

# **NOUN PHRASE STRUCTURES IN ENGLISH AND LIMBU LANGUAGES: A COMPARATIVE STUDY**

**A Thesis**

**Submitted to the Department of English Education**

**University Campus, Kirtipur**

**In Partial Fulfillment of the Master's Degree in Education**

**(Specialization in English Education)**

**By**

**Dinesh Kumar Thapa**

**Faculty of Education**

**Tribhuvan University**

**Kirtipur, Kathmandu, Nepal**

**2006**

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**By  
Dinesh Kumar Thapa  
Faculty of Education  
Tribhuvan University  
Kirtipur, Kathmandu, Nepal  
2006**

## RECOMMENDATION FOR ACCEPTANCE

This is to certify that Dinesh Kumar Thapa has completed his M.Ed. (English) Dissertation entitled '**Noun Phrase Structures in English and Limbu language: A Comparative Study**' under my supervision.

I recommend his thesis for examination and acceptance.

Date:- .....

.....

Mr. Ram Ekwel Singh

(Guide)

Lecturer in English

Department of English Education

University Campus, Kirtipur

## RECOMMENDATION FOR EVALUATION

This dissertation has been recommended for evaluation by the following Research Guidance Committee.

**Dr. Chandreshwor Mishra**

Reader and Head

Department of English Education

Faculty of Education

T.U., Kirtipur, Kathmandu

.....

**Chairperson**

**Dr. Bal Mukunda Bhandari**

Lecturer

Department of English Education

Faculty of Education

T.U., Kirtipur, Kathmandu.

.....

**Member**

**Mr. Ram Ekwal Singh**

Lecturer

Department of English Education

Faculty of Education

T.U., Kirtipur, Kathmandu.

.....

**Member (Guide)**

Date: .....

## EVALUATION AND APPROVAL

This thesis has been evaluation and approved by the following '**Thesis Evaluation Committee**'.

**Dr. Chandreshwor Mishra**

Reader and Head

Department of English Education

Faculty of Education

T.U., Kirtipur, Kathmandu

.....

**Chairperson**

**Dr. Shanti Basnyat**

Professor and Chairperson of English

and Other Foreign Languages

Education Subject Committee,

Faculty of Education

T.U. Kirtipur, Kathmandu

.....

**Member**

**Mr. Ram Ekwal Singh**

Lecturer

Department of English Education

Faculty of Education

T.U., Kirtipur, Kathmandu.

.....

**Member(Guide)**

Date :- .....

## ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

I would like to express my sincere acknowledgement to my supervisor, **Mr. Ram Ekwel Singh** who constantly helped at every stage of my writing and provided necessary feedback for the improvement this work. This work would have remained incomplete without his suggestions and feedback.

I would also like to express my sincere gratitude to **Dr. Shisir Kumar Stphit** - the senior most Professor of the Department of Education for his kind encouragement in bringing out this thesis.

My sincere gratitude goes to **Dr. Chandreshor Mishra** - Reader and Head of the Department of English Education, for his valuable suggestions that helped me to improve the research study. My sincere gratitude also goes to **Dr. Shanti Basnyat** - Professor and Chairperson of English and Other Foreign Languages Education Subject Committee, for her constant inspiration in completing this thesis. Similarly, I would like to express my gratitude to **Dr. Tirth Raj Khaniya** - Professor in English, Faculty of Education, T.U. Kirtipur and **Dr. Govinda Raj Bhattarai** - Professor in English, Faculty of Education, T.U. Kirtipur for their valuable suggestions and help. Similarly, my sincere gratitude goes to **Dr. Bal Mukunda Bhandari** Lecturer, Department of English Education T.U., Kirtipur, for his kind support in looking for reference materials.

I am also grateful to **Mr. Prem Tumbamphe** and **Mr. Uday Manglak**, who provided me with necessary information about Limbu language and culture.

Finally **Mr. Bhisma Subedi** deserves my special appreciation for the neat and correct typing of this dissertation.

**Dinesh Kumar Thapa**

7 December 2006

## **ABSTRACT**

The present research entitled 'Noun Phrase Structures in English and Limbu language: A Comparative Study' is an effort to describe, to compare and to contrast the noun phrase structures in English and Limbu Languages. In order to carry out this study the researcher collected data from the native speakers of Limbu in Panchthar district. Data for English Language were obtained from reference books. The total sample population of the study consists of 30 Limbu speakers, who were selected by using judgmental sampling procedure. The main tool the researcher made use of was questionnaire, which was filled in making a face - to - face interview with the informants. The data were then transcribed phonetically. Reference literature was made use of in collecting the necessary data for the English Noun Phrase Structure. On the basis of the collected data, analysis was done using structural - descriptive approach to determine the Noun Phrases in Limbu. In doing so, the established structures of the English Noun Phrase was attempted to replicate in Limbu as well. After the analysis it was found that both English and Limbu Languages display simple and complex Noun Phrases. Both Languages also share common substantial properties, but they differ in the structural arrangement of these properties. The thesis consists of four chapters altogether.

Chapter one is an introductory chapter which deals with the background ideas as to the study of the topic. It sets the necessary theoretical background, justifies the significance of the study and presents the objectives and limitations of the study.

Similarly, chapter two states the methodology which was followed in the study. It deals with the sources of data, procedure and tools and process for the data and limitations of the study.

Chapter three entails analysis and interpretation of the data. It deals with the description, classification and comparison of the Noun Phrases available in both the English and Limbu Languages. The analysis has been done under different headings using descriptive - comparative structural procedures.

Chapter four consists of the findings and recommendations made in light of analysis and interpretation. It presents the areas in which Noun Phrase structures differ in the two Languages. It also includes recommendations from the perspective of pedagogical significance.



## LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

Det	:-	Determiner
N	:-	Noun
Adj	:-	Adjectives
Adv	:-	Adverbs
Rel cl	:-	Relative clause
RP	:-	Relative Prenoun
Ges	:-	Gender suffix
PM	:-	Post modifier
+ C	:-	Countable
- C	:-	Uncountable
+ A	:-	Animate
- A	:-	Inanimate
+H	:-	Human
- H	:-	Non-human
+M	:-	Male
-M	:-	Non-male
+P	:-	Proper/ Personal/ Plural
- P	:-	Non-proper/ Non-personal
0	:-	Not-significant
$\pm$ P	:-	Singular and Plural both
S	:-	Singular
D	:-	Dual
Gen	:-	Genitive
Ger	:-	Gerund
Inf	:-	Infinitive
CA	:-	Contrastive analysis

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# CHAPTER - ONE

## 1. INTRODUCTION

### 1.1 General Background

Language, a voluntary vocal system of human communication, is the chief means for sharing thoughts and ideas. Language is the main identity separating a human from the rest of the animals. Language maintains the culture and civilization and transfers them onto generations for learning and preservation. It is also a social institution, a part of human community, making possible unity and cohesion in a group. Language also serves for the immediate expression of one's personality.

As a means of communication language varies in its form along the span of time as well as across geographic and political boundaries. There are several languages spoken in the world. Even within a language, varieties are common. The same language spoken by a speaker does not parallel equally to the language spoken by another speaker. Even the same speaker shows variety in his speech from one context to another. The very fluid nature of human language is, therefore, a creative prospect as well as a challenging problem hovering to its speakers.

Each language is structured uniquely reflecting the speech habit patterns of its speakers. There are several languages spoken in the world, thus, means that there are several speech patterns in use. The patterning is realized in sounds, letters, words and sentences. A community sharing a common language possesses a distinctive way of communication through language. It is through the language of the community that one becomes able to socialize in the community. Language codes the culturally distinctive value patterns of a community and makes it easier for the speakers to realize them.

Languages differ in the way they reflect the world, i.e. the way they codify the experiences of their speakers. The interests, needs, concerns and

preoccupations of the speakers are all reflected in the structure of the language they speak. A concept may be codified using a single term in a language, whereas the very concept may be expressed by taking resort to various terms in another language. The vocal sounds available in a language may not be present in another, so is the case for the grammatical structures. Similarly, expressions realized through grammatical means in a language may have lexical realization in another and vice-versa. Similarity is, thus, a rare phenomenon. The degree of cultural difference among communities is reflected in the degree of linguistic difference in their languages.

Different social situations produce different kinds of language teaching contexts. All language learning situations differ with the difference of teaching situations. The skills and abilities that good teachers bring to bear on language work differ according to context. The teachers, then, need to be aware of the social dimension of language teaching. Not only this, they also need to know thoroughly the language they are teaching as well as the language of their students. For the second or foreign language teaching to be effective, it must fit into students' language of home for which the teacher needs to be able to cooperate with the mother tongue of the students in order to make learning of the foreign language go smoothly.

### **1.1.1 Languages in Nepal**

Nepal is a linguistically diverse country. The varied cultural and ethnic groups have given rise to various languages in use. According to population census, 2004, there are 93 languages spoken in Nepal, with various dialects (CBS Report, 2002). Most of these languages belong to the Indo-European Family of language. Some languages belong to the Tibeto-Burman Family and other few languages belong to Language Families other than these, existing only in their spoken medium by small groups of population. The multilingual scenario in Nepal has, thus, created a profound complexity in language planning and language teaching. An outline of languages in Nepal is given below (CBS, 2002)

1. Indo- European Family: The following languages belonging to this family are spoken in Nepal.

- |               |                 |
|---------------|-----------------|
| i) Nepali     | ix) Magahi      |
| ii) Maithali  | x) Marawadi     |
| iii) Bhojpuri | xi) Kumaoni     |
| iv) Awadi     | xii) Darai      |
| v) Tharu      | xiii) Manjhi    |
| vi) Rajbaushi | xiv) Bote       |
| vii) Danuwar  | xv) Hindi/ Urdu |
| viii) Bengali | xvi) Churei     |

2. Tibeto Burman family:- This family includes the following languages in Nepal.

- |             |             |
|-------------|-------------|
| i) Limbu    | vii) Newar  |
| ii) Thakali | viii) Khasi |
| iii) Ghale  | ix) Gurung  |
| iv) Hayu    | x) Tamang   |
| v) Chamling | xi) Sanyang |
| vi) Chepang | xii) Sunwar |

3. Dravidian Family:- Only one language named 'Jhagad' is spoken in Nepal belonging to this group.

4. Astro-Asiatic Family:- This family also includes only one language named 'Satar', spoken in the eastern Terai of Nepal.

### **1.1.2 English language in the Nepalese Context**

English language belongs to the West-Germanic group of the Proto- Germanic dialect of the Indo - European language family (Varshney, L.R, 2003). It is the native language of several European and American people. It is the most widely used second language across language communities and the most widespread language of international communication. English is the Lingua Franca across



national boundaries throughout the world. It is also the major language of International relation, Media, Travel and Education. In other words, English is a global language. Nepal has also accepted it as the main international language.

English occupies a large part of the total curriculum in Nepalese Education. It exists as a major subject as well as a medium of instruction at various levels of schooling. Nepal has recognized English as a supporting factor in achieving the economic goals set for the country's overall development. Apart from this, knowledge of English is also required to have specialized knowledge in Science, Education Commerce and Humanities. Training and higher studies overseas also require knowledge of English. In addition, the increasing use of English in Nepal is closely linked to the developments in Technology, Science and Mass Communication. Growth in commerce and industry also require information that is available mainly in English. English is also the required language in the field of civil aviation, Tourism Industry and Diplomacy.

### **1.1.3 The Limbu Language**

Limbu language is one of the languages of Tibeto - Burman language family, spoken as the Mother tongue by the Limbu - kiranti people of Eastern Nepal. Limbu occupy 3,59,379 (1.58%) number of the total population in Nepal (CBS Report, 2002). Their residence includes the area in the east of the Arun river extending to Nepal's Eastern boarder with India's west Bengal. Tehrathum, Sankhuwa Sabha, Dhankuta, Taplejung, Pachthar and Ilam are the major districts inhabited by the Limbus.

The Limbhu tribe is divided into a number of clans (Thars), with a seperate dialect or a variant of the language with each. There are as many as 42 such clans seperated into different cohesive groups (Bista, D.P. -).

Limbu language has its own script called 'Srijanga script'. There are also Grammar and Dictionary published of the language. It is also taught in some primary schools as an optional subject. Limbu language is also used in Radio News Broadcast from Radio-Nepal, Eastern Transmitting Centre.

Limbu language, although small in the strength of use, is by no means a uniform language. There are different dialects in parallel use across different geographical locations. The major dialects and their relative geography of use are as follows.

1. **Panchthare Dialect:-** This dialect is spoken in Yaurok of Taplejung, Chaubish Thum of Dhankuta and in Ilam and Panchthar districts. This dialect has achieved the rank of standard dialect due to its superiority in writings, Publications, teaching and Intelligibility among Limbus.
2. **Phedape Dialect:-** This dialect is spoken primarily in Terhathum district. This dialect has the highest number of speakers in a single locality.
3. **Chhathare dialect:-** The dialect spoken in Tankhuwa, Hatidhunga, Bhirgaun and Banchare villages of Dhankuta district and in some south- Eastern areas of Terhathum district is called Chhathare dialect. This dialect is conspicuously different from the rest.
4. **Tamarkhole Dialect:-** The dialect spoken around the valley of Tamarkhola and its tributaries in Taplejung district is called Tamarkhole dialect.
5. **Sikkime dialect:-** It is the dialect spoken by Limbu speakers residing across the Eastern boarder of Nepal, Sikkim. It is the most flourished dialect both in written and spoken traditions.

The Limbu speakers also speak Nepali as a second language. However there is also a large proportion of speakers using only the Limbu language for communication. Language attitude survey conducted by Webster (A sociolinguistic study to Limbu, 2001) among the Limbu speaker shows that Limbu is still very dominantly the

language of choice used by Limbus in the context of home, with other Limbus of all ages and in workshop. Majority of the Limbus are also in favor of using Limbu to the children and taking to about important messages.

