## CHAPTER ONE

## INTRODUCTION

### 1.1 General Background

There are different modes of communication that use different signs. Mainly, the modes of communication are: auditory, vocal, visual, tactile, olfactory and gustatory and among them, language is strongest medium of communication. The majority of linguists and scholars agree that language is the voluntary, vocal system of human communication.

It is believed that language came into existence on this earth since human beings appeared and when they started performing their activities for their survival or basic needs. Language is the most widely used means of communication through which people express their feelings, ideas, desires and thoughts to each other (people) of everyday life. According to Chomsky (1957) language is "A set (finite or infinite) of sentences, each finite in length and constructed out of a finite set of elements" (p.13). In the same way, Sapir (1921) defines language as "A purely human and non-instinctive desires by means of voluntarily produced symbols" (p.8). It is largely believed that language demonstrates the type of person one is. It is the first characteristic people look at to assess us. As soon as we open our mouth, people around us judge what sort of person we are. Thus, we can say that language is the thing which shapes our personality. It is the path through which people can express their whims, intentions and even feelings for the purpose of their daily requirements.

Every language is a system of systems. Within a system too, there are several sub-systems. In Staiger's (1973) words, "Language is an arbitrary symbolic system which is acquired by growing child in his home environment" (p.37). Similarly, in Gimson's (1976) words, "A language is a system of conventional signals used for communication by a whole community. This pattern of conventions covers a system of significant sound units (the phonemes), inflectional and arrangement of 'words' and the association of meaning with words" (p.3). Likewise, Richards et al. (1999), define language as, "........ the system of human communication which consists of the structural arrangement of sound (or their written representation) into larger units, e.g. morphemes, words, sentences, utterances." Same is the view of Block and Trager (1942) when they state. "A language is a system of arbitrary vocal symbols by means of which a social group co-operates" (p.5). According to Wren (1991), "It is the universal medium alike for conveying the common facts and feelings of everyday life and philosopher's searching after truth and all that lies between" (p.1).

All these above mentioned definitions indicate that language is a complex phenomenon used for human communication. It is such a unique gift provided to all human beings which has made them completely different from the other living beings. Language came into universe for human beings to help them survive. It assists people to get adjust in the society. It helps us to be in good relation with community members. It is such a gift which is inevitable and splendid for human beings without which they will be useless and seem to be as a boat without a rudder.

### 1.1. The English Language

There are many languages which are being used in the world. It is believed that more than 6,000 different languages are used in the world today. Among them, no language can be taught to be superior or inferior to other languages in terms of communicative values, however, some languages play more dominant role in a particular situation. English, a global language, occupies a dominant position in the world. It is an international language which functions as a lingua franca throughout the world. It is also the main language of books, newspapers, airports, international businesses, academic conferences, science and technologies, medicines, politics, economics, marketing, laws, pop music, sports, religions, broadcasting, diplomacies, advertising and others. In the same way, English is one of the six official languages of the UNO. Thus, it has become an obligatory as well as a prestigious language.

A survey of the UNESCO shows that more than 60 countries of the world use English as an official language, near about 160 million people listen to English radio programs and over 60 million children study English at the primary level. One third books of the world have been written in English and more than 350 million people of the world speak English as their native language. It is mostly used as a lingua franca or link language of the world on the other.

Undoubtedly, it covers a wide range in the human life. Language is itself a part of human life on the one hand and it is a dominant language of the world on the other. It is a medium to learn history, culture and life style of the people who belong to the English language as their mother tongue. It also helps to exchange culture and to grab golden opportunity in the world. It is also important for accelerating process of development, modernization and civilization in Nepal. Therefore, it is the key medium to link the globe and establish peace, harmony and unity.

### 1.1.2 English Language Teaching Learning Condition

In support of the English language teaching and learning condition in Nepal, Sthapit et al. (1994) described, The importance of the English language in the present day world need not be over emphasized. It is a principal language for international communication and gateway to the world body of knowledge. In view of these facts, the English language is given a great importance in the education system of Nepal. (as cited in Yadav 2007).

Similarly, Bhattarai (1994) has illustrated that,

English has become an indispensable vehicle to the transmission of modern civilization in the nation. It is a passport through which one can visit the whole world and one who knows English can enjoy the advantages of the world citizen. He is received and understood everywhere. Therefore, English is the only means of preventing our isolation from the world and we will act unwisely if we allow ourselves to be enveloped in the folds dark curtain of ignorance (p.226).

As English is an international language and inevitable source of knowledge of non-native speakers, it is taught from grade one up to bachelor level as a compulsory subject in Nepal.

Most of the important books of the world are written and translated in English. In the age of scientific discoveries and development, English is the password of knowledge.

Yadav (2007), The history of teaching English in Nepal goes back to the establishment of Durbar High School, Kathmandu by the then Prime Minister Junga Bahadur Rana in 1910 B.S. The objective behind the establishment of that school was to extend amity and harmonious relationship with England and to educate the children from Rana families. But the course and teaching strategies were based on the curriculum of Indian English School.

The then Prime Minister Chandra Shamsher Rana established Chandra Middle School, the first English medium school outside the Kathmandu valley at Siraha. He also set up, Tribhuvan Chandra College in 1975 B.S. which makes the formal commencement of teaching/learning English in higher education in Nepal. Similarly, S.L.C. Board, together with the development of S.L.C. curriculum including two English papers carrying 100 full marks each, was established in 1990 B.S. Precisely, that curriculum was comprised of short stories, essays, grammar, translation, anthology of verse and so on.

After some time, the New Education System Plan (NESP) was introduced in 2028 B.S. and new curricula in all subjects and all the text materials, including teaching methods and evaluation system were brought into practice and got revised respectively. English curriculum and text books by Nepalese authors were developed and prescribed accordingly for the first time. Since then the curriculum and text materials have been revised timely as per the demand of the day.

Nepal Government has adopted English as a compulsory subject from the very beginning, class one to diploma level. Similarly, the rapid growth of English medium schools and their impact on our society prove that the teachinglearning of the English language has been highly emphasized in Nepal. In the modern age, English has become inevitable for academic and communicative purposes. Therefore, conclusively, we can say that English is such a splendid and giant language which has become the part of human's life in this scientific age.

### 1.1.3 Nepal and Languages: A Linguistic Scenario

Among a very few in numbers in the world's periphery, Nepal is one of the small landlocked countries. It is situated in the lap of the Himalayan ranges. Its total area spreads $1,47,181 \mathrm{sq} . \mathrm{km}$. It is a multilingual, multicultural, multiracial, multi religious and multi occupational country. Because of the diversity of social, cultural and linguistic features, people have presented their separate identity in this territory. Although it is a tiny country in comparison to other countries, it has become very fertile for languages where more than 92 languages are spoken according to the census report 2001 A.D. as shown in the table below

## Table No. 1

## Numbers of Languages Reported in Different Censuses

| Census | Number of Languages |
| :---: | :---: |
| $1952 / 54$ | 44 |
| 1961 | 36 |
| 1971 | 17 |
| 1981 | 18 |
| 1991 | 70 |
| 2001 | 92 |

(Source: CBS 2001)

Most of the languages of Nepal do not have their own written scripts but they exist only in spoken forms. In this regards Yadava (2003) says that, "The 2001 census has identified 92 languages spoken as mother tongues. Besides, a number of languages have been reported as 'unknown' languages, which need to be precisely identified on the basis of field observation and its analysis" (cited in Ghimire, 2007, p.137).

The multilingual scenario in Nepal has thus, created a profound complexity in language planning and language teaching. These languages and innumerable satellite dialects have different genetic affiliation to at least four families which are furnished below under four major language families that are Indo-Aryan, Tibeto-Burman, Austro-Asiatic/Munda and Dravidian. The 'English' and 'Danuwar' languages (targeted ones) fall under Indo-Aryan family.

### 1.1.3.1 Indo-Aryan Family/Group

The Indo-Aryan family of languages is a sub group of the Indo-European family of languages. The languages of Nepal assigned as the languages of the nation belong to this family. The Indo-Aryan languages spoken in Nepal are; (cited in Ray, 2007)
i. Nepali ii. Maithili iii. Bhojpuriiv. Awadhiv. Tharuvi. Rajbanshivii. Danuwarviii. Bengaliix. Maghix. Marawadi (Rajasthani)xi. Kumalxii. Daraixiii. Bhotexvi. Urduxiv. Churautixv. Hindixvii. Englishxviii. Manjhi
xix. Bajjika

### 1.1.3.2 Tibeto-Burman Family/Group

The following languages belong to this family:

| i. | Tamang | ii. | Baram/Maramu | iii. | Angika |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| iv. | Yakkha | v. | Lepcha/Lapche | vi. | Gurung |
| vii. | Raute | viii. | Chhantyal/Chhantel | ix. | Magar |
| x. | Byangshi | xi. | Kaike | xii. | Ghale |
| xiii. | Kagate | xiv. | Hayu | xv . | Newari |
| xvi. | Chepang | xvii. | Bhujel/Khawas | xviii. | Limbu |
| xix. | Dhami | xx. | Lhomi | xxi. | Sherpa |
| xxii. | Sunuwar | xxiii. | Jirel | xxiv. | Dura |
| xxv. | Dhimal | xxvi. | Thakali | xxvii. | Meche |
| xxviii. | Raji | xxix. | Pahari | xxx. | Koche |

### 1.1.3.3 Dravidian Family/Group

This Language family consists of only one language, namely, 'Jhangar/Shanger' which is spoken around the Saptkoshi River in the Eastern part of Nepal, especially in Sunsari and Morang districts.

### 1.1.3.4 Austro-Asiatic/Munda Family/Group

This language family also includes only one language that is "Satar" (Santhali) which is spoken in the Eastern Region of Nepal especially in Jhapa district.

Among the four language families mentioned above, the Tibeto-Burman language family is the largest and richest one as it covers a large number of languages.

### 1.1.4 Introduction to Danuwar: A Short Survey

As the target of the researcher is to study, find out and compare the negation systems of English with that of the Danuwar language, the brief scenerio of Danuwar people and other things related to them are illustrated in the following points.

### 1.1.4. Origin of Danuwar

Danuwar (as an ethnic group) is one of the subgroups of Kirants who came from the Southern Himalayan Region following the old legends. Bishnu Puran mentions that Kiranti people ruled in Nepal before Lichhavi Dynasty. Kiranti people were the ancestors of the ethnic groups like Rai, Limbu, Magar, Tharu, Darai, Danuwar, Chepang, Kumale etc. The word 'Danuwar' is the Nepali translation of the Sanskrit word 'Droniwar.' In Sanskrit 'droni' means 'plain area' near the river bank between two hills (dune).

Every tribe has its own history from the point of view of its origin, development, its language, culture and religion. There are different views on the origin of Danuwar. Some say that the Danuwars do not know their origin. But they narrate a myth. It reads as follows: once a drought occurred during the reign of Narendradev in Bhaktapur. It was about 1400 years ago. At that time, Local people were brought with Lord Matsyendranath and left them at Duku. The drought lasted for 12 years. The people were anxious. The king considered himself as the guardian of his people and their suffering made him very sad. They attempted to get rid of the problem, but it was in vain. Ultimately, the king came to know that it was the result of not giving alms to Baba Gorkhnath by the Nepalvashi (valley dwellers). The king was informed that the Baba was the disciple of Lord Matsyendranath. He, being furious, thought the Nepalvashi must be punished and he accumulated all the serpents of the valley and got into the trance making the serpents cushion.

The serpents were considered the source of water (rain). He would leave the seat only for making reverence to his 'guru' Lord Matsyendranath. Then the serpents could go to their respective abode and Nepalvashi would get rain. Thus the problem would be solved.

