

## CHAPTER – I

### INTRODUCTION

#### 1.1 Background of the study

Language is not only physical asset manifested in vocal system voluntary by means of organs of speech but also a kind of convention to be transmitted through generation to generation. Language is manifested not only by the organs of speech but also in writing system too. Merely through writing convention, language does not exist in the world instead it gets disappeared e.g. the Sanskrit language. In the world, there are many languages existing prominently without writing convention. They are not still disappeared. For example many vernacular languages of Nepal like Chepang, Bote etc. So by its nature what we can say about the language is that to exist any language as a language there must be native speakers speaking the language otherwise it disappears from the world.

So in the world some indigenous languages are going to be disappeared because of such factors. They are discussed below:

- a) Interference: By the interference of international and one language or many languages of the society, language gets endangered. To get education and job the people are compelled to give up their native language. Only old generation is found to have been speaking but not the new generation.
- b) Language policy: The language planning and policy of the government plays a vital role in what position the language of the nation is to be placed .
- c) Multilinguality: Because of the multilinguality within the same speech community there is problem to survive. If the people speak their native language mixing the codes of other languages, the displacement of the language starts.
- d) Because of the lack of awareness: The people of the language are not aware of the importance of the existence of their languages. They know nothing how importance the languages are for their own existence.

e) They have a kind of humiliation in speaking their language.

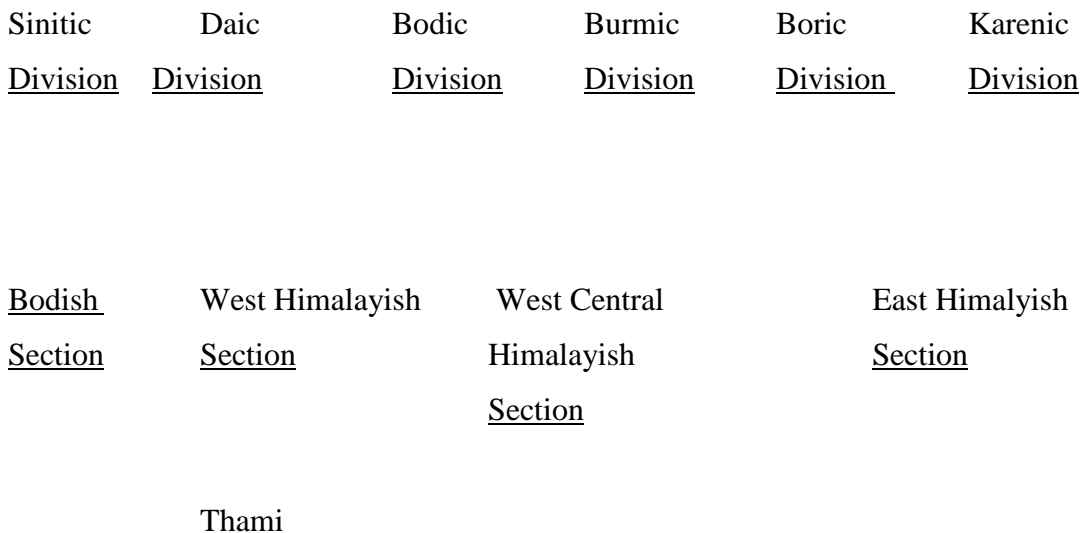
## 1.2 The Baram Language

The word 'Baram' refers both to the tribe of people and their language they speak. Thus, the same name is used for a group of people and the language they use. The Baram people call their language 'Bal Kura', which means 'human language'. The CBS report 2001 shows that Gorkha district in the Western Development Region, Nepal is the main area where Baram language is spoken.

The Baram language has been mentioned in different classifications of Tibeto-Burman languages. Its closest genetic affiliation is found with Thami language spoken in Dolakha and its neighbouring districts in Nepal and Darjeeling in India.

According to Shafer (1966), Baramu and Thami belong to the same group. He places them under 'West Himalayish Section' of Bodic Division.

### Sino-Tibetan Family



**Diagram 1: Sino-Tibetan Family**

## 1.3 Baram People

Baram people belong to the Mongoloid community. Baram, Baramu and Bra:hmhu are the alternative terms used to refer to the people. Baram and Baramu are used as their

surnames by the people themselves while Bra:hmu is used to refer to them by other people. Other different terms are also found to have been used to refer to Baram in the past. Hodson (1847) and Grierson (1909) used Bhramu and Bista (1980) used Bhra:mu and Ba:rhmua alternatively to refer to the people. But, in fact, Baram people call themselves Bal Bang, which means 'people' or 'human kind'.

Physically they resemble Gurungs and Magars but linguistically and culturally they are very different from any of the neighboring Tibeto-Burman communities. According to Thapa (1996), their clans and sub clan names are similar to those of Sunuwars. But linguistically they are found to be close to Thami people.

Baram people believe themselves to be indigenous to the areas where they live. But, Thapa (1996) claims that their differences from any of the neighboring TB communities show that Baram is a dislocated group from its ancestral communities. Barams came to the present location after wandering many places. He has tried to explain how Barams came to the present places from the eastern part of Nepal where Sunuwars are settled now.

#### **1.4 Sociolinguistic Situation**

According to the CBS report 2001, the total population of the Baram is found to be around 7800. Of the total population only about 4.4 % speak their language and other speak Nepali. In my personal communication with the Baram people from Gorkha, the people who speak their language are bilingual; they speak their mother tongue as well as Nepali. It shows that a very high percentage of Baram people have completely shifted from their language.

The present situation of the Baram language is very critical because the people who speak the language are old or aged. Some young people have got passive knowledge of their language and the children do not have the knowledge of the language at all.