Limbu clearly distinguishes between colloquial Limbu and Classical Limbu. The colloquial variant is used by speakers in domains centered on village and family lives. It is highly mixed with borrowed lexical items from Nepali. Classical Limbu, on the other hand, is the pure language of Mundham, the sacred text of kiranti-Limbu people. There can also be seen a change in writing with mixed script (Devangari and Srijanga) for general purposes but pure Srijanga script is used for religious and ritual uses.

#### **1.1.4 Linguistic Contrastive Study: Pedagogic Importance**

Language is a system of intricate sub-systems mastered by a child merely as a form of habit. However it is impossible to bring the rules of the system into conscious attention every time we make an utterance in the language we speak. The speaker of a language has reduced all the rules to automatic habit of use. While acquiring the first language, the child has inevitably acquired the phonological, morphological, syntactical, semantic and pragmatic rules of the language. This knowledge is passed onto him by virtue of his belonging to the community which speaks the language.

Language invokes ideas. The power of language to express and invoke ideas is such that the ideas which the speaker of a language has are determined by the language he speaks. Language also orientates its speakers to speak and think in its own way. For example, the system of tense and aspect, which vary widely among different languages, may be said to reflect different ways of dealing with time, and people will be predisposed to think of time in terms of the way in which the grammar of their language expresses it. In other words, speakers of a language

will be predisposed to see reality as it is formalized in the lexical and grammatical structure of their language.

Different languages vary considerably in their organization of phonemes, graphemes, morphemes and lexemes. There may also have some similarity to each other. These areas of similarities and differences can be obtained by carefully comparing the languages in question. This procedure of comparing and contrasting the linguistic systems of the two languages is called Contrastive Analysis (CA for short). It is believed that learners learning a second language have to learn only those areas in which the first language differs from the second. Thus the findings of CA become of immense value to the teachers of a second/ foreign language for preparing materials of teaching as well as in planning their lessons.

The process of learning a second/ foreign language begins with the complete knowledge of the mother tongue. The learner, then, has to learn the necessary rules for the production and understanding of the sentences in the second language. If the two languages resemble in some areas of formation, the learner has simply to match the first language rules with those of the second language. This doesn't pose any learning burden for him. If, on the other hand, the two languages differ in their patterning, the first language knowledge of the learner does not assist him in acquiring the second language. Rather any transference of the rules leads to the production of inaccurate language and, thus, learning becomes more difficult.

Learning a second/ foreign is not merely a matter of learning how to fit linguistic forms together to make correct sentences, it also involves learning how to use such forms to perform communicative acts of different sorts. In order to do this, one must assimilate to the ideas, attitudes and beliefs which the language embodies. Then problems may arise if the previously learnt language behavior comes into conflict with the language behavior being learnt. In such a case findings obtained

from the contrastive studies assist both the learners and the teachers in predicting the conflicting areas so as to minimize errors in performance. The consequence of the linguistic background of the learner is such that a second language learner will experience cases of transfer of first language knowledge in learning the second language. This may facilitate the learning process or interfere with it, depending on the similarities or differences between the structures of two languages.

Odlin (1989) states that learners with different language backgrounds have different problems in learning a second language. When the first language rules come into conflict with the second language rules, errors reflecting the first language will occur in the learners' attempt to use the second language. Such errors are the result of interference of the first language. When the rules of the two languages coincide, the learners can exploit their first language knowledge in learning the second language, thus making the learning easier and quicker. This is the condition for positive transfer. This implies that a second/ foreign language teacher needs to be sensitive and sympathetic to understanding the child's community, culture and the first language. His knowledge of the children's first language enables him to establish points of similarity and contrast between the two and enables him to predict and to foresee speedy and easy learning diagnose problems so as to offer input.

Transfer is the process by which skills learnt for the performance of a certain tasks are applied in different, but related tasks. In the case of learning a foreign language, transfer refers to the application of the skills and processes of first language learning into learning a second language. Foreign language learning is a process of building up a whole new network of verbal habits upon the first language habits. When the habit pattern resemble learning becomes easier, whenever they differ tremendous interference problems occur while learning a second language.

Odlin (ibid) highlights that there is a powerful influence of the first language in the efforts of learners to master the second language. Learners with different language backgrounds have different problems in learning a second language. Where the first language rules contradict with second language rules, then errors reflecting the first language will occur when the learners try to use the second language. Such errors are the result of negative transfer or interference of the first language rules into the second language. When the rules of the two languages coincide, the learners can exploit their first language knowledge in learning the second language, making learning easier and quicker. This is the condition for positive transfer.

Thus the role of the learners' first language is significant in the learning of a second language. A careful comparison of the first and the second (target) language reveals the areas where they resemble and differ from each other. Those areas which are similar in both languages create no learning problems, thus, allow for the smooth transference of first language habits, whereas the differences between the two are the real hurdle to come over as they cause errors in learning. A second/foreign language teacher, material producer or anyone involved in the teaching of a second language cannot ignore this fundamental fact of language learning career. Linguistic contrastive analysis is, therefore, a valuable tool in second/ foreign language teaching.

## 1.2 Review of Related Literature

There are a number of researchers carried out in the Central Department of English Education bearing comparative study. Since English is taught generally as a second or third language, comparison of the learners first language with English has immense pedagogical importance.

Limbu language is one of the important, but basically ignored languages of Nepal. In recent years, with the increase in literacy and awareness, Limbu people themselves have shown academic interest in the study of their Mother Language and its literature. So far these studies are purely micro linguistic in nature and are oriented either in the preservation of Script or production of Grammar and Lexicon. There is scarcely any literature dedicated to comparing it with the global language, English.

The most comprehensive study of Limbu language done so far is by Van Driem, who in his :Grammar of Limbu Language (1987) analyses the grammatical classes such as, gender, case, pronouns, voice, etc. He has also described the major characteristics of verbs and subject-object constituents in Limbu language. He has devoted in detail on the analysis of morphemes and their arrangement in relation to the major classes of words.

A systematic study of the Limbu language began with 'Linguistic survey of Nepal'(No 26, 1905), which first located the Limbu speakers with their language. The survey has outlined the general structure of Limbu and its characteristic word-classes. The survey also includes a collection of prominent words in the language.

Bearing a comparative study, Rai (2001), researched on the Kinship Terms of English, Nepali and Limbu languages. The study has compared kinship terms using three parameters of comparison: the generation of ego, above the ego and below the ego. There, Rai has found that English has the least number of terms referring to kin relationships and it also contains a large number of sex-neutral terms as well as terms referring to multi-relationships. Her additional findings include that Limbu and Nepali have distinctive kinship terms used from either male or female point of view, that Limbu has terms

which are phonologically conspicuous for the sexes of the kins, a feature which is totally lacking in both English and Neapli languages.

Similarly, Phyak (2004) made a study entitled 'Limbu and English Pronominals: A Comparative Study' in which he has compared and contrasted the pronominal system of the two languages. He has analyzed the data descriptively and has compared it with corresponding English areas. He found that, unlike in English Limbu has not only greater number of pronouns, but the pronominal system is more complex as well. His main findings are that Limbu personal and possessive pronouns are categorized under three numbers: Singular and plural, that Limbu makes a distinction of inclusive and exclusive references in the first person dual and plural numbers. In addition, he also found that there is the same pronoun for both human and non-human reference in the relative sentence, a contrast very significant in English relative clauses.

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

Likewise, Limbu (2004), in his research entitled 'verbs of per-cooking, cooking and consuming activities in English, Limbu Rai Bantawa, Newari and Nepali Languages, found that English has conspicuously greater number of per-cooking, cooking and consuming verbs than other languages compared. In comparison, Newari has the vast number of verbs related to cooking and consuming whereas Limbu, Rai Bautawa and Neapli have almost equal number of verbs. He also found that verbs for cooking special food items, eg, Cake, Pork, e.t.c. differ in different languages.



Similarly, Paudel (2000) in his study entitled 'Comparative Study of Negative and Interrogative Transformation in English and Panchthare Dialect of Limbu language' compared the two transformations in simple positive sentences. He found that, although both languages have negative markers (- 'not' in English, '-me-n' in Limbu) in changing sentences into negative, they differ in the placement of marker as English 'not' is placed before the verb - preverbal, whereas Limbu '- me-n' is after the verb - post verbal. He also found that Limbu shows change of the voice quality of the voiceless sounds of the verbs into intervocalic vocoid ones when the negative marker is placed after them. In addition, he also found that, Limbu does not have any inversion of subject and auxiliary elements while converting a statement into question. This is a marked feature in English, however.

Similarly, Chapagain (2002), in his thesis entitled, 'Request Forms in English and Nepali languages: A Comparative Study' compared and contrasted the English and Nepali forms of request used to address the interlocutor in different social settings, e.g. School, Shop, Hospital, etc. She discusses request forms as symbol of civilization and culture that marks the politeness of human behavior. She found that although both languages have different ways of signaling politeness verbally and non-verbally, on the average English speakers employ greater range of formal expressions than Nepali ones. She has also suggested for explicit classroom techniques for teaching this aspect of difference in these languages.

Likewise, Sah (2004) carried out a research on 'Comparative Study of the Simple Present Tense and Simple Past Tense of English and Maithili'. He found that both languages have verbal suffixes to mark present and past tenses, Maithili alone has the additional honorific distinction in its past tense form. He also implies that Maithili learners of English tend to translate subject - object-verb sentence structure of Maithili while producing English sentences.

These literatures so far reviewed show that Noun phrase-structure in Limbu is basically an untouched area till date. Moreover, a systematic

comparison of this with English to find out the similarities and differences provides a fresh and promising area for study.

### **1.3 Objectives of the Study**

This study has the following objectives:

- a. To determine the noun phrase structures in Limbu language.
- b. To describe the noun phrase structures in English and Limbu languages.
- c. To compare and contrast the noun phrase structures in these two languages.
- d. To suggest for pedagogical implications for the teaching of this area of English to Limbu learners and vice-versa.

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

The present study 'Noun phrases in English and Limbu Languages: A Comparative Study' is significant in several respects. As the Limbus occupy dominant inhabitants of eastern Nepal and as most of their verbal behavior is achieved through the Limbu language, a systematic study of the features of their language serves greatly for the development of the Limbu language. Limbu language, being a language of ethnically disadvantaged community, is in dire need of codification and promotion. The present study serves the similar purpose. There are a lot of primary schools teaching Limbu, Nepali and English simultaneously. For that purpose, Teacher Training and Teaching Materials are not available yet. The present study, thus, believes to lay a brick towards that direction. The studies done so far on Limbu language are either purely linguistic-descriptive in nature or related to some other areas than noun phrase structure. Although all areas of language are equally important, noun phrase structure stands of viable importance from pedagogic point of view. It is because of the very perception of language as naming tool to the outside, nouns and other noun related areas certainly occupy the central place for learning

purposes. Furthermore, comparison of the Noun Phrase Structure of Limbu with that of English language assists equally well to those involved in the career of learning/teaching English to Limbu speaking learners.

## 1.5 Definition of Specific Terms

1. **Determiner:** a word which is used with a noun and which limits the meaning of the noun in some way.
2. **Noun:** a word which can occur as the subject or object of overb or the object of a preposition and can co-occur with an adjective or a determiner.
3. **Adjective:** a word that describes the thing, quality, state or action which a noun refers to.
4. **Adverb:** a word that describes or adds to the meaning of a verb, an adjective, another adverb or a sentence.
5. **Relative clause:** a clause which modifies a noun.
6. **Relative pronoun:** the pronoun which introduces a relative clause in the sentence.
7. **Gender:** a grammatical distinction in which words such as nouns, articles, adjectives and pronouns are marked according to a distinction between masculine, feminine and sometimes neuter.
8. **Suffix:** a letter or some or group of letters or sounds which are added to the end of a word.
9. **Modifier:** a word or a group of words which gives further information about another word or group of words.
10. **Countable noun:** a noun which has both singular and plural forms.
11. **Uncountable noun:** a noun which does not usually occur in the plural (also called mass noun)
12. **Animate:** a feature of living nouns (opposite of inanincate, which refers to non-living noun)
13. **Human:** a feature of human nouns (opposite to non-human things/entities)
14. **Proper noun:** a noun which is the name of a particlнар person, place or thing (opposite to non-proper, which refers to nouns other than these categories)

15. **Singular:** the form of nouns, verbs, pronouns, etc. used to refer to only one in number (quantity)
16. **Dual:** the form of nouns, verbs, pronouns, etc. used to refer to two in number. (quantity)
17. **Plural:** the form of nouns, verbs, pronouns, etc. used to refer to two or more than two in number.
18. **Genitive:** the form of a noun/phrase which usually shows that the noun or the phrase in possessive relation with another noun or noun phrase.
19. **Gerund:** a verb form which ends in '-ing', but which is used in a sentence like a noun
20. **Infinitive:** the base form of a verb.
21. **Phrase:** a group of words which form a grammatical unit without any subject and a finite verb.
22. **Contrastive Analysis:** the comparison of the linguistic systems of two languages
23. **Pedagogy:** the activity done on language intended for language teaching, syllabus design or preparation of teaching materials.
24. **Perception:** the recognition and understanding of language events through the use of senses.
25. **Production:** the use of language through speaking or writing.
26. **Structural (Descriptive):** linguistics an approach to linguistics which stresses the importance of language as a system and which investigates the linguistic units, such as, sounds, words, etc. within this system.
27. **Categories:** a class/ group of items which fulfill the same or similar functions in a particular language.
28. **Endocentric:** a grammatical structure which is limited only within a phrase.
29. **Inflection:** the process of adding 'particles' to a word or changing it in some way according to the rules of the grammar of a language.

## **CHAPTER - TWO**

### **2. METHODOLOGY**

The study has been completed using the following methodology.

