CHAPTER ONE
INTRODUCTION

1.1   General Background

Language is a means of human communication through which we express our thoughts, feelings, likes and dislikes etc. Robinson (1972:12) defines language as "a symbol system based on pure or arbitrary convention in finitely extended and modifiable according to changing needs and condition of speakers." Language is a purely human and non instinctive method of communicating ideas, emotions and desires by means of voluntarily produced symbols.

Language is an important gift for human. It is a complex social phenomenon which helps us in establishing relations among the human beings. It is used as a tool for human communication. It is said to be species specific that it is uniquely human.

Besides language, there are other means of communication, used by human being. These other means are not so flexible, comprehensive, perfect and extensive as language. All those are non-vocal-systems and are extremely limited. Finnociaro in this context maintains that "Language is a system of arbitrary vocal symbols which permits all people of that culture to communicate or to interact." (Finnociaro, 1964: cited in Brown, 1994:4)

Language is a very important mode of communication among humans that it is difficult to think of a society without language. It gives shape to the people's thoughts, guides and controls their entire activities. Language has enabled man to establish great civilization on the earth. It is the carrier of civilization and culture as human thoughts and philosophy are conveyed from one generation to other through the medium of language. It is the only strongest means of transmitting our

culture, tradition, custom, literature and arts as well as the whole of our achievements from generation to generation. In a nutshell, language is the marvelous means of communication; the importance of language on human life cannot be exaggerated.

There are varieties of language in the world and English is the most widely used language among them. It is the most prestigious and dominant language. It is the richest language in the world in terms of the functions as well as vocabularies. English has gained the status of international language. It is one of the UN languages. It is a store house of knowledge. Most of the books in the world are written in English. So it is dominant in almost all areas e.g. business, many media, science and technology, diplomacy, language teaching, medicine etc. It has been accepted as the only means to link the people in global perspectives. It is claimed that one in every seven people in the world can speak the English language. It serves as a lingua franca among many speech communities.

However, English has gained the highest coverage in teaching field. It has been used as a medium of instruction as well as the subject of teaching. It is equally important to a developing country like Nepal for the promotion of its present status in terms of economy science and technology as well as modernization process in Nepal. Nepal is a multilingual country. Nepali is the language of the nation. It functions as a lingua franca in Nepal. Rest of the languages spoken in Nepal are called national languages. English has been taught in Nepal as a foreign language. Realizing the importance of English in Nepal, it has been prescribed in the curriculum of schools and colleges. English is taught and learnt as a compulsory subject from 1 to graduate level & optional subject from secondary level to post graduate level. In addition, a number of English medium schools have been established at private sector which are known as boarding schools. English is the medium of

teaching in these schools. Except Nepali and Sanskrit, all the other subjects are taught in English medium.

1.1.1 Linguistic Situation in Nepal

Nepal is a multiracial multicultural and multilingual country. To quote Rai (2003:132). "The country of Nepal is world famous for several reasons. It is not only the fact that Nepal boasts of the highest mountain in the world, but Nepal also exhibits a remarkable wealth of cultures and languages. Right in the streets of Kathmandu the attentive observer can see a variety of contumes as well as near a variety of language spoken by visitors from hills or from the terai. This is Nepali unique heritage and wealth, a reason to be proud."

Nepal has a rich linguistic and cultural heritage. Historically, we belong to rich language families. Even today linguists are discovering new languages in some remote places of the country and probably many more languages are still waiting to be discovered. The census report of 1991 records 60 different ethnic communities and more than 70 languages are spoken in the country.hThe number of languages in Nepal may be greater than recorded in the census report. 'The ethnologue in the language of the world' edited by Grimes (1991) estimates a total of about of 86 languages spoken in Nepal. These language are categorized into four language families namely Tibeto-Burman (about 56 languages) Indo-Aryan (14 languages), Austro-Asiatic, meonda (1 language) and dravidian (1 language). Nepali is the language of the nation. It is most developed language of Nepal. Apart from Nepal very few languages (e.g. Maithali, Newari, Bhojpuri and Limbu etc.) are also known as developed language in Nepal. They have a written literature and other materials such as grammar, dictionary and textbook. However, a vast number of languages which belongs to Tibeto-Burman family as well as

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indo Aryan family have no written form and are on the verge of extinction. They need to be preserved.

1.1.2 Language Family

It is already known that Nepal is a multilingual country. More than seventy languages are spoken as a mother tongue in Nepal. These different languages are included in different language families. Generally, the languages belong to the four broad language families. They are Indo-Aryan, Tibeto-Burman, Dravidian and Astro-Asiatic.

i. Indo-Aryan

Indo-Aryan language is derived from Indo-Iranian family, which is also derived from Indo-European family of language. The languages spoken under Indo-Aryan family are greater in number rather than others. Most of the developed languages of the world like Sanskrit, Hindi, Nepali etc. come under the Indo-Aryan family.

Diagram - 1
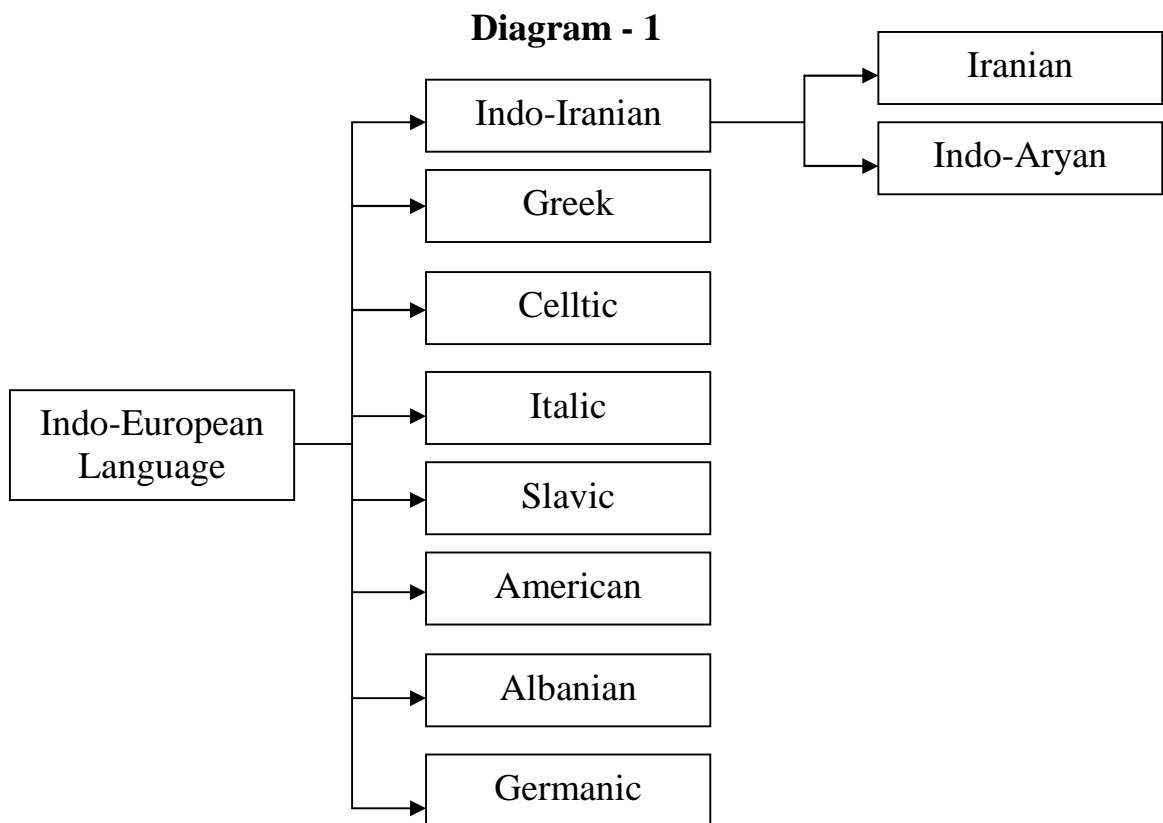
Source: Yadav, 2003: 145.

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Some languages spoken in Nepal of this family are as follows:

Nepali	Hindi
Maithili	Tharu
Magahi	Urdu
Marwadi	Rajbanshi
Majhi	Awadi
Danuwar	Kumal
Chureti	Bangali
Bote	

Source: Gurung, Hark, 2003, Social Demography of Nepal

ii.   Tibeto-Burman

Tibeto-Burman family is originally spoken in high hilly and Himalaya regions. Tibeto-Burman language is derived from Sino-Tibetan languages.

Diagram -2
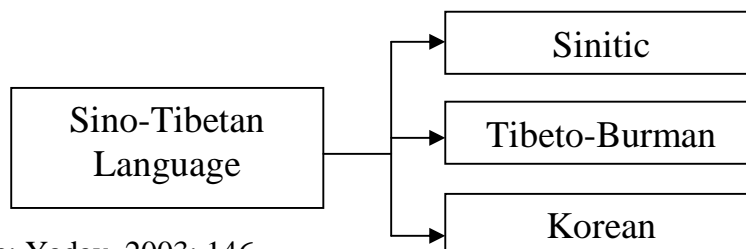
Source: Yadav, 2003: 146.

