## CHAPTER - ONE

## INTRODUCTION

### 1.1 General Background

The most powerful and unique property of human beings is language through which they express their feelings, thoughts, ideas, emotions, etc. voluntarily by their vocal apparatus. A language is species specific to human beings. Only human beings can use language because of having a special type of innate capacity that induces them to acquire language. Every child can master at least one language effortlessly except deaf and dumb. There is no such definition of language that satisfies every linguist even layman. However, here are some definitions:
'Language is the system of communication in speech and writing that is used by people of a particular country or area.' -Hornby (2005,p.862). Likewise Chomsky (1963,p.13) has defined Language 'to be a set (finite or infinite) of sentence, each finite in length and constructed a finite set of elements.' Similarly Richard et al. (1999,p.196) has defined language as 'the system of human communication which consists of structured arrangement of sound (or their written representation) into large unit, for example morphemes, words, sentences, or utterances.'

To sum up, language is a means of sharing thoughts, ideas, and feelings of human experiences either in spoken or written form. Many languages are existed in the world that are used by different linguistic groups in a particular area. A language consists of various types of
grammatical units and categories. A sentence is one of them which is compulsory element of language. To use language properly, there are different constituents and their functions in a sentence. Finite and infinite sets are used to make language intelligible and easier. Linguistic sounds and their natural combination make a system of human communication.

If we study various definitions of language by different linguists, we find there that no one can give comprehensive and universally satisfactory definition.

### 1.1.1 Role of the English language

English is the language that has got the status of an international language in course of time. It is also the most dominant language among languages that are used in the world. It is not only used as a lingua - franca but also most of the speakers form other speech community of the world use it as an international language. Most of the books published in the market are in English medium. So, it has been a principal language for communication and gaining knowledge. Bhattarai (1995,p.2) has stated that
. . . English has become indispensable vehicle to the transmission of modern civilization in the nation. It is a passport through which one can visit the whole world and one who knows English can enjoy the advantage of a world citizen . . . is the only means of preventing our isolation from the world and we will act unwisely if we allow ourselves to be enveloped in the folds of dark curtain of ignorance.

This statement clarifies that English has been the most powerful medium and like an appendage of a man who wants to dive into the world body of knowledge. Without English one can be confined within limited boundary and does not understand the world.

### 1.1.2 State of English in Nepal

English is taken as a prestigious language in Nepal. Every one wants to have command over English that is why it has got greater importance in the field of education as well as business and other areas. It has more than one and half century long history since in Nepal as its teaching started in 1853. After the establishment of Durbar High School, English was started to be taught in Nepal. As time passed by, it got priority especially in teaching and marketing field. Now it has been like a national language because someone who has good command over English can have innumerable opportunities in different fields for employment. If someone does not know English s/he loses all the chances and also feels inferior to others. English has been taught as a compulsory subject in Nepal. In these days, it is taught form grade-one to bachelor level as a compulsory subject having 100 full marks in government-aided schools and campuses. In private boarding schools and colleges, it is used as a medium of instruction besides the vernacular language. These facts facilitate to estimate the role of the English language in Nepal.

### 1.1.3 A Linguistic Scenario

Broadly speaking, languages are divided under four language families viz: Indo-European, Tibeto-Burman, Astro-Asiatic and Dravidian.English comes under Indo-European family. The diagram clarifies it.


Source: (Rai, 2004,p.2)
The majority of the people in Nepal speak the Indo-European languages. Not only in Nepal but also all over the world, this language family is spoken by the majority of people. The Indo-European languages spoken in Nepal are as follows:

Table No. 1

## Indo-European Languages Spoken in Nepal

| 1. Nepali | 2. Maithili | 3. Bhojpuri | 4. Tharu |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 5. Awadhi | 6. Urdu | 7. Hindi | 8. Rajbansi |
| 9. Bengali | 10. Danuwar | 11. Marwadi | 12. Majhi |
| 13. Darai | 14. Kumal | 15. English | 16. Bote |
| 17. Chureti | 18. Magahi | 19. Angika | 20. Bajka |

Tibeto-Burman languages are especially spoken in Tibet and Nepal. Most of the languages spoken in Nepal, fall under this language family. The exact number of languages of this language family has not been identified yet. Some languages within this family that are found
in Nepal are shown in the table.

Table No. 2
Tibeto-Burman Languages Spoken in Nepal

| Tamang | Newari | Rai Group | Magar |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Limbu | Gurung | Sherpa | Chemang |
| Dhimal | Thami | Thakali | Jirel |
| Raji | Byansi | Sunuwar | Lepcha |
| Meche | Pahari | Hayu | Marpha |
| Manang | Chhantyl Ittgel | Barm/Marramu | Nar |
| Ghale | Kaike | Raute | Kham |
| Toto | Syang | Tibetan | Kagate |
| Lomi/Lhomi | Yholmo | Koche | Bhujel/Khawas |
| Dura |  |  |  |

According to population census 2001, only one language 'Satar' comes under Astro-Asiatic family which is spoken in Jhapa.

In Dravidian language family, there is also only one language 'Jhagadh' according to population census 2001.

### 1.1. 4 Importance of Grammar

It is believed that more than six thousand distinct languages exist in the world. There are various speech communities which use their own distinct language within the group. The languages that are used in the world have some common properties i.e. language universal and distinct features. Every language has its own vocabulary and grammar. A grammar tells about proper selection of words in correct order and punctuation in a sentence as well as in a paragraph. It is not
inappropriate to say that grammar is spinal cord of language. Without grammar rules a language is paralyzed in the sense that grammar directs language use and usage. Lado (1957,p.244) stated that
'A grammatical pattern is more than any single utterance since it is the mould form which countless utterances can be produced. If grammar means the underlying principles, then, no one can handle the language without the knowledge of grammar. So, grammar is the most important part of language.'

Palmer (1978,p.9) has also stated that the grammar is 'a device that specifies the infinite set of well formed sentences assign to each of them one or more structural descriptions.' It proves that grammar is an indispensable and the most central part of a language.

### 1.1. 4.1 The General Rules of Subject Verb Agreement in English

Well formed sentences are formed by the application of underlying rules of grammar and these rules differ from language to language. The rules for subject-verb agreement in English are listed below:

1. Singular subject takes singular verb and plural subject takes plural verb; For example:-

A boy sings a song.

Boys sing a song.
2. Each, every, somebody, something, everybody, etc take singular verb; for example:-

Somebody is walking along the road.
3. A verb clause takes singular verb; for example:-

To be a doctor is challenging.
4. Collective noun takes singular or plural verb; for example:-

The audience was very noisy.

All the team are in their places.
5. (N)either/Each of + plural noun take singular verb; for example:Neither of them is present.
6. 'One of + plural noun' takes singular verb; for example:-

One of the students is absent
7. For the correlatives 'either . . . or /neither . . . nor', the proximity rule is applicable; for example:-

Neither they nor you go to the market.
8. If adjective functions as subject, it takes plural verb; for example:The rich are happy.

Celce-Murcia and Larsen- Freeman (1999,pp.60-66) have mentioned some descriptive rules of Subject-Verb Agreement in their book entitled 'The Grammar book'. They are as follows:

1. Collective nouns may take a singular or plural verb. If the subject noun is conceived of as one entity, the verb carries the '-s' inflection, if the subject is felt to be more than one entity, the verb takes no inflection.
for example:-

Our school team has won all its games. (=the team as a whole)

Our school team has won all its games. (= individual team member)
2. Some common and proper nouns ending in ' -s ' and ' -ics ' and in certain diseases are always conceived of as a single entity and take a singular verb inflection.
for example:-

No news is good news.

Physics is difficult subject.

Wales is lovely to visit.

Measles is a contagious disease.
3. Titles of books, plays, operas, films and such works - even when plural in form - take the singular verb inflection because they are perceived as a single entity.
for example:-

Great Expectations was written by Dickens.
4. Nouns occurring in sets of two take the singular verb when the noun 'pair' is present but take the plural verb when 'pair' is absent regardless of whether one pair or more is being referred to.
for example:-

A pair of trousers is on the sofa.

Todd's trousers are on the sofa.
5. 'A number of' normally takes the plural, while 'the number of' normally takes the singular.
for example:-

A number of students have dropped that course.
The number of students in this school is 2,000 .
6. Fractions and percentages take a singular verb inflection when modifying a non-count noun, and the plural verb inflection when they modify a plural noun: either the singular or the plural verb inflection may be used when they modify a collective noun, depending on the speaker's meaning.
for example:-

One half of the toxic waste has escaped (Non-count).

