

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 General Background

Language is viewed as one of the most important possessions and most widely used means of communication by human beings. That is why, it will not be wrong to claim that language has made us different from other living beings. Language is a unique property of human beings. It is the identification of people to differentiate them from other living creatures. It is the medium of connecting human beings with one another and a source of expressing thoughts, feelings, emotions, desires, ideas and information. Our history, literature, culture and achievements are being transmitted from one person to another, one generation to another through the medium of language. Language is a universal medium which makes people understand message and keeps them closer.

Language is responsible for social stratification, social change and social mobility. Language is both personal and social phenomenon, which reflects the culture and civilization. It plays a significant role in development, maintenance, and transmission of human civilization.

Language is social phenomenon having intimate relationship and influence in the society. It is voluntary vocal system of human communication. It is a set of finite and non-finite sentences and set of signals by which normal human beings communicate with each other. Language can be further highlighted by the following linguists and scholars definitions:

"Language is a cognitive system which is part of any normal human beings mental or psychological structure" (Radford et al. 1999, p.1). In the same way, "Language is a purely human and non-instinctive method of communicating ideas, emotions and desires by means of voluntarily produced symbols" (Sapir 1921, p. 8 cited in Lyons, 1981, p. 3). Similarly, "Language to be a set of (finite or infinite) sentences, each finite in length and constructed out of a finite set of elements" (Chomsky, 1957, p. 13). In the same way, "Put at its simplest , a language is a set of signals by which we communicate" (Todd,1987,p.6).

Different linguists and scholars view or perceive the language from different perspectives. For example, sociolinguists perceive language from social points of view, psycholinguists see language as mental or psychological state of learners, grammarians perceive it as a set of rules. So it is complex, unique, systematic and symbolic as well as creative phenomenon.

Language is a universal medium, which makes people develop understanding between each-other, easy in different sectors, and keeps in closeness. It also reflects societies, cultures, religious, political changes, attitudes of people, contemporary ups and downs in different fields, etc. Therefore, human civilization is possible only by the existence of language. Language has phonemically personal and social views because, it is affected by person, society, ethnicity and geographical boundaries. Due to the language human beings become superior than other living creatures. Language made human beings totally different from other animals/ creatures.

Language is most developed, most frequently used, and powerful means of communication. The language is rule based because the language we speak or write is governed by numbers of rules, styles and constraints. The existence of language is long lasting in the sense that language exists until there are people who speak it as a native language. Language came into existence since human beings were in the process of evolving and developing many things suited to facilitate them in their life. Without language human beings remain like dumb and deaf creature. Without language it is almost impossible to differentiate human beings and rest of the living creatures.

1.1.1 Languages in Nepal

Nepal is a linguistically large but geographically small country. She is a multilingual, multicultural and multi-religious country. She is rich in its linguistic diversity. She is rich in linguistic and cultural heritage in the sense that it has a linguistic and cultural property that no other country has. In Nepal there are various ethnic groups and their cultures, so various language are in use. In accordance with population census 2001, more than ninety two languages are spoken as mother tongue by more than one hundred and two ethnic communities in Nepal . Nepal's multilingualism confers a distinctive position on the linguistic map of the world, which can be one of the reasons to be proud for the Nepalese people. Different languages spoken in different geographical areas do not have written script. The languages and their dialects spoken in Nepal are categorized into four language families, namely: Indo-European, Tibeto- Burman, Dravidian and Austro-Asiatic family of language (Katzner,1995). Nepali

language and its dialect Doteli come under Indo-European language family.

The languages found in Nepal are categorized under different group of language families which are given below:

1.1.1.1. Indo- European Language Family

The languages which are taken under this family are given below:

**Table No. 1
Indo-European Language Family**

Nepali	Hindi
Bhojpuri	Urdu
Maithali	Danuwar
Tharu	Marwari
Awadhi	Bangali
Rajbanshi	Majhi
Darai	Magahi
Bote	Bajjika
Kumal	Angika
Churauti	

Source: CBS, (2002).

1.1.1.2 Tibeto-Burman Language Family

The languages which are taken under this family are given below.

**Table No. 2
Tibeto-Burman Language Family**

Chepang	Gurung
Jirel	Thami

Limbu	Kham
Magar	Syang
Meche	Marpha
Newar	Baram
Sunuwar	Manang
Tamang	Nar
Tibetan	Kagate
Lhomi	Byansi
Dura	Yayu
Yholmo	Raute
Bhujel	Lepcha
Ghale	Pahari
Chantyal	Koche
Dhimal	Kiake
Raji	Toto
Thakali	Sherpa
Rai languages (More than 30)	

Source: CBS, (2002).

1.1.1.3 Dravidian Language Family

Only one language i.e 'Jhangad' is taken under this family in Nepal. The native speakers of this language are found on the province of Koshi River in the eastern part of Nepal.

1.1.1.4. Austro-Asiatic Language Family

Only one language Satal/Santhali belongs to this language family, spoken in the Jhapa district in the eastern part of Nepal.

1.1.2 The Importance of the English Language

English has always been a medium of communication all over the world. It is a medium of world's population, by which people exchange their feelings, thoughts, desires, emotions, wishes etc. to each other. So, stress must be put on the learning of the language at an early age. English language is getting the highest degree in the world in its use. It is important to everybody to exchange their ideas, interests, necessities, desires, emotions, feelings among the world's people. The English language is one of the widely used 'West-Germanic' sub branch of the Germanic branch of the Indo-European family. It is taken as an international lingua franca in the world. The English language is taken as a foreign language in the context of our country, whereas a native language to several European and American countries. English has received the status of an official language in many countries. But in Nepal it has not been made as an official language.

In the Nepalese context, English is not widely used. It is taught as a foreign language in Nepal. However, it has been given a significant place in the Nepalese school, higher secondary and college level curriculums. Thus the students study English for academic purpose here.

The importance of the English language can further be highlighted with the following quotation:

"By the end of the twentieth century English was already well on its way to becoming a genuine lingua franca, that is a language used widely for

communication between people who do not share the same first (or even second) language" (Harmer, 2007, p. 13).

The English language is one of the richest languages of the world and has become the language of science, trade, commerce and negotiations.

English has become a gateway to the whole body of modern knowledge.

English is regarded as the world's most prestigious and important language. In the scientific world, about sixty percent of the world's research is done in English and the rest of the whatever is done in other language is immediately translated into English.

So, we can conclude that if we want to remain in touch with the outside world, we have to retain English because in today's context English is most important language in the world. It is necessary to know it or one will cut himself off from the world's knowledge. English occupies the noblest body of literature. The English language has been playing a significant role in different sectors with an emphasis given on the academic sectors. Among all languages, English is the one which has become the most prestigious and mobile vehicle in the field of languages all over the world.

1.1.3 Dialect

The term dialect is taken from the Greek word 'dialektos', which is used in two distinct ways. It refers to a variety of a language that is characteristic of a particular group of the languages speakers. The term is applied most often to regional speech patterns, but a dialect may also be defined by other factors, such as social class. The term dialect is a variety of language, which is spoken by a particular group of the language

speakers. Dialect is a non-standard variety of language. In popular usage, the word 'dialect' is some times used to refer to a lesser-known language, especially one that is unwritten or non standard. Dialect is a variety of a language which has no standard or codified form and lacks prestige with respect to some other. Vocabulary, pronunciation, grammar and syntax are determining factors of a dialect.

It is a variety of a language that tells something about or identifies the speaker or the user of language. The personality of the user or speaker of the language is represented by the language he uses. It is because the personality of the speaker is reflected in the geographical origin and the social background of the dialect she/he is using. Dialect is the specific form of a language used by a speech community. It is taken as abstract form of language. Crystal (2008,p.142) says "Dialect is a regionally or socially distinctive variety of language identified by a particular set of words and grammatical structure." Wardhaugh (1998) divided dialect in to two types viz. regional and social dialect.

1.1.3.1 Regional dialect

Language varies according to the geographical region is called regional dialect. Thus, language varies from one geographical region to another or one nation to another and such varieties are called regional/geographical dialects. For example, American English, British English, Australian English, etc. come under regional/geographical dialect. It is also called topolect.

1.1.3.2 Social dialect

A dialect that is associated with a particular social class can be termed as social dialect or sociolect. A variety of language that reveals the social

background of the speaker is called social dialect or sociolect. Social dialects originate from social groups and depend on variety of factors such as economical, educational, color, age, sex, social class, religion, ethnicity, etc. For example, Black English, Baby English, Kings' English, White English, Educated English, etc.

1.1.4 The Doteli Dialect

Though Nepal is a small country, it is large in its linguistic shape. In Nepal there are four language families. The Nepali language belongs to Indo-European language family of language. It is written in Devanagari script. It is a lingua franca of Nepal. It is spread everywhere in the country, where Nepalese people live. It is spoken by more than 50 percent of people as their native tongue. The ancient name of Nepali is 'Khasbhasa' or 'Khaskura'. The more language users of a particular language, the more chances of its varieties. The variety of language which is spoken in a particular geographical area or social group is called dialect. The Nepali language has many varieties. From east to west there are different varieties of the Nepali language. It has more varieties in western parts than eastern.

Doteli is one of the dialect among different western dialects of Nepali, which is spoken in far-western part of Nepal. The name Doti is believed to be originated from the word 'Dova' which means the land area between the confluences of the two rivers. Doteli also called 'Dotyali' is the local language spoken in Doti region or far western development region of Nepal. The history of Doteli tells that the Doteli dialect is closer to original birth place of the Nepali language; namely 'Karnali zone'. At that time 'Sinjali' was the dialect of that area. So, Doteli dialect is influenced by the 'Sinjali' and 'Parpashima dialect'. Doteli dialect is

closer to the Kumanni language spoken in the Uttaranchal state of India. According to Chataut (2058, p. 11) "Doteli is supposed to be the oldest form of the Nepali language". More than 50 percent vocabulary of the Nepali language are used in Doteli dialect. Doteli dialect is spoken in all districts of far-western development region of Nepal. Specially this dialect is spoken in Doti, Dadeldhura, Achham, Baitadi, Bajura, Darchula, Bajhang, Kailali, Kanchanpur and some part of Karnali zone as well as some part of northern India, such as, Kumau and Gadwal.

The present day, Nepali spoken in east and west is easily disseminated. Doti regime was the regime of special importance, before the unification of Nepal. Different regional dialects were separated in the middle age during the time of Baise and Chaubise Rajya and Doteli dialect became different from the standard Nepali as a result, Doteli also appeared as a different dialect. Doteli dialect has its sub-dialects as well. They are: Dumrakoti, Dadeldhureli, Achhami, Baitadeli, Bajhang, and Nirauli. The oldest form of Nepali contains similar vocabulary with Doteli dialect than the standard Nepali. Doteli dialect appeared as a different dialect of Nepali language and became different from the standard Nepalis. For example,

Nepali : Sundar keti padhdaiche.

Doteli: Rubas mulai/keti paddache.

Nepali: Kathin kam.

Doteli: Asaji kam

1.1.5 Contrastive Analysis

Contrastive analysis is the systematic study of two or more languages, with a view to identifying their structural differences and similarities. In other words, contrastive analysis describes the structural differences and

similarities of the two or more languages. The term contrastive analysis is widely accepted and commonly used. The problem of terminological diversity was very present in the relevant linguistic literature throughout the 20th century. Broadly defined, contrastive analysis has been used, as a tool in historical linguistics to establish language genealogies, in comparative linguistics to create language taxonomies and in translation theory to investigate problem of equivalence. The term contrastive analysis is known as a method of analyzing the structure of two or more than two languages to find out the different factors/aspects of their systems. The main aim of contrastive analysis is to explicitly define similarities and differences between the observed languages based on their description.

Contrastive analysis was used extensively in the field of Second Language Acquisition (SLA) and structural linguistics from 1950s and early 1970s, as method for clearing or describing why some features of the target language were difficult than others. According to Crystal (2008, p. 112), "In a contrastive analysis of two languages, the points of STRUCTURAL difference are identified and these are than studied as areas of potential difficulty (INTERFERENCE or 'negative transfer) in foreign-language learning." American linguist and EFL methodologist Robert Lado is unaimously regarded as the founder of contrastive analysis and in 1957, the year in which he published his seminal book 'Linguistics Across Culture' as the moment the discipline was officially constituted as a scientific study field. In his book Lado claimed that "those elements which are similar (learner's) native language will be simple to him, and those elements that are different will be difficult". Similarly, (Asher 1994, p. 737) says "Contrastive analysis (CA) which is also called 'contrastive linguistics, refers to a systematic comparison of

linguistic system of two or more languages. In the same way, " Richards et al. (1999, p. 83) defines, C.A. "as the comparison of linguistic system of two languages for example, sound system or grammatical system."

