

# CHAPTER ONE

## INTRODUCTION

### 1.1 General Background

Language plays a great part in our life. Perhaps because of its familiarity; we rarely observe it, taking it rather for granted, as we do breathing or walking. The effects of languages are remarkable, and include much of what distinguishes man from the animal, but language has no place in our educational program or in the speculations of philosophers.

Language pervades almost every aspect of our lives. We talk, think, argue, question, theorize, command, insult, promise and joke using language. An infinitely adaptable system of human communication allows speakers to be as specific or general as they wish in communicating on an endless variety of topics. The ability to use language in this way is unique to human beings. It is so important that we can hardly imagine what life would be without it.

Language is very complex psychological and social phenomena in human life so that it has been taken as one of the mysteries that have confronted people, a topic on which there has been much speculation and no conclusion drawn. It is the 'species-specific' and 'species-uniform' possession of man. It is common to all human beings. It is the most unique God's gift that sets them apart from the rest of living beings. It is the greatest accomplishment of human civilization. It is perhaps the most significant asset of human life. Chomsky (1957:13) defines language as "a set (finite or infinite) of sentences, each finite in length and constructed out of a finite set of elements." Similarly, Sapir (1921:8) defines language

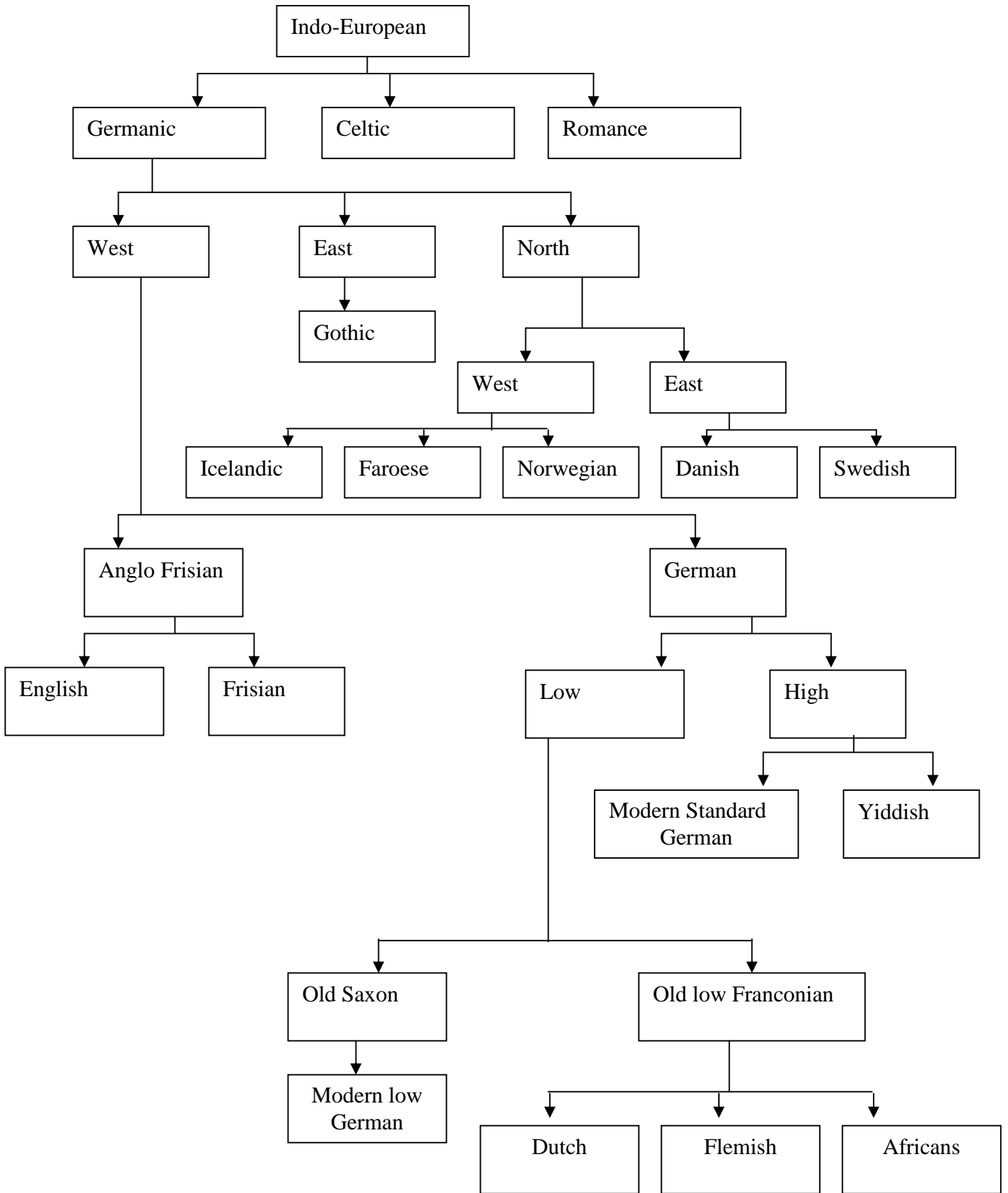
as “a purely human and non instinctive method of communicating ideas, emotions, and desires by means of voluntary produced symbols.”

### **1.1.1 An Overview of the English Language**

English is the dominant language in the world. It serves today as a lingua franca in many parts of the world; for some speakers it is an amative language; for others a second language; for others a second language; for still others a foreign language .As the world has hunk because of the latest scientific discoveries and development in the field of communication, the importance of English as an international language has increased all the more. Most of the books are written in English. Therefore, the English language has become an indispensable source of knowledge for all.

Of all the languages in the world today, English is generally acknowledged to be the world’s most important language. It is the first language of the United Kingdom. Because of the rapid spread of industrial development, science and technology, international trade and commerce and the close independence of nations, it has become a world or a globally. At present, it is taught as a foreign language in over 100 countries, and it is emerging in most of the countries as the chief foreign language to be encountered in schools often displacing another language in the process. Nearly a quarter of the world’s population is already fluent or competent in English (Crystal, 1999). English is an invaluable means to access new scientific, medical and technological information. According to Pahuja (1999:1), “If we look at the media we find at over 50% of world's newspapers, over 50% world’s scientific and technical periodicals and more than 60% of world's radio stations use English as medium of communication.”

English has penetrated deeply into the international domains of political life, business, safety, communication, entertainment, media and education. It has reached in every continent being either the first language or official language or foreign language. These days, every country needs political, social, economical and cultural helps of other countries. There comes English as a rescue. It is the key to the storehouse of knowledge. It is not only an international lingua franca but also one of the official languages offered by U.N. Such a global language belongs to the groups of Indo – European language family, the largest and most significant language family of the world. The position of the English language in Indo-European language family is shown in the following diagram:



(Source: Asher, 1994)

It is said that more than 6000 distinct languages exist in the world today and English is indispensable in the dawn of 21<sup>st</sup> century.

