CHAPTER - ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 General Background

Language is common to all and only human beings. It is the most unique gift that sets them apart from the rest of living beings. It is the greatest accomplishment of human civilization. It is a means by which we can perform several things – communication, thinking, group solidarity, inter-linguistic conflict, nation building, control, creation, and so on. We cannot think of any social, academic, and artistic activities going on without language. It is perhaps the most significant asset of human life. Sapir (1921:8) defines language as "a purely human and non-instinctive method of communicating ideas, emotions and desires by means of voluntarily produced symbols." Language is concerned with the human being and his distinctive sounds which are used for communication. Language is a unique gift given to any human being which distinguishes him from animals. Language is a device that establishes sound-meaning correlations, pairing meaning with signals to enable people to exchange ideas through observable sequences of sound. Language in its widest sense means the sum total of such signs of our thoughts and feelings as are capable of external perception and as could be produced and repeated at will. Language is the institution whereby humans communicate and interact with each other by means of habitually oral-auditory arbitrary symbols. Language is the expression of thought by means of speech sounds. Thus, language is the voluntary vocal system of human communication.

English belongs to Indo-European family of language. It belongs to West-Germanic sub-branch of this family of language. It is spoken more widely in different countries than any other language and this is why, it is recognized as the international language. English is spoken more than any other language as a native one, i.e., in many countries it is used as native language. It is used as lingua franca by most of the people and most of the books in the world are written in English.

1.2 The Languages of Nepal

Nepal is a multi-lingual, multi-religious, multi-ethnic, multi-cultural country where many languages/dialects are spoken by more than 100 ethnic groups in different parts of Nepal. These ethnic nationalities have their own unique languages, religions, traditions and cultures. Thus, this small nation possesses cultural diversity and linguistic plurality. Most of these languages are found to have only the spoken form.

1.3 Tharu People and the Tharu Language

A brief introduction to Tharu people and the Tharu language is as follows:

1.3.1 Tharu People

Tharus are main and largest indigenous ethnic people of the Terai and Inner Terai living from east to west of Nepal. The term ‘Tharu’ refers both to the tribe and the language they speak. According to 2001 census data of CBS, Tharus are more than 1.5 million in Nepal. But Tharus have been questioning the credibility of the census 2001 and claiming that there are more than 3.5 million Tharus in Nepal. Traditionally, they are following the occupation of farming in the field and sell their corns to the local market and Hatiya bazzar. They, however, do not only base on farming because it can not fulfill their basic needs. So, they have adopted other occupations. Some of them are found to be involved in government offices, factories, teaching, business and so on. Most of them are illiterate. Tharu people have been able to preserve their indigenous culture and linguistic identity despite the influence of their activities in the various fields.

1.3.2 The Tharu Language

The Tharu language is one of the important languages spoken in Nepal. It is the fourth largest language used in Nepal according to Census Report of 2001. In almost all the Terai districts, there are Tharu native speakers. The majority of Tharu speakers are found in Dang, Banke, Bardiya, Kailali, Kanchanpur, Chitwan, Nawalparasi, Saptari, Udayapur, Morang and Sunsari districts.

Generally, the Tharu language belongs to Indo-Aryan language of Indo-European family as it resembles all the characteristics of Indo-Aryan branches and spoken by 5.86 percent of the Nepalese as a mother tongue. Though it has a long history, it does not have its own script. It uses Devanagari script.

1.3.3 Dialects of the Tharu Language

Mainly the Dialects of the Tharu language are Morangia, Saptaria, Mahotaria, Chitwania, Dangoria, Katharia, Deukhuria and Rana.

(a) Morangia Dialect

This dialect is spoken in Morang and Sunsari Districts.

(b) Saptaria Dialect

This dialect is spoken in Saptary, Siraha, Udayapur, Jhapa, Morang and Sunsari districts.

(c) Mahotaria Dialect

This dialect is spoken in Mahotari district.

(d) Chitwania Dialect

This dialect is spoken in Chitwan and Nawalparasi districts.

(e) Dangoria and Deukhuria Dialect

This dialect is spoken in Dang, Kapilvastu, Bardiya, Banke, Surkhet, Rupendehi, Kailali, and Kanchanpur districts.

(f) Kathariya Dialect

This dialect is spoken in Kailali district.

(g) Rana Dialect

This dialect is spoken in Kailali and Kanchanpur districts.

1.4 Word Formation Processes

Word formation is the process of the creation of new words or forming new words. It refers to the process of generating new words. Because of this process, new words are added day by day in a language. So, it is very helpful in increasing the number of vocabularies. There are various processes of word formation. Some important processes are as follows:

a. affixation
b. reduplication
c. compounding
d. shortening
e. back formation
f. blending
g. borrowing
h. acronymy
i. coinage
j. cliticization
k. interchange
l. suppletion
m. conversion
n. onomatopoeia

1.4.1 Affixation

Affixation is one of the very common and productive processes of word formation in language. Addition of an affix to a stem is called affixation.

Crystal (2003: 15) defines affixation as “the collective term for the types of FORMATIVE that can be used only when added to another

MORPHEME (the ROOT or STEM), i.e. affixes are a type of ‘bound’ morphemes. Affixes are limited in number in a language, and are generally classified into three types, depending on their position with reference to the root or stem of the WORD”.

Thus, affixation is one of the main processes of word formation in which the base can be modified by an addition of a prefix or a suffix or an infix. Affixation is divided into prefixation, suffixation, and infixation.

a. Prefixation

When an affix is attached to the front position of a stem it is called a prefix. For example, *in-* in *inactive* is a prefix attached to the front of the stem active. Prefixes are commonly used in forming words in English and also in many other languages. Prefix is a term used in morphology referring to an affix which is added initially to a root or stem. The process of prefixation is common in English for forming new lexical items.

b. Infixation

When an affix is inserted within a root or base, i.e. its medial position it is called an affix. Infix is a less common and productive process of word formation than prefix and suffix. Infix is a term used in morphology referring to an affix which is added within a root or stem. The process of infixation is not encountered in European languages, but it is commonly found in Asian, American Indian and African languages, e.g. Arabic.

c. Suffixation

An affix attached to the final position of a stem is called a suffix. For example, *-ful* in *helpful* is a suffix attached to the end of the stem help. Suffixes are also commonly used in forming words in English and also in many other languages. Suffix is a term used in morphology referring to an affix which is added following a root or stem. The process of suffixation is common in English; both for the derivational formation of new lexical items (e.g. –ize, -tion) and for expressing grammatical relationships (inflectional endings such as –s, -ed, -ing)

1.4.2 Reduplication

Reduplication is another common process of word formation. This process supplicates (repeats) all or part of a base to derive another word. Reduplication is a term used in morphology for a process of repetition whereby the form of a prefix/suffix reflects certain phonological characteristics of the ROOT. Though it is a common morphological process in several languages, it is not found in English. The English words which can be closest to this process include ‘reduplicative compounds like *helter- skelter* and *shilly – shally*.

1.4.3 Shortening/clipping

Speakers of a language tend to delete one or more syllables from a polysyllabic word and shorten it often to a single syllable. For example, examination is shortened to exam. This process is known as shortening or clipping.

1.4.4 Compounding

Compounding is also a common process of word formation. In this process, two words (e.g. two free morphemes) are combined together to form a new word. For example,

book + case	bookcase
wall + paper	wallpaper
blue +bell	bluebell
hair + do	hairdo

1.4.5 Back formation

Back formation is a term used in historical studies of morphology to refer to an abnormal type of word formation where a shorter word is derived by deleting an imagined affix from a longer form already present in the language. When a new word is made by the removal of an affix from the existing word, this is called back formation. For example,

edit from editor
act from actor
credit from creditor
inspect from inspector

1.4.6 Blending

Words are sometimes formed by joining the first part of one word with the final part of another word. This process of word formation is called blending and the words formed in this way are termed blends. Some commonly used blends in English include brunch (from breakfast and lunch), motel (from motor and hotel), and smog (from smoke and fog). Blending has been a very productive and popular process of word formation, especially in commercial advertisements.

1.4.7 Borrowing

When a word is borrowed into one language from other language, it is called borrowing or borrowed word or loan word. For example,

Garage is borrowed in English from French
Ghee is borrowed in English from Hindi
Computer is borrowed in Nepali from English

1.4.8 Acronymy

We sometimes take the initial letters of some or all of the words in a phrase or title and make up a name, e.g. NATO (form from the first letters of ‘North Atlantic Treaty Organization’), UN (from ‘the United Nations’), etc. This process of word formation is called acronymy and words formed in this way are labeled as acronyms.

1.4.9 Coinage

When a new invention is made, a new word is formed from the existing materials. This process of word formation is called coinage or word manufacture. This process is common in industrial organizations which require new and attractive names for their products.

1.4.10 Onomatopoeia

There are some words in a language whose sounds suggest their meanings. Such words are called onomatopoeia word, e.g. buzz, whisper, thunder, etc.