Two thirds of the students are satisfied with the class (Plural).

One tenth of the population of Egypt is Christian/ are Christian.
7. The nouns 'majority' and 'minority' are variously described as singular, plural, or collective depending on which reference grammar one consults.
for example:-

The majority was/were determined to press its/their victory.
8. Plural unit words of distance, money and time take the singular verb inflection when one entity is implied but a plural verb inflection when more than one is encoded in the subject.
for example:-

1,000 miles is a long distance.

10 miles are to be added to this freeway next year.
9. Arithmetical operations take the singular because they are perceived
as reflecting a single numerical entity on both sides of the equation or equal sign.
for example:-

One plus one is two.

Ten divided by two is five.
10. The quantifiers 'all (of), a lot of, lots of and plenty of' take singular verb agreement if the subject head noun is non-count but plural verb agreement if the subject head noun is plural.
for example:-

A lot of nonsense was published about that incident.

A lot of people were present when it happened.
11. Rules conflict for 'none, all, each and every'. If the nouns that none, all, each and every' modify countable plural subject, they take the plural subject-verb agreement.
for example:-

None of the toxic waste has escaped.

All of the water is polluted.

All students have arrived
12. Clausal and phrasal subject take the singular verb agreement.
for example:-

Reading book is my hobby

To make a noise is bad manner.

According to Greenbaun and Nelson (2002,pp. 141-150), some rules of subject-verb agreement in English are as follows:

1. The verb agrees with its subject in number and person. The agreement applies whenever the verb displays distinctions in person and number. For all verbs other than 'be', the distinctions are found only in the present tense, where the third person singular has the '-s' form and the third person plural - like the first and second persons has the base form.
for example:-

The noise distracts them.

The noises distract them.

The agreement affects the first verb in the verb phrase and if the subject is a noun phrase the main noun determines the number of the phrase.
2. The subject is plural if it consists of two or more phrases that are linked by 'and', even if each is singular and takes plural verb. But if the linked units refer to the same thing and viewed as a combination, it takes singular verb inflection.
for example:-

Your kitchen, your living room and your dinning room are so small.

Bread and butter is good for you.
3. If the subject noun phrases are linked by 'or, either . . . or, neither . . . nor', the verb may be singular or plural. When both the phrases are singular, the verb is singular. When the both phrases are plural, the verb is plural. When one phrase is singular and the other plural, usage
guides the verb to agree in number with the phrase closest to it; for example:-

No food or drink was provided.

Either the unionists or the nationalists have to make concessions.

Three short essays or one long essay is required.

Neither your brother nor your sisters are responsible.
4. When a singular noun phrase is linked to a following noun phrase by 'with, as well as, in addition to', the subject is singular; for example:-

His sister, together with her two youngest children, is staying with them.

The teacher, as well as the students, was enjoying the picnic.
5. The relative pronouns 'who, which and that' have the same number as the nouns they refer to.
for example:-
People who live in glasshouse shouldn't throw stones.

It is I who am to be blamed.
6. Either a singular verb or a plural verb may be used with the pronoun 'what'. The choice depends on the meaning.
for example:-

What worries them is that he has not yet made up his mind.

They live in what are called ranch houses.
7. In speech it is common to use a singular verb after introductory 'there' even when the subject is plural.; for example:-

There is two men waiting.
There is somebody waiting for you
There are two men waiting for you.
But in formal writing, 'there' is followed the general rule:
8. Citations and titles always take a singular verb, even though they consist of plural phrase.
for example:-
'Children' is an irregular plural.
'Reservoir Dogs' is a very violent film.
9. In formal writing 'as and than' are always conjunctions in comparisons. The case of the pronoun depends on its function in the comparative clause, though the verb is absent; for example:They felt the same way as he.

He likes me more than her.

### 1.1.5 Rai Bantawa: A Short Glance

Rais are indigenous people of Nepal so that the languages spoken by them are also indigenous languages. There are almost three dozen Rai languages found in Nepal. The Rais are opulent of arts, culture, language and dress. Their culture differs from one village to another and language also differs from group to group. There are many clans within Rai language group. Generally, Rais are inhabitants of eastern
hilly side of Nepal. According to census 2001, the total number of Rais is 635,151 which is $2.79 \%$ of the total population of Nepal. Rai Bantawa is the most popularly and widely spoken language among the Rai languages. Out of the total number of Rais, 371,056 Rai people speak Rai Bantawa language natively which covers $58.4 \%$ of the total population of Rais and $1.6 \%$ of the total population of Nepal. The Bantawa language is spoken in Sikkim, Darjeeling and some other places of West Bengal of India. Rai Bantawa is a member of TibetoBurman language family that is diagrammatically shown here:


Source: (Rai, 2004, p. 3)

Dilpali, Hatuwali and Chhonkhali are the dialects of the Rai Bantawa language. Here, the researcher studied the subject-verb agreement in Dilpali dialect of the Bantawa language.

The researcher studied the subject-verb agreement in the Rai language on the basis of following types:

1 Nouns
2 Personal, demonstrative, interrogative pronouns,
3 Verbal clause
4 Honorificity
5 Number
6 Gender

### 1.1.6 Contrastive Analysis: An Overview

Contrastive analysis means a systematic analysis of similarities and dissimilarities between languages. It is a linguistic enterprise aimed at producing inserted two valued typologies and found on the assumption that languages can be compared. Contrastive analysis studies and compares two linguistic systems that may be any one of the phonology, morphology and syntax.

The American linguist C.C. Fries is the pioneer in the case of contrastive Analysis. He made a clarion call for it. When he published a book entitled "Teaching and Learning English as a Foreign Language" in 1945, Contrastive Analysis was introduced and grew up from late 40s and 50s. Then it was much popularized in 60s and recently declined in 70 s. Limbu $(2008, p .9)$ cited the statement of Fries (1945,p. 58)

The foreign language is being learned in the foreign country in which it is spoken if a foreign language is to be studied in the native linguistic environment of the student, then the pertinent materials and experiences must in someway be systematically supplied.

Later in 1957, Robert Lado published ‘Linguistics Across culture.’ In his book (1957,p. 2), he writes
'Individuals tend to transfer the forms and meaning of their native language and culture to the foreign language and culture, both productively when attempting to speak the language... and respectively when attempting to grasp and understand the language. In the comparison between native and foreign language lies the key to case or difficult in foreign language learning. 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 then.'

His attempt brought a kind of waves in second language teaching and was started to make a language intelligible from another. Corder (1973,p. 229) has also stated the assumption of (Lado 1957,p. 2) that

We assume that the student who comes in contact with a foreign language find some features of it quite easy and others extremely difficult. Those elements that are similar to his native language will be simple for him, and those elements that are different will be difficult.

Contrastive Analysis, in the present day world, has been developing as
a separate discipline in language teaching and learning. Every language is more or less comparable i.e. language universals. A language teacher should be wel-known about similarities and differences between languages. To analyse the langauge teaching, anyone must have the knowledge of behaviouristic and linguistic view point.

Contrastive analysis is done mainly for pedagogical purpose. It aims to predict the likely errors of group of learners and to provide input to language teaching and learning. It is done between languages i.e. interlingua and within language i.e. intra-lingual.

Hypotheses of contrastive analysis based on the behavioristic psychology can be summarized as follows:

1 Difference between the past and present learning causes hindrance whereas learning is facilitated by the similarity between the past and present learning.

2 Hindrance leads learning difficulty but facilitation causes learning ease.

3 Learning difficulty creates errors in performance but facilitation makes learner errorless in performance.

The hypotheses of contrastive analysis based on the linguistic aspect can be summarized as follows;

1 Language learning is essentially a matter of habit formation. Language learning involves a set of habits which are formed by means of S-R- Reinforcement chain.
develops linearly bit by bit.
3 Languages are comparable because no two languages are totally different.

### 1.2 Review of the Related Literature

Under the department of English education many linguistic comparative research works have been carried out on different languages. Up to now, there is no research that compares and contrasts subject verb agreement between Rai Bantawa and English. Here the researcher has tried to summarize of some research works that are more or less related to the study.