### **1.1.2 Need and Importance of the English in Nepal**

In Nepal, Nepali is the national language. It is the language of administration, education, information and media. It plays the role of lingua franca among the Nepalese people. However, Nepali is not adequate for transmission of science and technology and for international communication. It does not have access to the scientific and technical knowledge of the modern world. Therefore, Nepal needs the English language. English helps us to keep in touch with the world's ever increasing explosion of knowledge and technological advancement. For bringing about revolutionary changes in the fields of agriculture, medicine, industry, education, science and technology, transport and telecommunication, it is essential for us to be in touch with the outside world and it is possible only with an adequate knowledge of English. English plays a vital role in accelerating the modernization process of Nepal. It has become an important vehicle for the transmission of civilization and culture.

At the age of scientific discoveries and development, English is the gate way to knowledge. The importance of English in the present day world need not be over emphasized. It is a principal language for international communication and gateways to the world body of knowledge .In my view of these facts, the English language is given great importance in the education system of Nepal. Malla (1977: 12) says, "English is undoubtedly of vital importance of accelerating the modernization process in Nepal." Thus, English is the language of higher education,

mass media, business and diplomacy. We need English to make a link with the outer world. Teaching English in Nepal was started for the first time at Durbar High School in 1853. Now it has occupied an important place in the educational system of Nepal. In Nepal it is taught as a compulsory subject right from grade four up to the bachelor's level whereas the English medium schools teach it right from grade nursery level. The rapid growth of English medium schools and their impact on society proves the importance of English in Nepal.

For Nepalese students, English, a foreign language, has occupied an important place in the educational system of Nepal. Sthapit (2003:2-3) points out that the learners, in our case, need to learn English for the following activities:

- To participate in classroom interactions
- To study course materials and other related academic or professional matters
- To use it as a medium of expression in assignments, tests and examinations
- To read things for pleasure and general information
- To gain access to the world body of knowledge
- To appreciate movies, plays, talks, radio and television programmes, etc.
- To keep themselves abreast to what is going on around the world
- To participate in international meeting, seminars, conferences, etc.
- To communicate with foreigners in general
- To develop their personality and enhance their carrier development.

English has an important place in Nepal. According to Crystal (1997), there are 5, 927, 000, (out of 20,093,000 population census, 1995) people in Nepal who use English as a second language.

### **1.1.3 The Sociolinguistic Situation of Nepal**

Nepal, situated in the lap of the Himalayas, is a multiracial, multicultural and multilingual country. Though it is a small country, it has been very fertile land for languages. It is a country of linguistic diversity. According to the Population Census Report 2001, there are 92 identified languages spoken in Nepal. These languages and their innumerable satellite dialects have genetic affiliation to at least four language families, namely *Indo-Aryan, Tibeto- Burman, Austro-Asiatic/Muda and Dravidian*. The languages are classified under the four language families are classified under as follows:

#### **The Indo – Aryan Family**

It includes the following languages:

Nepali	Rajbansi	Kumal
Maithali	Danuwar	English
Bhojpuri	Bengali	Magahi
Tharu	Marwari	Churati.
Awadhi	Bajjka	
Urdu	Majhi	
Hindi	Darai	

#### **The Tibeto –Burman Family**

It includes the following languages:

Tamang	Tibeton	Baram/Baramu
Newar	Jirel	Koche
<b>Magar</b>	Yholmo	Kagate

Gurung	Dura	Lhomi
Limbu	Mecha	Toto
Sherpa	Pahari	Kham
Chepang	Lepcha/Lepche	Syang
Sunuwar	Raji	Marpha
Thami	Hayu	Manag
Dhimal	Byangshi	Nar
Bhujel/Khawas	Ghale	Rai Lgs.(more than 33 lgs.)
Thakali	Kaike	
Chhantyal/Chhantal	Raute	

### **The Austro –Asiatic/Munda Family**

It includes only one language i. e. Satar/ Santhali which is spoken in Jhapa district of the eastern part of Nepal.

### **The Dravidian Family**

This family also includes only one language i.e. Jhangar/Dhangar which is spoken on the province of the Koshi river in the eastern part of Nepal.

Among the four language families mentioned above, the Tibeto – Burman language family is the largest one as it includes a large number of language.

According to the Report of National Languages Policy Recommendation Commission (2050), there are 70 languages in Nepal, out of which, 63 languages are the languages of indigenous nationalities of Nepal. The 70 languages have been classified into four types:



**a. Languages with Written Script**

Nepali	Maithali	Awadi
Limbu	Bhojpuri	Hindi
Newari	Urdu	Bhote/Tibeta

**b. Languages Having Written Script in Emerging Condition:**

Sherpa	<b>Magar</b>	Kulung
Thankali	Thulung	Bantawa
Gurung	Chamling	Tharu
Rajbanshi	Khaling	Tamang

**c. Languages without Written Script**

Yakka	Jhagad	Bhote
Chhyantal	Kumal	Kham
Maghi	Byanshi	Danuwar
Nachhiring	Chepang	Marwadi
Eastern Mewahang	Norther Lohorung	Raiji
Western Mewahang	Southern Lohorung	Thami
Yamphu	Darai	Dhimal
Lumba Yakka	Jirel	Kagate
Satar	Hyolmo	Athpahariya
Sampang	Kaike	

**d. Moribund Languages:**

Hayu	Polmacha	Dura
Dungmali	Kusunda	Baling
Raute	Chhintang	Koyu
Lambiching	Puma	Mugali
Jerung	Belhare	Chhukwa
Phanduwali	Chakwa	Chhulung
Tilung		

The data mentioned above clearly show that there are nine languages in Nepal which have their own written script, the written scripts of 12 languages are in emerging, others 29 languages have no written scripts and 20 languages are in the verge of extinction i.e. Moribund languages. Similarly, linguists claim that any language which has at least 100000 speakers can maintain its existence. Languages, having less than 100000 speakers remain tolerable and languages spoken by fewer than 1000 speakers are in the verge of extinction.

#### **1.1.4 Indigenous People in Nepal**

Nepal is a multi-ethnic, multi-cultural, multi-religious & multi-lingual country .There are more than 8000000 indigenous people in Nepal (Tamang, 2058:1). Indigenous people are those ethnic groups or nationalities who have their own mother tongue, district, culture, social structure and written the oral history. They are the ethnic minorities of Nepal who are known as Janajati Adivasi and by other alternatives. Janajati and Adivasi are the common terms widely used by the majority of population and in the government documents. Basically, indigenous people are animists or nature worshippers. But, they at present adhere different religions, such as Buddhist, Hindu, and so on.