#### **1.5 The present situation of the Baram language**

As the researcher has already discussed some reasons in 1.1 the Baram language is not independent of those points. In Nepal, the Nepali language has been chosen as a national and the language of wider communication. It has got standardized. So

education is given in Nepali. It is also the only official language of Nepal. To be educated, the people of Baram have to learn Nepali at home and school at their childhood which is considered to be the fertile stage of language learning according to theory of lateralization and language acquisition their children get lots of language exposure in Nepali and less or no exposure in their own mother tongue and there comes the danger of the extinction of the Baram language. This is because of the language policy of the government of Nepal. If they were taught or given primary education in their own mother tongue there would not come the problem of being endangered.

There are some reasons responsible for making the Baram language extinct.

They are given below:

- a) The Barams live in a multilingual society in which majority languages like Nepali, Gurung, Magar etc are spoken . The pressure of the majority languages is one major cause for language shift.
- b) They shifted to Nepali because it is the most important lingua franca, language of education and language that could provide them job in future.
- c) Another reason is marriage. When speakers of a language get married to non-speakers, they as well as their children do not speak the language.

### **1.6 Brief sketch of clause system in Baram**

Clause refers to a unit of grammatical organization which is smaller than the sentences, larger than phrases, words or morphemes. The clause can be classified into two categories; independent and dependent. Independent clauses are independent to convey the meaning i.e. the meaning of one clause does not lie on the other clause. Unlike independent clause, the meaning of dependent clause lies on independent clause in dependent clause.

The Baram language has been found rich in both coordination and subordination. In the process of coordination, as in English, dependent clauses can be coordinated without ellipsis of 'subject' or any constituents and with the ellipsis of 'subject' or both 'subject and 'verbs' of independent clauses which are independent to convey the

meaning. As in English, the coordinators of Baram language are <hare>, <-ki> and <r >.

**The following tree diagram shows the coordination of the Baram language.**

*sita-e ni-p Dhdi hare u-e phel ki-lik*

S

### **Diagram 2: Tree Diagram of Coordination in Baram**

In Baram the tense marker of the verb is prefixed to the verb. The subordination of clauses in the Baram language is rich and complex i.e. the verb of the dependent clause is nominalized by < -lem>, <le>, <-ko>, <-go> etc. However there are some overt subordinators in the process of subordination e.g. <z b >, <ze>, <zun> etc. The more subordinators are presented in the findings of the research. (See chapter IV) The nominalizing process is richly found in Baram especially in 'Relative clause, If clause, the clause, of preference etc.

**The subordination process in the tree diagram is presented below which shows the overt use of relative pronoun.**

*-e tyo ni-cha zun -e m n-ni-p rdi*

### **Diagram 3: Tree Diagram of Subordination in Baram**

#### **1.7 Brief sketch of clause system in English**

In English, mainly two types of clause combining systems are found to be existing. They are coordination and subordination where coordination has both independent clauses but subordination has one independent clause and other dependent clause as being one of the elements of the independent clause. They are discussed separately.

##### **1.7.1 Coordination**

Coordination is the process of combining two constituents of the same type to produce another large constituent of the same type.

Quirk et al.(1985),two types of coordination are found in English. They are ‘syndetic or linked or marked by overt signal and asyndetic unlinked or not overtly marked by signal \*’. Linking words are called coordinating conjunctions. Asyndetic coordination usually stylistically marked which is used for dramatic intensification. In it, conjoins are generally separated by tone unit boundary in speech or by a punctuation writing. Compound sentence can be formed by co-coordinators are ‘and’ ‘but’ and ‘or’. There are certain syntactic features of coordinators.

- a) Clause coordinators are restricted to clause initial position.
- b) Coordinated clauses are fixed in a sequence.
- c) Coordinators are preceded by a conjunction.
- d) Coordinators can link clause conjunction.
- e) Coordinators can link subordinate clauses.
- f) Coordinators can link more than two clauses

**The following tree diagram shows the structure of coordinate clause.**

Birds can fly and I can fly.

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**Diagram 4: Tree Diagram of English Coordination**

### **1.7.2 Subordination**

In subordination, the clause functions as an element of a sentence. It is in an asymmetrical relation. Subordination produces difficulty and ambiguity to understand. In subordination there are two parts: one is dependent clause which is also called super ordinate clause and dependent clause also known as subordinate clause. The subordinated clause is said to be one of the constituents of the independent clause e.g. Subject, adverbial, complement etc. There are different kinds of signals that give indication of subordination. They are as given by Quirk et. al.

- 1) The clause is initiated by a subordinating conjunction
- 2) The clause is initiated by a wh-element
- 3) Initial elements in the clause are inverted.
- 4) The presence of certain verb forms in finite clauses is determined by the type of subordinate clause.
- 5) The verb element of the clause is either non-finite or absent.

More than one subordination signal may co-occur in the same subordinate clause. Subordinate clauses may function as subject, object, complement or adverbial in a super ordinate clause. On the basis of their potential functions, there are major categories of subordinate clauses: Nominal adverbial relative and comparative.

There are three main structural types of clauses under subordination in English.

**(a) Finite clause**

**(b) Non –finite clause**

**(c) Verbless clause**

This clause may contain subject or may be without ‘subject’. There are four structural clauses of non-finite verb phrase.

**I - To- infinite**

**II - Bare infinitive**

**III -ing participle**

**IV –ed participle**



**The following tree diagram shows the structure of subordinate clause.**

Ram ate dinner at four O'clock because he was hungry

### **Diagram 5: Tree Diagram of English Subordination**

#### **c) Verbless clause**

1. Verbless clauses take syntactic compression where there lacks verb. These sometimes can be treated as reduction of non-finite clause. When the subject is present only the verb has to be removed but subject is always introduced by 'with'.