Shrestha (1989) has carried out a research on the title 'Errors on subject-verb agreement in English' and he has found that if the head word is preceded or followed by a word of opposite nature, verbal subject appears with plural noun, when a/the majority and 'a/the majority of ' come as a subject, when the quantifier is 'all', when a sentence begins with pseudo- subject, when 'either . . . or' and 'neither . . . nor' occur in a sentence and 'one of $+\mathrm{N}+\mathrm{Pl}$ function as subjects students commit high frequency of errors.

Shah (2000) in his study 'A comparative study of subject-verb agreement in the Maithili and English language' has found that subject verb agreement system between the Maithili and English language was completely different except in case of gender. He has also found that unlike in English, honorific forms are used in Maithili.

Tharu (2001) in his study 'A comparative study of subject-verb agreement in the Tharu and English language' has conduded his research with these points; the nominative and accusative personal
pronouns in English are marked by person, number and gender whereas, in Tharu they are marked by person and number only. Second and third person pronouns are changed for honorific forms in Tharu but not in English. The Tharu verbs are marked for formal and informal forms and agree with the grammatical categories of person whereas English verbs agree with person and number and are not marked for formal and informal forms. He found auxiliary 'be' verb in English and equivalent terms 'ba' for present tense and 'raha' for past tense in Tharu. The subject verb agreement is determined by person and honorific forms of the subject in Tharu whereas the honorifics do not show agreement in English. In both the languages verbs agree with the subject in a clause or sentence and do not agree with gender.

Basnet (2002) has conducted a research on 'Noun Phrase Structure in Thulung and English' and has found differences more than similarities between the Thulung and English language. The head of the noun phrase is preceded by determiners and pre-modifiers but not followed by the post-modifiers in Thulung but the head of the noun phrase is preceded by determiners and pre-modifiers and followed by the post modifiers in English. Clauses and phrases are pre-modifier in Thulung and post modifier in English. Thulung has singular, dual and plural number but only singular and plural numbers are found in English.

Rai (2004) in his study 'A Comparative Study of English and Rai Bantawa Kinship Terms' has conducted a research intending to compare and contrast Bantawa and English kinship terms. After his work, he has found that English has a few terms in comparision to Bantawa's kinship terms. There is no distinction between male and female ego except 'Husband' and 'wife' in English whereas Bantawa has. No terms exist in English to show elder and younger but Bantawa
takes such terms. Almost all relation are addressed by kinship terms in Bantawa; on the other hand, most of relations are addressed by name in English.

Rai (2005) in his study 'Pronominals in English and Chhintang Rai Language: A Comparative Linguistic Study' has concluded that more pronominal exist in Chhintang than in English. Personal, reflexive and possessive pronouns are categorized under singular, dual and plural number in Chhintang whereas English has singular and plural only. Inclusive and exclusive pronominals are found in Chhintang. Second person personal pronouns are the same form in both the language in subjective and objective case. But in Chhintang, second person personal pronouns are found to be singular, dual and plural whereas English has only one second person personal pronoun. English has separate third person personal pronoun for male, female and neutral but only one third person singular personal pronoun for all male, female and neutral are found in Chhintang. Interrogative and indefinite pronoun are found in greater number in Chhintang than in English.

Mehta (2006) in his study 'A Comparative Study on subject-verb Agreement in Bhojpuri and English Language' has found that Bhojpuri has variability in verb paradigm in all tenses with second person subject which is affected by number, gender and degree of honorificity whereas English drops all these. The agreement of verb is completely guided by gender and degree of the third person in Bhojpuri but not found such agreement in English. The variation of verb paradigm on the basis of number of the first person is modifiable in Bhojpuri but not in English. In both the languages, subject - verb agreement system is marked with tense and determined in accordance with the grammatical categories of subject.

Paudel (2007) in his study 'A Comparative Study on Negative and Interrogative Transformation in English and Bantawa' has carried out a comparative study of negative and interrogative transformation in Bantawa and English. In his study, he has found that the affixes '-n', 'nin' and 'man' are the negative makers in Bantawa whereas 'not' is negative maker in English. 'Not' is placed after auxiliary verb to make negative and sometimes by replacing words in English. But the negative markers are added with the verb in Bantawa. To transform a sentence into yes/no question either rising intonation or 'di' is used at he beginning of a sentence but in English auxiliary verb is placed at the beginning of a sentence. 'wh' words are placed at the beginning of a sentence in English to make 'di' question whereas equivalent terms of 'wh' is placed after subject in Bantawa.

### 1.3 Objectives of the Study

The objectives of the study were as follows:
1.To find out subject-verb agreement in the Rai Bantawa Language on the basis of following variables:

- $\quad$ Nouns (Proper, common, collective material, abstract).
- Personal, Demonstrative and Interrogative pronouns.
- Honorificity.
- Verbal clause.
- Gender
2.To compare and contrast subject-verb agreement between Rai Bantawa and English.
3.To suggest pedagogical implications


### 1.4 Significance of the Study

This small study may have greater importance in linguistic field because the Rai Bantawa is an indigenous and endangered language that is spoken in eastern part of Nepal by the Rais. It is the most widely and popularly used language among the other Rai clans. This study will provide relief to Bantawa speakers and its other lovers.

This is significant not only for Rai speakers but also for syllabus designers, textbook writers, teachers, students, scholars, and linguists as well. In the Bantawa language, we can hardly get written books and documents. No research has yet been carried out on the topic subject verb agreement in this language under the department. That is why it will be more important.

## 1. 5 Definition of Terms

## i) Subject

It refers to something about which a statement or assertion is made in the rest of the sentence (Richards et al. 1985,p. 278)
ii) Verb

It (in English) refers to a word which:
a) occurs as a part of the predicate of a sentence,
b) Carries marks of categories such as tense, aspect, person, number and mood, and
c) Refers to an action or state (Richards et al. 1985: 305)
iii) Agreement

A type of grammatical relationship between two or more elements in a sentence, in which the choice of one element causes the selection of a
particular form of another element (Richards, et al. 1985: 124).
iv) Honorifics

Politeness formula in a particular language which may be specific affixes, words or sentence structures (Richards, et al. 1985:131).
v) Dialect

A variety of language spoken in one part of country (regional dialect) or people belonging to a particular social class (social dialect or sociolect) which is different in some words, grammar/or pronunciation from other forms of the same language (Richards, et al.1985: 80).
vi) Inflection

The process of adding an affix to a word or changing it in some other way according to the rules of the grammar of a language.

## CHAPTER - TWO

## METHODOLOGY

The researcher adopted the following strategies to achieve target objectives.

### 2.1 Source of Data

The researcher used both kinds of source: primary and secondary for his study.

## a) Primary Sources

To complete the research the data were collected with the help of predetermined questionaire from Bantawa native speakers who live in the western part of Bhojpur District especially in Chhinamakhu, Annapurna, Nagee and Kot VDCs.

## b) Secondary Sources

Related books, journals, magazines, dissertations were secondary sources of data for the research. Rai (1985), Murphy (1996), Larsen Freeman and Celce Murcia (1999) Greenbaum and Nelson (2002), Swan (2005), Gautam, (2037), Bantawa (2055), were some of them.

### 2.2 Population of the Study

All the Bantawa native speakers who are also the inhabitants of Chhinamakhu, Annapurna, Nagee and Kot VDCs were the total population of the study.

### 2.3 Sample of the Study

Sample size of the study consisted of sixty individuals above the age of twenty from western part of Bhojpur. Sampling frame was stratified into three strata: illiterate, literate and educated. The people who were unable to read and write were kept under illiterate group. Literate group consisted of those people who were able to read and write but have not passed SLC. And those people who have passed SLC and further academic level were kept under educated group. It is clarified in the following table;

Table No. 3

## Group of Informants

| S.N. | Strata | Number of element/Unit |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 1 | Illiterate | 20 |
| 2. | Literate | 20 |
| 3. | Educated | 20 |
|  | Total | 60 |

The researcher used judgmental or purposive sampling and snowball sampling to sample the population.

### 2.4 Research Tools

Questionnaire was used as a research tool by the researcher. The questionnaire had altogether sixty sentence items. Semi-structured interview was also used to make informants ease according to the demand of the situation.

## 2. 5 Process of Data Collection

The researcher visited the informant's locality and made contact,
established rapport then took information using his research tools. Except the pre-determined questionnaire the researcher obtained some more essential information from the informants which were noted down in his note book. Those are also interpreted and analyzed in the chapter three and are given in the appendix.