According to ILO Convention No.169, indigenous people "are [those] regarded indigenous on account of their descent from the populations which inhabited the country or a geographical region to which the country belongs, at the time of conquest or colonization or the establishment of present state boundaries, and who, irrespective of their legal status, retain some or all of their own social, economic, cultural and political institutions." According to the National Foundation for

Development of Indigenous Nationalities Act 2002, people of Nepal who meet with the following characteristics are termed as indigenous people.

- (a) Those who have their own ethnic languages other than Nepali,
- (b) Those who have their own distinct traditional customs other than those of the ruling high castes,
- (c) Those who espouse a cultural distinct from that of Aryan /Hindu culture of dominant groups,
- (d) Those who have distinct social structures that do fall under hierarchical varna or caste system,
- (e) Those who have written or oral history that traces their use of decent back to the occupants of the territories before their annexation into the present frontiers of Nepal, and
- (f) Those who are listed in schedule of indigenous people/nationalities published by HMGH.

Nepal Federation of Indigenous Nationalities has classified 59 indigenous people or nationalities into 5 major categories which are as follows:

**(I) Endangered Groups:**

Bankaria	Surel	Kushbadiya
Raji	Hayu	Kisan
Kusunda	Lepcha	Raute
Meche		

**(II) Highly Marginalized Groups:**

Santhal	Bote	Jhangad
Dhanuk(Rajbanshi)	Chepang	Lhomi(Singsawa)
Thami	Thundamba	Majhi
Siyar(Chumba)	Baharu	Danuwar

**(III) Marginalized Groups:**

Sunuwar	Tajpuria	Tharu
Pahari	Tamang	Dhokpya(Topke gova)
Bhujel	Dolpo	Kumal
Free	Rajbanshi(Koche)	Mugal
Gangai	Larke (Nupriba)	Dhimal
Lhop	Bhote	Dura
Darai	Walung	

**(IV) Disadvantaged Groups:**

<b>Magar</b>	Yakkha	Jirel
Chhairotan	Tangbe	Tingaunle Thakali
Hyolmo	Bahnagaunle	Limbu
Byansi	Rai	Byansi
Chhantyal	Gurung	Marphali Thakali
Sherpa		

**(V) Advanced Group:**

Newar	Thakali
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(Source: NHDR: 2004)

Indigenous people constitute 37.2% of Nepal's total population. The population census 2001 shows that the largest indigenous groups of Nepal are Magar (7.1%), Tharu(6.7%), Tamang(5.6%), Newar (5.5%), Rai (2.8%), Gurung (2.4%) and Limbu ( 1.6%). Among indigenous people the literacy rate of Thakali, Byansi, Hyolmo, Newar, Gurung, Limbu, Yakkha, Darai, Chhantyal, Jirel, Dura, Rai and Mager rose in 2001 above the national average (53.7%), but other indigenous nationalities have their literacy rates below the national average of the 352000 Nepalese graduates and postgraduates, only 8.7% (30.5

thousand) are indigenous people-excluding Newars and of the 831500 person who have done SLC or their equivalent ,18.2% are Janajatis-excluding Newars . Similarly, only 2.72% mountain's and hills' indigenous people are legislators, senior officials, managers, professionals, 1.51% are technicians and associate professionals, and 1.94% are clerks or office assistants. As regards the Terai Indigenous people, 1.30% are legislators, senior officiates, managers and professionals, 0.78% are technicians and associate professionals and 1.84% are clerks or office assistants.

The occupation of majority of indigenous people is farming. However, there are some indigenous groups such as Newars, Thakalis, Marphali Thakalis, Sherpas and Gurungs who work in business and industry. Almost one of the indigenous population is engaged in non-farm activities. Though majority of indigenous people engage in agriculture, they have no access to resources related to land ownership. Only 2.8% of the Tharu, 0.32% of the Tamang, 0.76% of the Rai and 0.63% of the Magar communities, respectively, have self-operated land of more than 10 acres. Regarding the religions, these people are, in addition to Hindus, largely Buddhists, Mundhumists (the karatis), Bonists and Animists or Shamanists.

(Source: NHDR, 2004)

### **1.1.5 Language Policy in Nepal**

In the Rana regime, one nation one language was maintained. Nepali continued to grow and expand whereas other languages fell far behind Nepali. The monopoly of Nepali as the language of government offices, education and media opened the door of the opportunities to its native speakers. They got easy access to education

since the medium of instruction in schools was Nepali. On the contrary, the speakers of other languages were obstructed indirectly to get education because the medium of instruction was not in their native tongue. The government not only promoted Nepali by making it the language of administration, education, information and media but also gave it the status of national language. However, the government's effort to make Nepali the medium of instruction in higher education did not succeed because of the lack of adequate teaching materials in the language. It is clear that while promoting Nepali, the government did nothing to preserve and promote other languages and as a result, non-Nepali speakers have been at a disadvantage in education, employment and other social benefits. So far Nepal has been lucky that the question of dominant versus minority language has not been politicized.

The new Constitution of Nepal 1990 recognizes all indigenous, languages of the country as national languages and guarantees each community the right to preserve and promote its language, script and culture. The constitution also asserts the fundamental right of each community to operate schools up to the primary level in its own mother tongue for imparting education to its children. But there are vast numbers of languages that need linguistic description and written form before they develop any teaching materials. The government formed National Languages Policy Recommendations Commission which submitted its report on the language situation in Nepal and made significant recommendation on the preservation and promotion of the minority language of the country.

### **1.1.6 The Magar Ethnic Group: Introductions, Origin and History**

Magars, the largest group among the indigenous nationalities, is also the third largest ethnic group in Nepal. Magars were first in mid-hill of central Nepal and had slowly migrated to other parts to the country over long period of time. Therefore, Magars are more or less found all over Nepal now.

Grierson (1909) have put Magar within Non-pronominalized group within the Himalayan branch of Tibeto-Burman family.

The prehistory and the early history of Nepal are largely unknown. The ancient history of the Nepalese, like that of all other nations which affects to trace their origin beyond the data of authentic records, is clouded by Mythological fables.

The state of Magars cannot be different, despite of several literacy sources on Magars, the origin and history is replete with compounded speculations and in explicit details. Information on Magars is picked here and there. Some of these information requires evidences, some are controversial and quite often there are missing links in between the period of history. This is so due to the dearth of substantial evidences and accurate and chronological documents.

Some experts say that two Magars named 'Sing' and 'Chitu' have first come to the southern part of Nepal from the Sim of China. Others argue that their origin was the eastern Nepal as there is more similarities between the Magar language and the language of Lepcha, residences of Sikkim, it is also imagined that Magars had come to Nepal from 'Kham' region of China as 'Kham Magars' dialect comes under a Tibetan

language of 'Athar Magarati'. Similarly, some of them claim that Magars had migrated from 'Rajputana' of India. Somebody claims that Magars were residing on lower hilly region of Palpa from the very beginning and had slowly scattered into central and western parts of Nepal.