After sometime, the king ordered to manage necessary arrangements for Matsyendranath's arrival. In the team, the king himself, Lalit Jyapu (Newar peasant), Acharya (teacher) Bandhudutta, Nagraj (the king of the serpents) Karkotak were included. They went to Machekamaru (Kamrup Kamakshi Pith, Assam of Eastern India). As a great effort, the king was able to bring the Lord Matsyendranath putting into the Kalash (pitcher) with the power of tantram. The team was forbidden to leave the doko (basket in which the kalash was kept) anywhere till it arrived last destination. But the team halted the night at present Duku and left the doko on the ground. The next day they found a girl child playing in duna (bowl of leaf) that was in the doko. Later, offsprings of the girl became the Danuwars and their settlement was called Doko. Later, it was changed into Duku." (Narrated by Neupane, cited in Banjade 2002)

According to Roydanuwar (2005 pp. 19-20), there are four myths as to the origin of Danuwars:

1. Tirhutiya king Hari Singh Dev was allowed to marry Deval Devi, Rudra Malla's sister during the invasion of the valley led by Prime Minister Chandeshwor Thakur. On the way back to Simaraungarh, a few battalions were left directing to watch over Kathmandu valley. The battalions at present are called 'Pahari'.
2. The battalions escaped to valley during the invasion over Simaraungarh by Gayasuddhin Tulglak were called Danuwars.
3. The entourage of Harisingh Dev to valley for the third time were known as Kachhade Rai.
4. The Tagadhari Danuwar of Saptari went as the members of marriage procession of Sthiti Malla who called themselves 'Balami' (Bhaladmi means gentleman) in the valley.

According another story, a rich young boy died and his wife was forced to follow Sati Custom (burning with the death body of husband) but she escaped from pyre and she was married to one of her distant 'devars' (brother-in-law). That is to say, she convinced him against the chaste ('Sati' in Nepali system) and later on they began to live as wife and husband. They started to live in the dune (river-bank). Their descendants are known as Danuwar (Dhungana, 2040 B.S. cited in Shrestha, 2007)

A next folk tale says, a king of Simaraungarh had built a palace for his daughter. She was very beautiful. A demon from Lanka knew it, came to the palace and fell in love with the girl. Later, she gave birth to five sons from him. Among them one was 'Danuwar' and other four sons were- Newar, Kirant, Limbu, and Sunuwar (Dhakal, 2036 B.S, p.11).

According to Nagendra Sharma (Nepali Janajiban, 2037 B.S, pp. 60-61), people who were living in low valley and 'Dun' are called 'Danuwar' and they were spreaded in different districts from 'Simaraungarh' in the fourteen century.

### 1.1.4.2 Danuwar People

Danuwar are listed as an indigenous people (NFDIN, 2003 p. 54). They are living in the hamlet of 'Duku' in the bank of Bagmati River in Kathmandu valley. They are Kardo, tanned in appearance, some of them are 'Gora' light. They resemble the Newar Maharjans. Toffin (2007), ranked them just below the 'Jyapu', Newar farmer caste (p. 15) Danuwar (2006) has written- "Danuwars are having the physical properties of tan colour, short or average height, flat or round face slightly raised chick bones, unclear chin, small eyes and black hair" (p.14). The description applies partially correct in the case of Dukumians. Bista, (1973) has written, "Danuwar...... a bit dark complexion and slim body, strong enough although they seem lean" (cited in Banjade, 2002, p.85).

The Danuwar people live in 'don' (dune) region of Nepal. Their traditional profession is fishing and hunting but nowadays they cannot earn their living in their traditional profession because the rivers are too much polluted and fish are rarely found, and hunting wild animals in the jungle is illegal now and even wild animals are rarely found. Danuwar people have Mangolian faces. The caste Danuwar was famed as 'Droniwar' in 1617 A.D. (Danuwar, 1993/94 p. 24, cited in Banjade, 2002)

### 1.1.4.3 Location

Although Danuwar people are regarded as the indigenous people of Nepal, it is not yet determined their original or indigenous place. The peripheral areas of the Gandaki and Koshi Rivers and their tributaries are the main places where the Danuwar people have been inhabitating for a long (Bandhu, 2052 B.S, p.12).

Danuwar people seemed to have been living in the jungles and riversides. Their traditional profession was fishing and hunting since long. (Bista, 2042 B.S.). They mainly live in the inner Terai, river and stream banks. Their main places of residence are the neighbouring districts of Kathmandu, Danuwarbensi and Makwanpur (Bhandari, 2045 B.S, p.12).

The Danuwar people of the study area also live in a dune region in the neighbouring district of Kathmandu that is in Kavrepalanchok. Nowadays, Danuwar people are found all over the country because of their migration and traveling from one place to another in course of searching for jobs.

### 1.1.4.4 Population

The National Census Report of 1991 shows that the greatest population of Danuwar is in the districts of Central Development Region and second greatest population of Danuwar is in Eastern Development Region. There are only 1,891 Danuwar people in all other development regions. The districts where more than 1000 Danuwar are living are shown in the table below.

The districts where more than 1000 Danuwars live are:

Table No. 2
Districts where More than 1000 Danuwar Live

| Eastern Development Region |  |  |
| :--- | :--- | :---: |
| SN | Districts | Population |
| 1. | Jhapa | 1,158 |
| 2. | Morang | 1,570 |
| 3. | Udayapur | 6,643 |
| 4. | Siraha | 7,290 |
|  | Central Development Region |  |
| 1. | Dhanusha | 4,315 |
| 2. | Mahottari | 1,739 |
| 3. | Sarlahi | 5,733 |
| 4. | Sindhuli | 9,985 |
| 5. | Sindhupalchok | 2,298 |
| 6. | Kavrepalanchok | 4,118 |

In the very short glance of above presentation, we can say that the Central Development Region is still the original place and region of Danuwar people. Gradually, their population is increasing in the Eastern Development Region including with other regions.

According to the population census- 2001 (Social Characteristics Tables Vol1, Part VII) Nepal, the number of Danuwar people living in different zones and districts of Nepal are given in Appendix- V. According to census, the total number of Danuwar speakers is 36,807 i.e. $0.16 \%$ of the total population.

### 1.1.4.5 The Danuwar Language: An Overview

Danuwar people speak their own language. The language that they speak is the 'Danuwar Language' which is their own mother tongue. The Danuwar language of one place is different than that of the others because of the influence of other languages. The Danuwar language which is spoken in the Terai is influenced by Maithili, Bhojpuri and Tharu. Similarly, the Danuwar language that is spoken in the inner Terai and mountain is influenced by the Nepali language. The Danuwar language has its own identity but it is losing its status due to the influence of other languages. Most of the young Danuwar people have forgotten and are being forgetting their own language because of the various influences. It is a very miserable condition. So, the study of the Danuwar language is the most necessary aspect to ensure its status because all the languages existed in the country are the cultural property of the nation. There are different varieties of the Danuwar language. In this Thesis, the researcher has studied the Danuwar dialect of Kavrepalanchok district of DevbhoomiBaluwa VDC as it has majority of Danuwar people (cited from Ghimire, 2007).

### 1.1.4.5.a. Genetic Affiliation

Danuwar is an Indo-Aryan language, Bandhu, (2005, p.52) has put Danuwar language under the Magadhi Prakrit. Pokhrel, (2050, p.54) has presented the following tree diagram of genetic relationship.

## Figure No. 1 <br> Genetic Affiliations-A

(Source: Pokhrel, 1998 p. 96)

From the above diagram, it is clear that the Danuwar language falls under Magadhi branch of Indo-Aryan language family. For more vivid and broad picture, the researcher has mentioned the genealogical chart from Yadava, (2003, cited in Shrestha, 2007 b)

Figure No. 2
Genetic Affiliations-B

Linguists are not of the same opinion regarding the evolution of this language. According to Sharma, and Baral, (2050 B.S, cited in Bhandari, 2005 b), it is an Indo-Aryan language. It has been developed from Magadhi Prakrit. Since it is spoken by Danuwar people, it is called Danuwari. Pokhrel, (2043 B.S, ibid), has classified different Indo-Aryan languages of Nepal and put Danuwar as a member of the languages under Nepali group as the above diagram shows and the same view is presented by Yadava, (2003) by the above diagram where as the researcher thinks that the Danuwar language comes as the neighbouring language of Tharu, Magadhi and others.

### 1.1.4.5.b. Vocabulary

Most of the vocabulary in the Danuwar language, it seems, has been borrowed from the neighboring languages. Therefore, the vocabulary in this language shares features of, mostly, other Indo-Aryan languages spoken in the area. For example, in Kavre, most of the words have been borrowed from Nepali or are pronounced with Nepali influences, whereas in the Terai, it shows influences of the Terain languages like Maithili, Bhojpuri, Tharu, etc. According to Kueglers, on the basis of Swadesh-100 words list, Rai Danuwar has 73\% cognates with Nepali. Similarly, Don Danuwar and Kacharya Danuwar are $90 \%$ and $62 \%$ cognate with Nepali, respectively. And, within themselves, Don Danuwar is $41 \%$ cognate with Rai Danuwar and Kacharya Danuwar is $49 \%$ cognate with Rai Danuwar.

### 1.1.4.5.c. Phonology

It has thirty five phonemes, out of which six are vowels and twenty nine are consonants. Aspiration is contrastive in all the stops and affricates. (c) (c) v (c) is the permitted syllable pattern in this language. It has nine types of vowel sequences which occupy the nuclear position in syllable structure.

## i. Consonants

The following schematic table presents the phonemic inventory of the consonants of the Danuwar language in terms of place of articulation, manner of articulation and voicing.

Table No. 3
Phonemic Inventory of Consonants
$\left.\begin{array}{|l|c|c|c|c|c|c|c|}\hline & \text { Bilabial } & \text { Dental } & \text { Alveolar } & \text { Palatal } & \text { Velar } & \text { Glottal } \\ \hline \text { Stop } & \mathrm{p} & \mathrm{b} & \mathrm{t} & \mathrm{d} & \mathrm{T} & \mathrm{D} & \\ \mathrm{ph} & \mathrm{bh} & \mathrm{th} & \mathrm{dh} & \mathrm{Th} & \mathrm{Dh} & & \mathrm{k} \\ \mathrm{kh} & \mathrm{gh}\end{array}\right]$