### 2.6 Limitations of Study

The limitations of the study were as follows:

1. This study was confined within the comparison of subject verb agreement between the Bantawa and English languages.
2. This study was limited within sixty native speakers of Bantawa who live in the western part of Bhojpur district (Chhinamakhu, Annapurna, Nagee and Kot).
3. This study determined the subject-verb agreement of simple aspect and present tense in the Bantawa Language.

## CHAPTER - THREE

## ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION

### 3.1 Introduction

The Bantawa language has distinctive features rather than that of other languages. It is endangered because of the dominance of languages like, Nepali and English. It is spoken by a small number of people who are within Rai group. Furthermore, it has a very few numbers of its native speakers. It is used in spoken form but not in written form. It has no written form but nowadays, small research works have been started to develop its written form. It is also taught in primary level as a language of nation in a particular region. In this study, here, the researcher has attempted to find out some subject-verb agreement rules in Bantawa in accordance with the pre-determined objectives.

### 3.2 Word Order of Bantawa and English

i)



After analysing the above Bantawa sentences it can be concluded that the object is preceded by the subject and followed by the verb in general in the Bantawa language. It means Bantawa sentences are formed under the SOV structure whereas English sentences are formed under the SVO structure.

### 3.3 Subject -Verb Agreement

Every language has its own grammar system that ties the constituent in its natural way to make language intelligible and language is used with its underlying rules. The finite set of rules is applied to make infinite well formed sentences.

### 3.3.1 Process of Developing Rules of Bantawa

Observing the sentences of the data given by the informants, some Subject-Verb Agreement rules can be generalized in the Bantawa Language.

### 3.3.1.1 Noun

Simply, the word 'noun' signifies either existing or non-existing entities of the world and spiritual feelings of human beings. It can be categorized in terms of its characteristics.

## A. Proper Noun

The nouns which denote name of person, place, things that have single entity is called proper noun.
I) Nepālā Cuppāñ Luñ bā ī
$\mathrm{S}\left(3^{\mathrm{rd}} . \mathrm{sgN}\right)$
V(sg)
ii) Sabinā nin sapanā

| $(y \bar{a} w a \bar{c} c \overline{1})$ | 61.66\% |
| :---: | :---: |
| yāwācī $\overline{1}$ | 33.33\% |
| $\text { yāwā } \underset{\text { V(pl) }}{\underset{\text { onai }}{ }}$ | 5.01\% |

If a proper noun functions as either singular or plural subject it shares the same verb number. The data show that $61.68 \%$ informants out of sixty provided verbless sentence in No. (ii). Over thirty-three percent informants provided the same verb ' $\overline{1}$ ' which is used in No. (i). The first sentence has singular subject whereas the second has plural subject linked by 'nin' conjunction. Over five percent informants provided 'onai' as a verb.

## B. Common Noun

The noun which shows common features of the animals, objects, and things is a common noun.
i) Pitmāā ompiā ñ mā
\(\left(\begin{array}{l}pun <br>
pu <br>

pan\end{array}\right)\)| $71.74 \%$ |
| :--- |
| $26.09 \%$ |
| $\mathrm{~V}(\mathrm{sg})$ |

$\begin{array}{cc}\text { ii) berāmā nin kocuwā__ siyālā/sā n nilāda } & \text { yā? } \underline{\text { ñ }} \\ S\left(3^{\text {rd }} \cdot \mathrm{plN}\right) & \mathrm{V}(\mathrm{pl})\end{array}$

In both the sentences above, common nouns appeared as the subject of the sentences. In No. (i) 'pitmā' is the subject that denotes singular common noun. In No. (ii) 'berāmā' and 'kocuwā' function as the subject that are linked by conjunction 'nin', these subjects give singular and plural meaning respectively and take the same verb number.

## C. Collective Noun

The noun which functions like a single entity but contains more than
one persons, things, etc. is a collective noun.
i) jhumumuwāā ( munāhupā) lāmchektā
$\mathrm{S}\left(3^{\text {rd }} . \operatorname{sgN}\right)$
V(sg)
ii) Sāwācio bathānā cānmā khārā

$$
\mathrm{S}\left(3^{\mathrm{rd}} \cdot \operatorname{sgN}\right) \quad \mathrm{V}(\mathrm{sg})
$$

In the No.(i) and (ii) above, 'jhumumuwāā' and 'sāwācio bathānā' function as subjects of the sentences that refer to collective nouns. Singular verb form 'chektā' and 'khārā' are taken by them.

## D. Material Noun

The noun which denotes liquid and valuable things, which does not lose its features it has by fragmenting is a material noun.
i) $\quad \underline{\text { ā? wā }}$ duñ māuitko $\quad$ yā? $\underline{\text { n }}$
$\mathrm{S}\left(3^{\text {rd }} \cdot \mathrm{sgN}\right) \quad \mathrm{V}(\mathrm{sg})$
ii) sonā chuokhāmmā thokā $\underline{\overline{1}}$

$$
\mathrm{S}\left(3^{\mathrm{rd}} \cdot \mathrm{sgN}\right) \quad \mathrm{V}(\mathrm{sg})
$$

Here, 'cā?wā' and 'sonā' are material nouns and take verb root 'yā? nं, and $\bar{i} ’$. These verbs refer to singular number.

## E. Abstract Noun

The noun which has spiritual and mental realization that cannot be touched and seen but can be felt and that quality exists within a person and things is abstract noun.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { i) sumā nucuñe yā? 믈 } \\
& \mathrm{S}\left(3^{\mathrm{rd}} . \mathrm{sgN}\right) \quad \mathrm{V}(\mathrm{sg})
\end{aligned}
$$

In the above sentence, verb is not identified according to the subject. This is why Bantawa nouns take either singular or plural verb. It means, there is not found verb number in relation to $\mathrm{S}-\mathrm{V}$ agreement except personal pronoun. The verb number is determined by the subject of a sentence. It has only neutral verb number when the singular or plural noun functions as a subject of a sentence the verb plays the same role in terms of S-V Agreement.

### 3.3.1.2 Pronoun

The words which are used instead of nouns and sometimes clause and sentence and function as a subject, object or complement in a sentence, are pronouns.

## A. Personal pronoun

Personal pronouns are those which are used in the place of person or things. Singular, dual and plural personal pronouns are available in Bantawa.

Table No. 4

Personal Pronouns with their Number, Honorificity and Inclusiveness

|  | Number |  |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
|  | Singular | Dual | Plural |
|  | uñ kā | uñ kācā (exc) | unkānkā (exc) |


|  |  | uñ kāci (inc) | unkānin/unkān (inc) |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Second | khānā (Nh) | khānāci (Nh) | khānānin (Nh) (H) |

Table No. 4 shows that Bantawa has singular, dual and plural number.
According to the table 'un kā' is the first person singular pronoun. 'uñ kācā' and 'un kānkā' are the first person dual and plural exclusive pronons and 'uńkāci' and 'uñ kānin/uñ kān' are the first person dual and plural inclusive pronouns. Honorific and Non-honorific pronouns are found in the second person. Non-honorific pronouns are found in singular, dual and plural in number but only singular and plural honorific are found on the basis of number. khānā, khānāci, and khānānin are non-honorific pronouns and 'khānānin and khānāninci' are honorific pronouns respectively. 'o/oko, mo/moko and khoko' are the third person singular pronouns 'O/okoci and mo/mokoci are dual and o/okonin, mo/monin and khokonin' are the third person plural pronouns.

