouns are shown in the tree diagrams given below:

i. | Singular |
| :---: |
| Np |
| $\mid$ |
| N |
| l |
|  |
|  |
| $\mathrm{k} \partial \mathrm{I} \partial \mathrm{m}($ pen $)$ |

Plural

ii. Singular


Plural

ii. Singular


Plural


### 3.1.3. s $\partial \mathrm{mu}: h$ wac $\partial \mathrm{k}$ s $\partial$ gya (Collective noun)

A s $\partial \mathrm{mu}: \mathrm{h}$ wac $\partial \mathrm{k} \mathrm{s} \partial$ gya refers to a collection or group of similar individuals or things of same kind as a whole. The collective noun can also be pluralized by adding the suffix after a singular noun in the Tharu language.
For example,

Singular
d $\partial 1$ (team)
bдthan (herd)
jhokh (bunch)
dham (fair)

## Plural

dд1-sдb (teams)
bдthan-s $\partial \mathrm{b}$ (herds)
jhokh-s $\partial \mathrm{b}$ (bunches)
dham-s $\partial \mathrm{b}$ (fairs)

The above singular nouns and plural nouns are shown in the tree diagrams below:
i. Singular


d $\partial 1$ (team)

Plural

ii. Singular


Plural

iii. Singular

Np


N
I
jhokh (bunch)

iv. Singular

Np
I
N
I
dham (fair)

Plural


### 3.1.4. $\quad$ dr $\partial \mathrm{by} \partial \mathrm{wac} \partial \mathrm{k}$ s $\partial \mathrm{gya}$ (Material Noun)

The dr $\partial \mathrm{by} \partial \mathrm{wac} \partial \mathrm{k}$ s $\partial$ gya refers to the matter or substance of which things are made. Like English, dr $\partial b y \partial$ wac $\partial \mathrm{k}$ s $\square$ gya is not pluralized in Tharu.

For example,

## Singular <br> pa $n$ (water) <br> sun (gold) <br> d $\partial \mathrm{hi}$ (curd) <br> tel (oil)

## Plural

*pa n-sдb (*waters)
*sun-sдb (*golds)
*dдhi-sдb (*curds)
*tel-sдb (*oils)

### 3.1.5. bhaw wac $\partial \mathrm{k}$ s $\partial$ gya (Abstract Noun)

The bhaw wac $\partial \mathrm{k} \mathrm{s} \partial$ gya denotes the name of quality, action or state. A bhaw wac $\partial \mathrm{k} \mathrm{s} \partial$ gya is not turned into the plural form, too.

For example,
Singular
s $\partial$ mag $\partial \square$ (health)
ch $\partial \mathrm{ng} \partial \mathrm{r}$ (beauty)

## Plural

* sдmagд-sдb (*healths)
* ch $2 \mathrm{ng} \partial \mathrm{r}$-s $\partial \mathrm{b}$ (*beauties)

```
r s (anger)
lobh (greed) * lobh-s\partialb (*greeds)
* r s-s\partialb (*angers)
```


### 3.2. Introduction and Classification of Pronouns in Tharu

Like in Nepali, pronoun is also called sдrwдnam in Tharu. A s $\partial \mathrm{rw} \partial \mathrm{nam}$ is a word that is used in place of nam: $h \partial \mathrm{~m}, \mathrm{tu}, \mathrm{u}, \mathrm{i}, \partial \mathrm{p} \partial \mathrm{ne}$, etc.

There are also many kinds of pronouns in Tharu. They are presented below:

### 3.2.1. puru:s wac $\partial \mathrm{k}$ sдrwวnam (Personal Pronoun)

A puru: $\square$ wac $\partial \mathrm{k}$ s $\partial \mathrm{rw} \partial \mathrm{nam}$ stands for a person or thing, e.g.: $\mathrm{h} \partial \mathrm{m}, \partial \mathrm{p} \partial \mathrm{ne}, \mathrm{tu}$, tuh , u, i, etc.

Like in English, there are, too, three persons in Tharu. 'Person' is called puru:s $\square$ in Tharu. These puru:s $\square$-s $\partial \mathrm{b}$ are:
i. ut $\partial \mathrm{m}$ puru:s $\square$ (First Person): h $\partial \mathrm{m}, \mathrm{h} \partial \mathrm{m}-\mathrm{s} \partial \mathrm{b} /$ sun
ii. mдdhyдm puru:s (Second Person): tu, tuh , tu-s $\partial \mathrm{b} /$ sun
iii. $\quad$ ny $\partial$ puru:s $\square$ (Third Person) : i, u, i-s $\partial \mathrm{b}, \mathrm{u}-\mathrm{s} \partial \mathrm{b} /$ sun

The personal pronouns in Tharu are also distinguished by number, person and case. The $2^{\text {nd }}$ and $3^{\text {rd }}$ persons are distinguished by honorificity and gender, respectively. These distinctions are shown in the table below:

Table No. 5

| Person |  | Case <br> Sub. | Number |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $1{ }^{\text {st }}$ Person |  |  | Singular | Plural |
|  |  | $\mathrm{h} \partial \mathrm{m}$ | hдm-sдb/sun |
|  |  |  | $\mathrm{h} \partial \mathrm{m} \partial \mathrm{ra}$ | $\mathrm{h} \partial \mathrm{m} \partial \mathrm{ra}$-sдb/sun (-ke) |
|  |  | Obj. | $\mathrm{h} \partial \mathrm{m} \partial \mathrm{ra}$ | hдmдra-sдb/sun -ke |
| $2{ }^{\text {nd }}$ Person | Honorific |  | Sub. | дрдne | дрдne-sдb/sun |
|  |  | Obj. | $\partial \mathrm{p} \partial \mathrm{ne}$ - ke | $\partial \mathrm{p} \partial \mathrm{ne-s} \partial \mathrm{~b} / \mathrm{sun}-\mathrm{ke}$ |
|  | Non honorific | Sub. | tu, tuh | tu, tuh -sдb/sun |
|  |  |  | tora | tora-sдb/sun (-ke) |
|  |  | Obj. | tora | tora-s $\partial \mathrm{b} /$ sun-ke |
| $3{ }^{\text {rd }}$ Person | Masculine or Feminine | Sub. | u | u -s $\partial \mathrm{b} /$ sun |
|  |  |  | okdra | okдra-sдb/sun (-ke) |
|  |  | Obj. | okдra | okдra-sдb/sun-ke |
|  | Neuter | Sub. | i | i-sдb |


|  |  | Obj. | x |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |

Note: -ke marker in the bracket indicates that it is used according to sense of sentence in Tharu.