#### **1.7.3 Subordinate clause**

More than one subordination signal may co-occur in the same subordinate clause. Subordinate clause may function as subject, object, complements or adverbial in a super ordinate clause, on the basis of their potential functions. There are major categories of subordinate clauses: Nominal, adverbial, relative and comparative.

##### **1.7.3.1 Nominal clause**

Nominal clauses function approximately to those of noun phrases: subject, object, complement, appositive and prepositional complement. Moreover, nominal clauses may function as adjective complementation without a preposition semantically nominal clauses are normally abstract that is to say that they refer to such abstraction as events, facts, dates and ideas rather than to perceptible objects.

Nominal clauses fall into six major categories:-

- a) That clause
- b) Subordinate interrogative clauses
- c) Subordinate explanative clauses.
- d) Nominal relative clauses
- e) To- infinitive clauses
- f) -ing clauses
- g) Bare infinitive clause

### **1.7.3.2 Adverbial clause**

In English, there are four broad categories of syntactic function for adverbial e.g. adjuncts, subjuncts, disjuncts and conjuncts where adverbial clauses mainly function as adjuncts and disjuncts. The researcher's concern is adverbial clauses. So before giving the semantic role of adverbial clause, let us have a glance on its syntactic construction in terms of phrase structure rules.

AdvCL	adv sub S
Adv1	= adverbial
AdvCL	= adverbial clause
AdvP prepP	= preposition phrase
Adv.sub	= adverb subordinator
S	= sentence
M	= modal
PREP	= predicates
VP	= verb phrase
V	= verb
Pro	= pronoun.

**The following tree-diagram shows the structure of adverbial clause.**

Ram should leave before I come.

Source: The Grammar Book

**Diagram 6: Tree Diagram of Adverbial Clause**

The adverbial clauses not only appear in the sentence final position but also in the sentence initial position. They are adverbial clauses of time which appear both sentence initially and finally, having the subject and sometimes auxiliary deleted in adverbial clauses. Adverbial participles are found in basic form; perfective form and progressive form sentence initially and sentence finally.

Different types of adverbial clauses are recognized in English. They are:

- a) Clauses of place
- b) Clauses of time
- c) Clauses of contingency
- d) Clauses of condition
- e) Clauses of concession

- f) Clauses of contrast
- g) Clauses of exception
- h) Clauses of reason
- i) Clauses of purpose
- j) Clauses of result
- k) Clauses of comparison and similarity
- l) Clauses of proportion
- m) Clauses of preference
- n) Relative clauses

## **1.2 Review of the Related Literature**

There are some works done in Baram Language. The important ones are mentioned below.

Hudgson B. H. (1857) is the first work found about Baram Language. It talks about the habitat of Baram people and some features of Baram Language.

Grierson, G.A. (1909) is the work based on Hudgson's work. In his work some grammatical features are mentioned and few Baram words are listed.

Prasain, B, K.P Chalise (2004) is a trilingual (Baram-Nepali-English) dictionary. About 2200 Baram words are listed with their meanings. Apart from this, a short phonemic inventory and grammatical description is also given.

Thapa, A. K. (1996) is about the socio cultural aspects of Baram. It also tries to justify that Baram is a group related to Sunuwar.

Chalise, K. P. (2006) has studied the Morphosyntax of Baram nominals. The nominal categories of Baram are described in brief.

Chalise, K. P. and Balaram Prasain (2006) is a field report of Baram speaking areas. They visited the Baram speaking areas in Gorkha District and studied the sociolinguistic situation of Baram.

## **1.3 Objectives of the Study**

The following have been determined as the objectives of the study:

- ) To find out the clause combining system in Baram
- ) To record the clause combining system of English

- ) To compare and contrast the clause combining system in Baram and English
- ) To recommend the pedagogical implication of the findings

#### **1.4 Significance of the Study**

Baram are minority people who are out of the mainstream of the country. They are backward in education, economy, politics and so on. The responsibility of the democratic government is to promote the backward communities and involve them into the main stream of the country. For the promotion of any community, wider exposure is the first and the most important factor. In the context of the globalization, English language is the key to the wider exposure so English education is the primary necessity for the promotion of the backward communities.

The research will compare and contrast between the clause combining systems in Baram and English, as a result the similarities and differences in the systems will be identified. On the basis of the findings some pedagogical implications are suggested. It helps the English teachers teaching English as a foreign language in Baram community. The Baram learners of English as well as syllabus designers also get benefites form the study.

#### **1.5 Definition of Technical Terms Used in This Dissertation**

1. **Commissive:** A Term to refer to a type of utterance where the speaker makes a commitment to a future course of action
2. **Nominalizer:** An affix which nominalizes the word of other class, 'not noun' is called nominalizer.
3. **Conjunction:** It is a word used in grammatical classification of Word of which the primary function is to connect words or other constructions. For example, 'but', 'and', 'or', because etc.
4. **Coordination:** A Term used in grammatical analysis to refer to the process of linking linguistic units which are usually of equivalent syntactic status. It is a process where two units of equal status are linked by coordinating conjunction.