So, contrastive analysis highlights the structural differences between two or more languages, with the aim of identifying potential sources of difficulty for people learning a foreign language. CA describes similarities and differences among two or more languages at such levels as phonology, grammar, and semantics. Contrastive analysis is helpful to find out the areas of difficulties while learning a language and errors in learner's performance. Contrastivists have long been aware of the fact that contrastive analysis is being a branch of contrastive linguistics, can be considered to be both theoretical and applied discipline. The central theoretical issue and the ultimate goal of contrastive studies is the question of similarities and differences and consequently their quantification. CA generally studies, both differences and similarities in the languages, although the emphasis is usually placed on differences thought to lead to interference. Contrastive analysis is also helpful to determine the areas with the learners have to learn with greater emphasis and to design teaching learning materials for a particular group of learners. Contrastive analysis explains the sources of errors in one's performance. CA is important for language learners, language teachers, testing experts, language planners, and syllabus designers, who get benefit from the knowledge of CA, if we see it from the pedagogical point of view.

1.1.5.1 The Importance of Contrastive Analysis

Contrastive analysis plays a vital role in linguistics, language teaching, and language researches. It is more important in language teaching

(Foreign language). Contrastive analysis equally useful/helpful to prospective linguists and language teacher. CA is helpful for the teacher for developing class techniques, evaluating the language of textbook, pinpointing learning problems, predicting the student's mistakes, etc. CA has mainly two functions, firstly, it predicts the tentative errors to be committed by L₂ learners and secondly, it explains the sources and reasons of the L₂ learner's errors. It helps a teacher to show the areas of differences between two languages, identify which area are more difficult for the learners and explain their performance. It also helps in designing teaching learning materials (to be up-to- date and meet the students needs) and remedial courses for those particular areas that need more emphasis. Contrastive analysis provides data for comparison between the two or more languages. A contrastive analyst studies those differences and in the light of comparative study, some information are revealed. This information via contrastive analysis of difficulty may be useful to the actual teaching of language or to the language teachers, whether for limiting the information within the teacher himself or for passing directly to his pupils in many ways. So a language teacher should have knowledge of a CA to treat the learners psychologically and academically.

Contrastive analysis is obviously necessary for the teacher to know both languages and know how to compare them, because the student who comes in contact with a foreign language will find some features of it quite easy and others extremely difficult. Contrastive analysis is fairly widely recognized that the comparison of L₁ and L₂ provides important background materials in second language teaching. Comparative knowledge of L₁ and L₂ is useful part of the teacher's equipment. If the foreign language teacher has done descriptive comparative studies of the two languages, it will be possible for him to locate points of similarity

and difference, availability which is extremely useful in foreign language teaching. “The knowledge of CA is very important in teaching language because the teacher must know how both L₁ and L₂ work, if he wants to make use of contrastive analysis in foreign language teaching.” Halliday, et al. (1964, p112). A language teachers with a knowledge of contrastive analysis can be expected to guide his/her students in a more effective manner as they will understand the cause of an error and be better able to prepare contrastive drills. Contrastive analysis is important that the same model can be used the describe any of two languages to be compared, otherwise differences in conceptualization may be difficult to distinguish from differences in language systems.

1.1.6 Adjective

Adjective is a word that describes a noun and is written left of a noun. “Adjectives are the third major open word class in English. They describe the features or persons or things denoted by nouns or pronouns. They describe the features of persons or things denoted by nouns or pronouns.” (Charter and McCarthy, 2006, p. 438). The job of an adjective is to give more information about noun. A noun is a person, object, animal or idea. Adjectives are words that describe quality of a noun. In other words, adjectives describe characteristics or properties of noun. Adjective is a word that describes persons or things. An adjective will describe the noun by giving its size, composition, color, age, shape, weight etc. Adjectives can be single word or a group of words and can also be used with a verb, like ‘is’ or ‘was’. Most adjectives come before the noun they modify. “Adjective is a word that tells us more about noun. By noun we include pronouns and nouns phrase. An adjective ‘Qualifies’ or ‘Modifies’ a noun. Adjective can be used before a noun or after certain verbs. We can often use two or more adjectives together. It is sometime said that adjective is

enemy of noun. This is because very often, if we use the precise noun, we don't need an adjective. For example, instead of saying 'A large impressive house' " (English club.com).

"A term used in the grammatical classification of WORDS to refer to the main set of items which specify the attributes of nouns" (Crystal 2008, p.11). Adjectives describe the properties of entity that noun represents. Adjectives can not be automatically identified by their form, although certain suffixes typically occur with adjectives.

1.1.7 Morphology

Morphology is the study of morphemes. Morphemes are words, word stems, and affixes, basically the unit of grammar one up from phonemes. In other words, morphology is the study of morpheme and their arrangements in forming words. Words are the most basic, the most fundamental units, through which meaning is represented in language. Words are the smallest free-standing forms that represent meaning. Any words can be cited as an isolated items. Words can be combined with other words to form phrases and sentences. Actually there are even smaller units that carry fundamental meaning of language i.e. morphemes. Morphemes are the minimal, which may constitute words or parts of words. Although they are often understand as units of meaning, they are usually considered a part of language syntax or grammar.

“Morphology is the study of morphemes which are the smallest significant unit of grammar.”(Todd, 1987, p.41). Similarly, "Morphology is the branch of GRAMMAR which studies the STRUCTURE or FORMS of WORDS, primarily through the use of the MORPHEME construct" (Crystal, 2008, p. 314).

The morpheme arrangements which are treated under the morphology of language include all combinations that form words or parts of words.

Morphology is the identification, analysis, and description of the structure of morphemes and other units of meaning in language like words.

Morphology is generally divided into two fields: the study of inflections (Inflectional morphology) and word formation (Lexical or Derivational morphology). When emphasis is on the techniques of analyzing words into morphemes, particularly as presented by American structural linguists in the 1940s and 1950s, the term morphemes is used.

Morphemic analysis is used in both synchronic and diachronic studies.

Morphology includes the following three terms which are described briefly below:

1.1.7.1 Morpheme

Morpheme is the smallest meaningful unit of language. In other words, morpheme is the smallest grammatical unit either semantic in nature or having grammatical function that makes up words in a language. For example, 'unhappy' consists of two minimal units or morphemes, one of them i.e. 'happy' has semantic meaning. Similarly, another 'un' has grammatical function.

"One of the first tasks which confront the linguist in examining a new language with a view of discovering and describing its structure is the identification of the minimal meaningful unit of which the language is composed" (Nida, 1949, p. 6). In the same way, "The morpheme is the minimal unit of grammatical description in the sense that it can not be segmented any further at the grammatical level analysis." (arts and arts, 1986, p.17).

Morpheme is a smallest unit of form that has meaning in a given language. It is described as the smallest recurrent element of grammatical patterning. It is the minimal unit of grammatical structure. In other words, it is the unit of least rank out of which 'word' the unit of next highest rank is composed.

1.1.7.2 Morph

Morph is concrete physical realization of morpheme in phonological and orthographic form. In other words, the visible marker or the physical realization of morpheme is called morph. Physical realization of morpheme is called morpheme. In other words, it is the smallest difference in some morphemes in a language. It is realized by distinctive sound and / or sequence of sounds.

1.1.7.3 Allomorph

Non-distinctive realization of a particular morpheme that have the same function and phonetically similar are called allomorphs. It means that the variants or different realizations of a single morpheme occurring in different phonological contexts are called allomorphs. For example, the English plural morpheme can appear as <s> as in cats, <z> as in dogs, or <iz> as in boxes. Each of these three pronunciations is said to be an allomorph of the same morpheme.

"Two or more morpheme sequence (i.e. Morphs) are allomorphs of a single morpheme provided they have the same meaning and are never in contrast, i.e. if they are in complementary distribution" (Elson and Pickett 1969, p. 27). Similarly, "When a morpheme has alternative forms the various forms are known as allomorphs." (Todd 1987, p.43).

The alternative phonological manifestations or representations of morpheme are called allomorphs or morpheme alternates or morpheme variants. Allomorphs are also called the class or family of morphs which are phonemically and semantically identical. In other words, allomorphs are those distinctive morpheme variants that are always in complementary distribution.

1.1.8 Adjectival Morphology

Adjective is an essential part of speech, which helps to modify a noun in any particular sentence. An adjective is a word that defines or limits a noun. Adjectives are one of the traditional eight English parts of speech though linguists today distinguish adjectives from words such as determiners that were formerly considered to be adjectives. Adjectives can be identified by using three criteria, i.e. semantic, syntactic and morphological. From the semantic point of view, it refers to the main set of items which specify the attributes of nouns. For examples, small cat, dark room, etc. If we see it from syntactic point of view, an adjective has two main roles in a sentence. While predicative adjectives modify a noun that follows them and are linked by sverbs, attributive adjectives modify a noun directly being linked to the noun as a part of noun phrase. For example,

- 1) She had a huge suitcase. (Attributive function)
- 2) His younger brother is ill. (predicative formation)

Adjectives can sometimes be identified through certain formal or morphological considerations. For example, the suffixes < -ish >, <-ly>, and <-en> as in childish, lovelyly, and stolenen, which change the word

classes. Here 'Child' is a nouns but if we add suffix <-ish>, it becomes adjective 'childish' as in 'childish handwriting'.

Crystal (2008, p. 12) says "From a formal point of view, four criteria are generally invoked to define class in English (and similar, kinds of criteria establish the class in other languages)."

- a. Adjectives can occur with in the noun phrase, i.e. they function in the attributive position, e.g. the big man.
- b. Adjectives can occur in post-verbal or predicative position, e.g. the man is big, he called it stupid.
- c. Adjectives can be pre-modified by an intensifier, such as very, e.g. the very big man.
- d. Adjectives can be used in a comparative and superlative form either by infection (e.g. big, bigger, biggest) or periphrastically (e.g. interesting, more interesting, most interesting).

A comparative adjective is used when comparing two nouns. One noun will be better, bigger or will have more of something than other. Example include: The red dress is more expensive than the blue one and your car is faster than mine. When using the word 'than' it will come after the comparative adjective, like: Autumn is colder than summer.

A superlative adjective compares three or more nouns. This takes the comparison of nouns to the highest degree. An example would be: My mother's cooking is the best.

According to Cowan (2008, p. 580) the comparative and superlative forms of adjectives follow these rules:

- a. Good, bad and far have the comparative forms better, worse, and farther / further, where as best, worst and farthest / furthest are the superlative forms.
- b. Single-syllable adjectives (e.g. big, fast, large, clean) usually take
-er rather than more: bigger, faster, larger, cleaner, where as single-syllable adjectives usually form superlatives with -est e.g. biggest, fastest, largest, cleanest).
- c. Inferiority relationships are usually expresses with antonyms with the -er ending or with + as as.
- d. That movie is shorter than this one or that movie isn't as long as this one.
- e. Not usually that movie is less long than this one.
- f. Two-syllable adjectives can occur with one or both forms:
 - Adjectives that have a stressed first syllable and end in -y, -ly, or -ow usually take -er funny-funnier, friendly-friendlier, narrow- narrower, simple - simpler where as superlative forms take -est (e.g., angriest, funniest, friendliest, narrowest, simplest).
 - Most adjectives that have stressed first syllable and end in-ful, -ish, -al, -ic or -ous must take more. More careful (*carefuller); more famous (*famouser); more foolish (*foolisher); more lethal (*lethaler); more tragic (*tragicer), whereas superlative form take most. Most careful

(*carefullist); most famous (*fmoust); most foolish (*foolishest); most lethal (*lethalest).

- g. Adjectives with more than two syllables form their comparatives with more. An exception is adjective formed from un- added to an adjective that take -er. More suspicious (*suspiciouser), more important (importanter), BUT unhappier. And adjectives with more than two syllables form their superlatives with most. Most suspicious, most important.
- h. Participle adjectives form their comparatives with more. More amazing (*amaziner); more worried (*worrider). Participle adjectives form their superlatives with most. Most amazing (*amazinest); most worried (*worriedest).

There are some more rules for making adjectives into comparatives and superlatives they are:

- a. One syllable that ends with 'e' -add 'r' only, like fine to finer, cute to cuter. In the same way one syllable words ending with an 'e' only - add 'st', like fine to finest or rare to rarest.
- b. Two syllables that end with 'y' -add 'er' and change 'y' to 'i' like happy to happier early to earlier. In the same way, two syllables words ending with a 'y' -change the 'y' to an 'i' and -add 'est' like crazy to craziest or silly to silliest.
- c. Two or three syllable words, use 'more' or 'less' like more interesting or less dangerous. In the same way, two or three syllable words -use 'most' and 'least' example include, most desirable, least expensive.