1.4.11 Suppletion

This is a morphological process by which a root morpheme is replaced by a phonologically unrelated form to show a grammatical contrast. For example,

Go (present)	went (past)
Be	is, are, am, was, were, etc.

1.4.12 Interchange

It refers to a process which replaces a non-morphemic unit for another. For example,

Sing (present)	sang (past)

1.4.13 Cliticization

There are some words which cannot be used alone. They must be attached to some other words in a sentence. Such words are called clitics. For example, the shortened form of am (’m), is (’s), are (’re), etc.

1.5 Verbal Affixation in English

Verbal affixes are categorized into person markers, number markers, tense markers, progressive markers, perfective markers, and negation markers in English.

1.5.1 Person Marker Affixes

There are no person marker prefixes and infixes in English. Therefore, only the person marker suffixes are discussed below:

-*s* is the person marker suffix in English. It is added to the verbs to mark the third person singular. It has different allomorphs and the occurrence of one allomorph differs from the occurrence of another. They are as follows:

(i) [-*s*] is the allomorph of the morpheme –*s* and it added to the verbs where the final element of the verb is voiceless and not sibilant or palatal to form the third person singular.

For example,

He writes fast.
He talks much.
He hates her.
He walks slowly.

(ii) [-*z*] is the allomorph of the morpheme –*s* and it is added to the verbs where the final element of the verb is voiced and is not sibilant or palatal to form the third person singular.

For example,

He loves her.
She brings water.
She explains it in detail later.

(iii) [-*iz*] is the allomorph of the morpheme –*s* and it is added to verbs where the final element of the verb is sibilant or palatal to form the third person singular.

For example,

He kisses her.

He watches T.V.

He rushes into the room.

1.5.2 Number Marker Affixes

There are no number marker prefixes and infixes in English. So, only the number marker suffixes are discussed below:

-*s* is the number marker suffix in English. It is added to the verbs to mark the third person singular number. It has different allomorphs and the occurrence of one allomorph differs from the occurrence of another. They are as follows:

(i) [-*s*] is the allomorph of the morpheme –*s* and it added to the verbs ending in voiceless sound not in sibilant or palatal to form the third person singular number.

For example,

He writes fast.

He talks much.

He hates her.

He walks slowly.

(ii) [-*z*] is the allomorph of the morpheme –*s* and it is added to the verbs ending in voiced sound not in sibilant or palatal to form the third person singular number.

For example,

He loves her.

She brings water.

She explains it in detail later.

(iii) [-*iz*] is the allomorph of the morpheme –*s* and it is added to verbs ending in sibilant or palatal sound to form the third person singular number.

For example,

He kisses her.
He watches T.V.
He rushes into the room.

1.5.3 Tense Marker Affixes

There are no tense marker prefixes and infixes in English. Therefore, only tense marker suffixes are discussed below:

I. Non-past markers

-*s* is the non-past marker suffix in English. It is added to the verbs to mark the third person singular non-past. It has different allomorphs and the occurrence of one allomorph differs from the occurrence of another. They are as follows:

(i) [-*s*] is the allomorph of the morpheme –*s* and it is added to the verbs where the final element of the verb is voiceless and not sibilant or palatal to form the third person singular non-past.

For example,

He writes fast.
He talks much.
He hates her.
He walks slowly.

(ii) [-*z*] is the allomorph of the morpheme –*s* and it is added to the verbs where the final element of the verb is voiced and is not sibilant or palatal to form the third person singular non-past.

For example,

He loves her.
She brings water.
She explains it in detail later.

(iii) [-*iz*] is the allomorph of the morpheme –*s* and it is added to verbs where the final element of the verb is sibilant or palatal to form the third person singular non-past.

For example,

He kisses her.
He watches T.V.
He rushes into the room.

II. Past Marker Suffixes

-ed is the past marker suffix in English. It is added to the regular verb to mark all person and number in the past tense. It has different allomorphs and the occurrence of one allomorph differs from the occurrence of another. They are as follows:

(i) [-*t*] is the past tense marker suffix in English. It is added to the regular verbs when the final sound of the verb is voiceless consonant that is not [t] and [d] to form past tense marker.

For example,

He looked ahead and stopped.
He kissed her.
He brushed the dirt off his jacket.

(ii) [-*d*] is the past tense marker suffix in English. It is added to the regular verbs when the final sound of the verb is voiced consonant that is not [t] and [d] to form past tense marker.

For example,

He explained the lesson clearly
He seemed to be stranger.
I appeared in the exam for the first time.

(iii) [-*id*] is the past tense marker suffix in English. It is added to the regular verbs when the final sound of the verb is [t] and [d] to form the past tense marker.

For example,

She guided me for my thesis writing.
He created this situation.
She hated me first.

1.5.4 Progressive Marker Affixes

There are not progressive marker prefixes and infixes in English. So, only progressive marker suffixes are discussed below:

-*ing* is the progressive marker suffix in English. It is immediately added to the verbs.

For examples,

He is going to work by bus.
We are eating a lot more meat now.
She is always breaking things.
I was reading all morning.

1.5.5 Perfective Marker Affixes

There are no perfective marker prefixes and infixes in English. So, only perfective marker suffixes are discussed below:

-*ed* is the perfective marker suffix in English. It is added to the regular verb to mark all persons and numbers in both non-past and past tense. It has different allomorphs and the occurrence of one allomorph differs from the occurrence of another. They are as follows:

(i) [-*t*] is the past tense marker suffix in English. It is added to the regular verbs when the final sound of the verb is voiceless consonant that is not [t] and [d] to form the past tense marker.

For example,

He looked ahead and stopped.
He kissed her.
He brushed the dirt off his jacket.

(ii) [-*d*] is the past tense marker suffix in English. It is added to the regular verbs when the final sound of the verb is voiced consonant that is not [t] and [d] to form past tense marker.

For example,

He explained the lesson clearly
He seemed to be stranger.
I appeared in the exam for the first time.

(iii) [-*id*] is the past tense marker suffix in English. It is added to the regular verbs when the final sound of the verb is [t] and [d] to form past tense marker.

For example,

She guided me for my thesis writing.
He created this situation.
She hated me first.

–en is the perfective marker suffix in English. It is added to the irregular verb to mark all persons and numbers in both non-past and past tense.

For examples,

He has eaten rice.

She has broken the stick.

1.5.6 Negation Marker Affixes

There are no negation marker suffixes and infixes in English. So, only the negation marker prefixes are discussed below.

Negation marker prefixes are added to the verbs irrespective of the inflectional suffixes attached to the verbs irrespective of person, number, and tense.

(i) /*dis*-/ is the negation marker prefix in English and it means ‘not’.

For examples,

She disobeyed her parents.

He was punished for disobeying order.

The committee disapproved his thesis.

She discontinued her study.

(ii) /*un*-/ is the negation marker prefix in English and it means ‘reverse’.

For examples,

I quickly untied the package.

She unlocked the door.

(iii) /*mis*-/ is the negation marker prefix in English and it means ‘badly or wrongly’.

For examples,

I may have misplaced the pen.

I completely misunderstood her intentions.

(iv) /*counter*-/ is the negation marker prefix in English and it means ‘against or opposite’.

For examples,

- The government's exercises aim to counteract the Maoist movement in Nepal.
- The troops were counterattacked by the Maoist while the troops were patrolling in Dang.

(v) /*mal-*/ is the negation marker prefix in English and it means 'bad or badly' 'not correct or correctly'.

For examples,

We should not maltreat foreigners.

1.6 English Verbs

Verbs refer to words which: (a) occur as a part of the predicate of a sentence, (b) carry marks of categories such as tense, aspect, person, number and mood, (c) refer to an action or state. The most difficult part of any language is usually the part that deals with the verb. Learning a language is to a very large degree learning how to operate the verbal forms of that language. In English, for instance, the verb may indicate that an action took place in a period preceding, but continuing right up to, the present moment, as well as simply in the past.

The English verbs can be classified in terms of main verbs and auxiliaries, the auxiliaries being divided into primary and secondary or modal auxiliaries. The main verbs may be classified in terms of the catenatives and those that are not catenatives. The catenatives are those full verbs that are followed by other verbal forms with regular rules of co-occurrence.

The verbs of English may be classified in terms of the verb by which they are followed. Some of them are followed by the infinitive without to, some by the infinitive, some of them by the -ing form and others by the past participle. The morphology of English verbs involves up to five distinct forms, e.g. a simple form, an –s form, a past form, a present participle (–ing) form and a past participle (-en) form.

1.7 Review of the Related Literature

Though some comparative studies have been carried out on different languages in different areas, there are very few researches carried out on the Tharu language in the Department of English Language Education. No research has been carried out comparing verbal affixation in the Tharu and the English languages. The related literature to the present study are as follows:

Mahato (2001) carried out a research on S-V agreement in the Tharu and English languages and found that second and third person pronouns do not change for honorific expressions in English whereas they do in Tharu language spoken in Parsa district of the Tharu language.