Here, a confusion has been created that 'o/okoci and mo/mokoci' appear in both the dual and plural numbers. It should be clear that Bantawa third person dual number is used only for human beings. So if the dual marker '-ci' is added to the third person singular pronoun for nonhuman things that indicates plural form. Subject verb agreement rules related to personal pronouns are described here.
a. The first person singular pronoun takes its own special type of verb that is not suitable with other pronouns '-na' suffix is added after verb root.
i) $\underline{u} \underline{n} k \underline{a} \quad$ met $\underline{n} \underline{\underline{a}}($ met $+\dot{n} \bar{a})$
$\mathrm{S}\left(1^{\mathrm{st}} \mathrm{sg} . \mathrm{pro}\right) \quad \mathrm{V}\left(1^{\mathrm{st}} \mathrm{sg}.\right)(\mathrm{vr}+\mathrm{suf})$
b. The first person exclusive dual and plural pronouns also agree with distinctive verb. The suffixes '-cā' and '-ankā' are added to the first person singular pronoun to make the first person exclusive dual and plural pronoun respectively. And these pronouns take such verbs that are formed by adding -'cā' or '-cācā' and -inkā' suffixes after verb root respectively.
i) $\underline{u} \underline{\underline{n}} \underline{k} \underline{a} \bar{c} \bar{a}$ chukmu metcca $/ m e t c a ̄ c \bar{a}($ met $+c \bar{a} / c a ̄ c \bar{a})$

$$
\mathrm{S}\left(1^{\text {st. }} . \mathrm{dl} / \text { exc.pro }\right) \quad \mathrm{V}\left(1^{\text {st }} . \mathrm{dl} . \mathrm{exc}\right)(\mathrm{vr}+\mathrm{suf})
$$

ii) unkānkā chukmu mettinkā (met + inka)

$$
\mathrm{S}\left(1^{\text {st }} . \text { pl.exc.pro }\right) \quad \mathrm{V}\left(1^{\text {st }} . \text { pl.exc }\right)(\mathrm{vr}+\mathrm{suf})
$$

Likewise, the suffixes '-ci' and '-nin' or '-n' are added after the first person singular pronoun to make the first person inclusive dual and plural pronouns respectively. These pronouns agree with those verbs which are formed by adding the suffixes '-ci' and '-in' after the verb root respectively.
iii) $\underline{u} \underline{n} \underline{k a ̄}$ ci chukmu

$$
\text { S ( } \left.1^{\text {st } . ~ d l . i n c . p r o ~}\right)
$$

iv) ún $\underline{k} \underline{a ̄ n / u} \mathfrak{n}$ kānin chukmu mettin (met + in)

$$
\mathrm{S}\left(1^{\text {st. }} \cdot \text { pl.inc.pro. }\right) \quad \mathrm{V}\left(1^{\text {st. }} . \text { pl.inc }\right)(\mathrm{vr}+\text { suf })
$$

c. The second person singular non-honorific pronoun takes root form of a verb.
i) khānā chukmu $\underline{\text { met }}($ met +0$)$ S ( $2^{\text {nd }}$. sg. Nh pro)
$\mathrm{V}(\mathrm{sg} . \mathrm{Nh})(\mathrm{vr}+0)$
d. The second person non-honorific dual pronoun takes the verb which is formed by adding '-ci' suffix after verb root.
vii) Khānāci chukmu metci $($ met +ci$)$ S (2 ${ }^{\text {nd }}$. dl.Nh.pro)
$\mathrm{V}(\mathrm{dl} . \mathrm{Nh})(\mathrm{vr}+\mathrm{suf})$
e. The second person plural non-honorific pronoun takes; (i) root form of a verb, if the formation of verb root structure ends with consonant sound (ii) suffix '-n' added to the verb, if the formation of root verb structure ends with vowel sound.
viii) khānānin chukmu $\quad$ met (CVel.C)

$$
\mathrm{S}\left(2^{\text {nd }} \cdot \mathrm{pl} . \mathrm{Nh} . \text { Pro }\right) . \quad \mathrm{V}(\mathrm{pl} . \mathrm{Nh})(\mathrm{vr}+0)
$$

ix) khānnin kok $\mathrm{S}\left(2^{\text {nd }} \cdot\right.$ pl.Nh.pro $) . \quad \mathrm{V}\left(2^{\text {nd }} \mathrm{pl} . \mathrm{Nh}\right)(\mathrm{vr}+\mathrm{suf})$
cān (CVel.) (cā +n )
f. The third person dual pronouns are used only for human beings. So if the pronouns indicate non-human instead of human ones that take verb root and give plural meaning.
x) mokoci khāpci (khāp+ci)

S (dl Hn.pro) V (dl.) (vr+suf)
xi) $\underline{\text { mokoci }} \quad \underline{\mathrm{ku}(k u+0)}$

$$
\mathrm{S} \text { (pl Nhn.pro) } \quad \mathrm{V}(\mathrm{Pl})(\mathrm{vr}+0)
$$

g. All the third person plural pronouns take root form of a verb that give plural meaning. The suffix '-ci' added to pronouns also take verb root if that signify non-human and give plural meaning.

Mokoci (Nhn.pl)
Okoci (Nhn.pl)
Mokonin (pl)
Okonin (pl)
ot

Khokonin (pl)

Onin (pl)
Monin (pl)
The third person dual and plural pronouns can be distinguished with the help of a verb used in a sentence. Dual human pronoun takes the suffix '-ci' added to verb and plural pronoun takes verb root.

## B. Demonstrative Pronoun

The pronoun which points out persons, objects etc. is demonstrative pronoun. All the third person personal pronouns are demonstrative pronouns. These pronouns take verb as discussed above.

Table No. 5
Demonstrative Pronouns with their English Equivalents

| Near |  | Far |  | Farther |  | Unseen |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| sg. | pl. | sg. | pl. | sg. | pl. | sg. | Pl |
| o/oko | o/okoci <br> o/okonin | Mo/moko | mo/mokoci <br> mo/mokonin | yāko | yākoci | khoko | khokoci <br> khokonin |
| This, <br> it | These | That | Those | That | Those | That | Those |

Demonstrative pronouns are used on the basis of proximity.
a. o/oko is used when things or objects are nearby a speaker.
b. mo/moko is used when things or objects are a little far from a speaker and s/he cannot touch.
c. yāko is used when things or objects are beyond or farther from a speaker.
d. khoko is used when a speaker talks about things or objects which are not presented at the time of speaking.
i)

ii) moko suñtān $\underline{1}$

$$
\mathrm{S}\left(3^{\mathrm{rd}} . \mathrm{sg} . \mathrm{pro}\right) \quad \mathrm{V}(\mathrm{sg})
$$

iii) okoci gureci ī

$$
\mathrm{S}\left(3^{\text {rd }} . \mathrm{pl} . \mathrm{pro}\right) \quad \mathrm{V}(\mathrm{pl})
$$

iv) mokoci phāntāci $\underline{1}$
S (3 ${ }^{\text {rd }}$.pl. pro)
$\mathrm{V}(\mathrm{pl})$

The demonstrative pronouns make no distinction of the verb number on the basis of number. They take verb root. There are various terms that exist in Bantawa for demonstrative pronouns which are used on the basis of distance like; near, far, father and unseen. But a few terms exist to show near and far in English. The English demonstrative pronouns take singular or plural verbs according to the number of the pronouns and sometimes number of a subject whereas all the Bantawa demonstrative pronouns take root form of a verb if they are either singular or plural.

## C. Interogative Pronoun

The pronouns that ask about something and seek information or answer are interrogative pronouns. They are presented In the table below.

Table No. 6

Interrogative Pronouns with their English Equivalents

| Bantawa | English |
| :--- | :--- |
| di, dilo, disumpā | What |
| demkhā | When |
| khādā | Where |
| denā | Why |
| sañ | Who |
| sañ ko | Whose |
|  | Whom |


| khāupok | Which |
| :--- | :--- |
| khāsko, khāīā, khāisākiyā | How |
| dem | How much/many |
| Khāuori | In which time |

The table No. 6 shows that 'di, dilo and disumpā' are equivalent to English 'what'. 'How' is equalized in Bantawa with the three terms khāsko, khāisā, khāisākia'. There is no equivalent term in Bantawa of English 'whom'.Rest of the other terms have one to one equivalent terms.
i. āmnún di?
S (sg) inter.P
ii āmnu ñ disumpā ?

$$
\mathrm{S}(\mathrm{sg}) \quad \text { inter.P }
$$

iii. āmno nún disumpā ?
S (sg) inter.P
iv. odā hulākā nin tāyākhim khādā yā? n_ n

$$
\begin{array}{lll}
\mathrm{S}(\mathrm{pl}) & \text { inter. } \mathrm{P} \quad \mathrm{~V}(\mathrm{pl})
\end{array}
$$

v. Oda chāpmāhānkhim nin khenmā khim khādā khādā yā? n ?

$$
\begin{array}{lll}
\mathrm{S}(\mathrm{pl}) & \text { inter.P } & \mathrm{V}(\mathrm{pl})
\end{array}
$$

In the first three sentences 'di and dissumpā' are interrogative pronouns which are equivalent to English 'what'. These sentences are verbless interrogative sentences. The last two sentences consist of interrogative pronoun 'khādā' but this pronoun does not determine the
verb.

Interrogative pronoun doesnot determine verb number. The subject used in an interrogative sentence determines the verb according to the rule. Interrogative pronouns of English agree the verb in accordance with the number of a subject. But in Bantawa, such concern is useless except in the case of personal pronouns.

