

# CHAPTER ONE

## INTRODUCTION

### 1.1 General Background

A language is a system of visual, auditory or tactile symbols of communication and the rules used to manipulate them. It can also refer to the use of such system as a general phenomenon. It is considered to be an exclusively human mode of communication.

Human languages are usually referred to as natural language. A common progression for natural languages is that they are first spoken, then written, and then an understanding and explanation of their grammar is attempted. Different languages are spoken in the world. Some languages have both written and spoken form but some languages have only spoken form. In different languages, the English language is the international language, similarly, the Nepali language, national language for Nepal, is spoken by the most of the people in Nepal. In Nepal, more than 92 languages are spoken among them the Limbu language is a one which is spoken in Limbu community especially in the eastern region of Nepal.

According to Subba and Baral (2008, p.26), the word 'Limbu' was derived from 'Yakthughang' and 'Lilimhang'. The Limbu people themselves believed offspring of 'Yakthunghang Lilimhang'. They were called 'Yakthungba' and their state- 'Yakthungba lage' until 6th century. Campbell (1840, p. 595) writes:

The Limbus considers themselves to be the original inhabitants of the country. They now occupy, at least they are satisfied that none of the neighboring tribes have any claims of pre-occupation but they are not agreed themselves, on the point of nativity. (as cited in Driem, 1987, p. xix )

In the Limbu history, the origin of Limbu is found rarely but it is found that most of the writers have explained 'Limbuwan'. According to Chemjong (2003) Limbuwan was established due to the quarrel between Limbus after the death of Isha Mashih. Similarly, Chemjong (2003) further defines the term 'Limbuwan' was derived from 'Li', 'Aabu' and 'wan'. Here 'Li', 'Aabu' and 'wan' means 'bow', 'to shut' and 'to name' respectively. In this way, it is the state in which rule over using 'Dhanu Ban' i.e. called Limbuwan. (as cited in Subba and Baral, 2008, p.1)

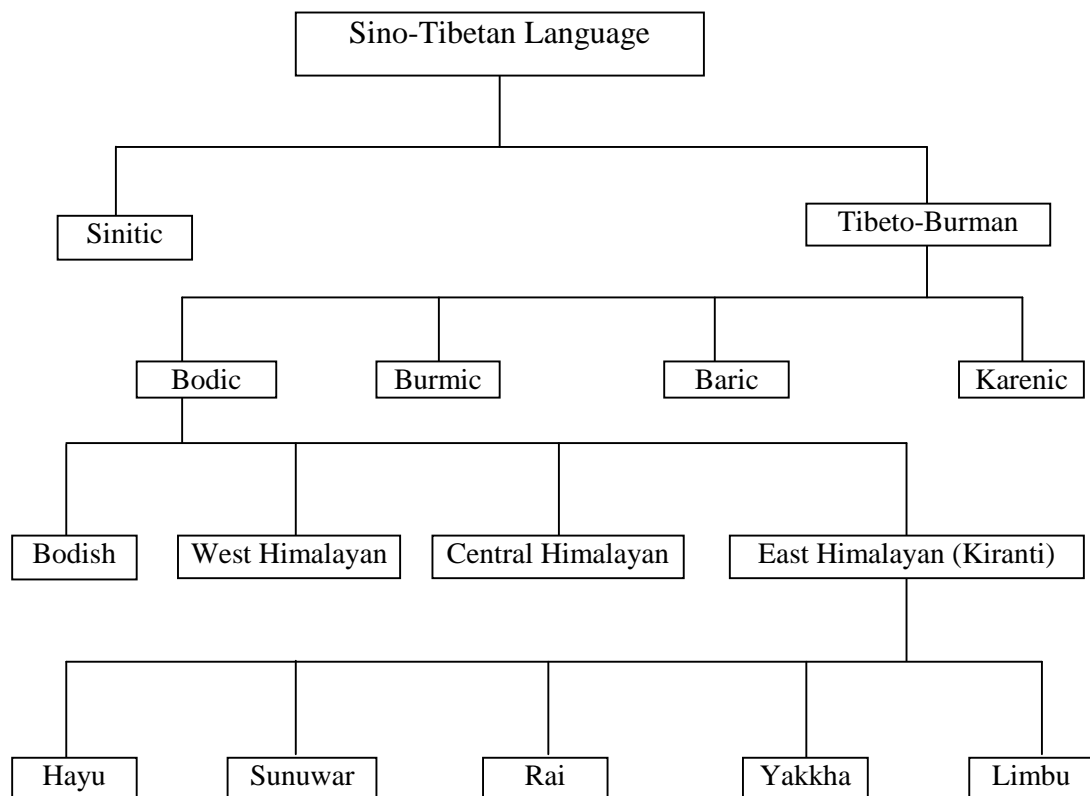
Limbu, one of the ethnic groups, is found in the eastern part of Nepal i.e. in Taplejung, Pachthar, Tehrathum, Dhankuta, Ilam, Sankhuwasabha district in the areas of 16,358 sq kilometers. Among the different castes of Nepal, the Limbu is a cast which has its own culture, language, literature, custom, festival and religion. Limbu people have their own unique culture, which is different from other cultures in Nepal. They have their own custom, tradition and festivals. Sappok Chomen, (Ceremonies preceding the birth), Yangdang Phongma (Naming a child), Mangenna (Wording off evil influences), Nahangma (Anoining the family head), Tongsing (A link with the ancestors and the present) etc. are the customs and religion of Limbus (as cited in Subba, 1998, pp.41-47). Similarly, Limbus have their own festivals. They celebrate different festivals in different occasions. According to Lawati (2006, p.5) Yakwa Tangnam, Shisekpa Tangnam, Balihang Tangnam, Chasok Tangnam, Kakfekwa Tangnam are the festivals of Limbus.

In case of literature, Limbus have their own literature in their language. Different literary texts have been published in the Limbu language. Subba (2002, pp.32-36) says that 'Kirati Dantya Katha' by Chemjong(1965), 'Kirati Lok Kathaharu' by Shrestha (1991), Nisamman Sewa Samlo' by Tholong and Chemjong (1930), 'Anga Syang Recho' by Lingden (1982) and 'Thothama' by Muringla are the Limbu literature. Through the literary perspective, Limbu literature is rich.

### 1.1.1 The Limbu Language

The Limbu language is a one among different languages in Nepal. It has both written and spoken form. It is spoken in eastern part of Nepal including Sikkim, Bhutan and Darjeeling district of India. The speaker of the Limbu language is called 'Yakthugba' and language- 'Yakthungba pan' in the Limbu native language. In case of Nepal, according to CBS report (2002, p. 140), the Limbu language is spoken by about 333633 people which is the 1.47% of the total population of Nepal. According to Subba (2002, p. 1), the Limbu language is widely spoken by about two lakh people in India mostly in the state of Sikkim, hill areas of west Bengal, Assam and other North-Eastern States. About six lakh Limbu people speak this language in the world throughout India, Nepal, Bhutan, Hong Kong, Singapore, Myanmar, Brunei, Canada, UK and other parts of the world.

The Limbu language belongs to the Sino-Tibetan language family. It is shown in the following diagram (as cite in Tumbahang, 2007, p. 15):



The Limbu language has its own script, which is known as ‘Sirijanga Script’. Subba (2002, p. 4) says, “ It is believed that Sirjanga Hang of Yangwork Garh (882-925AD) of Limbuwan country for the first time confined ‘Aakaranta’ script to educate illiterate through the teaching of Yuma Riligion. This script was continued by his brother, king Yongjonga after his death”. According to Subba (1997, pp. 41-42), ‘Sirijanga Skript’ was invented by the king Sirijanga as early as in 9th century A.D’. (as cited in Subba and Baral, 2008, p.4).

Subba (1998, p. 32) describes ‘Sirijanga Script’ had almost disappeared for 800 years and it was brought into practice again by Te-Ongsi Sirijanga Thebe (1704-1741 AD) of Tellok, Sinam. In 1925, Maita Singh Thegim of Dungra Busty, Kalimpong, organized a meeting of Limbu and formed the first literary organization of Limbu community and named ‘Yakthung Hang Chumlung’. Imanshing Chemjong was appointed as a specialist in the Department of Kirati Language and Culture in Tribhuwan University Katmandu in 1961. At that time, he published books ‘Limbu-Nepalai - English Dictionary’, ‘Kirat Folklore’, ‘Kirat Mundhum’ and ‘Kirat Musndhum Khahun’ in 1965 from Kathmandu (as cited in Subba, 2002, p. 8).

Subba (2002, p.18) mentions Puspa Subba Thamsuhang of Yangnam Lungchok, Thoba village started the first Limbu Magazine ‘Sirijanga Sap Inghong’ in ‘Sirijanga Script’ in 1972. In case of the Limbu language development, Sikkim is forward than Nepal. According to Subba (2002, p.20), in Sikkim, there were 226 primary teachers, 36 graduate teachers and 5 post-graduate teachers teaching and 7,262 students studying in the Limbu language by 1998 but in case of Nepal, Nepali Limbus are backward than Sikkime Limbus in the development of the Limbu language. On Srawan 7, 2047, Nepal Rajakiya Pragya Pratisthan decided to collect and publish Limbu ‘Ukhan’ and ‘Tukka’ and ‘Limbu- Nepali - English Dictionary’ (as cited in Kaila, 2048). Today, 72 schools of Taplejung, Pachthar and Tehrathum have been teaching the Limbu language as an optional subject in primary level under the initiation of Local Management Committees of schools.

### 1.1.1.1 The Limbu Phonetics and Phonology

The Limbu language has its own phonetics and phonology, which are described in brief in the following way:

#### a) The Limbu Phonemes

The Limbu language also has its own phonemes (vowel and consonant phonemes) as the English language has. The Limbu phonemes are given as follows (as cited in Tanchoppa, 2009, 5):

#### Consonant Phonemes

s	v	u	P	i	r		
/k/	(kha)	/ɣ/	(gha)	/N/	/tΣ/		
p	h	t	y	b	w		
(chha)	/z/	/t/	/ /	/ð/	(dha)		
g	k	m	a	e	d		
/n/	/p/	(pha)	/b/	/v/	/m/		
o	F	n	j	z	;	x	
/j/	/r/	/l/	/w/	/s/	/Σ/	/h/	

#### Vowels Phonemes

c	cf	cl	c'
/ /	/a/	/i/	/u/
c]	c}	cf]	cf}
/e/	/ i/	/O/	/au/
c{	c[		
/e/	/ /		

In case of Limbu phonemes, consonant phonemes are 24 in number and vowel phonemes are 10.

### **b) The Limbu Word**

The phonological word consists of one or more syllables (as cited in Driem, 1987, p.15). Hildebrandt (2007, p.17) says, “The evidence for a phonological word in an exhaustive (traditional) sense comes from one consonant assimilation- anticipatory labial assimilation applying to stops and nasals”. For example,

a. prefix-stem

/mɛ-**n**-mɛt-baN/      [mɛ**m**mɛppaN]

NEG-NEG-tell-1sg

I did not tell him.

b. Stem-suffix

/ke:**t**-**ma**?/      [ke:**p**ma?]

Insert-NOM

To insert.

In the example (a), the prefix **-n** has been assimilated with the stem **mvt** and changed the prefix **-n** into **-m** due to the interference of the phoneme **/m/**, similarly, in the example (b), the last phoneme of the stem **/ke:t/** has been changed into **/p/** due to the interference of the phoneme **/m/** of suffix **-ma**.

### **c) Sentence in the Limbu Language**

Crystal (2003, p. 414) defines sentence as, “The largest structural unit in terms of which the grammar of a language is organized”. Similarly Richards et al. (1985, p.255) define a sentence as, “The largest unit of grammatical organization within which parts of speech (e.g. nouns, verbs, adverbs) and grammatical clauses( e.g. word phrase and clause) are said to function ”.

The Limbu language also has its own sentences as other languages, the English and Nepali languages have. It has its own grammar and sentence. For example:

- a. aNga?            phɛr            -a            -N  
           1sg            come            -PT        -PRN  
           I came.
- b. hɛnɛ? him        -o            Pɛk            -aN        t k        cɛ  
           3sg        home -LOC            go.NPT        -and        rice        eat.NPT  
           He will go home and eat rice.

Subba (2002, p. 47) says the Limbu language is a complex pronominalized language. That means the subject pronoun in the intransitive verb and both the subject and the object pronoun in the transitive verb attach partially or completely. For example,

- a. hɛnɛ?            phɛr        -ɛ  
           3sg            come -PT  
           He came.

In fact, the Limbu language has S-O-V sentence structure. For example,

- a. aNga?            him            -o            pek            -a?  
           1sg            home            -LOC            go.NPT            -PRN  
           I go home.

In this example (a), **a\_ga** is the subject, **him** is the object and **peka?** is the verb so the Limbu language has S-O-V sentence structure.

According to Wiedert and Subba (1985, p.7), “The Limbu language has, for the first time, divided four major dialects on the basis of linguistic analysis. The dialects are Panthare Limbu (comprising Yangrokke Limbu), Phedappe Limbu, Taplejunge and Mewakhole and Chhathare Limbu”.

Kaila (2059, pp.10-11) classifies the Limbu language into four dialects: Panthare, Phedappe, Chhathare and Tambar khole.

#### **a) Panthare Dialect**

Among the four dialects of the Limbu language, it is taken as a standard dialect. This dialect is spoken in Yangrok (Taplejung) Chaubis Thum (Dhankuta), and Ilam and Pachthar district. Most of the Limbu literary books have been published in this dialect.

#### **b) Phedappe Dialect**

The term phedappe is a Nepali adjectival form of 'Phedap', the region where the Phedappe dialect is spoken and formally the designation for all of the present day Limbuwan. This dialect is mainly spoken in Tehrathum district.

#### **c) Chhathare Dialect**

This dialect is comparatively a bit different than other dialects. It is spoken in the eastern part of Dhankuta district and in the southeastern part of Terathum district. Although the Limbus living in the above mentioned area speaks the same dialect, there are some marked differences within the territory itself; and if we call them the sub-dialects of Chhathare dialect, we will have to say that there are approximately six of them. Even within a small area covered by the Tangkhuwa village, there are three sub-dialects, mutually intelligible to the speakers of one another but not in their grammar

#### **d) Tumbarkhole Dialect**

Tumbarkhole dialect (including the Taplejung, Yangrupe and Mewakhole sub-dialect) is the dialect spoken to the north of Phedap along especially north of the Tamor River in Taplejung district and across the Tamor between Terhathum and Yashok. This dialect is spoken in Panchthar and mainly in Tamar Khola and Maiwa Khola.