Bhattarai (2001) compared case system of Nepali with that of English. He came up with similarities in both the languages such as the verbs agree with the subjects in both languages; they inflect according to number in both of them. They play central role to determine cases and so on. And he also found differences between them such as the verbs in Nepali inflect according to sex and honorific grade but they do not in English.

Bhandari (2002) conducted a research on 'Affixation in English and Nepali". She found some differences. For example, English has more affixes than the Nepali language and that the prefixes of English are more than that of Nepali. But it is just opposite in case of suffixes and the like. She found some similarities. For example, both the languages are governed by affixation for word formation; there is not infixation process in both the languages and so on.

Chaudhary (2005) conducted a research on "Pronominals in the Tharu and English Language". He found both Tharu and English have more or less similar number of persons and differ from each other in the second person pronouns. He also found that English pronouns do not have alternatives but the Tharu has alternatives.

Tumbapo (2005) conducted a research on "Verbal Affixation in English and Limbu". He found Limbu has person marker prefixes, infixes and suffixes whereas English has only one person marker suffix. Limbu has number marker prefixes and suffixes but English has only suffix. In the same way, Limbu has negative marker prefixes, infixes and suffixes whereas English has only negative marker prefixes.

This research is different from the above researches because no research has been carried out to compare English and Tharu affixes and the present researcher has attempted to do so.

1.8 Objectives of the Study

The main objectives of the study were as follows:

i) To identify the verbal affixes and the rules of verbal affixation in the Tharu language.

ii) To examine the similarities and differences in verbal affixation in the Tharu and English languages.

iii) To provide some pedagogical implications on the basis of findings of the study.

1.9 Significance of the Study

The research will be beneficial to those who are preparing English text books for the second language learners. It will be equally important for the teachers who are teaching English as a foreign language at schools where Tharu native speakers appear as students. Moreover, it is beneficial to the curriculum development centre, especially language curriculum because it will help them to present the affixes of English in comparison to Tharu affixes.

CHAPTER - TWO

METHODOLOGY

The researcher followed the following methodology to accomplish the objectives:

2.1 Sources of Data

The researcher collected data from both primary and secondary sources.

2.1.1 Primary Sources

The native speakers of the Tharu language of Saptary, Siraha and Udayapur districts were the primary sources from whom the researcher collected the required data for the research.

2.1.2 Secondary Sources

The secondary sources of this research were related books, e.g. Chaudhary (2057), Aronoff (1997), Katamba (1993), Crystal (2003), Palmer (1965) and related theses, e.g., Chaudhary (2005), Chaudhary (2060) and other materials.

2.2 Population of the Study

This study was based on the 90 informants to elicit the Tharu verbal affixation. 90 Tharu speakers were selected from three districts viz, Siraha, Saptary and Udayapur. The following table shows the informants of the study:

Population of the Study

Districts	**Educated**	**Literate**	**Illiterate**	**Total**
Saptary	10	10	10	30
Siraha	10	10	10	30
Udayapur	10	10	10	30
Grand Total				90

2.3 Sampling Procedure

The total sample population for the research were 90 Tharu native speakers selected 30 from Saptary, 30 from Siraha and 30 from Udayapur. The total population was divided into three groups i.e. illiterate, literate, and educated. Illiterate are those who cannot read and write but speak well. Similarly, the people having academic qualification below S.L.C. level were considered as literate. Educated are those who have academic qualification above S.L.C. Each stratum consisted of 30 members of native speakers. The stratified random sampling procedure was used to sample the population.

2.4 Research Tools

The researcher used questionnaire and interview schedule as research tools.

2.5 Process of Data Collection

After preparing the interview schedule, the researcher visited the informants of selected districts. The researcher individually met the native speakers of the Tharu language in three districts. He participated in conversation with the native speakers for a week. He conducted interview with literates or illiterates orally and wrote their responses in the sheets of interview questionnaire. Those who were educated were handed over the sheets of structured questionnaire to translate English or Nepali sentences into their native or mother tongue equivalent. He clarified the English or Nepali sentences of the structured questionnaire where needed.

2.6 Limitations of the Study

This study was limited in the following ways:

i) This study was confined to the comparison between Tharu and English affixation.

ii) Only 90 Tharu native speakers were included in the study.

iii) This study was based only on Saptaria dialect of the Tharu language spoken in Saptary, Siraha and Udayapur districts.

CHAPTER – THREE

ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION

This chapter consists of analysis and interpretation of the data. The Tharu verbal affixes are identified as person markers, number markers, gender markers, tense markers, progressive markers, perfective markers, infinite markers, and negative markers. As this study is comparative in nature, the verbal affixes and rules of verbal affixation in Saptaria dialect of Tharu are compared and contrasted with those of English to find out whether these two languages have equivalent verbal affixes and the rules of verbal affixation or not.

This chapter is divided into the following sections and subsections:

3.1 Affixes in Saptaria Dialect of Tharu

Verbal affixes are categorized into person markers, number markers, gender markers, tense markers, progressive markers, perfective markers, infinite markers, and negative markers. Each of them is presented below:

3.1.1 Person Marker Affixes

There are no person marker prefixes and infixes in Tharu. Therefore, only the person marker suffixes are discussed below:

(i) /-*e*/ is the person marker suffix in the Saptaria Dialect of Tharu. It is added to the verb to mark the first person singular and plural. It occurs only in the present and past tense.

For example,

– həm bhat **khai-ci-e**
v mk

I rice eat-be-Prs-1^{sg}

I eat rice.

– həm kitab **pərhəi-ci-e**
v mk

I book read-be-Prs-1^{sg}

I read a book.

– həm-səb bhat **khai-ci-e**
v mk

I-pl rice eat-be-Prs-1^{pl}

We eat rice.

– həm-səb kitab **pərhəi-ci-e**
v mk

I-pl book read-be-Prs-1^{pl}

We read a book.

– həm bhat **khe-li-e**
v mk

I rice eat-be-Pst-1^{sg}

I ate rice.

– həm kitab **pərhə-li-e**
v mk

I book read-be-Pst-1^{sg}

I read a book.

– həm-səb bhat **khe-li-e**
v mk

I-pl rice eat-be-Pst-1^{pl}

We ate rice.

– həm-səb kitab **pərhə-li-e**
v mk

I-pl book read-be-Pst-1^{pl}

We read a book.

(ii) /-*hi*/ is the person marker suffix in the Saptaria dialect of Tharu. It is added to the verb to mark the second person.

For example,

– tũ timən **khai-ci-hi**
v mk

you meat eat-be-Prs-2^{sg}

You eat meat.

– tũ kitab **pərhəi-ci-hi**
v mk

you book read-be-Prs-2^{sg}

You read a book.

– tũ bhat **khe-li-hi**
v mk

you rice eat-be-Pst-2^{sg}

You ate rice.

– tũ bhat **khe-bi-hi**
v mk

you rice eat-be-Fut-2^{sg}

You will eat rice.

– tũ-səm timən **khai-ci-hi**
v mk

you-pl meat eat-be-Prs-2^{pl}

You eat meat.

(iii) /-*əi*/ is the person marker suffix in the Saptaria dialect of Tharu. It is added to the verb to mark the third person singular and plural.

For example,

– u bhat **khai-ch-əi**
v mk

she/he rice eat-be-Prs-3^{sg}

She/he eats rice.

– u kitab **pərhəi-ch-əi**
v mk

she/he book read-be-Prs-3^{sg}

She/he reads a book.

– u-səb bhat **khai-ch-əi**
v mk

She/he-pl rice eat-be-Prs-3^{pl}

They eat rice.

– u-səb kitab **pərhəi-ch-əi**
v mk

She/he-pl book read-be-Prs-3^{pl}

They read a book.

– u bhat **khe-t-əi**
v mk

She/he rice eat-be-Fut-3^{sg}

She/he will eat rice.

– u-səm bhat **khe-t-əi**
v mk

She/he-pl rice eat-be-Fut-3^{pl}

They will eat rice.

3.1.2 Number Marker Affixes

There are no number marker prefixes and infixes in Tharu. So, only the number marker suffixes are discussed below:

(i) /*-e*/ is the number marker suffix in the Saptaria Dialect of Tharu. It is added to the verb to mark the first person singular and plural. It means, there is no difference between singular and plural number marker. It occurs only in the present and past tense.

For example,

–	həm	bhat	**khai-ci-e**
			v mk
	I	rice	eat-be-Prs-1^{sg}

I eat rice.

–	həm	kitab	**pərhəi-ci-e**
			v mk
	I	book	read-be-Prs-1^{sg}

I read a book.

–	həm-səb	bhat	**khai-ci-e**
			v mk
	I-pl	rice	eat-be-Prs-1^{pl}

We eat rice.

–	həm-səb	kitab	**pərhəi-ci-e**
			v mk
	I-pl	book	read-be-Prs-1^{pl}

We read a book.