## D. Honorificity

Honorificity is shown in relation to social norms and values. Those persons who are senior than the speaker are honorable and they are junior than the speakers are non-honorable. It is distinguished on the basis of age, education, social status, relation, etc.
i) pāpā ropākhādā kāmāmmu (kāmā $+\mathrm{am}+\mathrm{mu})$
$\mathrm{S}(\mathrm{Hsg}) \quad \mathrm{V}(\mathrm{H})(+$ pref. +vr$)$
ii) komā bāyā ñ tātlo amim (am+ im)

S(Hsg)

$$
\mathrm{V}(\mathrm{H})(\text { pref. }+\mathrm{vr})
$$

iii) $\underline{u}$ ñ buwā khānnulo amlāklu (am + lāklu)
S (Hsg)
$\mathrm{V}(\mathrm{H})($ pref. +vr$)$
iv) chunā aspatālādā kāmāmmu ( kāmā $+\mathrm{am}+\mathrm{mu}$ )
$\mathrm{S}(\mathrm{Hsg}) \quad \mathrm{V}(\mathrm{H}) \quad(+$ pref. +vr$)$
v) $\underline{u} n$ ni nichāk khānulo lāklu (0+lāklu)

S (Nhsg) V(Nh) (0+vr)
vi) chokchāmāā nimmā un kā nāruk pu ( $0+\mathrm{pu}$ )

$$
\mathrm{S}(\mathrm{Hsg}) \quad \mathrm{V}(\mathrm{Nh})(0+\mathrm{vr})
$$

Table No. 8

## Honorificty in Bantawa Verb

| Honorific verb | Nonhonorific verb |
| :--- | :--- |
| Kāmāmmu | kāmā mu |
| Amim | im |
| Amlāklu | lāklu |
| Ampu | pu |

To make verb honorific, the prefix 'am-' is added before verb root. 'pāpā komā, buwā, chunā' are honorific nouns in the sentences. So they take the 'am-' prefix in the verbs to make them honorific. The subjects 'nichāk' and 'chokchāma' are non-honorific and they take verb root only.

Honorificity is clearly signified through the verb in Bantawa. No such verb exists in English. But on the other hand, except personal pronouns and honorific nouns there is no use of different verb in terms of singular and plural in Bantawa.

## E. Verbal Clause

When the verb gets greater emphasis on or plays a dominant role in a clause that is called verbal clause. It can functions as a subject of a sentence. Some examples are listed here.
i) sumārātkābā Limā cholo li

$$
S(\mathrm{vcl}) \quad \mathrm{V}(\mathrm{sg})
$$

ii) sumārātkābā limā cholo yā? n
$\mathrm{S}(\mathrm{vcl}) \quad \mathrm{V}(\mathrm{sg})$
If Bantawa verbal clause functions as a subject of a sentence that takes the verb root. On the other hand, if English verbal clause functions as a subject of a sentence, it takes a singular verb.

Verbless sentences are also acceptable in Bantawa.

For example:-
Subject
verb
i. oko
ii. moko
suntān
$\times$
iii. okoci
gureci $\times$
iv. mokoci
duwā chāci
v. uñ kā
bekhā
$\times$
$\times$
vi. un nichā
khānnulo
Lāklu
vii.chokchāmā
nimmā un kā uwā
pu

These sentences show that the Bantawa language accepts some verbless sentences. But they give clear and complete meaning. Such type of sentences are specially accepted in spoken form rather than in written form. Besides it, grammatically, Bantawa sentences have to be produced under 'SV' or 'SOV' structure.

## F. Gender

Generally, gender refers to male and female in case of animate and neuter for inanimate things.

ii) chokchhāmā nimmā unkā uwā pu
$\mathrm{S}(\mathrm{sgF})$
V(sg)
iii) pāpā ropākhādā kāmāmmu (kāmā + am + mu)
$\mathrm{S}(\mathrm{sgM}) \quad \mathrm{V}(\mathrm{H})(+$ pref. +vr$)$
iv) komā bāyāntātlo $\underline{\text { amim }}(\mathrm{am}+\mathrm{im})$

$$
\mathrm{S}(\mathrm{sgF}) \quad \mathrm{V}(\mathrm{H})(\text { pref. }+\mathrm{vr})
$$

Gender distinction is not made in the Bantawa language in terms of subject-verb agreement. Gender is only differentiated in proper nouns.

## 3. 4 Comparison Between English and Bantawa S-V Agreement

Languages can be compared in some cases to find out similarities and differences between them. Here, Bantawa and English are compared on the basis of the following headings.

## 3. 4.1 Comparison of Personal Pronoun Between English and

 BantawaBantawa and English personal pronouns have some similarities and differences. These are shown in the table below:

Table No. 8

## Bantawa and English Personal Pronouns.

|  | Number |  |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Singular |  | Dual |  | Plural |  |
|  | Bantawa | English | Bantawa | English | Bantawa | English |
| 1st | uñk ${ }^{\text {à }}$ | I | un̉ kacā(exc) <br> uñ kāci (inc) |  | unkānkā(exc) <br> u ñ kānin, <br> u ñ kān (inc) | We |
| 2nd | khānā(Nh) <br> khānānin(H) | You | khānāci(Nh) |  | khānānin(Nh) <br> khānāninci(H) | You |
| 3rd | o/oko <br> mo/moko <br> khoko | He , she, it | o/okoci <br> mo/mokoci <br> khokoci <br> (Hn) |  | o/okoci mo/mokoci khokoci <br> o/okonin mo/mokonin khokonin | They |

The table No. 8 compares the pronominal terms between Bantawa and English. The first person singular pronoun 'uni ka' exists in Bantawa and English 'I' is equalized with that. Inclusive and exlusive terms are found in Bantawa first person dual and plural number whereas English does not have such terms as dual number. 'We' is used in English in place of Bantawa 'uñ kānin, uñ kān and unkānkā. English has only one term for second person singular or plural but five different terms
can be found in Bantawa. 'Khānā, Khānāci and Khānānin' are nonhonorific second person singular, dual and plural number respectively. 'Khānānin' denotes singular honorific and 'Khānāninci' denotes plural honorific. It lacks dual number. Second person non-honorific plural pronoun is the second person honorific singular pronoun. The third person singular pronouns are used without making any distinction in Bantawa But in English, there can be seen gender distinction and human and non human distinction. Human is signified by 'He' or 'She' and non-human is signified by 'it'. Within human beings 'he' signifies male and 'she' signifies 'female'. Third person dual pronouns are used for only human beings in Bantawa. Third person plural pronouns 'o/okoci, mo/mokoci, khokoci, o/okonin, mo/mokonin, khokonin are equalized with only one English term 'they'.

## 3. 4.2 Comparison of Verbs Between English and Bantawa

The verb 'met' and 'cā' are tabulated here to clarify verb taken by personal pronoun of Bantawa and English in table below:

Table No. 9

Comparison of Verb between Bantawa and English

|  | Number |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Singular | Dual | Plural |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | Bantawa | English | Bantawa | English | Bantawa | English |  |  |  |
| 1 st | met $\dot{n} \bar{a}$ | Play | metcācā(exc) |  | mettinkā(exc) | Play |  |  |  |
| met ci(inc) |  | mettin(inc) |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |


|  | cān ${ }^{\text {a }}$ | Eat | cācā(exc) <br> cāci (inc) | co/cāinkā(exc) <br> co/cāin(inc) | Eat |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 2nd | $\operatorname{met}(\mathrm{Nh})$ <br> mettin <br> (H) <br> cā (Nh) <br> coin (H) | Play <br> Eat | $\operatorname{metci}(\mathrm{Nh})$ <br> cāci(Nh) | $\operatorname{met}(\mathrm{Nh})$ <br> $\operatorname{mettin}(\mathrm{H})$ <br> cā (Nh) <br> coin (H) | Play <br> Eat |
| 3rd | met | Plays <br> Eats | met $\mathrm{ci}(\mathrm{Hn})$ <br> cā ci (Hn) | met <br> cā | Play <br> Eat |

Table No. 9 gives description and comparision of Bantawa and English verb forms which are taken by personal pronouns. Bantawa has various verb forms according to personal pronouns, honorificity and inclusiveness whereas English has only singular and plural verb forms. English verb is free from other criteria. Third person singular pronouns take singular verbs and plural verb is used elsewhere. But in Bantawa, to know about $\mathrm{S}-\mathrm{V}$ Agreement is a little complex thing.