Languages spoken in Nepal of this family are as follows:

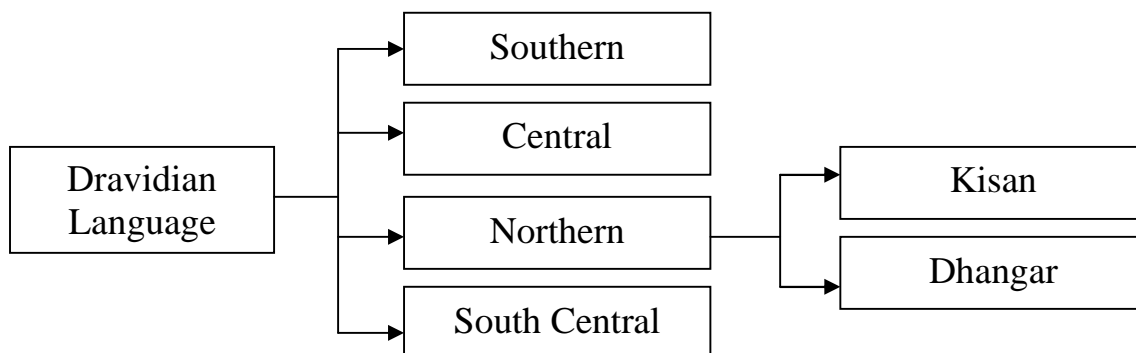|	
Gurung	Newar
Limbu	Chate
Kaike	Thakali
Chamling	Tamang
Chepang	Bahing
Sang Pong	Sunuwar
Hayu (Baya)	

Source: Adhikari, 2004.

iii.   Dravidian

According to population census of 2001, only 'Jhagad' language comes under this family. This language is spoken around the Koshi River in the Eastern region of Nepal.

Diagram - 3

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                    ┌──► Southern
                    │
                    ├──► Central
Dravidian ──────────┤                      ┌──► Kisan
Language            ├──► Northern ──────────┤
                    │                       └──► Dhangar
                    └──► South Central
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Source: Yadav, 2003:

Astro-Asiatic

Satar (Santhali) is the only language which comes under Astro asiatic family. It is spoken in Jhapa district of eastern region of Nepal.

Diagram -4

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                                              ┌──► Kherwari ──► Santhali
                           ┌──► North ────────┤                 munda
                           │                  └──► Other north
Astro-Asiatic ──► Munda ───┤
Language          │        └──► South ──► Koria
                  │
                  └──► Mon-Khmer
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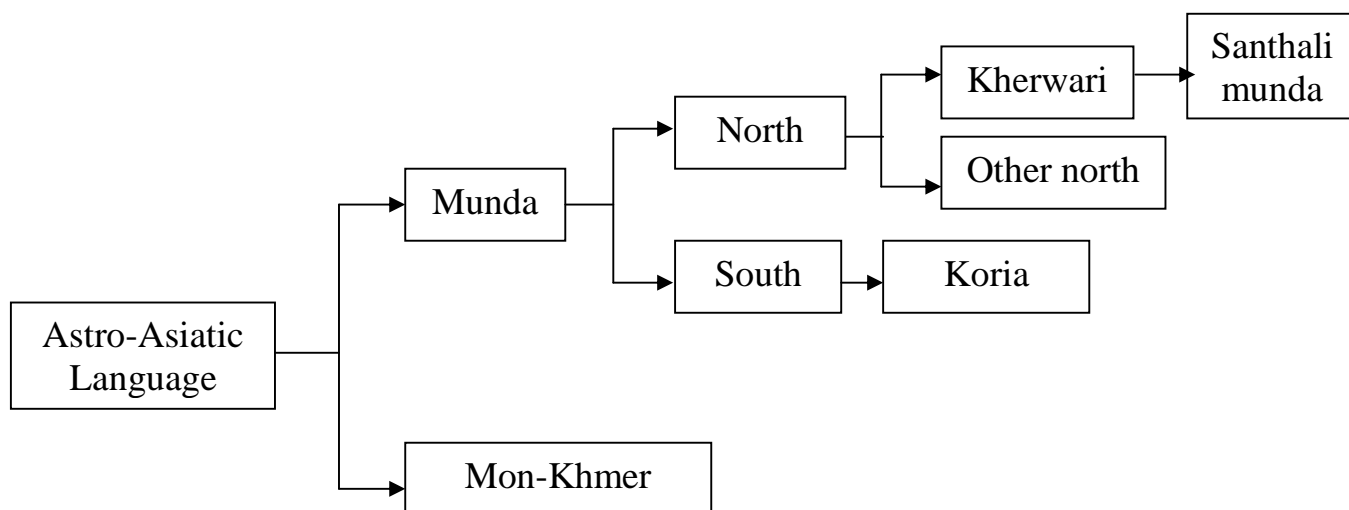
Source: Yadav, 2003: 147

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1.1.3 An Introduction to the Nepali Language

The Nepali language is also called 'Khas language','pahadiya language', and 'parwate language' as well. It belongs to Indo-Aryan branch of the Indo European family that is spoken in all parts of Nepal and many other countries of the world. It is written in Devenagari script.

Different scholars have different opinions about the origin of the Nepali language. It was born from the sanskrit (most advanced language in the past) language. This is the most widely accepted and convincing opinion about the origin of the Nepali language. Mainly 'Khases' are the speaker of Nepali. They can be found in 'Kheber vale', in most of the parts of Nepal and many parts of India as well. These Khases were used to live in different part of India specially in West Himalaya area. They came to Nepal through Tibet long years ago due to the attack of Muslim in India.

'Baj Parichchya' 1000 B.S. is the first documented proof up to now about the origin of the Nepali language. In the beginning, Nepali was used by Khas people only but gradually it was adopted as a royal language of Nepal. After the integration of big Nepal, Nepali was established as the language of the nation. Nepali was also extended to many other countries by the migrated people from Nepal. Besides this, many literary texts, articles, books etc. were started to be published in Nepali after 1000 B.S. as a result it became popular. Not only this, it got its popularilty and advanced development by the development of different social subjects in Nepali like astrology, medical science, policy, religion and legend etc.

Nepali serves as lingua franca among different speech communities in Nepali 50.3% of total population speak Nepali as a mother tongue in Nepal. And 93% people speak Nepali as a lingua franca. It is the most developed language of Nepal. It has dominat role in Nepal so it has been adopted as a official language as well.

1.1.4 An Introduction to Transformation

Chomsky (1957 as quated in Yadav 2001:81) has used the term transformation in his linguistic theory 'Transformational Generative Grammar' (TG Grammar) which means transforming deep structure of a sentence into surface structure. Transformational Generative Grammar contains a finite number of transformational which generate (i.e. Specify how to form, interpret and pronounce) the infinite number of all the only grammatical sentences in the language.

Transformation is a part of functional grammar. The sentences derived fromt he transformation rules tend to serve communicative puposes. When transformational rules operated on a string they can perform the following functions:

i.   Addition, e.g. The man is happy.

  ⌡ The man is not happy.

ii.   Deletion, e.g. Harry is eager to please someone.

  ⌡ Harry is eager to please.

iii.   Substitution, e.g. It is easy to please Harry.

  ⌡ Harry is easy to please.

iv.   Permutation, e.g. I gave a book to the boy.

  ⌡ I gave the boy a book.

1.1.5 An Introduction to Passivization

The construction of grammar comprises the three levels of language namely phonology, syntax and semantics. Passivization lies in syntax. Syntax consists of transformation which has passivization, negation, interrogation and narration. The word 'passivization' in English is derived from the form 'passive'. In the field of grammar, the form passive has a unique meaning and called passive voice. The synonymy of passivization is the passive transformation. It is an item that is directly relevant to linguistics. Passivization, therefore, is a section of grammar and linguistic theory. Passivization is a feature of syntax. It is really a process of changing an active sentence into a passive one and vice-versa. Passivization is a linguistic process that transforms the active sentence into passive where the subject of the sentence is most often the agent or doer of the action of the verb into the passive one where the receiver or undergoer of action (denoted by the verb) is placed at the subject position. Passivization is regarded as a linguistic process to transform an active voice structure into passive voice structure. The process of passivization may differ for language to language. In this regard, English has two types of voice. They are as follows:

i. **Active voice:** When the doer of verb is the subject of a sentence, the verb is in the active voice. In active voice there is dominance of the agent or doer. For example, I love you.

ii. **Passive voice:** When the object of the action of the verb is the subject of a sentence, the verb is in the passive voice. For example, You are loved by me.

In English, only four types of sentences, out of five, can be transformed into passive voice. Exclamatory sentences cannot be passivized in English. English sentences, having transitive verbs have potentiality to be changed in passive. Examples are as follows:

I.   Assertive Sentence

      I love You.

      ~ You are loved by me.

II.   Interrogative Sentence

      Has he kicked the ball?

      ~ Has the ball been kicked by him.

      Where did he buy the bike?

      ~ Where was the bike bought by him?

III. Imperative Sentence

      Kick the ball.

      ~ Let the ball be kicked.

IV.   Optative Sentence

      May God protect our children from all sorts of evil forces!

      ~ May our children be protected from all sorts of evil forces!

The syntactic relationships between these two sets of sentences (i.e. active and passive) which are mentioned in above numbers, can be noted in the following rules.

a.   Addition of BE ... EN i.e. the auxiliary verb BE + the passive (past participle) in the passive sentences.

b.   Inversion of nouns signifying the agent and object position in the sentence.

c.   When pronominal agents occur, the case of the pronoun changes from subject to object.

d.   Insertion of the preposition 'by' (but optional) before the agent in the passive form.

1.1.6 An Introduction of Contrastive Analysis

Contrastive analysis is one of the branchs of 'Applied Linguistics' which simply means a systematic analysis of similarities and differences between languages. Contrastive analysis is the comparison of the linguistic systems of two languages. James (1980) defines contrastive analysis as "A linguistic enterprises aimed at producing inverted (i.e. contrastive and comparative) two valued typologies (CA is always concerned with a pair of languages) and founded on the assumption that language can be compared." It can be inferred that languages are comparable and contrastive analysis is the comparison of two linguistic systems which can be any one of phonology, morphology and syntax.