–	həm	bhat	**khe-li-e**
			v mk
	I	rice	eat-be-Pst-1^{sg}

I ate rice.

–	həm	kitab	**pərhə-li-e**
			v mk
	I	book	read-be-Pst-1^{sg}

I read a book.

– həm-səb bhat **khe-li-e**

v mk

I-pl rice eat-be-Pst-1^{pl}

We ate rice.

– həm-səb kitab **pərhə-li-e**

v mk

I-pl book read-be-Pst-1^{pl}

We read a book.

(ii) /*-hi*/ is the number marker suffix in the Saptaria dialect of Tharu. It is added to the verb to mark the second person singular and plural. It means, there is no difference between singular and plural number marker.

For example,

– tũ timən **khai-ci-hi**

v mk

you meat eat-be-Prs-2^{sg}

You eat meat.

– tũ kitab **pərhəi-ci-hi**

v mk

you book read-be-Prs-2^{sg}

You read a book.

– tũ bhat **khe-li-hi**

v mk

you rice eat-be-Pst-2^{sg}

You ate rice.

– tũ bhat **khe-bi-hi**

v mk

you rice eat-be-Fut-2^{sg}

You will eat rice.

– tũ-səm timən **khai-ci-hi**
v mk

you-pl meat eat-be-Prs-2^{pl}

You eat meat.

(iii) /*-əi*/ is the number marker suffix in the Saptaria dialect of Tharu. It is added to the verb to mark the third person singular and plural. It means, there is no difference between singular and plural number marker.

For example,

– u bhat **khai-ch-əi**
v mk

she/he rice eat-be-Prs-3^{sg}

She/he eats rice.

– u kitab **pərhəi-ch-əi**
v mk

she/he book read-be-Prs-3^{sg}

She/he reads a book.

– u-səb bhat **khai-ch-əi**
v mk

She/he-pl rice eat-be-Prs-3^{pl}

They eat rice.

– u-səb kitab **pərhəi-ch-əi**
v mk

She/he-pl book read-be-Prs-3^{pl}

They read a book.

– u bhat **khe-t-əi**
v mk

She/he rice eat-be-Fut-3^{sg}

She/he will eat rice.

– u-səm	bhat	**khe-t-əi**
		v mk
She/he-pl	rice	eat-be-Fut-3^{pl}

They will eat rice.

3.1.3 Gender Marker Affixes

There is no different gender marker suffix in Tharu.

(i) /*-əi*/ is the gender marker suffix in the Saptaria dialect of Tharu. It is added to the verb to indicate third person singular masculine and feminine gender. The same gender marker /*-əi*/ is used to indicate both masculine and feminine genders.

For example,

– chəura	isku:l	**jai-ch-əi**
		v mk
boy	school	go-be-Prs-3^{sg} Mas

The boy goes to school.

– chəuri	isku:l	**jai-ch-əi**
		v mk
girl	school	go-be-Prs-3^{sg} Fem

The girl goes to school.

– ram	kitab	**pərhəi-ch-əi**
		v mk
ram	book	read-be-Prs-3^{sg} Mas

Ram reads a book.

– sita	kitab	**pərhəi-ch-əi**
		v mk
sita	book	read-be-Prs-3^{sg} Fem

Sita reads a book.

–	beTa	**sut-l-əi**
		v mk
	son	sleep-be-Pst-3^{sg} Mas

The son slept.

–	beTi	**sut-l-əi**
		v mk
	daughter	sleep-be-Pst-3^{sg} Fem

The daughter slept.

3.1.4 Tense Marker Affixes

There are tense marker suffixes in Tharu.

Tense marker suffixes are divided into the present tense marker, the past tense marker and the future tense marker.

I. Present tense marker

(i) /*-cie* / is the present tense marker suffix in the Saptaria dialect of Tharu. It is added to the verb to mark the first person singular and plural and to indicate present tense.

For example,

–	həm	bhat	**khai-*cie***
			v mk
	I	rice	eat-Prs-1^{sg}

I eat rice.

–	həm	kitab	**pərhəi-*cie***
			v mk
	I	book	read-Prs-1^{sg}

I read a book.

–	həm-səb	bhat	**khai-cie**
			v mk
	I-pl	rice	eat-Prs-1^{pl}

We eat rice.

–	həm-səb	kitab	**pərhəi**-**cie**
			v mk
	I-pl	book	read-Prs-1^{pl}

We read a book.

(ii) /*-cihi*/ is the Present Tense Marker suffix in the Saptaria dialect of Tharu. It is added to the verb to mark the present tense and to mark the second person.

For example,

–	tũ	timən	**khai**-**cihi**
			v mk
	you	meat	eat-Prs-2^{sg}

You eat meat.

–	tũ	kitab	**pərhəi**-**cihi**
			v mk
	you	book	read-Prs-2^{sg}

You read a book.

–	tũ-səb	timən	**khai**-**cihi**
			v mk
	you-pl	meat	eat-Prs-2^{pl}

You eat meat.

(iii) /*-chəi*/ is the Present Tense Marker suffix in the Saptaria dialect of Tharu. It is added to the verb to mark the third person singular and plural.

For example,

–	u	bhat	**khai**-**chəi**
			v mk
	she/he	rice	eat-Prs-3^{sg}

She/he eats rice.

– u kitab **pərhəi-chəi**
v mk

she/he book read-Prs-3^{sg}

She/he reads a book.

– u-səb bhat **khai-chəi**
v mk

She/he-pl rice eat-Prs-3^{pl}

They eat rice.

– u-səb kitab **pərhəi-chəi**
v mk

She/he-pl book read-Prs-3^{pl}

They read a book.

II. Past Tense Markers

(i) /-*lie*/ is the Past Tense Marker suffix in the Saptaria dialect of Tharu. It is added to the verb to mark the first person singular and plural.

For example,

– həm bhat **khe-lie**
v mk

I rice eat-Pst-1^{sg}

I ate rice.

– həm kitab **pərhə-lie**
v mk

I book read-Pst-1^{sg}

I read a book.

– həm-səb bhat **khe-lie**
v mk

I-pl rice eat-Pst-1^{pl}

We ate rice.

– həm-səb kitab **pərhə**-**lie**
v mk

I-pl book read-Pst-1pl

We read a book.

(ii) /*-lihi*/ is the Past Tense Marker suffix in the Saptaria dialect of Tharu. It is added to the verb to mark the second person singular and plural.

For example,

– tũ bhat **khe**-**lihi**
v mk

you rice eat-Pst-2sg

You ate rice.

– tũ-səb bhat **khe**-**lihi**
v mk

you-pl rice eat-Pst-2pl

You ate rice.

– tũ kitab **pərhə**-**lihi**
v mk

you book read-Pst-2sg

You read a book.

– tũ-səb kitab **pərhə**-**lihi**
v mk

you-pl book read-Pst-2pl

You read a book

(iii) /*-lkəi*/ and /*-ləi*/ are the Past Tense Marker suffix in the Saptaria dialect of Tharu. They are added to the verb to mark the second person singular and plural. They are allomorphs and morphologically conditioned; -*lkəi* occurs with transitive verb, and -*ləi* occurs with intransitive verbs.

For example,

–	u	bhat	**khe**-**lkəi**
			v mk
	She/he	rice	eat-Pst-3^{sg}

She/he ate rice.

–	u-səm	bhat	**khe**-**lkəi**
			v mk
	She/he-pl	rice	eat-Pst-3^{pl}

They ate rice.

–	beTa	**sut**-**ləi**
		v mk
	son	sleep-Pst-3^{sg}

The son slept.

–	beTi	**sut**-**ləi**
		v mk
	daughter	sleep-Pst-3^{sg}

The daughter slept.

–	u	kitab	**pərhə**-**lkəi**
			v mk
	she/he	book	read-Pst-3^{sg}

She/he read a book.

–	u-səb	kitab	**pərhə**-**lkəi**
			v mk
	she/he-pl	book	read-Pst-3^{pl}

They read a book.

III. Future Tense Marker

(i) /*-bəi*/ is the Future Tense Marker suffix in the Saptaria Dialect of Tharu. It is added to the verb to mark the first person singular and plural.

For example,

–	həm	bhat	**khe-bəi**
			v mk
	I	rice	eat-Fut-1^{sg}

I will eat rice.

–	həm-səb	bhat	**khe-bəi**
			v mk
	I-pl	rice	eat-Fut-1^{pl}

We will eat rice

–	həm	kitab	**pərhə- bəi**
			v mk
	I	book	read-Fut-1^{sg}

I will read a book.

–	həm-səb	kitab	**pərhə- bəi**
			v mk
	I-pl	book	read-Fut-1^{pl}

We will read a book.

(ii) /*-bihi*/ is the Future Tense Marker suffix in the Saptaria dialect of Tharu. It is added to the verb to mark the second person.