### **1.1.2 Contrastive Analysis (CA)**

Contrastive analysis is the study of similarities and differences between languages. It helps to find out what the similarities and differences between



two languages are. Comparison can be made at various linguistic levels such as in phonetics and phonology.

Contrastive analysis is the method of analysis that analyzes the structures, functions, aspects of any two languages to find out the nature of possible influence of L1-behaviour on L2-behaviour.

James (1980, p.3) says:

CA is hybrid linguistic enterprise. It is a linguistic enterprise aimed at producing inverted (i.e. contrastive, not comparative) two-valued typologies (a CA is always concerned with a pair of languages), and founded on the assumption that languages can be compared.

CA is branch of linguistics, which is inter-language study. The study is based on the comparative study between L1 and foreign languages. In this case, CA is the inter-language study.

CA can be taken as applied linguistics because it is application oriented.

Through the research, similarities and differences between languages are identified. Corder (1973, p.10) says:

The application of linguistic knowledge to some object or applied linguistics, as its name implies - is an activity. It is not a theoretical study. It makes use of theoretical studies. The applied linguist is a consumer, or user, not a producer, theories. (as cited in James, 1980, p.6)

Applied linguists are not producers but users. In this sense applied linguistics is concerned with the practice and use. Similarly, CA always tries to find out new insights between two languages. CA investigates deeper aspects of linguistic form.

CA has a great role in the comparative study of language because it helps to find out similarities and differences between two or more languages. It gives emphasis on the influence of the mother tongue in learning a second language

in phonological, morphological and syntactic levels. While comparing two languages, it gives new insights on those levels. Evaluation of the two languages helps to predict the possible errors that can be made by L2 learners. It helps to compare the two languages at all levels of their structure, to arrive at the categories of similar features/partially similar features/dissimilar features for the target language.

CA helps to detect certain types of errors which learners and teachers fail to find out. It also concerns with phonological and morphological levels, which is why, learners also get the chances to know phonological and morphological similarities and differences between the languages. In case of the comparative study of language, CA helps to find out similarities and differences between two languages in grammatical, structural, lexical levels. It helps for deep study between languages.

### **1.1.3 Clause**

A clause is a group of words that includes a subject and a verb, and forms a sentence or part of it.

Carter and McCarthy (2008, p.486) say:

A clause must typically consist of a subject (which is noun phrase), a verb and other elements which may or may not be necessary, such as an object (which is noun phrase), a predicative complement (most typically an adjective or noun phrase), an adjunct (which is typically an adverb phrase or a prepositional phrase).

According to Leech and Svartvik (1992, pp.56-67), clauses are the principle structures of which sentences are compared. A sentence may consist of one; or more than one clause. They describe and classify clauses in three important ways:

- a. In terms of the clause elements (subject, verb, etc.) from which they are constructed.

- b. In terms of the amount of use which a clause makes of verb phrase structure.
- c. In terms of clause function, i.e. the function a clause performs in a sentence.

### **1.1.3.1 Types of Clause**

According to Aarts and Aarts (1982, p. 82), two types of clause combining systems are found. They are: sub-ordination and coordination.

#### **A. Sub-ordination**

Aarts and Aarts (1986, p. 82) say, “Subordination involves the use of a sentence as an element in the structure of another sentence”. For example, *I know that he was not killed.*

Quirk, et al. (1985, p. 44) say clauses, which are embedded in other clauses, are subordinate clauses, and they are often introduced by a subordinating conjunction. For example,

The weather has been remarkably warm *since we returned from Italy last week.*

Aarts and Aarts (1982, pp. 84-85) classify subordinate clauses into three types, on the basis of structure:

- a. Finite clause
- b. Non-finite clause
- c. Verbless clause

#### **(I) Finite Clause**

Aarts and Aarts (1982, p. 85) say, “Finite clause contains of a finite verb phrase that is a verb phrase capable of showing tense, mood, aspect and voice”. For example,

*I know that you are a farmer.*

*We discovered who sent the letter.*

#### **(II) Non-Finite Clause**

Aarts and Aarts (1982, p. 85) say, “Non-finite clause contains a non-finite verb phrase (an infinitive, present participle or past participle), which cannot show tense or mood”. For example,

*Cutting trees* is harmful.

*To be a good man* you have to do hard labor.

### **(III) Verbless Clause**

Aarts and Aarts (1982, p. 85) say that verbless clause does not contain a verbal form. They often consist of a noun phrase or adjective phrase only. Frequently they lack a subject and they may be looked upon as a clause in which a form of the verb ‘be’ has been omitted. For example,

*If not*, I complete it.

Similarly, Palmer (1971, p.72) classifies subordinate clause into three types in complete sentence of the English language.

### **(IV) The Noun Clause**

Crystal (2003) says that a noun clause is an entire clause, which takes the place of a noun in another clause or phrase. Like a noun, a noun clause acts as the subject or object of a verb or the object of a preposition, answering the questions “who (m)?” and “what?” For example,

I know *that Latin is no longer spoken as a native language*.

### **(V) Adjective Clause**

Crystal (2003) says that an adjective clause is a dependent clause, which takes the place of an adjective in another clause or phrase. An adjective clause is also called adjectival.

John (2007) says adjective clause should meet the following three requirements:

1. First, it will contain a subject and verb.

2. Second, it will begin with relative pronouns (who, whom, where, that or which) or relative adverbs (when, where or why)
3. Third, it will function as an adjective, answering the questions like what kind? How many? or which one?. For example,  
The umbrella *which has broken handle* is mine.

## (VI) Adverb Clause

Crystal (2003) says that an adverbial clause is a dependent clause which takes the place of an adverb in another clause or phrase. An adverbial clause answers questions such as “when?”, “where?”, “why?” For example,  
The police gave a speech *where the workers were on strike*.

Payne (2003, pp. 316-317) says that adverb clauses are those that serve an ‘adverbial’ function. They modify a verb phrase or a whole clause.

Strumpf (2008, p. 351.) says, “Adverbial clauses modify verbs, adjectives and adverbs in the same way that standard adverbials do but most simply modify verbs. They are always introduced by subordinate conjunctions”. Quirk et al. (1985, pp. 1078-1117) divide an adverbial clause in the following types:

### a. Clause of Time

Adverbial clause of time precedes the adverb of time. Adverbial clause of time is introduced by the following subordinators in English: **After, as, before, once, since, till, until, when, whenever, while, whilst, now, so long as, as long as, as soon as, immediately, directly** etc. For example,

*When I last saw*, you lived in Dhankuta.

Join the college *as soon as you pass S.L.C.*

Quirk, et al. (1985, p. 1078) say that adverbial present participle clause of time is introduced by one of the following subordinators: **once, till, until, when, whenever, while, whilst**. For example,

He wrote his greatest novel *while working in U.K.*

Be careful *when crossing streets*.

Quirk, et al. (1985, p. 1078) say that adverbial past participle clause of time is introduced by one of the following subordinators that are also used with finite clauses: **as soon as, once, until, till, when, whenever**. For example,

Spinach is delicious *when eaten raw*.

The dog stayed at the entrance *until told to come in*.

### **b. Clause of Place**

Quirk, et al. (1985, P. 1087) say that adverbial clause of place is introduced mainly by *where* and *wherever*. *Where* is specific and *wherever* non-specific.

The clause may indicate position or direction. For example,

I go *where I want*.

Meet me *wherever you like*.

### **c. Clause of Reason**

Quirk, et al. (1985, p. 1103) say that in clause of reason, several types of subordinate clauses convey basic similarities of relationship to their matrix clauses.

Quirk, et al. (1985, pp. 1103-1104) divide the clause of reason into the following types:

#### **i) Cause and effect**

In it, the construction expresses the perception of an inherent objective connection in the real world. For example,

The flowers are growing so well *because I cultivated them*.

#### **ii) Reason and consequence**

In this type, the construction expresses the speaker's inference of a connection.

For example,

She watered the flowers *because they were dry*.

### iii) Motivation and result

In this type, the construction expresses the intention of an animate being that has a subsequent result. For example,

I watered the flowers *because my parents told me to do so*.

### iv) Circumstances and consequence

In this type, the circumstantial clause combines reason with a condition. For example,

*Since the weather has improved*, the game will be held as planned.

**Since, because, and for** are most common subordinators of clause of reason.

## d. Clause of Purpose

Close (1986, p. 66) says that the purpose clause is commonly expressed by an infinitive. It can also be expressed by finite clauses beginning with **so that, in order to, lest, for, to**.

*In order to* and *so as to* are more explicit subordinators of purpose clause. For example,

I went to market *in order to buy clothes*.

Finite clauses of purpose are introduced by **so that** and **so**. For example,

The school closes earlier *so that the children can get home before dark*.

## e. Clause of Result

Quirk, et al. (1985, p. 1108) say:

Clauses of result are introduced by the subordination *so that* and *so*.

These clauses overlap with those of purpose both in meaning and in subordinators. The chief semantic difference is that result clauses are factual rather than putative: both express result, but in the result clause the result is achieved, whereas in the purpose clause it is yet to be

achieved- it is a desired or aimed -at result. Hence, finite clauses of result do not require a modal auxiliary. For example,  
We paid immediately *so that he left contented*.  
I scolded him *so that he left my room*.

#### **f. Clause of Condition**

Close (1986, p. 58) says that conditional clauses are adverbial clauses beginning with *if* or *with* conjunctions having similar meaning, like *unless*. For example,

*If you want*, you will ask.

*If you wanted*, you would pass.

Close (1986, pp. 58-59) divides this clause into the following types:

##### 1. Neutral Type

Same tense in both clauses. For example,

*If the wind blows from the north*, this room is very cold.

##### 2. type-1

Present tense in the 'if clause', will or imperative in the main clause. For example,

*If you park your car there*, lock it and leave the key here.

*If you park your car there*, the police will take it away.

##### 3. Type-2

Past in the 'if clause' 'would' in the main clause. For example,

*If I were a bird*, I would fly.



*If John were here now, we could play tennis.*

#### 4. Type-3

Past perfect in the if-clause would+ perfect in the main clause. For example,  
*If you had parked your car there, they would have towed it away.*

#### **g. Clause of Comparison and Similarity**

Close (1986 p.62) says that comparison clause, a gradable adjective or adverb in the comparative degree, is often followed by a clause beginning with the conjunction *than* comparison clause is introduced by **than, as ...as, the same...as**. For example,

He writes more neatly *than I do*.

George is quicker *than I am*.

Quirk, et al. (1985, p. 1110) say that clauses of similarity are predication adjuncts. They are introduced by *as* and *like*. For example,

She cooks meat *as her mother did*.

Climb the mountain *like Ram climbs*.

#### **h. Clause of Concession**

Whaley (1997, p. 254) says that the clauses that reflect a contrast of some sort between the main and subordinate clauses are clause of concession.

Quirk, et al. (1985, p. 1097) say that clauses of concession are introduced chiefly by *although* or its more informal variant *though*. Other subordinators used with concession clauses are: **if, even if, even though, when, whenever, while** and **whilst**. For example,

*Although it was raining, I went home.*

He could not pass exam, *even though he worked hard*.

### **i. Clauses of Preference**

Quick, et al. (1985, p. 1111) say that clauses of preference are mainly introduced by the subordinators *rather than* and *sooner than* with the bare infinitive as the verb of the clause. For example,  
*Rather than go there by air, I'd take the slowest train.*  
*Go there rather than sit here.*

### **B. Coordination**

Quirk, et al. (1985, p. 46) say that two or more units of the same status on the grammatical hierarchy may constitute a single unit of the same kind. This type of construction is termed coordination. For example,

*Bird can fly and I can fly.*

Payne (2003, p. 336) says that languages often have morphosyntactic means of linking two clauses of equal grammatical status such linkage is termed coordination.

Quirk, et al. (1985, p. 918) say that there are two types of coordination: *syndetic* and *asyndetic* coordination. *Syndetic* coordination marked by overt signals of coordination (and, or, but) whereas *asyndetic* coordination is not overtly marked. For example,

*Slowly and steadily, he crept towards his victim. (syndetic)*

*Slowly, steadily, he crept towards his victim. (asyndetic)*

## **1.2 Review of Related Literature**

Research in this field is not complete and enough though many studies have been carried out. Here I have reviewed some related literature that is comparative study of the Limbu and English language:

Phyak (2004) has done research work on 'English and Limbu Pronominals: A Linguistic Comparative Study.' His study concentrated on determining Limbu

pronominals in relation to English and to find out similarities and differences between Limbu and English pronominals. His some findings were: Limbu and English pronominal systems are different and the Limbu language has more number of pronouns and has more complex pronominal system than English. Tumbapo (2005) has carried out research on ‘Verbal Affixation in Limbu and English: A Comparative Study.’ His study focused on finding of Limbu verb affixes that are attached to verb and on pointing out similar and different verbal affixes in relation to English verbal affixes. His some findings were: Panthare dialect of Limbu has person marker prefixes, infixes, and suffixes whereas English has only person marker suffix and it marks the third person singular. Sabenhang (2007) carried out research on ‘Subject-Verb Agreement in the Limbu and English language: A Comparative Study’. His objectives were to find out the subject- verb agreement in the Limbu language and his finding was s + o + v pattern in the Limbu language. Likewise, Limbu (2007) conducted a research on case in the English and Limbu language. His objectives were to identify and describe case in Limbu and to find out similarities and differences between the Limbu and English cases. In his research, he used both primary and secondary sources of data and used judgmental sampling procedure. His findings were the Limbu cases are ergative- absolute types and make definite-indefinite and singular-plural distinction in case making in ergative and absolute case. Similarly, Limbu (2008) conducted a research on tense aspect system in English and Limbu to determine tense aspect system in Limbu using the primary and secondary sources of data through the stratified random sampling procedure. His findings were morphologically, the Limbu language has past tense within the absolute tense. It codes futurity lexically, periphrastically and contextually and both the English and Limbu languages have binary tense division -past and non-past.