#### **(a)Nomenclature of Magar**

There are different arguments and a lot of debates about the entry of Magar, in Nepal and on how the name of Magar tribe was formed. Some argued that Magars had entered into Nepal from Sim of China, Assam and northern part of India; Sikkim and southern part of India. But there is not a consensus yet. Similarly, whether these Magars remained pure or became mixed blood with the Magars entering to Nepal from different part of the world is yet to be studied. Further more, their interrelationship is also unknown. In other words, these issues have not been raised empirically. To some historians, they were termed 'Magar' as they had lived in mid hill of Nepal. Similarly, people in this part used to say 'Khanal' to the worker whose job was doing work in mine and 'magara' whose job was throwing mud out of mine. It is assumed that they were named 'Magars' after 'Magara' by the new generation. The valley between Mahakali River and Chadravanga River used to be called 'Maharlok' and the people coming from the same place were, later on termed as 'Magar'. It is also mentioned that they became 'Magar' because they were migrated from 'Magadh' of India. Similarly, 'Magars' are used to be addressed as 'Mahars' in eastern Nepal 'Chyang' in Sikkim and 'pare' in western region of Nepal. In the same way, Curk Pyatrik, the first British missionary for Nepal had also addressed 'Magars' as 'Muggar'.



## **(b) Magar Language and its Dialects**

Magar have their own language named 'Magarat Language', Baral(1993)has grouped the Magar language basically into two groups, namely *Barah* and *Athar* Magaranti language. *Kham* and *Chyantal* dialects come under 'Athar Magarati Language' the language spoken by Magars in western part of Rukum, Rolpa, Pyuthan and Baglung district is called '*Kham Error!Not a valid link.e*'. The language used by Rokaya Magars of Tarkot, Dolpa is called '*Kaike Error!Not a valid link.e*'. Similarly, the *Chhyantal language* is spoken in Baglung and Myagdi districts. Besides the dialects of Magar language spoken by Magars all over Nepal comes under '*barah Magarat language*'.

Although the origin of the Magar language is considered Palpa, Shyangja and northern part of Nawalparashi in particular, it is also spoken in Banke, Surkhet and Dailekh in the west and Kavre, Ramechhap, Udayapur , Mohottari Bhojpur, Panchthar, Terathym, Illam, Morang , Dhankuta, etc. in the east.

According to the number of people speaking a language, Magar language, Magar language is ranked as the seventh most widely spoken language in Nepal.

## **(c) Script of the Magar Language**

The Magar language has its own script named 'Akkha' script. M. S. Thapa Magar was the first Magar to discover this script. However, it is claimed that this script was freely being used by 'Lichchhavis' in Nepal. Only a few scholars and experts have claimed over it and say that it was the Magar's ancient script. The Sixth Central Conference of Magar

Association held from 15-18 falgun, 2054 in Nawalparasi district had authoritatively accepted 'Akkaha' script as a Magar script.

To this date there has been published only one book in Akkha script entitled 'Magar Bhasako Karmakand' written by Chandra Bahadur Rana Magar in 2051. Recently from 2063, Magars of Palpa have started publishing monthly wall magazine in this script. Except these all other literary articles of Magar language have been published in 'Devanagiri' and 'Roman' script. According to Magar Association, some Magars in Bhutanese refugee camp at Khudunabvari of Jhapa district have been found studying books written in Akkha script.

#### **(d) Population and Residence of Magar**

The Census Report of 2001 has registered the population of Magars around 3622421 among the total population of Nepal. Among the total population only 3.39% or 770116 Magars speak Magar language, other remaining Magars speak Khas and Nepali. But Lafa Magar (Adiwashi, Janajati, Diwas, 2061) claims that the actual population of Magar is between 3000000 to 3500000, it constitutes nearly one third of country's total Magar population.

The census report 2001 shows that Magar language speakers are increasing day by day. Magar language speakers are found all over Nepal. However, more residential districts of Magars are Palpa, Nawalparashi, Rolpa, Tanahun, Baglung, Shyanja, Rupendehi, Gulmi, Dang and Surkhet.

The Magars are settled in Asam, Bengal, Darjeeling, Sikkim, Jalpaiguri, Chittagung Hill tracts, Champaran of India (Grierson 1909:206), Bhutan, Malaysia, Burma and other countries.

On the basis of development region Magar population is as follows:

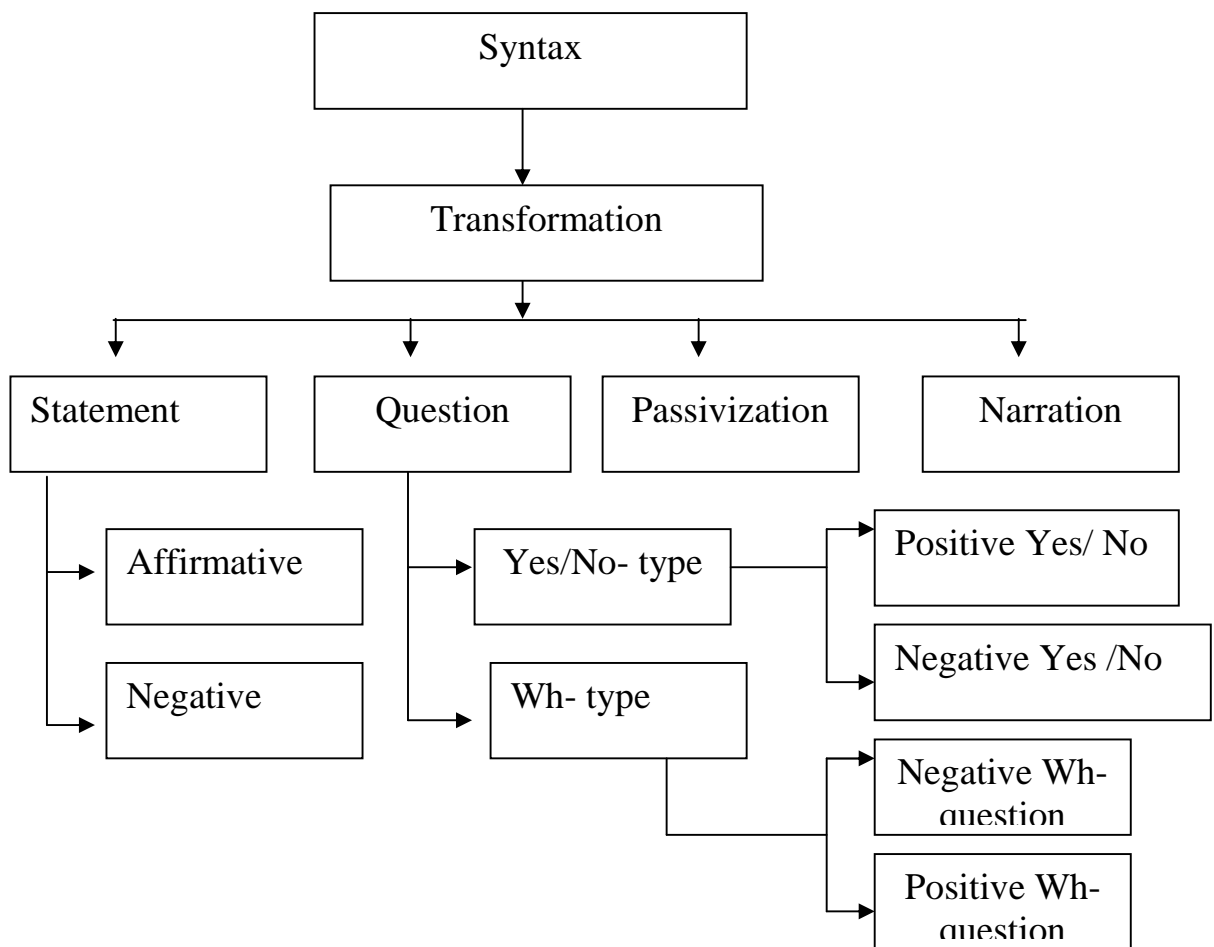
Development Region	Population
Western Region	750960
Mid western Region	391650
Central Region	256957
Eastern Region	180363
Far western Region	42491