For example,

–	tũ	bhat	**khe-bihi**
			v mk
	you	rice	eat-Fut-2^{sg}

You will eat rice.

– tũ kitab **pərhə-bihi**
v mk
you book read-Fut-2^{sg}

You will read a book.

– tũ-səb bhat **khe-bihi**
v mk
you-pl rice eat-Fut-2^{pl}

You will eat rice.

– tũ-səb kitab **pərhə-bihi**
v mk
you-pl book read-Fut-2^{pl}

You will read a book.

(iii) /*-təi*/ is the Future Tense Marker suffix in the Saptaria dialect of Tharu. It is added to the verb to mark the third person singular and plural.

For example,

– u bhat **khe-təi**
v mk
she/he rice eat-Fut-3^{sg}

She/he will eat rice.

– u-səb bhat **khe-təi**
v mk
She/he-pl rice eat-Fut-3^{pl}

They will eat rice.

– ram kitab **pərhə-təi**
v mk
ram book read-Fut-3^{sg}

Ram will read a book.

– sita kitab **pərhə-təi**
v mk
sita book read-Fut-3^{sg}

Sita will read a book.

– chəura isku:l **je-təi**
v mk

boy school go-Fut-3^{sg}

The boy will go to school.

– chəuri isku:l **je-təi**
v mk

girl school go-Fut-3^{sg}

The girl will go to school.

– u-səb isku:l **je-təi**
v mk

She/he-pl school go-Fut-3^{pl}

They will go to school.

3.1.5 Progressive Marker Affixes

There is only Progressive marker suffix in Tharu.

(i) /*-ite/* or /*rəhəl*/ is the progressive marker suffix in the Saptaria Dialect of Tharu. It is added to the verb which is followed by existential or identificational ‘be’ verbs.

For example,

– həm bhat **kha-ite-cie**
v mk

I rice eat-PROG be-Prs-1^{sg}

I am eating rice.

– tũ bhat **kha-ite-cihi**
v mk

you rice eat-PROG be-Prs-2^{sg}

you are eating rice.

– həri bhat **kha-ite-chəi**
v mk

hari rice eat-PROG be-Prs-3^{sg}

Hari is eating rice.

– həm cithi **likh-rəhəl-cie**
v mk

I rice write-PROG be-Prs-1^{sg}

I am writing a letter.

– tũ cithi **likh-rəhəl-cihi**
v mk

you letter write-PROG be-Prs-2^{sg}

You are writing a letter.

– u cithi **likh-rəhəl-chəi**
v mk

she/he letter write-PROG be-Prs-3^{sg}

She/he is writing a letter.

– həm cithi **likh-rəhəl-chelie**
v mk

I lettter write-PROG be-Pst-1^{sg}

I was writing a letter.

– tũ cithi **likh-rəhəl-chelihi**
v mk

you letter write-PROG be-Pst-2^{sg}

You were writing a letter.

– u cithi **likh-rəhəl-cheləi**
v mk

she/he letter write-PROG be-Pst-3^{sg}

She/he was writing a letter.

– u-səb cithi **likh-rəhəl-cheləi**
v mk

she/he -pl letter write-PROG be-Pst-3^{pl}

They were writing a letter.

3.1.6 Perfective Marker Affixes

There are no perfective marker prefix and infix in the Saptaria dialect of Tharu. So, only perfective marker suffix is discussed below.

The suffixes /*-ne*/ and /*-əl*/ indicate the perfective marker both in the present and past tense. They are allomorphs and morphologically conditioned; *-ne* occurs with transitive verb, and *-əl* occurs with intransitive verbs. They are added to the verbs which are followed by the ‘be’ verbs.

For example,

–	həm	bhat	**khe-ne-cie**
			v mk
	I	rice	eat-PERF be-Prs-1^{sg}

I have eaten rice.

–	tũ	bhat	**khe-ne-cihi**
			v mk
	you	rice	eat-PERF be-Prs-2^{sg}

You have eaten rice.

–	u	bhat	**kha-ne-chəi**
			v mk
	she/he	rice	eat-PERF be-Prs-3^{sg}

She/he has eaten rice.

–	həm-səb	bhat	**khe-ne-cie**
			v mk
	I-pl	rice	eat-PERF be-Prs-1^{pl}

We have eaten rice.

–	tũ-səb	bhat	**khe-ne-cihi**
			v mk
	you-pl	rice	eat-PERF be-Prs-2^{pl}

you have eaten rice.

– u-səb bhat **khe-ne-chəi**
v mk

she/he-pl rice eat-PERF be-Prs-3^{pl}

They have eaten rice.

– həm **sut-əl-cie**
v mk

I sleep-PERF be-Prs-1^{sg}

I have slept.

– həm-səb **sut-əl-cie**
v mk

I-pl sleep-PERF be-Prs-1^{pl}

We have slept.

– tũ **sut-əl-cihi**
v mk

you sleep-PERF be-Prs-2^{sg}

You have slept.

– tũ-səb **sut-əl-cihi**
v mk

you sleep-PERF be-Prs-2^{pl}

You have slept.

– u **sut-əl-chəi**
v mk

she/he sleep-PERF be-Prs-3^{sg}

She/he has slept.

– u-səb **sut-əl- chəi**
v mk

she/he-pl sleep-PERF be-Prs-3^{pl}

They have slept.

– həm **sut-əl-chelie**
v mk
I sleep-PERF be-Pst-1^{sg}

I had slept.

– həm-səb **sut-əl-chelie**
v mk
I-pl sleep-PERF be-Pst-1^{pl}

We had slept.

– tũ **sut-əl-chelihi**
v mk
you sleep-PERF be-Pst-2^{sg}

You had slept.

– tũ-səb **sut-əl-chelihi**
v mk
you-pl sleep-PERF be-Pst-2^{pl}

You had slept.

– u **sut-əl-cheləi**
v mk
she/he sleep-PERF be-Pst-3^{sg}

She/he had slept.

– u-səb **sut-əl-cheləi**
v mk
she/he-pl sleep-PERF be-Pst-3^{pl}

They had slept.

– həm bhat **khe-ne-chelie**
v mk
I rice eat-PERF be-Pst-1^{sg}

I had eaten rice.

–	həm-səb	bhat	**khe-ne-chelie**
			v mk
	I-pl	rice	eat-PERF be-Pst-1^{pl}

We had eaten rice.

–	tũ	bhat	**khe-ne-chelihi**
			v mk
	you	rice	eat-PERF be-Pst-2^{sg}

You had eaten rice.

–	tũ-səb	bhat	**khe-ne-chelihi**
			v mk
	you-pl	rice	eat-PERF be-Pst-2^{pl}

You had eaten rice.

–	u	bhat	**khe-ne-cheləi**
			v mk
	she/he	rice	eat-PERF be-Pst-3^{sg}

She/he had eaten rice.

–	u-səb	bhat	**khe-ne-cheləi**
			v mk
	she/he-pl	rice	eat-PERF be-Pst-3^{pl}

They had eaten rice.

3.1.7 Infinitive Marker Affixes

There are no infinitive marker prefix and infix in the Saptaria dialect of Tharu. So, only infinitive marker suffix is discussed below:

The suffix *–ile* indicates the infinitive marker suffix in the Saptaria dialect of Tharu. It is added to the verb stem.

For example,

–	ram	gai	**cəra-ile-ge-ləi**
			v mk
	Ram	cow	graze-INF go-Pst-3^{sg}

Ram went to graze the cow.

–	həm	**sut-ile-ge-lie**
		v mk
	I	sleep-INF go-Pst-1^{sg}

I went to sleep.

–	u	kitab	**pərhə-ile-ge-ləi**
			v mk
	she/he	book	read-INF go-Pst-3^{sg}

She/he went to read a book.

–	ram	timən	**kha-ile-ge-ləi**
			v mk
	Ram	meat	eat-INF go-Pst-3^{sg}

Ram went to eat meat

3.1.8 Negation Marker Affixes

There is only negation marker prefix in the Saptaria dialect of Tharu. *-nəi* is the negation marker prefix in Saptaria dialect of Tharu. It is added to the verb stem.

–	həm	bhat	**nəi-khai-cie**
			mk v
	I	rice	NEG-eat-be-Prs-1^{sg}

I do not eat rice.

–	həm	kitab	**nəi-pərhəi-ci-e**
			mk v
	I	book	NEG-read-be-Prs-1^{sg}

I read a book.

– u bhat **nəi-khai-chəi**
mk v

she/he rice NEG-eat-be-Prs-3^{sg}

She/he does not eat rice.

– u-səb bhat **nəi-khai-chəi**
mk v

she/he-pl book NEG-eat-be-Prs-3^{pl}

They do not read a book.

– həm-səb bhat **nəi-khai-cie**
mk v

I-pl rice NEG-eat-be-Prs-1^{pl}

We do not eat rice.

– həm ghər **nəi-jai-cie**
mk v

I home NEG-got-be-Prs-1^{sg}

I do not go home.