5. **Dative:** Crystal (1941) One of the form taken by a 'noun phrase' in languages which express 'grammatical relationship by means of inflection. The 'dative case' typically expresses an 'indirect object relationship.
6. **Ellipsis:** It refers to the process of omitting a part of the structure from the point of view of economy, emphasis or style. In coordination or subordination process sometimes subject or both 'subject and 'verb' are omitted.
7. **Ergative:** Crystal (1941). A term used in the grammatical description of languages where the term is needed to handle constructions where there is a formal parallel between the 'object' of the transitive verb and the 'subject' of the intransitive verb.
8. **Finite:** It is the term which is used in the grammatical classification of types of verbs and clause. A finite verb is a form that can occur on its own in an independent sentence.
9. **Infinitive:** It is a term for the non finite form of the verb usually cited as its 'unmarked' or 'base' form eg. Kick, walk etc.
10. **Locative:** The word in languages expresses grammatical relationship by means of inflections. It also refers to the 'form' taken by a 'noun phrase' when it expresses the idea of location of an entity or action.
11. **Nominal:** Crystal (1941). A term used in some 'grammatical descriptions as a substitute for noun. IN a more restricted sense, nominal refer to words which have some of the attributes of nouns but not all, e.g. 'the poor' are many.
12. **Nominalization:** It refers to the process forming a noun form other word class.
13. **Non-finite:** The opposite of 'finite'.
14. **Possessive:** The term used to show the possession of noun which comes along with it.

## **CHAPTER – II**

### **METHODOLOGY**

The present study is an attempt to evaluate the process of clause combining in 'Baram language being one of the endangered languages of Nepal, which needs to regain its prosperity in the society and in language and literature. In this chapter the researcher aimed to present the designed plans and procedures while carrying out the research. The methodology adopted in order to achieve the desired objectives in the study is presented below

#### **2.1 Sources of data**

The researcher contacted and consulted both primary and secondary sources to finalize the research.

##### **2.1.1 Primary sources**

The native speakers of the Baram language of Takukot VDC of Gorkha district were the primary sources of data.

##### **2.1.2 Secondary sources**

The published research works about the language, papers presented (see the literature review and references ) in seminars and workshops and the information from the fieldworks were the secondary sources of data.

#### **2.2 Population of the study.**

The population of the study was Baram native speakers and 20 Baram people not speaking their own language living Takukot VDC -8 Danda Gaun in Gorkha.(see appendix no I and ii)

#### **2.3 Sampling procedure**

First of all the researcher tried to find out the real native speakers out of 30 people of Baram community. After finding 10 Baram speaking people the researcher took five people as language informants who were all illiterate. Then after he cross checked the

collected information with the other group having five members among them one was literate and others four were illiterate. The researcher found no Baram speaking people educated. He used quota sampling procedure to elicit data.

#### **2.4 Research tools**

Questionnaires and interview were used as research tools to elicit data. The tool 'questionnaire' contained some sample sentences of subordination and coordination of all proposed in proposal. On the basis of questionnaire the researcher interviewed in situation. The other tool was the tape recorder for their free conversation. The questionnaires and interview schedule are in appendix no. II similarly the research tools with responses are in the appendix no. III.

#### **2.5 Process of data collection**

The researcher took 30 people of Baram community. From them he found 10 Baram speaking people with the help of some questions. He divided them into two groups; each containing 5 members. He took data from one group (group A) then after he cross-checked same responses with the group "B". While interviewing, the researcher presented the question in context in the Nepali language so that their real structure of clause combining could be found. Similarly he recorded some text in their native language freely. At last the researcher thanked them for their invaluable help.

#### **2.6 Limitations of the study**

- I. The research was limited only on clause combining system of Baram and the types of clauses were only given in the questionnaires.
- II. It was based on the data collected from selected language informants from Takukot VDC, Danda Gaun, Gorkha .
- III. Dialectical Variations were not studied.



## CHAPTER - III

### DATA ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION

The third chapter includes the description of coordination, under which simple coordination and correlative coordination are described. The chapter describes the subordination under which finite, non-finite and verbless clauses are described.

The syntax and semantics of subordinate clause is also included in this chapter.

#### 3.1 Coordination

##### 3.1.1. Simple coordinate clauses

In Baram, two independent clauses are co-coordinated by free morphemes like, <hare> <ra,> and <ki>

- 1 a. *h ri nam -ge- i -ya hare. u-se ma -paDhdi*  
hari school-LOC-NPT -go but he- DAT NEG -read  
'Hari goes to school but he does not read.'
- b. *Sita-e ni-p Dhdi hare u-e fel ki-lik*  
sita-ERG NPT-read but she- ERG fail PST-do  
sita reads but she failed.

In the process of coordination in Baram , the coordination of constituents of same class and ellipsis of subject and verb of same class and ellipsis of subject and verb of same class and ellipsis of subject and verb seems to be possible.

2. a. *Ram-e ph lphul ki-ca r bi r ki -sya*  
Ram -ERG fruit PST-eat and beer . PST-drink.  
Ram ate fruit and drank beer.
- b. *kale cili a hare igyam*  
Kale black NPT-be but polite.  
'Kale is black but polite.'

In 1a-2b .hare,<ki> and<ra> are coordinators and the clauses are independent of each other. The examples (1a-b) show the co-ordination of two clauses and (2a) shows the coordination with subject ellipsis and example (b) shows the ellipsis of both subject

and verb. The coordinators <ki> and <ra> seem to be similar to Nepali coordinators. For example *ram bhat khanch r gh r zanch* . To compare with English no different co-ordination process seems to be possible.

### 3.1.2 Correlative coordination

In Baram there seems to be correlative co-coordinators and clause too. In correlative clauses both the clauses are independent to each other but different coordinators come to give different meaning.

- 3 a. *na ki thi -go ni-tha kile huk*  
 you or stand-INF NPT-may either sit down  
 ‘You may either stand up or sit down.’
- b. *niswan ram ra shyam-e bihe ki-tuk*  
 Both Ram and Shyam married PST do  
 ‘Both Ram and Shyam married.’
- a. *ram-e na i- p Dhdi na kam i-tuk*  
 Ram- ERG neither NPT- read nor work NPT-do  
 ‘Ram neither reads nor works.’