The above table shows that there are 29 consonant phonemes in this language. Aspiration is contrastive in all stops and affricates, e.g.

```
paataa 'leaf' and phaataa 'tear up'
toro 'your' and thoro 'tortoise'
dar 'rate' and dhar ' keep'
khambaa 'to put together' and khambhaa 'pillar'
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Three nasals (bilabial, alveolar and velar) are found. This language shows only two fricative phonemes; one is alveolar and the other is glottal. Alveolar trill and alveolar lateral are also found. Similarly, two glides (labial and palatal) are also attested. An aspirated series of both voiceless and voiced stops, producing a four-way contrast $/ \mathrm{p}, \mathrm{ph}, \mathrm{b}, \mathrm{bh} /$ at four points of articulation (bilabial, dental, alveolar and velar) is also found.

## ii. Vowels

This language illustrates six vowels; three front, two back and one central. They are presented in the following table:

Table No. 4
Phonemic Inventory of Vowel Sounds

Nasalization is contrastive and phonemic, especially with the loan words, e.g. baas 'shelter' and bããs 'bamboo', whereas length is not contrastive, i. e. it is only phonetic not phonemic. Vowel length is used to give emphasis, e.g.
> taaro 'far away' taa:ro 'very far away'
> bihaani 'morning' bihaa:ni 'early morning'

Sometimes, vowel length may occur in careful speech especially in monosyllabic units and in open syllables, e.g.

| Normal speech | $\underline{\text { Careful speech }}$ | Meaning |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| $m o D$ | $m o: D$ | 'beer' |
| $d h u r$ | $d h u: r$ | 'dust' |

## iii. Syllable Structures

The very common syllable pattern in this language is a consonant followed by a vowel -CV. The structure of syllable in this language can be indicated by (C) $(C) V(C)$, i.e. the maximum number of initial consonants (onset) is 2 and arresting consonants (coda) is 1 in the Danuwar language. In this way, there are 6 types of syllable patterns in the Danuwar language.

They are as follows:

1. v: i 'this'
2. CV: khaa 'eat'
3. CVC: moD 'home made beer'
4. VC: ek 'one'
5. CCV: kyaa 'what'
6. CCVC: syaag 'husband'
(Source: Bhandari, (2005): Danuwar Language Spoken in Kavre)

### 1.1.5 Grammatical Transformation: An Overview

Noam Chomsky (1957) uses the term 'Transformation' for the first time in his linguistic theory 'Transformational Generative Grammar' (henceforth TG Grammar) that means transforming one structure of a sentence into another i.e. deep structure into surface structure. Transformation is a rule of potentiality which may be applied to input altering it to produce the other as an output.

According to Chomsky (1957), "A transformation is defined by the structural analysis of the strings to which it applies and the structural change that it effects on these strings" (p. 111). Similar is the view of Funk and Wagnalls (1960), they define transformation as, "The act of transforming or the state of being transformed, a change in form, nature or character" (p. 2549). Like that Robins (1967) views, "Essentially transformation is a method of stating how the structures of many sentences in languages can be certain basic structures" (p. 242).

From the above definitions, we can say that the TG Grammar is a model of the native speaker's competence which contains the finite set of rules that can generate infinite number of all and only grammatical sentences of a language and map them onto others. Therefore, TG Grammar is both generative and transformational in nature and a part of a functional grammar.

There are two types of transformational rules, obligatory transformation in the case of kernel and optional transformation in the case of non-kernel sentences. The basic (kernel) sentence like affirmative, active, and direct can be transformed into derived (non-kernel) sentences like 'negative', interrogative, passive and indirect respectively applying four T-rules as:
i. Addition
ii. Deletion
iii. Substitution and
iv. Permutation

The construction of grammar consists of three levels of language viz phonology, syntax and semantics. Among them, syntax is the grammar of sentences. It studies how words combine to form sentences and rules which govern the formation of sentences.
'Negative' is the part of syntax which involves other transformations as well.

## Figure No. 3

## Types of Transformation

## Syntax

## Transformation

Negation Interrogation Passivization Narration

### 1.1.5.1 Negation and its Meaning

'Negation' is a process in grammar to contradict the meaning or part of the meaning of a sentence. If we want to oppose or deny the truth of something, we use the negative form of the sentence.

- According to Crystal (1997), "Negative is a process or construction in grammatical or semantic analysis which typically expresses the contradictions of some of or all of a sentences meaning" (p. 279).
- In the same way, Funk and Wagnall (1960) define negation as, "The act of denying or of asserting the falsity of as proposition" (p. 1660).

Negative transformation means when speakers want to deny something they use the negative form of the sentences. In English grammar, it is expressed by inserting the negative particle 'no' and 'not'. The opposite 'pole' of negative is 'positive' or 'affirmative', and the system of contrasts made by a language in this area is often referred to 'polarity'. Negative polarity items are those words or phrases which can appear only in a negative environment in a sentence e.g. 'any' in 'I haven't got any books.' (cf. * I have got any books) Crystal (1997).

According to Bhandari, (2008 pp. 59-72), "A negative construction is the construction which states that some event, situation, or state of affairs does not hold." Usually, these clauses occur in the context of some presupposition, functioning to negate or counter assert that presupposition (Payne 1997 p. 282) That is to say if someone says, "Ram won't come today", the speaker probably presume the addressee presupposes or believes that Ram will come today.

Negation is a marked phenomenon in all the languages of the world. Different languages exhibit different ways of marking this grammatical phenomenon. According to Payne (1997),

Negation can be viewed as lexical, morphological and analytic negation. Lexical negation describes a situation in which the concept of negation is an essential part of the lexical semantics of a particular verb. For example, the verb 'lack' in English can be thought of as the lexical negative of 'have'. In morphological negation, the morphemes that express negation are normally associated with the verb. Analytic negation, on the other hand, can be expressed either by negative particles or by finite negative verbs (pp. 282-283).

### 1.1.5.1.a. Types of English Negation

As the English language is an international lingua franca, it has broad varieties of markers for a certain function in every level. 'Negation' is one of the functions of language which operates by using various negative markers. According to the use of those markers, we can categorize the English negation. The research includes the following types of negations based on the secondary source, particularly, (Thomson and Martinet, 1985, cited in Yadav, 2006).

## i. Negation in Presence of the Negative Marker 'not'

Commonly the English language has negative sentence consisting of the negative marker 'not'. This negative marker is used in the sentence just after the 'aux' verbs of the sentence. The sentences based on each tense consist of the negative marker 'not' with appropriate 'aux' verbs to appear to be negative sentences, e.g. Pranav does not eat a mango.

## ii. Negation in Presence of 'no' in the Sentence

In this type of negation 'no' functions as the negative marker and it takes place after the 'aux' verb in a sentence in the form of phrasal negation. But this marker does not appear with each 'aux' in English negation, e.g. This is no smoking area.

## iii. Negation Formed by Lexical Negative Words

There are certain lexical words such as 'never', 'nobody', 'nothing' etc in English which function as the negative marker 'not' in the sentence. When such word is used in the sentence, the negative marker 'not' is deliberately excluded. e.g. Rishav never goes to temple.

## iv. Negation with Modal 'aux'

In English the negative sentence is also formed by placing the negative marker 'not' just after the modal 'aux' in the sentence. This type of negation in English is somehow similar to that of the one stated in no. (a) above, e.g. They could not win the match.

## v. Negation in the Form of Contracted 'not'

The negative marker 'not' in some English negations comes in the contracted form. In such condition the negative marker 'not' is added with the 'aux' verb omitting the alphabet 'o' and giving apostrophe 't' for examples aren't, couldn't etc.

## v. Negative Command

Such negation in English appears in the imperative sentence. In this type of negation, the sentence begins with 'aux' 'do' and is followed by the negative marker 'not' in its contracted form. Sometimes such sentence begins with the word 'never' as well, e.g. 'don't smoke' or 'never smoke'.

## vi. Negation in the Form of Question

In English the negative sentence also appears in the form of question sentence and is termed as 'interrogative- negative' form. In this type of sentence the 'aux' verb takes place in the beginning of the sentence and the negative marker 'not' sometimes comes after the 'aux' verb in its contracted form and sometimes it comes after the subject. e.g. Does Ram not eat a mango?

## vii. Negation by Using Antonyms

Sometimes negation appears in English with antonym of a particular lexical word to give negative meaning. e.g. Ram is poor.

## viii.Negation by Adding Affixes

Especially in word level, the negation of the words can be made by adding either derivational prefixes or suffixes. e.g. Soni is unhappy.

### 1.1.6 Need and Importance of Contrastive Analysis (CA)

Contrastive Analysis popularly abbreviated as CA basically means the systematic analysis of similarities and differences between languages concerning the nature and principles of second or foreign language learning and teaching. Contrastive analysis for the first time was developed in the United States advocated by American linguists, CC Fries and Robert Lado, which is also known as Fries-Lado School. CC Fries is believed to have made clarion call for CA in 1945 in his book entitled 'Teaching and Learning as Foreign Language'.

Later in 1957, Robert Lado, elaborated the details and seminal idea for CA in his book 'Linguistics Across Culture', where he claims that we can predict and describe the patterns that will cause difficultly in learning and those that will not by comparing systematically, the language and culture to be learned with the native language and culture of the students.

Lado(1957) provided three underlying assumptions of CA, which have significant role in language teaching.
a. Individuals tend to transfer the forms and meanings and distribution of forms and meanings of their native language and culture to the foreign language and culture, both productivity when attempting to speak the language $\qquad$ and respectively when attempting to group and understand the language.
b. In the comparison between native and foreign languages lies the key to ease or difficulty in foreign language learning.
c. The teacher who has made the comparison of native languages of the students will know better what the real learning problems are and can better provide for teaching them. (pp. 1-2)

Contrastive Analysis helps the actor in language teaching and learning effectively. It is especially used to:

- find out the areas of similarities and differences.
- find out the areas where students are likely to commit errors.
- improve teaching.
- give feedback to prepare teaching materials.
- help for remedial teaching.
- help the syllabus designers and text book writers for easy to complex grading.


### 1.2 Review of the Related Literature

A number of linguistic comparative research works have been completed on various languages as on Nepali, Newari, Tamang, Kumal, Limbu, Rai, Bantawa, Tharu, Maithili, Santhali, Magar and so on in the department of English Education, T.U. Kirtipur. But, there is not any research work on the Danuwar language besides the thesis of Ghimire, 2007 therefore, as the second research on the Danuwar language and the first on 'Negative Transformation' of it.

The researcher studied different books, journals, websites, magazines and articles related to 'Negation in English and Danuawar' with many other similar languages. Besides those books and papers, he studied many theses related to the topic carried out under the department of English Education. Some of the previously studied theses are as follows:

- Yadav (2006), has completed a research on 'Negation in English and Maithili: A Comparative Study'. His main objective of the research was to present a contrastive analysis of a specific area of English and Maithili namely negation. As his research was totally descriptive, it was based on the secondary available data. He found out that the number of negative markers in English and Maithili are different and similar is the case with their placement
- Ghimire (2007), has carried out a research on 'English and Danuwar Kinship Terms: A Comparative Study'. He wanted to determine various kinship terms used to signify the Danuwar kinship relation and to compare and contrast them with English kinship terms. The relationship between kinship terms of both the languages are 'Mono-Danuwar vs Multi- English and 'Mono-English vs Multi Danuwar'.
- Yadav (2007), made an endeavour to carry out a research entitled, 'Negative and Interrogative Transformation in the English and Maithili Languages: A Comparative Study'. He attempted to identify the processes of negative and interrogative transformations and to compare and contrast them with those in English. His findings of the study were that the negative marker in English is 'not' or 'n't' which are placed after an auxiliary verb whereas the negative marker in Maithili is 'nai' which is added immediately before the main verb and sometimes at the middle or final position of the relational verbs.
- Ray (2007), has done a research work entitled, 'Negative and Interrogative Transformation in English and Maithili: A Comparative Study'. He attempted to identify the processes of negative and interrogative transformations in the Maithili language and to compare and contrast them with those of English. His major findings were that the negative and interrogative transformation systems of English and Maithili are similar to some extent. English has only one negative marker 'not' or 'n't' which is placed after an auxiliary verb. On the contrary, Maithili has got 'nahi' and 'nəhi' which are placed just before the main verb. There is use of operator addition (do, does, did) in absence of auxiliary verbs in English but this very rule is not needed in the Maithili language. For interrogative transformation of English, w/h-word or auxiliary verbs are needed to be fronted but in Maithili 'Ki' is used at the beginning, etc.
- Jha (2007), has submitted a research job entitled on 'A Semantic Analysis of English and Maithili Verbs'. He attempted to compare the English and Maithili verbs that are related to actions performed by the different parts of the body and find out the similarities and differences. He also intended to compare and contrast the semantic description of the verbs of both languages using componential analysis approach. One of the major findings of that study was that Maithili verbs are structurally complex in compare to English verbs. They generally end with '-nai' (e.g. khe-nai, pi-nai, je-nai, etc) which is the distinctive feature of Maithili language.
- Bharati (2007), carried out an research on "Comparing Speaking and Writing Ability of Grade X Students." He attempted to determine and compare the levels of speaking and writing proficiency of the tenth grade students of Morang district in English language texts. His major findings comprised that students' mother tongues affect in speaking and writing ability in English language. And, the government schools (Community Schools) students of urban region excelled the government school students of rural region. However, there is no significant difference.
- Khatri (2009), conducted a comparative linguistic study entitled 'Negativization in the English and Tharu Languages'. The main purpose of that study was to determine the negation system of Tharu language and to compare that system with English language. His finding was that the number of negative markers and their placement in English are different than that of the 'Tharu language'

Since the number of research is not enough on the Danuwar language, in the Department of English Education, the researcher has realized it as a linguistic negligence and commenced the research for making it a break though in the development of minority language.

### 1.3 Objectives of the Study

The study had the following objectives:
a. To identify types, places and processes of negative transformation in English and Danuwar languages.
b. To compare and contrast the processes of negative transformation between the English and Danuwar languages.
c. To suggest some pedagogical implications.

### 1.4 Conceptual Framework

Conceptual framework of the study is shown in the following figure:

## Figure No. 4

## Conceptual Framework of the Study

### 1.5 Significance of the Study

The study has dealt with the processes of negative transformation in the Danuwar language and compare it with reference to English. As this study is a linguistic comparative study, it will be much beneficial and fruitful for the Department of English Education itself in the field of Danuwar language, the researchers of Danuwar language in future, the language planners, syllabus designers, text book writers, students, and teachers of language and linguistics and other people who are very much curious to know and do something in this area and the linguists as it will provide insights on negative transformations in the Danuwar language along with that of English.

### 1.6 Definitions of the Specific Terms

- Comparative: Comparative is a term used to characterize a major branch of linguistics in which the primary concern is to make statements comparing the characteristics of different languages (dialects, varieties, etc), or different historical states of a language.
- Negation: Negation is a process or construction in grammatical and semantic analysis which typically expresses the contradiction of some or all of a sentence meaning.
- Negativization: Negativization is a process in grammatical analysis of transformational process of transforming the positive sentences into negative.
- Transformation: Transformation is formal linguistic operation which enables two levels of structural representation to be placed in correspondence.
- Addition: Addition is a basic operation within the framework of transformational generative grammar which introduces (adds) a new structural element into a string.
- Deletion: Deletion is a basic operation within the frame work of transformational generative grammar, which eliminates a constitute of an input phrase-marker.
- Substitution: Substitution used in linguistics to refer to the process or result of replacing one item by another at particular place in a structure.
- Permutation: Permutation is a basic kind of transformational operation which has the effect of moving constituents (usually one at a time) from one part of a phrase-marker to another.
- Inversion: Inversion is a term used in grammatical analysis to refer to the process or result of syntactic change in which specific sequence constituents is seen as the reverse of another.


## CHAPTER TWO

## METHODOLOGY

Methodology is an essential element of a research. So, it is framed in such a way that helps to carry out the study more systematically and scientifically. The following strategies have been adopted to carry out the research and to fulfill the above mentioned objectives:

### 2.1 Sources of Data

The researcher has adopted and utilized both primary and secondary sources of data to meet the objectives and complete the research study.

### 2.1.1 Primary Source

The primary sources of data for the study were 100 Danuwar native speaker students of Shree Azad Higher Secondary School, Devbhoomi-Baluwa- 5, Kavrepalanchok district as there were more than $60 \%$ of Danuwar students among about 800, from whom the researcher elicited the required data.

### 2.1.2 Secondary Sources

The secondary sources of data for the study were different books, journals, magazines, reports, websites, and theses related to the topic. Regarding the information on the negation of the English and Danuwar languages and others, the researcher utilized the previous papers and theses completed by Banjade, (2002), Bhandari, (2005 b), Yadav, (2006), Ghimire, (2007), Ray, (2007), Bharati, (2007), Shrestha, (2007 b), Khatri, (2009) and many others.

### 2.2 Population of the study

The population of the study were the students of native speakers of the Danuwar language from Shree Azad Higher Secondary School, Devbhoomi-Baluwa- 5, Kavrepalanchok district.

### 2.3 Sampling Procedure

The sample population of the study were 100 Danuwar students studying in the two levels (Secondary and Higher Secondary) of Shree Azad Higher Secondary School, Devbhoomi-Baluwa- 5, Kavrepalanchok. Fifty students from each level had been chosen by using probability sampling; simple random sampling procedure for data collection.

The researcher made two groups of boys and girls (there were more than 100 students in these two levels) wrote their roll numbers in small pieces of paper and put them into two pots and made a child to take out 50 from each to maintain gender equality.

### 2.4 Research Tools

For the collection of data, the researcher used a set of structured questionnaire to be filled in and elicited the required data from the informants related to the topic. The sample of research tools are given in the 'Appendix- ii'.

### 2.5 Processes of Data Collection

The step wise procedures of the primary data collection that had been adopted by the researcher are as follows:
a. He developed a set of structured questionnaire under the guidance of his research supervisor.
b. He went to the selected school and established a rapport with the selected informants and administration.
c. He motivated the respondents by explaining clearly and in simple language about the objectives and relevance of the study.
d. He requested them for their invaluable co-operation and collected the required information for the completion of the study.
e. He requested the selected informants to fill in the questionnaire in their mother language with the help of given clues of the Nepali and English languages.
f. At last, he thanked the informants after finishing the filling in of the test items and collected the sheets.

### 2.6 Limitations of the Study

The researcher has carried out his research with the following limitations.
a. The study was limited only to the Danuwar native speaker students of Shree Azad Higher Secondary School, Devbhoomi-Baluwa- 5, Kavrepalanchok district
b. Only 100 students in number were chosen for data elicitation.