Trager (1996, as quitted in http://www.grin.com/en/preview/ 45315/html) defines the idea of contrastive analysis as follows: "... the change that has to taken place in the language behaviour of a foreign language student can be equated with the difference between the structure of the student's native language and culture and that of the target language and culture". The above mentioned definition makes clear that one can learn a language more easily if s/he is exposed to the language and culture similar to his/her native language. So, the change in linguistic behaviour of a person is due to the similarities of two language i.e. native and foreign language.

Contrastive analysis is useful mainly for the pedagogical purpose and it may be divided into two. The first is known as interlingual comparison in which the comparison may be between two separate languages. The second is known as intralingual comparison in which

one can compare dialectal differences that occur within the same language.

Tragen further adds, contrastive analysis gives a complete description of the areas of difficulty for learners of a second language. It works as a facilitator providing detail description of a second language. A student can make himself or herself aware of the difficulties found in the second language and can apply the caution theory.

Thus, the Significance of contrastive analysis cannot be underestimated.

1.2   Review of Related Literature

The researcher studied various kinds of books in order to accomplish his research entitled 'Passivization in English and Nepali'. Except books written about the Nepali language, he studied and consulted many thesis carried out under the Department of English Education. The research works which have been carried out in the related field of this study are as follows:

Giri (1982) has carried out a research work entitled "English and Nepali Kinship term: A Comparative Linguistic Study." She wanted to determine the English and Nepali kinship terms used for to refer to various relatives and to find out their corresponding addressive forms and then to compare and contrast the terms. She found out the similarities and differences between the two systems that are equivalent than rather different and not existing between those languages.

Sah (2000) carried out a comparative study of subject-verb agreement in the English and Maithili languages. He found that in English subject-verb agreement is determined with the agreement of

number between subject and verb but in Maithili subject-verb agreement is determined by the inflectional affixes not only with the subjects but with objects also.

Mahato (2001) carried a research entitled "A Comparative Study of the Subject Verb agreement in the English and Tharu Languages." The main objective of the study was to identify the S-V agreement system of the Tharu language and to compare the same with that of the English. He found that in English the second and third person pronoun don't be changed for honorific forms which as they do in the Tharu.

Mukhiya (2001) carried out a research study entitled "Passivization in English and Maithili: A Comparative Study." The objectives of his research were to find out the contrastive analysis of passivization in English and Maithili. He found that passivization system between Maithili and English is different in almost all grammatical aspects.

Patel (2005) completed the dissertation on "Passivization in English and Bajjika: A Comparative Linguistic Study". He pointed out the processes of passivization in the Bajjika language. He also states that intransitive verbs can be passivized in the Bajjika language. He enlisted some similarities and differences between these two languages, which are important from linguistic point of view in learning English to Bajjika native speakers. He also stressed that similarity is remarkable than difference.

There are some comparative studies carried out in the Department of English Education under faculty of Education. However, the present study is different as no study has been carried out yet in passivization in the English and Nepali languages comparatively. Thus, it is a new venture in itself.

1.3 Objectives of the Study

The objectives of the study are as follows.

a. To determine the Nepali passivization.

b. To compare the passivization system in the English and Nepali language.

c. To suggest some pedagogical implication of the findings of the study.

1.4 Significance of the Study

The study is expected to be significant to all those who are interested in the study of the Nepali and English languages. It will be significant mainly for Nepali speaking students who learn English and the teachers who teach them English. And, it will also be helpful for the people like teachers, course designers, textbook writers, etc. related to the Nepali and English language.

1.5. Definition of the Specific Terms

Active voice: A term used in the grammatical analysis of voice, referring to a sentence, clause, or verb form where, from a semantic point of view, the grammatical is typically the actor, in relation to the verb. e.g. The boy wrote a letter. It is contrasted with passive (Richards, et al., 1985).

Passive voice: A term used in the grammatical analysis of voice, referring to a sentence, clause or verb form where the grammatical subject is typically the 'recipient' or goal of the action devoted by the verb, e.g. The letter was written by a boy. It is contrasted with active (Richard, et al., 1985).

Passivization: Passivization is a grammatical process which is used for expressing the action done to the subject indicating that the apparent subject of a verb is the person or thing undergoing, not performing (Encarta World English Dictionary, 1999).

Comparative: Comparative is a term used to characterize a major branch of linguistic in which the primary concern is to make statements comparing the characteristics of different languages or different varieties of the same language or different historical states of a language.

Insertion: Insertion is a basic syntactic operation within the framework of transformational grammar which introduces (inserts) a new structural element into a string.

Deletion: Deletion is a basic syntactic operation within the framework of transformational grammar which eliminates a constituent from the existing string.

Aspect: A grammatical category, which deals with how the event described by a verb is viewed.

Accusative case: The form of a noun or noun phrase which shows that it functions as the direct object of the verb in a sentence.

Dative case: The form of a noun or noun phrase which usually shows that the nouns or noun phrase functions as the indirect object of a verb.

Objective case: The form of a noun or noun phrase which usually shows that noun or noun phrase functions as an object. Object is the role of things which are affected by the verb.

Goal case: The form of a noun or noun phrase which usually shows the direction to which something moves.

CHAPTER TWO
METHODOLOGY

The present study is an attempt to compare the passivization system between English and Nepali and to suggest some pedagogical values as well. This section, in general deals with the methodology adopted for achieving the objectives of the study. The methodology adopted for achieving the objectives in this study was as follows:

2.1   Sources of Data

In order to carry out this research, the researcher collected data from both primary and secondary sources.The sources of data have been described below.

2.1.1 Primary Sources of Data

The secondary level students of Rupendehi district who have Nepali as a mother tongue were the primary sources of data.

2.1.2 Secondary Sources of Data

Various types of books, text books, and dictionaries etc. were the secondary sources of data. Books written in the Nepali language e.g. Sama Samayik Nepali Byakaran(1999) by Adhikari, Ramro Rachana Mitho Nepali(1980) by Parajuli, Nepali Bachya Byakaran(1998) by Pokhrel, Bhasa Biggyan(2003) by Yadav and Regmi, Madhyamik Nepali Byakaran Avibyakti ra Abhyas(2001) by Baral were consulted during the research period. Similarly, the grammar book by Celce Murcia and Larsen-Freeman, (1999) and; A University Grammar of English by Quirk et al. (1985) were also consulted.

2.2   Sample of the Study

Total sample of this study was 100 students of five different secondary schools of Rupendehi district who have Nepali as a mother tongue.

2.3   Sampling Procedure

The total sample for the study was hundred secondary level students of Rupendehi district who have Nepali as a mother tongue. The researcher selected five different secondary schools for his study. He selected twenty students from each five schools and they were selected randomly.

Table-1: Total Sample Population of the Study

Schools	Sex		Total
	Male	Female	
1. Suryapura Sec. School	10	10	20
2. Hasanpur Sec. School	10	10	20
3. New Vision Sec. School	10	10	20
4. Ganesh Public School	10	10	20
5. Parroha Sec. School	10	10	20
Grand Total			100

2.4   Research Tools

The researcher used a set of questionnaire to elicite primary data. (See appendix no. V)

2.5   Process of Data Collection

The researcher visited the selected district (Rupandehi). He selected the different five secondary schools for his study. He met the students and made them clear about the study.He administered the questionnaires and collected the information. The questionnaires had been prepared both in the English and Nepali language. The researcher used the Nepali language (the researcher is a fluent native speaker of Nepali language) to speak with the respondents.

2.6   Limitations of the Study

This study had the following limitations:

a.   The number of sample population was hundred only.

b.   The area of the study was only five secondary schools of Rupandehi district only.

c.   This study was limited to the study of passivization of the Nepali language.

d.   The information on passivization was taken from secondary sources as well as primary sources.

e.   The study was limited to assertive sentences only.

CHAPTER THREE
ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION

This chapter deals with the analysis and interpretation of the collected data in detail. First, the passivization systems in Nepali have been analyzed. Secondly, the rules of passivization of Nepali have been listed out. Thirdly, the rules and sentence structure in passive has been compared between English and Nepali. Lastly, similarities and differences between English and Nepali have been presented.

The analysis and interpretation of the data has been presented descriptively and comparatively.

3.1   Passivization in the Nepali Language

Passivization in the Nepali language on the basis of the primary data elicited from hundred secondary level students of Rupandehi district as well as secondary data collected from different books of Nepali grammar has been presented in the following pages.

3.1.1 Passivization in Nepali in General

General rules to passivize an active sentence in the Nepali language which are applicable to all kinds of sentences are presented below.

I.a.   Ma bha:t kha:n-chu.   ACT

      I (sg-1NH) rice (UN-3NH) eat - PRES (sg-1NH)

      I eat rice.   ACT

      ~ Ma-dwa:ra: bha:t kha:-in-cha   Pass

      I (sg-1NH)-OC - by rice (UN-3NH) eat - PA-PRES (UN-3NH)

      ~ Rice is eaten by me.   Pass

b.   Ramesh phutbal khel-cha   ACT

Ramesh (sg-3NH) football (sg-3NH) play - PRES (sg-3NH)

Ramesh plays football.   ACT

~ Ramesh-dwa:ra: phutbal khel-in-cha   Pass

Ramesh (sg=3NH) - by football (sg-3NH) khel - PA- Pres (sg-3NH)

In the example no. a the noun phrases like Ma (as subject) and bhat (as object) have not changed their previous positions of active voice while changing them into passive. Similarly, in the example no. b the noun phrases like Ramesh (as subject) and vakundo (as object) have not changed their previous positions. Therefore, it is found that the syntactic position of noun phrases as subject and object remain intact in Nepali while changing active sentence into passive ones.