The researches carried out comparing clause system of English and other languages are reviewed below:

Phombo (2005) carried out research on Non- finite clauses in Limbu. His objectives were to find out Limbu non -finite clause, and to find out how and why affixes translate verbs into non- finite clause whether the identity of the finite verbs change or do not change after suffixation. He used both primary and secondary sources of data. The finding of his research was six types of non-finite clauses are found in the Limbu language. Similarly, Lamichhane (2006) carried out a research on ‘Adverbial Clauses in English and Nepali: A Comparative Study’. The objectives of his research were to identify and analyze the structure of adverbial clauses in the English and Nepali language and to find out the similarities and differences in the adverbial clause of these two languages. He found that there are finite and non-finite adverbial clauses in both languages and two types of converb can be found in English but five types of converb can be found in Nepali. In the same way, Limbu (2007) conducted a research on subordination in the Limbu and English language. His objectives were to find out sub-ordinate clause in the Limbu language and compare and contrast the sub-ordinate clause between the English and Limbu language. In the process of research he used both primary and secondary sources of data. His findings were: the full clause can be found as subordinate clause in Limbu but the subordinating markers generally occur in clause final position and the infinitive verb form occurs in clause final positions of infinite clauses (i.e. sub clause) in Limbu whereas the infinite verb form occurs in clause initial position in English. Similarly, Chalise (2007) conducted a research on ‘Clause Combining in Baram and English: A Comparative Study’. The objectives of his research were to find out clause combining system in Baram and to compare and contrast the clause combining system in the English and Baram language. In the process of his research, he used both primary and secondary sources of data. He found out the Baram language has own subordinator and coordinators.

A few comparative studies have been carried out to find out the similarities and differences between the clause combining system in the Limbu and English languages. Previous researches have been concerned only on the structures of

the clause system but here the researcher has a keen interest to find out the function of Limbu clause system and similarities and differences between the clause combining system of the English and Limbu languages.

### **1.3 Objective of the Study**

This study had the following objectives:

1. to find out clause combining system in Panthare Limbu;
2. to compare and contrast the clause combining system in the English and Panthare Limbu language and.
3. to suggest some pedagogical implications of the findings.

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

This study had the following significance:

1. This study is significance in the sense that there is no in depth study in this topic so it gives information about the clause system of Limbu to the syllabus designers, students, linguists, text book writers and linguistic teachers.
2. This research is useful because it determines clause combining system in the English and Limbu languages and finds out the similarities and differences between clause combining systems in English and Limbu.
3. This study is also helpful to the teacher (who teaches English to Limbu native speakers or vice versa) to locate the areas of difficulty for the learners as they learn clause systems in both languages and to find out the level of their difficulties as well.
4. This study has pragmatic value in the sense that the findings of this search can be applied in the clause combining system in the Limbu language in the area of teaching.
5. It is helpful to provide feedback to the related language teachers and learners by exploring the relevance of clause combining system to the language teaching.

## 1.5 Definition of the Specific Terms

Some specific terms used in this study are defined below:

**Dialect** - It is used variety of language. Dialect is generally determined by geographical and social boundaries.

**Coordination** - Two or more units of the same status on the grammatical hierarchy may constitute a single unit of the same kind.

**Subordination** - It involves the use of a sentence as an element in the structure of another sentence.

**Finite** - A term used in the grammatical classification of types of verbs and clauses. A finite verb is a form that can occur on its own in an independent sentence.

**Non-finite** - The form of the verb which occurs on its own only in dependent clauses, and lack tense and mood contracts.

**Form** - It refers to the phonological/grammatical/lexical characteristics of linguistic units, such as sentences, morphemes, lexemes, noun etc. these being referred to as linguistic form.

**Adverb** - A word that adds more information about place time, manner, cause or degree to a verb, an adjective.

**Phedap** - It is the place which lies in the Tehrathum district in which Phedappe dialect is spoken.

**Verbless** - It is a term which does not contain a verbal form. They often consist of a noun phrase or adjective phrase only.

**Adjective clause** - It is a clause which takes the place of an adjective in another clause or phrase.

**Condition** - A situation that must exist in order for something else to happen.

**Comparison** - The process of comparing two or more things or people.

**Sentence** - The largest structural unit in terms of which the grammar of a language is organized.

**Infinite** - A traditional term for the non-finite form of the verb usually cited as its unmarked or base form.

## **CHAPTER TWO**

### **METHODOLOGY**

To complete this study the researcher used the primary and secondary sources of data. For this research he used the following methodology:

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

The researcher used the following primary and secondary sources of data to carry out this research.

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

The primary sources of data were the Limbu native speakers of Kurule Tenupa V.D.C. The Limbu clause combining system was elicited by interviewing the informants (the Limbu native speakers) but the English clause combining system was taken from secondary sources of data.

##### **2.1.2 Secondary Source of Data**

As the secondary sources of data, the researcher used the following English and Limbu grammar books:

Chomsky (1957), Close (1986), Driem (1987), Aarts and Aarts (1997), Payne (1997) and Carthy and McCarthy (2008).

## **2.2 Sampling Procedure**

Eighty-six Limbu native speakers of Kurule Tenupa VDC were selected through the judgmental sampling procedure and they were interviewed using interview sheets.

## **2.3 Tools for Data Collection**

A structured interview sheet (Appendix-II) was the main research tool for the data collection. A set of interview questions were prepared to draw the information on the clause combining system of the Limbu language from the Limbu native speakers. English sentences were given to the Limbu native speakers to translate them into the Limbu language for the collection of data and to facilitate informants corresponding Nepali sentences were also used.

## **2.4 Process of Data Collection**

The researcher followed the following procedures to conduct this research:

- a. The researcher prepared the interviewed sheet then conformed the area from where he decided to take 23 informants, altogether 86 informants above 18 years of age from each ward numbers(three ward numbers, 5,9 and 6, of Kurule Tenupa V.D.C.) through judgmental sampling procedure.
- b. The researcher established good relationship with the selected informants and convinced them for taking part in the research. After that, the researcher fixed the convenient date, time, and place and took structured interview on that date.



- c. He interviewed the Limbu native speakers according to the structured interviewed sheet. The researcher translated the interview questions into Nepali for the informants who could not understand the questions in English. The researcher himself wrote the responses of those who could not read and write.
- d. The answers provided by the Limbu native speakers were recorded using Roman transliteration of Devanagari script (Appendix-I).

## **2.5 Limitations of the Study**

1. This study was concerned with finite clause, non-finite clause and verbless clause.
2. Subordinate clauses are noun clause, adjective clause and adverbial clause
3. Adverbial clauses were studied on the basis of functions:
  - a. Adverbial clause of time
  - b. Adverbial clause of reason
  - c. Adverbial clause of purpose
  - d. Adverbial clause of result
  - e. Adverbial clause of concession
  - f. Adverbial clause of place
  - g. Adverbial clause of condition
  - h. Adverbial clause of comparison and similarity
4. This study was based on only Panthare Limbu dialect.
5. This study was based on the similarities and differences of clause combining systems of the Limbu (Panthare) and English languages.
6. It was limited to structures and functions of clauses.
7. Only 86 Limbu speakers were included in the study and mainly 3 ward numbers of the Kurule Tenupa V.D.C. were selected for the study.

8. English clause combining system was taken from secondary sources of data.
9. This study was only based on adverbial clauses.

## **CHAPTER THREE**

### **ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION**

This chapter concerns with analysis and interpretation of the clause combining system in the Limbu (Panthare) language. Under this coordinate and subordinate clauses are described concerning finite, non-finite, verbless, noun, adjective and adverbial clauses. This analysis has mainly given emphasis on the clause system in Limbu. In this chapter English and Limbu clause systems have been differentiated. Clause combining system in the Limbu language is described and analyzed in the following way:

#### **3.1 Determination and Analysis of Limbu Clause**

In this chapter, the Limbu subordinate, coordinate and converb clause are determined and analyzed.

##### **3.1.1 Subordination**

Finite, non-finite and verbless subordinate clauses are found in Limbu. These clauses are given below:

##### **I. Finite Clause**

In Limbu, we can find finite clauses, in which the verb has tense and aspect.

For example,

- a) hɛnɛ? pat-u-ba cok-ma mɛ -yand -u -n  
 3sg say-PT-NOM do-INF NEG-can -PRN -NEG

He said that he could not do it.

In the example (a), **cok-ma mv-yand-u-n** is the finite subordinate clause in which the verb **cok** has simple aspect and past tense. Consider another example,

- b) aNga hɛ?yo kɛr -a -N - illɛ numa hab-rɛ wɛy-ɛ  
 1sg there arrive-PT-PRN- when 3sg weep-PROG be- PT

When I arrived there Numa was weeping.

In the example (b), **numa hab-rɛ wɛy-v** is the finite subordinate clause in which the verb **hab** has progressive aspect and past tense.

## II. Non-Finite Clause

The Limbu non finite clauses are also found in which present participle subordinate clause is marked by **-ma** and **-i** subordinators and to infinitive clause is marked by **-ma** subordinator which are analyzed below:

### (i) Present Participle Clause

In Limbu, present participle clause is marked by **-ma** and **-i** subordinators. The subordinator **-ma** occurs in the final position of the subordinate clause for the present participle clause in Limbu. For example,

- a) siN-ha? taN -ma nuba -mɛn  
 tree-pl cut -PROG good -NEG

Cutting trees is harmful.

- b) phɛsɛ:pa thuN -ma yamdzik-rɛ mɛo nu:ba-mɛn  
 cigarette smoke-PROG health - ERG to good-NEG

Smoking is injurious to health.

c) SuN hɛk?-**ma** hɛnɛ?-in tumb yambɛk pokh-ɛ-aN-wɛ  
 grass cut-PROG 3sg-ABS first job have-PT-SEQ-be  
 His first job had been cutting grass.

d) sa thok - **ma** - o huni? taha? mɛ -wa  
 meat prepare-PROG-LOC 3pl busy PRN -be  
 They are busy preparing the meat.

In the examples (a), (b), (c) and (d), the subordinator **-ma** occurs in the final position of the subordinate clause for the present participle clause as in **si\_-ha? ta\_-ma** nuba-mɛn, **phvsv:pa thu\_-ma** yamdzik-rɛ mɛo nu:ba-mɛn, **Su\_hvk?-ma** hɛnɛ?-in tumb yambɛk pokh-ɛ-aN-wɛ and **sa thok -ma-** o huni? taha? mɛ-wa.

Similarly, the subordinator **-i** occurs in the final position of the subordinate clause for the present participle clause in the Limbu language. For example,

e) mukum-rɛ siN ogap-**i** him cog - u  
 3sg - ERG wood use -PROG house build-PRN. PT  
 Mukum build a house using wood.

The subordinator **-i**, in the example (e), occurs in the final position of the subordinate clause with the verb **ogap** for the present participle clause as in **mukum-rv si\_ ogap-i** him cog - u.

## (ii) To Infinitive Clause

In Limbu, the subordinator **-ma** occurs in the final position of the subordinate clause. For example,

a) thik phaNgan cɛikwa phɛp-**ma** hɛnɛ? mɛt - uN  
 one glass tea bring-INF 3sg say-PRN.PT  
 I told him to bring a cup of tea.

b) kɛrɛk mɛp-**ma**-si nu:ba poN  
 everybody tell-INF -2pl good be  
 It would be better for you to tell everybody.

c) yɛrik cwa? thuN-**ma** nu:ba -ro

enough water drink-INF good-ASS

To drink enough water is beneficial.

d) thakmaN pɛk-**ma** sa:k

uphill go-INF difficult

To climb up is difficult.

In the examples (a), (b), (c) and (d), the subordinator **-ma** occurs in the final position of the subordinate clause for the function of ‘to infinitive’ clause as in **thik pha\_gan cOikwa phvp-ma** hɛnɛ? mɛt - uN and **kvrvk.mvp-ma**-si nu:ba poN.

### (iii) Verbless Clause

The topic marker **-gQrQ** optionally occurs with the negation and nominalizer **-ba** in the final position of the subordinate clause for the verbless clause in Limbu.

For example,

a) mɛn -**gQrQ** hɛ?yo pɛk - a  
NEG -TOP there go -1sg.NPT

If not, I go there.

b) mɛn -**gQrQ** kɛn sur -uN  
NEG - TOP it complete -1sg. NPT

If not, I complete it.

c) caha - **ba-gQrQ** tuksi mukum-o hɛk-ma yadum-b-a?  
necessary NOM-TOP six o'clock- LOC start-ING shall- 1pl -NPT

We shall start at six, if necessary

d) khɛdiN -ba - **gQrQ** sɛlaptaN -ɛ?  
Doubt -NOM -TOP ask -1sg.IMPR

If in doubt, ask me.

In the examples (a), (b), (c) and (d), the topic marker **-gQrQ** occurs optionally with the negation and nominalizer **-ba** in the final position of the subordinate clause in Limbu for the verbless clause as in **mvn-gQrQ** hɛ?yo pɛk - a, **caha-ba-gQrQ** tuksi mukum-o hɛk-ma yadum-b-a? and, **khvdi\_-ba-gQrQ** sɛlaptaN-ɛ?.

### III. Noun Clause

In Limbu, the subordinator **-ban** occurs in the final position of the subordinate clause for the noun clause. For example,

a) huni? mε-bat -**ban** aNga tar -u -N  
3pl PRN-offer -what 1sg take - PT -PRN  
I took what they offered.

b) h≡nε? pir -a -N -**ban** sapla-ha? aNga khos-u-N  
3sg give -PT -PRN what book -pl 1sg take- PT-PRN  
I took which books she gave me.

c) a -sira? kε -dhanN -**ban** aNga ca N  
1sg. PRN -like PRN -RELIN -which 1sg eat.NPT  
I eat that which I like.

d) h≡nε? ku-sira? kε - danN-**ban** - nu mεkkhim cok-ma yadu?  
3sg PRN-please PRN-RELIN-whom-with marry do-INF can  
She can marry whom she pleases.

In the examples (a), (b), (c) and (d), the subordinator **-ban** occurs in the final position of the subordinate clause for the noun clause as in **huni? mv-bat -ban** aNga tar-u-N and **hQnv? ku-sira? kv - dan\_-ban-** nu mεkkhim cok-ma yadu?.