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

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

##### **2.1.1 Primary Source of Data**

The primary source of data was the responses provided by the Limbu native speakers. The data was elicited through questionnaire prepared in advance of taking face-to-face interview with the informants. The data collected through the questionnaire were the exclusive data for determining the Limbu Noun phrase structure. The informants were selected on judgmental basis from Mouwa and Chokmagu VDCs of Panchthar District. After the elicitation of the data, school teachers belonging to Limbu language background were also visited in order to ascertain the correctness. The data thus collected was transcribed using phonetic symbols.

##### **2.1.2 Secondary Sources of Data**

For the secondary source of data different books related to English Grammar and General Linguistics were consulted and referred to for all the data necessary for English Noun Phrase. The researcher has made heavy use of such pivotal books as Quirk, R., et.al (1985), Murcia, M.C. and Freeman, L.D. (1999), Leech, J. (1982), etc. for deriving the methodology of analysis. These are also the exclusive sources for the facts of English Noun Phrase so far mentioned in this study. Information about inflections in Limbu for case, number, etc. have been taken and confirmed from Direm, V. (1987). The sources utilized directly have

been duly quoted in the respective places and other sources have been enlisted in the bibliography.

## **2.2 Population of the Study**

In order to derive the data, 30 native speakers were selected on judgmental basis, 15 each from Mouwa and Chokmago VDCs in Panchthar district.

## **2.3 Sampling Procedure**

Informants for the data in Limbu Language were selected on judgmental basis. They comprised both of literate/illiterate group and male/ female group.

## **2.4 Tools for Data Collection**

Questionnaires prepared in advance were used in order to elicit the data for Limbu Noun phrase structure. The questionnaire was piloted before administrating to the sample population. School teacher belonging to Limbu native language background were sent the questionnaire to be filled by themselves, whereas the illiterate informants were interviewed by the researches himself and filled in the questionnaire with transcription.

The data for English Noun phrase structure were obtained from secondary sources.

## **2.5 Limitations of the Study**

The study is limited only to the description, analysis and comparison of noun phrases in English and Limbu languages. The study does not cover any exocentric relations of the noun phrase in the sentence. In addition, it is limited to the Panchthare dialect of the Limbu language, the findings of which might vary for other dialects of the same language. Further limitation of the study is exerted by the informants who comprise only selected speakers from the Panchthare dialect of Limbu language.

## CHAPTER - THREE

### 3. ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION

#### 3.1 Noun Phrase Structure: Description

Longman Dictionary of Language Teaching and Applied Linguistics defines Noun Phrase as a group of words with a noun as the head. Noun, accordingly, is a word which can occur as the subject or object of verb or the object of a preposition and can be modified by an adjective or can be used with determiners. For example,

1. Girls
2. The girl
3. The blonde girl
4. The girl in blue jeans
5. The blonde girl wearing blue jeans
6. The blonde girl who is wearing blue jeans
7. She

(Source: – Leech, 1982)

In the above examples, 1) contains only one word (noun) with plural suffix, 2) has a determiner and a noun, 3) a determiner a modifier (adjective) and a noun; in 4) the noun is followed by a prepositional phrase, in addition to 3; 5) contains a determiner, a modifier, a noun and a non-finite clause following the noun; 6) has a finite relative clause after the noun and 7) has only one pronoun. This shows that a Nominal word, i.e., noun, pronoun, etc. is an obligatory element in a noun phrase. This obligatory element in a noun phrase is called 'the Head' of the phrase. Modifying elements occurring before the head are called Pre-modifiers and those occurring after the head are known as



Post-modifiers. Determiners precede pre-modifiers in the structure. Thus, a noun phrase has the following structure:

(Determiner) + (Pre-modifier) + H + (Post-modifier).

A noun phrase without any modifier constituent is called a simple noun phrase whereas one with a modifier is called a complex noun phrase.

### 3.1.1 Noun phrase structure in English and Limbu

The noun phrase structure in English consists of an obligatory head which is either nominal, pronominal, gerundive, infinitival or adjectival. They are shown in a-e below respectively (use of an article is sometimes obligatory).

a. Nominal Head

8. Peter arrives soon.

(Determiner optional)

9. The boy arrives soon.

(Determiner obligatory)

b. Pronominal Head

10. We arrive soon.

c. Gerundive head

11. Walking is good.

d. Infinitival Head

12. To crawl is necessary for kids.

e. Adjectival Head

13. (The) poor should be uplifted.

a. Nominal Head

1a [ km menCh] n fel p t]

(young girl coming)

= A young girl is coming.

b. Pronominal Head

2a [ une IrIk Iklet p k ]

(he longtime alone was)

= He was alone for long time.

c. Gerundive Head

3.3a[ m I ulIk puks ]

(eating a little become)

= The appetite is reduced.

d. Infinitival Head

4. 4a[Imm nub ek n]

(To sleep good is not)

= To sleep is not good.

e. Adjectival Head

5. 5a[nub pher ]

{good (man) came}

= A good man came.

In addition to an obligatory head, an English noun phrase may optionally contain modifiers. These modifiers include the following word classes.

a. Determiner

14. These Boys are coming.

b. Adjective

15. A beautiful girl is dancing.

c. Adverb

16. They carried a very heavy load.

d. Relative clause

17. The boy who is coming here is my brother.

e. Appositive clause.

18. Mr. Bush, president of America, won the election.

f. Prepositional phrase

19. The population of the city is decreasing.

Similarly, a Limbu noun phrase may also optionally contain modifiers: These modifiers include the following categories.

a. Determiner

6a[ en n k n]

(that pen)

- that pen

b. Adverb

7a[ ilk nub n pmI]

(very good mman)

= very good man

c. Adjective

8a [kum kl su?w n]

(black bag)

= A black bag

d. Relative clause

9a [kum kl l ghet k w p? n pmI]

(black cloth who wears man)

= A man who wears black cloth

e. Adverbial

10a[n pmIr k]

(man only)

= (A) man only

### 3.1.2 Noun phrase structure in English and Limbu with various Heads

#### 3.1.2.1 Nominal Head Noun Phrase

##### English Noun Phrases

##### Limbu Noun Phrases

a. Noun only

20. John

11a menchiJ n

=Women

b. Noun + Noun

21. Sign language

NP

N                      N

Sign                  Language

c. Noun + Noun + Noun

22. District police office

12a.zIII tIII g flsen

(district police office)

= district police office

NP

NP

N                  N                  N  
District      Police              Office

N                  N                  N  
zIII              tIII g              flsen

d. Det + N

23. My children

	NP	
Det		N-pl
My		Children

13.a cj ?zI m n n

= Some people

	NP	
Det		N-pl
j ?zI		m n n

e Det + Adj + Noun

24. The tall boy

	NP	
Adj		N-pl
Big		Birds

14a. hen pa bheôb m n h

(that/those village man)

= those village people

f. Adj + Noun

25. Big birds

	NP	
Adj		N-pl
Big		Birds

15. a cuks m n le

(Small boy)

= a small boy

Adj		N-pl
cuks		m n le

g. f. Adj + Adj + Noun

26. Red woolen sweaters

16a.kum kl b unllen su?w n

(black woolen bag)

= a black woolen bag

NP

Adj	Adj	N+Pl
red	woolen	Sweaters

NP

Adj	Adj	N+Pl
kum kl b	unllen	su?w

h. Gen + Gen + Noun

27. Ram's friend's wife

17a.r mle kunde b len kumetIn

= Ram's friend's wife

i. Det + Adj + Adj + Noun

28. A big red box

NP

Det	NP
-----	----

Art	Adj	Adj	N
a	big	red	box

j. Det + Adj + Adj + Adj + N

29. A small old Swiss watch

18a.hen t b keme?b (ke mb )

a n b th ben

= that short fat angnali boy

NP

Det		NP		
	Art	Adj	Adj	N
	a	small	old	Swiss watch

NP

Det		NP		
	Art	Adj	Adj	N
	hen t	b keme?b	a n b	th ben

k. Det + Adj + Adj + Adj + N  
 30. A brave young black French hero

NP

Det		NP			
	Art	Adj	Adj	Adj	N
	a	brave	young	black	French hero

l. Adv + Adj + Noun  
 31. Very big cities

NP

Mod		NP		
	Adv	Adj	N-pl	
	very	big	cities	

19a.c llk nub n pmI  
 (very good man)  
 = a very good man)

NP

Mod		NP		
	Adv	Adj	N-pl	
	c llk	nub		n pmI

m. k. Det + Adv + Adj + N  
 32. A very big city

20a.h mb c llk nub n pmI  
 (That very good man)

	NP				NP		
Det		NP		Det		NP	
	Adj Ph		N		Adj Ph		N
		Adv	Adj		Adv	Adj	
a	very	big	city	h mb	c llk	nub	n pmI

n. 1. Noun + Adj Ph

33. Court martial

	NP	
N	Adj ph	
	Adj	
court	martial	

o. m. Det + Noun + Adv Ph

34. The man outside

	NP		
	NP		Mod
Det	N	Adv	
the	man	outside	

p. Noun + Prep ph.

35. A pound of sugar

	NP			
	NP		PP	
Det	N	Prep	N	
a	pound	of	sugar	

q. Noun + Rel. Cl

36. John, whose wife left him, .....

	NP		
	N	Rel.cl	
	Rel		S
John	whose	wife left him, .....	

r. Noun + Nonfin cl

37. The point being made

	NP		
	NP	Nonfin cl	
Det		N	
the	point	being made	

s. Det + Adj + N + PP

38. A house different from yours

	NP		
	NP	Adj ph	
Det	N	Adj	PP
a	house	different	from yours

t. Det + Adj + N + Inf Cl

39. A difficult theory to explain

	NP		
	NP	Inf clause	
Det		Np	
	Adj		N
a	difficult	theory	to explain



u. Rel Cl+ Noun

21a.h ne segub menchIm  
(He selected who girl)  
= the girl whom he selected

v. Rel Cl + Det + Noun

22a.kum l k laghet k w p h mb n pmI  
(block cloth who wears that man)  
that man who wears a block cloth

n. Rel Cl + Adj + Noun + PM

23a.hene segub nôb menchIm r k  
(he selected who beautiful girl only)  
= only the girl whom he selected

### 3.1.2.2 Pronominal head Noun Phrases

A pronoun stands for the whole noun phrase. The modifying particles 'only' and 'also' can modify the pronominal head. In Limbu as well, a pronoun

replaces the whole noun phrase, therefore modifying and determining elements are non-existent. However, the post modifying adverbial can occur with a pronoun.

<b>English Noun Phrases</b>		<b>Limbu Noun Phrases</b>
a. Noun Only		
40. We		24a.khene
		= you
	NP	
	Pro	NP
	We	Pro
		a.khene
		you
b. Mod+ Noun		
41. Only it		
	NP	
Mod	N	
	Pro	
Only	it	
Noun + Mod		25a khene r k
		(you only)
		= Only you

### 3.1.2.3 Gerundive Head Noun Phrases

A gerund is a formation of verb which functions similar to a noun in a sentence. Gerunds are formed by addition of the suffix '*ing*' after a verb. A

Limbu gerund, on the other hand, is formed by the addition of I / suffix after a verbal root. As a noun, Limbu gerunds with the following elements The following structures are available in English and in Limbu.

**English Noun Phrases**

**Limbu Noun Phrases**

a. Noun Only

42. Walking is good

26a. 1 ghekm I

= making

NP

NP

Gerund      Suff/ gerund

Gerund      Suff/ gerund

Verb

Verb

Walk              - ing

1 ghekm              I

b. Adj+ Noun

43. Slow walking

27a. nurIk 1 ghekm I

(good waking)

A good walking

NP

NP

Adj                      N

Adj                      N

Slow                  Walking

nurIk                  1 ghekm I

c. Adv + Adj + Noun

44. Very good walking

28a. c Ik nurIk 1 ghekm I

(Very well walking)

= A very well walking

NP Adj ph                      N  Adv            Adj Very            good    walking	NP Adj ph                      N  Adv            Adj c Ilk            nurIk            l    ghekm I
--	---

d. Adv+ Noun

45. well dancing

29a nurIkkn ga l ghekm I

(Well Walking)

= A well walking

NP Adv                      N well                      dancing	NP Adv                      N nurIkkn ga l ghekm I
---	--

e. Det + N

46 .This dancing

NP Det                      N this                      dancing	NP Det                      N
---	----------------------------------

f. Det + Adj + Adj + N

44. A good romantic dancing

NP Det                      NP Adj ph                      NP Adv ph            Adj                      N Adv    Adv	
---	--

a very good romantic dancing

g. Det + Adv + Adv + Adj + N

47. A very good romantic dancing

h. Det + Adv + Adv + Adj + N + PM

48. A very well romantic dancing in the concert

i. Adv + Adv + Noun

30a. c Iik nurIkn ga l ghekm I

(Very well walking)

= a very well walking

j. Adv + Adv + Adj + N

31a. c llk nurlkn ga nurlk l ghekm I  
 (Very well good walking)  
 = A very well good walking

### 3.1.2.4 Infinitival Head Noun Phrases

An infinitive is formed with the addition of '*to*' particle before a verbal word. The following types of constructions are available in English and in Limbu.

#### English Noun Phrases

#### Limbu Noun Phrases

a. Noun Only

49. To read is good

32a. cukm

= to do

NP

NP

N

N

inf Verb

Verb

to read

cukm

b. N + Adj

50. To do good is difficult

c Noun + Adv

51. To do well is difficult

d. Noun + Adv + Adv

52. To do quite well is difficult

.e. Adj + Noun

33a. nub cukm

(good to do)

= to do good

f. Adv+ Noun

33a. nurlkg ukm

(Well to do)

= To do well

g. Adv + Adj + Noun

34a. c llk nurlk cukm

(very good to do)

= to do very good

h. Adv + Adv + Adj + N

35a. c llk nurlkg nub cukm

(very well good to do)



= To do very well

### 3.1.2.5 Adjectival Head Noun Phrases

Adjectives are generally modifying words in a noun phrase. However they can also function as the head of the phrase. Different types of adjectival head structures in English and Limbu are given below.