c. Two levels of the school (Secondary and Higher Secondary) were the sources of informants.
d. Fifty students from each level were the target informants.
e. The study was limited only to the process of negative transformation in the Danuwar language and comparison with that of the English language.
f. The research was carried out only at word level, phrasal level and sentence level of negations.
g. The negative transformation was confined only to 'assertive' sentence.
h. The transformations were only on simple sentences.
i. The study used probability sampling: simple random sampling procedure.
j. It was also only limited to a set of structured questionnaire to be filled up in the Danuwar language with the help of English and Nepali sentences.

## CHAPTER THREE

## ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION

This chapter is dealt with the analysis and interpretation of data obtained from the informants and secondary sources. Firstly, the analysis of rules of negative transformations of English has been done mainly on the basis of secondary data extracted especially from Cowan, (2009), Thomans and Martinent (1986), Secondly, the rules of negative transformations of the Danuwar language has been analyzed on the basis of oral and written primary data which will elicit from 100 Danuwar native speaker students of Shree Azad Higher Secondary School, Devbhoomi-Baluwa- 5, Kavrepalanchok district. After that the comparison and contrast of the processes of negative transformations of the Danuwar language has been done with those of the English language. The systematically collected data have been transcribed, coded, analyzed and interpreted descriptively and comparatively with the help of appropriate tools, tables, figures and illustrations. At last, after finishing the data comparison, the points of similarities and differences have been taken out between the processes of negative transformations of the English and Danuwar languages with illustrations that are mentioned in the analysis below under the various titles and subtitles.

### 3.1 Holistic Analysis of Negation System in the Danuwar Language

Holistic analysis of negation system in the Danuwar language has been done with the help of collected data from the target respondents which are dealt with in the following sub titles.

### 3.1.1 Word Level Negations

i. soni $K^{h}$ usi
b ike
soni happy NEG- be. PRES
'Soni is unhappy.'
ii. i baky lok n i suhalal
those sentences NEG- appropriate -be. PRES
'Those sentences are inappropriate.'

| iii. u | kam | kri | $\mathrm{s} \mathrm{mb}^{\mathrm{h} w}$ | $\mathrm{rc}^{\mathrm{h}} \mathrm{ik}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| that | work | do | impossible | be. PRES |

'It is impossible to do that work.'
iv. moro
buba
g rib
r hl k
my grandfather
poor
be.PT
'My grandfather was poor.'
$v$. dinese moro kamk alocnak ris
dines my work criticize.PRES
'Dinesh criticizes my work.'
vi. deb iskul $\mathrm{k} \mathrm{k}^{\mathrm{h}}$ nukanhi $\quad \mathrm{j}$ is
dev school hardly go.PRES
'Dev hardly goes to school.'
vii.hamlai s h yog boi r h l
we help NEG-be.PT
'We were helpless.'

| viii. d raj | up r | cutek | kitablok | r hlik |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| shelf | on | few | books | be.PT |

'There were few books on the shelf.'
ix. kunup ni boi ail
somebody NEG-arrive.PT
'Nobody arrived.'
x. hamro mast $\mathrm{r} \mathrm{kk}^{\mathrm{h}}$ nukanhi iskul ais
our teacher rarely school come. PRES
'Our teacher rarely comes to school.'

From the above mentioned examples, it can be drawn that the negation system at word level in the Danuwar language is generally represented by 'n i', boi' and 'b ike'. Lexical words are also used in the system for the same purpose.

For example:

Table No. 5

## Lexical Negations

| The English Language | The Danuwar Language |
| :---: | :---: |
| rarely | $\mathrm{k} \mathrm{k}^{\mathrm{h}}$ nukanhi |
| impossible | $\mathrm{s} \mathrm{mb}^{\mathrm{h}} \mathrm{w}$ |
| poor | g rib |
| criticize | alocna, etc. |

On the contrary, the negation of the English language at the word level can be derived by adding derivational prefixes to a word.

For example:

Table No. 6
Negation with Derivational Prefixes

| happy | unhappy |
| :--- | :--- |
| like | dislike |
| regular | irregular |
| appropriate | inappropriate, etc |

Similarly, suffixes are also used to negate the words in the English language.

For example:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { help }+ \text { less }=\text { helpless } \\
& \text { care }+ \text { free }=\text { carefree }
\end{aligned}
$$

In the same way, 'antonyms' are also used for the system of negation in word level.

For example:
rich - poor
appreciate - criticize, etc.

### 3.1.2 Phrasal Level Negations

i. kic $^{\text {h up ni }}$ yoj nalok b naleken
no
'No plans have been made.'
ii. i $\quad d^{h} u m r$ pan $k r i \quad n$ imil lar $c^{h} e t r \quad$ ho this smoking do NEG-accept area be.PRES
'This is no smoking area.'
iii. wol $k p^{h}$ eri ggreji $n$ i sas lar nirn e $k$ rilat they again english NEG-speak decide do.PT 'They decided not to speak English again.'
iv. kunup ni $\quad k^{h}$ eladilek ${ }^{h} e \quad k^{h} e l \quad$ jite $\quad n$ iparhat no players game win NEG-can
'No players can win the game.'
v. gaŭkekunupanic ${ }^{h}$ watelok iskul $\quad n i j i^{h} t$ village no children school NEG-go.PRES 'No children in the village go to school.'
vi. moro $b^{h}$ ai byah $n$ ik rlar nirn $y \quad k$ ril $k$ my young brother marry NEG-do decide do.be.PRES 'My young brother has decided not to marry.'
vii. mui c mm map rnuc ${ }^{h}$ kinaleiki kic $^{\mathrm{h}}$ upani bik lp anl boir hl i surprise that no alternative propose NEG-do
'I am surprised that no alternative was proposed.'
viii. moro saygip isa $\quad b$ iken
i have money NEG-be.PRES
'I have no money.'
ix. done tolma kunup ni manc ${ }^{\mathrm{h}} \mathrm{e} \mathrm{bidd}^{\mathrm{h}}$ yabarid $^{\mathrm{h}} \mathrm{i}$ prapt b iken danuwar society no person Ph.D getNEG-do.PRES
'No person in Danuwar society has got Ph.D.'
x. ris $b^{h}$ gaŭ $\quad n$ ip $^{h}$ rk lar nirn y $k$ ril $k$
rishav village NEG-return decide do.be.PRES
'Rishav has decided not to return village.'

After analyzing the above mentioned examples, it is clear that the negation system at phrasal level in the Danuwar language is represented by 'n i', 'boi', 'b iken' and leken' which are added with the main verbs and sometimes with auxiliary verbs immediately before of them.

But in English, the system of negation at phrasal level is determined by 'no' and 'not' which are attached before the noun phrase in the case of 'no' and before of infinitive verbs in the case of 'not'

### 3.1.3 Sentence Level Negations

i. $\operatorname{sob}^{h} \mathrm{a}$ rajbirajma n ibsis
shova rajbiraj NEG-live.PRES
'Shova does not live in Rajbiraj.'

they school NEG-go.PRES
'They do not go to school.'
$\begin{array}{rll}\text { iii. bibek } & \mathrm{k}^{\mathrm{h}} \text { et } & \text { jotid }^{\mathrm{h}} \text { r l } \mathrm{n} \text { ihok }{ }^{\mathrm{h}} \text { is } \\ \text { bibek } & \text { field } & \text { ploughing NEG-be.PRES }\end{array}$
'Bibek is not ploughing field.'
iv. mui aygreji $\quad \mathrm{pd}^{\mathrm{h}} \mathrm{ad}^{\mathrm{h}} \mathrm{rl}$ liken
i english teaching NEG-be.PRES
'I am not teaching English.'
v. haml $k^{h} e b^{h}$ at
$k^{\mathrm{h}}$ ail
b ike
we food
eat NEG-be.PRES
'I have not eaten food.'
vi. u: eselsi pas boi hok ${ }^{\mathrm{h}} 1$
he s.l.c. pass NEG-be.PRES
'He did not pass S.L.C.'
vii.sudip dakt r n i hok ${ }^{\mathrm{h}}$ is
sudip doctor NEG-be.FUT
'Sudip will not be a doctor.'
viii. moro betak ${ }^{h} \mathrm{e}$ kitablok p rele n ip ris
my son books read NEG-can
'My son cannot read books.'
ix. orsa zun za
there NEG-go
'Do not go there.'
x. moro ma ais n daja

NEG my mother come NEG elder sister
'Neither my mother comes nor elder sister.'

By the above mentioned examples, it has been concluded that the negative markers of sentence level negation in the Danuwar language are ' n ', 'boi', 'leken', 'b ike', 'zun' and 'n ......n , among which 'n i' and 'boi' are placed before the main verbs whereas 'leken' and 'b ike' are placed at the end of the sentences.

On the otherhand, negative marker of sentence level negation in the English language is 'not' or ' n 't' which is attached immediately after an auxiliary verb. In the absence of auxiliary verb, we apply 'Do-support' strategy and add 'not' or 'n't' just after 'do', 'does' and 'did' according to the tenses.

### 3.2 Holistic Comparison of the Negation System in the Danuwar and English Languages

Holistic comparison of the negation system in the Danuwar and English languages are dealt with in the following sub titles:

### 3.2.1 Word Level Negation

## Table No. 7

Holistic Comparison of Word Level Negation

| SN Da | ar Language | English Language |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| i. soni <br> soni | $\mathrm{K}^{\mathrm{h}}$ usi b ike <br> happy NEG- be. PRES | 'Soni is unhappy.' |
| ii. i those | baky lok n i suhalal <br> sentences NEG- appropriate -be. PRES | 'Those sentences are inappropriate. |
| $\begin{array}{rr}\text { iii. u } & \text { kam } \\ \text { that } & \text { work }\end{array}$ | kri $\mathrm{s} \mathrm{mb}^{\mathrm{h}} \mathrm{w}$ $\mathrm{r} \mathrm{c}^{\mathrm{h}} \mathrm{ik}$ <br> do impossible be. PRES | 'It is impossible to do that work.' |
| iv. moro my | buba g rib r l k <br> grandfather poor be.PT | 'My grandfather was poor.' |
| v. dinese dines | moro kamk alocnak ris <br> my work criticize.PRES | 'Dinesh criticizes my work.' |

### 3.2.2 Phrasal Level Negation

Table No. 8

Holistic Comparison of Phrasal Level Negation

| SN Danuwar Language | English Language |
| :---: | :---: |
| i. kic $^{\text {h }}$ up ni yoj nalok b naleken <br> no plans make-NEG-be.PRES | 'No plans have been made.' |
| $\begin{array}{cccccc}\text { ii. i } & d^{h} u m r ~ p a n ~ & \text { k r i } & \text { n imil lar } & c^{h} \text { etr } & \text { ho } \\ \text { this } & \text { smoking } & \text { do } & \text { NEG-accept } & \text { area } & \text { be.PRES }\end{array}$ | 'This is no smoking area.' |
| iii. wol k $p^{h}$ eri ygreji n i sas lar nirn e k rilat <br> they again english NEG-speak decide do.PT | 'They decided not to speak English again.' |
| iv. kunup ni $k^{h}$ eladilek $^{\mathrm{h}} \mathrm{e}$ $\mathrm{k}^{\mathrm{h}} \mathrm{el}$ jite n i parhat <br> no players game win NEG-can | 'No players can win the game.' |
| v. gaŭke kunupani $\mathrm{c}^{\mathrm{h}}$ watelok iskul $\mathrm{n} \mathrm{ij} \mathrm{ic}{ }^{\mathrm{h}} \mathrm{t}$ <br> village no children school NEG-go.PRES | 'No children in the village go to school.' |

### 3.2.3 Sentence Level Negation

Table No. 9

## Holistic Comparison of Sentence Level Negation

| SN Danuwar Language |  |  | English |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| i. $\operatorname{sob}^{h} \mathrm{a}$ shova | rajbirajma <br> rajbiraj | n ib sis NEG-live.PRES | 'Shova does not live in Rajbiraj.' |
| ii. olok they | iskul <br> school | n ij ic ${ }^{\mathrm{h}} \mathrm{t}$ <br> NEG-go.PRES | 'They do not go to school.' |
| iii. bibek bibek | $k^{h}$ et <br> field | jotid $^{\mathrm{h}} \mathrm{r} 1 \quad \mathrm{n}$ ihok ${ }^{\mathrm{h}}$ is ploughing NEG-be.PRES | 'Bibek is not ploughing field.' |
| iv. mui i | angreji <br> english | $\mathrm{pd}^{\mathrm{h}} \mathrm{ad}^{\mathrm{h}} \mathrm{rl}$ liken teaching NEG-be.PRES | 'I am not teaching English.' |