In the example (3a) <ki----kile> is correlative coordinator equivalent to English coordinator ‘either---or’. In Baram too, conjoins may be complete clause or elliptical.

But example (3b) gives the additive meaning of clause by <ra>. The coordinator is <niswan----ra>. It does not give combinatory meaning. In this type of coordination, the sentence and verb require to be elliptical.

In another type of co-ordination which conjoins both negative sentences, the negative marker <na> seems to work in both places. In the example (3c) unlike English ‘neither----nor’, in Baram <na ---- na> occurs being a correlative. In coordination, the first coordinator follows subject not auxiliary.

### 3.2 Subordinate clauses

There are different types of subordinate clauses. They are finite, non –finite and verbless clauses.

### 3.2.1 Finite clause

In Baram there can be found finite clauses having one independent and the other dependent clause in a sentence. The subordinators for it are' <haredale>, <ki>, <zaba> e.t.c.Others will be discussed later in detail.

4 (a) *u mocho i a hareDale u-e pr s st m -ca*  
He thin NPT –be because he – ERG enough NEG- eat  
He is thin because he doesnot eat enough.

(b) *-e kira- i-ya ki na kisan i- a*  
I -ERG knowledgeable – NPT- go that you farmer NPT –be.  
I know that you are a farmer.

In the examples (4a-b) above <haredale> and <ki> are subordinators and *u-e prasasta ma-ca* and *na kisan i- a* are dependent clauses. The 4(a) sentence has cause and effect relation. But in the case of (4b) it may be the influence of English translation while taking data. So it needs further research.

### 3.2.2 Non-finite clause

Non finite clause refers to that clause which has non- finite verb. In Baram bare infinitive seems not to be existing but it can be the subject matter of research.

- a) To infinitive
- b) -ing participle
- c) -ED participles are found in Baram

#### a) To – infinitive clause

In Baram, to- infinitive is marked by either <-ko> -or <-go> following the verb stem. The former comes after voiceless sound and the latter after the voiced sound.

For example

(5) a. *kisen lik-ko n -e dherai paDhdi nepna*  
Good be- INF you-ERG a lot read have to  
'To be good you have to read a lot.'

b. *m za tuk-ko u-se man i- l gdi*

Relax do-INF he-DAT desire NPT-do  
 'He likes to relax.'

- c. *Dhoka ughardi-go yas- o- nut*  
 Door open-INF it-DAT-push  
 'To open the door, push it.'

In the example (5a-c) either <-ko> or <-go> are marked to make the verb root non-finite. <-ko> has come after the voiceless sound [k] in <lik-ko>.

Where as <-go> has come after voiced sound [i] in *ughardi-go*.

So <-ko> and <go> are suffixes to make verb to-infinitive. The non finite clause comes before finite clause in Baram.

Sometimes to-infinitive can appear between the subject and verb of the main clause.

- (6) a. *a s ber i n a sat-ko ki-ya*  
 I early fishes catch-INF PST-go  
 I went early to catch some fishes.

In (6 a-d), *kisen lik-ko*, *maza tuk -ko*, *Dhoka ughardi-go* and *n a sat- ko* are dependent clauses where *na-e dherai paDhdi nepna*, *u-se man i-lagdi*, *yas – o –nut* and *a saberai ki-ya* are independent clauses respectively.

### b) -ing Clause

In Baram –ING clause is marked by <- i > as a nominalizer and <huk> is added as a auxiliary but the progressive aspect is marked by <-i > with <huk> ,

The tense of dependent clause lies on independent clause.

- 7a. *ghas laku- i – huk r mailo i- a*  
 Grass cut- NML-stay funny NPT-be  
 Cutting grass is funny.

- b. *curot akbut- i – huk swasthya – hani i- a*  
 cigar pull- NML-stay health - injurious NPT-be

Smoking is injurious to health.

In the example (7 a-b), <*ghas laku – i-huk*> and <*curot akbut- i- huk*> are in independent clauses respectively.

### c) -ed participle clause

The participle in Baram is marked by <–*ki*> before root verb. Sometimes the verb is nominalized by <–*ko*>. <–*ki*> is also the marker of past too. For example

8a. *p isa kyahu (ki-ahu) bal ki-si*  
 money PRT-steal man PST-die

The person who stole money died.

b. *si lak-ko bal ki-t i*  
 firewood cut-PRT(NML) man PST –come  
 ‘Woodcutter came.’

### 3.2.3 Verbless clause

In the Baram language there is the possibility of verbless clause. For example

9a. *iskule caca-s ni-e zyot-ko m --tha*  
 of School children-COMI we-ERG vacation-INF NEG-can

b. *n -e ki-p Dhi-ya ki ma-paDhdi*  
 you-ERG PST-read-go whether NEG- read

‘Whether or not you read.

But in (b) the English ‘whether or not’ does not have equivalent in Baram; only deletion of subject.

## 3.3. The Syntax and Semantics of Subordinate Clauses

### 3.3.1 Nominal that clause

The nominal ‘that clauses ‘ is possible in Baram language.

For example

10a. *-e kira i –ya ki na kisan i – a*  
 I –ERG knowledgeable NPT-go that you farmer NPT –be

‘I know that you are a farmer.’

b. *ni-h ru khusi i-ya ki n -e visa gi-dum*  
 we-PL happy NPT-GO that you-ERG visa PST-get  
 ‘We are happy that you got visa.’

Here the use of < *ki* > is the subordinator forming dependent clause. But it is optional.

### 3.3.2 Nominal Wh- interrogative clause

In Baram nominal wh-interrogative clauses can be found where the dependent clause comes before the main clause.