II.a.   Ma bha:t kha:n-chu.   ACT

I (sg-1NH) rice (UN-3NH) eat - PRES (sg-1NH)

I eat rice.   ACT

~ Ma-dwa:ra: bha:t kha:-in-cha   Pass

I (sg-1NH)-OC - by rice (UN-3NH) eat - PA-PRES (UN-3NH)

~ Rice is eaten by me.   Pass

b.   Ramesh phutbal khel-cha   ACT

Ramesh (sg-3NH) football (sg-3NH) play - PRES (sg-3NH)

Ramesh plays football.   ACT

~ Ramesh-dwa:ra phutbal khel-in-cha   Pass

Ramesh (sg=3NH) - by football (sg-3NH) khel - PA- Pres (sg-3NH)

~ football is played by Ramesh.   Pass

In the example no. a, the root verb kha (eat) has been followed by auxiliary verb cha (be) while changing active voice into passive voice. Similarly, in the above example no. b the root verb 'khel' (play) has been followed by auxiliary verb cha (be) while changing active voice into passive. Therefore, it is found that the structure of the verb phrase is root + aux (be) in passive voice.

III.a. Hami-le euta: geet suneyau   ACT

    We (pl-1NH) one (a) song (sg-3NH) listen-past (pl-1NH)

    WE listened a song.   ACT

    ~ Hami-dwa:ra: euta geet (DAT) sun-i-yo: Pass

    We (pl-1NH)-OC-by a song (sg-3NH) listen-PA-Past (sg-3NH)

    ~ A song is listened by us.   Pass

b. Us-le khet zo:-t-cha   ACT

    He (sg-3NH) the field (UN-3NH) plough-PRES (sg-3NH)

    He ploughs the field.   ACT

    ~ U-dwa:ra: khet zo:t-in-cha   Pass

    He (sg-3NH)-OC-by the field (UN-3NH) plough-PA-PRES (UN-3NH)

    ~ The field is ploughed by him.   Pass

In the examples no. a and b the new 'word' dwara has been added after the subject as a case marker while changing them into passive. Therefore it is found that the case marker dwara (by) is added right after the subject while changing active voice into passive.

3.2.2 Passivization of Assertive Sentence

I.a. Ram-le Hari-la:i kalam di-yo: ACT

Ram (sg-3NH) Hari (sg-3NH) - OC a pen (sg-3NH) ACC give-Past (sg-3NH)

Ram gave Hari a pen.   ACT

~ Ram-dwa:ra: Hari-la:i kalam d-i:i:yo: Pass

Ram (sg-3NH) - by Hari (sg-3NH)-OC a letter (sg-3NH)-ACC give-PA-Past (sg-3NH)

~ Hari was given a pen by Ram   Pass -1

~ A pen was given to Hari by Ram   Pass -2

In the example there are two objects Hari (as indirect) and Kamal (as direct).And there is only one passive construction. Therefore it is found that in Nepali there is only one way to passivize the active sentence having ditransitive verb.

II. a.   Timi: kabita: lekh-chau   ACT

You (sg-2H) poem (sg-3NH)-OC-write-PRES (sg-2H)

You write poem.   ACT

~ Timi:-dwa:ra: kabita: lekh-in-cha   Pass

You (sg-2H) -OC-by poem (sg-3NH) write-PA-PRES (sg-3NH)

~ Poem is written by you.   Pass

b.   Ma ha:-se   ACT

I (sg-1NH) laugh-past-(sg-1NH)

I laugh.   ACT

~ Ma-dwa:ra: ha:-si:-yo: Pass

~It is laughed by me.*

In the example no. a transitive verb lekhnu (write) has been used in active sentence.And it has been passivised. Similarly, in the example no. b intransitive verb 'hasnu' (laugh) has been used in active sentence.And it has also been passivised. Therefore, it is found that in

Nepali both types of verbs, transitive and intransitive are passivized. If the verb is transive in active voice, its passive construction is called karma bachya (passive voice). If the verb is intransitive in active voice, its passive construction is called bhawa bachya (passive voice).

III.   Ha:mi sazi-la-ri sute-yau.   ACT

        We (pl-1NH) easily sleep-Past-(pl-1NH)

        We slept easily.   Pass

        ~ Sazi-la-ri: suti:-yo: Pass

        We (pl-1NH) - OC-by sleep -PA-Past (pl-1NH)

        ~ It was slept easily by us.*

In the example, the subject hami (we) of active voice has been deleted in its passive voice. Therefore, it is found that sometimes the subject of active voice is deleted in passive voice.

IV. a. Kisa:n haru mela: mai kha:za: khan-chan   ACT

        The farmers (pl-3NH) field in snacks (UN-3NH) eat-PRES (pl-3NH)

        The farmers eat snacks on field.   ACT

        ~ Kisa:n haru Ba:ta khet mai kha:za: kha:-in-cha   Pass

        The farmers (pl-3NH)-OC-by field on snacks (UN-3NH) eat-PA-
         PRES (UN-3NH)

        Snacks is eaten on field by the farmers.   Pass

In the example, the passive marker (dwara) of passive voice has been replaced by another case marker 'bata'(by).Therefore, it is found that sometimes the PM dwara is replaced by bata while changing active voice into passive.

V.a. Mai-le sun-ta-la: kha:e   ACT

I (sg-1NH) orange (sg-3NH) eat-Past-(sg-1NH)

I ate orange.   ACT

~ Ma-dwa:ra: suntala: kha:-i-yo: Pass

I (sg-1NH)-OC-by orange (sg-3NH) eat-PA-PAST (sg-3NH)

~ Orange was eaten by me.   Pass

b.   Mai-le suntala:-haru kha:e

I (sg-1NH) orange (pl-3NH) eat-Past-(sg-3NH)

I ate oranges.

~ Ma-dwa:ra: suntala:-haru kha-i-e:

I (sg-1NH)-OC-by orange (pl-3NH) eat-PA-PAST (pl-3NH)

~ Oranges were eaten by me.

In the examples a and b, the objects suntala (orange) and suntala haru (oranges) of active sentences are singular and plural respectively. The verb forms of both passive sentences are different. Therefore, it is found that the verb forms of passive construction are affected according to the number of objects used in sentences.

c.   Mai-le timi:-lai kute   ACT

I (sg-3NH) you (sg-2H) DAT beat - Past (sg-1NH)

I beat you.   ACT

~ Ma-dwa:ra: timi: kuti-yau   Pass

I (sg-1NH) -OC-by you (sg-2H) DAT beat -PA-PAST (sg-2H)

~ You were beaten by me.   Pass

d.   Mai-le Us-lai kute   ACT

I (sg-3NH) him (sg-3NH) DAT beat - Past (sg-1NH)

I beat him.   ACT

~ Ma-dwa:ra: u kut-i-yo: Pass

I (sg-1NH) -OC-by him (sg-3NH) DAT beat -PA-PAST (sg-3NH)

~ He was beaten by me.   Pass

In the examples c and d the objects timi (you) and us (him) are second person and third person pronouns respectively. The verb forms of passive voices have been affected by them. Therefore, it is found that the verb forms of passive construction are affected by the persons of objects used in sentences.

e.   Mai-le Us-lai kute   ACT

    I (sg-1NH) him (sg-3NH) DAT beat - Past (sg-2NH)

    I beat him.   ACT

    ~ Ma-dwa:ra: u(sg-3NH) kut-i-yo: Pass

    I (sg-1NH) -OC-by him (sg-3NH) DAT beat -PA-PAST (sg-3NH)

    ~ He was beaten by me.   Pass

f.   Mai-le U-ha:-lai kute   ACT

    I (sg-1NH) him (sg-3NH) DAT beat - Past (sg-1NH)

    I beat him.   ACT

    ~ Ma-dwa:ra: uha: kut-inu-bhayo: Pass

    I (sg-1NH) -OC-by him (sg-3NH) DAT beat -PA-PAST (sg-3NH)

    ~ He was beaten by me.   Pass

In the examples e and f, the objects us (him) and uha (him) are nonhorific and honorific forms of pronoun respectively. The verb forms of passive constructions have been affected by their use. Therefore, it is found that the honorific forms of objects affect the verb forms of passive constructions.

g.	Ram-le shyam-lai kut-cha	ACT

Ram (sg-3NH) Shyam (sg-3NH)M DAT beat -PRES - (sg-3NH)

Ram beats to Shyam.	ACT

~ Ram-dwa:ra: shyam kut-in-cha.	Pass

Ram (sg-3NH) by Shyam (sg-3NH) beat-PA-PRES (sg-3NH)

~ Shyam is beaten by Ram.	Pass

h.	Ram-le sita-lai kut-cha	ACT

Ram(sg-3NH) Sita(sg-3NH)F DAT beat-press-(sg-3NH)

Ram beats to sita.	ACT

~Ram dwara sita kut-in che	Pass

Ram(sg-3NH) by Sita(sg-3NH)F beat- PA – press(sg-3NH)

~Sita is beaten by Ram.	Pass

In the examples g and h, the objects Shyam and Sita are male and female respectively. The verb forms of passive constructions have been affected by their use. Therefore, it is found that the verb form of passive construction are affected by the gender used in sentences.

## 3.3	Comparison of Nepali Passivization with those in English
3.3.1 Comparison of the Passivization of Assertive Sentence between English and Nepali

I.	Simple assertive sentence

a.	Ma bhakundo: khelchu	ACT

I (sg-1NH) football (sg-3NH) play-PRES-(1sg-1NH)

I play football.	ACT

~ Ma-dwara bhakundo: khel-in-cha	Pass

I(sg-1NH)-OC-by football (sg-3NH) play-PA-PRES (sg-1NH)

~ football is played by me.	Pass

b. Kisa:n khet zo:t cha   ACT

The farmer (sg-3NH) field (UN-3NH) plough-PRES (sg-3NH)

The farmer ploughs the field.   ACT

~ Kisa:n-dwara khet zo:t-in-cha   Pass

The farmer (sg-3NH)-OC-by the field (UN-3NH) plough-PA-
PRES (sg-3NH)

~ The field is ploughed by the farmer.   Pass

c. Timi: euta: cithi: lekh-dai-chau   ACT

U (sg-2H) one (a) letter (sg-3NH) write-prog-are (sg-2H)

You are writing a letter.   ACT

~ Timi:-dwara euta: cithi: lekhi-dai-cha   Pass

You (sg-2H)-OC-by a letter (sg-3NH) write-PA-PROG-are (sg-
2H)

~A letter is being written by you.   Pass

In the examples a, b and c, simple assestive sentences have been used and those sentences have been passivised. So, it is found that simple assertive sentences can be passivised in both English and Nepali.