By focusing on the formal or morphological criteria, it has been said that adjectives are also formed by adding affixes/affixation. As we know a morpheme is the part of morphology, in adjectival morphology the morphemes of adjectives are analyzed through affixation/word-formation process. In this way, morphological process is also called word-building process. Adjectival morphology mainly deals with, how are adjectives formed ?What types of prefixes, infixes and suffixes are added ?What are the word-formation processes involving to form adjectives ? Whether the affixation / word-formation processes change the word class or not ? are the major factors to be considered while analyzing morphemes of the adjectives. Before doing so, it is be necessary to identify inflectional and derivational morphology. How inflectional and derivational morphemes are derived in adjectives is the main concern of this study.

1.1.8.1 Inflectional Morphology

Inflectional Morphology deals with the study of morphemes that do not change the meaning of words and word classes/parts of speech. The central concern of inflectional morphology is inflectional morphemes. Inflectional morphemes are the study area of inflectional morphology. Inflectional morphemes are bound morphemes. Inflectional morphology highlights the relationships expressed in language and is therefore never autonomous. The process of building new words by using inflectional morpheme is called inflection. Inflectional morphology studies how words are formed by adding inflectional morphemes. Thus, inflection is the process of adding inflectional morphemes to a word, which indicates grammatical function. In other words, inflection is the modification of words to express different grammatical categories, such as, tense, grammatical mood, grammatical voice, aspect, numbers, gender, and case. Conjunction is the inflection of verbs; declension is the inflection of

nouns, adjectives, and pronouns. Inflection is the word-formation process, which studies inflectional morphemes. There are several ways to add inflectional morphemes: affixation, reduplication, alternation, supra-segmental variations. Among them, affixation is most commonly used process of word-formation. Affixation includes prefix (adding before the base) and suffix (adding after the base), as well as much less common, infix (inside) and circum-fixing (a combination of prefix and suffix). In English only suffixes are used as inflectional morphemes to form new words.

Inflectional morphemes are bound morphemes, which are more grammatical in nature. If a morpheme simply adds some elements of meaning required by the grammar and changes the form of word without changing its basic part of speech, then it is called an inflectional morpheme. There are eight inflectional affixes in English: four of them involve verbs: present participle (watching) present tense - third person singular (walks) past tense (jumped), past participle (eaten); two of them are added to nouns: possessive (John's), plural (books) and two of them come at the end of adjectives and adverbs: comparative (clearer, faster), superlative (clearest, fastest) (Celce - Murcia and Larsen - Freeman, 1999, p. 32).

The characteristics of inflectional morphemes are as follows:

- a. Do not change basic meaning or parts of speech e.g. fat, fatter, fattest are all adjectives.
- b. Express grammatically-required features or indicate relations between different words in the sentence.

- c. They are productive. Inflectional morphemes typically combine freely with all members of the same large class of morphemes, with predictable effects on usage / meaning. Thus the plural morphemes can be combined with nearly any noun, usually in the same form and usually with the same effect on meaning.
- d. Occur outside any derivational morphemes. Thus, in ration-al-ization -s, the final-s is inflectional, and appear at the very end of the word, outside the derivational morphemes-al, -iz, -ation.
- e. In English, inflectional morphemes are suffixes only.

The inflectional morphemes in the English language are:

- er
- est

1.1.8.2 Derivational Morphology

Derivational morphology studies those bound morphemes that change the word classes/parts of speech or change the meaning. Derivational morphology deals with the class changing or meaning changing bound morphemes to form new words in a language. Derivational morphemes are included under the word-formation process. Derivation is one of the most important processes of word-formation in language. Derivational morphemes are the central concern of derivational morphology. In linguistics, derivation is the process of forming new words. e.g. happiness and unhappy from happy or determination from determine. Derivational morphemes makes new words from old ones. Affixation is the most commonly used term in derivational morphology. In derivational morphology both prefixes and suffixes are used. Derivational morphemes derive new words.

English words can also have derivational affixes, affixes that combine with stem (or base) forms to derive new words.

Derivational affixes can be prefixes which often change the meaning (expatriate, unrepentant), or suffixes, which usually change the part of speech of the word stem (Washable, childish). In fact, it is possible for a word stem to have both a derivational prefix and suffix unthinkable or more than one suffix (governmental).

(Celce-Murcia and Larsen-Freeman, 1999, p. 35).

A derivational suffix usually applies to words of one syntactic category and changes them into words of another syntactic category. For example, the English derivational suffix -able changes nouns into adjectives (recreation - recreationable). A prefix really change syntactic category in English. For example, the derivational prefix un- applies to adjectives healthy→unhealthy, where the meaning of word is changed. Affixes modify the meaning of the base. In many cases derivational affixes changes both syntactic category and the meaning.

The characteristics of Derivational Morphemes :

- a. They change the parts of speech or the basic meaning of a word. Thus, -ish applies to a noun 'child' and become adjective 'childish'.
- b. They are not required by syntactic relations outside the word. Thus, un-kind combines un and kind into a single new word.
- c. They are often not productive. Derivational morphemes can be selective about what they will combine with and may also have erratic effects on meaning. Thus, suffix 'hood' occurs with just a few noun such as brother, neighbor, and knight, but not with most others.

- d. They typically occur between the stem and any inflectional affixes. Thus, in governments, -ment, a derivational suffix, precedes -s an inflectional suffix.
- e. In English, derivational morphemes may appear as prefixes or suffixes: unable, developmental.

In some cases both prefixes and suffixes are attached to base or root.

The information on morphology can be summarized as follows:

Table No. 3
Inflectional and Derivational Morphemes in English

Prefixes	Mixed	Suffixes	
Dis-	un able	-ative	- ant
Un-	In ive	- ful	- ive
In-	unate	- ish	- y
Non-	non.....al	- able	- less
Im-		- ous	- ent
Re-		- al	- ed past form
Il-		- en past participle	- ing present participle
Anti-			

1.1.9 Word Formation Process in English

Word-formation process deals with morphology. Morphology is a branch of grammar which studies the structure or forms of words, primary through the use of the morpheme construct. One of the distinctive properties of human language is creativity by which we mean the ability of native speakers of language to produce and understand new forms in their language. Eventhough, creativity is most apparent when it comes to sentence formation, it is also manifest in our lexicon regularity. In linguistics, word-formation is the creation of a new word. Morpheme is the key notions of morphology.

Nowadays the term 'word-formation' does not have a clear cut, universally accepted usage. It is sometimes referred to all process connected with changing the form of word. For example, affixation, which is a matter of morphology. In this wider sense, word-formation denotes the process of creation of new words/lexical units. Word

formation is sometimes contrasted with semantic change, which is a change in a single word's meaning. The line between word formation and semantic change is sometimes a bit blurry; what one person views on a new use of an old word, another person might view as a new word derived from an old one and identifiable to it in. Word formation can also be contrasted with the formation of idiomatic expressions, though sometimes word can form from multi-word phrases.

"Word-formation in its general sense, the term refers to the whole process of MORPHOLOGICAL variation in the construction of WORDS, i.e. including the two main divisions of INFLECTION (Word variations signaling GRAMMATICAL relationship) and DERIVATION (Word variations signaling LEXICAL relationships)" (Crystal 2008, p. 523).

New words enter the language every day, and words cease to be used. Word-formation process consists of building new words. This consists of two principal process; 'Inflection' and 'Derivation'. "Borrowing and word creation are the sources of word formation" (Minkova and Robert Stockwell, 2001, p. 3). There are of course, numerous word formation processes that do not arouse any controversies and are very similar in the majority of languages. The major word-formation processes in English are presented below:

1.1.9.1 Back-formation

Back-formation refers to the process of creating a new lexeme by removing actual or supposed affixes from another word in the language. "A very specialized type of reduction process is known as back-formation"(Yule, 1997, p.67). Back-formation is abnormal type of word-formation where, affix from the longer word is deleted to form a shorter word. Back-formation may change the parts of speech or the word's meaning. For example, the verb 'Insert' is the back formation from the

noun 'Insertion'. Similarly, the verb 'Edit' is the back-formation from the noun 'Editor', the verb 'Opine' is the back-formation from the noun 'Opinion', etc.

1.1.9.2 Compounding

Compounding is another common way to form words in English. It is the largest, and therefore the most important source of new words. In linguistics, a compound is a lexeme that consists of more than one stem. It includes the combination of lexical categories (nouns, verbs, adjectives and adverbs). Compounding or composition is the word-formation that creates compound lexemes. Compounding, compound or word-compounding refers to the faculty and device of language to form new words by combining or putting together old words. Compounding occurs when a person attaches two or more words to make them one word.

"To produce new words by compounding, we do is put together two words in a perfectly transparent way, and then various changes take place which cause the compound to lose its transparency". (Minkova, and Stockwell 2001, p. 12).

Compounding is joining two words together to form third, e.g. book+case = bookcase, sea+man = seaman, wall+paper = wallpaper, etc.,.Compounding frequently involves two nouns. In compounding the meaning of the words interrelate in such a way that a new meaning comes out which is very different from the meaning of the words in isolation. For example, housewife, bonfire, icebox, airship, etc. There is no theoretical limit to the length of compound words, but in practice words consisting of more than three components are rare.

1.1.9.3 Acronym and Initialism

Acronym and initialism are abbreviations that are formed using the initial components in a phrase or name. Those components may be individual letter (as in BBC) or parts of words (as in Interpol). A typical acronym takes the first sound from each of several words and makes a new word from those initial sounds. Acronym is the name for a word created the first letter of each word in a series of words. This type of word-building process is especially common in names of organization , in military and scientific terminology. For example, AIDS: Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome, ASBO: Anti-Social Behavior Order, Rader: Radio detection and ranging, Gestapo: Geheime Staatspolizei (Secret State Police).

1.1.9.4 Affixation

Affixation is one of the most important and frequently used word-formation process in English. In discussing affixation, we noted that complex words are typically made up of a root or stem and /or one or more affixes. Affixes refer to those additional morphemes, which are attached to some existing forms to built new forms. Affixes are bound morpheme. Affixes/affixation processes are generally classified into three types, depending, upon their position with reference to the root or stem of the word.

I. Prefix /Pre-fixation

Prefixes are groups of letters attached to the initial position of roots, words, and word groups .In other words, prefixes are those bound morphemes attached to the onset of a root or stem. defined prefix as "A term used in MORPHOLOGY referring to AFFIX which is added initially to a ROOT or STEM."(Crystal, 2008, p. 382). The process of

prefixation is common in English, for forming new lexical items. For example, < - un, -im, - ir > in un-able, im-possible and ir-regular respectively.

II. Suffix/Suffixation

Suffixes are group of letters attached to the ends of roots, words and word groups. Suffixes serve as a grammatical function. A suffix can indicate what parts of speech (noun, verb, adjective, adverb) to which the word belongs. Suffix refers to an affix which is attached to the final position of root or stem. The process of suffixation also common in English, for formation of new lexical items. For example, < - ness, -ish and -ing > in good-ness, child-ish, and work-ing respectively.

III. Infix/In-fixation

When an affix is inserted within a form, it is called infix and the process is called infixation. In this process an affix is added within a root or stem. The process of infixation is not encountered in European languages, but it is commonly found in Asia, American Indian and African languages. We can hardly find examples of infix in English. for example the word ‘lutidire’ is derived from ‘lupetidine’, ‘phenedine’ is derived from ‘Phenetidine’ in chemistry.

1.1.9.5 Blending

In linguistics, a blend is a word formed from parts of two or more other words. “Blending is typically accomplished by taking only the beginning of one word and joining it to the end of another word.”(Yule,1997, p.66). Blends deal with the action of abridging and then combining various lexemes to form a new word. In blending, parts of two familiar words are yoked together to produce a word which combines the meanings and

sound of the old ones. For example, smog, a blend of smoke and fog, motel, a blend of motor and hotel, heliport, a blend of helicopter and airport and so on.