#### English Noun Phrases

#### Limbu Noun Phrases

1. Noun only

53. Rich

36a. kem?

= tall (woman)

2. Det + Noun

54. The tall

37a. h mb kem?

= that tall (woman)

3. Det + Adv + N

55. The very rich get richer.

38a. h mb cI kem?

that little tall (woman)

= that slightly tall (woman)

4. Adv + N

56. Severally injured are angry.

39a. cI kem?

(little tall)

= A slightly tall (woman)

### 5 . Rel cl. + N

40a. kum kl l ghet k w? p h mb c lik nub  
(black cloth who wears that very good/ man)  
= That very good man who wears black cloth

### 3.1.3 Summary of English and Limbu Noun Phrase

English Noun Phrases can be divided into two types: simple and complex. A simple noun phrase consists of only the obligatory head. A complex noun phrase embraces all other noun phrases, comprising multiple modifications. This can be shown as follows.

	Noun		
	Pronoun		Noun
(Det) + (Adv) + (Adj) + H	Gerund	+ (PM)	Pre Ph.
	Infinitive		Rel Cl
	Adjective		Adv

Similarly, Limbu noun phrases can also be classified into two types: Simple Noun Phrase and complex Noun Phrase.

A simple noun phrase consists of only one headword, whether a noun, a pronoun, an adjective or an infinitive, whereas a complex noun phrase consists of

more than one word, in which the noun acts as the head of the noun phrase. It can be shown as follows.

Nominal

Np = (Rel.cl.) + (Det) + (Adv) + (Adj) + H    Pronominal    + (PM)

Gerundive

Infinitival

Adjectival

### 3.1.4 Comparison of Noun Phrases in English and Limbu

In relation to the position of words, the following word order can be found.

1. in Limbu

NP=Relative clause→Determiner→Adverb→Adjective→**Head**→Post Modifier.

2. in English

NP= Determiner→Adverb→Adjective→**Head** →Relative clause/Prepositional phrase/ Complement

### 3.2 Comparison and Classification of Noun Phrase Heads

The previous section presented a description and comparison of noun phrases in Limbu and English languages. In this section an attempt will be made to investigate into the properties of the head of a noun phrase in both Languages.

A noun phrase is so named because the word which is its head is typically functions as noun; i.e., subject of a sentence, object a preposition, or complement of a clause, or complement of a preposition. For example, in the following slot, a large number of words can be filled out, all belonging to the noun phrase.

57.....was approaching.

(Possibly such expressions as 'peter', 'A herd of cows', 'Bipin', 'The man who is sitting there', etc can be filled in the blank.)

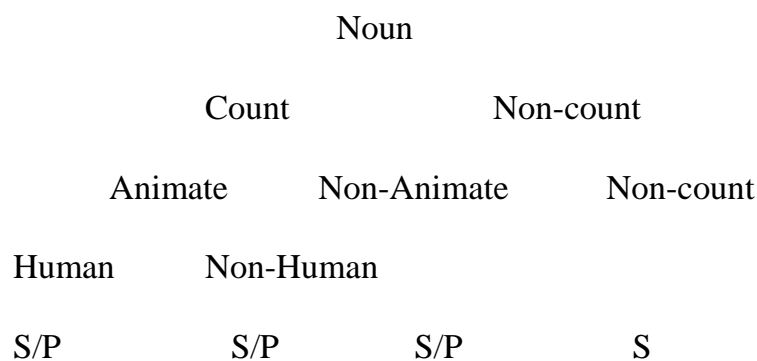
As mentioned in chapter 2, both Limbu and English languages contain noun phrases headed by a noun, a pronoun, a gerund, an adjective or an infinitive. These are terminologies traditionally accepted as categories of words, although they may vary in some way. Each type of head displays several complex characteristics when used in a sentence. Each head can be grouped into one or another sub-group classified according to the grammatical behavior in a sentence. This chapter covers the same.

### 3.2.1 Classification of English and Limbu Noun Phrase Heads

#### 3.2.1.1 Classification of Nominal Heads

Noun is the synonymous words for a noun phrase. Because of the indefinite number of words belonging to nominal category, classification of nouns into coherent sets is a complex procedure. Basically, nouns in English language can be classified into either as count nouns or mass nouns. Count nouns can further be classified either as common or proper noun. Animate and non-animate is another set which divides nouns into specific semantic categories. Animal nouns can further be divided into human and non-human classes, which then can be of either masculine or feminine category. This can be shown in diagrammatic form as follows.

Diagramme-1: Classification of Noun in English

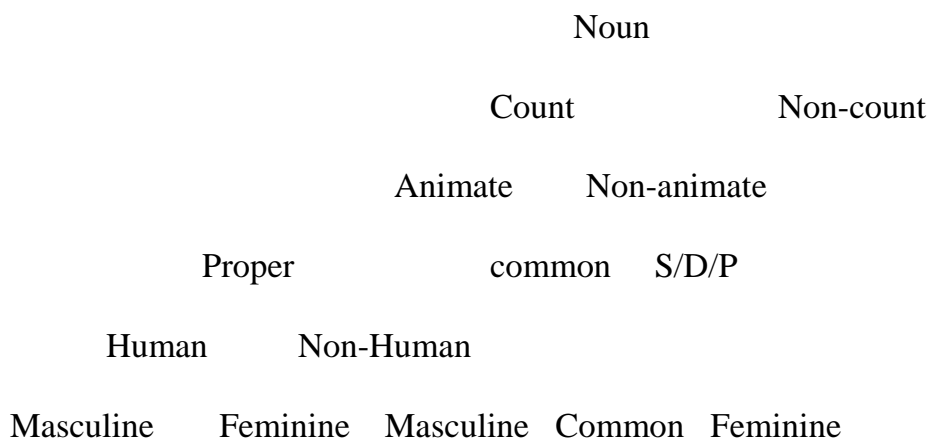


Some examples of various types of nouns can be shown as follows using the classificatory features.

- a) 57 Peter = + C, + A, + H, + M, - P
- b) 58 Johns = + C, + A, + H, + M, + P
- c) 59 Peter = + C, + A, + H, - M, + P
- d) 60 Car = + C, - A, - H, O, - P
- e) 61 Birds = + C, + A, - H, ± M, + P
- f) 62 Stone = + C, - A, - H, O, - P
- g) 63 Bull = + C, + A, - H, + M, - P
- h) 64 Ideas = + C, - A, - H, O, + P
- i) 65 Brothers = + C, + A, + H, + M, + P
- j) 66 Furniture = - C, - A, - H, O, - P

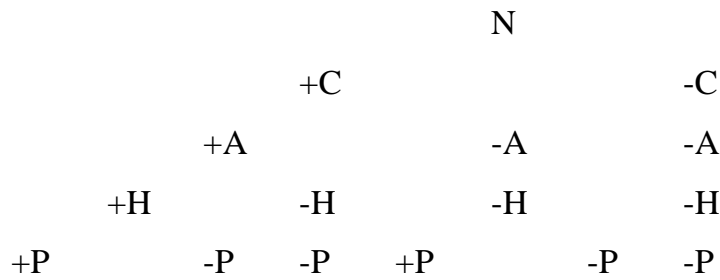
Nouns in Panchthare dialect of Limbu can also be classified following the general classificatory algorithm into Count and Non-count nouns. Count nouns can further be divided into either animate nouns or non-animate nouns. A count animate noun can be either a proper noun or a common noun, which can further be classified into masculine, feminine or common gender categories. A non-count, on the other hand, is always non-animate, non-human and non-proper. It is also insensitive to gender categories and is always singular in number. But the count nouns can have three numbers in Limbu: singular, dual and plural. The classification can be summarized as follows.

Diagramme -2 : Classification of Noun in Limbu



S/D/P            S/D/P            S/D/P            S/D/P            S/D/P

This can also be represented in the following ‘feature diagram’.



The various types of nouns are illustrated below.

- a. 40a            l h (name of a man)  
                  +C, + A, + H, + P, singular
- b. 41a            l h gh chI (name of a man)  
                  +C, + A, + H, + P, dual
- c. 42a            l h gh (name of more man)  
                  +C, + A, + H, + P, plural
- d. 43a            pu (a bird)  
                  +C, + A, - H, - P, singular
- e. 44a            pugh chI (two birds)  
                  +C, + A, - H, - P, dual
- f. 45a            pugh (more birds)  
                  +C, + A, - H, - P, plural
- g. 52a            lu (a stone)  
                  +C, - A, - H, - P, singular
- h. 46a            lu h (more stones)  
                  +C, - A, - H, - P, plural
- i. 54a            w t (water)  
                  - C, - A, - H, - P, singular
- g. 47a            n pmI (a man)  
                  + C, + A, + H, + P, singular

## A. Number

The English number system constitutes a two-term contrast: singular, which denotes 'One' and Plural, which denotes 'more than one'. On the basis of number contrast we can distinguish three main number classes of nouns in English.

- a. Singular invariable nouns: Non-count Nouns are singular invariable nouns, i.e.; they have no plurals. Nouns, such as, Proper nouns (Irene) Abstract nouns (Music), etc. belong to his category.
- b. Plural invariable nouns: These nouns occur only in plural form. Nouns, such as, Summation nouns (scissors), unmarked plurals (people), etc. belong to this category.
- c. Nouns with regular/irregular plural: In this category, regular plural inflections - s/es or irregular changes are shows to the corresponding singular nouns e.g.,
  - a) 55. boy - boys
  - b) 56 box - boxes
  - c) 57 tooth - teeth

Count nouns in Limbu have three divisions of number: Singular, dual and plural. Dual and plural numbers are realized regularly with the addition to ..... to singular nouns. Non-count nouns, as the general rule, are not subject to number distinctions. Some examples are given below.

	<u>Singular</u>	<u>dual</u>	<u>plural</u>
a.48a	Pu One bird	pug sI two birds	pugh ? more birds
b.49a	m nh? a man	m nh sI two men	m n h ? more birds
c.50a	fu ? a flower	fu ?g sI two flowers	fu ?g h ? more flowers

d.51a	thege?	thege?k sI	thege?k h ?
	a scalp	two scalps	more scalps

The examples show that addition of ' ' after a singular count noun means 'more' in Limbu. Moreover further addition of 'sI' restricts the noun for the dual number. The particle 'h ?' is the plural (more than two) suffix in Limbu.

## B. Case

Case distinctions mark the structural and semantic function of a noun within a sentence. English nouns do not have inflectionally marked cases except for genitive - possessive case. However, the following case relations are shown using the following case maker prepositions.

<u>Case relation</u>	<u>Case marker/ preposition</u>
a. Nominative	- / (man)
b. Accusative	-/ man
c. Dative	to (to man)
d. Agentive	by (by man)
e. Possessive	's + possessed (man's purse) Of + possessor (the purse of the man)
f. Recipient	for (for a man)
g. Locative	at (at man)
h. Directive	to (to a man)
i. Commutative	with (with a cow)
j. Vocative	use of an interjection (oh! Man)

Limbu nouns have inflectionally rich case markers. There are altogether ten cases to indicate various semantic relations of a noun in Limbu. 'Case' is an inflectional category in Limbu, where markers are suffixed/ Post-posed to a noun. Various types of case markers and their corresponding number distinctions are given below.



### Inventory 1: Case in Limbu nouns

Case/Number	Singular/ marker	Dual/ maker	Plural/ marker
a. Nominative	s ? g (a son)	s ? g chI (two sons)	s ? g h (more sons)
b. Accusative	s ? (to a son)	s ? g chI (to two sons)	s ? g h (to more sons)
c. Agentive	s ?l m (by a son)	s ? g chIl m (by two sons)	s ? g h l m (by more sons)
d. Ablative/Accompany	s ? u (with a son)	s ? g chIu (with two sons)	s ? g h u (with more sons)
e. Dative	s ? g In (to a son)	s ? g chIIn (to two sons)	s ? g h In (to more sons)
f. Dative/Benefictive	s ?lekh (for a son)	s ? g chIh (for two sons)	s ? g h h (for more sons)
g. Possessive	s ?n - 'na and 'ku' as possessive marker - 'na ' for possessor noun - 'ku' for possessed noun	s ? g chIn	s ? g h n
h. Locative	s ?jô (in/at a son)	s ? g chIô (in/at two sons)	s ? g h ô (in/at more sons)
i. Ablative/ seperation	s ?rô (from a son)	s ? g chIrô (from two sons)	s ? g h rô (from more sons)

## Case markers in Limbu

- a. Ablative (separation) - rô
- b. Locative - jô/ô
- c. Possessive - n + possessor  
- ku + possessed
- d. Benefictive - h
- e. Dative - I
- f. Ablative/Accompany - hu
- g. Agent - t m
- h. Accusative - -
- i. Nominative - m /g as subject in the sentence (optional)

## C. Gender

Gender relates nouns into either masculine, feminine or dual classes on the basis of sex-distinctions. Most English nouns have covert gender, i.e. they do not show explicit inflections for either gender, for example,

- a) 67 Bull - Cow
- b) 68 Boy - Girl
- c) 69 Father - Mother
- d) 70 Widower - Widow

There are also some nouns which are inflectionally marked for the change of gender, usually for the feminine gender.

<u>Masculine</u>	<u>Feminine</u>
71 Duke	Duchess
72 Prince	Princess
73 Actor	Actress

Some nouns, such as, baby, infant, parents, etc. are gender neutral.

Inanimate nouns are regarded as gender free. However, in case they are attributed with human quality, show a gender distinction. For example,

a. 74 The Earth (feminine)

b. 75 Ship (feminine)

Whatever the gender of a noun be English, nouns does not have any repercussion in the selection of modifiers or in the agreement system. However, the gender distinction is marked in the selection of pronouns for human nouns in the singular form, e.g.

a. 76 Sita sold her bracelets. (Sita =Human/singular feminine)

b. 77 The cow is happy with its calf. (The cow = Non-human/plural feminine)

c. 78 Brothers should live in their houses (Human/ plural masculine)

d. 79 Cows sit in their sheds (Non- human/ plural feminine)

The elaboration above shows that gender is more a lexical feature of noun in English, rather than an inflectional one.