– həm-səb ghər **nəi-jai-cie**
mk v

I-pl home NEG-go-be-Prs-1^{pl}

We do not go home.

– həm kitab **nəi-pərhə-cie**
mk v

I book NEG- read-be-Prs-1^{sg}

I do not read a book.

– həm-səb kitab **nəi-pərhə-cie**
mk v

I-pl book NEG read-be-Prs-1^{pl}

We do not read a book.

–	u	kitab	**nəi-pərhə-chəi**
			mk v
	she/he	book	NEG read-be-Prs-3^{sg}

She/he does not read a book.

–	u-səb	kitab	**nəi-pərhə-chəi**
			mk v
	she/he-pl	book	NEG read-be-Prs-3^{pl}

They do not read a book.

3.2 Comparison between English and Tharu Affixation

Comparison of both English and Tharu Affixes are as follows:

3.2.1 Person Marker Affixes

English has only one person marker suffix. -*s* is the person marker suffix in English. It is added to the verbs to mark the third person singular. It has different allomorphs and the occurrence of one allomorph differs from the occurrence of another. They are as follows:

(i) [-*s*] is the allomorph of the morpheme –*s* and it added to the verbs where the final element of the verb is voiceless and not sibilant or palatal to form the third person singular, e.g. He writes fast.

(ii) [-*z*] is the allomorph of the morpheme –*s* and it is added to the verbs where the final element of the verb is voiced and is not sibilant or palatal to form the third person singular, e.g. He loves her.

(iii) [-*iz*] is the allomorph of the morpheme –*s* and it is added to verbs where the final element of the verb is sibilant or palatal to form the third person singular, e.g. He kisses her.

But Tharu has all person marker suffixes i.e. first person, second person and third person. They are as follows:

(i) /-*e*/ is the person marker suffix in the Saptaria Dialect of Tharu. It is added to the verb to mark the first person singular and plural. It occurs only in the present and past tense.

For example,

– həm bhat **khai-ci-e**
v mk

I rice eat-be-Prs-1^{sg}

I eat rice.

(ii) /-*hi*/ is the person marker suffix in the Saptaria dialect of Tharu. It is added to the verb to mark the second person.

For example,

– tũ timən **khai-ci-hi**
v mk

you meat eat-be-Prs-2^{sg}

You eat meat.

(iii) /-*əi*/ is the person marker suffix in the Saptaria dialect of Tharu. It is added to the verb to mark the third person singular and plural.

For example,

– u bhat **khai-ch-əi**
v mk

she/he rice eat-be-Prs-3^{sg}

She/he eats rice.

3.2.2 Number Marker Affixes

English has only one number marker suffix. -*s* is the number marker suffix in English. It is added to the verbs to mark the third person singular number. It has different allomorphs and the occurrence of one allomorph differs from the occurrence of another. They are as follows:

(i) [-*s*] is the allomorph of the morpheme –*s* and it added to the verbs ending in voiceless sound not in sibilant or palatal to form the third person singular number, e.g. He writes fast.

(ii) [-*z*] is the allomorph of the morpheme –*s* and it is added to the verbs ending in voiced sound not in sibilant or palatal to form the third person singular number, e.g. He loves her.

(iii) [-*iz*] is the allomorph of the morpheme –*s* and it is added to verbs ending in sibilant or palatal sound to form the third person singular number, e.g. He kisses her.

But Tharu has no different number marker. For example,

– u bhat **khai-ch-əi**
v mk

she/he rice eat-be-Prs-3^{sg}

She/he eats rice.

– u-səb bhat **khai-ch-əi**
v mk

She/he-pl rice eat-be-Prs-3^{pl}

They eat rice.

3.2.3 Tense Marker Affixes

English has only two tense marker suffixes, one non-past marker and the other past tense marker. They are as follows:

I. Non-past markers

-*s* is the non-past marker suffix in English. It is added to the verbs to mark the third person singular non-past. It has different allomorphs and the occurrence of one allomorph differs from the occurrence of another. They are as follows:

(i) [-*s*] is the allomorph of the morpheme –*s* and it is added to the verbs where the final element of the verb is voiceless and not sibilant or palatal to form the third person singular non-past, e.g. He writes fast.

(ii) [-*z*] is the allomorph of the morpheme –*s* and it is added to the verbs where the final element of the verb is voiced and is not sibilant or palatal to form the third person singular non-past, e.g. He loves her.

(iii) [-*iz*] is the allomorph of the morpheme –*s* and it is added to verbs where the final element of the verb is sibilant or palatal to form the third person singular non-past, e.g. He kisses her.

II. Past Marker Suffixes

-*ed* is the past marker suffix in English. It is added to the regular verb to mark all person and number in the past tense. It has different allomorphs and the occurrence of one allomorph differs from the occurrence of another. They are as follows:

(i) [-*t*] is the past tense marker suffix in English. It is added to the regular verbs when the final sound of the verb is voiceless consonant that is not [t] and [d] to form past tense marker, e.g. He looked ahead and stopped.

(ii) [-*d*] is the past tense marker suffix in English. It is added to the regular verbs when the final sound of the verb is voiced consonant that is not [t] and [d] to form past tense marker, e.g. He explained the lesson clearly.

(iii) [-*id*] is the past tense marker suffix in English. It is added to the regular verbs when the final sound of the verb is [t] and [d] to form the past tense marker, e.g. She guided me for my thesis writing.

But Tharu has three tense markers i.e. present, past and future tense marker suffixes. They are as follows:

I. Present tense marker

(i) /*-cie /* is the present tense marker suffix in the Saptaria dialect of Tharu. It is added to the verb to mark the first person singular and plural and to indicate present tense.

For example,

–	həm	bhat	**khai-*cie***
			v mk
	I	rice	eat-Prs-1^{sg}

I eat rice.

(ii) /*-cihi*/ is the Present Tense Marker suffix in the Saptaria dialect of Tharu. It is added to the verb to mark the present tense and to mark the second person.

For example,

–	tũ	timən	**khai-cihi**
			v mk
	you	meat	eat-Prs-2^{sg}

You eat meat.

(iii) /*-chəi*/ is the Present Tense Marker suffix in the Saptaria dialect of Tharu. It is added to the verb to mark the third person singular and plural.

For example,

–	u	bhat	**khai-chəi**
			v mk
	she/he	rice	eat-Prs-3^{sg}

She/he eats rice.

II. Past Tense Markers

(i) /*-lie*/ is the Past Tense Marker suffix in the Saptaria dialect of Tharu. It is added to the verb to mark the first person singular and plural.

For example,

– həm bhat **khe**-**lie**
v mk

I rice eat-Pst-1^{sg}

I ate rice.

(ii) /-*lihi*/ is the Past Tense Marker suffix in the Saptaria dialect of Tharu. It is added to the verb to mark the second person singular and plural.

For example,

– tũ bhat **khe**-**lihi**
v mk

you rice eat-Pst-2^{sg}

You ate rice.

(iii) /-*lkəi*/ and /-*ləi*/ are the Past Tense Marker suffix in the Saptaria dialect of Tharu. They are added to the verb to mark the second person singular and plural. They are allomorphs and morphologically conditioned; -*lkəi* occurs with transitive verb, and -*ləi* occurs with intransitive verbs.

For example,

– u bhat **khe**-**lkəi**
v mk

She/he rice eat-Pst-3^{sg}

She/he ate rice.

– beTa **sut**-**ləi**
v mk

son sleep-Pst-3^{sg}

The son slept.

III. Future Tense Marker

(i) /*-bəi*/ is the Future Tense Marker suffix in the Saptaria Dialect of Tharu. It is added to the verb to mark the first person singular and plural.

For example,

–	həm	bhat	**khe**-**bəi**
			v mk
	I	rice	eat-Fut-1^{sg}

I will eat rice.

(ii) /*-bihi*/ is the Future Tense Marker suffix in the Saptaria dialect of Tharu. It is added to the verb to mark the second person.

For example,

–	tũ	bhat	**khe**-**bihi**
			v mk
	you	rice	eat-Fut-2^{sg}

You will eat rice.

(iii) /*-təi*/ is the Future Tense Marker suffix in the Saptaria dialect of Tharu. It is added to the verb to mark the third person singular and plural.

For example,

–	u	bhat	**khe**-**təi**
			v mk
	she/he	rice	eat-Fut-3^{sg}

She/he will eat rice.

3.2.4 Progressive Marker Affixes

English has no alternative progressive marker suffix. *-ing* is only the progressive marker suffix in English. It is immediately added to the verbs.

For examples,

He is going to work by bus.

We are eating a lot more meat now.

But Tharu has alternative progressive marker suffixes. *-ite* or *-rəhəl* is the progressive marker suffix in the Saptaria Dialect of Tharu. It is added to the verb which is followed by existential or identificational 'be' verbs.