1.1.9.6 Clipping

Clipping is one of the word-formation process in English. In linguistics, clipping is the word-formation process which consists in the reduction of a word to one of its parts. Clipping is also known as ‘truncation’ or ‘shortening’. "Shortening may take any part of a word, usually a single syllable, and throw away the rest, like ‘quiz’ from ‘inquisitive’, ‘Phone’ from ‘telephone’, ‘Plane’ from ‘airplane’, ‘Flu’ from ‘Influenza’ ”(Minkova, and Stockwell, 2001, p. 10). Clipping is a word-formation process that shortens a polysyllabic word by deleting one or more syllables. It is especially popular in spoken language rather than written language. Some more examples, spec’ from ‘speculation’, ‘exam’ from ‘examination’, ‘cap’ from ‘captain’, ‘lab’ from ‘laboratory’, etc.

1.1.9.7 Conversion

Conversion is one of the word-formation in English. It is also called zero derivation, is a kind of word formation specially, it is the creation of a word from an existing word without any change in form. Conversion is more productive in some languages than in others; in English it is a fairly productive process. "Conversion includes changing a word from one class to another but without any affix."(Carter, and McCarthy,2006 p. 479). Often a word of one lexical category (Parts of speech) is converted to a word of another lexical category. For example, the noun green in golf (referring to a putting-green) is derived ultimately from the adjective green. Conversions from adjectives to nouns and vice versa are both very common and un-notable in English; much more remarked upon is verbing,

the creating of a verb by converting a noun or other word (e..g the adjective ‘clean’ becomes the verb ‘to clean’).

1.1.9.8 Incorporation

Incorporation is a phenomenon by which a word, usually a verb, forms a kind of compound with, for instance, its direct object, or adverbial modifier, while its original syntactic function. Incorporation occurs not regularly in English. English shows some instrument incorporation, as in ‘breastfeed’ and direct object incorporation, as in ‘babysit’. The verbs ‘breastfeed and babysit’ are formed from the adjective ‘breast-fed’ and the noun ‘babysitter’ respectively.

1.1.9.9 Neologism

A neologism is newly coined term, word or phrases. Neologisms are often directly attributable to a specific person or event. Neologisms are often created by combining existing words or by giving words new and unique suffixes or prefixes. The term neologism is used to describe the use of words that only have meaning to the person who uses them, independent of their meaning. For example, the term ‘Aphasia’ acquired after brain damage resulting from stroke or head injury.

1.1.9.10 Reduplication

Reduplication is the process of word-formation in which part or all a word is repeated. There are mainly two types of reduplication, i.e. full reduplication and partial reduplication. In full reduplication, all of a word is repeated, where as, in partial reduplication, part of a word is repeated. For example, tom-tom, fifty-fifty, helter-Skelter, brain-drain, dum-dum, ding-dang, etc.

1.1.9.11 Calque

In linguistics, a calque is a word or phrase borrowed from another language by literal, word-for-word or root-for-root translation. For example, the common English phrase ‘Flea market’ is a phrase calque that literally translates the French ‘Marche aux puces’ (‘Market where one acquires Fleas’). Calque used as a verb ‘to calque’ means to borrow a word or phrase from another language while translating its components so as to create a new lexeme in the target language.

1.2 Review of the Related Literature

Various researches have been carried out in various fields of English and also in different languages, like Nepali, Newari, Limbu, Maithili, Gurung, Doteli, Tamang, Rai, etc., in the department of English Education T.U. They have carried out research in different linguistic fields. But only one research has yet been carried out in adjectival morphology i.e. “Adjectival Morphology In English and Limbu” that is carried out by Bindu Maya Limbu. But no any research has yet been carried out in Adjectival Morphology In Doteli and English.

Joshi (2009) carried out a research entitled "Requests and Apologies In English and Doteli". The objectives of his research study were: to list different forms of requests and apologies in English and Doteli , to compare requests and apologies in English and Doteli, and to point out some pedagogical implications. He selected eighty native speakers of Doteli and English. He selected Kathmandu and Bhumirajmandu VDC of Doti District as study area. The main tool for research study was questionnaire. He used both primary and secondary sources for collection of required data. He came to the conclusion that out of 800 responses, the English native speakers used 69.4 percent direct request, 13.87 percent

indirect and 16.75 percent non request responses. Similarly, out of 800 responses, the Doteli native speakers used 27.5 percent direct request, 26.62 percent indirect request, and 45.87 percent non request responses. According to him English native speakers used 'please' more frequently, where as Doteli native speakers used 'Kripaya' more frequently. In the same way, Kuwar (2009) carried out a research entitled "Forms of Address In English and Doteli dialect". The objectives of his research were: to find out the forms of address used in Doteli dialect, to compare and contrast the forms of address used in Doteli dialect with those in English language, and to suggest some pedagogical implications. He selected seventy native speakers of Doteli dialect from Doti District He used pre-determined sets of questionnaire for the collection of data. He used both primary and secondary sources for the collection of data. He came to the conclusion that the Doteli dialect has richer forms of address terms in comparison to the English language. According to him there is no distinction between 'male' and 'female' ego except the terms 'husband' and 'wife' in English, where as Doteli has many distinct terms to address 'male' and 'female' ego.

Bhatt (2010) carried out a research entitled "A semantic Analysis of English and Doteli Verbs." The main objective of his study was : to carryout the semantic analysis of English and Doteli verbs on the basis of: co-relation of meaning, divergence and convergence of meaning, semantic overlapping, and semantic inclusion and to list some pedagogical implications. He analyzed seven different catagories of English verbs. His study was carried out in Dadeldhura District. He applied analytical and statistical approaches to analyze data. He only uses secondary sources to collect required data. He came to the conclusion that Doteli and English verbs have inherent differences in semantic system.

According to him out of seventy verbs of both languages, thirteen verbs have the case of correlation of meaning between English and Doteli verbs which represented the case of semantic equivalence across languages. Similarly, Bohara (2010) carried out a research entitled "Dexis system In English and Bajhangi Dialect of Nepali". The objectives of his research were: to find out Bajhangi person, time, and place dexis expressions and to compare English and Bajhangi person, time and place dexis expressions and to suggest some pedagogical implications. He selected only two VDCs Lekgaun and Sainpasela of Bajhang District. His tools for data collection was interview. He used both primary and secondary sources for collection of required data. He came to the conclusion that both English and Bajhangi have two kinds of numbers. Singular and plural and three kinds of cases: subjective, objective and genitive. According to him in Bajhangi, different deictic terms are used to refer to singular and plural numbers in second person but English has the single term 'you' to refer to singular and plural numbers.

Limbu(2010) carried out a research entitled "Adjectival Morphology In English and Limbu". The objectives of her research work were: to identify morphology of adjectives in Limbu , to compare and contrast the morphology of adjectives in Limbu with that of English, and to suggest some pedagogical implications. She selected seventy-five native speakers between the age group of 18-60 from Sudap VDC of Terhathum District. The main research tool for the data collection was the structured interview questionnaire. She used both primary and secondary sources for the collection of required data. She came to the conclusion that demonstrative adjectives in English are agree with their nouns in number, whereas in Limbu demonstrative adjectives are unmarked. In the same way, both English and Limbu distributive/interrogative/quantitative

adjectives are free lexical items. According to her English possessive adjectives are free lexical items whereas in Limbu different suffixes are markers of possessive adjectives. Qualitative/opinion adjectives in English and Limbu are bound morphemes. English age adjectives are free lexical items whereas in Limbu they are derived from verb root. Likewise Shah (2010) carried out a research entitled 'Verbal Affixation In English and 7 Doteli dialect of Nepali'. His objectives of research study were: to find out verbal affixation in the Doteli dialect of Nepali, to compare and contrast Doteli verbal affixation with those of English, and to suggest some pedagogical implications. He selected eighty native speakers of Doteli dialect of Ajayameru and Chipur VDCs of Dadeldhura District. His tools for data collection were prepared questionnaire for literate and interview for illiterate informants. He used both primary and secondary sources for collection of data. He came to the conclusion that both Doteli and English have person marker suffixes. English has only one person marker suffix and it marks the third person singular, whereas, Doteli has all person marker suffixes. According to him both Doteli and English lacks in-fixation system and two suffixes can occur in a root or base in Doteli but not in English.

The above review shows that no single research has been carried out on "Adjectival Morphology In Doteli and English". So, it is new topic on this dialect.

1.3 Objectives of the Study

The objectives of the research study were as follows:

- a. to find out the morphology of adjectives in Doteli.
- b. to compare and contrast the morphology of adjectives in Doteli with those of English in terms of prefixes and suffixes.
- c. to suggest some pedagogical implications.

1.4 Significance of the Study

The research study of "Adjectival Morphology in Doteli and English" will be significant in several aspects. Without knowledge of different aspects such as, morphology, semantics, syntax, etc. of a language, detailed study of language is almost impossible. Morphology of different aspects of that language plays a significant role in language learning or study. In Department of English Education no research studies have been carried out under the topic "Adjectival Morphology in Doteli and English". But few number of research works have been carried out under similar topic in Department of English Education. So, being a new research work, this study will be fruitful to the Doteli dialect learners, the Doteli dialect teacher, who teaches English to the Doteli children. Similarly, it will be fruitful to the textbook writers, curriculum, syllabus and course designers. This study will be fruitful to the language planner, policy maker, and the researcher who carried out research in Doteli dialect and the English language. This study will be equally significant to all the people, and the linguists, who are directly and indirectly involved in teaching the Doteli and English language. It will be significant to any of Nepalese vernacular languages in relation to English.

CHAPTER TWO

METHODOLOGY

I adopted the following methodologies for the present research study:

2.1 Sources of Data Collection

I used both primary and secondary sources to collect the required data for the research study.

2.1.1 Primary Source

The primary source of the data were the native speakers of Doteli dialect of Ajayameru and Samaijee VDCs of Dadeldhura District.

2.1.2 Secondary Source

The secondary source of the data were the different linguistic journals, grammar books, such as, Nida (1949), Chomsky (1957), Lado (1957), Halliday (1964), Lyons (1981), arts and arts (1986), Thomson and Martient (1986), Todd (1987), Katamba (1993), Kartzner (1995), arts (1997), Yule (1997), Cence-Murcia and Larcen-Freeman (1999), Radford et al (1999), Richards at al (1999), Wardhaugh (1998), Chataut (2058), Stockwell and Minkova (2001), Murphy (2004), Carter and McCarthy (2006), Harmer (2007), Cowan (2008), Crystal (2008), Jayakaran (2008), and web pages related to the linguistic study in internet.

2.2 Sampling Procedure

I selected 120 native speakers between the age group of 16-70 from Ajayameru and Samaijee VDCs of Dadeldhura District. I selected 60 native speakers from the Ajayameru VDC. The selected population were of two categories i.e. literate and illiterate equally. Equal participation of

male and female informants got priority while selecting informants. I selected 60 native speakers of the same category from the Samaijee VDC. People of illiterate group are those who are unable to read and write, and the people who are able to read and write fall under literate group. I used stratified random sampling procedure to select the population.

2.3 Tools for Data Collection

The main tool for the data collection were the structured questionnaire for literate informants and structured interview for illiterate informants.

2.4 Process of Data Collection

I followed the following processes to collect the data for this research study:

- a. After preparation of research tools, I visited the selected area and met the native speakers of Doteli dialect in Ajayameru and Samaijee VDCs of Dadeldhura district and convinced them to take part in the study.
- b. I handedover the sheets of structured questionnaire to literate informants to translate English statements into their mother tongue equivalent.
- c. I made clear about the English statements of the structured questionnaire where necessary.
- d. I conducted interview with illiterate male or female orally and wrote their responses in the paper sheets of questionnaire.
- e. After collecting the data, I consulted some Doteli native speakers to cross check the validity of data.

2.5 Limitations of the Study

The research had the following limitations:

- a. The study was limited only to identification and comparison of Doteli and English adjectives in terms of morphology.
- b. The study was bounded only 120 native speakers of Doteli from two VDCs of Dadeldhura District.
- c. This study included English adjectives only from secondary sources.
- d. Only two types of tools i.e. structured questionnaire and structured interview were used in the study.
- e. This study followed descriptive method only.

CHAPTER THREE

ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION

This chapter consists of analysis and interpretation of the data. The data obtained from the informants have been analyzed and interpreted descriptively with the help of simple statistical tools like tables, diagrams, and illustrations. As this study is comparative in nature, the adjectival affixes and rules of affixation in Doteli dialect are compared and contrasted with those of English to find out whether these two languages have equivalent adjectival affixes or not. This chapter is divided into the following sections and sub-sections:

3.1 Affixes in Doteli Dialect

Doteli consists of both prefix and suffix. It means that there is no infix process in Doteli dialect. In this dialect both prefix and suffix (mixed) are also used together in rare cases.