### IV. Adjective Clause

In the Limbu language, the subordinators **hQnv?**, **hv?yo** and **hQnv?in**, function as subordinators in an adjective clause which occur in the initial position of the subordinate clause. For example,

a) aNga yεksamba tum - u - N **hQnv?** nisamhim-o w≡y-ε  
1sg headmaster meet-PT-PRN who school - LOC be - PT  
I met a headmaster who was at school.

b) **hQnv?** hεkt≡m-ba mana anige? kεrεk-lε nadζm cog-um-ba?  
whom that -NOM man 1pl all - ERG respect do-PRN-NOM  
He is the man whom we all respect.

c) hεn him **hv?yo** matrika sawanchh-i - aN w≡y -ε

That house where Matrika born -PT -SEQ be -PT

This is the house where the Matrika born.

d) thik mamu tum-u hQnv?in kumik-ha? phiNla mε-w≡y-ε  
one girl meet-PT.3sg whose eye -pl blue PRN-be -PT

He met a girl whose eyes were blue.

In the examples (a), (b), (c) and (d), the subordinators **hQnv?**, **hv?yo** and **hQnv? in** occur in the initial position of the subordinate clause for the adjective clause as in aNga yεksamba tum-u-N **hQnv? nisamhim-o wQy-v**, hεn him **hv?yo matrika sawanchh-i -a\_ wQy-v**, thik mamu tum-u **hQnv?in kumik-ha? phi\_la mV-wQy-v**.

## V. Adverbial Clause

In the Limbu clause system, the following adverbial clauses are found:

### 1. Clauses of Time

In the Limbu language, the suffixes **-sorik**, **-illv**, **-tQgi**, **-a\_tho**, **-dharik**, **-thi?lv\_** and **-a\_** function as the subordinators of the clause of time. Those subordinators occur with adjective, verb, noun in the final position of the subordinate clause for the clause of time.

The subordinator **-sorik** always occurs with the verb in the final position of the subordinate clause. For example,

a) hεnε? lεNhim kε -gε? - **sorik** cy≡? sεrimse-ha? iN-ε  
2sg shop PRN-reach -as soon as some orange -pl buy-IMPR  
Buy some oranges as soon as you reach the shop.

b) thiboN takfa sabat kε-boN-**sorik** yamba-nisamhim pεg-ε?  
SLC pass PRN-be-as soon as big-school go -IMPR  
Join the college as soon as you pass the SLC.

In the examples (a) and (b), the subordinator **-sarik** occurs in the final position of the subordinate clause with the subordinating verb-**gv?t** in (a) and **-bo\_** in (b) for the clause of time.

The subordinators **-llv** and **-illv** occur in the final position of the subordinate clause. For example,

c) aNga nin -ε -llv dhankuta kε -yuN -ε  
 1sg see -PT -when dhankuta PRN -live -PT  
 When I last saw, you lived in Dhankuta.

d) aNga tum - nε - llv siksamba kε- wεy -ε  
 1sg meet-PRN.PT-when teacher PRN -be -PT  
 When I met you, you were a teacher.

e) hεnε? yandha-o yambεk-in cok-illv sami?la sap - tu  
 3sg field-LOC work -ABS do-while poem write-PRN.PT  
 He wrote a poem while working in the field.

f) aNga ips -a -N -illv sepmaN -o ni:n - ε  
 1sg sleep-PT-PRN -while dream -LOC see - PT  
 While I was asleep, I dreamed about you.

In the examples (c), (d), (e) and (f), the subordinators **-llv** and **-illv** occur in the final position of the subordinate clause for the clause of time as in **a\_ga nin-v-llv dhankuta kε-yuN-ε** and **a\_ga ips-a-\_-illv sepmaN-o ni:n-ε**.

Similarly, the subordinators **-tQgi** and **-a\_** occur in the final position of the subordinate clause for the clause of time. For example,

g) ca-ma - tQgi ki -huk -in εsi?r-ε  
 eat-ING- before 2sg.PRN -hand-ABS wash-IMPR  
 Wash your hand before eating.

h) nisamhim pek-ma-tQgi laNghop-an nu:ba cog - ε  
 School go-ING-before shoes-ABS good make-IMPR  
 Brush your shoes before going to school.



i) sɛʔik -o yambɛk coguN -a\_\_ urumsiN -aN  
 garden-LOC work do -after bath -PT  
 I took a bath after working in the garden.

j) tɛk caN -a\_\_ a -huk -in ɛsiʔr -uN  
 Rice eat -after 1sg.PRN -hand-ABS wash - PT.PRN  
 I washed my hand after eating rice.

In the examples (g) and (h), the subordinator **-tɔgi** occurs with the verb after the present participle subordinator **-ma** in the final position of the subordinate clause and in the examples (i) and (j), the subordinator **-a\_\_** occurs with the verb in the final position of the subordinate clause for the clause of time.

In the same way, the subordinators **-a\_\_tho** and **-dahriʔk** occur in the final position of the subordinate clause for the clause of time. For example,

k) koʔyo phɛm- na - **a\_\_tho** yɛk nu:ba pokh -ɛ -aN -wa  
 here came-1pl.PRN -since more good happen -NPT-SEQ-be  
 Since coming here, life has been much more pleasant.

l) nisamhim lɛr -uN -**a\_\_tho** yambɛk cok -ma hɛk-tuN  
 School leave-PT.PRN -since job do -INF start-PRN.PT  
 Since I left school, I started a job.

m) thiboN takpha mɛn-lɛ -**dahriʔk** aNga Kathmandu mɛm-bɛk-pan  
 ten class NEG-pass-until 1sg Kathmandu NEG-go-ABS  
 I didn't go to Kathmandu until I passed SLC.

n) khajoN ɛsiN mɛn-nit -**dhariʔk** a-siraʔ mɛ-dhaN-ɛ-n  
 khajong know NEG-near -until 1sg.PRN-like NEG-come- PT-NEG  
 I disliked Khajong until I knew him.

In the examples (k) and (l), the subordinator **-a\_\_tho** occurs in the final position of the subordinate clause after the pronominal for the clause of time as in **koʔyo phɛm-na-a\_\_tho** yɛk nu:ba pokh-ɛ -aN-wa and **nisamhim lɛr-u\_\_-a\_\_tho** yambɛk cok-ma hɛk-tuN and in the examples (m) and (n) the

subordinator **-dhari?k** occurs in the final position of the subordinate clause for the clause of time as in **thibo\_\_ takpha mvn-lQ-dahri?k** aNga Kathmandu mɛm-bɛk-pan and **khajo\_\_ Osi\_\_ mvn-nit-dhari?k** a-sira? mɛ-dhaN-ɛ-n.

## 2. Clause of Reason

In Limbu, the subordinator **-a\_\_** occurs with the subordinating verb in the final position of the subordinate clause for the function of the reason clause. For example,

a) mɛkkhi      pess    -u    **-a\_\_**      sɛ  
          blood        vomit - 3sg   -due to       die.PT  
          He died due to the vomiting the blood.

b) a                -setla:kt        -ɛ    **-a\_\_**        caN  
          1sg.PRN       -hungry        -PT   -because       eat.PT  
          I ate because I became hungry.

The subordinator **th' \_\_va?llv** occurs in the initial position of the subordinate clause for the reason clause. For example,

c) hɛnɛ? sigikkippa cok **th' \_\_va?llv** yɛk      mɛ -dzɛn -ɛ      -n  
          2sg   thin            be   because        enough NEG-eat   -NPT   -NEG  
          He is thin because he doesn't eat enough.

d) hɛnɛ? phuN-ha?-o    cwa? kɛt-u    **th' \_\_va?llv** mɛ-her-ɛ-aN      wɛ  
          2sg   fower-pl-LOC water put-PT   because    NEG-dry-PT-SEQ   be.PT  
          She watered the flowers because they were dry.

The nominalizer **-ba** and the oblique case marker **-llv** occurs together with the subordinating verb in the final position of the subordinate clause for the reason clause. For example,

e) yɛrik?            Kuy    -u    **-ba**    **-llv**            na:s    -ɛ  
          more            carry   -PT   -Nom   -OBL            tire     -PT  
          He tired because he carried more.

f) him    cɛNdhaN -o    -nu    pindɛ-**ba**    **-llv**    ku    -laN-ɛg -ɛ

house over -LOC-ABL jump-NOM-OBL 3sg.PRN-lag-break-PT

Due to the jump from the house, he broke his leg.

In the examples (e) and (f), the oblique case marker **-illv** occurs after the nominalizer **-ba** with the subordinating verb in the final position of the subordinate clause for the clause of reason as in **yQrik? Kuy-u-ba-llv** na:s-ε and **him cQ\_dha\_ -o-nu pindv-ba-llv** ku-laN-εg -ε.

Similarly, the subordinators **-dhari?k** and **-a\_tho** come with the subordinating verb in the final position of the subordinate clause for the reason clause. For example,

g) wahik?nam mən-on -dhari?k aNga yamb≋k mε-hεk-a?-n  
weather NEG-improve -since 1sg work NEG-start-NPT-NEG  
Since the weather has improved, I will not start my work.

h) h≋nε? khiiN hε?yo-nu cog-u-a\_tho pa?-ma mε-hε?-a-n  
3sg phone there-from do -PT-since speak-INF NEG-can-NPT-NEG  
Since he phoned from there, I can't tell you that.

In the examples (g) and (h), the subordinators **-dhari?k** and **-a\_tho** come with the subordinating verbs **-on** and **cog-u** in the final position the subordinate clause for the reason clause as in **wahik?nam mvn-on-dhari?k** aNga yamb≋k mε-hεk-a?-n and **hQnv? khii\_ hv?yo-nu cog-u-a\_tho** pa?-ma mε-hε?-a-n.

### 3. Clause of Purpose

Non-past tense marker **-v** and the to-infinitive clause marker **-ma** occur with subordinating verb in the final position of subordinate clause for the purpose clause. For example,

a) lamdhεp -an h≋m -ma ind -ε?  
Door -ABS open -INF push-2sg.PRN.IMPR  
To open the door, push it.

b) tεt -ha? iNgh -v aNga paNdzum pεg -aN

Cloth -pl buy -NPT 1sg market go -NPT.PRN

I went to market to buy clothes.

In the examples (a) and (b), the infinitive clause marker **-ma** and **-v** occur with the subordinating verb in the final position of the subordinate clause for the purpose clause as in **lamdhvp-an hQm-ma** ind-ε? and **vt-ha? i\_gh-v** aNga paNdzum pεg -aN. Consider other examples of the purpose clause,

c) cy≡? ca iN -ma -rε **mvo** h≡nε? pit?nu: s≡N-ghu  
 some food buy-INF-ERG in order to 3sg milk sell-PRN.PT  
 She sold milk in order to buy some foods.

d) him iN -ma -rε **mvo** h≡nε? y≡k yaN th≡g-u  
 house buy -INF-ERG in order to 2sg more money earn -PT  
 He earned more money in order to buy a house.

In the examples (c) and (d), the subordinator **mvo** follows ergative case marker **-rv** in the final position of the subordinate clause for the clause of purpose as in **cyQ? ca i\_-ma -rv mvo** h≡nε? pit?nu: saN-ghu and **him i\_-ma -rv mvo** h≡nε? y≡k yaN th≡g-u.

Similarly, the subordinator **pha\_\_** occurs in the final position of the subordinate clause after to-infinitive clause marker **-ma** for the purpose clause. For example,

e) miN sap -ma **-pha\_\_** h≡nε? dhankuta pε  
 name admit -INF -to 3sg dhankuta go.PT  
 To join the college, he went to Dhankuta.

f) Kumba nu kusa paNli ta? -ma **-pha\_\_** pε:s -i  
 3sg and 3sg bride bring-INF -in order to go -PT.PRN  
 Father and son went out in order to bring bride.

In the examples (e) and (d), the subordinator **-pha\_\_** occurs after to-infinitive clause marker **-ma** in the final position of the subordinate clause as in **mi\_ sap -ma-pha\_\_** h≡nε? dhankuta pε and **kumba nu kusa pa\_li ta?-ma-pha\_\_** pε:s-i.

#### 4. Clause of Result

The subordinator **co:gullv** occurs after the nominalizer **-ba** with the subordinating verb in the final position of the subordinate clause for the clause of result. For example,

a) h≡nε? t≡r -uN -ba -**co:gullv** aNga-in yakpha lεr -u  
3sg scold-PT.PRN-NOM -so that 1sg-ABS room leave -PT  
I scolded him, so that he left my room.

b) h≡nε? kuva? Sapla -ha? iN -u -ba -**co:gullv** h≡nε? y≡k nir-u  
3sg some book -pl buy-PT-NOM -so that 3sg a lot read-PT  
He bought some books, so that he read a lot.

In the examples (a) and (b), the subordinator **-co:gullv** occurs after the nominalizer **-ba** in the final position of the subordinate clause for the clause of result as in **hQnv? tQr -u\_\_-ba-co:gullv aNga-in yakpha lεr-u** and **hQnv? kuva? Sapla -ha? i\_\_-u-ba-co:gullv h≡nε? y≡k nir-u**.

The nominalizer **-ba** and oblique case marker **-llv** occur together with the subordinating verb in the final position of the subordinate clause for the clause of result. For example,

c) wahit?-in tha - r≡ - wa -**ba-llv** pakha mε -bεk-a-n  
rain-ABS rain-SIM-be-Nom-OBL outside NEG-go-1sg -NEG  
It is raining, so I don't go outside.

d) Ku -setlak -**ba -llv** y≡k t≡k c≡  
3sg. PRN -hungry -NOM-OBL more rice eat.PT  
She was hungry, so she ate more rice.

In the examples (c) and (d), the oblique case marker **-llv** occurs after the nominalizer **-ba** with the subordinating verb in the final position of the subordinate clause for the result clause as in **wahit?-in tha-rQ-wa-ba-llv pakha mε-bεk-a-n** and **ku- svtlak -ba-llv y≡k t≡k c≡**.

## 5. Clause of Concession

The subordinator **-sa\_\_** occurs after the be verb **-wv** and past tense markers **-u** and **-v** in the final position of the subordinate clause for the function of clause of concession. For example,

- a) wahit-in thε-r≡ -wε **-sa\_\_** him - o pεg - a - N  
 rain-ABS fall-ING -be -although house -LOC go -PT -1sg. PRN  
 Although it was raining, I went home.
- b) h≡nε? kundhetaN-ma cog-ε **-sa\_\_** ku -him hopt - ε  
 3sg reach -INF.Fe do-PT -although PRN -house not have -PT  
 Although she was reach, she had no home.
- c) aNga?-nu yaN hopt -ε **-sa\_\_** thikkap lεghet iN -u -N  
 1sg -with money not have-PT-though a pair suite buy-PT-PRN  
 Though I had no money, I bought a pair of suit.
- d) h≡nε? siN siN -nu sapla nir -u **-sa\_\_** son mε- l≡s -u -n  
 3sg hard labor -with book study-PT-though exam NEG-pass-PT-NEG  
 He couldn't pass in exam even though he did hard labour.