For example,
Sing: h $\partial \mathrm{m}$ git gabд c yд (I sing a song.)
$\mathrm{Pl}: \mathrm{h} \partial \mathrm{m}-\mathrm{sun}$ git-s $\partial \mathrm{b}$ gab c yд (We sing songs.)
Sing: h $\partial \mathrm{m} \partial \mathrm{ra}$ gh $\partial \mathrm{ri}$ ch $\partial \quad$ (I have a watch.)
Pl: h $\partial \mathrm{m} \partial \mathrm{ra}-\mathrm{sun}-\mathrm{ke}$ gh $\partial \mathrm{ri}-\mathrm{s} \partial \mathrm{b}$ ch $\partial \quad$ (We have watches.)
Sing: gita h $\partial \mathrm{m} \partial \mathrm{ram} \partial \mathrm{d} \partial \mathrm{t} k \partial \mathrm{r} \partial \mathrm{ch} \partial \quad$ (Gita helps me.)
Pl: gita h $\partial \mathrm{m} \partial \mathrm{ra}$-sun-ke mдd $\partial \mathrm{t} k \partial \mathrm{r} \partial \mathrm{ch} \partial \quad$ (Gita helps us.)
Sing: tu kдthi kдrə ch
Pl: tu-sun kдthi kдrд c h
Sing: tora suga ch $\partial \mathrm{u}$
Pl: tora-sun-ke suga-sдb chдu
(What do you do?)
(What do you do?)
(You have a parrot.)
(You have parrots.)
Sing: h $\partial \mathrm{m}$ tora n -c nh c yдu
(I don't know you.)
$\mathrm{Pl}: \mathrm{h} \partial \mathrm{m}$-sun tora-sun-ke nд -c nhд c yдu
(We don't know you.)
Sing: u mehдnti adдmi c yд
(He is a laborious man.)
Pl: u-sun mehдnti adдmi-sдb c yд
(They are laborious men.)
Sing: okдra khдsi chд
(He/she has a he-goat.)
Pl: okдra-sun-ke khдsi-sдb chд
Sing: tuhe $\square$ ok $\partial \mathrm{ra}$ s $\partial \mathrm{mman} k \partial \mathrm{r} \partial \mathrm{c}$ h
(They have he-goat.)
(You respect him.)

Pl: tuhe $\square$-s $\partial \mathrm{b}$ ok $\partial \mathrm{ra}-\mathrm{s} \partial \mathrm{b}-\mathrm{ke}$ s $\partial \mathrm{mman} \mathrm{k} \partial \mathrm{r} \partial \mathrm{ch}$ (You respect them.)
Sing: id hдkiya c yд
Pl: i-sдb d hдkiya-sдb c yд
(It is a basket.)
(They are baskets.)

### 3.2.2. s $\partial \mathbf{m b} \partial \mathbf{n d h}$ wac $\partial k$ s $\partial \mathbf{r w} \partial$ nam (Possessive Pronoun)

A s $\partial \mathrm{mb} \partial \mathrm{ndh}$ wac $\partial \mathrm{k}$ s $\partial \mathrm{rw} \partial \mathrm{nam}$ shows the possession. Like in English, s $\partial \mathrm{mb} \partial \mathrm{ndh}$ wac $\partial \mathrm{k}$ s $\partial \mathrm{rw} \partial \mathrm{nam}$ is also distinguished by person and number. The $2^{\text {nd }}$ person possessive pronouns in Tharu have honorific distinction. These distinctions are given in the table below:

Table No. 6

| Person |  | Number |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $1{ }^{\text {st }}$ Person |  | Singular | Plural |
|  |  | $\mathrm{h} \partial \mathrm{m} \partial \mathrm{r}$ | hдmдr-sдb/sun-ke |
|  |  | $\mathrm{h} \partial \mathrm{m} \partial \mathrm{r}$ | hдmдrдur-ke |
| $2{ }^{\text {nd }}$ Person | Honorific | дрдne - ke | $\partial \mathrm{p}$ ne-sдb/sun-ke |
|  | Non honorific | tohдr | toh $\partial \mathrm{r}$-s $\partial \mathrm{b} /$ sun-ke, tohдrдur-ke/ torдur-ke |
| $3{ }^{\text {rd }}$ Person | Masculine or Feminine | okdr | okдr-sдb/sun-ke, okдrдur-ke |

For example,
Sing: i jhora h $\partial \mathrm{m} \partial \mathrm{r} \mathrm{c} \mathrm{y} \partial \quad$ (This bag is mine.)
Pl: i jhora-s $\partial \mathrm{b}$ hдmдrдur-ke c yд (This bag is ours.)
Pl: i jhora-sдb hдmдr-sun-ke c yд (This bag is ours.)
Sing: u kдрдra okдr c yд (That cloth is his.)
Pl: u k $\partial \mathrm{p} \partial \mathrm{ra}$ okдrдur-ke c yд (That cloth is theirs.)
Pl: u k $\partial \mathrm{p} \partial \mathrm{ra}$ ok $\partial \mathrm{r}$-s $\partial \mathrm{b}-\mathrm{ke} \mathrm{c}$ yд (That cloth is theirs.)
Sing: i c $\partial \mathrm{p} \partial \mathrm{l}$ toh $\partial \mathrm{r}$ c yдu (This sandal is yours.)
$\mathrm{Pl}: \mathrm{i}$ c $\partial \mathrm{p} \partial \mathrm{l}$ toh $\mathrm{r} \partial \mathrm{ur}-\mathrm{ke} \mathrm{c} \mathrm{y} \mathrm{\partial u} \mathrm{(This} \mathrm{sandal} \mathrm{is} \mathrm{yours)}$.
Like in English, s $\partial \mathrm{mb} \partial \mathrm{ndh}$ wac $\partial \mathrm{k} \mathrm{s} \partial \mathrm{rw} \partial \mathrm{nam}$ has determinative function.
For example,
$\mathrm{i} h \partial \mathrm{~m} \partial \mathrm{r} b \partial \mathrm{~g} \partial \mathrm{riyac} \mathrm{c} \partial \partial \quad$ (This is my friend.)
i ok $\partial \mathrm{r}$ ghдrwдla c yд (This is her husband.)

### 3.2.3. n ścдy wac $\partial k$ s $\partial r w \partial$ nam (Demonstrative Pronoun)

A n ścдy wac $\partial \mathrm{k}$ s $\partial \mathrm{rw} \partial \mathrm{nam}$ is used to point out the object ( s ) that they refer to, e.g.: i, u. There are two kinds of demonstrative pronouns in Tharu. They are: du:rw $\partial \mathrm{rti}$ wac $\partial \mathrm{k}$ and $\mathrm{n} \mathrm{k} \partial \mathrm{t} \square \mathrm{w} \partial \mathrm{rti}$ wac $\partial \mathrm{k}$. The du:rw $\partial \mathrm{rti}$ wac $\partial \mathrm{k}$ s $\partial \mathrm{rw} \partial$ nam points out the object which is located in far and the $\mathrm{n} k \partial \mathrm{t} \square \mathrm{w} \partial \mathrm{rti}$ wac $\partial \mathrm{k}$ s $\partial \mathrm{rw} \partial \mathrm{nam}$ points out the object in near. Like in English, the demonstrative pronouns in Tharu are distinguished by number and proximity, as the table shown below:

Table No. 7

| Number | Singular | Plural |
| :--- | :---: | :---: |
| Proximity |  |  |
| Far | u (that) | u-s $\partial \mathrm{b}$ (those) |
| Near | i (this) | i-s $\partial \mathrm{b}$ (these) |

Like in English, the niśc $\partial \mathrm{y}$ wac $\partial \mathrm{k}$ s $\partial \mathrm{rw} \partial \mathrm{nam}$ can also function as determiner.

For example,
u hathi pokh r -me heləlch (That elephant swims in the pond.)
ik tap okдr c yд (This book is his.)

### 3.2.4. n j wac $\partial k$ s $\partial \mathbf{r w} \partial$ nam (Reflexive Pronoun)

A nj wac $\partial \mathrm{k}$ s $\partial \mathrm{rw} \partial \mathrm{nam}$ is used as the receiver of action, e.g.: $\partial \mathrm{p} \partial \mathrm{ne}$ in the sentence,
i kam h $\partial \mathrm{m}$ дpдne-se kдrӘly (I did the work myself.)
The word 'əpдne' is not marked for person, number and gender. The same form ' $\partial \mathrm{p} \partial n e$ ' is used with all persons, in both singular and plural and with genders.