### **1.1.7 An Overview of Transformational Theory**

Transformational Generative (TG) Grammar has been proposed by the American linguist Noam Chomsky in 1957. TG Grammar is the model of the native speaker's competence which contains the finite set of rules which can generate in finite number of all and only grammatical sentences of a language and transform or map them onto others. It means TG grammar is both generative and transformational in nature. By 'transformation' Chomsky means the rules which transform or map a sentence onto other and the deep structure into the surface structure. Funk and Wagnalls (1960:2549) define transformation as "the act of transforming, or the state of being transformed, a change in form, nature, or character." Similarly, according to Robins (1967:242) "Essentially transformation is a method of starting how the structures of many sentences in languages can be generated or explained formally as the result of specific transformations applied to certain basis structures." The basic (kernel) sentences like affirmative, active and direct can be transformed into derived (non kernel) sentences like negative and interrogative, passive and indirect respectively applying 4 t-rules such as (I) addition/ insertion (II) substitution (III) deletion and (IV)permutation.

The construction of a grammar of a language involves three components of language viz. phonology, grammar: morphology and

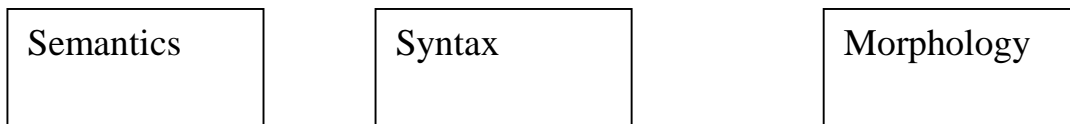
syntax, and semantics. Syntax is a grammar of sentences. It is the study of how words combine to form sentences and rules which govern the formation of sentences. In TG grammar, the syntactic component, one of the three main parts of the grammar, contains the rules for forming syntactic structures and rules for changing these structures. Both negative and interrogative transformations are the parts of syntax, which involves the other transformations as well.



### 1.1.8 Meaning of Syntax and its Importance in Relation to Negative and Interrogative Transformation

The word ‘syntax’ is derived from a Greek word meaning ‘ordering together’ systematic arrangement or putting together. It is a sentence building science which means putting words together into grammatical sentence.

The negative and interrogative sentences are also parts of syntax; within a syntactic framework, they are derived, formed or transformed. Such transformed sentences are used in pragmatics of speech situation. The negative and interrogative sentences facilitate and make the conversation possible and lively. Each language is understood through interchange of question and negation. So, the chief concern of syntax is the sentence of different forms which convey special functions. It is the maximal unit of grammatical analysis and the minimal syntactic is the morpheme. All components of language are closely related. They can be shown in figure as bellow:



### **1.1.9 Negative and Interrogative Transformation in the English Language: An Overview**

The Negative and Interrogative Transformation is an essential component of the underlying system of language. It is the functional part of grammar which has eventually introduced varieties of transformations like active/passive, affirmatives/negatives, wh-questions, yes /no question and relativization etc. All these transformations are interrelated. They have also great significance in programmatic part of grammar which is undoubtedly core of every language. On the other hand, they have been prescribed as essential elements of English Language Teaching (ELT) at School and Campus level.

The Negative and Interrogative Transformations being the fundamental aspect of grammar; are an essential input of syntax.

Transformation means a change or shift from one acceptable grammatical structure to that of other.

### **(I) Negation**

Negation is a process in grammar to contradict the meaning or part of the meaning of sentences. Crystal (1997:297) defines negation as “a process or construction in GRAMMATICAL and SEMANTIC analysis which typically expresses the contraction of some or all of a sentence’s meaning”. It is expressed by inserting the negative particle ‘not’ or it’s contracted form ‘n’t’ in English. However if there is not an auxiliary verb in an affirmative sentence, we need to apply Do-support (also known as operator addition) rule. Negation in English is a very board topic; it affects words, phrases, and sentences. Hence, it can be expressed on the following levels.

#### **(a) The lexical level**

The word or lexical level negation can be made by adding a negative derivational prefix such as un-, in-, im-, il-, ir-, dis-, a-, etc. to adjectives and adverbs.

Happy-unhappy	happily-unhappily
Appropriate-inappropriate	appropriately-inappropriately
Possible-impossible	possibly-impossibly
Logical-illogical	logically-illogically
Relevant-irrelevant	relevantly-irrelevantly
Ordered-disordered	orderly-disorderly
Typical-atypical	typically-atypically

Source: Celce-Murcia and Freeman (1999:184)

**(b) The Phrase Level:**

The negative determiner 'no' is used to make a noun phrase (NP) negative:

Plans have been made.

No plans have been made.

Similarly, infinitive phrases can be made negative using 'not' before infinitive verbs;

Mohan has decided to pay his income tax this year.

Mohan has decided not to pay his income tax this year.

Source: Celce-Murcia and Freeman (1999:185-186)

**(c) The Sentence Level:**

'Not' is the main sentence level negator:

John is at home.

John is not at home.