In the examples (a), (b), (c) and (d), the subordinator **-sa\_\_** occurs after the be verb **wv** and past tense marker **-v** and **-u** in the final position of the subordinate clause as in **wahit-in thv-rQ wv-sa\_\_ him-o pεg-a-N**, **a\_ga?-nu ya\_\_ hopt-v -sa\_\_ thikkap su:t iN-u-N** and **hQnv? si\_\_ si\_\_ -nu sapla nir-u-sa\_\_ son mε-l≡s -u-n**.

## 6. Clause of Place

The nominalizer **-ba** and the locative case marker **-o** occur together with the subordinating verb in the final position of the subordinate clause for the clause of place. For example,

- a) yamb≡k kε -ghos **-ba -o** p:εg -ε?

job 2sg.PRN -get -NOM -LOC go -IMPR

Go there where you get job.

b) yuN -a? -ba -o kεp -ma kε -yan

stay -NPT -NOM-LOC reach -INF 2sg.PRN -can

You can reach wherever I stay.

In the examples (a) and (b), the locative case marker **-o** occurs after the nominalizer **-ba** with the subordinating verb in the final position of the subordinate clause for the clause of place as in **yambOk kv-ghos-ba-o p:εg-ε?** and **yu\_-a?-ba -o kεp-ma kε-yan**.

The subordinator **hv?yo** occurs in the initial position of the subordinate clause that subordinate clause functions as the clause of place. For example,

c) aNga Ilam pεg -a -N hv?yo nu:si tεNbε yuN -a -N  
1sg Ilam go -PT -PRN where 7 year stay -PT-PRN

I went to Ilam where I stayed for 7 years.

In the example (c), the subordinator **hv?yo** occurs in the initial position of the subordinate clause for the clause of place as in **aNga Ilam pε- a-N hv?yo nu:si tQ\_bv yu\_-a\_**.

## 7. Clause of Condition

In Limbu, clause of condition occurs with topic marker **gQrQ** and optionally followed by topic marker to the oblique case suffix **-illv** in the final position of the subordinate clause. For example,

a) sapla ki -nir -u -gQrQ kε -lεs -u?  
book 2sg.PRN -study -NPT -Top PRN -pass -NPT

If you read, you will pass.

b) niNwa kε -dzog -u -gQrQ kε -gε?  
want 2sg.PRN-do -NPT -Top PRN -reach.NPT

If you want, you will reach.

c) haN -illε -gQrQ mε -dza? -a -n

biting test -OBL -Top NEG -eat -NPT -NEG

If it has biting test, I don't eat.

d) pεk -a -llε -gQrQ tum -u -N

go -NPT -OBL -Top meet -NPT -PRN

If I go there, I meet him.

In the examples (a), (b), (c) and (d), topic marker **gQrQ** optionally follows oblique case marker **-llv** in the final position of the subordinate clause for the clause of condition as in **ha\_- llv-gQrQ mε-dza?-a-n** and **ni\_wa kv-dzog-u gQrQ kε-gε?**.

## 8. Clause of Comparison and Similarity

The subordinator **hvkkv** occurs after the nominalizer **-ba** in the final position of the subordinate clause for the clause of similarity. For example,

a) pat -u -N -ba **hvkkv** kεn cog -ε?

Say -PT -PRN -NOM as it do -IMPR

Do it as I said.

b) it -u -N -ba **hvkkv** kεn wεy -ε

Imagine -PT -PRN -NOM as it be -PT

It was as I imagined.

In the examples (a) and (b), the subordinator **hvkkv** occurs after the nominalizer **-ba** in the final position of the subordinate clause for the clause of similarity as in **pat -u -ba hvkkv kεn cog-ε?** and **it-u\_-ba hvkkv kεn wεy-ε**.

The ergative case marker **-llv** and commitative case marker **-nu** merge together and follow the noun and pronoun in the final position of the subordinate clause for the clause of comparison. For example,

c) Mukum **-nu -llv** Mirak kεm -ba cok

3sg -COM -ERG 3sg tall -Nom.Ma be.



Mirak is taller than Mukum.

- d) aNga **-nu** **-llv** Numa c≡n  
 1sg -COM -ERG 3sg quick

Numa is quiker than me.

In the examples (c) and (d), commitative case marker **-nu** and ergative case marker **-llv** merge and follow the noun and pronoun in the final position of the subordinate clause for the clause of comparison as in **Mukum-nullv** Mirak kεm-ba cok and **a\_ga-nu-llv** Numa c≡n.

### 3.1.2 Coordination

The Limbu language also has coordinate clauses, **nu**, **kgrg**, **hvkyā** and **bi**, are the Limbu coordination markers among them **nu** is used only for phrasal conjunction but not used for conjoining clauses. For example,

- a) mamma? **Nu** pappa? him- o pε -si  
 3sg and 3sg house-LOC go.PT -PRN

Mother and father went to the house.

- b) mukum **nu** mirak ko?yo tε -si  
 3sg and 3sg here come.PT -PRN

Mukum and Mirak came here.

In the examples (a) and (b), the coordinator **nu** is used for phrasal conjunction. Here noun phrases **mother** and **father** in (a) and **Mukum** and **Mirak** in (b) are coordinated by **nu** coordinator.

The Limbu Language has another coordinator **kgrg**. This coordinator coordinates two independent clauses. For example,

- c) luNse siNse cε? **kgrg** limba-ha? mε - dze - n - ε?  
 fruit eat.IMPR but sweet-pl NEG -eat -NEG-IMPR

Eat fruit but don't eat sweets.

- d) nu:ma ha:b -a **kgrg** mukm er -a  
 3sg weep -PT but 3sg laugh -PT

Numa wept but Mukum laughed.

In the examples (c) and (d), the coordinator **kgrg** coordinates two contrastive independent clauses as in luNse siNse ce? **kgrg** limba-ha? me -dze -n -e? and nu:ma ha:b-a **kgrg** mukm er-a.

The word **hvkya\_\_** is another type of Limbu coordinator which joins two independent clauses. For example,

e) nu:ma-re nakca iN -u **hvkya\_\_** mukum-re limba iN - u  
3sg - ERK pen buy-PRN.PT and 3sg - ERG sweet buy -PRN.PT  
Numa bought a pen and Mukum bought sweet.

f) numa-re lunse sinse c≅ **hekya\_\_** thi: thuN -u  
3sg-ERG fruit eat.PT and beer drink -PRN.PT  
Numa ate fruit and drank the beer.

In the examples (e) and (f), the coordinator **hekya\_\_** coordinates two independent clauses as in nu:ma-re nakca iN-u **hvkya\_\_** mukum-re limba iN-u and nu:ma -re lunse sinse c≅ **hekya\_\_** thi:thuN-u.

In the Limbu language, the sequence marker **-a\_\_** also functions as the coordinator and it is suffixed to the verb. For example,

g) numa -re lunse sinse c≅ **-a\_\_** thi: thuN -u  
3sg -ERG fruit eat.PT -and beer drink -PRN.PT  
Numa ate fruit and drank the beer.

In the example (g), the sequence marker **-a\_\_** functions as the coordinate marker and suffixed to the verb cQ as in numa-re lunse sinse c≅-**a\_\_** thi: thuN-u.

Similarly, the suffix **-bi** is another Limbu coordinator which expresses choice of one in two conjoined propositions. For example,

h) ke -vem **-bi** he?yo ke -bek?  
2sg.PRN -come -or there PRN -go.IMPR  
Come or go there.

i) sa ke -dz≅ **-bi** thi: ki -thuN -u?

meat 2sg.PRN -eat -or beer PRN -drink -IMPR

Eat meat or drink beer.

In the examples (h) and (i), the coordinator **-bi** excludes one in two conjoined propositions as in  $\kappa\epsilon$ -v $\epsilon$ m-**bi** h $\epsilon$ ?yo  $\kappa\epsilon$ -b $\epsilon$ k? and sa  $\kappa\epsilon$ -dz $\cong$ -**bi** thi: ki-thuN-u? because it gives the choice to select one.

The coordinators **nu**, **kgrg**, **hvkya\_** and **bi** are the Limbu coordinators which coordinate two independent clauses. The coordinator **kgrg**, **hvkya\_** and **bi** join two independent clauses but **nu** occurs only in phrasal coordination.

### 3.1.3 Converb Clause

Noonan (1999, p.401) defines, “The verbal noun, in association with an appropriate case clitic, can also be used for adverbial subordination, but adverbial subordination can also be accomplished by means of a set of specialized nonfinite forms referred to as converb”. (as cited in Yadava and Glover, 1999)

Converbs are verbal conjunctive elements and are used to join clauses. Converb is the participle form of the verb in an adverbial clause which can function both as a conjunctive and as non-finite verb.

There are two types of converb clauses in Limbu: simultaneous converb and sequential converb.

#### 1. Simultaneous Converb

Noonan (1999, p.404) says, “The basis meaning of the simultaneous converb is that the activity expressed by the converb is presented as being simultaneous with, or temporally overlapping with, another activity expressed by the Matrix predicate, and, further, that the two activities together constitute, in some sense, two aspects of the same larger event”. (as cited in Yadava and Glover, 1999)

The simultaneous converb in Limbu is formed by attaching the suffixes **-ra** and **-i** to the verbal root. For example,

- a) tancho      haNse      c≡      -rQ      nisamhim      pε  
       3sg            apple        eat      -SIM    school        go.PT  
       Tancho went to school eating an apple.

- b) taNsaN      s≡wa    thuNu      -rQ            him    -o      tε:  
       3sg            juice    drink      -SIM            house-LOC    come.PT  
       Tangsang came to the house drinking juice.

In the examples (a) and (b), the suffixe **-rQ** occurs with the verbal root **cQ** and **thu\_u** in the final position of the subordinated clause for the simultaneous converb as in **tancho ha\_se cQ-rQ nisamhim pε** and **ta\_sa\_ sQwa thu\_u-rQ him-o tε:**.

Similarly, the suffix **-i** also forms the simultaneous converb attaching with the verbal root in the final position of the subordinate clause. For example,

- c) mundhum    pat      -i      mε            -dhaN    -l≡      mε    -b≡?  
       story        tell      -SIM    3pl.PRN    -come up -PROG PRN -be  
       They are coming up telling the story.

- d) mēnchya    sat      -i      mε      -yε  
       3sg            tease    -SIM    PRN    -come down.PT  
       They came down teasing the girl.

In the examples (c) and (d), the suffix **-i** occurs with the verbal root **pat** and **sat** in the final position of the subordinate clause for the simultaneous converb as in **mundhumpat-i mε-dhaN -l≡ mε-b≡?** and **mēnchya sat-i mε-yε**.

## 2. Sequential Converb

Noonam (1999, p. 409) says, “The basic meaning of the sequential converb is that the event it encodes is understood to have accrued prior to the event encoded in the Matrix predicate”. (as cited in Yadava and Glover, 1999)

Yadava (2005) defines, “The sequential converb basically refers to ‘anteriority’ i.e. the event occurring immediately prior to the event encoded in the following verb, which may be another sequential converb or a finite verb in the matrix clause”. (as cited in Regmi, 2008, P. 334)

In the Limbu language, the suffix **-a\_** occurs with the verbal root in the final position of the subordinate clause for the sequential converb. For example,

a) numa-rε ku -tεt -ha? ≅ -hapt -u **-a\_** him -o pε  
 3sg-ERG PRN-cloth-pl PRN-wash-PT-SEQ house-LOC go.PT  
 Numa went home, having washed her clothes.

b) Mirak -rε tεk cε ≅ **-a\_** nisamhim pε  
 3sg -ERG rice eat -SEQ school go.PT  
 Mirak went to school, having eaten rice.

c) aNga? SamloraN **-a\_** him -o pεg -a -N  
 1sg sing -SEQ home-LOC go -PT -PRN  
 I went home, having sung a song.

In the examples (a), (b) and (c), the suffix **-a\_** occurs with the verb **haptu**, **cQ** and **samlora\_** in the final position for the sequential converb.

Similarly, the suffix **-bo?** also occurs after the verb in the final position the subordinate clause for the sequential converb in the discourse level. For example,

d) hεnε? -in nakca tε?r -u -N -bo? lεpmi nak -a  
 2sg -ABS pen take -NPT -PRN SEQ sorry beg -NPT  
 I am sorry for taking your pen.

In the example (d), the suffix **-bo?** occurs after the verb **tv?r-u\_** in the final position of the subordinate clause for the sequential converb as in **hvnv?-in nakca tv?r-u\_-bo? lεpminak -a** .

### 3.2 Similarities and Differences Between the Clause of Limbu and English Language

### 3.2.1 Subordinate Clause

In case of subordinate clause, there is a similarity and difference between the Limbu and English clause which are given below:

#### I. Present Participle Clause

Present participle clause is found in both English and Limbu. In Limbu, the subordinator **-ma** occurs for the present participle clause. The Limbu present participle clause marker **-ma** is used in the final position of the subordinate clause but in English present participle clause occurs in the initial position of the subordinate clause. For example,

- a) suN hək -ma hɛnɛʔin tumb yambɛk pokh -ɛ -aN wɛ  
grass cut -ING his first job have -PT -SEQ be  
His first job had been cutting grass.

In the example (a), the present participle clause marker **-ma** occurs in the final position of the subordinate clause as in suN hək-**ma** hɛnɛʔin tumb yambɛk pokh-ɛ-aN wɛ in Limbu but in English this clause occurs in the initial position of the subordinate clause as in his first job had been *cutting grass*.

#### II. To Infinitive Clause

In both Limbu and English to infinitive clause is found but difference is that the Limbu to infinitive clause marker **-ma** is used after the verb in the final position of the subordinate clause but in English to infinitive clause is used in the initial position of the subordinate clause. For example,

- a) yɛrik cwa thuN -ma nu:ba -ro  
more water drink -INF beneficial -ASS

To drink enough water is beneficial.

- b) thakmaN pɛk -ma sa:k  
uphill go -INF difficult

To climb up is difficult.