II. Assertive sentence with modal auxiliary

a. U: yo: ka:m garna sak-cha   ACT

He (sg-3NH) this work (sg-3NH) do-can (sg-3NH)

He can do this work.   ACT

~ U:-dwara yo: ka:m garna sak-in-cha   Pass

He (sg-3NH) -OC-by this work (sg-3NH) do-can-PA- (sg-3NH)

~ This work can be done by him.   Pass

b. Us-le rak-si: kha:eko: hunu-par-cha   ACT

He (sg-3NH) wine (UN-3NH) drink-PERF-may- (sg-3NH)

He may have drunk wine.   ACT

~ Us-dwa:ra: raksi: kha:-i-eko: hunu:parcha   Pass

He (sg-3NH)-OC-by wine (UN-3NH) drink-PERF-may-PA- (sg-3NH)

~ Wine may have been drunk by him.   Pass

In the examples a and b, modal auxiliary verbs like 'garna sakcha' (can do) and 'kha:eko: hunu parc-cha' (may have drunk) have been passivized. So it is found that assertive sentences with modal auxiliary verbs can be passivized in both English and Nepali.

III.	Assertive sentence with the deletion of agent	Pass
a.	Kasai-le mero: kita:b co:r-yo:	ACT
	somebody (sg-3NH) my book (sg-3NH) steal-Past-(sg-3NH)	
	Somebody stole my book.	ACT
	~ mero: kita:b co:ri-yo	Pass
	My book (sg-3NH) steal-PA-Past (-3NH)	
	~ My book was stolen.	ACT
b.	Ma:nis-haru timi-lai neta: cu:-ne	ACT
	People (pl-3NH) you a leader (sg-3H) elect-PAST-(-3NH)	
	People elected you a leader.	ACT
	~ timi neta: cu-ni-yau	Pass
	You (sg-2H)-OC a leader (sg-3H) elect-PA-PAST- (3NH)	
	~ You were elected a leader.	Pass

In the examples a and b, there are no definite doer (agent) but those sentences have been passivized. So, it is found that the assertive sentences with the deletion of agent can be passivized in both English and Nepali.

IV.   Assertive sentence with intransitive verb

a.   Rames Ha:syo: ACT

Ramesh (sg-3NH) laugh-PAST-(3NH)

Ramesh laughed.   ACT

~Ramesh-dwa:ra: Ha:si-yo: Pass

Ramesh (sg-3NH)-by laugh-PA-PAST (-3NH)

~ It is laughed by Ramesh*

In the example a intransitive verb like 'ha:syo:' (laughed) has been used and it has been passived in Nepali. So it is found that the assertive sentences with intransitive verbs can be passivised in Nepali whereas those sentences cannot be passivized in English.

V.   Assertive with ditransitive

a.   Ram-le Hari-lai euta: kalam din-cha   ACT

Ram (sg-3NH) NC - Hari (sg-3NH) OC- one (a) pen (sg-3NH) give - PRES - (3NH)

Ram gives Hari a pen.   ACT

~ Ram-dwa:ra: Hari-lai euta kalam di-in-cha Pass

Ram (sg-3NH) - by Hari (sg-3NH) - OC a pen (sg-3NH) give-PA-PRES- (3NH)

~ Hari is given a pen by Ram.   Pass -1

~ A Pen is given to Hari by Ram.   Pass -2

In the example a ditransitive verb 'din-cha' (give) has been used and it has been passivized only one may in Nepali whereas it can be passivized into two ways in English. So, it is found that the assertive sentence with ditransitive verbs have only one passive construction whereas English active sentences with ditransitive verb have two types of passive construction.

VI   Assertive sentence with imporsonal subject in passive form.

a.   Ma:nis-haru bhan-chan-ki dudh ma:su bhanda: ra:mro: hun-cha

People (Pl-3NH) say-PRES that milk (UN-3NH) meat (UN-3NH) than better be-PRES- (sg-3NH)

People say that milk is better than meat.

~ dudh ma:su bhanda ra:mro: bha-ni-in-cha

Milk (UN-3NH) meat (UN-3NH) than better-be-PA-PRES-(sg-3NH)

~ It is said that milk is better than meat.

In the example a, imporsonal subject like 'Ma:nis haru' (people) has been used and it has been passivized in both English and Nepali. So, it is found that the assertive sentences with impersonal subject can be passivized in both English and Nepali.

3.3.2 Non Changeable Conditions of Voice in Nepali

There are some conditions in Nepali in which active voice cannot be changed into passive.

1.a.   Hari asal thiyo: (Hari was good)   ACT

~ Hari-dwa:ra: asal thi-i-yo.*

b.   Timi da:ktar chau (You are a doctor)   ACT

~ Timi-dwa:ra: daktar va-in-cha.*

c.   Pa:ni: ta:to: cha (The water is hot)   ACT

~ Pa:ni:-dwa:ra: ta:to: va-in-cha.*

d.   Nepal euta: desh ho: (Nepal is a country)   ACT

~ Nepal-dwa:ra: euta desh ho:-in-cha.*

In the examples a, b, c and d the auxiliary verbs like thiyo (was), chau (are), cha (is), and ho (is) could not have been passivized. Therefore, it is foud that if the auxiliary verbs like cha (is), ho (is), thiyo (was) function as the main verb in a sentence, that sentence cannot be passivised. In other words, if an auxiliary verb functions as the main verb in an active sentence that cannot be passivized in Nepali.

2.a.   Pahiro: za:n-cha (It goes landslides).   ACT

   ~ Pahiro:-dwa:ra: ga-in-cha.*

b.   Sharirama: pasi:na: ayo: (The sweat came on the body.) ACT

   ~ Sharir-dwa:ra: pasi:na a-in-cha.*

c.   Biruwa: suk-cha. (Plant dries.)   ACT

   ~ Biruwa:-dwa:ra: suk-in-cha.*

d.   Malai kita:b ramro: la:g-cha. (I like book).   ACT

   ~ Ma-dwa:ra kita:b ramro la:-gin-cha.*

e.   Pa:ni: par-yo: (It rained.)   ACT

   ~ Pa:ni:-dwa:ra: par-i-yo.*

f.   Mero: tauko: dukh-yo. (My head got pain.)   ACT

   ~ Mero: tauko:-dwa:ra: dukh-i-yo.*

The active sentence of the examples a, b, c, d, e, f, have not been changed into passive. So it is found that above types of sentences cannot be passivized in Nepali.

3.a.   Ha:tti: thu:lo: hun-cha. (An elephant is big.)   ACT

   ~ Ha:tti:-dwa:ra: thu:lo: va-in-cha.*

b.   A:su nunilo: hun-cha. (The tear is salty.)   ACT

   ~ A:su-dwa:ra: nunilo: va-in-cha.*

c.   Hi-u-da-ma: za:do: hun-cha. (It is cold in winter.)   ACT

~ Hi-u-d-dwa:ra: za:do: va-in-cha.*

d.   Mela:-ma: rama:-i-lo: hun-cha. (It is pleasure in fair.)   ACT

~ Mela:-dwa:ra: rama:-i-lo: va-in-cha.*

e.   Ba:dar-haru cak-cake hun-chan. (Monkeys are restless)   ACT

~ Ba:dar-haru-dwa:ra: cak-cake va-in-cha.*

The active sentences of examples a, b, c, d and e have not been passived. So it is found that the verbs which come along with qualitative adjective cannot be passivized in Nepali.

4.a.   U bha:t kha:-dai-hu-ne-cha.(He will be eating rice.)   ACT

~ U-dwa:ra: bha:t kha:i-dai hu-i-ne-cha.*

The active sentence of above example a have not been passivized. So it found that future continuous tense cannot be passivized in Nepali.

3.4   Similarities and Differences between English and Nepali Passivization System
3.4.1 Similarities in English and Nepali

The basic structure in English is S+V+O whereas Nepali has S+O+V pattern as basic structure. Similarly, there are differences in passive forms as well. The word order and passive form in English and Nepali are quite different, however, they share some common features of language to some extent. They are as follows:

1.a.   English

I love you.   ACT

~ you are loved by me   Pass

Nepali

Ma tim-lai ma:ya: garchu.	ACT
~ Ma-dwa:ra: timi: ma:ya: gar-in-chau.	Pass

The assertive active sentence of the above examples no.a have been changed into passive. So it is found that assertive sentence can be passivizedboth in English and Nepali.

b.   English

Does Hari eat rice?	ACT
~ Is rice eaten by Hari?	Pass

Nepali

Ke hari-le bha:t kha:n-cha?	ACT
~ Ke hari-dwa:ra: bha:t kha:-in-cha?	Pass

The interrogative active sentence of the example b has been changed into passive.So it is found that interrogative sentence can be passivized in both English and Nepali.

c.   English

Kick the ball.	ACT
~ Let the ball be kicked.	Pass

Nepali

Bhakundo-lai hana	ACT
~ Bhakundo-lai hani: yo:s	Pass

The imperative active sentences of example c has been change into passive. So it is found that imperative sentence can be passivized in both English and Nepali.