However, 'no' can also make a sentence negative, especially when it negates the subject:

No one was home to sign for the package

Source: Celce- Murcia and Freeman (1999:186)

**(II) Interrogation:**

Interrogation is a process of transformation in which the declarative sentences are changed into question forms. The usual function of a question in discourse is to request the listener to respond verbally with information that the questioner seeks. Richards et al. (1985:235) defines question as "a sentence which is addressed to a listener/reader and asks for an expression of fact, opinion, belief etc". e.g. How do you do? Can she come? Question is broadly divided into two types:

**(a) Yes/no-questions**

Yes/no questions are often defined question for which either 'yes' or 'no' is the expected answer. They query an entire proposition. Yes/no question is of two types.

- Positive yes/no question: Does Mina study English?
- Negative yes/no question: Does Mina not study English?

Source: Celce-Murcia and Freeman (1999:205)

Yes/no questions are also known as polar questions.

**(b) Wh- Questions**

Wh-questions which are also known as content questions or information questions are formed with the aid of one of the following simple interrogative words (wh-words):

Who/whom, whose, what, which, when, where, how, why

Wh-questions ask for completing some specific information in a sentence. They are used to request specific information. For instance, wh-questions are used in social interaction (what's your name?), for getting directions (where's the post office?), in seeking explanations (why is the plane late?), for eliciting vocabulary (what's this?), and so forth. They are - used when the speaker is missing one specific piece of information. Like yes/no-questions. Sinclair (2000:199) holds the view that when we ask someone a ' wh-questions' we want them to specify a particular person, thing, place, reason, method or amount. We don't expect them to answer 'yes' or 'no'.

There are two types of wh-questions which are as follows:

- Positive wh-questions: What is your name?
- Negative wh-questions: Where do you not go?

Source: Celce-Murcia and Freeman (1999:241)



### **(III) Transformation rules**

The rules of negative and interrogative transformation have been extracted from Sinclair (2000), Quirk and Greenbaum (1990), Aarts and Aarts (1968), Thomson and Martinet (1986), Celce-Murcia and Larson-Freeman (1999), and Leech and Savrtvik (2000).

#### **(a) Rules for Transforming Affirmative Sentences into Negatives**

- i. The negation of a simple sentence is accomplished by inserting the negative marker *not*, *n't* between the operator and predication.

For example:

He is coming.    He is not (isn't) coming.

Source: Quirk and Greenbaum (1990:183)

- ii. If there is no auxiliary verb in the affirmative sentence, we put *do*, *does*, or *did* after the subject followed by *not* or *n't* followed by the base form of the main verb.

For example:

They play hockey.    They do not (don't) play hockey.

He speaks English.    He does not (doesn't) speak English.

I knew that.    I did not (didn't) know that.

Source: Sinclair (2000:207)

- iii. If the main verb is *do* in an affirmative sentence, we still put *do*, *does*, or *did* after subject followed by *not* or *n't* followed by the base form of *do*.

For example:

We do our homework. We do not (don't) do our homework.

Saloni does this. Saloni does not (doesn't) do this.

I did that. I did not (didn't) do that.

- iv. If the verb is *have* in an affirmative sentence and it functions as a main verb, we usually put *do*, *does* or *did* after the subject followed by *not* or *n't* followed by the base form of *have*.

For example:

I have my meal. I do not (don't) have my meal.

She has her meal. she does not (doesn't) have her meal.

He had a grand salary. He did not (didn't) have a grand salary.

Source: Sinclair (2000:208)

- v. Imperative sentences are changed into negative by using *do not* or *don't* in the beginning of the sentences.

For example:

Tell the truth. Do not (don't) tell the truth.

Speak honestly. Do not (don't) speak honestly.

- vi. *Some* is changed into *any*. Therefore, *somebody* is changed into *anybody*, *something* into *anything*, *somewhere* into *anywhere*.

For example:

Nirmala gave him something. Nirmala did not give him anything.

But if these words (*somebody, someone, something* etc.) are used as subject of verbs, we change the sentence into negative by changing only these particular words. If we do so, no grammatical changes are needed. We change the word as follows:

<u>Affirmative</u>	<u>Negative</u>
<i>Someone</i>	<i>No one</i>
<i>Somebody everybody</i>	<i>Nobody</i>
<i>Something</i>	<i>Nothing</i>

For example:

*Someone* helped me.    *No one* helped me.

*Something* is lost.    *Nothing* is lost.

- vii. In some cases, formation of negative is possible only by changing the following affirmative words into negative ones without adding *not* after auxiliary verb.

<u>Affirmative</u>	<u>Negative</u>
Always/ever	never
Every.../some.../any...	no...
Everyone/someone/anyone	no one/none
Either...or	neither...nor

For example:

Ravi *always* smokes.    Ravi *never* smokes.

*Either* Saloni *or* Palavi will come.    *Neither* Saloni *nor* Palavi will come.

- viii. Must is often changed into *need not* when there is the absence of obligation and rarely into *must not* when there is negative obligation imposed by the speaker or very emphatic advice.

For example:

You *must make* two copies.    You *need not* make two copies. One will do.

You *must* repeat this to someone.    You *must not* repeat this to anyone.

Source: Thomson and Martinet (1986:141/42)

(iX) Another way in which we can make a statement negative is by using a broad negative marker. Broad negatives, according to Sinclair, are adverbs like *rarely* and *seldom* which are used to make statement almost totally negative.

For example:

We were able to move.    We were scarcely able to move.

Here is a list of the most common broad negatives: hardly, rarely, scarcely, seldom.

Source: Sinclair (2000:214)

(X) Some negative prefixes can be added to the beginning of some words to give them the opposite meaning.

For example:

Unhappy, invisible, dislike, impossible, illegal, irresponsible, malnutrition etc.

They were happy.    They were unhappy.

Source: Sinclair (2000:213)

(Xi) Similarly, the suffix-less also can be added to many nouns in order to form negative adjectives.

For example:

Careless, harmless, homeless, nameless, childless, helpless, needless, endless, hopeless, senseless, landless, etc

They were completely helpful.      They were completely helpless.

Source: Sinclair (2000:214)

### **(b) Rules for Transforming the Statements into Yes/No Questions**

The following rules must be applied while transforming statements into yes/no questions.

- (i) Yes/no question is usually made according to the pattern given below:

Aux. V. + Subj. + M.V. + ....?

- (ii) In a statement, if there is an auxiliary verb (except *do* and *have* in the main verb function), the auxiliary verb is moved to the initial position of the sentence which is followed by the subject then the main verb.

For example:

They will like my garden.      Will they like my garden?

Source: Sinclair (2000:197)

- (iii) If there is more than one verb, the auxiliary verb has to be moved at the beginning of the clause followed by the subject followed by the other verbs.

For example:

He had been murdered.     Had he been murdered?

Source: Sinclair (2000:198)

- (iv) If there is no auxiliary verb in a statement, we put *do*, *does* or *did* at the beginning of the clause in front of the subject followed by the base form of the main verb.