The natural gender in Limbu is distinguished by using separate inflections.

For example,

- |                  |                 |
|------------------|-----------------|
| a. 52.a tutumb   | tutum           |
| (uncle)          | (aunt)          |
| b. 53.a sônip    | sônim           |
| (brother-in-law) | (sister-in-law) |
| c. 54.a nôkp     | nôkm            |
| (nephew)         | (neice)         |

These example show that 'b /p ' are the inflections for masculine gender in Limbu, whereas ' m ' is used for feminine gender nouns. However these suffixes are restricted only to the kinship terms.

In order to distinguish the gender of animals, Limbu has separate markers: 'kumb ' for male and 'kumm ' for female animals. Some examples are given below.

- |                |          |
|----------------|----------|
| 55. a On-kumb  | On kumm  |
| (a stallion)   | a mare   |
| 56. a PIt kumb | pIt kumm |

(a bull) (a cow)

However, for higher order animals the some gender markers used for kinship relation can be used. It is shown below.

57. a pItb pItm  
(a bull) (a cow)

There are also separate lexical words to refer to separate sexes in Limbu language. These lexical contrasts have a greater part of Limbu nominal vocabulary. Regular inflections are, rather restricted to only a few categories of nouns, for example,

58.a a. ph ph chIchIm n  
(Uncle) (Aunt)

59.a b. jembIch menchum  
(Male) (female)

60.a c. th ben menche  
(a young man) (a young lady)

### **3.2.1.2 Classification of Pronominal Heads**

#### **A. Classification**

Pronouns in English and Limbu can be classified into six sub-classes: personal pronouns, interrogative pronouns, indefinite pronouns, reciprocal pronouns, demonstrative

Pronouns in Panchthare dialect of Limbu can also be classified into six categories: personal, demonstrative, interrogative, indefinite, and distributive pronouns.

They are described below.

#### **a. Personal Pronouns:**

Personal pronouns refer to either animate or non-animate persons. They show person distinctions of speaker (1st person), hearer (2nd person) and reference (3rd person) made in a conversation. English personal pronouns are

marked for Number (singular/plural), Possession, Reflexion and Subject-Object use in a sentence. This can be shown as follows:

Table No. 1 Classification of Pronoun in English

Number	Subjective		Objective		Possessive		Reflexive	
	Singular	Plural	Singular	Plural	Singular	Plural	Singular	Plural
1st	i	we	me	us	my	our	myself	ourselves
2nd	you	you	You	you	your	your	yourself	yourself
3rd	He	they	Him	them	his/her	their	himself	themselves
	she		her		its		herself	
	it		it				itself	

The table shows that there are several Pronouns in English with various forms for objective, possessive, reflexive and plural use. It also shows that English personal pronouns are inflected only for reflexive use, but other uses show more or less separate lexical forms.

The Limbu personal pronouns can have animate and human references consisting of three persons: first person, second person and third person. The first person dual and plural pronouns have inclusive and non-inclusive references marked separately. For other persons, the inclusive/ non-inclusive reference is not made. The personal pronouns are listed below.

Table No. 2 Personal pronouns in limbu

person		Subjective			Objective			Possessive			Reflexive		
		Sing.	dual	Plural	Sing.	dual	Plural	Sing.	dual	Plural	Sing.	dual	Plural
1st	Inc	g	nchI	nI	-	-	-	a g	anchI	an	-	-	-
	Exc	-	nchige nchIj	nIge nIj	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
2nd		khene hene	khenchI hIchI	khenI hInI	-	-	-	khene	khenchI	khenI	-	-	-
3rd		khune hune	khunchI hunchI	khunI hunh	-	-	-	kuhune	kuhunchI	kuhunh	-	-	-

## b. Interrogative Pronouns

Interrogative pronouns can be divided into two main classes: human and common. English has only one human interrogative pronoun which can be

inflected for the following distinctions overtly. But they are neutral to number and grader variations

Table No. 3 Human interrogative pronoun in English

Pronoun	Subjective	Objective	Possessive
Who	Who	Whom	Whose

There are two common interrogative pronouns in English: 'What' and 'Which'. They are inflected/marked for possessive use but not for subjective/objective use. They are also neutral to number and grader variations. This can be shown as follows.

Table No. 4 Non-human interrogative pronouns in English

Pronoun	Subjective	Objective	Possessive
What	What	what	Whose
Which	Which	Which	Whose

Both human and common interrogative pronouns are used in Limbu for the sake of asking about information of various sorts. The pronouns also show the declension for number. These are shown as follows :

Table No. 5 Interrogative pronouns in Limbu

S.N.	Pronoun	Singular	Dual	Plural
1.	s / h (Who)	s / h (Who)	h gh chI (Who two)	S gh (Who more)
2.	th /h n (What)	th /h n (What)	th g chI (What two)	Th g (What more)
3.	tIn (Which)	tIn (Which)	tIng chI (Which two)	tIng (Which more)
4.	tô (Where)	tô (Where)	tô gh chI (Which two)	tô gh (Which more places)

### c. Indefinite Pronouns

3 English has a sufficient number of indefinite pronouns made out of 'Some' and 'Any' with the addition of 'body/one' and 'thing' for human and

non-human references respectively. These six features give six English indefinite pronouns. These pronouns are unmarked for number, as they are always singular. They are as follows.

Table No. 6 Indefinite Pronouns in English

Personal	Non-personal
Some + body = somebody	Some + thing = something
Some + one = some one	any + thing
any + body = anybody	anything
any + one = anyone	

(Note: 71 No+ body = nobody, none and no + thing = nothing can also be regarded as indefinite pronouns in negative polarity. They are also gender and number neutral.)

Like in English, Limbu also contains indefinite pronouns to refer to person, thing and place. We can separate ' ' particle (suffix) in such pronouns added after the interrogative pronouns. They are shown below.

61.a a. th (Something/ anything)

62.a. b. tôh (somewhere/ anywhere)

63a c. s h (Some one/ any one)

#### d. Demonstrative Pronouns

English demonstrative pronouns can be sub-classified into singular-plural and near-distant categories. It can be shown as follows.

Table No. 7 Demonstrative Pronouns in English

Pronoun	near	distant
singular	This	that
Plural	These	those

Unlike in English, Limbu demonstrative pronoun can be both animate and non-animate and human and non-human. These pronouns also have the three-number-distinction in Limbu. Both proximal and distal demonstratives are found in the Limbu language. They are listed as follows.

Table No. 8 Demonstrative pronouns in Limbu

Reference/Number	Proximal	Distal
Singular	khôn/hôn	khen/hen
Dual	hô gh chI	he g chI
Plural	hô gh	He gh

**e. Distributive Pronouns**

English distributive pronoun can be animate or non-animate and singular or plural as below.

Table No. 9 Distributive Pronouns in English

Singular	Plural
one	Two/three .....

Limbu distributive pronouns have only animate human references. Similar to other pronouns, distributive pronouns also have three number distinctions in Limbu. They are given below.

a. 64a lôch (one, singular)

b. 65a n chI (two, dual)

c. 66a sumsI (three, plural)

**f. Reciprocal Pronouns**

English has two reciprocal pronouns: "each -other" and "one-another". They are singular in number and gender neutral. Such pronouns are not available in Limbu.

**3.2.2.2 Case**

English pronouns, similar to nouns, have both lexical and inflectional case markings. Case marking in English pronouns can be shown as follows.

Case	Singular	Plural
1. Nominative /Accusative	I/he/she	you/they/we
2. Accusative	me/him/her	you/us/them
3. Ablative	with+ Accusative form	with+ Accusative form



4. Agentive	by + Accusative form	by + Accusative form
5. Dative	to+ Accusative form	to +Accusative form
6. Possessive	my/his/her	your/our/their
7. Locative	at + Accusative form	at +Accusative form

Limbu pronouns are inflected regularly for the purpose of case relations. Nominative and accusative relations are expressed without using any markers since they are the base on which markers for other cases are added. The table below shows the nominative forms of pronouns (for first persons only) along with the markers for different cases. The same markers with the first person pronouns can also be used for other person.

Table No.10 Case Markers in Limbu

S.N.	Case	Marker	Singular	dual	Plural
1	Nominative	-	- nchI	-	- nj / nI
2.	Agentive	-l m	- nchII m	- l m	- nII m
3.	Ablative/accompany	-nu	- nchInu	- nu	- nInu
4.	Dative/ benefactive towards (for)	-h	- nchIh	- h	- nIh
5.	Dative (to)	-I	- nchII	- I	- nII
6.	Possessive (of)	- /n	- nchI	- /n	- nI
7.	Locative	-ô	- nchIô	- ô	- nIô
8.	Ablative Separation	-rô	- nchIrô	- rô	- nIrô

## B. Number

As shown in the preceding examples, English pronouns show two number distinctions into singular and plural. This applies for all persons.

Limbu pronouns also show three number systems, similar to nouns. The number markers for personal, demonstrative and interrogative pronoun are similar to those used for marking nouns.

Indefinite pronouns are always singular in Limbu. For distributive pronouns separate words are used, hence the number distinction is not inflectional. The following table shows the number markers for Limbu pronominal heads.

Table No. 11 Number markers for Limbu pronouns

	Singular	Dual Inclusive	Dual Exclusive	Plural Inclusive	Plural Exclusive
1st	-	-(n)chI	-j /g	-(n)I	-j /g
2nd	-	-chI	-	-I	-
3rd	-	-chI	-	-I	-

### C. Person

English pronouns have pragmatic person distinctions based on the conversational situation. The speaker in a conversation is 'I' ('we' in plural), the hearer 'You' for both numbers and He/She/It for the subject in singular and 'They' in plural. All pronouns are exclusive in their references. This distinction also applies in Limbu.

### D. Gender

Gender characteristics are made distinct only for the 3rd person pronouns in English. The form 'He' is used for masculine subjects, 'She' for feminine subjects and 'It' for common subjects. Gender distinction is blurred in plural even for 3rd person, i.e. 'they' is used for all pronouns. Gender distinction in Limbu Pronoun is similar to that of Noun.

#### 3.2.1.3. Classification of Gerundive Head

Gerunds are the present participle forms made with the addition of '-ing' suffix to a verbal root. Some examples are given follows.

<u>Verbal root</u>	<u>gerund</u>
a. 80 go	going
b. 81 walk	walking
c. 82 dance	dancing
d. 83 teach	teaching

Gerunds in Limbu are formed by the addition of the suffix '-m I ' to the verbal roots. They are also present participle forms, like in English. Some examples are given below.

<u>Verbal roots</u>	<u>Gerunds/ present participles</u>
67a Pe	p m I
(go)	(going)
68a c	c m I
(beat)	(beating)
69a k	km I
(beg)	(begging)

### **A. Case**

English gerundive heads do not show any inflections. They are used for nominative case relation only.

Like the nominal or pronominal category, gerunds in Limbu also have similar case system. Examples with case marking are as follows (for the gerundive form, p m i -going)

- a. 70a Nominative: p m I g
- b. 71a Accusative: p m I
- c. 72a Ablative/ accompany: p m I nu
- d. 73a Agentive: p m I l m
- e. 74a Dative: p m I In
- f. 75a Benefactive: p m I l kh m
- g. 76a Locative (Still): p m I gô

However, possessive and vocative case relations are not possible with a gerundive noun head.

### **B. Number**

The number distinction of singular and plural does not present in English gerundive heads. All heads in this category are singular.

Normally, gerunds are neutral to any number distinctions in Limbu .They are regarded as singular for normal purposes. In case special meaning is to be

expressed, regular number suffixes - 'gh chI' for dual and 'gh ' for plural are used.

### C. Gender

Similar to the neutrality of number, English gerundive heads are also gender neutral and, so, are common in reference. Because they are related to verbal category, the natural sex distinctions are not important here. The distinction of gender in gerundive head is not significant in Limbu.

#### 3.2.1.4. Classification of Infinitival Heads

Infinitive heads in English are formed by the addition of 'to-' particle before a verbal root. Some examples are given below.

<u>Verbal root</u>	<u>infinitive</u>
84 go	to go
85 walk	to walk
86 sleep	to sleep
87 teach	to teach

The markings and distinctions of case, gender and number are not inflected or made significant for Infinitival Head in the English language. They are always singular. Some examples are given below.

- a. 88 To compromise is good.
- b. 89 To learn is different.
- c. 90 To save money seems impossible.

Limbu infinitival noun heads are formed by the addition of the suffix '-m ' to the verbal roots. Some examples are given below.

<u>Verbal roots</u>	<u>Infinitival nouns</u>
77a P (go)	P m (to go)
78a c (beat)	c m (to beat)
79a n k (beg)	n km (to beg)

Infinitival Nouns also follow the similar case system to gerundive nouns. The number distinction of singular, dual and plural is also blurred in Limbu, in that only singular forms are used for general purposes of communication.

### 3.2.1.5. Classification of Adjectival Heads

English adjectival heads can be classified into three sub-classes: generic, pronominal and derived adjectives. Generic adjectives are usually used with a determiner to refer to a class of the item specified, for example,

91 The poor is helpful.

92 The rich is selfish.

Pronominal adjectives do not take any determiners and refer to some implied noun phrase, for example,

93 Ram is first.

94 Who is stronger?

Derived adjectives are formed out of verbal roots and nominal roots with the addition of inflexions. Some examples are given below.

a. <u>Verbal root</u>	<u>Derived adjective</u>
95 (to) amuse	amused
96 (to) satisfy	satisfied
9 (to) terrify	terrified

In sentences,

98 Amused are never found.

99 Satisfied become happy.

100 Terrified can not think well.

b. <u>Nominal root</u>	<u>Derived adjectives</u>
101 Japan	Japanese
102 Labor	Laborious

In sentences,

103 The Japanese work hard.

104 The Laborious always succeeds.

Limbu adjectival nouns can be categorized into three groups based on their structural property. They are:

a. Adjectives made from verbal roots. These adjectives are derived by adding 'k ' prefix to the verbal roots. For example,

<u>Verbs</u>	<u>Adjectives</u>
80a lôk (run)	k lôpp (One who is running/male)
81a n k (beg)	k n km (One who is begging/female)

b. Adjective made from nominal roots: These adjectives are derived by adding '-hIkth n' (like the noun) suffix to nominal heads. For example,

Nouns	adjectivs
82a c bh (a monkey)	c bh hIkth n (like a monkey)
91.a khæb l (a dog)	khæb lhIkth n (like a dog)

c. Pure adjectives: There are pure adjectives in their structure functioning as noun. Some examples are as follows.