| v. haml ${ }^{\mathrm{h}} \mathrm{e}$ we | $\begin{aligned} & \mathrm{b}^{\mathrm{h}} \mathrm{at} \\ & \text { food } \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{array}{rc} \mathrm{k}^{\mathrm{h}} \text { ail } & \mathrm{b} \text { ike } \\ \text { eat } & \text { NEG-be.PRES } \end{array}$ | 'I have not eaten food.' |

### 3.3 Similarities Between English and Danuwar Negation Systems

i. Negative markers (polarity aspect) are used for negation in both the English and Danuwar languages.
ii. In both languages, separate negative markers are used in the processes of negation.

For example: The English Language The Danuwar Language

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
\text { No, not or (n't) } & \text { 'n i', 'boi', 'b ike', boiken', } \\
& \text { 'leken', 'zun' and 'n ...n }
\end{array}
$$

iii. All the levels of both languages i.e. words, phrasals and sentences can be negated.
iv. Lexical words are also used for word level negation in both languages in most of the cases.

For example: English Language Danuwar Language
possible-impossible impossible- $\mathrm{s} \mathrm{mb}{ }^{\mathrm{h}} \mathrm{w}$
happy-unhappy, etc. criticize-alocna
poor-g rib
rarely-k $\mathrm{k}^{\mathrm{h}}$ nukanhi
v. 'S+V+O' structure is the common for both languages.
vi. Both of the two languages have singular and plural subjects, $S-V$ agreement and Tense-Aspect systems.

### 3.4 Differences Between English and Danuwar Negation Systems

i. In word level negation, the negative markers of the English language are derivational prefixes i.e. 'im', 'in', 'dis', etc., suffixes i.e. 'less', 'free', etc. and antonyms i.e. 'rich-poor', etc. whereas in the Danuwar language, the negative markers of word level negation are 'n i', 'boi', 'b iken'. Similarly, Danuwar lexical words such as ${ }^{\mathrm{k}} \mathrm{k}^{\mathrm{h}}$ nukanhi', ${ }^{\prime}$ samb $^{h}{ }^{\mathrm{w}}$ ', 'g rib' and 'alocna' etc. are also used for the same purpose.
ii. For phrasal level negation, the English negative markers are 'no' and 'not' where 'no' is attached just before the noun phrase and 'not' is attached just before the infinitive verbs. But the difference is the case in the Danuwar language i.e. 'n i', 'boi', 'b iken' and 'leken' are negative markers for phrase level where these negative markers are attached before to the main verbs and sometimes to the auxiliary verbs immediately before of them.
iii. In sentence level negation, the negative marker is 'not' or ' $n$ 't' which is added just after an auxiliary verb in the English language whereas the negative markers 'n i', 'boi', boike', 'b iken', 'leken', 'zun' and 'n $\qquad$ ' are added in the Danuwar language. Among these negative markers ' n i', 'zun' and 'boi' are added before the main verbs but 'b ike' and 'leken' are added at the end of the sentences.
iv. In the absence of auxiliary verbs, we generally apply 'Do-support' or 'Operator addition' rule (do, does and did) and the negative marker 'not' is added after them to form sentence level negation in the English language. But the above mentioned process is not adopted and added the negative markers ' n i' is added to main verbs in the Danuwar language.
v. Some negative markers 'b ike' and 'leken' are placed even at the end of the sentences in the Danuwar language but such is not the case in the English language.

For the vivid understanding, the different negative markers of the English and Danuwar languages are listed in the following table.

Table No. 10
Negative Markers of the English and Danuwar

| SN | Levels of <br>  <br>  <br> Negation | Negative Markers |  |
| :---: | :--- | :--- | :--- |
|  | English | Danuwar |  |
| i. | Word Level | un, im, in, less, free, <br> etc. | n i, boi, b ike, lexical <br> words i.e. k khukanhi, <br> sambhw , g rib, alocna, <br> etc. |
| ii. | Phrasal Level | 'no' and 'not' | n i, boi, b iken, and leken |
| iii. | Sentence Level | not (n't) | n i, boi, boike, leken, zun <br> and $\mathrm{n} . . . . \mathrm{n}$ |

After keeping into consideration the above mentioned analyses and tables, the researcher has concluded that the negative markers of the English language at the word level are derivational prefixes are 'im-', 'in-', 'dis-', etc, suffixes are '-less', '-free' etc and antonyms are 'rich-poor' whereas 'n i-', 'boi-', '-b iken' and lexical words such as 'k $k^{h}$ nukanhi', $\mathrm{s} \mathrm{mb}{ }^{\mathrm{h}} \mathrm{w}$ 'etc. are used in the Danuwar language. 'No' and 'not are the principal negative markers in the phrase level negation in the English language whereas 'n i', 'boi', 'b iken' and 'leken' are the negative markers of the Danuwar language for the same level. Similarly, 'not' or 'n't' is the main negative marker of the English language at the sentence level but 'n i', 'boi', boike', 'leken', 'zun' and 'n ....n ' are the negative markers of the Danuwar language. The common negative markers for all the levels of Danuwar language are ' n i', 'boi' and 'b ike' whereas English language has not got any common negative marker for all the levels. Places of those negative markers of the English language at each level are different than those of the Danuwar language.

### 3.5 Analytical use of Danuwar Negation

The Danuwar language spoken in Kvrepalanchok district exhibits complex morphological negation. The negative markers 'zun-', 'n i-', 'boi', 'boike/b ike' and 'boiken/b ken', '-leke' and 'n $\qquad$ n ' are employed to express the notion of negation in this language. Their presence is constrained by the sentence structures in which they occur. This thesis has tried to view how these different markers express negation in different levels of sentences i.e. in word, phrasal and sentence levels and how they are similar or different than that of English negations.

## a. Negation by Using 'Zun-'

'Zun-' is the negative marker which always precedes the verb stem in the imperative construction, e.g.

| Imperative construction: Orsa |  | za |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | There | go |
| Negative construction: | 'Go there' |  |
|  | Orsa | Zun- |
|  | There | NEG- |
|  | 'Do not | go there' |

## b. Negation by using 'n i-'

'n i-' makes negation in the non-past declarative construction. It is always prefixed to the verb stem in such construction, e.g.

| Declarative construction: ham i |  | pit ${ }^{\text {h }}$ | khai-tshuk |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | we | bread | eat PR |  |
| Negative construction: | 'We eat bread'. |  |  |  |
|  | ham i | pit ${ }^{\text {h }}$ | n i- | khai-tshuk |
|  | we | bread | NEG- | eat PRES |

## c. Negation by using 'boi'

'boi' makes negation in declarative sentence which are in the past tense,eg.
Declarative sentence: ham i toro kam k ri-nuk
we your work do-PT
'We did your work'

Negative construction: ham i toro kam boi-kar l
we your work do-PT
'We did not do your work'

## d. Negation by using 'brike/boike' and 'bəiken/boiken'

In the non past tense, this language has two separate words for negative form of the possessive/existential/locative 'be' verb 'rə-'. 'bəike/boike' is used to refer to singular entity whereas 'bəiken/boiken' refers to plural ones, e.g.
$\begin{array}{rll}\text { Assertive, Non-past sentence: bədri-k-sangi } & \mathrm{g}^{\text {h orə }} & \mathrm{r} \text { is } \\ \text { Badri-have } & \text { horse } & \text { posses.PRES }\end{array}$
'Badri has a horse'.

Negative Construction: bədri-k-sangi $g^{\text {h }}$ orə boike

Badri-have horse NEG posses PRES
'Badri does not have a horse'

## e. Negation by using '-leke'

There is another morpheme '-leke' that also marks negation in this language. This marker is attested when non past progressive affirmative construction are attempted to negate, e.g.

Non-past progressive affirmative construction: mui kam korti ra-tshu
i work doing be PRES
'I am working.'

Negative: mui kam kar-leke
i working do PRES NEG

I am not working.

## f. Negation by using 'nə.......nə'

When two identical simple negative sentences are combined to form a single compound sentence, 'nə. $\qquad$ .nə' can be used to mark the negation, e.g.
i. moro ma nai -ai-s
my mother NEG-come-PRES
'My mother does not come.'
ii. moro daja nai -ai-s
my elder sister NEG-come-PRES
'My elder sister does not come.'

Combination: nə moro ma ai-s nə daja

NEG my mother come-PRES NEG elder sister
'Neither my mother comes nor elder sister.'
(Source: Bhandari, Nagation in Danuwar)

## CHAPTER FOUR

## FINDINGS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The outcomes of analysis and interpretation have been stated in this chapter. The findings have been presented in three different headings: 'The types of negations collected in the English and found in the Danuwar language', 'The differences between the English and Danuwar language negative forms', The similarities between the English and the Danuwar language negative forms'. On the basis of findings, some recommendations have made and pedagogical implications have also been suggested.

### 4.1 Findings

After analysis, interpretation and presentation of the collected data, the findings of the present study are presented in the following points.

### 4.1.1 Types of Negation Found in English Language

The negative markers of the English language which are found in the study for different levels are shown as follows:

Table No. 11
Negations in English Language

| SN | Levels | Negative Markers |
| :---: | :---: | :--- |
| i. | Word | • 'im-', 'in-', 'dis-' |
|  |  | • '-less', '-free' |
|  |  | • negative words <br> • antonyms |
| ii. | Phrasal | • 'no' and 'not' |
|  | Sentence | • 'not' or 'n't' |

### 4.1.2 Types of Negation Found in the Danuwar Language

The negative markers of the Danuwar language in different levels are shown as follows:

Table No. 12
Negations in Danuwar Language

| SN | Levels | Negative Markers |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| i. | Word | - 'n i-', 'boi-', 'b ike-' <br> - Lexical words i.e. <br> 'k k ${ }^{\text {h }}$ nukanhi', <br> ' s mb ${ }^{\text {h }}{ }^{w}$ ', etc. |
| ii. | Phrasal | - 'n i-', 'boi-' <br> - '-b iken', 'leken' |
| iii. | Sentence | - 'n i-', 'boi-', 'zun-' <br> - '-b iken', '-leken' <br> - 'n .....n |

### 4.1.3 Similarities and Differences Between English and Danuwar

Topic wise similarities and differences of both languages are furnished below:

### 4.1.3.1 Similarities

Both of the languages are similar in some aspects which can be diagrammatically presented as below:

Table No. 13

Similarities Between English and Danuwar Negations/Languages

| Variables |  | English Language | Danuwar Language |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Negative markers |  | + | + |
| Nos. of levels possible for negation |  | 3 (word, phrasal and sentence) | 3 (word, phrasal and sentence) |
| Types of negative markers | - Affixes | + | - |
|  | - Lexical | + | + |
|  | - Antonyms | + | + |
| Sentence structure |  | $\mathrm{S}+\mathrm{V}+\mathrm{O}$ | $\mathrm{S}+\mathrm{V}+\mathrm{O}$ |
| Singularity and plurality |  | + | + |
| S-V agreement |  | + | + |
| Tense - aspect system |  | + | + |

### 4.1.3.2 Differences

Some major differences with regards to negation processes of both the English and Danuwar languages are presented in the following table:

Table No. 14

## Differences Between English and Danuwar Negations

| Variables |  | English Language | Danuwar Language |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Negation with | - Prefix | + | - |
| affixes | - Suffix | + | - |
| Use of 'No' and 'Not' |  | + | - |
| Use of 'n i', 'boi', 'b ike', 'boiken', 'leken', 'zun', and 'n ...n' |  | - | + |
| Negative contraction |  | + | - |
| Nos. of negative markers frequently used in the three levels |  | less [No, Not ( $n^{\prime}$ ) $)$ | more ('n i', 'boi', <br> 'b iken', 'boiken', 'leken', <br> 'zun', and 'n ...n ') |