In the examples (a) and (b), the suffix **-ma** is the infinitive clause marker which occurs after the verb in the final position of the subordinate clause in Limbu as in **yQrik cwa thu\_\_-ma** nu:ba-ro and **thakma\_\_ pvk-ma** sa:k but in English this clause occurs in the initial position of the subordinate clause.

### III. Verbless Clause

Verbless clause is found in both English and Limbu. The topic marker **-gQrQ** optionally occurs with the negation and nominalizer **-ba** in the final position of the subordinate clause for the verbless clause in Limbu but in English this clause occurs in the initial position of the subordinate clause. For example,

a) mɛn -gɔ̃rɔ̃ hɛ?yo pɛk -a  
 NEG -Top there go -1sg.NPT  
 If not, I go there.

b) khɛdiN -ba -gɔ̃rɔ̃ sɛlapt -a -N -ɛ  
 doubt -NOM-Top ask -NPT -1sg.PRN -IMPR  
 If in doubt, ask me.

In the examples (a) and (b), the topic marker **-gQrQ** occurs optionally with the negation and nominalizer **-ba** in the final position of the subordinate clause in Limbu for the verbless clause as in **mvn-gQrQ** hɛ?yo pɛk-a and **khvdi\_\_-ba-gQrQ** sɛlapt-a-N-ɛ but in English verbless clause occurs in the initial position of the subordinate clause.

### IV. Noun Clause

Noun clause is found in both English and Limbu. The subordinator **-ban** occurs in the final position of the subordinate clause for the noun clause in Limbu. For example,

a) hɛnɛ? pir -a -N **-ban** sapla-ha? Khos-u-N  
 3sg give -PT -PRN -what book-pl get-PT-1sg.PRN  
 I took what books she gave me.

In the example (a), the subordinator **-ban** occurs in the final position of the subordinate clause for the noun clause but in English this clause occurs in the initial position of the subordinate clause.

## V. Adjective Clause

Adjective clause is found in both English and Limbu. The subordinators **hQnv?**, **hv?yo** and **hQnv?in** occur in the initial position of the subordinate clause which functions as the adjective clause. For example,

a) aNga yeksam -ba tum-u-N **hQnv?** nisamhim-o w≡y-ε  
 1sg headmaster-NOM.Ma meet-PT-PRN who school-LOC be-PT  
 I met a headmaster who was at school.

b) hεn him **hv?yo** matrika sawanchi-N -aN w≡y-ε  
 that house where Matrika born -PT -SEQ be PT  
 It is a house where the Matrika born.

c) mamu tum -u - N **hQnv?-in** ku-mik-ha? phiNla mε -w≡y-ε  
 a girl meet-PT-1sg.PRN 3sg-ABS PRN-eye-pl blue PRN-be-PT  
 He met a girl whose eyes were blue.

In the example (a), (b) and (c), the subordinators **hQnv?**, **hv?yo** and **hQnv?in** occur in the initial position of the subordinate clause which functions as adjective clause. But difference with English is that adjective subordinators occur either after the verb or noun in Limbu but in English those subordinators do not occur after the verb.

## VI. Adverbial Clause

In both Limbu and English, the following types of adverbial clauses are found. They are given below:

### 1. Clause of Time



Clause of time is found in both English and Limbu. In Limbu, **-sorik**, **-illv**, **-llv**, **tQgi**, **-a\_\_**, **a\_tho**, **dhari?k**, **hamrik**, **thi?lv\_\_** are the subordinators which are used for the clause of time. In Limbu, the subordinator **a\_tho** is used in the final position of the subordinate clause for the clause of time but in English this subordinator is used in the initial position of the subordinate clause. For example,

- a) nisamhim lɛr -u -N -a\_tho yambɛk cok-ma hɛkt-u-N  
 school leave-PT-1sg.PRN-since job do-INF start-PT-PRN  
 Since I left school, I started a job.

In the example (a), the subordinator **-a\_tho** occurs in the final position of the subordinate clause for the clause of time as in **nisamhim lɛr-u\_\_-a\_tho yambɛk cok-ma hɛkt-u-N** but in English it occurs in the initial position of the subordinate clause. Similarly the subordinators **-illv**, **-llv**, **tQgi**, and **-a\_\_** are also used in the final position of the subordinate clause in Limbu whereas in English these subordinators are used in the initial position of the subordinate clause. For example,

- b) aNga nin -ɛ -llv hɛne? dhankuta kɛ -yun -ɛ  
 1sg see -PT -when 2sg dhankuta PRN-live-PT  
 When I last saw, you lived in Dhankuta.
- c) aNga ips -a -N -illv sepmaN -o ni:n-ɛ  
 1sg sleep -PT -PRN -while dream -LOC see-PT  
 When I was a slept, I dreamed about you.
- d) ca-ma tQgi ki -huk - in ɛsi?r-ɛ  
 eat-ING before 1sg.PRN-hand-ABS wash-IMPR  
 Wash your hand before eating.
- e) tɛk caN -a\_\_ a -huk -in asi:r -u -N  
 rice eat -after 1sg.PRN-hand-ABS wash -PT -PRN  
 I washed my hand after eating rice.

The equivalent of the English subordinators of the clause of time **whilst**, **as long as**, **so long as**, **immediately** and **directly** are not found in Limbu.

## 2. Clause of Reason

In both English and Limbu, clause of reason is found. The Limbu subordinators of reason clause are **-a\_**, **thya\_va?llv**, **ballv**, **dhari?k**, **a\_tho** but English subordinators of clause of reason are **because**, **since**, **due to** and **by virtue of**. Among them the equivalent English subordinator of clause of time, **by virtue of**, is not found in Limbu.

## 3. Clause of Purpose

Clause of purpose is found in both English and Limbu. The Limbu subordinators of purpose clause are **mvo** and **pha\_**, which occur in the final position of the subordinate clause but in English those subordinators occur in the initial position of the subordinate clause. For example,

a) cy≅ ca iN -ma -rε **mvo** h≅nε? pitnu: s≅Ngh-u  
some food buy -ING -ERG in order to 3sg milk sell -PT  
She sold milk in order to buy some food.

b) kumba nu kusa paNli ta? -ma **-pha\_** pε:s-i  
3sg and 3sg bride bring -INF -in order to go-PT  
Father and son went out in order to bring bride.

In the example (a), the subordinators **mvo** and **pha\_** occur in the final position of subordinate clause for the clause of purpose as in **cyQca i\_-ma-rv mvo h≅nε? pitnu: s≅Ngh-u** and **kumba nu kusa pa\_li ta?-ma-pha\_ pε:s-i** in the Limbu language but in English those subordinators occur in the initial position of the subordinate clause.

## 4. Clause of Result

Clause of result is also found in both English and Limbu. The Limbu subordinators of result clause are **cogullv** and **ballv**, those subordinators occur in the final position of the subordinate clause but in English those subordinators occur in the initial position of the subordinate clause. For example,

a) hɛnɛ? tɛr -u -N -ba -**cogullv** aNga-in yakpha lɛr-u  
 3sg scold-PT-1sg.PRN-NOM-so that 1sg-ABS room leave-PT  
 I scolded him, so that he left room.

b) ku-sɛtlak-**ballv** yɛk tɛk cɛ  
 2sg.PRN-hungry-so more rice eat.PT  
 She was hungry, so she ate more rice.

In the examples (a) and (b), the subordinators **cogullv** and **ballv** occur in the final position of the subordinate clause but in English those subordinators occur in the initial position of the subordinate clause.

## 5. Clause of Concession

Clause of concession is also found in both English and Limbu. The Limbu subordinators of concession clause are **sa\_\_**, **llv** and **illv**. The subordinator **sa\_\_** occurs either with the ‘be verb’ or ‘main verb’ in the final position of the subordinate clause. For example,

a) wahit-in thɛ-rɛ -wɛ -**sa\_\_** him - o pɛg - a - N  
 rain-ABS fall-ING -be -although house -LOC go -PT -1sg. PRN  
 Although it was raining, I went home.

b) aNga-nu yaN hopt - ɛ - **sa\_\_** thikkap lɛghɛt iN - u - N  
 1sg-with money not have-PT-though a pair suite buy-PT-PRN  
 Though I had no money, I bought a pair of suite.

The subordinator **sa\_\_** occurs after the ‘be verb’ in the final position of the subordinate clause in **wahit-in thv-rQ -wv-sa\_\_** him-o pɛg-a-N and **a\_\_ga-nu ya\_\_ hopt-v-sa\_\_** thikkap lɛghɛt iN-u-N but in English this subordinator occurs in the initial position of the subordinate clause. The English subordinators of concession clause, **whereas** and **whilst**, are not found in Limbu.

## 6. Clause of Place

In both English and Limbu, clause of place is found. The Limbu subordinators of clause of place are **bo?** and **hv?yo** which occur in the final position of the subordinate clause but in English those subordinators are used in the initial position of the subordinate clause . For example,

a) yamb≡k      kε      -ghos      **-bo?**      pεg      -ε  
 job              2sg.PRN-get      -where      go      -IMPR  
 Go there where you get job.

b) aNga Ilam    pεg-a-N              **hv?yo**              nu:si    t≡nbε    yuN-a-N  
 1sg    Ilam    go-PT-PRN    where              seven    year    stay-PT-PRN  
 I went to Ilam where I stayed for 7 years.

In the examples (a), the subordinators **bo?** occurs in the final position of subordinate clauses as in **yambQk kv-ghos -bo?** pεg-ε and in the example (b), the subordinator **hv?yo** occurs in the initial position of the subordinate clause as in aNga Ilam pεg-a-N **hv?yo nu:si tQnbv yu\_\_-a-\_\_** but in English both subordinators occur in the initial position of the subordinate clause. In English the subordinators of clause of place occur after the place noun but in Limbu subordinator **hv?yo** may occur either after the verb or place noun.

## 7. Clause of Condition

Clause of condition is found in both English and Limbu. In Limbu, clause of condition occurs with topic marker **gQrQ** and optionally followed by the oblique case marker **-illv** in the final position of the subordinate clause. For example,

a) sapla      ki              -nir    -u      **-gQrQ**      kε      -l≡s    -u?  
 book      2sg.PRN    -study -NPT    -Top              PRN    -pass    -NPT  
 If you read, you will pass.

b) haN              -illε    **-gQrQ**              mε      - dza? -a              -n  
 biting test    -OBL -Top              NEG -eat    -1sg.PRN    -NEG  
 If it is biting test, I don't eat.

In the examples (a) and (b), clause of condition occurs with topic marker **gOrQ** and optionally followed by the oblique case marker **-illv** in the final position of the subordinate clause as in **sapla ki-nir-u-gOrQ** kε-lɛs-u? and **ha\_\_-illv-gOrQ** mε-dza?-a-n but in English it occurs in the initial position of the subordinate clause.

## 8. Clause of Comparison and Similarity

Clause of comparison and similarity are found in both English and Limbu. The Limbu subordinator **hvkkv** of clause of similarity occurs following the nominalizer case marker **-ba** in the final position of the subordinate clause but in English this subordinator occurs in the initial position of the subordinate clause. For example,

- a) pat -u -N -ba **hvkkv** kɛn cog -ε  
 say PT -1sg.PRN -NOM as it do -IMPR  
 You do it as I said.

In the example (a), the subordinator **hvkkv** follows the nominalizer **-ba** in the final position of the subordinate clause for the clause of similarity as in **pat-u\_\_-ba hvkkv** kɛn cog-ε but in English this subordinator occurs in the initial position of the subordinate clause.

The Limbu subordinator of comparison clause **-nullv** occurs in the final position of the subordinate clause but in English, it occurs in the initial position of the subordinate clause. For example,

- b) aNga **nu -llv** numa cɛn  
 1sg COM-ERG numa Quirk  
 Numa is Quirker than me.

In the example (b), the subordinator **nullv** occurs in the final position of the subordinate clause as in **a\_ga nu-llv numa cQn** in the Limbu language but in English this subordinator occurs in the initial position of the subordinate clause. The English subordinators of clause of comparison **as.....as** and **the same.....as** are not found in Limbu.

### 3.2.2 Coordination

In both English and Limbu coordinate clauses are found. Limbu coordinators, except **-nu**, coordinate two propositions which are independent from each other. For example,

- a) nu:ma            ha:b -a    **kgrg**    mukum    er    -a  
       3g                weep -PT    but        3sg            laugh -PT  
       Numa wept but Mukum laughed.

In the example (a), **kgrg** is the coordinator which coordinates two independent clauses as in nu:ma ha:b-a **kgrg** mukum er-a. This coordinator, **kgrg** is equivalent to the English coordinator ‘but’ but the Limbu coordinators **-nu**, **-a\_\_** and **hvkya\_\_** are used as an equivalent to the English coordinator ‘and’. For example,

- b) mamma?        **nu**    pappa?        him -o        pε -si  
       3sg                and    3sg                house-LOC    go -PT.PRN  
       Mother and father went to the house.
- c) Numa -rε        luNse siNse    c≅    **hvkya\_\_**        thi    thuN -u  
       3sg -ERG        fruit        eat.PT and        bear drink -PT  
       Numa ate fruit and drank the beer.
- d) Numa -rε        luNse siNse    c≅    **-a\_\_**    thi    thuN -u  
       3sg -ERG        fruit        eat - and    beer drink -PT  
       Numa ate fruit and drank the beer.

The Limbu coordinator **-nu** coordinates only on phrase level as in mamma?**nu** pappa? him-o pε-si in which **mamma?** and **pappa?** are coordinated by **-nu** coordinator. Similarly the coordinators **hvkya\_\_** and **-a\_\_** are equivalent to English coordinator **and**.

The Limbu coordinator **-bi** is equivalent to the English coordinator **or** but Limbu coordinator **-bi** occurs in the initial and final position of the clause at once but in English this coordinator occurs in the middle position of the clause and it can't occur in two places at once. For example,

- e) kε            -bhεm        **bi**        kε -bεk?  
       2sg.PRN-come        or        PRN-go.IMPR  
       Come or go.
- f) kε            -bhεm        **bi**        kε -bεk        **-pi?**

2sg.PRN -come or PRN -go.IMPR -or

Come or go.

In the example (e), the Limbu coordinator **-bi** occurs only one time in the middle part of the clause but in the example (f) the Limbu coordinator **-bi** occurs two times in the middle and final position of the clause where the final coordinator **-bi** has been changed into **-pi** due to the interference of the morpheme /k/. The example (f) is used for giving more emphasis in the Limbu. The difference between the Limbu coordinator **-bi** and English coordinator **or** is that the coordinator **-bi** can be used in both position i.e. in the middle and final position of the clause at once but English coordinator **or** can't be used in the final and initial position of the clause at once.