- i) 83a th b n (fat young/boy)
- ii) 84a cukm s (little/ female)
- iii) 85a nub gh (good men)

## A. Number

Adjectival heads in English do not show any inflection for number. However the meaning related to number is expressed by the same form with differing subject-verb agreement. The examples below illustrate this point clearly.

- i) a. 105 The amused is never found. (Singular)  
b. 106 The amused are never found. (Plural)
- ii) a. 107 The Japanese labors hard. (Singular)  
b. 108 The Japanese labor hard. (Plural)

- iii) a. 109 The strong dies early. (Singular)
- b. 110 The strong die early. (Plural)

Limbu adjectival heads also display the usual three number contrasts: Singular, dual and plural. Dual and plural numbers are realized by using the suffixes 'gh chI' and 'gh ' respectively. Some examples are as follows.

Table No.12 Number in Adjectival Nouns in Limbu

Singular	dual	Plural
a. th b n (a fat/young/boy)	th b ngh chI (two fat young)	th b ngh (more fat young/boys)
b. nub (a good man)	nub gh chI (two good men)	nub gh (more good men)

### B. Case

The case system for adjectival heads is similar to that of gerundive heads. Adjectival heads have the case system similar to that of gerundive heads in Limbu.

### C. Gender

Gender distinction for adjectival heads is lacking in English. Because adjectival heads are rather generic in meaning, gender is not significant in English. For example, the following sentence is inclusive of gender reference.

- a.103 The poor is helpful.

In Limbu, the natural sex distinction of male and female is expressed using the gender markers '-b ' for male and 'm ' for the female sex. This is shown as follows.

	<u>Masculine</u>	<u>Feminine</u>
i.86a	th b n (a young/boy)	th m n (a young girl)
ii.87a	ub gh n	um gh n

	(good/man went)	(good/women went)
iii.88a	k mb	k mm
	(a fall/ man went)	(a fall/woman went)

### 3.3. Noun Phrase Modifiers

A modifier is a word or a group of words which gives further information about the word it modifies. In a noun phrase, a modifier either restricts the meaning of the head noun or expands its meaning by adding further information to it. In the following examples, *i - iii* modify the head noun 'cap' by specifying its meaning, thus restrictive type of modifiers, whereas *iv-vi* add more information about the head, thus non-restrictive type of modifiers.

- i. 111            The cap
- ii. 112           The cap on Hari's head
- iii. 113           A small red cap which is tying there.
- iv. 114           A cap
- v. 115            A cap, which was made in India....
- vi. 116            A few caps

In the structure of a noun phrase, there are various elements which occur before the head noun or after it. Those elements which precede the head noun are called Pre-Modifiers and those occurring after the head are called Post-Modifiers. A noun phrase with which only the head or a highly collocated word following or preceding it makes it a simple noun phrase, but a noun phrase with other modifying elements preceding or following it make up a complex noun phrase. The modifying elements for a noun phrase belong to one or another of the following categories.

- I.    Articles
- II.   Adverbs
- III. Adjectives
- IV.  Relative clauses



- V. Non-finite clauses
- VI. Numerals
- VII. Demonstratives
- VIII. Possessive pronouns
- IX. Nouns in ginitive form
- X. Prepositional phrase

The pages that follow elaborate on these types of modifiers that are found in both English and Limbu languages.

### **3.3.1. Modifiers in English and Limbu Noun Phrases**

English noun phrase modifiers include the following categories.

#### A. Pre-Modifiers

##### i) Determiners

117A boy

##### ii) Adjectives

118 Some tall boys

##### iii) Adverbs

119 Highly intelligent

##### iv) Quantifiers

120 One intelligent boy

##### v) Demonstratives

121 That boy

#### B. Post -Modifiers

##### vii) Relative Clause

122 The boy who is standing .....

##### viii) Adverbs

123 The boy ahead

##### ix) Prepositional Phrase

124 The boy on the safe .....

Each modifier is described below.

Similar to English noun phrase structure, the Limbu noun phrase also contains modifiers of the following categories.

i. Determiners

a.89a m nchum gh kubI  
(woman possession cow)  
= A woman's cow

ii. Adverbs

90a Ilk nub n pmI  
(very good man)  
= a very good man

iii. Adjectives

91a K mb p  
(tall house)  
= A tall house

iv. Relative clauses

92a k d b l h ?k w p? n pmI ph r  
(torn cloth wearing man came)  
= A man who is wearing torn cloth is coming.

v. Adverbials

93a 'r k', as in n pmIr k  
= a man only

The modifiers either precede or follow the head noun. Based on the position of occurrence, Limbu noun modifiers can also be grouped into two broad categories: pre- modifiers and post-modifiers.

### 3.3.1.1. Pre- Modifiers

#### A. Determiners

Determiners occur before the noun and determine its status. The following categories of word function as determiner in English.

### **a. Article**

Both definite (the) and indefinite (a/an/some) articles are used in English determiners. For example,

125 -A boy

126 -Some boys

Here 'a' and 'an' are phonologically conditioned variants of indefinite article in singular form. 'Some' is the plural form of both definite and indefinite articles.

### **b. Numerals:**

English has cardinal, ordinal and general ordinal numerals occurring in the determinative construction. Some examples are listed below.

i. 127 One, Two, Three, Five, Ninety etc.

ii. 128 First, Second, Third, Eighteenth, etc.

iii. 129 Next, Another etc.

The cardinal numeral 'one' is used with only a singular head noun, whereas other cardinal numerals precede only the plural count nouns. The ordinal numerals are used with both singular and plural noun heads. However, general ordinals are used only with a singular noun head. For example,

i. 130 One boy is coming

ii. 131 Five boys are coming

iii. 132 The first boy is sick.

iv. 133 The first benchers are unhappy.

v. 134 Next year is very important.

### **c. Quantifiers**

Multiplying words such as 'all', 'whole', 'each', 'every', etc. which signify for the multiple quantity of the head noun in a noun phrase and partitive words such 'half', 'a- third', 'somehow' 'almost', etc. which divide the quantity of the head noun are also used before the head in a noun phrase. These determinative words are used with both singular and plural nouns. Some examples are as follows.

i. 135 Both boys are intelligent.

ii. 136 One third passage is different.

iii. 137 Every boy is happy.

iv. 138 Some boys are unhappy

**d. Noun in genitive case**

The genitive nouns, which signify the possessor relationship with the head noun, can occur as determiners modifiers in an English noun phrase. Some examples are as follows.

i. 139 A man's shop

ii. 140 Women's house

**e. Possessive pronouns**

Pronouns which show the relationship of possession of the noun they modify also occur in the determiner construction of an English noun phrase. For example,

i. 141 My car

ii. 142 This watch

**f. Demonstrative pronouns**

English has four demonstrative determiners: 'this', 'these', 'that' and 'those'. Among them 'this' and 'these' refer to the nearness of the head noun whereas 'that' and 'those' refer to some distant relation. They are also divisible in terms of number: 'this' and 'that' are singular and 'those' and 'these' are plural. Some examples are given below:

i. 143 This pen is nice.

ii. 144 Those pens are nice.

Like in English, Determiners in Limbu language also occur before the head noun and determine its status as specifying determiners or as non-specifying determiners. The following linguistic categories function as determiners in Limbu.

**a. Nouns in the genitive case:**

Noun in the genitive case identify the noun as the owner of a certain other noun, for example,

a.94a m nchum gh kubI

(woman possession cow)

= A woman's cow

b.95a h gh n kusa pl

(yehang possessive book)

= yehang's book

The examples show that the genitive marker '-ha' is used after the possessed noun to show the determiner relation to the head.

#### **b. Pronouns in the genitive case**

Pronouns in the genitive case identify the owner of the pronoun in relation to the head noun, for example,

a. 96a Kh n k s pl

(your possession book)

= Your book

b. 97a s pl

(I possession book)

= My book

In the above examples the genitive suffix '- / ' are used with the possessor pronoun to show their determinative relation to the head noun. '- / 'h ' are the phonetic variants of the genitive suffix in Limbu. In case of genitive pronoun determiner, prefixes are also used with the head noun to show their concord with pronoun as follows:

i. with first person pronoun, e.g.

98a s pl

(first person pronoun + genitive marker + agreement marker + head noun)

(I + possession book)

= My book

ii. 'k' with second person pronoun, e.g.

99a kh n k s pl

(You + possession + agreement marker + head noun)

= Your book

iii. 'ku' with third person pronouns, e.g.

100a Khun h kus pl

(he + possession + agreement marker + head noun)

= his book

### c. Demonstratives

There are two kinds of demonstrative determiners in Limbu language. One is 'kumb /b', which shows the proximate reference to the head noun and the other is 'h mb', which shows the distal reference to the head noun. These determiners are always singular in number. Some examples are as follows.

- a. 101.a      Kumb n pmIgh  
(This many men)  
= These many men
- b. 102.a      Kumb n pmI  
(This one man)  
= This man
- c. 103.a      h mb n pmIgh chI  
(That two men)  
= Those two men
- d. 104.a      h mb n pmI  
(That one man)  
= That man

### d. Numerals

Like in English, Limbu also contains cardinal and ordinal numerals. However the existence of general ordinal is not established. Some examples are as follows.

#### Inventory 3: Numerals in Limbu

<u>Cardinal numbers</u>	<u>Ordinal numbers</u>
105a 1 thIk (One) / 1 ch	tumn / th gI (First)
106a n chhI (two)	n sIg k (second)
107a sumsI (three)	sumsIg k (third)
108a IIsI (four)	IIsIg k (fourth)

109a	sI (five)	sIg k (fifth)
110a	tumsI (six)	tumsIg k (sixth)
111a	nusI (seven)	nusIg k (seventh)
112a	j tchI (eight)	j tchIg k (eighth)
113a	ph sI (nine)	ph sIg k (ninth)
114a	thIbô (ten)	thIbô g k (tenth)

In a noun phrase,

- a.115a sumsI n pmIgh  
 (Three man + pl)  
 = Three men
- b.116a lIsIg k s pl  
 (fourth book)  
 = fourth book

#### e. Quantifiers

Quantifiers, such as, 'j rIk; (many), 'culIk' (a few), mI k (some), etc. occur in the pre-modifying determiner position in Limbu Noun Phrase, for example,

- a.117a j rIk pI?nu  
 (many milk)  
 = Much milk
- b.118a j rIk m n h  
 (many men)  
 = many people
- c.119a ulIk t k  
 (a few rice)  
 = Little rice
- d.120a ulIk m n h  
 (few men)  
 = few people

These examples show that the quantities in Limbu are not divisible in terms of count and mass noun determiners. They remain the same for all types of nouns.

## B. Adjectives

As many as six adjectives can co-occur to per-modify a noun in English noun phrase modification. These adjectives have particular position of occurrence in relation of the head (Morphy, R.P.1987, 196) They are described in the following inventory.

### Inventory 2: Adjectives Ordering in English

<u>Position</u>	<u>Nature of Adjectives</u>	<u>Examples</u>
a. 1 <sup>st</sup>	Adjectives referring to general attitude	(happy, intelligent etc.)
b. 2 <sup>nd</sup>	Nearest to the Head: Adjectives referring to substance	(golden, plastic)
c. 3 <sup>rd</sup>	Nearest to Attitude adjectives: Adjectives referring to size	(small, big)
d. 4 <sup>th</sup>	Nearer to size adjectives: Adjectives referring to age	(young, new)
e. 5 <sup>th</sup>	Nearer to age adjectives: Adjectives referring to color	(red, brown)
f. 6 <sup>th</sup>	In-between color and substance adjectives: Adjectives referring to origin	(Japanese, Indian)

The ordering may be shown as follows.

145 An interesting big new brown Japanese copper pot  
1            3            4    5            6            2

Although all types of adjectives may not be used in a single noun phrase, they should follow the order in the way described above. An adjective does not show any agreement relation with the head noun it modifies.

An adjective in Limbu noun phrase always occurs before the noun head it modifies, for example,

- a. 121a            K mb p  
                          (tall house)  
                          = A tall house
- b. 122a            numb n pml  
                          (good man)  
                          = A good man



The data so far studied shows that Limbu has as many as four adjectives co-occurring before a noun. The order of occurrence is similar to that of English (see 4.1.2 above). Some examples are given below.

a.123a k mb p

= A tall house

b.124a kum kl b unll n su?w n

= A black woolen bag

c.125a t b k m?b ke mb n b th b n

(Short fat small Angnali boy)

= That short fat small Angnali boy

A remarkable feature of adjective modifiers in Limbu language is that the adjective shows an agreement with noun heads in terms of gender, for example,

a.126a nub n pmI

(a handsome man)

b.127a num n pmI

(a beautiful woman)

c.128a m k k lôb v pu

(a black he/bird)

d.129a m k k lôm pu

(a black she/bird)

In these examples, the underlined particles with the adjectives mark gender relation of the head noun. In Limbu '-b' shows masculine gender and '-m' shows feminine gender. However, masculine marker '-b' is used for the non-animate head nouns, e.g.

a.130a jômb lu

= A big stone

b. 131a k mb sI yb

= A tall tree

### C. Adverbs:

Adverbs are words that modify the meaning of verbs, adjectives or other adverbs. Adverbs in English precede either an adjective or a determiner, but not a noun directly. The following are some examples.