| Negative markers attached with |  | $\begin{aligned} & \text {-NP } \\ & -\mathrm{AV} \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \text {-MV } \\ & -\mathrm{AV} \end{aligned}$ |
| Places of attach |  | After -AV <br> Before -NP | ' n i' and 'boi' before - <br> MV <br> 'b iken' and 'leken' at the end of sentences |

### 4.1.3.3 Findings

Besides of similarities and differences between negation systems of both languages, some general findings are illustrated below:
i. Word level negation can be derived by adding derivational prefixes (in, im, un, dis), suffixes (less, free, etc.) and antonyms (rich-poor, appreciatecriticize, etc) in the English language whereas ('n i', 'boi', and 'b iken') including lexical words ('k $\mathrm{k}^{\mathrm{h}}$ nukanhi', ' $\mathrm{s} \mathrm{mb}^{\mathrm{h}} \mathrm{w}$ ', 'g rib' and 'alocna', etc) are used in Danuwar language.
ii. Phrasal level negation can be achieved by adding negative determiner 'no' to make NP negative (No plans have been made) and 'not' before infinitive verbs (They decided not to play football.) in the English language whereas negative markers ('n i', 'boi', 'b iken' and 'leken') are attached to main verbs and auxiliary verbs ( $\mathrm{i} \mathrm{d}^{\mathrm{h}} \mathrm{umr}$ pan kr in imil lar $\mathrm{c}^{\mathrm{h}} \mathrm{etr}_{\mathrm{h}} \mathrm{ho}$ ) in the Danuwar language.
iii. Sentence level negation can be gained by adding 'not' or 'n't' after auxiliary verbs in the English language whereas negative marker ('n i', 'boi', 'boike', 'b iken', leken', 'zun' and 'n $\qquad$ n ') are used in the Danuwar language.
iv. 'Not' or 'n't' negative marker in sentence level of the English language is placed just after an auxiliary verb in an assertive sentence whereas ' n i', 'boi', and 'zun' are placed before the main verbs and 'b iken' and 'leken' are placed at the end of the sentences in the Danuwar language.
v. 'Do-suppor' or 'Operator - addition' (do, does, did) is to be added in the absence of auxiliary verbs for sentence level negation in the English language whereas there is not a need of such a rule in the Danuwar language.
vi. 'No' sometime becomes the initiator of phrasal level utterance in the English language but no any negative markers do the same job in the Danuwar language.
vii. Negative lexical words (never, hardly, rarely, none, nobody, etc) are also used (Our teacher rarely comes to school) instead of the negative marker 'not' in the English language and similar is the case in the Danuwar language (hamro mast $\mathrm{rk} \mathrm{k}^{\mathrm{h}}$ nukanhi iskul ais).
viii. The auxiliary verbs in English negation depend upon the person and number of the subject ('Ram has not dug field' and 'We have not eaten food.') but this is not the case in the Danuwar language ('rame $\mathrm{k}^{\mathrm{h}} \mathrm{et} \mathrm{k}^{\mathrm{h}} \mathrm{n} 1$ b iken' and 'hamei $k^{h} e t k^{h} n 1 b$ iken').
ix. 'Not' the negative marker of the English language is also used in contracted form but the same phenomenon is not found in the system of negation of the Danuwar language.

### 4.2 Recommendations

On the basis of the findings obtained from the analysis of the collected data, some recommendations for pedagogical implications have been suggested as follows:
i. As the research is a sort of comparative linguistic study of negation systems between the English and Danuwar languages, it will help the language teachers who are teaching the English as a second or foreign language at schools and other levels where majority of students are from the Danuwar community with the Danuwar language background, because such a comparative study will help the teacher to predict the areas of difficulty and errors that the learners face and commit.
ii. The students of Danuwar community should be taught the ways of using 'Do-support' or 'Operator-addition' and 'Subject auxiliary inversion rules' carefully as they do not exist in the Danuwar language.
iii. The processes of negation system of different levels in English are different from those of the Danuwar language. Therefore, it is recommended that the differences should be taken into consideration while teaching transformation systems to the Danuwar speaking students.
iv. The knowledge of 'affixation', 'lexical negation', 'antonyms' and 'auxiliary verbs' are essential for negation of different levels in the English language. Therefore, the special attention should be given in use while teaching English to the Danuwar speaking students.
v. Contraction of negative marker 'Not' is used in the sentence level negation in the English language but this is not the case in the Danuwar language. So, attention should be paid on such feature.
vi. For the vivid understanding and adaptation of negation system of the English and Danuwar languages, enough and appropriate teaching materials should be used as far as possible.
vii. The teacher of concerned levels should teach 'negation' by creating meaningful situations and using suitable language games.
viii. The Danuwar language speakers living nearby the Nepali language speakers community and others should not avoid their mother tongue with their children because informants were found mixing Nepali, English and many words of other languages in the Danuwar language. They should know that the language and culture are precious things and must be preserved.
ix. The syllabus designers and textbook writers should be more conscious while designing the syllabus and writing the textbooks for Danuwar learners who are learning English as a second language.

As the researcher conducted the research to find out the negation systems of only word, phrasal and sentence (assertive only) levels of the English and Danuwar languages, he does not claim that the present study covers all the rules of 'negative transformations' of the English and Danuwar languages. But the researcher has tried his best to collect and find out the authentic and real data.

Finally, the researcher wants to request to the concerned authority and people to take the above mentioned recommendations into consideration. Furthermore, he would like to request to the interested one to carry out the researches on the various areas of the Danuwar language.

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## APPENDICES

## APPENDIX- I

Informants of the Research Study

| SN | Name of the Students | Sex | Class | Section |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1. | Ajit Kumar Danuwar | M | 12 |  |
| 2. | Ujjwol Danuwar | M | 11 |  |
| 3. | Pramila Danuwar | F | 11 |  |
| 4. | Akshay Kumar Danuwar | M | 12 |  |
| 5. | Jayram Danuwar | M | 11 |  |
| 6. | Surya Kumar Danuwar | M | 12 |  |
| 7. | Samir Danuwar | M | 9 | B |
| 8. | Prem Kumar Danuwar | M | 11 |  |
| 9. | Bikram Danuwar | M | 12 |  |
| 10. | Arun Danuwar | M | 12 |  |
| 11. | Kamal Danuwar | M | 11 |  |
| 12. | Prashant Danuwar | M | 12 |  |
| 13. | Sunita Danuwar | F | 10 | A |
| 14. | Mamata Danuwar | F | 10 | B |
| 15. | Manisha Danuwar | F | 10 | A |
| 16. | Chandra Kumari Danuwar | F | 11 |  |
| 17. | Kumar Danuwar | M | 12 |  |
| 18. | Rupa Devi Danuwar | F | 12 |  |
| 19. | Aarati Danuwar | F | 11 |  |


| 20. | Resha Danuwar | F | 9 | B |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 21. | Sajana Danuwar | F | 9 | B |
| 22. | Jalasha Danuwar | F | 9 | B |
| 23. | Tirtha Kumari Danuwar | F | 9 | A |
| 24. | Shyam Bahadur Danuwar | M | 9 | A |
| 25. | Prem Kumar Danuwar | M | 12 |  |
| 26. | Mina Danuwar | F | 12 |  |
| 27. | Santosh Danuwar | M | 9 | A |
| 28. | Rabindra Danuwar | M | 9 | A |
| 29. | Basanti Danuwar | F | 9 | A |
| 30. | Manisha Danuwar | F | 9 | A |
| 31. | Sharmila Danuwar | F | 10 | A |
| 32. | Ishwori Danuwar | F | 12 |  |
| 33. | Kabita Danuwar | F | 8 | A |
| 34. | Rashmi Danuwar | F | 12 |  |
| 35. | Ramesh Danuwar | M | 8 | B |
| 36. | Dilraj Danuwar | M | 8 | A |
| 37. | Manjita Danuwar | F | 9 | A |
| 38. | Sarita Danuwar | F | 9 | B |
| 39. | Sangita Danuwar | F | 9 | B |
| 40. | Sabina Danuwar | F | 9 | A |
| 41. | Radha Danuwar | F | 9 | B |
| 42. | Anita Danuwar | F | 9 | B |
| 43. | Raj Kumar Danuwar | M | 8 | A |


| 44. | Rabindra Danuwar | M | 8 | A |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 45. | Sharmila Danuwar | F | 9 | B |
| 46. | Shanta Danuwar | F | 9 | B |
| 47. | Indra Danuwar | M | 9 | A |
| 48. | Bindu Danuwar | F | 8 | A |
| 49. | Gita Danuwar | F | 8 | A |
| 50. | Soni Danuwar | F | 8 | B |
| 51. | Sita Danuwar | F | 9 | A |
| 52. | Rita Danuwar | F | 8 | A |
| 53. | Suresh Danuwar | M | 8 | A |
| 54. | Sujan Danuwar | M | 8 | A |
| 55. | Sujata Danuwar | F | 10 | A |
| 56. | Milan Rai | M | 12 |  |
| 57. | Saugat Danuwar | M | 10 | B |
| 58. | Binda Danuwar | F | 10 | A |
| 59. | Urusha Danuwar | F | 10 | B |
| 60. | Tara Danuwar | F | 11 |  |
| 61. | Anju Danuwar | F | 11 |  |
| 62. | Nirmala Danuwar | F | 11 |  |
| 63. | Gaurishankar Danuwar | M | 9 | B |
| 64. | Jiwan Danuwar | M | 9 | B |
| 65. | Shyam Danuwar | M | 12 |  |
| 66. | Dipesh Danuwar | M | 12 |  |
| 67. | Sunil Danuwar | M | 12 |  |


| 68. | Robin Danuwar | M | 8 | A |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 69. | Bina Danuwar | F | 8 | B |
| 70. | Saraswoti Danuwar | F | 10 |  |
| 71. | Bimala Danuwar | F | 8 | A |
| 72. | Uttam Danuwar | M | 9 | A |
| 73. | Sujan Danuwar | M | 8 | B |
| 74. | Suman Danuwar | M | 8 | B |
| 75. | Nilraj Danuwar | M | 9 | A |
| 76. | Rupesh Danuwar | M | 9 | A |
| 77. | Gopal Danuwar | M | 9 | A |
| 78. | Raj Danuwar | M | 8 | B |
| 79. | Nabin Danuwar | M | 8 | A |
| 80. | Ramesh Danuwar | M | 9 | A |
| 81. | Aakash Danuwar | M | 8 | B |
| 82. | Surendra Danuwar | M | 9 | B |
| 83. | Arjun Danuwar | M | 9 | B |
| 84. | Sunita Danuwar | F | 9 | B |
| 85. | Laxmi Danuwar | F | 8 | A |
| 86. | Sharada Danuwar | F | 8 | B |
| 87. | Shova Danuwar | F | 8 | B |
| 88. | Anita Danuwar | F | 8 | B |
| 89. | Kabita Danuwar | F | 9 | A |
| 90. | Sabina Danuwar | F | 9 | B |
| 91. | Nirmala Danuwar | F | 8 | B |


| 92. | Sumitra Danuwar | F | 8 | A |
| :---: | :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 93. | Ganga Danuwar | F | 10 | B |
| 94. | Jamuna Danuwar | F | 10 | A |
| 95. | Bhagawati Danuwar | F | 10 | B |
| 96. | Binita Danuwar | F | 10 | B |
| 97. | Ranjit Danuwar | M | 8 | A |
| 98. | Laxmi Danuwar | F | 10 | A |
| 99. | Anil Danuwar | M | 9 | A |
| 100. | Rakesh Danuwar | 10 | B |  |

## APENDIX - II

## Sample Test

## Test Items (Questionnaire)

These test items have been prepared to elicit data or information for the research work entitle 'Negation in English and Danuwar Languages' which is being carried out under the guidance of Mr Til Brikram Bharati, a lecturer of Central Department of English Education, Faculty of Education, Chaitanya Multiple Campus, Banepa, Kavre. The researcher hopes that you everybody will co-operate with him to fill up these text items by taking part in this test and provide the data for his research study which will be invaluable contribution to accomplish this research work.

Thank you;

## Resercher:

Bhogendra Prasad Yadav
M.Ed. $2^{\text {nd }}$ year

Chaitanya Multiple Campus, Banepa, Kavre.

Name:
Sex: Male ( ); Female ()
Address: $\qquad$ Class: $\qquad$ Age: $\qquad$
Date: $\qquad$
Word Level
How do you say these following sentences in Danuwar language?

1. Sony is unhappy। (सोनी वेखुशी छा)
$\qquad$
2. Those sentences are inappropriate. (ती वाक्यहरु असुहाउँदा छन्।)
3. It is impossible to do that work. -त्यो काम गर्न असम्भव छा)
$\qquad$
4. They were illiterate। (तिनीहरु निरक्षर थिए।)
$\qquad$
5. My younger brother dislikes old stories. (मेरो भाई पुराना कथाहरु मनपराउँदैन।)
$\qquad$
6. My grandfather was poor. (मेरो हजुरबुबा गरीब हुनुहुन्थ्यो ।)