2.a. English

You compose poems.   ACT

~ Poems are composed by you.   Pass

Nepali

Timi: kabita: lekh-chau   ACT

~ Timi:-dwa:ra: kabita lekh-in-cha   Pass

b.   English

Ram gave Hari a pen.   ACT

~ Hari was given a pen by Ram.   Pass

~ A pen was given to Hari by Ram.   Pass

Nepali

Ram-le Hari-lai euta kalam diyo.   ACT

~ Ram-dwa:ra: Hari-lai euta kalam di-i-yo: Pass

The active sentences of the examples no. a and b have the mono transitive verb and ditrantisive verbs respectively. They have been passived.So it is found that the active sentence with mono and ditransitive verb can be passivized in both English and Nepali.

3.   English

You kicked the ball.   ACT

~ The ball was kicked by you.   Pass

Nepali

Timi-le bhakundo: ha:neu   ACT

~Timi:-dwa:ra: bhakundo: ha:n-i-yo: Pass

On the active sentences of the above example no.a   new words, by in Enghlish and dwara in Nepali have been added while changing

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into passive .So it is found that in passive constructions,the subject of active sentence take an extra word both in Enghlish and Nepali.

4.a.   Eghlish

Somebody stole my book.   ACT

~ My book was stolen.   Pass

Nepali

Kasai-le mero: kita:b co:r-yo: ACT

~ Mero: kita:b co:r-i-yo:.   Pass

In the example a, the passive marker word 'by' in English and 'dwara' in Nepali have been deleted. So it is found that sometimes the passive marker word can be deleted in passive voice both in English and Nepali.

5.a.   English

He will be eating rice.   ACT

~ Rice will be being eaten by him.*   Pass

Nepali

U bhat kha-dai hune-cha.   ACT

~ U dwara bhat kha-i:dai hui: ne-cha.*   Pass

The active sentence of future continious tense of above examples could not have been changed into passive. So it is found that future continuous tense cannot be passivized in both English and Nepali.

6.a.   English

I ate an orange.   ACT

~An orange was eaten by me.   Pass

I ate oranges.   ACT

~ Oranges were eaten by me.	Pass

b.   Nepali

Mai le suntala kha e.	ACT
~ Ma dwara suntala kha i: yo:	Pass
Mai le suntala haru kha e	ACT
~Ma dwara suntala haru kha i: e	Pass

In the active sentences of the examples no.a and b, the objects are singular and plural respectively. The passive constructions of are different due to number of object used in sentences.So it is found that the verb form of passive voice is affected by the number of object used in both English and Nepali.

3.4.2 Differences in English and Nepali Passivization System

In many aspects the passivization system of English and Nepali are different. They are as follows:

1.a.   English

He kicked the ball.	ACT
~ The ball was kicked by him.	Pass
Nepali	
Us-le bhakundo:-lai ha:n-yo:	ACT
~ U-dwa:ra: bhakundo: han-i-yo:	Pass

In the example no. a the syntactic position of noun phrase (he and ball) has been changed in English .But the syntactic position of noun phrases (us and bhakundo) have not been changed in Nepali. So it is found that the syntactic position of noun phrases (as subject and object)

are changed in English while changing into passive. But the syntactic position of NP remain unchanged in Nepali while changing into passive.

2.a. English

He slept.	ACT
~ It was slept by him.*	Pass

Nepali

U sut-yo:	ACT
~ U-dwa:ra: suti-yo:	Pass

In the active sentences of example a of English and Nepali both have intransitive verbs. English active sentence have not been changed into passive where as Nepali active sentence has been passivized. So it is found that an active sentence with intransitive verb cannot be passivized in English.But it can be passivised in Nepali.

3. There are only two types of voice in English namely 'active' and 'passive' but Nepali has three different types of voice. They are, Kartri bacya (Active voice), karma bacya (Passive voice) and bhawa bacya (passive voice).

a. English

In English only, active sentences with transitive verb can be passivized. A sentence with intransitive verb cannot be passivized. So, it has only two forms of voice they are active and passive in English.

Ram ate rice.	ACT
~ Rice was eaten by Ram.	Pass

Ram slept.	ACT
~ It was slept by Ram.*	Pass

Nepali

In Nepali, both types of sentence with transitive verb as well as intransitive verb can be passivized. The active sentence with transitive verb is changed into karma bha:cya (Passive voice) and the active sentence with intransitive verb is changed into bha:wa ba:cya (impersonal voice). Therefore, Nepali has three types of voice.

Ram-le bha:t kha:yo: Kartri ba:cya (Act)

~ Ram-dwa:ra: bha:t kha:-i-yo   Karma ba:cya (Pass)

Ram sut-yo: Kartri bacya (Act)

~ Ram-dwara suti-yo: bha:wa bacya (impersonal/Pass)

4.a.   English

Ram gives Hari a pen.   ACT

~ Hari is given a pen by Ram.   Pass

~ A pen is given to Hari by Ram.   Pass

Nepali

Ram-le Hari-lai euta: kalam din-cha.   ACT

~ Ram-dwa:ra: Hari-lai euta kalam di-in-cha.   Pass

In the examples a, both English and Nepali active sentences have two objects. English active sentence has been passivized into two ways whereas Nepali active sentence has been passivized in only one way. So it is found that in English two different types of passive construction can be formed to an active sentence having ditransitive verb.But Nepali has only one passive construction of ditransitive verb.

5.a.   English

I.   Gender

a. I beat her.   ACT

~ she was beaten by me.   Pass

b. I beat him.   ACT

~ He was beaten by me.   Pass

II   Honorific use

a. I beat you (NH).   ACT

~ You are beaten by me.   Pass

b. I beat you (HH).   ACT

~ You are beaten by me.   Pass

III   Person

a. Ram beat me (1st)   ACT

~ I was beaten by him.   Pass

b. Ram beat him (3rd)   ACT

~ He was beaten by Ram.   Pass

b.   Nepali

I   Gender

a. Ram-le shyam-lai(M) pit-yo: ACT

~ Ram-dwa:ra: shyam pit-i-yo: Pass

b. Ram-le sita-lai (F) pit-yo: ACT

~ Ram-dwa:ra: sita piti:-in   Pass

II   Honorific use

a. Mai-le us-lai(NH) kute.   ACT

~ Ma-dwa:ra: u kut-i-yo: Pass

b. Mai-le uha:-lai(HH) kute.   ACT

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~ Ma-dwa:ra uha: kut-inu-bhayo:	Pass

III   Person

a. Mai-le ta-lai (2nd) dekh-ye.	ACT
~ Ma-dwa:ra: ta dekhi-i-s.	Pass
b. Maile us-lai (3rd) dekh-ye	ACT
~ Ma-dwa:ra: u dekh-i-yo:	Pass

In the example a, b and c, the English passive constructions are different due to gender, person and honorific use of object respectively whereas the Nepali passive constructions are different according to their use. So it is found that in Nepali verb form of passive voice is affected according to the gender, person, and honorific use of object used in active sentence. But it is not found in English.

CHAPTER FOUR
FINDINGS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

4.1 Findings

On the basis of the analysis and interpretation of data, the study shows the following findings:

1.   The syntactic positions of nouns and pronouns as subject and object remain intact or unchanged in Nepali while changing active sentence into passive. In other words, there is no inversion of subject and object in Nepali like in English.

2.   The nominative case in active sentence is changed from nominative case to instrumental case (i.e. Karan bi:vakti in Nepali) while changing it into passive.

Nominative case	Instrumental case
U (He)	U-dwa:ra: (by him)
ma (I)	ma-dwa:ra: (by me)
Uni-haru (They)	Uni-haru-dwa:ra: (by them)

Note: The post position dwa:ra: converts the nominative case into instrumental specially in the Nepali language. Nepali instrumental case is a little different with English instrumental case.

3.   Generally the following basic structure is used to passivize the sentence.

S + O + V   Act

S + dwa:ra: + O + root verb + Aux.   Pass

4.   Generally 'dwa:ra:' similar to 'by+agent' in English is inserted right after the subject in active sentence to convert it into passive.

5. Nepali has three types of voice i.e. Kartri (active), karma (passive) and bha:wa (impersonal) but English has only two types of voice i.e. Active and Passive.

6. English active sentence with intransitive verb cannot be passivized. But Nepali active sentence with intranstive verb can be passivized.

7. English sentences with ditransitive verb have two types of passive construction but Nepali has only one passive construction even if there is ditransitive verb in an active sentence.

8. The active sentence with intransitive verb is converted into impersonal (bha:wa ba:c-ya) voice in Nepali but such types of sentence cannot be passivized in English.

9. Like in English, there are some conditions in which the active sentences cannot be passivized in Nepali.

10. In Nepali, the verb form of passive construction is affected according to number, person and honorific use of object. But it is not so in English except in number.

11. Nepali does not have perfective progressive aspect in different tenses (i.e. present, past and future). So, like in English, there is no chance of passivization of these sentences in Nepali.

12. The future continuous tense cannot be passivized in Nepali as well as in English.

13. 'By' and 'dwa:ra:' can be generally deleted in passive form both in English and Nepali if the subject in active is unknown.

4.2 Recommendations

On the basis of the findings of this study, the following recommendations have been made for pedagogical purposes. They are as follows:

1. The passivization systems of English and Nepali are different to a great extent, though some rules are common in both languages, therefore, special attention should be given to the different aspects of English passivization while teaching it to the Nepali speaking students.

2. Special attention should be paid to subject-object inversion while teaching passivization in English because there is no system of such subject object inversion in Nepali.

3. In English only transitive verbs are passivized but in Nepali both transitive as well as intransitive verbs can be passivized. Therefore, the Nepali speaking students may commit an error while passivizing English verbs.