### 3.2.5. pr $\partial$ śn $\partial$ wac $\partial k$ s $\partial r w \partial$ nam (Interrogative Pronoun)

A prəśnд wac $\partial k$ s $\partial \mathrm{rw} \partial \mathrm{nam}$ like ke (who), koдn (which), kд hiya (when), kдkдra (whom), kдkдr (whose), kдt (where), kдthi (what), $\mathrm{k} \partial \mathrm{t} \partial \mathrm{hek}$ (how much), $\mathrm{k} \partial \mathrm{t} \partial \mathrm{hek} \partial \mathrm{ra}$ (how many), etc. is used to ask question in Tharu.

### 3.2.6. $\mathbf{s} \partial \mathrm{mb} \partial \mathrm{ndh}$ wac $\partial \mathrm{k} \mathrm{s} \partial \mathrm{rw} \partial$ nam (Relative Pronoun)

A s $\partial \mathrm{mb} \partial \mathrm{ndh}$ wac $\partial \mathrm{k}$ s $\partial \mathrm{rw} \partial \mathrm{nam}$ is used to denote relation to a noun from one to another. It relates a noun to a group of words that follows. The pronouns like $\mathrm{J}+\mathrm{e}$ (who), $\mathrm{J}+\partial \mathrm{k} \partial \mathrm{r}$ (whom), $\mathrm{J}+\partial \mathrm{k} \partial \mathrm{r}$ (whose) are relative pronouns in Tharu. Like in English, these pronouns join two clauses. So, they function as pronoun as well as conjuction.

For example,
rəmeś ego gr hдt c yд (Ramesh is a farmer.) rдmeś t $\partial$ rkari ubja ch (Ramesh grows vegetable.)

The above both sentences are joined in following way in Tharu: rəmeś ego gr h $\partial \mathrm{t}$ c yд je t $\partial \mathrm{rkari} u b j a \operatorname{ch} \partial$

### 3.2.7. $\partial \mathbf{n}$ śc $\partial \mathbf{y}$ wac $\partial k ~ s \partial r w \partial$ nam (Indefinite Pronoun)

A $\partial \mathrm{n}$ śc $\partial \mathrm{y}$ wac $\partial \mathrm{k}$ sдrw $\partial \mathrm{nam}-\mathrm{s} \partial \mathrm{b}$ are:

| koi (somebody) | kuch (something) |
| :--- | :--- |
| koiyo (anybody) | kucho (anything) |
| koiyone (nobody) | kuchone (nothing), etc. |

### 3.3. The Pronunciation of the Regular Plural at the End of Nouns in <br> English

The pronunciation of the regular affixes changes depending upon the phonological environment in which they occur. The regular - s/es plural has three different pronunciations: / z/, /z/, /s/ depending on the final sound of the base.
a) The suffix - s/es is pronounced as / $\mathrm{z} /$ or $/ \mathrm{z} /$ after bases ending in sibilants:

| /s/ | in | horse | $\sim$ | horses |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  | nurse | ~ | nurses |
| /z/ | in | size | $\sim$ | sizes |
|  |  | nose | $\sim$ | noses |
| /s/ | in | rush | $\sim$ | rushes |
|  |  | brush | $\sim$ | brushes |
| /ts/ | in | church | ~ | churches |
|  |  | torch | ~ | torches |
| 131 | in | marriage | $\sim$ | marriages |
|  |  | mirage | $\sim$ | mirages |
| /d3/ | in | bridge | $\sim$ | bridges |
|  |  | language | ~ | languages |

b) The suffix - s/es is pronounced as $/ \mathrm{z} /$ after bases ending in vowel and voiced consonant sounds except sibilants:

| day | $\sim$ | days | bed | $\sim$ | beds |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| flame | $\sim$ | flames | rib | $\sim$ | ribs |
| zoo | $\sim$ | zoos | dog | $\sim$ | dogs, etc. |

c) The suffix - $s / e s$ is pronounced as $/ \mathrm{s} /$ after bases ending in voiceless consonant sounds except sibilants:

| bet $\sim$ bets | mouth | $\sim$ | mouths |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| book $\sim$ books | hat | $\sim$ | hats, etc.. |

### 3.4. Rules of Pluralization in English

The rules of pluralization in English has been extracted from secondary sources: Quirk et al. (1985) and Thomson and Martinet (1986).

### 3.4.1. Rules of Pluralization of Nouns in English

Although pluralization is found in almost all languages, the processes of pluralizing singular noun into the plural form differ from one language to other. The pluralization rules of nouns are presented below with examples as follows:
a) Generally, most nouns are made plural by adding a suffix $-s$ to the singular form, including nouns ending in silent $-e$.

For example,

| Singular | Plural |
| :--- | :--- |
| hat | hats |
| sitar | sitars |
| boy | boys |
| college | colleges |
| horse | horses |

But nouns ending in sibilants which are spelled $-\mathrm{s}, \mathrm{sh}, \mathrm{ch}, \mathrm{x}, \mathrm{z}$, are made their plural by adding a suffix - es to the singular form.

For example,

| Singular | Plural |
| :--- | :--- |
| gas | gases |
| buzz | buzzes |
| box | boxes |
| church | churches |
| bush | bushes |

b) Nouns ending in -o , have their plural in - os or - oes.
i) When nouns end in $-o$ and $-o$ is preceded by a vowel (letter or sound), plural is formed by adding a suffix $-s$ to the singular form.
For example,

| Singular | Plural |
| :--- | :--- |
| bamboo | bamboos |
| embryo | embryos |
| folio | folios |
| stereo | stereos |
| zoo | zoos |

ii) When nouns ending in - o preceded by a consonant, plural is usually formed by adding a suffix $-s$ to the singular form.

For example,

| Singular | Plural |
| :--- | :--- |
| dynamo | dynamos |
| piano | pianos |
| quarto | quartos |
| solo | solos |

Abbreviated nouns and ethnic nouns ending in -o , take only suffix $-s$ to form their plural.

For example,

Singular
kilo
memo
photo

Plural
kilos (Kilogram)
memos (Memoranda)
photos (Photographs)

| Eskimo | Eskimos |
| :--- | :--- |
| Filipino | Filipinos |

iii) But when nouns ending in - o preceded by a consonant, the plural is generally made by adding - es to their singular form.

For example,

| Singular | Plural | Singular | Plural |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| echo | echoes | potato | potatoes |
| domino | dominoes | tomato | tomatoes |
| embargo | embargoes | torpedo | torpedoes |
| hero | heroes | veto | vetoes |

iv) Some nouns ending in -o , have both plural forms $-s / e s$.

For example,
Singular Plural
benjo benjos/benjoes
cargo cargos/cargoes hallo hallos/halloes
buffalo buffalos/buffaloes
volcano volcanos/volcanoes
manifesto manifestos/manifestoes
innuendo innuendos/innuendoes
c) Nouns ending in -y preceded by a consonant, y is changed to -i and are made their plural by adding a suffix - es to the singular form.

For example,

| Singular | Plural |
| :--- | :--- |
| sky | skies |
| country | countries |
| fly | flies |
| baby | babies |

But if the nouns ending in -y preceded by a vowel, plural is formed by adding $-s$ to the singular form.

For example,

| Singular | Plural |
| :--- | :--- |
| day | days |
| donkey | donkeys |
| monkey | monkeys |
| guy | guys |
| boy | boys |

But nouns ending in - quy/kwi:/ where $u$ is only a spelling vowel required after -q , which have their plural - quies.

For example,

| Singular | Plural |
| :--- | :--- |
| soliloquy | soliloquies |
| colloquy | colloquies |

d) Nouns which in the singular form end in -f or -fe , form plural by changing - f or -fe to - ves.

For example,

| Singular | Plural | Singular | Plural |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| calf | calves | half | halves |
| knife | knives | self | selves |
| life | lives | thief | thieves |
| shelf | shelves | wife | wives |
| elf | elves | sheaf | sheaves |
| loaf | loaves | wolf | wolves |

Both $-s / e s$ suffixes are added to some nouns ending in -f to pluralize them.