$\qquad$
7. Dinesh criticizes my work। (दिनेशले मेरो कामको आलोचना गई।
$\qquad$
8. Dev hardly goes to school। (देव स्कुल बिरलै जान्छ ।)
$\qquad$
9. Our teacher rarely comes school। (हाम्रो शिक्षक बिरलै स्कूल आउनुहुन्छ .-
$\qquad$
10. Barking dogs seldom bite. (भुक्ने कुकुरहरुले कहिल्यै टोक्दैनन्।)
$\qquad$
11. Mahesh never speaks English. (महेश कहिल्यै पनि अंग्रेजी बोल्दैन ।)
$\qquad$
12. Nobody arrived. (कोही पनि आएनन् ।)
$\qquad$
13. No one can live without water. (पानी बिना कोही पनि बाँच्न सक्दैन . $\qquad$
$\qquad$
14. Neither he nor she passed S.L.C. (न ऊ न त उनी एस.एल.सी. पास भइन् ।)
$\qquad$
15. They were no where to be seen. (तिनीहरु कहिपनि देखिएनन् ।)
$\qquad$
16. Nothing has been done. (केही पनि गरिएको छैन ।)
$\qquad$
17. My father prohibited me to smoke. (मेरो बुबाले मलाई धुम्रपान गर्न निषेध गर्नुभयो।
$\qquad$
18. We were helpless. (हामी सहयोग रहित थियौं ।)
$\qquad$
19. There are few books on the shelf. (दराज माथि थौरै किताबहरु छन् ।)
$\qquad$
20. There was little water in the jar. (त्यहाँ जारमा अलिकति मात्र पानी थियो .-
$\qquad$
21. These children are carefree. (यिनी बालबालिकाहरु हेरचाह रहित छन् ?)

## Phrasal Level

## How do you say these following sentences in Danuwar language?

1. No plans have been made. (कुनै पनि योजनाहरु बनाइएको छैन ।)
$\qquad$
2. My younger brother has decided not to marry. (मेरो भाइले विवाह नगर्ने निर्णय गरेको छ।)
$\qquad$
3. This is no smoking area. (यो धुम्रपान रहित क्षेत्र हो ।)
$\qquad$
4. I am surprised that no alternative was proposed. (म आश्चर्यमा परें कि कुनै पनि विकल्प प्रस्ताव गरिएको थिएन ।)
$\qquad$
5. They decided not to speak English again. (तिनीहरुले फेरी अंग्रेजी नबोल्ने निर्णय गरे।)
$\qquad$
6. I have no money. (म सँग पैसा छैन ।)
$\qquad$
7. No players can win the game. (कुनै पनि खेलाडिहरुले खेल जित्न सक्दैनन् ।)
$\qquad$
8. No person in Danuwar society has got Ph.D. (दनुवार समाजमा कोहि पनि व्यक्तिले विद्यावारिधि प्राप्त गरेको छैन ।)
$\qquad$
9. Rishav has decided not to return village. (रिसभ गाउँ नफर्कने निर्णय गरेको छ।)
$\qquad$
10. No children in the village go to school. (गाउँका कोही पनि बालबालिकाहरु स्कूल जाँदैनन् ।)

## Sentence Level

How do you say these following sentences in Danuwar language?

1. Shova does not live in Rajbiraj. (शोभा राजविराजमा बस्दिनन् ।)
$\qquad$
2. They do not go to school. (तिनीहरु स्कुल जाँदैनन् ।)
$\qquad$
3. Bibek is not ploughing field. (विवेक खेत जोतिरहेको छैन।)
$\qquad$
4. I am not teaching English. (म अंग्रेजी पढाइरहेको छैन ।)
$\qquad$
5. They are not reading a novel. (तिनीहरु उपन्यास पढिरहेका छैनन् ।)
$\qquad$
6. Ram has not dug field. (राम खेत खनेको छैन ।)
$\qquad$
7. We have not eaten food. (हामीहरुले खाना खाएका छैनौं।)
$\qquad$
8. He did not pass S.L.C. (ऊ एस.एल.सी. पास भएन ।)
$\qquad$
9. She was not listening to the radio। (उनी रेडियो सुनिरहेकी थिइनन् ।)
$\qquad$
10. People were not celebrating Dashain. (मानिसहरु दशै मनाइरहेका थिएनन् ._
$\qquad$
11. My elder brother had not passed engineering. (मेरो जेठो दाजु इन्जिनियरिड्न पास हुनु भएको थिएन।)
12. Sudip will not be a doctor. (सुदिप डाक्टर हुनेछैन ।)
13. The boys will not be singing a Holly song.. केटाहरु होली गित गाइरहेका हुनेछैनन्।)
14. Workers will not have finished this work. (मजदुरहरु यो काम सिध्याइसकेको हुने छैनन्।)
$\qquad$
15. My son can not read books. (मेरो छोराले किताबहरु पढ्न सक्दैन ।)
$\qquad$
16. Our dog could not swim well. (हाम्रो कुकुर राम्रोसँग पौडी खेल्न सक्दैनथ्यो ।)
$\qquad$
17. My mother may not come tomorrow. (मेरी आमा भोलि आउनुहुन्न होला ।)
$\qquad$
18. We might not go home. (हामी घर जाँदैन थियौं होला ।)
$\qquad$
19. You need not do your homework। (तिमीले तिम्रो गृहकार्य गर्न आवश्यक छैन ।)
$\qquad$
20. My grandfather did not use to love me very much. (मेरो हजुरबाले मलाई धेरै माया गर्नुहुददननथ्यो ।)

## APPENDIX - III

## Sample Answers

## Response Sheet

Name: $\ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots . .$.
Address:
Class:
Age:
Date: $\qquad$

## Word Level

How do you say these following sentences in Danuwar language?

1. Sony is unhappy. (सोनी वेखुशी छ। $\qquad$
$\qquad$
2. Those sentences are inappropriate. (ती वाक्यहरु असुहाउँदा छन्।)
$\qquad$
3. It is impossible to do that workı (त्यो काम गर्न असम्भव छ।)
$\qquad$
4. They were illiterate. (तिनीहरु निरक्षर थिए।)
$\qquad$
5. My younger brother dislikes old stories. (मेरो भाई पुराना कथाहरु मनपराउँदैन।)
$\qquad$
6. My grandfather was poor. (मेरो हजुरबुबा गरीब हुनुनुन्थ्यो ।)
$\qquad$
7. Dinesh criticizes my work. (दिनेशले मेरो कामको आलोचना गई्छ।)
$\qquad$
8. Dev hardly goes to school. (देव स्कुल बिरलै जान्छ ।)
9. Our teacher rarely comes school. (हाग्रो शिक्षक बिरलै स्कूल आउनुहुन्छ .-
$\qquad$
10. Barking dogs seldom bite. (भुक्ने कुकुरहरुले कहिल्यै टोक्दैनन्।)
$\qquad$
11. Mahesh never speaks English. (महेश कहिल्यै पनि अंग्रेजी बोल्दैन ।)
$\qquad$
12. Nobody arrived. (कोही पनि आएनन् ।)
$\qquad$
13. No one can live without water. (पानी बिना कोही पनि बाँच्न सक्दैन ।)
$\qquad$
14. Neither he nor she passed S.L.C. (न ऊ न त उनी एस.एल.सी. पास भइन् ।)
$\qquad$
15. They were no where to be seen. (तिनीहरु कहिपनि देखिएनन् ।)
$\qquad$
16. Nothing has been done. (केही पनि गरिएको छैन ।)
$\qquad$
17. My father prohibited me to smoke. (मेरो बुबाले मलाई धुम्रपान गर्न निषेध गर्नुभयो।)
$\qquad$
18. We were helpless. (हामी सहयोग रहित थियौं ।)
$\qquad$
19. There are few books on the shelf. (दराज माथि थौरै किताबहरु छन् ।)
$\qquad$
20. There was little water in the jar. (त्यहाँ जारमा अलिकति मात्र पानी थियो ।)
$\qquad$
21.These children are carefree. (यिनी बालबालिकाहरु हेरचाह रहित छन् ?)

## Phrasal Level

## How do you say these following sentences in Danuwar language?

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$\qquad$
2. My younger brother has decided not to marry. (मेरो भाइले विवाह नगर्ने निर्णय गरेको छ।
3. This is no smoking area. (यो धुम्रपान रहित क्षेत्र हो ।)
$\qquad$
4. I am surprised that no alternative was proposed. (म आश्चर्यमा परें कि कुनै पनि विकल्प प्रस्ताव गरिएको थिएन ।)
$\qquad$
5. They decided not to speak English again. (तिनीहरुले फेरी अंग्रेजी नबोल्ने निर्णय गरे।)
 $\qquad$
6. I have no money. (म सँग पैसा छैन ।)
$\qquad$
7. No players can win the game. (कुनै पनि खेलाडिहरुले खेल जित्न सक्दैनन् ।)
$\qquad$
8. No person in Danuwar society has got Ph.D. (दनुवार समाजमा कोहि पनि व्यक्तिले विद्यावारिधि प्राप्त गरेको छैन।
$\qquad$
9. Rishav has decided not to return village. (रिसभ गाउँ नफर्कने निर्णय गरेको छ।)
$\qquad$
10. No children in the village go to school. (गाउँका कोहि पनि बालबालिकाहरु स्कूल जाँदैनन् ।)

## Sentence Level

How do you say these following sentences in Danuwar language?

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$\qquad$
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$\qquad$
3. Bibek is not ploughing field. (विवेक खेत जोतिरहेको छैन।)
$\qquad$
4. I am not teaching English. (म अंग्रेजी पढाइरहेको छैन ।)
$\qquad$
5. They are not reading a novel. (तिनीहरु उपन्यास पढिरहेका छैनन् ।)
$\qquad$
6. Ram has not dug field. (राम खेत खनेको छैन ।)
$\qquad$
7. We have not eaten food. (हामीहरुले खाना खाएका छैनौं।)
$\qquad$
8. He did not pass S.L.C. (ऊ एस.एल.सी. पास भएन ।)
$\qquad$
9. She was not listening to the radio. (उनी रेडियो सुनिरहेकी थिइनन् ।)
$\qquad$
10. People were not celebrating Dashain. (मानिसहरु दशै मनाइरहेका थिएनन् ।)
$\qquad$
11. My elder brother had not passed engineering. (मेरो जेठो दाजु इन्जिनियरिड्न पास हुनु भएको थिएन ।)
12. Sudip will not be a doctor. (सुदिप डाक्टर हुनेछैन ।)
13. The boys will not be singing a Holly song.. केटाहरु होली गित गाइरहेका हुनेछैनन्।)
$\qquad$
14. Workers will not have finished this work. (मजदुरहरु यो काम सिध्याइसकेको हुने छैनन्।)
$\qquad$
15. My son can not read books. (मेरो छोराले किताबहरु पढ्न सक्दैन ।)
$\qquad$
16. Our dog could not swim well. (हाम्रो कुकुर राम्रोसँग पौडी खेल्न सक्दैनथ्यो ।)
$\qquad$
17. My mother may not come tomorrow. (मेरी आमा भोलि आउनुहुन्न होला ।)
$\qquad$
18. We might not go home. (हामी घर जाँदैन थियौं होला ।)
$\qquad$
19. You need not do your homework। (तिमीले तिम्रो गृहकार्य गर्न आवश्यक छैन ।)
$\qquad$
20. My grandfather did not use to love me very much. (मेरो हजुरबाले मलाई धेरै माया गर्नुहुँदैनथ्यो ।)

## APPENDIX - IV

Symbols and Diacritic Marks Used
Consonant and Vowel Symbols and Diacritics

| a | C |  | h | : |  | d | 8 |  | bh | e | E |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| à | cf | f | k | S | S | dh | 9 |  | m | d | D |
| 1 | 0 | 1 | kh | v | V | n | 0 f | 0 | y | $\bigcirc$ | 0 |
| $\overline{\text { i }}$ | O \{ | L | g | u | U | r | 8 |  | r | / or | \{ |
| u | p | ' | gh | 3 | £ | [rh] | 9 |  | i | n | N |
| $\overline{\mathrm{u}}$ | pm | " | n | a |  | t | t | T | w <br> or v | j | J |
| r | C | [ | c | r | R | th | Y | Y | S | z | Z |
| e | P | ] | ch | 5 |  | d | b |  | S | if | I |
| ai | P ] | \} | j | h | H | dh | w | W | S | ; | : |
| o | Cf] | f ] | jh | em | \% | m | d | D | h | x |  |
| au | Cf \} | f \} | n | - | $\sim$ | p | k | K |  |  |  |
| - | F |  | t | 6 |  | ph | km | Š |  |  |  |
| rh | $=$ |  | th | 7 |  | n | g | G |  |  |  |

Source: Turner, R.L. (2010)

## APPENDIX- V

## Danuwar Speakers in Different Zones and Districts

| Mechi |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| SN | Districts | Population |
| 1. | Taplejung | 13 |
| 2. | Panchthar | 08 |
| 3. | Illam | 38 |
| 4. | Jhapa | 1,158 |
| Tota |  | 1,217 |
| Koshi |  |  |
| 5. | Morang | 1,570 |
| 6. | Sunsari | 552 |
| 7. | Dhankuta | 25 |
| 8. | Tehrathum | 15 |
| 9. | Sankhuwasabha | 16 |
| 10. | Bhojpur | 17 |
| Total |  | 2,195 |
| Sagarmatha |  |  |
| 11. | Solukhumbu | 04 |
| 12. | Okhaldhunga | 43 |
| 13. | Khotang | 42 |
| 14. | Udayapur | 6,643 |
| 15. | Saptari | 732 |
| 16. | Siraha | 7,290 |


| Janakapur |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 17. | Dhanusha | 4,315 |
| 18. | Mahottari | 1,739 |
| 19. | Sarlahi | 5,733 |
| 20. | Sindhuli | 9,985 |
| 21. | Ramechhap | 60 |
| 22. | Dolakha | 40 |
| Total |  | 21,872 |
| Narayani |  |  |
| 23. | Makawanpur | 880 |
| 24. | Rautahat | 143 |
| 25. | Bara | 302 |
| 26. | Parsa | 17 |
| 27. | Chitwan | 452 |
| Total |  | 1,794 |
| Bagmati |  |  |
| 28. | Sindhupalchok | 2,268 |
| 29. | Kabhre | 4,118 |
| 30. | Lalitpur | 45 |
| 31. | Bhaktapur | 30 |
| 32. | Kathmandu | 119 |
| 33. | Nuwakot | 213 |
| 34. | Rasuwa | 66 |
| 35. | Dhading | 172 |
| Total |  | 7,031 |


| Gandaki |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 36. | Gorakha | 42 |
| 37. | Lamjung | 23 |
| 38. | Tanahun | 74 |
| 39. | Syanja | 59 |
| 40. | Kaski | 48 |
| Total |  | 246 |
| Lumbini |  |  |
| 41. | Gulmi | 75 |
| 42. | Palpa | 101 |
| 43. | Nawalparasi | 94 |
| 44. | Rupandehi | 43 |
| 45. | Kapilvastu | 471 |
| 46. | Arghakhanchi | 40 |
| Total |  | 824 |
| Rapti |  |  |
| 47. | Pyuthan | 77 |
| 48. | Rolpa | 96 |
| 49. | Rukum | 47 |
| 50. | Salyan | 76 |
| 51. | Dang | 67 |
| Total |  | 363 |
| Bheri |  |  |
| 52. | Banke | 18 |
| 53. | Bardia | 24 |
| 54. | Surkhet | 81 |
| 55. | Dailekh | 15 |
| 56. | Jajarkot | 31 |
| Total |  | 169 |

## Karnali

| 57. | Dolpa | 04 |
| :--- | :--- | :---: |
| 58. | Jumla | 03 |
| 59. | Kalikot | 02 |
| 60. | Mugu | 21 |
| 61. | Humla | 01 |
| Total |  | $\mathbf{3 1}$ |


| Dhawalagiri |  |  |
| :---: | :--- | :---: |
| 62. | Manang | 01 |
| 63. | Mustang | 0 |
| 64. | Myagdi | 63 |
| 65. | Parwat | 20 |
| 66. | Baglung | 73 |
| Total |  | $\mathbf{1 5 7}$ |


| Seti |  |  |
| :--- | :--- | :---: |
| 67. | Bajura | 02 |
| 68. | Bajhang | 04 |
| 69. | Achham | 11 |
| 70. | Doti | 17 |
| 71. | Kailali | 29 |
| Total | Mahakali | $\mathbf{6 3}$ |
|  |  |  |
| 72. | Kanchanpur | 20 |
| 73. | Dadeldhura | 09 |
| 74. | Baitadi | 07 |
| 75. | Darchula | 02 |
| Total |  | $\mathbf{3 8}$ |

(Source: Population Census- 2001, Social Characteristics tables vol. Part VII, Nepal)