3.1.1 Prefixes in Doteli dialect

Doteli adjectives are formed by adding different prefixes. In Doteli negative marker prefixes such as <a->, <bi->, <dur->, <bei->, <binna->, etc. are commonly used and are attached before adjective roots. For example,

- a) a-naitik sammandha.
- b) a-prakratik niyam.
- c) daun najittu uiko dur-bhagya thyo.
- d) a-paripakko byabhar.
- e) bei-man mulya.

- f) ramale bi-thikanmi bol khityo.
- g) a-puro kam/a-dhuro kam.
- h) tanan binna-ghara mulyan/mulyamuli hun.
- i) a-samajik byabhar.

3.1.2 Suffixes in Doteli Dialect

In Doteli different suffixes are attached to noun and verb root to form adjectives. It means Doteli adjectives are derived from noun or verb roots by adding suffixes to the stem. The suffixes change nouns and verbs into adjectives in Doteli dialect. The following are the commonly used suffixes in Doteli:

<-panya>, <-panei>, <-ai>, <-o>, <-balo>, <-bala>, <-bhaya>, <-yar>, <-ko>, <-ka>, <-sara>, <-sarai>, <-saro>, <-millya>, <-saginya>, <-inya>, <-ya>, <-jaso>, <-jasa>, <-jho>, <-jha>, <-aya>, <-aei>, <-i>, <-ik>, <-purna>, <-nak>, <-dinya>, <-lagdya>, <-lagdei>

Each of them is presented below:

- (a) <-panya> and <-panei> is the suffixes which are attached to the verb roots in Doteli. For example,
 - (i) u aphna ija buwami bharpanya chha.
 - (ii) u aphna ija buwami banarpanei chha.
- (b) <-ai> and <-o> are the suffixes which are attached to the noun roots to form adjectives in Doteli. For example,
 - i) desai jhanda/dhoja.
 - ii) kendrai rajniti.
 - iii) desho kanun.

- (c) <-balo>, <-bala> and <-bhaya> are the suffixes which are attached to noun and verb roots to change nouns into adjectives in Doteli .
For example,
- i) prabhabhaya/balo prastuti.
 - ii) praphab bala/bhaya prastutin.
 - iii) akarshan bhaya/bala lattan/kapanan.
- (d) <-nak> and <-purna> are the suffixes which are attached to noun roots to form adjectives in Doteli. For example,
- i) yan bassu tamkilai khataranak/purna hunsaganchha.
 - ii) yei/yo kitap paddu mahatwapurna chha.
 - iii) yin kitap paddu mahatwapurna chha.
 - iv) yan bassu hamkilai khataranak/purna hunsaganchha.
- (e) <-yar> is the suffix which is attached to noun roots to change nouns in to adjectives in Doteli. For example,
- i) rasain chalaunjya tam hosyar bhaya.
- (f) <-saro>, <-sara>, <-sarai>, <ko> and <-ka> are the negative marker suffixes which are attached to noun roots in Doteli. For example,
- i) khali saro/ko yatra.
 - ii) Khali saro/ko alochana/charcha.
 - iii) khalisara/ka yatran.
 - iv) khalisara/ka alochanan/charchan.
- (g) <-millya> is the suffix which is attached to verb roots to change verbs into adjectives in Doteli. For example.
- i) yo pinmillya pani ho/yo khanmillya pani ho.
 - ii) yin pinmillya panya botalan hun.

- (h) <-sanginya> and <-inya> are the suffixes which are attached to noun roots to form adjectives in Doteli. For example,
- i) gannasaginya jamat/hul.
 - ii) ganinya jamat/hul.
- (i) <-dinya> is the suffix which is attached to noun roots as a result nouns change into adjectives in Doteli dialect. For example,
- i) aramdinya kurchin.
 - ii) ram myo satdinya sati ho.
- (j) <-lagya> is the suffix which is added to noun roots to form adjectives in doteli. For example,
- i) gham lagya din.
- (k) <-ya> is the suffix which is added to the noun roots to form adjective in Doteli. For example,
- i) hatya aujar/abjar.
 - ii) hatya aujar/abjaran.
- (l) <-lagdya> and <-lagdei> are the suffixes which are attached to noun roots to form adjectives in Doteli. For example,
- i) yinan kamlagdya kitap hun.
 - ii) yinan kamlagdei kapi hun.
- (m) <-jha>, <-jasa>, <-jho> and <-jaso> are the suffixes which are attached to noun roots to change nouns into adjectives in Doteli. For example,
- i) bachhajasa/jha akshar.
 - ii) yo ek murkhojaso/jho upaya ho.
- (n) <-ik> is the suffix which is attached to noun roots to change nouns into adjectives in Doteli. For example,

- i) uika buwa rajnitik bandi/kaidi hun.
 - ii) aitihasik kitapan.
 - iii) yo aitihasik kitab ho.
 - iv) tanan rajnitik bandi/kaidi hun.
- (o) <-aya> and <-aei> are the suffixes which are attached to noun roots to change nouns into adjectives in Doteli. For example,
- i) bhogaya bag.
 - ii) bhogaya bagan.
 - iii) tisa*ei* kukurni/kutani.
- (p) <-i> is the suffix which is attached to noun roots to form adjectives in Doteli dialect. For example,
- i) swadi goladano.
 - ii) swadi goladanan.

3.1.3 Mixture of Prefix and Suffix in Doteli Dialect

In Doteli both prefix and suffix are added to verb roots to make single adjective. Both negative and positive marker adjectives are derived by adding prefix and suffix to the verb roots in Doteli. For example, <na- + + -ya/ei>, <dosarya/dobara- + + -ya/ei>, <dobara/dosarya-+.....+ -lagdya/lagdei>, etc. Each of them is presented below.

- (a) na-hatt-ya/ei dhilain.
- (b) dobara-kam-ladya plastika botalan.
- (c) dosarya-bann-ei/ya misin.
- (c) dosarya/dobara-kam-lagdya plastika botalan.

3.1.4 Degree of Adjective in Doteli Dialect

Doteli degree of adjective consists of both comparative and superlative forms. Doteli deals only with regular forms of comparatives and superlatives. It means that there is no irregular forms of comparatives and superlatives in Doteli. Comparative and superlative forms of adjective are presented below:

3.1.4.1 Comparative Forms of Adjective

In Doteli comparative marker affixes are only suffixes. It means that there is no comparative marker prefixes and infixes in this dialect. In this dialect comparative forms of adjectives are derived from adjective root by adding suffixes, <-nya>, <-llo>, <-nei>, <-ili> etc. to the stem. The suffixes, <-nya>, <-ilo> denote male gender and the suffixes <-nei>, <-ili> denote female gender in this dialect. To make adjectives comparative, the comparative marker terms /hai/, /bhanna/, /badhta/ and /jhik/ are used before adjective root / between noun and adjective. Each of them is presented below:

- (a) ram suraj hai/bhanna niko/ramano biddyartha ho.
- (b) tamari baitiri meri hai/bhanna chamkanenei/chemkili chha.
- (c) ma yei hai/bhanna paltira jan sagdain.
- (d) ram uika sati harihai/bhanna moto chha.
- (e) din bhari mausam jhik/badhta kharap hunoai gayo.
- (f) sita uiki sati rekha hai/bhanna moti chha.
- (g) jamuna pramila bhanna/hai niki biddhyartha hun.

3.1.4.2 Superlative Forms of Adjectives

In Doteli superlative marker affixes are also suffixes only. It means that there is no superlative marker prefixes and infixes in this dialect.

Superlative forms of adjectives are derived from adjective root by adding suffixes <-nya>, <-llo>, <-nei>, <-ili> etc. to the stem. Like comparative the suffixes <-nya>, <-ilo> etc. denote male gender whereas, <-nei>, <-ili> etc. denote female gender in this dialect. In this dialect, superlative marker terms / sabahai/sabbaihai/, /sababhanna/, /sabbaibhanna/ are used to change adjectives into superlatives. The superlative marker terms are used before adjective root or between noun and adjective. Each of the is presented below:

- (a) sagarmatha sansaro sabbaihai/sabbaibhanna uchcho chuchuro ho.
- (b) ramesh kshamyo sabbaihai/sababhanna aglo mulya ho.
- (c) u myo sabbaihai/sabbaibhanna niko sati ho.
- (d) yo mya jibano sabahai/sababhanna lamo yatra ho.
- (e) yo uile diya sabhaihai/sabbaibhanna kharap bhasan thyo.
- (f) sita kshami sabbaihai/sabbaibhanna agli mulai ho.
- (g) surya sabahai/sababhanna chamkilo/chamkanya taro ho.

3.1.5 Participle Adjectives in Doteli Dialect

Doteli participle adjectives are formed only by suffixes. It means that there is no participle marker prefixes and infixes in this dialect. In Doteli how participle marker adjectives are derived by adding suffixes is presented below:

3.1.5.1 Present Participle

In Doteli present participle adjectives are derived from verb roots by adding suffixes <-ei>, <-ya>, <-araya>, <-araei>, etc. to the stem. For example,

- (a) yo myo jottya/jottaraya balla ho.
- (b) lekhdei/lekhadaraei kalam.
- (c) rittei kurchi.
- (d) pagdaraya bhat.

In Doteli dialect the suffixes like, <-ei>, <-araei> denote female gender, where as <-ya>, <-araya> denote male gender.

The verb roots /lekh/, /jot/, /padh/, /rit/ change into adjectives by adding suffix <-ya>, <-araya>, <-araei>, <-ei> to the stem. So verb root with suffixes <-ya>, <-araya>, <-ei>, <-araei> denote present participle in Doteli dialect.

3.1.5.2 Past Participle

Doteli past participle adjectives are derived from verb root by adding suffixes <-ya>, <-bhaya>, <-ei>, <-iei>, <-iya>, <-bhaei> to the stem. For example,

- (a) un ek naukari chanya hakim hun.
- (b) bharibhaya/bharibhaei jhola.
- (c) sugya/sugaya/bhutya naj.
- (d) phatya kapanan/lattan.
- (e) pagya khanai.

In Doteli the suffixes <-ya>, <-iya>, <-bhaya> denote male gender whereas, the suffixes <-ei>, <-iei>, <-bhaei> denote female gender.

The verb roots /chan/, /bhar/, /sug/, /bhut/, /phat/, /pag/ change into adjectives by adding suffixes <-ya>, <-iya>, <-aya>, <-bhaya>, <-ei>, <-aei>, <-iei>, <-bhaei> to the stem. So the verb root with suffixes, <-ya>, <-iya>, <-aya>, <-bhaya>, <-ei>, <-aei>, <-iei>, <-bhaei> denote past participle in Doteli dialect.

In Doteli present and past participle adjectives are used both attributively and predicatively. For example,

- (a) yo lekhdei kalam ho.
- (b) yo kalam lekhdei ho.
- (c) sugya naj ho yo.
- (d) yo naj sugya ho.

3.2 Comparison Between Doteli and English Adjectival Affixation

As we know that affixation is one of the most important and most frequently used word formation process. Affixation deals with pre-fixation, in-fixation, and suffixation. Pre-fixation and suffixation are commonly used in the languages of the world but, in-fixation is used in certain languages. Both Doteli and English deal with affixation. In this section how Doteli and English adjectives are formed by affixation is presented.

3.2.1 Doteli and English Prefixes

Both Doteli and English adjectives are formed by prefixes. Each of them is presented below:

(a) In Doteli negative marker prefixes such as <a->, <na->, <bi->, <dur->, <bei->, <binna-> are used. In the same way, in English <il->, <non->, <im->, <in->, <dis->, <mis->, <anti->, <un->, etc. are used as negative marker prefixes. In Doteli the prefix <a-> is more frequently used. But in English all prefixes are separately used. For example,

- i) a-naitik sammandha.
Il-legal relationship.
- ii) a-prakratik niyam.
Non-natural law.
- iii) a-paripakko / a-parpakka byabhar.
Im-mature behaviour.
- iv) a-puro/a-dhuro kam.
In-complete work.
- v) a-samajik byabhar.
Anti-social behaviour.
- vi) ramle bi-thikanmi bol khityo.
Ram misplaced the ball.

(b) Both Doteli and English negative marker prefixes are added before adjectives. It means that both Doteli and English negative marker prefixes are attached to the adjective roots. For example,

- i) a-prakratik niyam.
Non-natural law.
- ii) bei-man mulya.
Dis-honest boy.
- iii) a-samajik byabhar.
Anti-social behaviour.

iv) tanan binna-ghara mulyamuli/mulyamuli hun.
They are homeless children.

(c) Doteli negative marker prefixes are less in number than English.
For example,

Doteli negative marker prefixes:

<a->, <na->, <bei->, <dur->, <binna->, <bi->, etc.