For example,

Singular
dwarf
hoof hoofs/hooves
scarf scarfs/scarves
wharf wharfs/wharves

## Plural

dwarfs/dwarves

But some nouns ending in $-\mathrm{f} / \mathrm{fe}$, take only $-s$ suffix in the plural form.

For example,

| Singular | Plural | Singular | Plural |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| belief | beliefs | proof | proofs |
| chief | chiefs | roof | roofs |
| cliff | cliffs | safe | safes |

e) Some nouns are pluralized by mutation (change of the internal vowels).

For example,

| Singular | Plural |
| :--- | :--- |
| man | men |
| woman | women |
| foot | feet |
| dormouse | dormice |


| Singular | Plural |
| :--- | :--- |
| tooth | teeth |
| mouse | mice |
| louse | lice |

f) There are three nouns which are formed their plural by adding -en to the singular form.

For example,

| Singular | Plural |
| :--- | :--- |
| ox | oxen |
| child | children |
| brother | brethren (with mutation as well as the -en ending) <br>  <br>  <br>  <br>  (brothers) |

g) A compound noun is usually pluralized the last element (even when it is not a noun) by adding a suffix $-s$.

For example,

| Singular | Plural |
| :--- | :--- |
| baby sister | baby sisters |
| assistant doctor | assistant doctors |
| close-up | close-ups |
| grown-up | grown-ups |
| stand-by | stand-bys |
| gin - and - tonic | gin - and - tonics |

forget - me - not forget - me - nots
h) A compound noun is pluralized in the first element especially when the compound include a post modifier or final particle.

For example,

## Singular

notary public
grant - in - aid
commander - in - chief
man - of - war
coat - of - mail
Also:

| Passer-by | Passers-by |
| :--- | :--- |
| runner-up | runners-up |
| hanger-on | hangers-on |

The following compound nouns are pluralized either in the first or the last element.
For example,

## Singular <br> ,

attorney general
court martial mother - in - law

## Plural

notaries public
grants - in - aid
commanders - in - chief
men - of - war
coats - of - mail
hangers-on
,

## Plural

 attorneys general/attorney generals courts martial/court martials mothers - in - law/mother - in -lawsi) Appositional compound, (e.g. a woman doctor: The doctor is a woman), whose first element is or includes man or woman is pluralized both the first and the last element.

For example,

## Singular

gentleman farmer
man servant woman doctor Similarly :
lord - justice

## Plural

gentlemen farmers men servants women doctors lords - justices
knight - templar knights - templars

But the plural is made in the last element when the compound is not appositional (e.g. woman hater means 'x' hates 'y' woman).

For example,

| Singular | Plural |
| :--- | :--- |
| woman - hater | woman - haters |
| man - eater | man - eaters |

j) Nouns from Latin ending in - us, form their plural in most case by replacing - us only by - i .

For example,

| Singular | Plural |
| :--- | :--- |
| stimulus | stimuli |
| alumnus | alumni |
| bacillus | bacilli |
| locus | loci |

But, corpus has the plural corpora/corpuses and genus has the plural genera.

Nouns ending in - us, take only - es to form their plural:

| Singular | Plural |
| :--- | :--- |
| apparatus | apparatuses |
| bonus | bonuses |
| campus | campuses |
| census | censuses |

Other nouns ending in - us, have such plural forms are : Caucus, sinus, virus, minus, prospectus, impetus, circus, chorus.

Some nouns ending in - us, have two plural forms:
For example,

| Singular | Plural |
| :--- | :--- |
| focus | foci/focuses |

Other nouns that have both plurals are: cactus, nucleus, radius, syllabus, terminus.
k) Nouns from Latin ending in - a, form their plural only with - ae.

For example,

| Singular | Plural |
| :--- | :--- |
| alumna | alumnae |
| alga | algae |
| larva | larvae |

Nouns ending in -a , form their plural only with $-s$ :

| Singular | Plural |
| :--- | :--- |
| area | areas |
| arena | arenas |
| drama | dramas |
| era | eras |
| diploma | diplomas |
| dilemma | dilemmas |

Nouns ending in -a , form their plural both with $-s$ or $-a e$ :

## Singular

antenna formula formulas/formulae nebula nebulas/nebulae vertebra vertebras/vertebrae

1) Nouns from Latin ending in - um that changes only to - $a$ in the plural form.

For example,

| Singular | Plural |
| :--- | :--- |
| addendum | addenda |


| desideratum | desiderata |
| :--- | :--- |
| bacterium | bacteria |
| erratum | errata |
| corrigendum | corrigenda |
| ovum | ova |

Nouns ending in - um, form their plural only with $-s$ :

| Singular | Plural |
| :--- | :--- |
| album | albums |
| museum | museums |
| premium | premiums |
| harmonium | harmoniums |
| chrysanthemum | chrysanthemums |

Nouns ending in - um, have two plural forms:

## Singular

aquarium
candelabrum
curriculum

## Plural

aquariums/aquaria
candelabrums/candelabra curriculums/curricula

Others nouns that have both plurals are: maximum, medium, memorandum, millennium, minimum, moratorium, podium, referendum, spectrum, stratum, symposium, ultimatum.
m) Nouns from Latin ending in - ex or - ix, have both plurals : - ices and - es.

For example,

Singular
apex
index
appendix
vortex
matrix

## Plural

apexes/apices
indexes/indices
appendixes/appendices
vortexes/vortices
matrixes/matrices

But, codex has only codices in Plural form.
n) Nouns from Greek ending in - is, are turned into plural by changing is to $-e s$.

For example,

| Singular | Plural |
| :--- | :--- |
| basis | bases |
| analysis | analyses |
| axis | axes |
| crisis | crises |

Other nouns which take this plural are : diagnosis, ellipsis, hypothesis, oasis, paralysis, parenthesis, synopsis, synthesis, thesis.

But, metropolis has the plural metropolises.
o) Nouns from Greek ending in - on, are turned into plural by replacing - on only with - $a$ :

| Singular | Plural |
| :--- | :--- |
| criterion | criteria |
| phenomenon | phenomena |

But, some nouns ending in-on, take only $-s$ to form the plural:

| Singular | Plural |
| :--- | :--- |
| electron | electrons |
| neutron | neutrons |
| proton | protons |
| demon | demons |
| ganglion | ganglions |

But, automaton has both plurals: automatons and automata.
p) Some foreign nouns ending in - eau, form their plural by adding $-s / x:$

## Singular

plateau
bureau

## Plural

plateaus/plateaux
bureaus/bureaux

### 3.4.2 Pluralization of Pronouns in English

Like nouns, pronouns, too, have plural forms. But, the pluralization of pronouns differs from that of nouns because an $-\mathrm{s} / \mathrm{es}$ is not added to pronouns to turn them into the plural form. The singular and plural forms of pronouns are fixed in English.

For example,
Singular
I, me, my, mine, myself, you, your, yours, yourself he, him, his, himself, she, her hers, herself, it, its, itself
this these
that
each, either, neither, many, both, some, ones,
each other, one another,
none, no one, somebody, anybody,
no body, every body, some one,
any one, every one, something,
nothing, anything, everything, etc.

Note : you, all, some, none, can be used in both numbers.

### 3.5. Rules of Pluralization in Tharu

The rules of pluralization in Tharu have been extracted on the basis of the primary data collected from 30 Tharu native speakers from three VDCs: Banauli, Phulwadiya and Rampur Jamuwa of Saptari district.