- i. 136 Almost all boys are satisfied.
- ii. 137 A very tall boy is coming.
- iii. 138 A highly cheap cap lasts short.

The adverbs in Limbu always precede the adjectives, but not the nouns directly, for example,

- a.132a    Ilk nub n pmI  
              (very good man)  
              = a very good man
- b.133a    j rIk k mb n pmI  
              (very tall man)  
              = a very tall man

It is an important fact of Limbu adverbs that they are similar in form to adjectives, used without any inflections. The examples below make this clear.

	<u>Word</u>	<u>Adjectival use</u>	<u>Adverbial use</u>
a. 134a	alik (much/many)	Ilk t k (much rice)	Ilk nub n pmI (a very good man)
b. 135a	ulIk (few/less)	ulIk m n h (few people)	ulIk k mnb (a little fall)

#### **D. Relative Clause**

Unlike in English, a relative clause always precedes the head noun as modifier in Limbu language. Some examples are as follows.

- a.136a    sIm ke m m nch m t r b  
              (Sari wearing girl is coming)  
              = A girl who is wearing a sari is coming
- b.137a    k d b l h ?k w p? n pmI ph r  
              (torn cloth wearing man came)

= A man who is wearing torn cloth is coming.

The relative clause is realized with a relative word (pronoun) such as 'k ' /'k ' (as soon in the examples) before the verbal root. This feature is available only in Limbu.

### **3.3.1.2 Post-Modifiers**

English Noun phrases are post modified by one or another of the following categories.

- i. Relative clause
- ii. Non-finite clause
- iii. Prepositional phrase
- iv. Adverb phrase
- v. Adjective phrase

They are described with examples as follows.

#### **A. Relative Clause**

A relative clause relates some information to the noun it modifies. It is realized with relative pronouns such as 'who', 'which', etc. and is placed immediately after the noun it modifies. The relative pronouns are used instead of the nouns being related. The relative clause shows gender concord of human versus non-human with the head noun in the use of the relative pronoun: 'Who'/'Whom' with human head nouns and 'which'/'where' for non-human heads. Some examples are given below.

- i. 146 Peopled who live in a glass house should not throw stones.
- ii. 147The book which i bought yesterday is interesting.

## **B. Non-finite Clause**

A non-finite clause does not contain a finite-verb with it. In English there are two types of non-finite clauses which post-modify a Noun phrase. They are given with examples each as follows.

i. Participle clause: The present participle clause ('-ing' clause) and past participle clause ('-ed' clause) can modify an English noun phrase, for example,

a. 148        The man walking there is Raju.

b. 149        The car repaired by the mechanic broke down.

ii. Infinitive clause: An infinitive clause with 'to + infinitive' form of a verb also post modifies an English Noun phrase, for example,

a. 150        The man to help you is Mr. Johnson.

## **C. Prepositional Phrase**

A prepositional phrase describes the head noun of which it post-modifies, for example,

a. 151        The city of Rome is dying.

## **D. Adverb Phrase**

Few adverbs such as 'back', 'out', 'behind', etc. meaning 'location' post modify a noun phrase as in the examples given below.

a. 152        The road back is dangerous.

b. 153        The people behind are talking.

## **E. Adjective Phrase**

In some minor cases adjective phrase post modify a noun in English. some examples are given below.

a. 154        You should try something different.

b. 155        A man taller than Hari is coming.

However these suffixes with the possessor noun are used only in cases the pronominal determiners are in singular form.

The Limbu language is quite different from English in the noun phrase post modification construction also. It is because only a few adverbials are used following the head noun as post modifiers. Some post modifying adverbials are as follows.

- a.138a 'r k', as in n pmIr k = a man only
- b.139a 'dhIk', as in k mb n pmIdhIk = a tall man only
- c.140a 's ', as in c llk cuk henj s = a very small boy also

## CHAPTER - FOUR

### 4. FINDINGS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Upon describing the nouns in both with phrases it has been found that there are both similarities and difference in the structural properties of the various types of noun phrase in the two languages. Sufficient information on these aspects in light of similarities and differences has been provided in the respective sections of the preceding chapters. This chapter deals, then, mainly with the marked structural differences where the noun phrases differ in the two languages.

This chapter has been designed taking into view the notion of '*contrast*' which implicates '*linguistic difference in the structure of the noun phrases*' and '*problems*' in learning these structures. This tenet, by corollary, suggests that language teachers while teaching this aspect in these languages should be cautious enough over them and should follow appropriate techniques so as to ease and speed up the learning. These areas have been shown in the following points.

#### 4.1 Findings of the Study

1. In terms of structural organizations, English has at least 18 types of Nominal Head Noun Phrase structures, 2 types of Pronominal Head 8 types of Gerundive Head, 4 types of Infinitival Head and 3 types Adjectival Head Noun Phrase structures. On the other hand, Limbu contains 14 types of Nominal Head structures, 2 types of pronominal ones, 6 types of Gerundive ones, 5 types of Infinitival ones and 5 types of Adjectival Head Noun Phrase structures. In general the distribution of the structures of different heads seems similar, but English phrase structures are slightly greater in number.

2. The Noun Phrase in both English and Limbu language realized in terms of either of these Heads: nominal, pronominal, gerundive infinitival and adjectival. The Heads are so named following the general classification of words into different categories. Both languages display simple and complex noun phrases. In the complex phrase, a clear structural breakdown into Pre-Modifier, Head and Post-Modifier can be made. However realization of these modifiers varies as described below.

i) An English noun phrase pre-modifier is realized either by a Determiner, which includes words from the categories of ‘articles’, ‘demonstratives’, ‘quantifiers’, ‘numerals’, ‘noun in the genitive case’ or ‘pronouns in the possessive case’; or an adjective or a sequence of adjectives or an adverb. In the determinative part as well, there can be the occurrence of three determiners within a single phrase: pre-determiners (all, both, etc.), central determiners (articles) and post-determiners (numerals, possessives, etc.). The sequence of adjectival modifiers is also definite (see: Inventory 2) and the adverbs always precede the adjectives. But in Limbu Pre-Modifier position, but words/phrases belonging to Determiner, Adverb, Adjective and Relative Clause can occupy the position. The category of Article is not available in Limbu. Relative Clause category occurs in the pre-modifying position in Limbu but it follows the head in the phrase in English. Categories other than Article and Relative Clause are similar in both languages, however the number of items in each category may vary between them.

ii) A Limbu noun phrase contains only a few adverbials such as ‘r k’, ‘dhIk’ , ‘s ’, (‘only’ ‘only’, ‘also’, respectively) etc. in the post-modifier position. An English noun phrase, on the other hand, may contain words or phrases from different categories: Prepositional Phrase, Adjectival phrase, Adverb-phrase, Relative-clause and Non-finite Clause. The greater number of categories has made English Noun Phrase more complex than in the Limbu language. This area of

difference is, in theory, highly difficult for Limbu speaking learners while learning English.

3. Nouns in English are inflected for only two categories of number distinctions: singular and plural. The number of the head noun also does not show any shared grammatical feature with the modifiers. Limbu nouns, on the other hand, are marked for three number contrasts: Singular, dual and plural. The singular form is the bases to which the dual marker '-gh chI' and the plural marker '-gh ' are suffixed regularly. Although Limbu also does not have shared number markers between the elements within a phrase, the tri-polar number distinctions does exert considerable influence while learning either language (may be 'facilitating' from Limbu-to-English but interferential from-English-to Limbu). However, in both languages the Non-Count nouns are singular in grammatical behavior.
4. English nouns have both lexical as well as grammatical gender marking systems. There is no any repercussion of one or another gender in the form of the modifiers. But, although similarity is also found in Limbu, the nouns do mark off the modifiers with identical gender markers ('-b ' for male nouns and '-m ' for female nouns). However, inanimate nouns are gender neutral in both languages.
5. Case is a distinctive feature of Limbu nouns while they are used in sentences. The nominative and Accusative cases are rather not marked inflectionally but other cases are inflectionally marked in Limbu (see:3.3.1.3). Such inflections aren't available in English as Case is shown with the addition of prepositional particles to nouns.
6. In the Pronominal Head Noun Phrase, Limbu personal pronouns take a distinction of exclusive-inclusive references to the hearer (inclusion of the hearer or not) in the first person dual and plural numbers. Such a distinction is lacking in English.
7. In the classification of pronoun, reflexive pronouns are found only in English, but not in Limbu. English reflexive pronouns are the inflected form of personal pronouns in the possessive or objective use with the addition of



'-self' as suffix ('-selves' in plural). These pronouns are marked for both number and gender distinctions as in other types of pronouns. But Limbu lacks the reflexive category, the meaning of which is expressed by using the basic personal pronouns.

8. Both English and Limbu languages do not show any distinction of number and gender in gerundive and infinitival head nouns. Adjectival head nouns are inflected for number and gender in Limbu, but only the number category is present in English.
9. English shows the gender distinction of human-vs.-non-human in the selection of relative pronouns in the complex noun phrase structure post-modified by a relative clause (e.g. 'who'/'whom' for human and 'what'/'which' for non-human head noun). But such a distinction is lacking in Limbu, where the single relater /-k / is used after the head.
10. In the pre-modification construction by genitive case pronouns, Limbu has a unique structure. Here the possessed noun is marked with the personal pronoun as prefix, along with the possessive suffix to mark for the possessive pronoun. For example, in the construction ' s pl (my book) ' ' is the 1st person personal pronoun occurring before the head noun 's pla'. The genitive-possessive case of the pronoun is shown with the addition of the regular suffix '- ' to it. At the same time, the pronominal reflex'- ' is also shown as the prefix to the head noun, 's pl '. This feature is lacking in English for such a pre-modification construction. In English, the Head Noun and the Pre-Modifying Pronoun are juxtaposed to each other, without showing any pronominal reflex upon the head noun.
11. The Indefinite Pronouns in English observe the count-mass distinction of nouns, as different forms are used for count nouns and mass nouns. But Limbu indefinite pronouns are not sensitive to such a distinction of nouns, as the same forms are used with both types of nouns.
12. The particle / u/ is used in the Limbu compound noun phrase (equivalent to 'and' in English). However it includes the meanings of both English 'and' and 'with' in the compound Head structure, e.g.,

Limbu	=	t k nu m chI
English	=	i) Rice and chilly
		ii) Rice with chilly

13. English and Limbu noun phrases can also be contrasted following the hypothesis of Linguistic relativity, that the structure of language predisposes a particular cognitive orientation upon its speakers. The finding of the language for perception and production by the learners either as focused 'at-the- end' or 'in-the-beginning' has that English and Limbu differ in this area of language processing as well. In this regard, English deserves the 'beginning-focused' language group, as the 'head' of the phrase occurs towards the beginning of the phrase. This is evident from the availability of 'of + possessive noun' and 'noun + relative clause constructions. Both the constructions are post-modifiers in the noun phrase only in English, but not in Limbu. A Limbu noun phrase, on the contrary, hardly puts any element following the head. This marks Limbu noun phrase 'end-focused', predisposing its speakers towards the same. This is a hypothetical distance which may cause problems while learning one language by the speakers of another language.

The above mentioned findings may be only a part of the abstract linguistic differences between English and Limbu noun phrases. The researcher calls on other interested researchers to conduct studies in other areas in these languages and to assist in the teaching of the total language. The researcher would also be grateful if the same topics are studied using various other approaches and methodologies to come out competitive findings and conclusions.

#### **4.2 Recommendations**

The following recommendations are made in the light of the findings yielded by the study.

1. As the number of Noun Phrase structures is grater in English than in Limbu, the differences should be provided with clear examples while learning them.

2. The tri - polar number system of Limbu should be treated with special examples alongside the bi - polar number distinctions in English.
3. The first person dual and plural pronominal inclusive and exclusive references in Limbu should be taken to awareness while teaching this aspect of English to Limbu learners, in case the difficulty arises.
4. Since Limbu shows the gender reflex of /bā/ and /mā/ for male and female in adjectival pre - modifier position, learners may attempt to replicate this phenomenon in English as well. Adequate contrastive practice should be provided while teaching this aspect in either language.
5. The grammatical case marking (inflectional) of Limbu should be taught contractively against the lexical (prepositional) case marking of English, with clear structural examples.
6. The occurrence of relative clause in pre - modifier position in Limbu may cause difficulty in learning the English relative clause post - modifiers. This area of difference should be treated with sufficient amount of examples and drills.
7. The habit of regular inflections in Limbu for both dual and plural references may get transferred in English pluralization. Such regularization sometimes may lead to defective plural forms in English. These aspects should be given adequate care while teaching.
8. Since Limbu has only two adverbials in the post - modifier position learners may feel great difficulty in learning the constituents of noun phrase post - modifier in English. Especial care should be given in this area.
9. Above all, other areas of differences listed in the findings should be taught with appropriate techniques. Emphasis only on the similar aspects might shade the different areas into shadow; hence problem may arise in learning them. These areas should be taught with explicit contractive pattern drills.