English negative marker prefixes:

<im->, <in->, <anti->, <un->, <dis->, <mis->, <il->, <ir->, <non->, etc.

3.2.2 Doteli and English Suffixes

Both Doteli and English adjectives are formed by suffixes as well. Each of them is presented below:

(a) The Doteli suffix <-panya> and the English suffix <-ent> are attached to the verb roots to change verbs into adjectives. The Doteli suffix <-panya> is marked for all person and number but unmarked for gender. But the English suffix <-ent> is marked for all person, number and gender. For example,

i) u aphna ija buwami bharpanya chha.

He is dependent on his parents.

ii) u aphna ija buwami bharpanej chha.

She is dependent on her parents.

iii) tanan aphna ija buwami bharpanya chhan.

They are dependent on their parents.

iv) ham aphna ija buwami bharpanya chhaun.

We are dependent on our parents.

(b) The Doteli suffixes <-ai>, and the English suffix <-al> are added to the noun roots as a result nouns change into adjectives. The Doteli suffix <-ai> is unmarked for number and gender. But the English suffix <-al> is marked for all number and gender. For example,

- i) deshai jhanda.
Nationall Flag.
- ii) desha jhandan.
Nationall Flags.
- iii) desho kanun.
Nationall law.
- iv) kendrai rajniti.
Centrall politics.

(c) Doteli suffixes <-bhaya> and <-balo>, and the English suffix <-ive> are attached to verb roots to form adjectives. s Doteli suffixes <-bhaya> and <-balo> mark all person, and gender but unmark number whereas English suffix <-ive> mark all person, number and gender. For example,

- i) uika latta/kapana akarshanbhaya/bala chhan.
Her dress is attractive.
- ii) uika latta/kapana akarshanbhaya chhan.
His dress is attractive.
- iii) Prabhabhaya/balo prastuti.
Effective presentation.
- iv) Prabhabhaya/bala prastutin.
Effective presentations.

(d) The English negative marker suffix <-less> is taken as negative marker prefix in Doteli, if it comes after noun 'home'. For example,

- i) tanan binnaghara mulyan/mulyamuli hun.
They are homeless children.

But, in other cases the suffixes <-saro> and <-ko> are used. It means that the equivalent suffixes of the English suffix <-less> are <-saro> and <-ko> in Doteli . These suffixes are attached to noun roots to change nouns into adjectives. The Doteli suffixes unmark all number, whereas the English suffix <-less> is attached to noun roots to mark all, number. For example,

- i) khalisaro/ko yatra.
Endless journey.
- ii) khalisara/ka yatran.
Endless jounies.
- iii) ek khalisaro/ko alochana/charcha.
A thoughtless remark.
- iv) khalisara/ka alochanan/charchan.
Thoughtless remarks.
- v) khalisarai/ki kahani.
Senseless story.

(e) The Doteli suffixes <-nak> and <-purna> and English suffixes <-ous> and <-ant> are attached to noun roots to form adjectives. These suffixes attached to noun roots to mark all person, number and gender in Doteli and English. For example,

- i) yan bassu tamkilai khatarapurna/nak hun saganchna.
It would be dangerous for you to stay here.
- ii) yan bassu tamankilai khatarapurna/nak hun saganchna.
It would be dangerous for you to stay here.
- iii) yan bassu uikilai khatarapurna/nak hun saganchna.

It would be dangerous for him to stay here.

- iv) yan bassu uikilai khatarapurna/nak hun saganchha.

It would be dangerous for her to stay here.

- v) yan bassu hamkilai khatarapurna/nak hun saganchha.

It would be dangerous for us to stay here.

- vi) yei kitap paddu mahatwapurna chha.

It is important to read this book.

- vii) yin kitap paddu mahatwapurna chha.

It is important to read these books.

- (f) The Doteli suffix <-yar> and the English suffix <-ful> are attached to noun roots to form adjectives. These suffixes are attached to noun roots to mark all person, gender and number in Doteli and English. For example,

- i) rasain chalaunjya tam hosyar bhaya.

You must be careful when handling chemical.

- ii) rasain chalaunjya taman hosyar bhaya.

You must be careful when handling chemical.

- iii) rasain chalaunjya tam (male/female) hosyar bhaya.

You (male/female) must be careful when handling chemical.

- (g) The Doteli suffixes <-millya>, <-saginya>, <-inya> and <-dinya> and the English suffixes <-able> are attached to the noun or verb roots to change nouns or verbs into adjectives. These suffixes are attached to noun or verb roots to mark all number in Doteli and English. For example,

- i) yo pinmillya pani ho.

It is drunkable water.

- ii) yinan pinmillya panya botalan hun.
These are drunkable water bottles.
- iii) ganna saginya/ganinya jamat/hul.
Countable mass.
- iv) yinan ganna saginya/ganinya jamatan/hulan hun.
These are countable mass.
- v) yo aramdinya kurchi ho.
It is comfortable chair.
- vi) aramdinya kurchin.
comfortable chairs.

(h) The Doteli suffixes <-lagya>, <-ya> and the English suffix <-y> are attached to noun roots and these suffixes are attached to noun roots to mark all number in Doteli and English. For example,

- i) ghamlagya din.
Sunny day.
- ii) ghamlagya dinan.
Sunny days.
- iii) ajo din batasya chha.
Today is windy day.
- iv) batasya dinan.
Windy days.
- v) hatya aujaran/abjaran.
Handy tools.
- vi) hatya aujar/abjar.
Handy tool.

(i) The Doteli suffix <-lagdya> and English suffix <-ful> are attached to noun roots to form adjectives. The Doteli suffix <-lagdya> is

marked for all person and number and unmarked for gender. But the English suffix <-ful> is marked for all person member and gender. For example,

i) yinan kamlagdya kagaj hun

These are useful papers.

ii) yo kam lagdya kagaj ho.

This is a useful paper.

iii) yinan kamlagdei kapi hun.

These are useful notebooks.

iv) yo kam lagdei kapi ho.

This is useful notebook.

(j) The Doteli suffixes <-jha>, <-jasa>, <-jho>, <-jaso> and English suffix <-ish> are attached to noun roots to form adjectives. The Doteli suffixes <-jha> and <-lasa> are attached to plural number and <-jho> ad <-jaso> are attached to singular number. But English suffix <-ish> is attached to both singular and plural number. For example,

i) bachchajasa/jha akshar. (plural)

Childish handwriting.

ii) yo ek murkhojho/jaso upaya ho. (singular)

It is a foolish idea.

(k) The Doteli suffix <-ik> and the English suffix <-al> are attached to noun roots to form adjectives. These suffixes are marked for all person, number, and gender in Doteli and English. For example,

i) uika buwa rajnitik bandi/kaidi hun.

His father is political prisoner.

ii) Tanan rajnitik bandi/kaidi hun.

They are political prisoner.

iii) aitihasik kitapan.

Historical books.

iv) yo ek aitihasik kitap ho.

It is a historical book.

(l) The Doteli suffix <-aya> and the English suffix <-y> are attached to noun roots to form adjectives. The Doteli suffixes are attached to noun roots to mark all person and number and unmark gender, where as English suffix <-y> mark all person, number and gender. For example,

i) bhogaya bag.

Hungry tiger.

ii) bhogaya bagan.

Hungry tigers.

iii) tisaei kukurni/kutani.

Thirsty bitch.

(m) The Doteli suffice <-i> and the English suffix <-y> are attached to noun roots to form adjectives. These suffixes attached to noun roots to mark all numbers in Doteli and English. For example,

i) swadi goladano.

Testy coconut.

ii) swadi goladanan.

Testy coconuts.

3.2.3 Mixture of Prefix and Suffix in Doteli and English

(a) In the Doteli and English both prefixes and suffixes are added to verb roots together. For example,

- i) na-hatt-ya dhilain.
un-avoid-able delays.
 - ii) dosarya/dobara bann ei/ya misin.
Re-pair-able machine.
- (b) Both positive and negative marker affixes and suffixes (especially prefixes) are attached to verb roots to form adjectives in Doteli and English. For example,
- i) na-hatt-ya dhilain.
un-avoid-able delays.
 - ii) dosarya/dobara-kam-lagdya plastika botalan
Re-use-able plastic bottles.

3.2.4 Degree of Adjective in Doteli and English

Degree of adjective consists of comparative and superlative forms. Both Doteli and English have comparative and superlative forms of adjective. Each of them is presented below:

3.2.4.1 Comparative Forms of Adjective in Doteli and English

- (a) In Doteli and English comparative forms are used to compare two entities. For example,
- i) ram uika sati hari hai/bhanna moto chha.
Ram is fatter than his friend Hari.
 - ii) tamari baitiri meri hai/bhanna chamkanei chha.
Your torch is brighter than mine.
 - iii) ma yei hai/bhanna paltira janain/jaisagdain.
I can't go any further.

- (b) In Doteli dialect /hai/, /bhanna/, /jhik/, /badhta/ are used as comparative marker terms, where as in English /than/ is used as comparative marker term. It means Doteli comparative marker terms are more in number than English. Doteli comparative marker terms are used before adjective and English comparative marker term is used after adjectives. These comparative marker terms are responsible for changing adjectives into comparatives.

For example,

- i) tamari baitiri meri hai/bhanna chamkaneji cha
Your torch is brighter than mine.
- ii) ram suraj hai/bhanna niko biddhyarthi ho.
Ram is better student than suraj.
- iii) tera ba mya hai/bhanna risaunya chhan.
Your father is angrier than mine.
- iv) dinbhari mausam jhik/badhta kharap bhayo.
The weather got worse during the day.

- (c) Both Doteli and English comparative forms of adjective are derived from adjective roots by adding suffixes to the stem. For example,

- i) tamari baitiri meri hai/bhanna chamkaneji cha
Your torch is brighter than mine.
- ii) tya ba mya ba hai/bhanna risaunyacha chhan
Your father is angrier than mine.
- iii) sita uiki sati rekha hai/bhanna moti chha.
Sita is fatter than her friend Rekha.

But some Doteli adjectives such as, thulo, nano, niko, ramno, uchhho moto, etc. do not take suffix. The above mentioned adjectives are used for

male gender and thuli, nani, niki, ramani, uchchi, moti, etc., are used for female gender. Each of them is presented below:

- i) ram uika sati hari hai/bhanna moto chha.
Ram is fatterer than his friend Hari.
- ii) sita uiki sati rekha hai moti chha.
Sita is fatterer than her friend Rekha.
- iii) ram suraj bhanna/hai niko biddhyoarthi ho.
Ram is betterer student than Suraj.
- iv) jamuna pramila hai/bhanna niki bidhyarthi ho.
Jamuna is betterer student than Pramila.

(d) In Doteli comparative marker suffixes are more in number than in English. In Doteli <-nya>, <-ilo>, <-nei>, <-ili>, etc. are used as comparative marker suffixes, where as in English the suffix <-er> is used. In Doteli different suffixes are used for male and female gender. The suffixes <-nya>, <-ilo> etc. denote male gender and <-nei>, <-ili> etc denote female gender. But, in English the suffix <-er> is used for both gender. For example,

- i) tamari baitiri meri hai/bhanna chamkaneji chha.
Your torch is brighterer than mine.
- ii) tya ba mya ba nail/bhanna risaunya chhan.
Your father is angrierer than mine.
- iii) yo siso tai sisa hai/bhanna chamkilo chha.
This glass is brighterer than that.

(e) Doteli does not have irregular forms of comparative, where as English consists both regular and irregular forms of comparative. For example,

- i) tamari baitiri meri hai/bhanna chamkanei chha.
Your torch is brighter than mine. (regular)
 - ii) ram suraj hai/bnhanna niko biddhyarhi ho.
Ram is betterer student than Suraj. (irregular)
 - iii) dinbhari mausam jhik/badhta kharap bhayo/hunoigayo.
The weather got worse during the day. (irregular)
 - iv) ma yai hai /bhanna paltira jansagdain/janain.
I can't go any furthere. (irregular)
- (f) Both Doteli and English comparative marker suffixes are class maintaining. It means they do not change word class/parts of speech. For example,
- i) tamari baitiri meri hai/bhanna chamkanei chha.
Your torch is brighter than mine.
 - ii) ram suraj hai/bhanna niko biddhyarhi ho.
Ram is betterer student than Suraj.
 - iii) yo siso tai sisa hai/bhanna chamkanyaa chha.
This glass is brighter than that.