For example,

– həm	bhat	**kha-ite-cie** v mk
I	rice	eat-PROG be-Prs-1^{sg}

I am eating rice.

– tũ	cithi	**likh-rəhəl-cihi** v mk
you	letter	write-PROG be-Prs-2^{sg}

You are writing a letter.

3.2.5 Perfective Marker Affixes

English and Tharu have only perfective marker suffixes.

-ed is the perfective marker suffix in English. It is added to the regular verb to mark all persons and numbers in both non-past and past tense. It has different allomorphs and the occurrence of one allomorph differs from the occurrence of another. They are as follows:

(i) [-*t*] is the past tense marker suffix in English. It is added to the regular verbs when the final sound of the verb is voiceless consonant that is not [t] and [d] to form the past tense marker, e.g. He looked ahead and stopped.

(ii) [-*d*] is the past tense marker suffix in English. It is added to the regular verbs when the final sound of the verb is voiced consonant that is not [t] and [d] to form past tense marker. e.g. He explained the lesson clearly.

(iii) [-*id*] is the past tense marker suffix in English. It is added to the regular verbs when the final sound of the verb is [t] and [d] to form past tense marker, e.g. She guided me for my thesis writing.

–*en* is the perfective marker suffix in English. It is added to the irregular verb to mark all persons and numbers in both non-past and past tense, e.g. He has eaten rice.

But in Tharu, the suffixes /-*ne*/ and /-*əl*/ indicate the perfective markers both in the present and past tense. They are allomorphs and morphologically conditioned; -*ne* occurs with transitive verb, and -*əl* occurs with intransitive verbs. They are added to the verbs which are followed by the 'be' verbs.

For example,

– həm bhat **khe-ne-cie**
  v mk
I rice eat-PERF be-Prs-1^{sg}

I have eaten rice.

– həm **sut-əl-cie**
  v mk
I sleep-PERF be-Prs-1^{sg}

I have slept.

3.2.7 Infinitive Marker Affixes

Tharu has infinitive marker suffix whereas English lacks it. The suffix –*ile* indicates the infinitive marker suffix in the Saptaria dialect of Tharu. It is added to the verb stem.

For example,

– ram gai **cəra-ile-ge-ləi**
  v mk
Ram cow graze-INF go-Pst-3^{sg}

Ram went to graze the cow.

3.2.8 Negation Marker Affixes

English has negation marker prefixes in greater number than Saptaria dialect of Tharu. Tharu has only one negation marker prefix.

Negation marker prefixes are added to the verbs irrespective of the inflectional suffixes attached to the verbs irrespective of person, number, and tense in English.

(i) /*dis*-/ is the negation marker prefix in English and it means ‘not’, e.g. She disobeyed her parents.

(ii) /*un*-/ is the negation marker prefix in English and it means ‘reverse’, e.g. I quickly untied the package.

(iii) /*mis*-/ is the negation marker prefix in English and it means ‘badly or wrongly’, e.g. I may have misplaced the pen.

(iv) /*counter*-/ is the negation marker prefix in English and it means ‘against or opposite’, e.g. The government’s exercises aim to counteract the Maoist movement in Nepal.

(v) /*mal*-/ is the negation marker prefix in English and it means ‘bad or badly’ ‘not correct or correctly’, e.g. We should not maltreat foreigners.

There is only negation marker prefix in the Saptaria dialect of Tharu. -*nəi* is the negation marker prefix in Saptaria dialect of Tharu. It is added to the verb stem.

– həm bhat **nəi-khai-cie**
mk v

I rice NEG-eat-be-Prs-1^{sg}

I do not eat rice.

CHAPTER – FOUR

FINDING AND RECOMMENDATIONS

4.1 Findings

On the basis of analysis of collected data, the major findings of this research are given below:

4.1.1 Verbal affixes in Tharu

The verbal affixes in Tharu are as follows:

a) -*e* is the first person singular and plural marker suffix.

b) -*hi* is the second person singular and plural marker suffix.

c) -*əi* is the third person singular and plural number marker suffix.

d) -*cie* is the present tense marker suffix. It is added to the verbs to mark the first person singular and plural.

e) -*cihi* is the present tense marker suffix. It is added to the verbs to mark the second person singular and plural.

f) -*chəi* is the present tense marker suffix. It is added to the verbs to mark the third person singular and plural.

g) -*lie* is the first person singular and plural past tense marker suffix.

h) -*lihi* is the second person singular and plural past tense marker suffix.

i) -*lkəi* and -*ləi* are the third person singular and plural past tense marker suffix.

j) -*bəi* is the first person future tense marker suffix.

k) -*bihi* is the second person future tense marker suffix.

l) -*təi* is the third person future tense marker suffix.

m) –*ite* or -*rəhəl* is progressive marker suffixed to the verb stems.

n) -*ne* and -*əl* are perfective marker suffixed to the verb stems.

o) -*ile* is an infinitive marker always suffixed to the verb stems.

p) -*nəi* indicates negative marker which is always used before the verb stems.

4.1.2 Similarities and Differences between Verbal Affixation in the Tharu and English Language

a) Both Saptaria dialect of Tharu and English have only person marker suffixes. English has only one person marker suffix and it marks the third person singular whereas Tharu has all person marker suffixes i.e. first person, second person and third person.

b) Both Saptaria dialect of Tharu and English have only number marker suffixes. English has only one number marker suffix and it marks the third person singular whereas Tharu has three number marker suffixes. However, the same number marker suffixes are used for both singular and plural number.

c) Saptaria dialect of Tharu has three tense markers i.e. present, past and future tense marker suffixes whereas English has only two tense marker suffixes, one non-past marker and the other past tense marker.

d) Saptaria dialect of Tharu has alternative progressive marker suffixes whereas English has no alternative progressive marker suffix.

e) Saptaria dialect of Tharu has infinitive marker suffix whereas English lacks it.

f) English has negative marker prefixes in greater number than Saptaria dialect of Tharu. Tharu has only one negation marker prefix.

g) Both Saptaria dialect of Tharu and English lack infixation system.

h) How affixes are added to the verbs does not depend upon the number and gender of the subject of a sentence in Saptaria dialect of Tharu.

i) Saptaria dialect of Tharu has gender marker suffixes but the same gender marker suffixes are used for both masculine and feminine.

4.2 Recommendations

On the basis of the findings listed above, the researcher recommends the following points for pedagogical implications:

a) Verbal affixation system in Saptaria dialect of Tharu is more or less similar to that of English. So, language teachers who are teaching Tharu as a second language should be aware of this fact.

b) The main aim of this comparative study was to identify the verbal affixes and to find out similarities and differences in verbal affixation in the Tharu and English languages. There would be no problem in the areas where the two languages are similar but differences between the two languages create difficulty in learning the target language. Therefore, teaching should be focused on the areas of difficulty.

c) The findings of the present study show that Tharu has more number of verbal affixes in comparison to English and they are more complex than those of English. So, complexity of Tharu verbal affixation system should be considered while teaching English verbal affixation system to Tharu native speakers.

d) There are no different gender markers and no different number markers in the Tharu language. So, language teachers who are teaching Tharu as a second language should be made aware of this fact.

e) Tharu verbal affixes do not depend upon the number and gender of the subject of a sentence. So language teachers who are teaching Tharu as a second language should be aware of this fact.

f) Verbal affixation system of English is not complicated as that of Tharu. So, Tharu native speakers are to be made aware of this fact by making them exposed to enough examples of English verbs to which the verbal affixes are added.

g) The findings of the present study are significant for grammarians who write Tharu grammar.

h) This study is equally important for the teachers who are teaching English as a foreign language at schools where Tharu speakers appear as students.

i) This research is beneficial to those who are preparing English text books as second language text books and the curriculum development centre, especially language curriculum.

REFERENCES

Aronoff. 1997. **Contemporary Linguistics: An Introduction**. New York: St. Martin’s Press.

Bauer, L. 1983. **English Word Formation**. Cambridge: CUP.

Bhandari, B. L. 1998. **A Text Book on Fundamentals of Language and Linguistics**. Kathmandu: Vidyarthi Pustak Bhandar.

Bhandari, R. D. 2002. **Affixation in English and Nepali: A Comparative Study**. An Unpublished M.Ed. Thesis: T.U.

Bhattarai, G. R. 2005. **A Thematic Analysis of Research Reports**. Kathmandu: Ratna Pustak Bhandar.

Bhattarai, L.P. 2001. **Case in English and Nepali: A Comparative Study**. An Unpublished M.Ed. Thesis: T.U.

CBS. 2002. **Population Census 2001**. National Report. Kathmandu: Ratna Pustak Bhandar.

Chaudhary, A.R. 2060 B.S. **Tharu Language: A Sociolinguistic Survey**. An Unpublished M.A. Thesis: Tribhuvan University.

Chaudhary, B. 2005. **Pronominals in the Tharu and English: A Comparative Study**. An Unpublished M.Ed. Thesis: T.U.