For example:

You live in Sidney.     Do you live in Sidney?

Source: Sinclair (2000:198)

- (v) It is to be noticed that if the main verb is *do*, we still put *do*, *does* or *did* at the beginning of the clause in front of the subject.

For example:

They do the work.     Do they do the work?

Source: Sinclair (2000:198)

- (vi) If the verb is *have*, we usually put *do*, *does* or *did* at the beginning of the clause in front of the subject.

For example:

Hedgehogs have intelligence.     Do Hedgehogs have intelligence?

Source: Sinclair (2000:198)

- (vii) In yes/no questions, non-assertive words (e.g. any-word like any, anybody, anyone, anything, anywhere etc. are generally used.

For example:

He gave her something.      Did he gave her something?

Source: Sinclair (1990:184)

### **(c) Rules for Transforming the Statements into Wh-Questions**

The following rules must be born in mind while transforming statements into yes/no questions.

- (i) Wh-question is usually made according to the pattern given below:

Q.W. + Aux. V. + Subj. + M.V. + .....?

- (ii) While transforming a statement into wh-question, the exact answer should be deleted.

For example:

Jack climbed the tree.      What did jack climb?

- (iii) If we are using the simple present tense or the simple past tense of any verb except *be*, we put *do*, *does*, or *did* in front of the subject.

For example:

Mary lives in London.      Where does Mary live?

Source: Sinclair (2000:199-200)

- (iv) If we are using the simple present tense or the simple past tense of be, the main verb has to be placed in front of the subject. We do not use *do*, *does*, or *did*.

For example:

The station is near the post office.      Where is the station?

Source: Sinclair (2000:200)

Some rules which have to be considered to use different wh-words (e.g. who, whom, whose, which etc.) in making wh-questions are as follows:

- (a) ‘Who’ and ‘Whom’

The pronoun ‘who’ is used to ask a question about a person’s identity, ‘who’ can be the subject or object of a verb.

For example:

Who discovered this?

‘Who’ and ‘whom’ can also be the object of a preposition. When ‘who’ is the object of preposition, the preposition is put at the end of the clause.

For example:

Who did you dance with?

When ‘whom’ is the object of a preposition, the preposition is put at the beginning of the clause, in front of ‘whom’.

For example:

To whom is a broadcaster responsible?



(b) 'Whose' and 'whom'

'Whose' is used as a determiner or pronoun to ask which person something belongs to or is associated with.

For example:

Whose babies did you think they were?

'Which' is used as a pronoun or determiner to ask someone to identify a specific person or thing out of a number of people or things.

For example:

Which is the best restaurant? ('which' as 'pronoun')

Which item do you like best? ('which' as 'determiner')

(c) 'When' and 'where'

'When' is used to ask a question about the time something happened, happens, or will happen.

For example:

When did you find her?

'Where' is used to ask a question about place, position or direction.

For example:

Where does she live? ('where' as place)

(d) 'Why' and 'How'

'Why' is used to ask a question about the reason for something.

For example:

Why are you here?

‘How’ is usually used to ask about the method for doing something, or about the way in which something can be achieved.

For example:

How do we open it?

‘How’ is also used to ask a question about the way a person feels about the way someone or something looks or about the way something sounds, feels or tastes.

For example:

How are you feeling today?

How do I look?

‘How’ can be combined with other words at the beginning of questions.

For example:

How many, How much, How long, How far etc.

Source: Sinclair (2000:200-202)

### **1.1.10 Negative and Interrogative Transformations and its Relation to Present Language Teaching.**

English is being taught in schools and campuses of Nepal, both as a compulsory subject as well as elective one. The history of English language teaching dates back to the initiation of Darbar High School, one of the first schools in Nepal soon after the arrival of then Rana Prime Minister Junga Bahadur Rana from his historic tour of Britain. Since then, English has been taught as a foreign language. In fact, teaching/learning English in all levels either at schools or at colleges is as troublesome as it was in the beginning. It has become a nuisance more to learners. The difficulty of teaching and learning English has developed into a crisis in our higher education itself, English is also a medium of instruction and examination in higher education. But due to the lack of learner's base in English from the very beginning, English teaching/learning situation is poor. For this, several factors are responsible.

The negative and interrogative transformations have been made a compulsory part of English curriculum. The teaching/learning of negative and interrogative transformation in the English language is facing severe problems such as, lack of sound teaching/learning environment, trained and qualified teachers, adequate financial support, effective teaching aids and regularity of the structure of education. Besides, unscientific methods of teaching and poor classroom situations are the major problems faced by the teaching/learning process in English.

### **1.1.11 Need and Importance of Contrastive Analysis**

Contrastive analysis (CA) is a branch of applied linguistics. There are several languages in the world, some of which are genetically related and others are not. The languages, which are genetically unrelated, may resemble each other in some features while genetically related languages

may be quite different in the same features. The credit of finding out the common and uncommon features between the languages goes to CA. CA compares two or more languages in order to find out their similarities and differences and then to predict the areas of ease and difficulty in learning the comparison is done on phonological, morphological, syntactic, discourse and other levels as well. The comparison may be of two types:

### **(I) Interlingual Comparison**

The comparison between two languages like English and Magar is called interlingual comparison.

### **(II) Intralingual comparison**

The comparison between the two dialects like eastern Magar and western Magar of the same language viz. Magar is called intralingual comparison.

To quote James (1980), “contrastive analysis is a linguistic enterprise aimed at producing inverted (i.e. contrastive, not comparative) two-valued typological (a CA is always concerned with a pair of languages) and founded on the assumption that languages can be compared.” Although in the early 19<sup>th</sup> century CA was used for the study of genetic relationships of languages, from mid 20<sup>th</sup> century CA was started to be used in the field of language teaching. CA approach in language teaching was first advocated by C.C. Fries and Robert Lado. In 1945, Fries published a book entitled “Teaching and Learning English as a Foreign Language” in which he quotes that “the most effective materials are those that are based upon a scientific description of the language to be learned, carefully compared with a parallel description of the native language of the learner.” Lado, in 1957, wrote a book entitled “Linguistics Across Culture” which disseminated the work initiated by

Fries. Lado 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 productively when attempting to speak the language ..... and respectively when attempting to grasp 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 a comparison of the foreign language with the native language of the students will know better what the real learning problems are and can better provide for teaching them.”

An  $L_2$  learner tends to transfer the system of his  $L_1$  to the  $L_2$  he is learning. Therefore, the  $L_1$  and the  $L_2$  need to be compared to find out their similarities and differences which are the sources of ease and difficulty in learning  $L_2$ .