### 3.2.3 Converb Clause

In both English and Limbu, converb clause is found. Suffixes **-rQ** and **-i** attach to the verbal root for the simultaneous converb in Limbu. For example,

a) tancho haNse c≅ -rQ nisamhim pε  
 1sg apple eat -SIM school go.PT  
 Tancho went to school eating an apple.

b) Mundhum pat -i mε -dhaN -l≅ mε -b≅?  
 story tell -SIM 3pl.PRN -come up -ING PRN-be  
 They are coming up telling the story.

In the examples (a) and (b), simultaneous converb marker **-rQ** and **-i** occur in the final position of the subordinate clause as in **tancho ha\_se cQ-rQ** nisamhim pε and **mudhum pat-i** mε-dhaN-l≅ mε-b≅? but in English subordinators of converb clause occur in the initial position of the subordinate clause.

Similarly, in Limbu the suffix **-a\_** also occurs in the final position of the subordinate clause for the sequential converb but in English it occurs in the initial position of the subordinate clause. For example,

a) Mirak -rε t≅k c≅ -a\_ nisamhim pε  
 3sg -ERG rice eat -SEQ school go.PT  
 Mirak went to school, having eaten rice.

In the example (a), the sequential converb marker **-a\_** in Limbu occurs in the final position of subordinate clause as in **mirak-rv tQk cQ-a\_** nisamhim pε, but in English it occurs in the initial position of the subordinate clause for the sequential converb.



## CHAPTER FOUR

### FINDINGS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This chapter concerns mainly with the findings and recommendations. Under the findings - clause systems in the Limbu language, similarities and differences between English and Limbu clause systems have been given. On the basis of the research, some recommendations have also been given below.

#### 4.1 Findings

The findings of the study are as follows:

##### 4.1.1 Clause Systems in the Limbu Language

1. Present participle clause markers **-ma** and **-i** of Limbu occurs in the final position of the subordinate clause so **-ma** functions as a subordinator.
2. Verbless clause is found in Limbu.
3. To infinitive clause is marked by **-ma** subordinator which occurs in the final position of the subordinate clause.
4. **Sorik, illv, llv, t0gi, a\_, thi?lv\_, a\_Tho, dharik** are the subordinators of the clause of time which are used in the final position of the subordinate clause.
5. Limbu present participle clause is marked by simultaneous suffix **lQ/rQ** which occurs in the final position of the subordinate clause.
6. The subordinators - **a\_**, **-a\_Tho**, **thva\_va?llv** and **ballv** occur in the final position of the subordinate clause for the reason clause.
7. The suffixes **-ma** (infinitive marker) and **-v** (non-past tense marker) occur with the subordinating verb in the final position of the subordinate clause for the purpose clause.
8. **Mvo, pha\_** are the subordinators for the purpose clause which are used in the final position of the subordinate clause.

9. The suffixes **-illv** and **-ballv** are attached to the root verb for the reason clause in the final position of the subordinate clause.
10. **Sa\_**, **gOrQ**, **-llv**, and **illv** are the subordinators of the clause of concession which are used in the final position of the subordinate clause.
11. The suffix **-bo?** is the subordinator of the clause of place.
12. The subordinator **gOrQ** occurs in the final position of the subordinate clause for the clause of condition.
13. The subordinator **hvkkv** occurs after the nominalier **-ba** in the final position of the subordinate clause for the clause of similarity and the subordinator **nullv** is used for the clause of comparison in the final position of the subordinate clause.
14. The Limbu coordinators are **nu**, **hvkya\_**, **a\_**, **kgrg** and **bi**. Among them **nu**, **hvkya\_** and **a\_** are equivalent with the English coordinator **and**, **kgrg** is equivalent with **but** and **bi** is equivalent with the English coordinator **or**.
15. Sequential and simultaneous converbs are found in the Limbu language.
16. The suffix **-a\_** attaches to the root verb for the sequential converb in the Limbu language.
17. The suffix **-rQ** and **-i** attach to the root verb for the simultaneous converb in the final position of the subordinate clause.

#### **4.1.2 Similarities Between the English and Limbu Clause Systems**

1. Subordinators occur in the subordinate clause in both the English and Limbu languages.
2. Finite and non-finite clauses are found in both languages.
3. Both the languages have adverbial clauses.
4. The verb plays an important role in making the subordinate clause in both the languages.
5. The Limbu subordinator **thva\_va?llv** is equivalent with the English subordinator **because** for the reason clause.

6. In both languages, in the absence of ‘if clause’ the conditional clause is impossible.
7. In both languages, clause of similarity and difference is found.
8. Coordination clause is found in both Limbu and English.
9. In Limbu, the coordinators **-kgrg** and **bi** are equivalent to the English coordinator **but** and **or** respectively.
10. Converb clause is found in both English and Limbu.
11. In both languages, converb clauses are introduced by participle forms of verb. For example,
 

In English,  
Tancho went to school **eating** an apple. (...ing participle)

In Limbu,  
Tancho serimse c≡rQ nisamhim pε (...r≡ participial)
12. In both languages, clause of result, clause of concession, clause of place and clause of condition are found.
13. Verbless clause is found in both Limbu and English.

#### 4.1.3 Difference Between the English and Limbu Clause Systems

1. The Limbu coordinators **nu**, **a\_\_** and **hvkya\_\_** are used instead of English coordinator **and**. The Limbu language has three coordinators for only one English coordinator **and**.
2. In the Limbu language, present participle marker **-ma** occurs in the clause final position of the subordinate clause whereas in English, present participle occurs in the initial position of the subordinate clause.
3. To infinitive clause marker **-ma** occurs in the clause final position of the subordinate clause in Limbu whereas in English to-infinitive clause occurs in the clause initial position of the subordinate clause.
4. The equivalents of English subordinators of the clause of time **-whilst**, **as long as**, **so long as**, **immediately**, **directly** are not found in the Limbu language.

5. The English subordinator **when** and **while** occur with the verb and noun whereas the Limbu subordinator **-illv** always occurs with the verb in the final position of the subordinate clause.
6. The subordinators of the clause of time-**soṛik, illv, tQgi, a\_\_tho, -dharik, thi?lv\_\_** and **a\_\_** occur in the final position of the subordinate clause in Limbu whereas in English they occur in the initial position of the subordinate clause.
7. The English subordinator of the clause of reason, **by virtue of**, is not found in Limbu.
8. Only one Limbu subordinator **sa\_\_** of clause of concession functions for the English subordinators- **although, though, even though** and **even if**.
9. **So that, to, in order to, so as to** and **for** are the subordinators of the purpose clause in English whereas **ma** and **pha\_\_** are the Limbu subordinators of purpose clause.
10. The suffixes **-rQ/1Q** and **-i** are the subordinators of simultaneous converb in Limbu whereas in English the suffix **-ing** functions as the simultaneous converb.
11. The suffixes **-a\_\_** and **-bo?** are the subordinators of the sequential converb whereas in English **having<sub>+</sub>** past participle functions as sequential converb.

## 4.2 Recommendations

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

### 4.2.1 Recommendations for Language Teachers Teaching English to the Limbu Native Speakers

1. The Limbu coordinators are **nu, a\_\_** and **hvkya\_\_**. Among them **nu** is used in the conjunction of phrase level and **a\_\_** and **hvkya\_\_** are used to join two independent clauses. These coordinators of Limbu are used instead of English coordinator **and**. So, the Limbu native speakers should be made aware of this fact while teaching them.

2. English subordinators occur in clause initial position whereas most of the Limbu subordinators occur in the clause final position of the subordinate clause. While teaching to the Limbu native speakers the teacher should make them aware of this fact.
3. In comparison to the English, verbless clause is rarely found in Limbu. It is difficult than English verbless clause so while teaching verbless clause to the Limbu native speakers the teacher should make them aware of this fact.
4. The suffixes **-ma** and **-i** are the subordinators of present participle clause in Limbu. In the simultaneous action the suffix **-i** is used for the present participle clause but the present participle marker **-ma** does not have simultaneous action whereas in English the suffix **-ing** itself functions as present participle clause and simultaneous action, so the teacher should make the Limbu native speakers aware of this fact while teaching Limbu native speakers.
5. The Limbu coordinator **bi** can be used in both positions i.e. final and initial position of the clause but it is not the case in English. So while teaching coordination the teacher should show this difference to the Limbu native speakers.
6. Some Limbu subordinators occur due to the merge of two cases i.e. **ballv** = **ba** (nominalizer) + **llv** (oblique case marker) for the reason subordinator and **bo?** = **ba** (nominalizer) + **o** (locative case marker) for the noun clause but it is not the case in English. The teacher should focus on this fact while teaching Limbu native speakers.
7. In the Limbu language, single morpheme /v/ i.e. non past tense marker occurs with the verb for the purpose clause. It is the fact that the identification of the Limbu subordinators is difficult whereas in English, the subordinators are easily identified. So the teacher should make them aware of this fact while teaching the Limbu native speakers.

#### 4.2.2 Recommendations for Language Teachers Teaching Limbu to the English Native Speakers

1. In the Limbu clause, sometimes the same subordinator functions as different subordinate clause i.e. **ma** subordinator functions as present participle clause and to-infinitive clause so, the teacher should focus on this fact while teaching the students who are learning Limbu language as a second language.
2. Most of the subordinators occur in the clause final position of the subordinate clause in Limbu whereas in English most of the subordinators occur in the clause initial position, so the teacher should differentiate these facts while teaching the students who are learning the Limbu language as a second language.
3. The Limbu coordinators **nu**, **a\_** and **hvkya\_** occur for only one English coordinator **and**. The Limbu language learners may be in the confusion in the use of coordinators **nu**, **a\_** and **hvkya\_**. So, the teacher should focus on this fact while teaching the Limbu language learners as a second language.
4. The Limbu coordinator **-bi** occurs in both positions i.e. in the initial and final position of the clause at once whereas in English the coordinator **or** cannot be used in both positions at once. So while teaching the Limbu language as a second language the teacher should make aware of this fact.
5. The English subordinator **when** and **while** occur with the verb and noun in the initial position of the subordinate clause whereas in Limbu the subordinators **illv** and **llv** always occur with the verb in the final position of the subordinate clause so the teacher should concentrate on this fact while teaching Limbu language as a second language.

## References

- Aarts, F. & Aarts, J. (1984). *English syntactic structures*. New York: Mouton.
- Begha, B. (2008). *Anakchale pesulatu. Imeutnasung*. Siliguri: Himadi Printers.
- Best, J.W. & Kahn, J.V. (1992). *Research in education*. New Delhi: Prentice Hall of India Pvt. Ltd.
- Bhattaria, G. R. (2001). *A thematic analysis of research reports*. Kathmandu: Ratna Pustak Bhandar.
- Carter, R. and McCarthy, M. (2008). *Cambridge grammar of English*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press
- Central Bureau of Statistics (2002). *Population census*. Kathmandu: HMG
- Chalise, L. (2007). *Clause combining in Baram and English: A comparative study*. An Unpublished M. Ed Thesis, T.U., Kathmandu.
- Chemjong, I.S. (2003). *The kirat grammar*. Lalitpur: Kirat Yakthung Chumlung.
- Chemjong, I.S. (2003). *History and culture of kirat people*. Kathmandu: Kirat Yakthung Chumlung.
- Chomsky, N. (1957). *Syntactic structures*. The Hague: Mouton.
- Close, R. A. (1986). *A reference grammar for students of English*. London: Longman.
- Crystal, D.(2003). *A dictionary of linguistics and phonetics*. U.S.A.: Blackwell.
- Driem, V. G. (1987). *A grammar of Limbu*. New York: Mouton de Gruyter
- Ebert, K. H. (1994). *The structure of kirati languages*. University Zurich.
- Hildebrandt, K. A. (Aug 20, 2007). Prosodic and grammatical domains in Limbu. *Himalayan Linguistics*. Retrieved 23 may, 2008 from [www. Himalayan.edu.html](http://www.Himalayan.edu.html)
- James, C. (1980). *Contrastive analysis*. London: Longman.

- John, F. (May 21, 2007). *Adjective clause*. Fleming john story readers. Retrieved 26 June, 2008 from <http://facult.deama.edu.html>
- Kaila, B. (2048). *Limbu jatima kokha-puja*. Kathmandu: Nepal Rajakiya Pragya Pratisthan.
- Kaila, B. (2059). *Limbu-Nepali-English- dictionary*. Kathmandu: Nepal Rajakiya Pragya Pratisthan.
- Kumar, R. (2006). *Research methodology*. London: Sage Publication.
- Lamichhane, T. (2006). *Adverbial clause in English and Nepali: A comparative study*. An Unpublished M. Ed. Thesis, T.U., Kathmandu.
- Lawati, Y. (2006). Limbu jatika tangnam (chad) Haru. *Tanchhoppa*. 11. 9.5
- Leech, G. & Svartvik, J. (1992). *A communicative grammar of English*. London: Longman.
- Limbu, B. (2007). *A case in English and Limbu: A comparative study*. An Unpublished M. Ed. Thesis, T.U., Kathmandu.
- Limbu, K.S. (2008). *Tense-aspect system in English and Limbu: a comparative linguistic study*. An Unpublished M. Ed. Thesis, T.U., Kathmandu.
- Limbu, S. (2007). *Subordination in Limbu and English: A comparative study*. An Unpublished M. Ed Thesis, T.U., Kathmandu.
- Lyons, J. (2005). *Language and linguistics*. UK: CUP.
- Palmer, F. (1971). *A Grammar*. England: Penguin Books
- Payne, T. E. (2003). *Morpho- syntax*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Phombo, K. (2005). *Non-finite clauses in Limbu*. An Unpublished M. A. Thesis., T.U., Kathmandu.
- Phyak, P.B. (2004). *Limbu and English Pronominals: A comparative Linguistic Study*. An Unpublished M. Ed Thesis, T.U., Kathmandu.
- Quirk, et al. (1985). *A comparative grammar of the English language*. New York: Longman



- Regmi, D.R. (2008). Converb clause in Bhujel. *Journal of the linguistic society of Nepal*. December. 23
- Richards et al. (1985). *Longman dictionary of applied linguistics*. London: Longman
- Sabehang, Y. (2007). *Subject-verb agreement in Limbu and English: A comparative study*. An Unpublished M.Ed. Thesis, T.U., Kathmandu.
- Sturmpf, M. (2008). *The complete grammar*. Delhi: Goodwill Publication.
- Subba, C. (1998). *The culture and religion of Limbu*. Kthmandu: K.B. Subba.
- Subba, J.R. (2002). *History and development of Limboo language*. Sikkim: Sukhim Yakthung Mundhum.
- Subba, K.T. & Baral, B. (2008). *Limbuwanko rajniti*. Kathamandu: Bhadra Kumar Limbu.
- Swan, M. (2008). *Practical English usage*. USA: Oxford University Press
- Tanchhoppa (2009) *Sak husingiro*. 9.5
- Tumbahang, G.B. (2007). *A descriptive grammar of Chhatare Limbu*. An Unpublished doctoral dissertation, T.U., Kathmandu.
- Tumbapo, P. B. (2005). *Affixation in Limbu and English: A Comparative Study*. An Unpublished M.Ed. Thesis, T.U., Kathmandu.
- Turner, R.L. (1931). *A Comparative and Etymological Dictionary of the Nepali Language*. London: Routledge and Kegan Paul Ltd.
- Weidert, A. and Subba, B. ( 1985). *Concise Limbu grammar and dictionary*. Amsterdam: Lobster Publication.
- Whaley, L.J. (1997). *Introduction to typology*. London: Sage Publication
- Yadava, Y.P. and Glover W.G. ( 1999). *Topics in Nepalese linguistics*. Kathmandu: Royal Nepal Academy.