### 3.5.1 Rules of Pluralization of the Tharu nouns

Like English, the Tharu language has also the rules of pluralization of nouns which can be stated as follows:

1) In Tharu, pluralization is formed by adding suffixes:- $s \partial b / s u n / \partial u r$ to the singular form.
For example,
Singular
chдuri (girl)
bдkдri (she-goat)
bд $\square \mathrm{s}$ (buffalo)
mдr $\partial \mathrm{d}$ (man)

## Plural

ch $\partial u r i-s \partial b$ (girls)
bдkдri-sun (she-goats)
bд $\square \mathrm{s}$-sдb (buffaloes)
mдrдd-дur (men)
2) Mostly, the plural suffix $-s \partial b$ is written after the Tharu nouns to pluralize them.
For example,
Singular
ban $\partial \mathrm{r} \quad$ (monkey)
$\mathrm{sa} \square \mathrm{p}$ (snake)
c m $\partial \mathrm{t} \square \mathrm{hi}$ (ant)
$\mathrm{j} \partial \mathrm{n} \mathrm{jat} \mathrm{(woman)}$
mami (aunt)

## Plural

bandr (monkey)
banдr-sдb (monkeys)
$\mathrm{sa} \square \mathrm{p}$ (snake)
$\mathrm{sa} \square \mathrm{p}$-sдb (snakes)
c m $\partial \mathrm{t} \square \mathrm{hi}$ (ant)
c mət $\square \mathrm{h}$-sдb (ants)
j $\partial \mathrm{n}$ ja t (woman)
j $\partial \mathrm{n}$ ja t -s $\partial \mathrm{b}$ (women)
mami (aunt)
mami-s $\partial \mathrm{b}$ (aunts)
3) The plural suffix - $\partial u r$ is used only to pluralize the Tharu nouns that indicate person.

For example,

Singular
kaki (aunt)
nokдr (servant)
d $\partial \mathrm{da}$ (elder brother)
mastдr (teacher)

## Plural

kaki-дur (aunts)
nokдr-дur (servants)
d $\partial \mathrm{da}$ - $\partial \mathrm{ur}$ (elder brothers)
mastдr-дur (teachers)

The above singular nouns can also be pluralized by adding the suffix - $s \partial b / s u n$.
4) The plural suffix -sun is used only with the Tharu nouns that indicate animate ones to pluralize them.
For example,

| Singular <br> gai (cow) | Plural <br> gai-sun (cows) |
| :---: | :---: |
| lok (man) | lok-sun (men) |
| mдugi (woman) | mдugi-sun (women) |
| bandr (monkey) | bandr-sun (monkeys |
| bдr $\mathrm{\partial d}$ ( ox ) | bдrдd-sun (oxen) |
| sдrдha (bull) | sдrəha-sun (bulls) |

5) Inanimate nouns are pluralized only with suffix $-s \partial \mathrm{~b}$.

For example,

| Singular | Plural |
| :--- | :--- |
| gach (tree) | gach-s $\partial \mathrm{b}$ (trees) |
| thari (plate) | thari-s $\partial \mathrm{b}$ (plates) |
| k tap (book) | k tap-s $\partial \mathrm{b}$ (books) |
| kat $\square \mathrm{h}$ (wood) | kat $\square \mathrm{h}-\mathrm{s} \partial \mathrm{b}$ (woods) |

6) In Tharu, some nouns that indicate the caste of man are made their plural by adding suffixes $-s \partial b / s u n / \partial u r$.

For example,

| Singular | Plural |
| :--- | :--- |
| jad $\partial \mathrm{b}$ | jad $\partial \mathrm{b}-\mathrm{s} \partial \mathrm{b}$ |
| 1 mbu | $1 \mathrm{mbu}-\partial \mathrm{ur}$ |
| mus $\partial \mathrm{l} \partial \mathrm{man}$ | mus $\partial \mathrm{l} \partial \mathrm{man}-\partial \mathrm{ur}$ |
| teli | teli-sun |
| $\mathrm{m} \partial \mathrm{g} \partial \mathrm{r}$ | m $\partial g \partial \mathrm{r}-$ sun |

7) Mostly, the determiner that indicates more than one is added before singular nouns to make them plural.

For example,

## Singular

perəba (pigeon)
gach (tree)
adдmi (man)

Plural
bдhдut perəba (many pigeons)
$\mathrm{s} \partial \mathrm{b} \partial \mathrm{t} \square \mathrm{a}$ gach (all trees)
bдhдutдra ad $\partial \mathrm{mi}$ (many men)

But, both determiner and suffix can be used to turn a singular noun into plural one.

For example,

Singular
pu 1 (bridge)
ghдri (watch)
khдr ya (rabbit)

## Plural

bдhдute pu l-s $\partial \mathrm{b}$ (many bridges) $\mathrm{s} \partial \mathrm{b} \partial \mathrm{t} \square \mathrm{a}$ gh $\partial \mathrm{ri}-\mathrm{s} \partial \mathrm{b}$ (all watches) bдhut $\partial$ re kh $\partial \mathrm{r}$ ya-s $\partial \mathrm{b}$ (many rabbits)
8) Reduplication of noun is also used to pluralize the Tharu nouns. While pluralizing noun by reduplication, -ye suffix is added to the first part of base of reduplicated noun when the first noun ending in $-i$ and otherwise $-e$ suffix is added elsewhere.

For example,
Singular : ryak-me k tap ch $\partial$
Plural : ryak-s $\partial \mathrm{b}-\mathrm{me} \mathrm{k}$ tape k tap ch $\partial$
Singular: k $\partial \mathrm{kcha}$-me b dharthi ch $\partial$
Plural : kəkcha-s $\partial \mathrm{b}$-me b dharthiye b dharthi ch $\partial$

### 3.5.2 Rules of Pluralization of the Tharu pronouns

Pluralization systems of the Tharu pronoun are different from those of the English pronoun because like pluralization of the Tharu nouns, pronouns, too, take suffixes - $s \partial b / s u n / \partial u r$ to form the plural. But, the English pronouns do not take suffix to pluralize them. They have fixed form of singular and plural numbers. The pluralization systems of the Tharu pronouns are presented as follows:

1) The Tharu personal pronouns like $h \partial m$, tu, tuh , $\partial \mathrm{p} \partial \mathrm{ne}, \mathrm{u}$, tora, h $\partial \mathrm{m} \partial \mathrm{ra}$, ok $\partial \mathrm{ra}$ take the suffix $-s \partial b / s u n$ to pluralize them.

For example,
Singular
$\mathrm{h} \partial \mathrm{m}$
tu
tuh

Plural
$\mathrm{h} \partial \mathrm{m}-\mathrm{s} \partial \mathrm{b} / \mathrm{sun}$
tu-sдb/sun
tuh -sдb/sun

| $\partial \mathrm{p} \partial \mathrm{ne}$ | $\partial \mathrm{p} \partial \mathrm{ne}-\mathrm{s} \partial \mathrm{b} / \mathrm{sun}$ |
| :--- | :--- |
| u | $\mathrm{u}-\mathrm{s} \partial \mathrm{b} /$ sun |
| tora | tora-s $\partial \mathrm{b} / \mathrm{sun}$ |
| ok $\partial \mathrm{ra}$ | ok $\partial \mathrm{ra}-\mathrm{s} \partial \mathrm{b} /$ sun |
| h $\partial \mathrm{m} \partial \mathrm{ra}$ | h $\partial \mathrm{m} \partial \mathrm{ra}-\mathrm{s} \partial \mathrm{b} / \mathrm{sun}$ |

But, the pronouns: h $\partial \mathrm{m} \partial \mathrm{ra}$, tora, ok $\partial \mathrm{ra}$ as subject in the sentence take the suffix - $s \partial b /$ sun followed by case marker - ke when they function as possession, e.g.:

Singular: h $\partial \mathrm{m} \partial \mathrm{ra}$ ek $\partial \mathrm{ta}$ g $\partial \mathrm{ri}$ ch $\partial \quad$ (I have a cart.)
Plural: $\quad \mathrm{h} \partial \mathrm{m} \partial \mathrm{ra}-\mathrm{s} \partial \mathrm{b}-\mathrm{ke} \mathrm{g} \partial \mathrm{ri} \mathrm{s} \partial \mathrm{b}$ ch $\partial$ (we have carts.)
2) Pronouns like $h \partial m \partial r a$, tora, ok $\partial$ ra take the suffix $-s \partial b /$ sun followed by case marker - ke when they function as a object in the sentence to turn them into plural form.