### 3.4.3 Distinction Between English and Bantawa Verb Inflection Agreed by Personal Pronouns

The verbs and suffixes agreed by Bantawa and English personal pronouns are presented in the table below:

Table No. 10

## Bantawa and English Suffix

| 1) The suffix '- n $\mathfrak{a}$ ' is added at the verb root to make first person singular verb form. $\text { met }+\dot{n} \bar{a}=\text { met } \dot{n} \bar{a}$ <br> $c \bar{a}+n \overline{a ̄}=c a \bar{n} n \bar{a}$ | The verb root is used to make first person singular verb form. <br> Play <br> Eat |
| :---: | :---: |
| ii) The suffixes '-cā', 'cācā' and '-ci' are added to make first person dual exclusive and inclusive verb form respectively. $\begin{aligned} & \text { met+cā = metacā (exc) } \\ & \text { met+cācā = metcācā (exc) } \\ & \text { met+ci = metci (inc) } \\ & \text { cā+cā = cācā (exc) } \\ & \text { cā+ci = cāci (inc) } \end{aligned}$ | No dual number |
| iii) The suffixes '-inkā' and '-in' are added at the verb root to make first person plural exclusive and inclusive verb form respectively. <br> met+inkā $=$ mettinkā (exc) | The verb root is used for plural <br> Play <br> Eat <br> No exact inclusive and |


|  | exclusive verb form. |
| :---: | :---: |
| met + in $=$ mettin (inc) |  |
| cā+in = cāin (inc) |  |
| iv) The verb root is used for second person non-honorific singular and plural verb and '-in' suffix is added to make the honorific. <br> met (Nh) <br> cā (Nh) <br> met + in $=$ mettin $(H)$ $\text { cā+in }=\text { cāin }(\mathrm{H})$ | There is no exact honorific verb from |
| v) The suffix '-ci' is added to the second person non-horofic dual verb $\text { met }+\mathrm{ci}=\text { metci }$ $\mathrm{cā}+\mathrm{ci}=\mathrm{cā} \mathrm{ci}$ |  |
| vi) The verb root is used for the third person singular or plural pronoun. <br> met <br> cā | The suffixes '-s, -es, -ies' are used to make the third person singular verb form. But the verb root is used for plural. $\begin{aligned} & \text { play }+\mathrm{s}=\text { plays } \\ & \text { eat }+\mathrm{s}=\text { eats } \end{aligned}$ |

```
vii) The suffix '-ci' is added to the
verb root to make third person human
dual verb
met + ci = metci
c\overline{a}+ci = cāci
```

The first person singular pronoun of Bantawa takes '- na' inflected verb and the first person plural pronoun takes '-inka' and '-in' inflected verb whereas in English, first person singular and plural pronouns take verb root without any inflection. First person dual pronoun takes '-cā/ cācā' and '-ci' inflected verb. Inclusive and exclusive verb forms are found in the Bantawa language. '-cā/cācā' and '-inkā' suffixes are added to the verb root to make first person dual exclusive and first person plural exclusive respectively. Likewise, '-ci' and '-in' suffixes are added to the verb to make the first person dual and plural inclusive respectively. The verb root is used for the second person singular non-honorific. '-in' inflected verb is used for singular and plural honorific forms this feature cannot find in English. '-ci' inflected verb is used for the second person dual non-honorific and third person human dual. Except the third person human dual, all the third person personal pronouns take verb root in Bantawa. But on the other hand, '-s' inflected verb is used for the third person singular pronoun and verb root for plural in English.

### 3.3 Conclusion

Languages are more or less comparable. Here, the study has produced more differences than similarities between Bantawa and English in subject-verb agreement. English comes under Endo-European
language family. English sentences are produced in the structure SVO. Verb is determined on the basis of person and number of a subject. Singular and plural numbers are only found in English. Sometimes, subject creates problem in the verb. On the other side, Bantawa comes under Tibeto-Burman Language family and produces sentences under SOV structure in general. Subject determines the verb in a sentence according to person and number in terms of personal pronoun and honorificity. Many singular, dual and plural pronominal terms are available and take their own peculiar verb forms. Honorific sentences are especially produced using honorific nouns.

## CHAPTER - FOUR

## FINDINGS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

### 4.1 Findings

This research has come out with the following findings.

### 4.1.1 Subject- Verb Agreement Rules of Bantawa

S-V agreement rules of Bantawa are as follows:
i. All the nouns except honorific proper noun which function as a subject agree with the verb root.
ii. The nouns linked with the conjunction 'nin' accept the verb root.
iii. personal pronouns:

- The first person singular takes '- $\dot{n} \bar{a}$ ’ inflected verb.
- The first person dual takes '-cā or -cācā’ inflected verb for exclusive and '-ci' inflected verb for inclusive.
- The first person plural takes '-inkā' and '-in' inflected verb for exclusive ad inclusive respectively
- The second person singular and plural non-honorific take the verb root and honorific take '-in' inflected verb.
- The second person dual is only non-honorific. It takes '-ci' inflected verb. The third person singular and plural agree with the verb root.
- The third person dual is only used for human beings and takes 'ci' inflected verb. If '-ci' added to pronoun is used for nonhuman, that gives plural meaning and agrees with the verb root.
- The demonstrative pronouns agree with the verb root whether they are singular or plural the same case happens with the interrogative pronouns.
- If honorific proper noun functions as a subject, it takes 'am-' prefix added verb.
- If the second person honorific personal pronoun comes as a subject, it takes '-in' inflected verb.
- If verbal clause comes at the place of subject, it takes the verb root.

To sum up, Bantawa verbs are not confined on the basis of the number of subject except personal pronoun.

### 4.1.2 Similarities

The study shows some similarities between English and Bantawa.
I. Verbs of both the languages are used on the basis of subject of a sentence in general.
II. Verbs do not agree with gender.
III. Material and abstract nouns of both the languages take singular verb.
IV. There are equivalent interrogative pronouns in the both languages except English pronoun 'whom'. They are free from determining the verb in a sentence.
V. English verb root denotes plural meaning and Bantawa verb root also indicates plural meaning in some cases.

### 4.1.3 Differences

Some differences between Bantawa and English are as follows:
I. Bantawa sentences are produced under SOV structure whereas English sentences are produced under SVO structure.
II. Bantawa has singular, dual and plural personal pronouns and verbs but English has only singular and plural personal pronouns and verbs.
III. Bantawa has more personal pronouns than English
IV. Honorific personal pronouns can be found in Bantawa with the peculiar verb forms which lacks in English.
V. All the dual personal pronoun, first person singular and plural, second person singular and plural honorific pronouns take their own verbs. Such feature can not be found in English.
VI. The suffixes '- $\mathrm{n} \overline{\mathrm{a}}$ ', -cā, -ink $\bar{a},-\mathrm{ci},-$ in' are added to the verb root to match with the subject (personal pronoun) and verb root also completes a sentence in Bantawa. But '-s' '-es’ and '-ies' are added to the verb root to change into singular verb form in English.
VII. Bantawa honorific terms take 'khānānin' and 'khānāninci' take '-in' inflected verb. The verbs are formed by adding 'am-' prefix are honorific verb which take honorific nouns. Such terms are not fond in English.

### 4.2 Recommendations

On the basis of findings of the study, the following pedagogical suggestions are forwarded.
I. Sentence structures are quite different between the two languages under study, so the English learners of Bantawa linguistic group or the Bantawa learners of English linguistic group feel more difficulties. A language instructor should give his/her attention to the learner and should give them adequate practice.
II. Subject verb agreement with personal pronoun is very different between Bantawa and English. Singular, dual and plural number are acceptable in Bantawa in one hand, on the other hand, dual is not acceptable in English. This case creates confusion in a learner. But such confusion has to be addressed by the concerned teacher.
III. Honorific terms obstruct for using language even within a language users if it has. It is no matter if the language has not such terms. These terms make problem to language learners. It is notable to language instructor that language teaching is fruitful when the suitable environment or situation is created in the language class.

The researcher would like to recommend to the concerned authority that language instructors are to be well trained. Language teaching should not be like preaching. Instead, every language instructor should bear in his/her mind that 'role-playing' is the best method. And another thing is that, our country is full of linguistic diversity. Among those, a few languages have been started to teach. Considering this fact, the authority should encourage the students to conduct research.