## APPENDIX - I

### ROMAN TRANSLITERATION OF DEVANAGARI SCRIPT

Based on Turner's (1931) Nepali Alphabet and Diacritic Marks

Nepali Alphabet	Roman Translitera	Nepali Alphabet	Roman Translitera
अ	α	अ्	α)
आ	α#	ट्	τ
इ	ι	ट्	τη
ई	ι#	ड्	δ
उ	υ	ढ्	δη
ऊ	υ#	ण्	ν
ऋ	ρ	त्	τ
ए	ε	थ्	τη
ऐ	αι	द्	δ
ओ	ο	ध्	δη
औ	αυ	न्	ν
अँ	αμ, αν	प्	π
अं	α)	फ्	πη
:	η	ब्	β
क्	κ	भ्	βη
ख्	κη	म्	μ
ग्	γ	य्	ψ

घ्	ɣŋ	र्	ρ
ङ्	v	ल्	λ
च्	χ	व्	ω/ɔ
छ्	χŋ	श्	σ
ज्	φ	ष्	σ
भ्	φŋ	स्	σ
		ह्	η

### Note

- In the study, /v/ is used instead of Turner's /v/.
- In the study, /{/ is used which has not given in the chart.
- In the study, /N/ is used instead of Turner's /ŋ/.
- The sound /Σ/ has been used which is not found in Turner's chart.

## APPENDIX - II

### Interview Schedule

#### Questionnaire for Clause Combining in English and Limbu

This interview schedule is prepared in order to accomplish a thesis on "**Clause Combining in English and Limbu**". This thesis is being carried out under the supervision of **Dr. Anjana Bhattarai**, Reader of the Department of English Language Education, T.U. Kirtipur, Kathmandu. It is hoped that your valuable assistance extended to me will be a great contribution in the accomplishment of this work as an M.Ed. thesis.

Name:

Sex:

VDC:

Age:

Occupation:

Second language:

First Language:

**How do you say the following sentences in the Limbu language?**

#### **1. Subordinate clause**

##### **1.1. Finite Clause**

- a. He said that he could not do it.

.....

- b. When I arrived, Numa was weeping.

.....

## 1.2. Non-finite Clauses

### 1.2.1. Present Participle Clause

- a Cutting trees is harmful.

.....

- b Smoking is injurious to health.

.....

- c His first job had been cutting grass

.....

- d They are busy preparing the meat.

.....

- e Mukum built a house using wood.

.....

### 1.2.2. To-infinitive Clause

- a. I told him to bring a cup of tea.

.....

- b. It would be better for you to tell everybody.

.....

- c. To drink enough water is beneficial.

.....

- d. To climb up is difficult.

.....

### 1.3. Verbless Clause

a. If not, I go there.

.....

b. If not, I complete it.

.....

c. We shall start at six, if necessary.

.....

d. If in doubt, ask me.

.....

### 2. Noun Clause

a. I took what they offered.

.....

b. I took which books she gave me.

.....

c. I eat that which I like.

.....

d. She can marry whom she pleases.

.....

### 3. Adjective Clause

a. I met a headmaster who was at school.

.....

b. He is the man whom we all respect.

.....

c. This is the house where the Matrika born.

.....

d. He met a girl whose eyes were blue.

.....

#### 4. Adverbial Clauses

##### 4.1. Clause of Time

As soon as		Since		Whilst	
When		Till		As long as	
While		Until		So long as	
Before		Now		Immediately	
After		As		Directly	
Once		Whenever			

a. Buy some oranges as soon as you reach the shop.

.....

b. Join the college as soon as you pass the S.L.C.

.....

c. When I last saw, you lived in Dhankuta.

.....

d. When I met you, you were a teacher.

.....

e. He wrote a poem while working in the field.

.....

f. While I was asleep, I dreamed about you.

.....

g. Wash your hand before eating.

.....

h. Brush your shoes before going to school.

.....

i. I took a bath after working in the garden.

.....

j. I washed my hand after eating rice

.....

k. Since coming here, life has been much more pleasant.

.....

l. Since I left school, I started a job.

.....

m. I did not go to Kathmandu until I passed the S.L.C.

.....

n. I disliked Khajong until I knew him.

.....

#### 4.2. Clause of Reason

Because -		By virtue of -	
Since -		Due to -	

a He died due to the vomiting the blood.

.....

b I ate because I became hungry.



.....

c He is thin because he does not eat enough.

.....

d She watered the flowers because they were dry.

.....

e He tired because he carried more.

.....

f Due to the jump from the house, broke his leg.

.....

g Since the weather has improved, I will start my work.

.....

h Since he phoned from there, I cannot tell you that

.....

**4.3. Clause of Purpose**

So that		in order to		for	
to		so as to			

a. To open the door, push it.

.....

b. I went to market to buy clothes.

.....

c. She sold milk in order to buy some food.

.....

d. He earned more money in order to buy a house.

.....

e. To join the collage, he went to Dhankuta.

.....

f. Father and Son went in order to bring bride.

.....

**4.4. Clause of Result**

so	
So that	

a. I scolded him, So that he left my room.

.....

b. He bought some books, so that he read a lot.

.....

c. It's raining, so I do not go outside.

.....

d. She was hungry, so she ate more rice.

.....

**4.5. Clause of Concession**

Although		When		Though	
if		Whereas			
Even if		While			
Even though		Whilst			

- a. Although it was raining, I went home.  
.....
- b. Although she was rich, she had no home.  
.....
- c. Though I had no money, I bought a pair of suit.  
.....
- d. He could not pass in exam even though he did hard labor.  
.....

**4.6. Clause of Place**

Where	
Wherever	

- a. Go there where you get job.  
.....
- b. You can reach wherever I stay.  
.....
- c. I went to Ilam where I stayed for 7 years.  
.....

**4.7. Clause of Condition**

- a. If you read, you will pass.  
.....
- b. If you want, you will reach.  
.....

c. If it has biting test, I don't eat.

.....

d. If I go there, I meet him.

.....

#### 4.8. Clause of Comparison and Similarity

As		Than		The same ..... as	
Like		As.....as			

a. Do it as I said.

.....

b. It was as I imagined.

.....

c. Mirak is taller than Mukum.

.....

d. Numa is quicker than me.

.....

#### 5. Coordination

a. Mother and father went to the house.

.....

b. Mukum and Mirak came here.

.....

c. Eat fruit but do not eat sweets.

.....

d. Numa wept but Mukum laughed.

.....

e. Numa bought a pen and Mukum bought sweets.

.....

f. Numa ate fruit and drank the beer.

.....

g. Mirak ate rice and went to the school.

.....

h. Come or go there.

.....

i. Eat meat or drink beer.

.....

**6. Converbs**

**A. Simultaneous Converb**

a. Tancho went to School eating an apple.

.....

b. Tanshang came to house drinking juice.

.....

c. They are coming up telling the story.

.....

d. They came down teasing the girl.

.....

**B. Sequential Converb**

a Numa went home, having washed her clothes.

.....

b Mirak went to school, having eaten rice.

.....

c I went home, having sung a song.

.....

d I am sorry for taking your pen.

.....

**Thank you for your cooperation.**

Researcher

Lok Bahadur Limbu

M. Ed. Second Year

## APPENDIX - III

### Interview Schedule

#### Questionnaire for Clause Combining in English and Limbu

This interview schedule is prepared in order to accomplish a thesis on "**Clause Combining in English and Limbu**". This thesis is being carried out under the supervision of **Dr. Anjana Bhattarai**, Reader of the Department of English Language Education, T.U. Kirtipur, Kathmandu. It is hoped that your valuable assistance extended to me will be a great contribution in the accomplishment of this work as an M.Ed. thesis.

Name:

Sex:

VDC:

Age:

Occupation:

Second language:

First Language:

**How do you say the following sentences in the Limbu language?**

#### **1. Subordinate clause**

##### **1.1. Finite Clause**

c. He said that he could not do it.

.....

d. When I arrived, Numa was weeping.

.....

## 1.2. Non-finite Clauses

### 1.2.1. Present Participle Clause

f Cutting trees is harmful.

.....

g Smoking is injurious to health.

.....

h His first job had been cutting grass

.....

i They are busy preparing the meat.

.....

j Mukum built a house using wood.

.....

### 1.2.2. To-infinitive Clause

e. I told him to bring a cup of tea.

.....

f. It would be better for you to tell everybody.

.....

g. To drink enough water is beneficial.

.....

h. To climb up is difficult.

.....



### 1.3. Verbless Clause

e. If not, I go there.

.....

f. If not, I complete it.

.....

g. We shall start at six, if necessary.

.....

h. If in doubt, ask me.

.....

### 2. Noun Clause

e. I took what they offered.

.....

f. I took which books she gave me.

.....

g. I eat that which I like.

.....

h. She can marry whom she pleases.

.....

### 3. Adjective Clause

e. I met a headmaster who was at school.

.....

f. He is the man whom we all respect.

.....

g. This is the house where the Matrika born.

.....

h. He met a girl whose eyes were blue.

.....

#### 4. Adverbial Clauses

##### 4.1. Clause of Time

As soon as		Since		Whilst	
When		Till		As long as	
While		Until		So long as	
Before		Now		Immediately	
After		As		Directly	
Once		Whenever			

o. Buy some oranges as soon as you reach the shop.

.....

p. Join the college as soon as you pass the S.L.C.

.....

q. When I last saw, you lived in Dhankuta.

.....

r. When I met you, you were a teacher.

.....

s. He wrote a poem while working in the field.

.....

t. While I was asleep, I dreamed about you.

.....

u. Wash your hand before eating.

.....

v. Brush your shoes before going to school.

.....

w. I took a bath after working in the garden.

.....

x. I washed my hand after eating rice

.....

y. Since coming here, life has been much more pleasant.

.....

z. Since I left school, I started a job.

.....

aa. I did not go to Kathmandu until I passed the S.L.C.

.....

bb. I disliked Khajong until I knew him.

.....

#### 4.2. Clause of Reason

Because -		By virtue of -	
Since -		Due to -	

i He died due to the vomiting the blood.

.....

j I ate because I became hungry.

.....

k He is thin because he does not eat enough.

.....

l She watered the flowers because they were dry.

.....

m He tired because he carried more.

.....

n Due to the jump from the house, broke his leg.

.....

o Since the weather has improved, I will start my work.

.....

p Since he phoned from there, I cannot tell you that

.....

### 4.3. Clause of Purpose

So that		in order to		for	
to		so as to			

g. To open the door, push it.

.....

h. I went to market to buy clothes.

.....

i. She sold milk in order to buy some food.

.....

j. He earned more money in order to buy a house.

.....

k. To join the collage, he went to Dhankuta.

.....

l. Father and Son went in order to bring bride.

.....

#### 4.4. Clause of Result

so	
So that	

e. I scolded him, So that he left my room.

.....

f. He bought some books, so that he read a lot.

.....

g. It's raining, so I do not go outside.

.....

h. She was hungry, so she ate more rice.

.....

#### 4.5. Clause of Concession

Although		When		Though	
if		Whereas			

Even if		While			
Even though		Whilst			

e. Although it was raining, I went home.

.....

f. Although she was rich, she had no home.

.....

g. Though I had no money, I bought a pair of suit.

.....

h. He could not pass in exam even though he did hard labor.

.....

#### 4.6. Clause of Place

Where	
Wherever	

d. Go there where you get job.

.....

e. You can reach wherever I stay.

.....

f. I went to Ilam where I stayed for 7 years.

.....

#### 4.7. Clause of Condition

e. If you read, you will pass.

.....

f. If you want, you will reach.

.....

g. If it has biting test, I don't eat.

.....

h. If I go there, I meet him.

.....

#### 4.8. Clause of Comparison and Similarity

As		Than		The same ..... as	
Like		As.....as			

e. Do it as I said.

.....

f. It was as I imagined.

.....

g. Mirak is taller than Mukum.

.....

h. Numa is quicker than me.

.....

#### 5. Coordination

j. Mother and father went to the house.

.....

k. Mukum and Mirak came here.

.....

l. Eat fruit but do not eat sweets.

.....

m. Numa wept but Mukum laughed.

.....

n. Numa bought a pen and Mukum bought sweets.

.....

o. Numa ate fruit and drank the beer.

.....

p. Mirak ate rice and went to the school.

.....

q. Come or go there.

.....

r. Eat meat or drink beer.

.....

## 6. Converbs

### A. Simultaneous Converb

e. Tancho went to School eating an apple.

.....

f. Tanshang came to house drinking juice.

.....

g. They are coming up telling the story.



.....

h. They came down teasing the girl.

.....

**B. Sequential Converb**

e Numa went home, having washed her clothes.

.....

f Mirak went to school, having eaten rice.

.....

g I went home, having sung a song.

.....

h I am sorry for taking your pen.

.....

**Thank you for your cooperation**

Researcher

Lok Bahadur Limbu

M. Ed. Second Year