3.2.4.2 Superlative Forms of Adjective in Doteli and English

- (a) Superlative forms of adjective are used to compare three or more than three entities in Doteli and English. For example,
- i) sagarmatha sansaro sabbaihai/sabbaibhanna ucchho chuchuro ho.
Mt. Everest is the highest peak in the world.
 - ii) ramesh kshamyo sabahai/sababhanna aglo mulya ho.
Ramesh is the tallest boy in the class.
- (b) In Doteli dialect/sabahai/, /sababhanna/, /sabbaihai/, /sabbaibhanna/ are used as superlative marker terms, where as in English /the/ is

used. Doteli and English superlative marker terms are used before adjective. These terms change adjective into superlative. For example,

- i) sagarmatha sansaro sabbaihai/sabbaibhanna ucchho chuchuro ho.
Mt. Everest is the highest peak in the world.
- ii) ramesh kshamyo sabaihai/sababhanna aglo mulya ho.
Ramesh is the tallest boy in the class.
- iii) u myo sabaihai/sababhanna niko sati ho.
He is the best friend of mine.
- iv) Yo my jibano sabbaihai/sabbaibhanna lamo yatra ho.
It is the farthest journey of my life.

(c) Both Doteli and English superlative forms of adjective are derived from adjective root by adding suffixes to the stem. For example,

- i) tamari baitiri sabbaihai/sabbaibhanna chamkanei/chamkili chha.
Your torch is the brightest torch.
- ii) surya sabbaihai/sabbaibhanna chamkanya/chamkilo taro ho.
Sun is the brightest star.

But some Doteli adjectives such as, thulo, nano, niko, ramno, unchcho, moto, etc. do not take suffix. These adjectives denote male gender and thuli, nani, niki, ramani, uchchi, moti etc. denote female gender. For example,

- i) ramesh kshamyo sabaihai/sababhanna aglo mulya ho.
Ramesh is the tallest boy in the class.
- ii) sita kshami sabaihai/sababhanna agli mulai ho.
Sita is the tallest girl in the class.

- iii) u myo sabahai/sababhanna niko sati ho.
He is the best friend of mine.
- iv) u meri sabahai/sababhanna niki sati ho.
She is the best friend of mine.
- (d) In Doteli dialect superlative marker suffixes are more in number than in the English language. In Doteli <-nya>, <-nei>, <-ilo>, <-li> etc. are taken as superlative marker suffixes, whereas, in English language <-est> is the superlative marker suffix. In Doteli dialect the suffixes, <-nya>, <-ilo> etc. denote male gender and <-nei>, <-ili> etc. denote female gender. But in English the suffix <-est> is used for both male and female gender. For example,
- i) surya sabbaibhanna/sabbaihai chamkilo taro ho.(Male)
Sun is the brightest star.
- ii) tamari baitiri sabhaihai/sabhaibhanna chamkanei/chamkili chha. (Female)
Your torch is the brightest torch.
- (e) Doteli does not have irregular forms of superlative, whereas English language consists with both regular and irregular forms. For example,
- i) u myo sabahai/sababhanna niko sati ho.
He is the best friend of mine. (irregular)
- ii) yo mya jibano sabahai/sababhanna lamo yatra ho.
It is the farthest journey of my life. (irregular)
- iii) to uile diya sabbaihai/sabbaibhanna kharap bhasan thyo.
It was by far the worst speech he had made ever. (irregular)
- iv) sagarmatha sansaro sabbaihai/sabbaibhanna uchcho chuchuro ho.
Mt. Everest is the highest peak in the world. (regular)

- v) ramesh kshamyo sabahai/sababhanna aglo mulya ho.
Ramesh is the tallest boy in the class.(regular)
- (f) Both Doteli and English superlative marker suffixes are class maintaining. It means they do not change word class or parts of speech. For example,
- i) sagarmatha sansaro sabbaihai/sabbaibhanna uchcho
chuchuro ho.
Mt. Everest is the highest peak in the world.
- ii) ramesh kshamyo sabahai/sababhanna aglo mulya ho.
Ramesh is the tallest boy in the class.
- iii) u myo sabahai/sababhanna niko sati ho.
He is the best friend of mine.

3.2.5 Participle Adjectives in Doteli and English

- (a) Both Doteli and English participle adjectives are derived from verb roots by adding suffix to the stem. For example,
- i) lekhdei kalam.
Writinging pen.
- ii) yo myo jottya/jottaraya balla ho.
This is my ploughinging ox.
- iii) bhutya/sugya/sugaya naj
Roasteded corn.
- (b) In Doteli <-ya>, <-araya>, <-ei>, <-araei> are the present participle marker suffixes. In the English language <-ing> is only one present participle marker suffix. So Doteli present participle marker suffixes are more in number than English. Each of them is presented below:

- i) lekhdei kalam.
Writing pen.
- ii) yo myo jottya/jottaraya balla ho.
This is my ploughing ox.
- iii) pagdaraya bhat.
Cooking rice.

(c) In Doteli <-ya>, <-aya>, <-aei>, <-ei>, <-iei>, <-iya>, <-bhaya>, <-bhaei> are the past participle marker suffixes. In English <-ed> is only one past participle marker suffix, which added to the regular verb to mark all person and number. For example,

- i) un ek naukari chanya hakim hun.
He is a retired officer.
- ii) bharibhaya/bhariya/bhariei jhola.
Packed bag.
- iii) sugaya/sugya/bhutya naj.
Roasted corn.
- iv) phatya kapanan/lattan.
Ragged clothes.

English past participle marker suffix (-ed) has different allomorphs and the occurrence of one allomorph is differs from the occurrence of another. Each of them is presented below:

- [-t] is the past participle marker suffix in English, which is added to the regular verb after ending in any voiceless consonant that is not [t] and [d]. For example,
 - i) Packed bag.

- [-d] is the past participle marker suffix in English which is attached to the regular verbs after a verb ending in any voiced sound except [t] and [d]. For example,
 - i) He is a retired officer.
 - [-Id] is the past participle marker suffix in English, which is attached to the regular verbs, if the verbs end in [t] and [d]. For example,
 - i) Roasted corn.
- (d) Both Doteli and English past participle adjectives are used attributively and predicatively. In the same way, Doteli present participle adjectives are used attributively and predicatively, but, English present participle adjectives are only used attributively. For example,
- i) yo lekhdei kalam ho.
This is writing pen.
 - ii) yo kalam lekhdei ho.
This is writing pen.
 - iii) sugaya/sugya/bhutya naj ho yo.
Roasted corn is this.
 - iv) yo naj sugya/sugaya/bhutya ho.
This corn is roasted.
- (e) Doteli has large number of participle marker suffixes than English. For example,
Doteli participle marker suffixes: <-ya>, <-araya>, <-araei>, <-aya>, <-aei>, <-ei>, <-iei>, <-iya>, <-bhaya>, <-bhaei>, etc.
English participle marker suffixes:
<-ing>, <-ed>

CHAPTER FOUR

FINDINGS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

4.1 Findings

The major goal of this research study was to find out the morphology of adjectives in Doteli and to compare and contrast the morphology of adjectives in Doteli with those of English in terms of prefixes and suffixes. On the basis of analysis and interpretation of the data the major findings of the study have been drawn.

4.1.1 Prefixes in Doteli Dialect

- (a) Doteli negative marker adjectives are formed from adjective roots by adding prefix to the stem.
- (b) Doteli negative prefixes <a->, <na->, <bi->, <dur->, <bei->, <-binna> etc. are commonly used to form adjectives.
- (c) Doteli negative marker prefix <-a> is used more frequently than other.

4.1.2 Suffixes in Doteli Dialect

- (a) Doteli adjectives are formed from noun or verb roots by adding suffix to the stem.
- (b) The Doteli suffixes <-nak>, <-nagya>, <-ya>, <-i>, <-ik>,
 - a. <-purna, <-yar> are attached to noun roots to mark all person, number, and gender.
- (c) The Doteli suffixes <-bhaya>, <-balo> are added to verb roots to mark person, and gender but unmark number.

- (d) The Doteli suffix <-panya> is attached to verb roots to mark person and number but unmark gender.
- (e) The Doteli suffix <-ai,<-saro>, <-ko> are added to noun roots to mark person but unmark number and gender.
- (f) The Doteli suffixes <-millya>, <-saginya>, <-inya> and <-dinya> attached to noun or verb roots to mark numbers.
- (g) <-lagdya and <-aya> are Doteli suffixes which are attached to noun roots to mark person and number and unmarked for gender.
- (h) The Doteli suffixes <-jasa>, <-jha>, <-jaso>, <-jho> are attached to noun roots. The suffixes <-jasa> and <-jha> denote plural number where as <-jaso> and <-jho> denote singular number.

4.1.3 Mixture of Prefix and Suffix in Doteli Dialect

- (a) In Doteli adjectives are formed from verb roots by adding prefix and suffix together.
- (b) Both negative and positive marker prefixes such as <na->, <dosarya>, <dobara> and suffixes <-ya>, <-lagdya> etc. are added to verb roots.

4.1.4 Degree of Adjectives in Doteli Dialect

4.1.4.1 Comparative Forms of Adjective in Doteli Dialect

- (a) In Doteli the comparative forms of adjective are derived from adjective roots by adding suffix to the stem.
- (b) In Doteli /hai/, /bhanna/, /jhik/, /badhta/ are comparative marker terms.

- (c) Different suffixes are used to denote male and female gender in Doteli. For example, the suffixes <-nya>, <-ilo> etc. denote male gender whereas <-nei>, <-ili>, etc. denote female gender.
- (d) Doteli does not deal with irregular forms of comparative.
- (e) Doteli comparative marker suffixes are inflectional morphemes.

4.1.4.2 Superlative Forms of Adjective in Doteli Dialect

- (a) Superlative forms of adjective are derived from adjective roots by adding suffix to the stem.
- (b) In Doteli /sabbaihai/sabbaibhanna/, /sabahai/, /sababhanna/ are superlative marker terms.
- (c) In Doteli the suffixes <-nya>, <-ilo>, etc. denote male gender whereas <-nei>, <-ili>, etc. denote female gender.
- (d) The Doteli does not have irregular forms of superlative.
- (e) Doteli superlative marker suffixes are inflectional morphemes.

4.1.5 Participle Adjective in Doteli Dialect

4.1.5.1 Present Participle

- (a) Doteli present participle adjectives are derived from verb roots by adding suffixes <-ei>, <-ya>, <-araya>, <-araei> etc. to the stem.
- (b) The suffixes <-ei>, <-araei> denote female gender and the suffixes <-ya>, <-araya> denote male gender in Doteli.
- (c) Doteli present participle adjectives are used attributively and predicatively.

4.1.5.2 Past Participle

- (a) Doteli past participle adjectives are derived from verb roots by adding suffixes <-ya>, <-bhaya>, <-ei>, <-iei>, <-iya>, <-bhaei> to the stem.
- (b) In Doteli the suffixes <-ya>, <-iya>, <-bhaya> denote male gender and the suffixes <-ei>, <-iei>, <-bhaei> denote female gender.
- (c) Doteli past participle adjectives are used attributively and predicatively.

4.1.6 Similarities and Differences

4.1.6.1 Similarities

- (a) Both Doteli and English negative marker prefixes are attached to adjective roots to form adjectives.
- (b) Both Doteli and English suffixes are added to noun or verb roots to form adjectives.
- (c) Both Doteli and English lack in-fixation system.
- (d) Sometimes, both Doteli and English take prefix and suffix together to form adjectives.
- (e) Both Doteli and English comparative forms of adjective are used to compare two entities.
- (f) Both Doteli and English superlative forms of adjective are used to compare three or more than three entities.
- (g) Both Doteli and English comparative and superlative marker suffixes are inflectional morphemes.

- (h) Doteli has more number of participle marker suffixes than English.
- (i) Superlative marker terms are added before adjective in Doteli and English.

4.1.6.2 Differences

- (a) Doteli negative marker prefix <-a> is more frequently used, whereas English negative marker prefixes are used separately.
- (b) In Doteli, there is various realization of single English suffix, but in English there is not.
- (c) Doteli prefix <binana-> is taken as suffix (-less) in English, if it is added to the noun 'home'.
- (d) Doteli affixation system is more complicated than English.
- (e) In Doteli comparative marker terms are added before adjective, whereas, in English they are added after adjective.
- (f) Doteli has more number of comparative and superlative marker terms than English.
- (g) Doteli has more number of comparative and superlative marker suffixes than English.
- (h) Doteli has more number of suffixes than English, whereas, English is richer than Doteli in terms of number of prefixes.
- (i) Doteli does not have irregular forms of comparative and superlative whereas English deals with both irregular and regular forms of comparative and superlative.