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## APPENDICES

## APPENDIX- A

Table of Sounds

| a | अ |  | k | क | व | n | ण | Ј | r | र | ¢ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $\overline{\mathrm{a}}$ | आ | 1 | kh | ख | ख | $r$ | ड |  | 1 | ल | $\overline{\text { c }}$ |
| i | इ | f | g | ग | т | [rh | ढ) |  | W or v | व | ¢ |
| $\overline{\mathrm{I}}$ | ई | $\uparrow$ | gh | घ | $\varepsilon$ | t | त | $\overline{\text { ¢ }}$ | Ś | श | श |
| u | उ | - | $\dot{\mathrm{n}}$ | ङ |  | th | थ | г | S | ष | ธ |
| $\overline{\mathrm{u}}$ | ऊ | - | c | च | $\bar{\square}$ | d | ध |  | S | स | ₹ |
| r | \# | c | ch | छ |  | dh | द | $\varepsilon$ | h | ह |  |
| e | ए |  | j | ज | ज | n | न | $\bar{F}$ |  |  |  |
| ai | ऐ |  | jh | भ | भ | p | प | ๘ |  |  |  |
| o | ओ | † | ก | ज | $\bar{\square}$ | ph | फ | ¢ |  |  |  |
| au | औ | † | t | ट |  | b | ब | © |  |  |  |
| $\sim$ | 。 |  | $\mathrm{t}^{\mathrm{h}}$ | б |  | bh | भ | \% |  |  |  |
| $\dot{\mathrm{m}}$ | . |  | d | ड |  | m | म | I |  |  |  |
| h | : |  | $\mathrm{d}_{\circ} \mathrm{h}$ | ढ |  | y | य |  |  |  |  |

This table is adopted from Turner 1931 (Reprinted in 1994) A comparative and
Etymological
Dictionary
of
Nepali
language.

Note: /? / is used for glottal stop sound)

## APPENDIX-B

Some essential sentences taken by informants are given here:
i) Sabina and Sapana go to school.

Sabinā nin sapanā tāyākhim khātci (Bantawa)
ii) Paruhang, Sumnima and Henkhama go to school.
pāruhāńn, sumnimā nin henkhāmā/ tāyākhim khāt (Bantawa)
iii) We (two) play volleyball.
u ñ kācā chukmu(golā) metcā (Bantawa)
iv) We (two) play volleyball.
uñ kāci chukmu (golā) metci (Bantawa)
v We play volleyball.
unkānkā chukmu (golā) mettinkā (Bantawa)
vi) We play volleyball.
u in kānin chukmu (golā) mettin (Bantawa)
vii) You eat rice.
khānānin kok cān (Bantawa)
viii) They (two) weap.
mokoci khāpci (Bantawa)
ix) Those are damaged.
mokoci ku (Bantawa)
x) They weap.
mokonin khāp (Barawa)
xi) Those are broken.
mokoci ot (Bantawa)
xii) I play.
uñ kā metñā (Banrawa)
xiii) You play volleyball.
khānānin golā mettin (Bantawa)
xiv) You play volleyball.
khānāninci golā mettin (Bantawa)

## APPENDIX-C

## Name of Informant:

## Address:

## Academic Qualification: Illiterate/Under SLC/Above SLC

Please Write or Tell the Given Sentences in your Mother Tongue (Bantawa)

1. I play volleyball.

म भलिबल खेल्छु।
2. We (two) play volleyball.

हामी दुई भलिबल खेल्छौ
3. We play volleyball.

हामी भलिबल खेल्छौ।
4. You play volleyball.

तिमी भलिबल खेल्छौ।
5. You (Two) play volleyball.

तिमी दुई भलिवल खेल्छौ।
6. You play volleyball.

तिमीहरु भलिबल खेल्छौ।
7. He plays volleyball.

ऊ भलिबल खेल्छ।
8. She plays volleyball.

उनी भलिबल खेल्छिन् ।
9. They (two) play volleyball.

ती/तिनीहरु भलिबल खेल्छन् ।
10.They play volleyball.

तिनीहरु भलिबल खेल्छन्।
11.It is a volleyball.

यो भलिबल हो ।
12.Somebody is there.

त्यहाँ कोही छ।
13. To be a doctor is challenging.

डाक्टर हुन चुनौतिपूर्ण छ।
14.That he stood first in the exam doesn't surprise one. $\qquad$
ऊ परिक्षामा प्रथम हुनु आश्चर्यजनक होइन ।
15.Four meters is a short distance.

चार मिटर छोटो दुरी हो ।
16.Many a buffalo is in the shed.

धिरै भैसी गोठमा छ।
17.The rich are dancing.

धनी नीिचरहका छन् ।
18. Two third of the students are only passed. $\qquad$

दुई तिहाई विद्यार्थी मात्र पास भए ।
19. Some of the boys are absent today.

आज केही केटाहरु अनुपस्थित छन् ।
20. All of the water is polluted. $\qquad$
सबै पानी प्रदुषित छ।
21. A number of people left their home. $\qquad$

धेरै मानिसहरुले तिनीहरुको घर छोडे ।
22.The number of teachers is fourteen.

शिक्षकहरुको संख्या चौध छ।
23.Each of student is present. $\qquad$

प्रत्येक विद्यार्थी उपस्थित छ।
24. None of the girls eat orange. $\qquad$
कोही केटीहरु सुन्तला खादैनन् ।
25.One of the boys has gone out.

केटाहरुमा एउटा केटा बाहिर गएको छ।
26. Two plus two is four.

दुई जोड दुई चार हुन्छ।
27.Sabina and Sapana are friends.

सविना र सपना साथी हुन् ।
28. Either you or me must stay at home. $\qquad$

या त तिमी या त म घरमा बस्नुपई्छ।
29. There is a cat and a dog in the garden.

विरालो र कुकुर बगैचामा छ।
30.There is a teacher and three students in the library. $\qquad$
पुस्तकालयमा एक शिक्षक र तीन विद्यार्थी छ।
31. There are three students and a teacher in the library. $\qquad$

पुस्तकालयमा तीन विद्यार्थी र एक शिक्षक छन् ।
32. My younger brother dances well.

मेरो भाई राम्ररी नाच्छ।
33. My elder brother dances well. $\qquad$

मेरो दाजू राम्ररी नाँच्नुहुन्छ ।
34. Niece always bothers me. $\qquad$
भतिजी सधै मलाई सताउँछे।
35. Antie works at Hospital. $\qquad$

फूफू अस्पतालमा काम गर्नु हुन्छ।
36. Father gives me a pen.

बाबा मलाई कलम दिनुहुन्छ।
37. Grand mother sleeps all in the morning.

हजुरआमा विहानभर सुत्नुहुन्छ।
38. Rita is more helpful than Hari.

हरिभन्दा रीता सहयोगी छिन् ।
39. They felt the same way as he.

तिनीहरुले उसले जस्तै अनुभव गरे ।
40. (You) open the door.

ढोका खोल/खोल् ।
41. (You) come in please.

मित्र आउनुहोस् ।
42. Would you mind telling the time?

कृपया समय बताइदिनु हुन्थ्यो की ?
43. May you live long.

तिम्रो दीघार्यू होस् ।
44. What is your name? $\qquad$
तिम्रो नाम के हो ?
45.Where are post office and school here?

यहाँ हुलाक र विद्यालय कहाँ कहाँ छन् ?
46. Let's go now.

अब जाऔं ।
47. Let us dance.

हामी नाचौं ।
48. Nepal is a small country.

नेपाल सानो देश हो ।
49. A cow gives milk $\qquad$

गाईले दुध दिन्छ।
50. Crowd blocked the way

भिडले बाटो रोक्यो ।
51. Gold is precious thing.

सुन बहुमूल्य चीज हो ।
52. Death is Certain.

मृत्यु निश्चित छ।
53. My daughter cooks meal.

मेरी छोरी खाना पकाउँछे।
54. Son writes a letter.

छोरो चिठी लेख्छ।
55. Father works in the field.

बाबा खेतमा काम गर्नुहुन्छ।
56. Mother stays at home.

आमा घरमा बस्नुहुन्छ।
57. This is a bag.

यो कोला हो ।
58. That is Tree.

त्यो रुख हो।
59. Those are boys.

तिनीहरु केटाहरु हुन् ।
60. These are marbles.

यिनीहरु गुच्चाहरु हुन् ।

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