For example:

11a. *ub -e hai da-lem -e da-m -tha*  
 They-ERG what tell- NML I- ERG tell-NEG-can  
 ‘He cannot say what they told.’

11b. *Su-e na -go biruwa-ge awa cun-go Da-go s m sya ya ( i-ya)*  
 Who-ERG I-poss biruwa -DAT water pass through -INF tell-INF problem  
 NPT-go  
 ‘Who waters the plant is my problem.’

In the example a-b < *hai* > and < *su* > are the wh-interrogative markers respectively.

### 3.3.3 Nominal exclamative clause

In Baram, to express exclamation the words < *k sta sta* > and < *as rze* > are used.

For example:

12a. *u as rze ki-lik u k sta kisen mamaca ya( i-ya)*  
 He wonder PST-do she what beautiful girl NPT-go  
 ‘I wonder what a beautiful girl she is.’

< *k sta* > is used as an equivalent to wh-word of the English language.

### 3.3.4 Nominal relative clause.

Relative pronoun in Baram are < *ze* >’ < *zun* > e.t.c. which seem to have been borrowed from Nepali. There is choice to use relative pronouns. Without using them, there is greater possibility of occurrence in the Baram language.

For example:

13a. *-e ki - zyot ze ub -e ki-pi*  
 I-ERG PST-take what they-ERG PST-offer  
 ‘I took what they offer.’

b. *-e tyo ni-ca zun -e man – i- p rDi*  
 I-ERG that NPT-eat which I-ERG like-NPT-do  
 ‘I eat that which I like.’

In a-b <ze> and <zun> are relative pronouns which have been used to make nominal relative clauses. The clauses work as object to the main verb of independent clauses. Using relative pronouns the construction seems to be similar to the English language but without using them has also greater possibility of occurrence.

For example:

14 a. *u p Dhdi-go kotha kya [ki-ya]*  
 He read-NML room PST-go  
 ‘He went to the room where he studies.’

b. *a-gai manpardi-go papa u i- a*  
 I -DAT like -NML boy he NPT-be  
 ‘He is the boy whom I like.’

Not to use relative pronoun, the verb is nominalized by using <-go>.

### 3.3.5 Adverbial Clause

**Table No. 1: The subordinators of Baram and English equivalent**

English	Baram	English	Baram	English	Baram
After	<tiga >	whenever	<z iledalim>	while	<z b >
as	<z sta cin>	Whilst	<z b >	Now	<Thai.>
since	<dekhi/ka >	As long as	<z ile>	immediately	<cad icin>
		when	<z b >		
before	<uga >				
once	<dekhep>				

### 3.3.5.1 Clauses of time

In the Baram language, time adverbial clauses not only appear in the sentence final position of adverbial clauses but also in the sentence initial position. The clause can be finite, non-finite and verbless too.

15.a *z b -e p chi ki-ni na gorkha ki-huk*

When I-ERG last PST-see you Gorkha PST-live

When I last saw you lived in Gorkha.

b. *na -go hi-zi -ya uga amca -go*

c. *syau gizyak- ya[ i-ya] z b kyaksi ki-ca*

apple delicious NPT-be when dry PERF-eat.

Apple is delicious when eaten dry.

In the example above (a) has finite and (b) and (c) have non finite -ING and -ED participle respectively.

### 3.3.5.2 Clauses of place

The subordinators showing 'clause of place' are 'where and wherever' in English. In Baram <*za*> is equivalent to where and wherever.

For example

16a. *a za man ni-lagdi tigi-yam*

I wherever want NPT-do there-go

I go wherever I want.

b. *za zagir i-dum tigi-yam*

Where job NPT-get there-go

Go there where you get job.

In the example above <*za man ni-lagdi*> and <*za zagir i-dum*> are clauses of place as dependent clauses of the sentences.



### 3.3.5.3 Clauses of condition

In Baram the conditional particle is <yarse> equivalent to ‘if’. The verb of conditional clauses is nominalized and <yarse> is also used. Sometime <yarse> may not be used.

17a. *yarse n -e p Dhdi-le na -pass liku*  
If you-ERG read –NML you-pass do  
If you read you will pass.

b. *yarse n -e p Dhdi-le na -gai pass ci-lika*  
If you-ERG read-NML you-ERG pass ci- do  
If you read you would pass.

### 3.3.5.4 Clauses of concession

In the clause of concession the situation of super ordinate clause is contrary to the expectation expressed in subordinate clause. In Baram no overt particles are used. Instead the verb of subordinate clause is nominalized by suffixing <-lem>. But for whereas and while, <z ha> and <z b > are used respectively.

For example:

18a. *a mat yu-lem a nam-ge kya(ki-ya)*  
Rain do-NML I home-LOC PST-go  
Although it was raining I went home.

b. *u dh ni a-lem nam m -ha*  
She rich be –NML home NEG-be  
Although she was rich she has no home.

c. *ram sahr i kisen ka z ha usko daze m sen ya ( i-ya)*  
ram very good be where as he –poss brother bad (NPT-go)  
Ram is very good where as his brother is naughty.

In the example ‘(a-b)’ above< -lem> is nominalizer suffixed with verb and in ‘(c)’ <z ha> is separate particle to show concessiveness.

### 3.3.5.5 The clauses of contrast

The process used in concessive clause is similar to the clause in contrast.

### 3.3.5.6 The clauses of reason.

In Baram the word <haredale> and <ka > are used to join the situation and reason clauses. <haredale> is equivalent to English ‘because’ and <ka > for since.