For example,
Singular : tu h $\partial \mathrm{m} \partial \mathrm{ra} k \partial \mathrm{l} \partial \mathrm{m}$ delhi (you gave me a pen.)
Plural : tu-sun h $\partial \mathrm{m} \partial \mathrm{ra}-\mathrm{s} \partial \mathrm{b}-\mathrm{ke} \mathrm{k} \partial \mathrm{l} \partial \mathrm{m}-\mathrm{s} \partial \mathrm{b}$ delhi (you gave us pens.)
3) Possessive Pronouns : h $\partial \mathrm{m} \partial \mathrm{r}$, ok $\partial \mathrm{r}$, toh $\partial \mathrm{r}$ are made plural by adding the suffix - sдb/sun/дur followed by case marker - ke to the singular form. The suffix - $s \partial b / s u n$ is written separately but - $\partial u r$ is written together with them.
For example,
$h \partial m \partial r$
h $\partial \mathrm{m} \partial \mathrm{r}$-s $\partial \mathrm{b} /$ sun-ke

hдmдrдur-ke
toh $\partial \mathrm{r}$
toh $\partial \mathrm{r}$-s $\partial \mathrm{b} /$ sun-ke

ok $\partial \mathrm{r}$

okдr-sдb/sun-ke
okдrдur-ke
4) Demonstrative Pronouns : i and $u$ take only $-s \partial b$ suffix to turn singular into plural form, e.g.:
i
u

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { i-s } \partial \mathrm{b} \\
& \mathrm{u}-\mathrm{s} \partial \mathrm{~b}
\end{aligned}
$$

## 5) Alternative way of using plural pronouns to pluralize singular ones

In the Tharu language, plural forms of pronouns are used alternatively in place of a singular form to pluralize:
a) Besides $h \partial m-s \partial b / s u n$, the plural pronouns $h \partial m \partial \mathrm{ra}-\mathrm{s} \partial \mathrm{b} /$ $h \partial m \partial r \partial u r-k e ~ a r e ~ u s e d ~ f o r ~ t h e ~ s i n g u l a r ~ p r o n o u n ~ ' ~ h \partial m ' . ~$

For example,
Singular : h $\partial \mathrm{m}$ kera kha c yд
Plural : h $\partial \mathrm{m} \partial \mathrm{r} \partial \mathrm{ur}-\mathrm{ke}$ kera-s $\partial \mathrm{b}$ kha c yд h $\partial \mathrm{m} \partial \mathrm{ra}-\mathrm{s} \partial \mathrm{b}$ kera-s $\partial \mathrm{b}$ kha c yд
b) Similarly, besides the plural tu-s $\partial \mathrm{b} /$ sun, the plural pronouns tora-sдb/sun, toh $\partial \mathrm{r} \partial \mathrm{ur}$-ke are replaced the singular pronoun: tu or tuh .

For example,
Singular : tu k $\partial \mathrm{t}$ jyar $\partial \mathrm{h} \partial \mathrm{l} \mathrm{c}$ hi ?
Plural : toh $\begin{aligned} \text { r } \partial u r-k e ~ k \partial t ~ j y a r \partial h \partial l ~ c ~ h i ~ ? ~\end{aligned}$
: tora-s $\partial \mathrm{b} /$ sun $\mathrm{k} \partial \mathrm{t}$ jyar $\partial \mathrm{h} \partial \mathrm{l}$ c hi ?
c) The plural form of ' u ' is also used alternatively as ok $\partial \mathrm{ra}$ səb/sun, okдrдur-ke, besides u-sдb/sun.
d) Plural pronouns: h $\partial \mathrm{m} \partial \mathrm{r} \partial \mathrm{ur}-\mathrm{ke}$, toh $\partial \mathrm{r} \partial \mathrm{ur} /$ tor $\partial \mathrm{ur}-\mathrm{ke}$, ok $\partial \mathrm{r} \partial \mathrm{ur}-$ ke can be replaced h $\partial \mathrm{m} \partial \mathrm{ra}$, tora, okara, respectively.
For example,
Singular : tora k tap ch $\partial \mathrm{u}$
Plural : torдur-ke k tap-s $\partial \mathrm{b}$ ch $\partial \mathrm{u}$
: tora-s $\partial \mathrm{b}-\mathrm{ke} \mathrm{k}$ tap-s $\partial \mathrm{b}$ ch $\partial \mathrm{u}$

### 3.6. Comparision of the Processes of Pluralization in the Tharu Language with those in English

The processes of the pluralization in the Tharu language are compared with those in English as follows:

Tharu
Sing: rita am kha ch $\partial$
$\mathrm{Pl}: \quad$ rita am-sдb kha chд
Sing: maya ek $\partial \mathrm{t} \square \mathrm{ak}$ tap k nl $\partial \mathrm{k} \partial$
Pl: maya k tap-s $\partial \mathrm{b} \mathrm{k}$ nl $\partial \mathrm{k} \partial$
Sing: nдriya ego j $\partial \mathrm{g} \partial \mathrm{li} j a n \partial w \partial \mathrm{r}$ с уд
Pl: nдriya-s $\partial \mathrm{b} j \partial \mathrm{~g} \partial \mathrm{li} j a n \partial w \partial \mathrm{r}$ с уд
Sing: gд bar ga cдryarəh $\partial \mathrm{l}$ ch $\partial$
Pl: gд bar-sдb ga -sun cдryarдhдl ch $\partial$

Pl: bдhдutдra gд bar gai-sдb cдryarдhдl ch $\partial$

Pl: gд bar-дur bдhдutek ga -sдb cдryarдhдı ch $\partial$

Sing: rдmeś banдr dekhalkд
Pl : rдmeś bдhдutek banдr dekhalkд
$\mathrm{Pl}: \quad$ rдmeś bдhдutek banдr-sдb dekhalkд

Sing: tu okдr ghдr-se abд chi
Pl: tu-sдb okдrдur-ke ghдr-se abд chi You come back from their house.
Pl: torдur ke okдra-sun-ke ghдr-se abд c hi
Pl : tora-sun ok $\partial \mathrm{r}$-sun-ke gh $\partial \mathrm{r}$-se $\mathrm{ab} \partial \mathrm{c}$ hi
Sing: u h $\partial \mathrm{m} \partial \mathrm{ra} \mathrm{ego} \mathrm{k} \mathrm{tap} \mathrm{d} \mathrm{\partial} \mathrm{ch} \mathrm{\partial} \mathrm{She/he} \mathrm{gives} \mathrm{me} \mathrm{a} \mathrm{book}$.
Pl: u-s $\partial \mathrm{b}$ h $\partial \mathrm{m} \partial \mathrm{ra}-\mathrm{sun}-\mathrm{ke} \mathrm{k}$ tap-s $\partial \mathrm{b} \quad$ They gave us books. dд ch $\partial$