Chaudhary, M. K. 2005. **A Sketch Grammar of Saptaria Tharu**. An Unpublished M.A. Thesis, T.U.

Chauhary, B. 2057 B.S. **Tharu Dastawej** (Tharu Language Preservation), Karyapatra: Saptari.

Crystal. 2003. **A Dictionary of Linguistics and Phonetics**. Fifth Edition. Blackwell Publishing Ltd.

Katamba, F. 1993. **Morphology**. London: Macmillan.

Kumar, R. 1996. **Research Methodology**. London: Sage Publication.

Langacker, R. W. 1967. **Language and its Structure**. New York: Harcourt.

Mahato, R. 2001. **Subject-Verb Agreement in the Tharu and English: A Comparative Study**. An Unpublished M.A. Thesis: T.U.

Marchand, H. 1969. **Categories and Types of Present-Day English Word Formation**. (2nd ed.). Munich: C.H. Beck'sche Verlagsbuchandlung.

Matthews, P. H. 1991. **Morphology**. Cambridge: CUP.

Palmer, F. R. 1965. **A Linguistic Study of the English Verb**. London: Longman.

Sapir, E. 1921. **Language**. New York: Harcourt.

Tumbapo, P. B. 2005. **Verbal Affixation in English and Limbu: A Comparative Study**. An Unpublished M.Ed. Thesis: T.U.

Varshney, R. L. 1995. **An Introductory Textbook of Linguistics and Phonetics**. Bareilly: Student Store.

Yadava, Y. P. 2001. **Linguistics: A Basic Course**. Kirtipur: New Hira Books Enterprizes.

APPENDIX - I

INTERVIEW QUESTIONNAIRE

अन्तरवार्ता प्रश्नावली

This interview questionnaire has been prepared in order to accomplish a research work entitled "A Comparative Study on Verbal Affixation in Tharu and English". This research is being carried out under the guidance of Ass. lecturer Mrs. Hima Rawal, Central Department of English Language Education, Faculty of Education, T.U., Kirtipur, Kathmandu. It is hoped that your kind cooperation will be a great contribution in the accomplishment of this valuable research.

Researcher
Roshan Prasad Chaudhary
Central Department of Education
T.U., Kirtipur, Kathmandu

Name (नाम) : .... Sex (लिङ्ग) : ....

District (जिल्ला) : ....

Academic Qualification (शैक्षिक योग्यता) : ....

How do you say the following expressions in Tharu?

1. I eat rice. (म भात खान्छु ।)

   ....

2. You eat meat. (तिमि मासु खान्छौ ।)

   ....

3. He eats rice. (उ भात खान्छ ।)

   ....

4. I read a book. (म किताब पढछु ।)

   ....

5. You read a book. (तिमि किताब पढछौ ।)

   ....

6. He reads a book. (उ किताब पढछ ।)

   ....

7. I watch T.V. (म टिभी हेर्छु ।)

   ....

8. You watch T.V. (तिमि टिभी हेर्छौं ।)

....

9. He watches T.V. (उ टिभी हेर्छ ।)

....

10. We eat rice. (हामी भात खान्छौ ।)

....

11. They eat rice. (उनीहरु भात खान्छन् ।)

....

12. We read a book. (हामी किताब पढछौ ।)

....

13. They read a book. (उनीहरु किताब पढछौ ।)

....

14. We watch T.V. (हामी टिभी हेर्छौं ।)

....

15. They watch T.V. (उनीहरु टिभी हेर्छन् ।)

....

16. I ate rice. (मैले भात खाएँ ।)

....

17. You ate rice. (तिमिले भात खायौ ।)

....

18. He ate rice. (उसले भात खायो ।)

....

19. We ate rice. (हामीले भात खायौँ ।)

....

20. They ate rice. (उनीहरुले भात खाए ।)

....

21. The son slept. (छोरा सुत्यो ।)

....

22. The daughter slept. (छोरी सुत्यो ।)

....

23. I will eat rice. (म भात खानेछु ।)

....

24. You will eat rice. (तिमि भात खानेछौ ।)

....

25. He will eat rice. (उ भात खानेछ ।)

....

26. We will eat rice. (हामी भात खानेछौँ ।)

....

27. They will eat rice. (उनीहरु भात खानेछन् ।)

....

28. The boy goes to school. (केटा स्कुल जान्छ ।)

....

29. The girl goes to school. (केटी स्कुल जान्छे ।)

....

30. Ram reads a book. (राम किताब पढ्छ ।)

....

31. Sita reads a book. (सीता किताब पढ्छे ।)

....

32. I do not read a book. (म किताब पढ्दिन ।)

....

33. He does not read a book. (उ किताब पढ्दैन ।)

....

34. They do not read a book. (उनीहरु किताब पढ्दैनन् ।)

....

35. We do not read a book. (हामी किताब पढ्दैनौँ ।)

....

36. I do not eat rice. (म भात खाँदिन ।)

....

37. He does not eat rice. (उ भात खाँदैन ।)

....

38. They do not eat rice. (उनीहरु भात खाँदैनन् ।)

....

39. We do not eat rice. (हामी भात खाँदैनौँ ।)

....

40. I do not go home. (म घर जाँदिन ।)

....

41. We do not go home. (हामी घर जाँदैनौ ।)

....

42. Don't move. (न सर ।)

....

43. Don't open the door. (ढोका न खोल ।)

....

44. Don't cross the road. (रोड पार नगर ।)

....

45. Ram went to graze the cow. (राम गाईलाई चराउन गयो ।)

....

46. I went to sleep. (म सुत्न गएँ ।)

....

47. He went to read a book. (उ किताब पढ्न गयो ।)

....

48. Ram went to eat meat. (राम मासु खान गयो ।)

....

49. I am eating rice. (म भात खाँदैछु ।)

....

50. You are eating rice. (तिमि भात खाँदैछौ ।)

....

51. He is eating rice. (उ भात खाँदैछ ।)

....

52. Hari is eating rice. (हरि भात खाँदैछ ।)

....

53. I have eaten rice. (मैले भात खाएको छु ।)

....

54. He has eaten rice. (उसले भात खाएको छ ।)

....

55. I had eaten rice. (मैले भात खाइसकेको छु ।)

....

56. He had eaten rice. (उसले भात खाइसकेको छ ।)

....

57. I have slept. (म सुतेको छु ।)

....

58. He has slept. (उ सुतेको छ ।)

....

59. I had slept. (म सुतिसकेको थिएँ ।)

....

60. He had slept. (उ सुतिसकेको थियो ।)

....

61. You have eaten rice. (तिमीले भात खाएको छौ ।)

....

62. We have eaten rice. (हामीले भात खाएका छौं ।)

....

63. They have eaten rice. (उनीहरुले भात खाएका छन् ।)

....

64. We had eaten rice. (हामीले भात खाइसकेका थियौं ॥)

....

65. You had eaten rice. (तिमीले भात खाइसकेको थियौ ।)

....

66. They had eaten rice. (उनीहरुले भात खाइसकेका थिएँ ।)

....

67. We had slept. (हामी सुतिसकेका थियौं ।)

....

68. You had slept. (तिमी सुतिसकेको थियौ ।)

....

69. They had slept. (उनीहरु सुतिसकेका थिए ।)

....

70. I am writing a letter. (म चिट्ठी लेखिरहेको छु ।)

....

71. You are writing a letter. (तिमी चिट्ठी लेखिरहेको छौ ।)

....

72. He is writing a letter. (ऊ चिट्ठी लेखिरहेको छ ।)

....

73. I was writing a letter. (म चिट्ठी लेखिरहेको थिएँ ।)

....

74. You were writing a letter. (तिमी चिट्ठी लेखिरहेको थियौ ।)

....

75. He was writing a letter. (ऊ चिट्ठी लेखिरहेको थियो ।)

....

76. They were writing a letter. (उनीहरु चिट्ठी लेखिरहेका थिए ।)

....

77. We have slept. (हामी सुतिरहेका छौं ।)

....

78. You have slept. (तिमी सुतिरहेको छौ ।)

....

79. They have slept. (उनीहरु सुतिसकेका छन् ।)

....

APPENDIX – II

CONSONANT PHONEMES OF THARU

		Bilabial		Dental		Alveolar		Palatal		Velar		Glottal	
		-V	+V	-V	+V	-V	+V	-V	+V	-V	+V	-V	+V
Stops	-Asp	p	b	t	d	T	D			k	g		
	+Asp	p^h	b^h	t^h	d^h	T^h	D^h			k^h	g^h		
Africates	-Asp					c	j						
	+Asp					c^h	j^h						
Fricatives						s							σ
Nasal			m				n				ŋ		
Lateral							l						
Tril							r						
Glide			w						y				

Source: Chaudhary (2005)

VOWEL PHONEMES OF THARU

	Front	**Centre**	**Back**
High	i		u
Mid	e	ə	o
Low	æ	a	]

Source: Chaudhary (2005)