For example :

- 19 a. *Wa-h ru alma – i – ni-huk haredale –e sahr i- ad ki-pan*  
Chick-PL grow-PROG-NPT-stay because I-ERG very well PST-feed  
‘The chickens are growing well because I fed them very well.’
- b. *U mocho i- a haredale U-e pr s st m -ca*  
He thin NPT-be because he –ERG enough NEG-eat  
‘He is thin because he does not eat enough.’

In the example (a-b) <haredale> is a subordinator to join the effect ‘*u mocho i- a* and the reason *u-e pr s st m -ca* but to join the circumstances and consequence ‘<ka >’ comes being suffixed with the verb of circumstances.

For example:

- 20a. *m us m ki-s pridi-ka -e k m suru tukko*  
Weather PERF-improve-since I-ERG work start do  
Since the weather has improved, I will start my work.

In the example above ‘*m us m ki-s pridi-ka* is circumstances and *-e k m suru tukko*> is consequence where <–ka > is a subordinator.

### 3.3.5.7 The clauses of purpose

In the Baram language the separate words could not be found instead <ko> or <go> is used suffixing to the verb of dependent clause.

For example:

- 21 a. *a s ber i n sat-ko ki-ya*  
I early fish catch-PURP PST-go

He went early to catch fishes.

- b. *Dhoka ugardi-go y s- o- nut-u*  
Door open-PURP it-DAT-push-polite

To open the door, push it.

<-go> and <-ko> are used as suffixes to the root verb. <ko> is used after voiceless sounds and <-go> is used after voiced sound. In the example (a-b) *n sat-ko* and *Dhoka ugardi-go* are independent clauses. In '(b)' '<-go>' has been used because it precedes voiced sound [i] and in the sentence 'a' <-ko> has been used because it precedes voiceless sound [t].

### 3.3.5.8 The clauses of comparison and similarity

In Baram, < z stak > seems to be existing to express both similarity and comparison.

For example

22 a *u-s i d b -e z stakcin wa i-Thal*

she -ERG other-ERG as/like chicken NPT-cook.

She cooks chicken as other did.

b *-e gi-da z stakcin tuk-lya*

I-ERG PST-say as/like do -polite

Please do it as I said.

c. *u bihe ki-lik z stakcin*

She marriage PERF-do as if.

She looks as if she is married.

### 3.3.5.9 The clauses of proportion

The subordinator to show the clause of proportion is < z b > for English 'as' but' the .....the...' structure is expressed using < z ti.....uticin >. For example

23 a. *z b i ch mpa-ki-lik i kisen ni-gu m -tha*

As we old -PST-be we properly NPT-see NEG-can -

As we grow older we can not see properly.

b. *z ti na i-p Dhdi uticin kisen i-lik*

More you NPT-read better NPT-be.

The more you read the more you are good.

The subordinators seem to be similar to that of Nepali.

### 3.3.5.10 The clauses of preference

To show the preference in Baram <*v nda*> seems to exist. For example

24 a. *kusya v nda kokcin zyot.*

Meat rather than vegetable take.

Take vegetable rather than meat.

b. *tigi-ya-go v nda yigicin hukka*

There-go-INF rather than here sit.

Go there rather than sit here.

From the example above <*v nda*> seems to be similar to that of Nepali.

### 3.3.6 Relative clause

In case of relative clause in Baram <*ze*> as a subordinator seems to be existing which is similar to that of Nepali language. For other relative pronouns no separate word seems to be existing. Instead the verb stem of dependent clause seems to have been nominalized by suffixing <*-go*>.

For example

25 a. *-e ki-zyot ze ub -e ki-pi*  
I -ERG PST—take what they-ERG PST-offer .

I took what they offered.

b. *-e tyo i-ca zun -e man ni -pardi*  
I-ERG those NPT-eat which I-ERG like NPT-do

I eat that which I like.

In (a-b) <*ze*> and <*zun*> are relative pronouns which have been used to make relative clauses. Using relative pronouns the construction seems to be similar to English language but without using them has also greater possibility. For example

26 a. *a-gai manpardi-go papa u i- a*  
I-DAT like - NML boy he NPT-be

He is the boy whom I like.

b. *u p Dhdi-go kotha kya[ki-ya]*

He read-NML room PST-go.

He is the boy whom I like.

To use relative pronoun, the verb is nominalized by using <-go>.

## CHAPTER - IV

### FINDINGS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

#### 4.1 Findings

##### 4.1.1 General rules applicable to all types of clauses ; coordination and subordination

- 1 The 'clause combing' in the Baram language seems to have been influenced by Nepali coordinators and subordinators. However there are some original systems in coordination and subordination. The coordinators being influenced by Nepali language are ;

**Table No.2: Coordinators of Nepali, English and Baram**

Nepali	English	Baram
<r >	<and>	<r >
<ki>	<or>	<ki>

But <hare> is the original coordinator of the Baram language.

1. In Baram, the coordination of two independent clauses, only predicates and the coordination of constituents of the same class is possible i.e. verbs of two clauses, predicates, adjectives etc.
2. As in English subject, predicator and auxiliary ellipsis is found.
3. For correlative coordination, the coordinators are *ki.....kile,na.....na,niswan....ra* which are equivalent to 'either....or', 'neither.....nor', and 'both.....and' respectively.

In correlative coordination, the process of ellipsis seems to be possible in Baram as in English.

- 5 In subordination, there are 'finite clauses and non-finite clauses.<haredale> and <ki>are subordinators in Baram equivalent to English subordinators 'because' and 'that' which are used to make finite clauses.
6. In the case of non-finite clauses in Baram , there seems to exist ;

- a. To infinitive
- b. –Ing participle
- c. –ED participle
  - a. <ko> and <go> used after voiced and voiceless sounds of the verb stem dependent clause respectively constitute to-infinitive clause.
  - b. In the case of –ing clause <- i> as a nominalizer is used with auxiliary <huk> to constitute –ing clause.
  - c. The verb of Baram language seems to have been marked by <-ki> as prefix of root verb to constitute participle clause.
  - d. Verbless clauses have also been found in the Baram language.