Pl: okдrдur-ke hдmдrдur-ke k tap-sдb d ch
Pl: ok $\quad$ ra-s $\partial \mathrm{b}$ h $\partial \mathrm{m} \partial \mathrm{r} \partial \mathrm{ur}-\mathrm{ke} \mathrm{k}$ tap-s $\partial \mathrm{b}$ d $\partial \mathrm{ch} \partial$

| Sing: | h $\partial \mathrm{mka} 1 \mathrm{fl} \mathrm{m}$ dekhдlyд | I watched a film yesterday. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Pl: | hдmдrдur-ke ka 1 fl 1 m dekh $\partial \mathrm{l}$ y | We watched film yesterday. |
| Pl: |  |  |
| Pl: |  |  |
| Sing: | hдm i kam $\partial \mathrm{p} \partial \mathrm{ne}$-se kдrдbд | I will do this work myself. |
| Pl: | hдm-sдb i kam дpдne-se kдrəbд | We will do this work ourselves. |
| Sing: | u kдb ta $\partial \mathrm{p} \partial \mathrm{ne-se} 1 \mathrm{kh} \partial \mathrm{ch} \partial$ | She writes a poem herself. |
| Pl: | $u$-s $\partial \mathrm{b} k \partial \mathrm{~b}$ ta-s $\partial \mathrm{b}$ дpдne-se | They write poems themselves. |
|  | $1 \mathrm{kh} \partial \mathrm{ch} \partial$ |  |

### 3.7. Similarities and Differences between English and Tharu

While comparing the processes of pluralization systems of English and Tharu, the researcher found the following similarities and differences:

## A. Similarities

1) In both languages, a suffix is used to pluralize the nouns.

For example,

|  | Tharu | English |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Singular: | gita phu:l tor $\partial$ ch $\partial$ | Gita picks up a flower. |
| Plural: | gita phu:l-s $\partial \mathrm{b}$ tor $\partial$ ch $\partial$ | Gita picks up flowers. |

2) In both languages, plural determiner and suffix are used to make a singular noun into plural.

For example,

## Tharu

Sing: raju syau: khelkд
Pl: raju bдhдut syau:-sдb khelkд
Sing: h $\partial$ riś perwa-ke jal-me bдjha lkд
Pl: hдriś bдhдutekдra perwa-s $\partial \mathrm{b}-\mathrm{ke}$ jal me bдjha lkд

## English

Raju ate an apple.
Raju ate many apples.
Harish trapped pigeon in the net.
Harish trapped many pigeons in the net.
3) Like the English pronouns, the tharu pronouns, too, have the plural form. Like the pluralization of nouns in English, the suffix - $\partial u r$ is written together with possessive pronouns: h $\partial \mathrm{m} \partial \mathrm{r}$, toh $\partial \mathrm{r}, \mathrm{ok} \partial \mathrm{r}$.
4) The main similarities are that only singular countable nouns are made plural by adding suffix in both languages.

## B. Differences

1) The plural suffix - $s \partial b / s u n / \partial u r$ used to pluralize the Tharu nouns is written separately from them whereas the plural suffix - s/es is appended to noun together to pluralize in English.

For example,

Tharu

| Singular | Plural |
| :--- | :--- |
| jhora | jhora-s $\partial \mathrm{b}$ |
| k $\partial \partial \mathrm{m}$ | k $\partial \partial \mathrm{m}-\mathrm{s} \partial \mathrm{b}$ |
| s $\partial \mathrm{r} \partial \mathrm{ha}$ | s $\partial \mathrm{r} \partial \mathrm{ha}-\mathrm{sun}$ |
| $\mathrm{k} \partial \mathrm{ka}$ | k $\partial \mathrm{ka}-\partial \mathrm{ur}$ |

## English

| Singular | Plural |
| :--- | :--- |
| bag | bags |
| pen | pens |
| bull | bulls |
| uncle | uncles |

2) Mostly, determiner is only used to pluralize the Tharu nouns but not in English.

For example,

| Tharu |  | English |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Singular | Plural | Singular | Plural |
| ekдt $\square$ a kh khir | bдhдut kh khir | a jackle | many jackles |
| ekdt $\square \mathrm{a} \operatorname{sug} \partial \mathrm{r}$ | bдhдutek sugдr | a pig | many pigs |
| thari | $\mathrm{s} \partial \mathrm{b} \partial \mathrm{t} \square \square \mathrm{a}$ thari | a plate | all plates |

3) Reduplication of noun is used to pluralize in Tharu but not in English.

## Tharu

Sing:
ryak-me k tap ch $\partial$
4) In English, pronouns do not take suffix - s/es to form the plural like nouns and they have fixed form of singular and plural numbers. Whereas in

Tharu, pronouns are turned into plural by adding suffix - sдb/sun/дur to the singular form.

For example,

## Tharu

| Singular | Plural | Singular | Plural |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| $\mathrm{h} \partial \mathrm{m}$ | $\mathrm{h} \partial \mathrm{m}-\mathrm{s} \partial \mathrm{b} / \mathrm{sun}$ | I | we |
| $\mathrm{h} \partial \mathrm{m} \partial \mathrm{r}$ | $\mathrm{h} \partial \mathrm{m} \partial \mathrm{r} \partial \mathrm{ur} / \mathrm{h} \partial \mathrm{m} \partial \mathrm{r}-\mathrm{s} \partial \mathrm{b} / \mathrm{sun}-\mathrm{ke}$ | mine | ours |
| tora | tora-s $\partial \mathrm{b} / \mathrm{sun}$ | you | you |

5) The plural pronouns are used alternatively for singular ones in Tharu but not in English.

For example,
Singular: u gach t $\partial \mathrm{r}$-me b $\mathrm{t} \square \mathrm{hr} \partial \mathrm{h} \partial \mathrm{l}$ ch $\partial$
Plural : okдrдur-ke gach t $\partial \mathrm{r}$-me b $\partial \mathrm{t} \square \mathrm{hr} \partial \mathrm{h} \partial 1 \mathrm{ch} \partial$
Plural : ok $\quad$ ra-s $\partial \mathrm{b}$ gach t $\partial \mathrm{r}-\mathrm{me} \mathrm{b} \partial \mathrm{t} \square \mathrm{hr} \partial \mathrm{h} \partial \mathrm{l}$ ch $\partial$

Here, 'u-s $\partial \mathrm{b}$ ' is the plural form of 'u' but other plural forms 'ok $\partial \mathrm{r} \partial \mathrm{ur}-\mathrm{ke}$ or ok $\partial \mathrm{ra}-\mathrm{s} \partial \mathrm{b}$ ' are used to replace the singular ' $u$ '.
6) In English, verbs are pluralized by removing - s/es from the singular form. But in Tharu, verbs remain same in singular and plural forms.
7) The verb is pluralized along with the pluralization of noun and pronoun in English. Whereas, the verb is not pluralized along with the pluralization of noun and pronoun in Tharu. Only noun and pronoun are pluralized in Tharu.

For example,

## Tharu

Singular: c rə u rдhд1 ch д
Plural : cir -sдb u rдh $\partial 1$ ch $\partial$
Singular : u ha s rəh $\partial 1$ ch $\partial$
Plural : u-s $\partial \mathrm{b}$ ha s rə h $\partial 1$ ch $\partial$

## English

A bird is flying.
Birds are flying.
He is laughing.
They are laughing.
8) There are limited rules of pluralization of nouns in Tharu. But, English has large number of rules along with exceptions of pluralization of nouns.

## CHAPTER FOUR

## FINDINGS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This chapter deals with findings, recommendations and pedagogical implications of the study.