4. Students may be confused about the types of voice in English. Because, Nepali has three kinds of voice and English has only two. Therefore, it should be taught carefully.

5. More emphasis should be paid in the insertion of other prepositions (at/on/in, with) in different conditions/sentences instead of 'by' such insertion is not available in Nepali.

6. In Nepali, the verb is affected by person, gender and honorific degree but such effect is not found in English, therefore, the teacher should give more attention on it.

7. The subject (subjective case) of the active sentence in English is changed into objective case in passive whereas in Nepali subjective case (karta bibhakti) is changed into instrumental case (karan bibhakti). Therefore, the teacher must be clear about it and he should teach it with great emphasis.

8. Similar and different aspects of passivization between these two languages (English and Nepali) should be taught to the students

by creating meaningful situations with appropriate examples and comparing the Nepali passivization systems with those of English.

9. The student should be provided many examples with different honorific form of subject and object in Nepali with the view to inform them that such honorific form does not exist in English.

APPENDICES

Appendix I

Different forms of Auxiliary verb of Nepali

Simple Present Tense		
	Singular	Plural
1st Person	chu	Chau
2nd person	chau, chas, cheu, ches, hunu-hun-cha	chau, hunu-hun-cha
3rd person	cha, che, chan, chin, hunu-hun-cha	chan, hunu-hun-cha

Present Continuous Tense		
	Singular	Plural
1st Person	dai-chu	dai-chau
2nd person	dai-chau, dai-cheu, dai-chas, dai-ches, dai-hunu-hun-cha	dai-chau, dai-hunu-hun-cha
3rd person	dai-cha, dai-che, dai-chan, dai-chin, dai-hu-nu-hun-cha	dai-chan, dai-hu-nu-hun-cha
Present Perfect Tense		
	Singular	Plural
1st Person	e-ko:-chu	e-ka:-chau
2nd person	e-ka:-chau, e-ki-cheu, e-ko:-chas, e-ki:-ches, e-ko:-hunu-hun-cha, e-ki-hunu-hun-cha	e-ka:-chau, e-ko:-hunu-hun-cha
3rd person	e-ko:-cha, e-ki-che, e-ka:-chan, e-ki-chin, ek-ko-hu-nu-hun-cha	e-ka:-chan, e-ko:-hunu-hun-cha

Simple Past Tense		
	Singular	Plural
1st Person	E	Yau
2nd person	ya-u, i-s, nu-bha-yo:	yau, nu-bha-yo:

3rd person	yo, i:, ye, nu-in bha-yo:	e, nu-bha-yo:

Past Continuous Tense		
	Singular	Plural
1st Person	dai thie	dai-ini-yau
2nd person	dai-thi-yau, dai-thi-is, dai-hu-nu-hun-the-o:	dai-thi-yau, dai-hu-nu-hun-the-o:
3rd person	dai-thi-yo, dai-thi-i, dai-thi-e, dai-th-in, dai-hu-nu-hun-the-o:	dai-thi-e, dai-hu-nu-hun-the-o:

Past Perfect Tense		
	Singular	Plural
1st Person	e-ko:-thi-e	e-ka:-thi-yau
2nd person	eka:-thi-yau, e-ki-thi-yau, e-ko:th-i-s, e-ki-thi-i-s, e-ka:-hu-nu-hun-the-o:	e-ka:-thi-yau, e-ka:hu-nu-hun-the-o:
3rd person	e-ko:-thi-yo:, e-ki-thi-i, e-ka:-thi-e, e-ki-thi-in, e-ko:-hu-nu-hun-the-o:	e-ka:-thi-e, eka:-hu-nu-hun-the-o:

Simple Future Tense		
	Singular	Plural
1st Person	ne-chu	ne-chau
2nd person	ne-chau, ne-cheu, ne-chas, ne-ches, nu-hune-cha	ne-chau, nu-hune-cha
3rd person	ne-cha, ne-che, ne-chan, ne-chin, nu-hu-ne-cha	ne-chan, nu-hu-ne-cha

Future continuous

	Singular	Plural
1st Person	dai-hune-chu	dai-hu-ne-chau
2nd person	dai-hune-chau, dai-hu-ne-cheu, dai-hu-ne-chas, dai-hu-ne-ches, dai-hu-nu-hu-ne-cha	dai-hu-ne-chau, dai-hu-nu-hu-ne-cha
3rd person	dai-hu-ne-cha, dai-hu-ne-che, dai-hu-ne-cha, dai-hu-ne-chin, dai-hu-nu-hu-ne-cha	dai-hu-ne-chan, dai-hu-nu-hu-ne-cha

Future Perfect Tense		
	Singular	Plural
1st Person	e-ko-hu-ne-chu	e-ka-hu-ne-chau
2nd person	e-ka-hu-ne-chau, e-ki-hu-ne-cheu, e-ko-hu-ne-chas, e-ko-hu-ne-ches, e-ko:-hu-nu-hu-ne-cha	e-ka:-hu-ne-chau, e-ko:-hu-nu-hu-ne-cha
3rd person	e-ko-hu-ne-cha, e-ki-hu-ne-che, e-ka-hu-ne-cha, e-ki-hu-ne-chin, e-ko:-hu-nu-hu-ne-cha	e-ka-hu-ne-cha, e-ko:-hu-nu-hu-nu-hu-ne-cha

Appendix II

Tense	Verb forms in active voice	Number	Person	Degree of honorific
Simple Past	di:e (gave)	Sg	1st	NH
	di-yau: (gave)	Pl	1st	NH
	di:yau (gave)	Sg	2nd	N
	diyeu (gave)	Sg	2nd (F)	H
	di-is (gave)	Sg	2nd	NH
	di-yau: (gave)	Pl	2nd	H
	di-nu-bhayo: (gave)	Sg	2nd	HH
	di-nu-bhayo: (gave)	Pl	2nd	HH
	di-e (gave)	Sg	3rd	N
	di-i:n (gave)	Sg	3rd (F)	H
	di-yo: (gave)	Sg	3rd	NH
	di-i: (gave)	Sg	3rd (F)	NH
	di-e (gave)	Pl	3rd	H
	di-nu-bhayo: (gave)	Sg	3rd	HH
	di-nu-bhayo: (gave)	Pl	3rd	HH
Past Continuous	di-dai-thi-e (was giving)	Sg	1st	NH
	di-dai-thi-yau (were giving)	Pl	1st	NH
	di-dai thi-yau (were giving)	Sg	2nd	H
	di-dai thi-i:s (were giving)	Pl	2nd	NH
	di-dai-thi-yau (were giving)	Pl	2nd	H
	di-dai-hunu-hun-the-yo: (were giving)	Sg	2nd	HH
	di-dai-hunu-hun-the-yo: (were giving)	Pl	2nd	HH
	di-dai-thi-e (was giving)	Sg	3rd	H
	di-dai-thi-i:n (was giving)	Sg	3rd (F)	H
	di-dai-thi-yo: (was giving)	Sg	3rd	NH
	di-dai-thi-i: (was giving)	Sg	3rd (F)	NH
	di-dai-thi-e (were giving)	Pl	3rd	H
	di-dai-hunu-hun-the-yo: (were giving)	Sg	3rd	HH
	di-dai-hunu-hun-the-yo: (were giving)	Pl	3rd	HH
Past Perfect	di-e-yo-thie (had given)	Sg	1st	NH
	di-e-ka:-thi-yau (had given)	Pl	1st	NH
	di-e-ka:-thi-yau (had given)	Sg	2nd	H
	di-e-ki-thi-yau (had given)	Sg	2nd (F)	H
	di-eko:-thi-i:s (had given)	Sg	2nd	NH

	di-eka:-thi-yau (had given)	Pl	2nd	H
	di-eko:-hunu-hun-the-yo: (had given)	Sg	2nd	HH
	di-eka:-hunu-hun-the-yo: (had given)	Pl	2nd	HH
	di-e-ka:-thi-e (had given)	Sg	3rd	H
	di-e-ki-thi-i:n (had given)	Sg	3rd (F)	H
	di-e-ko-thi-yo: (had given)	Sg	3rd	NH
	di-e-ki-thi-i: (had given)	Sg	3rd	NH
	di-e-ka:-thi-e (had given)	Pl	3rd	N
	di-eko:-hunu-hun-the-yo: (had given)	Sg	3rd	HH
	di-eka:-hunu-hun-the-yo: (had given)	Pl	3rd	HH
Simple present	din-chu (give)	Sg	1st	NH
	din-chau (give)	Pl	1st	NH
	din-chau (give)	Sg	2nd	H
	din-cheu (give)	Sg	2nd(F)	H
	din-chas (give)	Sg	2nd	NH
	din-ches (give)	Sg	2nd(F)	NH
	din-chau (give)	Pl	2nd	H
	dinu hun-cha (give)	Sg	2nd	HH
	dinu hun-cha (give)	Pl	2nd	HH
	din-chan (gives)	Sg	3rd	H
	din-chi:n (gives)	Sg	3rd(F)	H
	din-cha (gives)	Sg	3rd	NH
	din-che (gives)	Sg	3rd(F)	NH
	din-chan (give)	Pl	3rd	H
	dinu hun-cha (give)	Sg	3rd	HH
	dinu hun-cha (give)	Pl	3rd	HH
Present continuous	di-dai-chu (am giving)	Sg	1st	NH
	di-dai-chau (are giving)	Pl	1st	NH
	di-dai-chau (are giving)	Sg	2nd	H
	di-dai-cheu (are giving)	Sg	2nd(F)	H
	di-dai-chas (are giving)	Sg	2nd	NH
	di-dai-ches (are giving)	Sg	2nd(F)	NH
	di-dai-chou (are giving)	Pl	2nd	H
	di-dai-hunu-hun-cha (are giving)	Sg	2nd	HH
	di-dai-hunu-hun-cha (are giving)	Pl	2nd	HH
	di-dai-chan (is giving)	Sg	3rd	H
	di-dai-chin (is giving)	Sg	3rd(F)	H
	di-dai-cha (is giving)	Sg	3rd	NH