7. The nominal ‘That clause’ is possible in the Baram language. The subordinator to constitute ‘that clause’ is <-ki>

8. The wh-interrogative clause is also possible in Baram. The English equivalent of Baram wh-words are given below:

**Table No. 3: Wh-words Equivalent to Baram and English**

English	Baram
What	<hai>
Who	<su>
Which	<kun>
Where	<kuni>
How	<khal >
When	<k ile>
Why	<hare>
Whose	<su-gai>
Whom	<su-go>

Among them some seem to have been borrowed from the Nepali language.

9. Nominal relative clause is possible without using relative pronouns but sometime people speak using <ze>, <zun> similar to English relative pronouns ‘what’ and ‘which’ respectively. But without using them the verb of dependent clause is communalized by using <-go> as suffix.

10. There are some original adverbial subordinators and some from the Nepali language. They are given below:

**Table No. 4: Adverbials of English and Baram**

English	Baram	English	Baram	English	Baram
after	<tiga >	whenever	<z iledalim>	while	<z b >
as	<z stakcin>	whilst	<z b >	now	<thai>
since	<dekhi\ka >	as long as	<z ile>	immediately	<caD icin>
before	<uga >	when	<z b >	once	<dekhep>

In the Baram language adverbial clauses not only appear in the sentence final position but also in the sentence initial position. The clause can be finite, non-finite and verbless too.

11. The subordinator <zã> is used to constitute the clause of place in Baram.
12. If clause or ‘clause of condition’ is formed using <yarse> in the beginning of dependent clause and the verb is nominalized by suffixing <-le> with the root verb of dependent clause.
13. To express the clause of concession the verb of dependent clause is nominalized by Suffixing <-lem>.
14. The subordinator <haredale> equivalent to ‘because’ is used to constitute reason clause .The suffix <-ka > is suffixed with the verb of dependent clause.
15. <-ko> and <-go> suffixes are suffixed with the root verb of dependent clause to express ‘the clause of purpose’.
- 16.< z sta>as a subordinator is used to form ‘the clause of comparison and similarity’.
17. The subordinators to constitute the clause of proportion are <z b > and z ti..uticin equivalent to English subordinators ‘as’/’like’ and ‘the...the’.. respectively.
18. The relative pronouns used in the Baram language are given below:  
In Baram <-go> as a suffix is used to nominalized the verb root. The verb of dependent clause.



**Table No. 5: Relative Pronouns of English and Baram**

English	Baram
What	< <i>ze</i> >
Which	< <i>zun</i> >

#### **4.2 Recommendations**

On the basis of the findings obtained from the analysis and interpretations of the collected data, the following recommendations have been made:

1. As the research is a comparative linguistic study of clause combining system between Baram and English , it should help the language teachers teaching English as a second or foreign language at schools of Takukot where 75% students are from Baram community.
2. Grammarians should get help to make the grammar of Baram language which is in the condition of being endangered.
3. The clause combining system in Baram is quite different to that of English. So the teachers should pay attention on the differences and similarities between English and Baram.
4. Unlike English, Baram has the process of nominalization in great extent. So the teacher should be aware of that fact while teaching.
5. It should help the teachers find out the nominalizing suffixes.
6. The research findings will be boon in preserving the language going to be disappeared.
7. The research findings provide a way to those who want to carry out research in other aspects of grammar in Baram.
8. The language planners, curriculum or syllabus designers, textbook writers, linguists and other concerned authorities should be more careful in their respective works.

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## APPENDICES

### APPENDIX-1

**The names of the informants' population from whom data were collected in**

#### **Takukot VDC**

<b>S.N</b>	<b>Name</b>	<b>Academic Qualification</b>	<b>Sex</b>	<b>Language</b>
1.	Damber B. Baram	literate	M	Nepali\Baram
2.	Tokman Baram	illiterate	M	Nepali\Baram
3.	Man B. Baram	„	M	„
4.	Kiran Baram	literate	M	Nepali
5.	Nakkale Baje(Baram	illiterate	M	Nepali\Baram
6.	Sunakali Baram	„	F	„
7.	Kanchi Maya Baram	„	F	„
8.	Karna B. Baram	„	M	„
9.	Man B. Baram	literate	M	Nepali
10.	Fulmati Baram	„	F	Nepali\Baram
11.	Purna B. Baram	illiterate	M	Nepali\Baram
12.	Sanu Maya Baram	„	F	„
13.	Kopila Baram	literate	F	Nepali
14.	Karan Baram	„	M	„
15.	Ram Maya Baram	„	F	„
16.	Sanu Baram	„	M	„
17.	Karna Baram	„	M	„
18.	Mane Baram	„	M	„
19.	Til B. Baram	„	M	„
20.	Mana Maya Baram	„	F	„
21.	Hira B. Baram	„	M	„
22.	Sita Baram	Literate	F	Nepali
23.	Ram Bdr. Baram	Literate	M	Nepali
24.	Kala Baram	Illiterate	M	Nepali
25.	Sant Bdr. Baram	Literate	M	Nepali
26.	Ritu Baram	Literate	F	Nepali
27.	Him Kumari Baram	Literate	F	Nepali
28.	Bhim Bdr. Baram	Literate	M	Nepali
29.	Apsara Baram	Literate	F	Nepali
30.	Bipana Baram	Literate	F	Nepali