- (j) Both Doteli and English participle adjective are derived from verb roots by adding suffix to the stem.
- (k) Doteli present participle adjectives are used both attributively and predicatively, where as, English present participle adjectives are used attributively only.
- (l) The Doteli dialect has gender marker suffixes, where as, in English, the same gender marker suffixes are used for both masculine and feminine.
- (m) Doteli past participle marker suffixes do not have allomorphic variation where as English participle marker suffix <-ed> has allomorphic variation.

4.3 Recommendations

On the basis of the findings after the analysis and interpretation of the Doteli and English Adjectival Morphology, the following recommendations have been made:

- (a) Adjectival affixation system in the Doteli dialect is more or less similar to that of English. So, language teachers who are teaching English as second language should be aware of this fact.
- (b) The main goal of this comparative study was to identify /find out the morphology of adjectives in Doteli and to compare and contrast the adjectives in Doteli with those in English in terms of prefixes and suffixes. While learning the target language there should be no problem in the area where the two languages are similar but differences between the two language create difficulty. So, it should be recommended that the teaching should be focused on the difficulty areas.

- (c) The complexity of Doteli adjectival affixation system should be considered while teaching English adjectival affixation system to Doteli native speaker because of large number of adjectival affixes in the Doteli dialect than in English and they are of course more complex than those of English.
- (d) The clear cut idea about degree of adjectives in Doteli should be given while teaching English degree of adjectives to the Doteli learners because Doteli degree of adjectives does not deal with irregular forms, whereas English deals with both regular and irregular forms.
- (e) Crystal clear picture about the affixation process, should be drawn on the mind of the students/learners, who are learning adjectival morphology in Doteli and English by following a comparative method.
- (f) Doteli adjectival affixes (especially suffixes) are depend on gender. So language teacher who are teaching Doteli dialect as a second language should be aware of this fact.
- (g) The findings of this research study are significant for grammarians who study and write Doteli grammar.
- (h) This research study is equally significant to teachers who are teaching English as foreign language at schools, colleges where Doteli speakers are in majority as students.
- (i) This research study is also significant for all the people and the linguistics, who are directly and indirectly involved in teaching or learning Doteli and English.

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QUESTIONNAIRE

INTERVIEW QUESTIONNAIRE

To collect the information for the research study entitled "Adjectival Morphology in Doteli and English". The following interview questionnaire has been prepared. The research study is being carried out under the guidance of Mr. Bhesh Raj Pokhrel, Teaching Assistant of Central Department of English Language Education, Faculty of Education, T.U., Kirtipur, Kathmandu, Nepal. The researcher hopes that the great contribution of research is the great cooperation of the informants.

Thank you

Sex:

Name:

Age:

Educational Status:

Profession:

How do you say the following phrases and sentences in your native tongue ?

1. He is dependent on his parents.

.....

2. She is dependent on her parents.

.....

3. They are dependent on their parents.

.....

4. We are dependent on our parents.
.....
5. National flag.
.....
6. Her dress is attractive.
.....
7. Effective presentation.
.....
8. Effective presentations.
.....
9. Endless journeys.
.....
10. Senseless story.
.....
11. Thoughtless remarks
.....
12. Central politics.
.....

13. It would be dangerous for you to stay here.

.....

14. It would be dangerous for him to stay here.

.....

15. It would be dangerous for her to stay here.

.....

16. It would be dangerous for us to stay here.

.....

17. You must be careful when handling chemical.

.....

18. National Flags

.....

19. National law.

.....

20. His dress is attractive.

.....

21. Endless journey.

.....

22. They are homeless children.
.....

23. A thoughtless remark.
.....

24. It is drunkable water.
.....

25. These are drunkable water bottles.
.....

26. These are countable mass.
.....

27. It is comfortable chair.
.....

28. Countable mass.
.....

29. Illegal relationship.
.....

30. It was unfortunate that he couldn't win the race.
.....

31. Cooked food.
.....

32. Non-natural law.
.....

33. This is non-political issue.
.....

34. Immature behavior.
.....

35. Dishonest boy.
.....

36. They are disloyal friends.
.....

37. Comfortable chairs.
.....

38. Incomplete work
.....

39. Unavoidable delays.
.....

40. Attractive dresses.
.....

41. Writing pen.
.....

42. This is my ploughing ox.
.....

43. Cooking rice.
.....

44. Sunny day.
.....

45. Sunny days.
.....

46. Windy days.
.....

47. Handy tools.
.....

48. Hungry tigers.
.....

49. Thirsty bitch.
.....

50. Testy coconuts.

.....

51. Ram is my helpful partner.

.....

52. Handy tool.

.....

53. These are useful papers.

.....

54. This is useful paper.

.....

55. These are useful notebooks.

.....

56. This is useful notebook.

.....

57. Tasty coconut.

.....

58. Childish handwriting.

.....

59. It is a foolish idea.

.....

60. Mt. Everest is highest peak in the world.

.....

61. Your father is angrier than mine.

.....

62. Sita is fatter than her friend Rekha.

.....

63. Jamuna is better student than Pramila.

.....

64. This glass is brighter than that.

.....

65. Sun is the brightest star.

.....

66. Sita is the tallest girl in the class.

.....

67. She is the best friend of mine

.....

68. Your torch is the brightest torch

.....

69. Ram is better student than Suraj.

.....

70. He is the best friend of mine

.....

71. I can't go any further.

.....

72. It is the farthest journey of my life.

.....

73. The weather got worse during the day.

.....

74. It was by far the worst speech he had ever made.

.....

75. Ram is fatter than his friend Hari.

.....

76. Hungry tiger.

.....

77. Ramesh is the tallest boy in the class.

.....

78. Your torch is brighter than mine.

.....

79. Today is windy day.

.....

80. Ragged cloths.

.....

81. Roasted corn.

.....

82. Repairable machine.

.....

83. His father is political prisoner.

.....

84. Reusable plastic bottles.

.....

85. He is a retired officer.

.....

86. It is historical book.

.....

87. They are political prisoner.

.....

88. Historical books

.....

89. It is important to read this book.

.....

90. It is important to read these books.

.....

91. Packed bag.

.....

92. Ram misplaced the ball.

.....

93. Antisocial behavior.

.....

94. Revolving chair.

.....

Appendix-II

Name List of Sample Population Ajayameru and Samaijee VDCs of Dadeldhura District

Respondents from Ajayameru VDC

S.N.	Name of the respondents	Sex	Literacy
1	Hari Lal Khati	M	Illiterate
2	Karan Singh Ayer	M	Illiterate
3	Jagdish Ayer	M	Illiterate
4	Jaya Lal Bhatt	M	Illiterate
5	Damber Datta Bhatt	M	Illiterate
6	Prakash Chunara	M	Illiterate
7	Kishne Damai	M	Illiterate
8	Bal Bahadur Damai	M	Illiterate
9	Shib Lal Koli	M	Illiterate
10	Bir Bhan Sharki	M	Illiterate
11	Dahsrath Pal	M	Illiterate
12	Lal Bahadur Sanki	M	Illiterate
13	Jung Bahadur Mahara	M	Illiterate
14	Hari Datta Luhar	M	Illiterate
15	Bahadur Singh Ayer	M	Illiterate
16	Goma Devi Ayer	F	Illiterate
17	Debaki Devi Ayer	F	Illiterate
18	Kalapati Devi Ayer	F	Illiterate
19	Madhu Devi Khati	F	Illiterate
20	Gomati Devi Khati	F	Illiterate
21	Parbati Devi Chunara	F	Illiterate
22	Harina Devi Koli	F	Illiterate

23	Shanti Devi Damai	F	Illiterate
24	Ramila Devi Sharki	F	Illiterate
25	Menuka Devi Bhatt	F	Illiterate
26	Jayamati Devi Bhatt	F	Illiterate
27	Kamala Devi Luhar	F	Illiterate
28	Bimala Devi Damai	F	Illiterate
29	Radha Devi Pal	F	Illiterate
30	Rebati Devi Sanki	F	Illiterate
31	Padam Singh Ayer	M	Literate
32	Ram Bahadur Ayer	M	Literate
33	Bhawani Singh Ayer	M	Literate
34	Karan Singh Khati	M	Literate
35	Laxman Koli	M	Literate
36	Bharat Sharki	M	Literate
37	Dharam Singh Khati	M	Literate
38	Hari Krishna Pal	M	Literate
39	Jaya Raj Sanki	M	Literate
40	Lok Raj Bhatt	M	Literate
41	Mahabir Sanki	M	Literate
42	Krishna Chunara	M	Literate
43	Govinda Singh Ayer	M	Literate
44	Narayan Luhar	M	Literate
45	Sher Bahadur Bohara	M	Literate
46	Basanti Devi Ayer	F	Literate
47	Bishna Devi Khati	F	Literate
48	Kalapati Devi Khati	F	Literate
49	Bindu Devi Ayer	F	Literate
50	Godawari Kumari Ayer	F	Literate

51	Laxmi Devi Pal	F	Literate
52	Dikari Kumari Ayer	F	Literate
53	Bishna Devi Ayer	F	Literate
54	Dropati Devi Ayer	F	Literate
55	Janaki Kumari Sanki	F	Literate
56	Anita Kumari Koli	F	Literate
57	Rukmani Kumari Chunara	F	Literate
58	Menuka Kumari Damai	F	Literate
59	Radha Kumari Ayer	F	Literate
60	Urmila Devi Bohara	F	Literate

Respondents from Samaijee VDC

S.N.	Name of the respondents	Sex	Literacy
1	Kamal Singh Bist	M	Illiterate
2	Bahadur Singh Bohara	M	Illiterate
3	Ram Datta Saud	M	Illiterate
4	Shali Bhan Saud	M	Illiterate
5	Ratan Singh Saud	M	Illiterate
6	Dhahire Parki	M	Illiterate
7	Man Bahadur Bohara	M	Illiterate
8	Phagir Datta Bhatt	M	Illiterate
9	Madan Raj Bhatt	M	Illiterate
10	Parma Nand Bhatt	M	Illiterate
11	Rudra Singh Khadka	M	Illiterate
12	Kalu Singh Khadka	M	Illiterate
13	Ram Singh Ayer	M	Illiterate
14	Khadak Bahadur Bhandari	M	Illiterate
15	Bahadur Singh Bhandari	M	Illiterate

16	Ujali Devi Bhandari	F	Illiterate
17	Pashupati Devi Kathayat	F	Illiterate
18	Naru Devi Bhandari	F	Illiterate
19	Kalapati Devi Ayer	F	Illiterate
20	Ganga Devi Bist	F	Illiterate
21	Bhagrati Devi Bist	F	Illiterate
22	Jamani Devi Bohara	F	Illiterate
23	Ujali Devi Bohara	F	Illiterate
24	Latu Devi Saud	F	Illiterate
25	Parbati Devi Saud	F	Illiterate
26	Bhagrati Devi Mahar	F	Illiterate
27	Manmati Devi Parki	F	Illiterate
28	Jasu Devi Ayer	F	Illiterate
29	Basu Devi Bhandari	F	Illiterate
30	Maina Devi Bhatt	F	Illiterate
31	Damber Singh Bist	M	Literate
32	Dinesh Bahadur Bist	M	Literate
33	Min Bahadur Bist	M	Literate
34	Krishna Bahadur Bohara	M	Literate
35	Bhim Singh Bist	M	Literate
36	Dan Bahadur Ayer	M	Literate
37	Shyam Bahadur Ayer	M	Literate
38	Dhan Bahadur Saud	M	Literate
39	Ganesh Parki	M	Literate
40	Sakare Parki	M	Literate
41	Suresh Damai	M	Literate
42	Laxmi Datt Pathak	M	Literate
43	Suresh Tamrakar	M	Literate

44	Bhoj Tamrakar	M	Literate
45	Jaya Raj Bhatt	M	Literate
46	Janaki Kumari Bist	F	Literate
47	Indra Devi Bist	F	Literate
48	Nirmala Kumari Ayer	F	Literate
49	Janaki Devi Bhatt	F	Literate
50	Laxmi Devi Bhandari	F	Literate
51	Shanti Devi Bhandari	F	Literate
52	Munni Devi Khadka	F	Literate
53	Janaki Kumari Bhandari	F	Literate
54	Dambari Devi Bist	F	Literate
55	Parbati Devi Parki	F	Literate
56	Uttima Devi Parki	F	Literate
57	Godawari Devi Bhatt	F	Literate
58	Kalapati Devi Ayer	F	Literate
59	Dropati Kumari Kathayat	F	Literate
60	Kamala Devi Damai	F	Literate