	di-dai-che (is giving)	Sg	3rd	NH
	di-dai-chan (are giving)	Pl	3rd	H
	di-dai-hunu-hun-cha (are giving)	Sg	3rd	HH
	di-dai-hunu-hun-cha (are giving)	Pl	3rd	HH
Present perfect	di-e-ko:-chu (have given)	Sg	1st	NH
	di-e-ka:-chau (have given)	Pl	1st	NH
	di-e-ka:-chau (have given)	Sg	2nd	H
	di-e-ki-chau (have given)	Sg	2nd(F)	H
	di-e-ko:-chas (have given)	Sg	2nd	NH
	di-e-ki-ches (have given)	Sg	2nd(F)	NH
	di-eka:-chau (have given)	Pl	2nd	H
	di-eko:-hunu-hun-cha (have given)	Sg	2nd	HH
	di-eko:-hunu-hun-cha (have given)	Pl	2nd	HH
	di-eka:-chan (has given)	Sg	3rd	H
	di-eki-chin (has given)	Sg	3rd(F)	H
	di-eko:-cha (has given)	Sg	3rd	NH
	di-eki:-che (has given)	Sg	3rd(F)	NH
	di-eka:-chan (have given)	Pl	3rd	H
	di-eko:-hunu-hun-cha (have given)	Sg	3rd	HH
	di-eka:-hunu-hun-cha (have given)	Pl	3rd	HH
Simple Future	di-ne-chu (shall give)	Sg	1st	NH
	di-ne-chau (shall give)	Pl	1st	NH
	di-ne-chau (will give)	Sg	2nd	H
	di-ne-cheu (will give)	Sg	2nd(F)	H
	di-ne-chas (will give)	Sg	2nd	NH
	di-ne-ches (will give)	Sg	2nd(F)	NH
	di-nu-hu-ne-cha (will give)	Sg	2nd	HH
	di-nu-hu-ne-cha (will give)	Pl	2nd	HH
	di-ne-chan (will give)	Sg	3rd	H
	di-ne-chin (will give)	Sg	3rd(F)	H
	di-ne-cho (will give)	Sg	3rd	NH
	di-ne-che (will give)	Sg	3rd(F)	NH
	di-ne-chan (will give)	Pl	3rd	H
	di-nu-hu-ne-cha (will give)	Sg	3rd	HH
	di-nu-hu-ne-cha (will give)	Pl	3rd	HH
Future Perfect	di-eko:-hu-ne-cha (will have given)	Sg	1st	NH
	di-eko:-hu-ne-chau (will have given)	Pl	1st	NH
	di-eko:-hu-ne-chau (will have given)	Sg	2nd	H

	di-eki-hu-ne-cheu (will have given)	Sg	2nd(F)	H
	di-eko:-hu-ne-chas (will have given)	Sg	2nd	NH
	di-eki-hu-ne-ches (will have given)	Sg	2nd(F)	NH
	di-eko:-hunu-hu-ne-cha (will have given)	Sg	2nd	HH
	di-eko:-hunu-hu-ne-cha (will have given)	Pl	2nd	HH
	di-eko:-hu-ne-chan (will have given)	Sg	3rd	H
	di-eki-hu-ne-chin (will have given)	Sg	3rd(F)	H
	di-eko:-hu-ne-chan (will have given)	Sg	3rd	NH
	di-eki-hu-ne-che (will have given)	Sg	3rd(F)	NH
	di-eka:-hu-ne-chan (will have given)	Pl	3rd	H
	di-eko:-hunu-hu-ne-cha (will have given)	Sg	3rd	HH
	di-eko:-hunu-hu-ne-cha (will have given)	Pl	3rd	
				HH

Note:

I.   Dai is a progressive marker which is used in continuous tense.

II.   'eko' is a perfective marker which is used in perfect tense.

III.   'hu-ne' is a future marker.

IV.   Nepali has only three types of aspect that is (Simple, continuous and perfect of each three types of tense (present, past and future)

V.   Future continuous tense cannot be changed into its passive counter part.

Tense	Verb forms in active voice	Number	Person	Degree of honorific
Simple past	di-i:-yo: (was given)	Sg	1st	NH
	di-i:-yo: (was given)	Pl	1st	NH
	di-i:-yo: (was given)	Sg	2nd	H
	di-i:-yo: (was given)	Sg	2nd	NH
	di-i:-yo: (was given)	Pl	2nd	H
	di-i:-yo: (was given)	Sg	2nd	H
	di-i:-yo: (was given)	Sg	2nd	NH
	di-i:-yo: (was given)	Pl	2nd	H
Past continuous	di-i:-dai-thi-yo: (was being given)	Sg	1st	NH
	di-i:-dai-thi-yo: (was being given)	Pl	1st	NH
	di-i:-dai-thi-yo: (was being given)	Sg	2nd	H
	di-i:-dai-thi-yo: (was being given)	Sg	2nd	NH
	di-i:-dai-thi-yo: (was being given)	Pl	2nd	H
	di-i:-dai-thi-yo: (was being given)	Sg	3rd	H
	di-i:-dai-thi-yo: (was being given)	Sg	3rd	NH
	di-i:-dai-thi-yo: (was being given)	Pl	3rd	H
Past Perfect	di-i:-eko:-thi-yo: (had been given)	Sg	1st	NH
	di-i:-eko-thi-yo: (had been given)	Pl	1st	NH
	di-i:-eko-thi-yo: (had been given)	Sg	2nd	H
	di-i:-eko:-thi-yo: (had been given)	Sg	2nd	NH
	di-i:-eko:-thi-yo: (had been given)	Pl	2nd	H
	di-i:-eko:-thi-yo: (had been given)	Sg	3rd	H
	di-i:-eko-thi-yo: (had been given)	Sg	3rd	NH
	di-i:-eko:-thi-yo: (had been given)	Pl	3rd	H
Simple Present	di-in-cha (is given)	Sg	1st	NH
	di-in-cha (is given)	Pl	1st	NH
	di-in-cha (is given)	Sg	2nd	H
	di-in-cha (is given)	Pl	2nd	NH
	di-in-cha (is given)	Pl	2nd	H
	di-in-cha (is given)	Sg	3rd	H
	di-in-cha (is given)	Pl	3rd	H
Present continuous	di-i-dai-cha (is being given)	Sg	1st	NH
	di-i-dai-cha (is being given)	Pl	1st	NH
	di-i-dai-cha (is being given)	Sg	2nd	H
	di-i-dai-cha (is being given)	Sg	2nd	NH
	di-i-dai-cha (is being given)	Pl	2nd	H
	di-i-dai-cha (is being given)	Sg	3rd	H
	di-i-dai-cha (is being given)	Sg	3rd	NH

	di-i-dai-cha (is being given)	Pl	3rd	H
Present perfect	di-i-eko:-cha (has been given)	Sg	1st	NH
	di-i-eko:-cha (has been given)	Pl	1st	NH
	di-i-eko:-cha (has been given)	Sg	2nd	H
	di-i-eko:-cha (has been given)	Sg	2nd	NH
	di-i-eko:-cha (has been given)	Pl	2nd	H
	di-i-eko:-cha (has been given)	Sg	3rd	H
	di-i-eko:-cha (has been given)	Sg	3rd	NH
	di-i-eko:-cha (has been given)	Pl	3rd	H
Simpel Future	di-i-ne-cha (will be given)	Sg	1st	NH
	di-i-ne-cha (will be given)	Pl	1st	NH
	di-i-ne-cha (will be given)	Sg	2nd	H
	di-i-ne-cha (will be given)	Sg	2nd	NH
	di-i-ne-cha (will be given)	Pl	2nd	H
	di-i-ne-cha (will be given)	Sg	3rd	H
	di-i-ne-cha (will be given)	Sg	3rd	NH
	di-i-ne-cha (will be given)	Pl	3rd	H
Future Perfect	di-i-eko:-hu-ne-cha (will have been given)	Sg	1st	NH
	di-i-eko:-hu-ne-cha (will have been given)	Pl	1st	NH
	di-i-eko:-hu-ne-cha (will have been given)	Sg	2nd	H
	di-i-eko:-hu-ne-cha (will have been given)	Sg	2nd	NH
	di-i-eko:-hu-ne-cha (will have been given)	Pl	2nd	H
	di-i-eko:-hu-ne-cha (will have been given)	Sg	3rd	H
	di-i-eko:-hu-ne-cha (will have been given)	Sg	3rd	NH
	di-i-eko:-hu-ne-cha (will have been given)	Pl	3rd	H

APPENDIX IV

Devanagari Symbols

The Devanagari Symbols for Vowels and Consonants with their
Corresponding Phenemes

Vowels:

अ	आ	इ	ई	उ	ऊ
a	a:	i	i:	u	u:

ए	ऐ	ओ	औ
e/e:	ai/ae	o/o:	au

Consonants Stops: **Nasals:**

Velar:	क	ख	ग	घ	ङ
	ka	kha	ga	gha	na
Palatal:	च	छ	ज	झ	ञ
	ca	cha	ja	gha	na
Retroflex:	ट	ठ	ड	ढ	ण
	Ta	Tha	Da	Dha	Na
Dental:	त	थ	द	ध	न
	ta	tha	da	dha	na
Labial:	प	फ	ब	भ	म
	pa	pha	ba	bha	ma

Other Consonants:

य	र	ल	व	श
ya	ra	la	wa	sa

ष	स	ह
sa	sa	ha

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