### 4.1. Findings

On the basis of the analysis and interpretation of the collected data, the findings of the present study are summarized in the following points:
a) Generally, the plural suffix is written $-s \partial b$ after a noun in the Tharu language.
b) The plural suffix - $\partial u r$ is only used to pluralize a noun that indicates person.
c) The plural suffix-sun is used only with the Tharu nouns that indicate animate ones to pluralize them.
d) Inanimate nouns are pluralized only with a suffix - $s \partial b$.
e) The determiner is used to form plural noun and suffix only,

| e.g.: $\mathrm{k} \mathrm{t} \partial \mathrm{p}$ | bдhдut k tдp | bдtuwa | bдtuwa-s $\partial \mathrm{b}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| lok | $\mathrm{s} \partial \mathrm{b} \partial \mathrm{t} \square \mathrm{a}$ lok | tay | tay-sдb |

Both determiner and suffix can be used to pluralize a Tharu noun.
For example,
$k$ tap bдhдut k tap-s $\partial b$
lok $\quad \mathrm{s} \partial \mathrm{b} \partial \mathrm{t} \square \mathrm{a}$ lok-дur
f) The suffix - $s \partial b / s u n / \partial u r$ used to pluralize noun is written separately after it in the Tharu language but the suffix-s/es is appended to noun together in English.
g) Reduplication of nouns can be used to pluralize in Tharu.
h) Like noun, pronoun also takes suffix $-s \partial b / s u n / \partial u r$ to form the plural in the Tharu language. But, this is not so in English. The English pronouns have fixed form of singular and plural numbers.
i) The suffix - $s \partial b /$ sun added after pronouns is written separately but - $\partial u r$ suffix is written together with them in the Tharu language.
j) The plural pronouns are alternatively used in place of singular ones in the Tharu language.
k) Both noun and pronoun take same suffix $-s \partial b /$ sun/ $\partial u r$ to pluralize them in the Tharu language.

1) Verbs have the same form in singular and plural in Tharu.
m) Verbs are not pluralized along with the pluralization of nouns/pronouns and grammatical meaning of sentences is not altered with the pluralization in Tharu. But it happens so in English. Verbs are also pluralized along with the pluralization of noun and pronoun and grammatical meaning is altered.
n) There are limited number of rules of pluralization of nouns in Tharu but this is not in English.

### 4.2. Recommendations and Pedagogical Implications

On the basis of the findings obtained from the analysis and interpretation of the data, pedagogical implications with some recommendations have been suggested as follows:

1) This research is a comparative study of the pluralization systems between two languages: Tharu and English. The researcher hopes that this research study makes a significant contribution to those language teachers who are involved in teaching English as a second or foreign language because a comparative study helps the teachers to predict the areas of difficulty that the Tharu learners face and possible errors that they commit in learning a new language.
2) The processes of pluralization system in English differ from those in Tharu. Therefore, it is recommended that differences should be taken into trace while teaching the English pluralization system to the Tharu speaking learners.
3) The teacher of the Tharu ethnic community should pay more attention on the use of plural suffix- $s \partial b / s u n / \partial u r$ while teaching the rules of pluralization of nouns to the Tharu speaking learners because the suffix - $s \partial b$ is used with almost all nouns but the suffix - $\partial u r$ is used only with the nouns that indicate person and the suffix - sun only with animate nouns, and those suffixes are written separately.
4) The teacher should be more careful while pluralizing the tharu noun by reduplication because sometimes a suffix- $y e$ is added after the first part of reduplicated noun when it ends in $-i$ and $-e$ suffix is appended elsewhere.
5) The learners should be informed that they can use only a determiner or a suffix or both to turn singular noun into plural one.
6) The teacher of the Tharu ethnic community should teach the Tharu speaking learners that the determiner or singular noun marker 'ego/ekдt $\square \mathrm{a}$ ' is removed while transforming a singular noun into plural one.
7) The teacher of the Tharu ethnic community should also take more care on the use of plural suffix - sдb/sun/ $\partial u r$ while teaching the pluralization systems of pronoun to the Tharu speaking learners because the suffixes - dur used with possessive pronouns is written together with them but suffix - sдb/sun are written separately with possessive as well as other kinds of pronouns, and demonstrative pronouns only take $-s \partial b$ suffix.
8) The Tharu students should be known that alternative form of plural pronouns can also be used to pluralize singular pronouns in Tharu.
9) Both the teachers and the students should understand that only nouns and pronouns are pluralized in the Tharu language, verbs remain same in both singular and plural forms.
10) While teaching the pluralization system in Tharu and English, the language teacher should know as to what sorts of difficulties that the learners are facing because of their mother tongue.
11) The pluralization between the two languages should be taught to the students by creating meaningful situation and using suitable examples.
12) The teacher should use appropriate teaching materials as far as possible during the classroom teaching.
13) The syllabus designers, text book writers or language planners should be more conscious while desgining the syllabus and writing text books for the Tharu speaking learners who are learning English as a second language.
The researcher does not claim that the present study covers all the rules of pluralization system in Tharu. So, there may appears other rules of pluralization with the arrival of different Tharu scholars in the near future. The present study is mainly based on the data collected from 30 Tharu native speakers from three VDCs of Saptari district. However, the researcher has tried his best to generalize the rules of pluralization system in Tharu explicitly based on the collected primary data.

Finally, the researcher wants to request the concerned authority to take the above mentioned recommendations into consideration. Furthermore, he would like to request the authority to carry out other researches on the various areas of the Tharu language.

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## Appendix - I

Informants of the Research Study

| VDC - Banauli |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| S.N. | Name of Informants | Age | Sex | Academic Status |
| 1. | Budhai Chaudhary | 84 | M | Lit. |
| 2. | Pulkit Chaudhary | 78 | M | Illit. |
| 3. | Sona Lal Chaudhary | 62 | M | Lit. |
| 4. | Rami Chaudhary | 65 | M | Illit. |
| 5. | Mantu Lal Chaudhary | 63 | M | Lit. |
| 6. | Jajawa Devi | 68 | F | Illit. |
| 7. | Raksi Devi | 60 | F | Illit. |
| 8. | Bhola Devi | 59 | F | Illit. |
| 9. | Sharswati Devi | 55 | F | Lit. |
| 10 | Indra Bati Devi | 48 | F | Lit. |


| VDC - Inrwa Phulwadiya |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| S.N. | Name of Informants | Age | Sex | Academic Status |
| 1. | Raghu Nath Chaudhary | 70 | M | Lit. |
| 2. | Chhedi Lal Chaudhary | 65 | M | Lit. |
| 3. | Kabir Das Chaudhary | 40 | M | Lit. |
| 4. | Dev Narayan Chaudhary | 60 | M | Illit. |
| 5. | Budhan Chaudhary | 68 | M | Illit. |
| 6. | Chandra Bati Devi | 70 | F | Illit. |
| 7. | Devaki Devi | 58 | F | Illit. |
| 8. | Ghurni Devi Chaudhary | 50 | F | Illit. |
| 9. | Lalita Devi | 55 | F | Lit. |
| 10 | Sugandha Devi | 49 | F | Lit. |


| VDC - Rampur Jamuwa |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| S.N. | Name of Informants | Age | Sex | Academic Status |
| 1. | Andu Saram Tharu | 69 | M | Illit. |
| 2. | Ram Khelan Chaudhary | 65 | M | Illit. |
| 3. | Bindeshwar Chaudhary | 49 | M | Lit. |
| 4. | Shambhu Chaudhary | 55 | M | Lit. |
| 5. | Baleshwar Chaudhary | 50 | M | Lit. |
| 6. | Janaki Devi | 45 | F | Lit. |
| 7. | Lagani Devi | 52 | F | Lit. |
| 8. | Bagari Devi | 55 | F | Illit. |
| 9. | Kalyan Bati Devi | 49 | F | Illit. |
| 10 | Jatari Devi | 57 | F | Illit. |

e)