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# APPENDIX - I

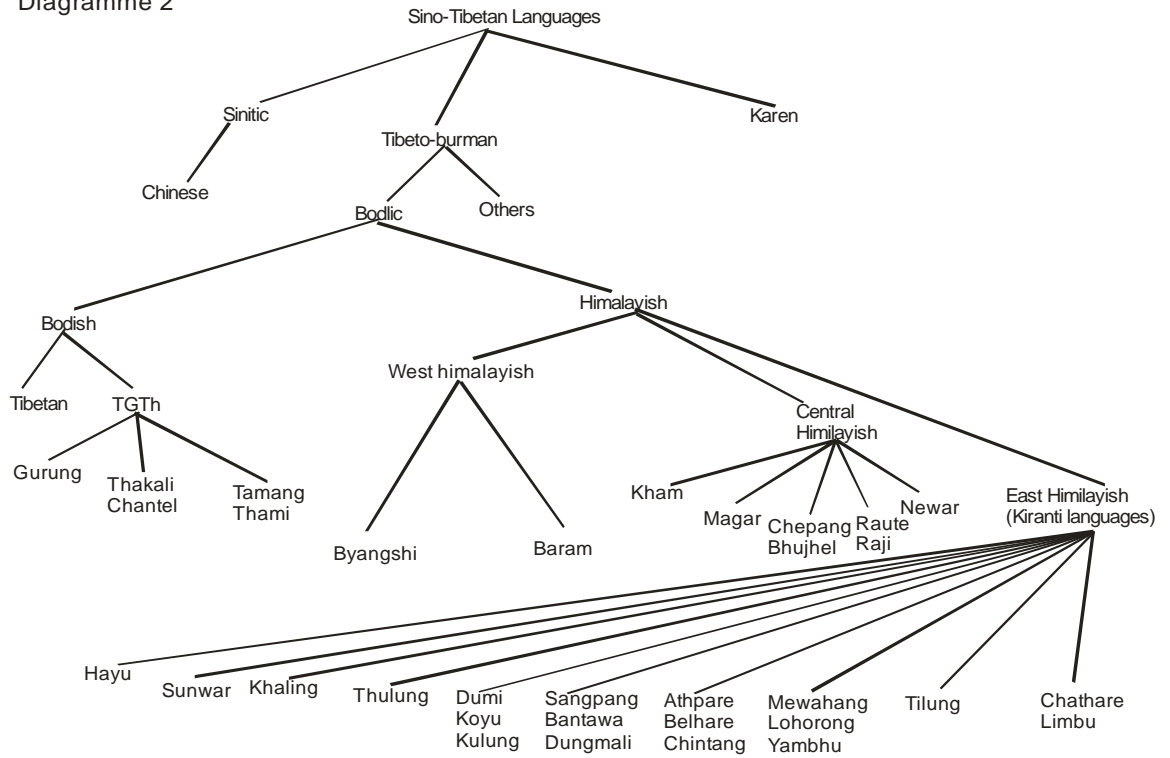
## Genetic Affiliation of Languages in Nepal

**Diagram: 1**

Indo-Irarian	Celtic	Italic	Slavic	Armerian/ Albanian	Greek	Germanic	Baltic
Iranian	Indo-Aryan			North		West	
						English	
North- Eastern	Dardic	Dardic- Maldives	Sinhalese	Southern	East- Central	Nothern	
		Eastern				Central	

Source:- CBS Report. 2002, Population Census. 2001 HMG/ CBS

Diagramme 2



Source:- CBS Report. 2002, Population Census. 2001 HMG/ CBS

Diagram 3

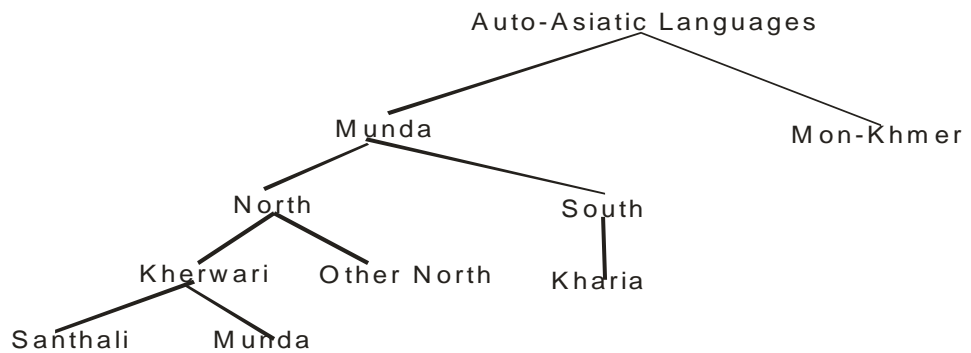
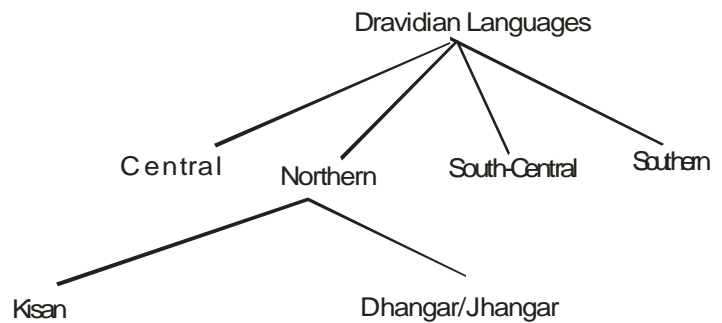


Diagramme 4



Source:- CBS Report. 2002, Population Census. 2001 HMG/ CBS

## APPENDIX -II

### PHONETIC SYMBOLS AND THEIR ENGLISH EQUIVALENT PRONUNCIATION

1.	=	as in English 'ch <u>alk</u> '
2.	=	as in English 'st <u>u</u> dent'
3. k	=	as in English 'c <u>a</u> t'
4. m	=	as in English 'm <u>a</u> n'
5.	=	as in English 'a <u>r</u> m'
6. n	=	as in English 'n <u>o</u> se'
7. ch	=	as in aspirated English 'ch <u>i</u> na'
8. I	=	as in English 'i <u>n</u> k'
9. j	=	as in English 'z <u>e</u> ro'
10. f	=	as in English 'f <u>a</u> t'
11. e	=	as in English 'e <u>g</u> g'
12. l	=	as in English 'l <u>o</u> ng'
13.	=	as in English 'a <u>b</u> out'
14. p	=	as in English 'p <u>o</u> t'
15. t	=	as in English 't <u>a</u> pe'
16. u	=	as in English 'w <u>o</u> ol'
17. h	=	as in English 'h <u>o</u> rse'
18. r	=	as in English 'r <u>o</u> ck'
19. ?	=	glottal sound sometimes used in English 'c <u>a</u> ttle'
20. s	=	as in English 's <u>i</u> r'
21. w	=	as in English 'w <u>e</u> st'
22. æ	=	as in English 'c <u>a</u> p'
23.	=	as in English 'k <u>i</u> ng'
24. σ	=	as in English 'p <u>o</u> t'



## APPENDIX - III

### QUESTIONNAIRE

Name:

Age:

Address:

Sex:

Qualification:

This questionnaire has been prepared in accordance with the requirement of Master's level Thesis (English), Faculty of Education, T.U. on the topic of "**Noun phrase structure in English and Limbu Language: A Comparative study**". Your correct responses will be quite invaluable in this regard. Since this is a formal study your response and identity will be utilized strictly for the research purpose only.

I am very grateful for your kind cooperation. Thank you.

Researcher :Dinesh Kumar Thapa

1. Sita is playing

सीता खेलिरहेकी छन् ।

.....

2. The tall man is sleeping.

त्यो अग्लो मानछे सुतिरहेको छ ।

.....

3. The black woolen bag is here.

त्यो कालो ऊनीको भोला यहाँ छ ।

.....

4. A small beautiful young girl is coming.

एउटी सानी राम्री तरुनी (केटी) आउँदैछिन् ।

.....

5. A short fat young Angnali boy is coming.

एउटा होचो मोटो जवान आङ्गनाली केटो आउँदैछ ।

.....

6. A short fat young brave Angnali boy is coming.

एउटा होचो मोटो जवान बहादुर आङ्गनाली केटो आउँदैछ ।

.....

7. The house owner is sleeping.  
(त्यो) घरवाला सुतिरहनुभएको छ ।  
.....
8. District police office is very far.  
जिल्ला प्रहरी कार्यालय धेरै टाढा छ ।  
.....
9. Pork and pickle snack is sweet.  
वंगुरको भन्दा अचारको खाजा मीठो छ ।  
.....
10. Dog's life is very bad.  
कूकुरको जीन्दगी साह्रै नराम्रो हुन्छ ।  
.....
11. Ram's friend's wife is honest.  
रामको साथीकी श्रीमति इमान्दार छिन् ।  
.....
12. The then headmaster died yesterday.  
पूर्व प्राधानाध्यापक हिजो खस्नुभयो ।  
.....
13. We called Ram honest.  
हामीले रामलाई इमान्दार भन्यौं ।  
.....
14. The cow similar to mine is grazing.  
मेरो जस्तै गाई चरिरहेको छ ।  
.....
15. The boys willing to play are running.  
खेल्न मनपराउने केटाहरु कुदिरहेका छन् ।  
.....
16. She bought a bag smaller than mine.  
उनीले मेरो भन्दा सानो भोला किनिन ।  
.....
17. The bus climbed Bhadoure up.  
(त्यो) बस भदौरे माथि चढ्यो ।  
.....

18. The people in Yashok are rich.

यासोकका मानिसहरु धनी छन् ।

.....

19. I called Ram a kind man.

मैले रामलाई एक असल मान्छे भने ।

.....

20. The girl he chose is beautiful.

उसले छानेको केटी राम्री छे ।

.....

21. The girl, who is fat, is my sister.

.....

22. Hari has a very similar face to shyam.

हरिको अनुहार श्यामसँग धेरै मिल्छ ।

.....

23. He is easy to please.

उसलाई खुशी पार्न सजिलो छ ।

.....

24. A boy shorter than me cannot jump.

म भन्दा होचो केटो उफ्रन सक्दैन ।

.....

25. People are climbing the hill down.

मानिसहरु पहाडबाट ओर्लिरहेका छन् ।

.....

26. Men of village are good.

गाँउका मानिसहरु असल हुन्छन् ।

.....

27. Ram sent Sita best wishes.

रामले सितालाई शुभ-कामना पठायो ।

.....

28. The field he bought is very good.

उसले किनेको जग्गा धेरै राम्रो छ ।

.....

29. He was getting lonely hours until Hari came.  
उसले हरि नआउन्जेलसम्म धेरै घन्टा एकलै महसुस गरिरह्यो ।  
.....
30. They asked him to plough the field.  
तिनीहरुले उसलाई खेत जोत्न भने ।  
.....
31. An old man in jacket is dancing.  
ज्याकेट लगाएको बुढो मान्छे नाचिरहेको छ ।  
.....
32. They had a little rice to eat.  
तिनीहरूसँग खानका लागि थोरै भात थियो ।  
.....
33. Yam is coming.  
यामे आइरहेको छ ।  
.....
34. The young boy is writing.  
त्यो सानो केटो लेखिरहेको छ ।  
.....
35. Mansing found a small red coin.  
मानसिंहले एउटा सानो रातो सिक्का भेट्टायो ।  
.....
36. There was a beautiful small green lawn there.  
त्यहाँ एउटा सानो, राम्रो हरीयो चौर थियो ।  
.....
37. What's that? A big flat black wooden thing.  
त्यो के हो ? ठूलो चेप्टो खैरो वस्तु ।  
.....
38. The black bird is still flying.  
त्यो कालो चरो अझै उडीहरेको छ ।  
.....
39. The people eat rice and chilly.  
ती मानिसहरु भात र खुर्सानी खान्छन् ।  
.....

40. His ideas are very good.  
उसका विचारहरु धेरै राम्रा छन् ।  
.....
41. Hari's friend's brother is coming.  
हरिको साथीको भाई आइरहेको छ ।  
.....
42. They regarded him very honest.  
तिनीहरुले उसलाई धेरै इमान्दार माने ।  
.....
43. They regarded the small boy very honest.  
तिनीहरुले त्यो सानो केटालाई धेरै इमान्दार माने ।  
.....
44. The day before he died was Sunday.  
ऊ खस्नुभन्दा आधिल्लो दिन आइवार थियो ।  
.....
45. I want Aite to be honest.  
म आइलेलाई इमान्दार भएको हेर्न चाहन्छु ।  
.....
46. A girl wearing sari is coming.  
एउटी सारीलगाएकी केटी आउदैछिन् ।  
.....
47. I got the pen lost in the market.  
मैले बजारमा हराएको कलम भेट्टाए ।  
.....
48. A young girl with red sari is coming.  
एउटी तरुनी केटी रातो सारीमा आउदैछिन् ।  
.....
49. I have a small letter to write.  
मलाई एउटा सानो पत्र लेख्नुछ ।  
.....
50. A fatter man than Kancha is coming.  
एउटा कान्छो भन्दा मोटो मानिस आउदैछ ।  
.....

51. One book.

एउटा किताव

.....

52. Few people

थोरै मानिसहरु ।

.....

53. Next week

अर्को हप्ता ।

.....

54. Two boys

दुईजना केटाहरु ।

.....

55. The tree is green.

त्यो रुख हरियो छ ।

.....

56. That pen is good.

त्यो कलम राम्रो छ ।

.....

57. Some people are good here.

यहाँ केही मानिसहरु राम्रा छन् ।

.....

58. All villagers are good.

सबै गाँउलेहरु असल छन् ।

.....

59. What a surprise!

कस्तो अचम्म !

.....

60. Both these books are beautiful.

यी दुवै कितावहरु राम्रा छन् ।

.....

61. All the first students.

सबै प्रथम विद्यार्थीहरु ।

.....

62. Limbus are good.

लिम्बुहरु असल हुन्छन् ।

.....

63. These are my brothers.

यी मेरो दाजु-भाईहरु हुन् ।

.....

64. You eat rice.

तपाईं खाना खानुहुन्छ ?

.....

65. Those two

ती दुई ।

.....

66. My house

मेरो घर ।

.....

67. One/first

एक/प्रथम ।

.....

68. Two/second

दुई/दोस्रो ।

.....

69. Three/third

तीन/तेस्रो ।

.....

70. Four/fourth

चार/चौथो

.....

71. Five/fifth

पाँच/पाँचौ

.....

72. Six/sixth

छ/छैठौ

.....

73. Seven/seventh

सात/सातौ

.....

74. Eight/eighth

आठ/ आठौं

.....

75. Nine/ninth

नौ/ नवौं

.....

76. Ten/tenth

दश /दशौं

.....

77. You, You (two), you (more than two)

तिमी, तिमीहरु, तिमीहरु सबै

.....