Transfer may be either positive or negative. If the past learning facilitates the present learning, the transfer may be positive. It is called facilitation. On the contrary, transfer may be negative if the past learning interferes the present learning. It is called interference. The ease or difficulty in learning  $L_2$  depends on whether it is similar to  $L_1$  or different. It will be easy to learn  $L_2$  if both  $L_1$  and  $L_2$  are similar and there will be less chances of committing errors. On the contrary, it will be difficult to learn an  $L_2$  if both  $L_1$  and  $L_2$  are different and there will be more chances of committing errors.

In a nutshell, the more similarities between the two languages the more easier to learn and the more differences between the two languages the more difficult to learn. We can say that greater the similarities greater the ease and greater the ease lesser the chances of error and greater the differences greater

the difficulty and greater the difficulty greater the chances of error. CA has its great importance in language teaching. It has mainly two functions. Firstly, it predicts the tentative error to be committed by the L<sub>2</sub> learner and secondly it explains the sources and reasons of the L<sub>2</sub> learner's error. So a language teacher should have knowledge of CA to treat the learners psychologically and academically. Unless a language teacher knows the sources and types of the errors that learners commit, s/he can not impart knowledge to the learners. James (1980) points out three traditional pedagogical applications of CA. according to him, CA has applications in predicting and diagnosing a proportion of the L<sub>2</sub> errors committed by learners with a common L<sub>1</sub> and in design of testing instruments for such learners.

CA is helpful in identifying the areas of difficulties in learning and errors in performance determining the areas which the learners have to learn with greater emphasis and designing teaching/learning materials for those particular areas that need more attention. CA not only predicts the likely errors to be committed by learners but also explains the sources of errors in one's performance. CA is important from pedagogical point of view. The language teachers, testing experts, syllabus designers and textbook writers get benefits from the findings of CA.

Sthapit (1978b) in his article on "Education Quarterly" writes the roles of CA in L<sub>2</sub> teaching in following way: "When we start learning an L<sub>2</sub> our mind is no longer a clean state. Our knowledge of L<sub>1</sub> has, as it were, stiffened our linguistically flexible mind. The linguistic habits of L<sub>1</sub>, deeply rooted in our mental and verbal activities, do not allow us to learn freely the new linguistic habits to L<sub>2</sub>. That is to say that the inference of the habits of L<sub>1</sub> is a key factor that accounts for the difficulties in learning

L<sub>2</sub>. In other words, L<sub>1</sub> interference stands as a main obstacle on our way to L<sub>2</sub> learning. Learning L<sub>2</sub> is, therefore, essentially learning to overcome this obstacle. So any attempt to teach L<sub>2</sub> should be preceded by an explanation of the nature of possible influence of L<sub>1</sub> behaviour on L<sub>2</sub> behaviour. This precisely what CA does”.

## **1.2 Review of Related Literature**

There are some linguistic comparative researches on different languages in different fields but in the field of negative and interrogative there are few researches have been carried out. The related literature review to the present study is as follows:

Money (1919) has prepared a brief outline of Magar Kura (language) Grammar. He has mentioned –le/mole, -a/molia are a-e affixes as the present, past and future tense markers respectively. The morphemes ‘biat’ and ‘mu’ are assigned to mark completed and continuative aspects. His work is very brief but historically important.

Pradhan (1939) has organized three tense types in a tabulated form associating with number-person-verb agreement system found especially in Palpa dialect of Magar tense associative affixes which are assigned to mark present, past and future tense are: -le, -a and ot/a-e respectively. Three aspects viz. simple, perfect and imperfect are also included in the text. The morpheme ‘ma’ has been presented as a common infix to both perfect and imperfect aspects. A separate morpheme ‘mu’ is particularly assigned to mark imperfect aspect. His work is prominent for further study.

Shepherd (1971) have prepared a phonemic summary of Magar. Name, Location, population of the speakers and relation to the other

languages of Magar are given. The dialect studied is ‘yanchok’, a place in Tanhun district.

Buda (1993) has framed a brief grammatical sketch of Magar language. He claims that Magar has no future tense. Tense has been split into binary opposition system as past and non-past. Within two tenses basically five aspects viz. perfect, progressive, habitual, past unreal and perfect progressive are included.

Regmi (1999) has made detailed study of ‘Causativisation on Magar’. The main objective of his study was to observe the morphological process of causativization in the magar language. He has classified Magar causative into four types namely morphological, morpholexical, lexical and syntactic. He found that both transitive and intransitive verbs are causativized in the magar language. Causativization in Magar performs two semantic functions. His study is based on Syngija dialect of Magar.

Lapha (2000) has mentioned three tense types with illustrations in brief.

Paudel (2001) has carried out a research entitled ‘An Analysis of Errors in Sentence Transformation’. The main objective of his study was to identify the errors that are committed in transforming sentences. He found most of the errors to be committed in punctuation marks, ‘some-any’ suppletion and ‘do’ insertion. The students committed the highest number of errors in transforming the sentences into wh-question and the lowest number of errors in affirmative transformation.

Khaniya (2002) has conducted a research on ‘Proficiency of the Students in Negative and Interrogative Transformation’. The objective of



his study was to find out the proficiency in negative and interrogative transformation of the students of grade 9 to Lamjung district. He found that students have better performance in negative transformation in respect to interrogative transformation and the boys are more proficient than the girls in both negative and interrogative transformation.

Paudel (2004) has conducted a research on ‘A Comparative Study on Negative and Interrogative Transformation in English and Panchthare Dialect of Limbu Language’. The main objective of his study was to compare and contrast the processes of negative and interrogative transformations in Pachthare Dialect of Limbu Language with that of English Language. He found that affix ‘me’ is the negative marker in Limbu which occurs before the verbs in assertive and imperative sentences, whereas the negative marker in English is ‘not’ which is added after the auxiliary verb. Yes/no question in Limbu is formed by placing ‘bi’ or ‘pi’ after the verb, whereas an auxiliary occurs at the beginning of the sentence in English. No subject auxiliary inversion takes place in interrogation in Limbu.

### **1.3 Objectives of the study**

The study has the following objectives:

- (I) To identify the processes of negative and interrogative transformations in the Magar language.
- (II) To compare and contrast the processes of negative and interrogative transformation in the Magar language with that of English.
- (III) To suggest some pedagogical implications.

## **1.4 Significance of the Study**

This study provides information about the negative and interrogative transformation in the Magar language in reference to English. Therefore, this research will be beneficial for the teachers who teach the Magar speaking children English as a second or foreign language. Similarly, the language experts, linguists, textbook writers, syllabus designers and the people who are interested in this field will be equally benefited by the study.

## **1.5 Definition of the Specific Terms**

### **Comparative:**

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.

### **Deletion:**

A basic operation within the framework of transformational grammar, which eliminates a constituent of an input phrase-marker.

### **Dialect:**

The variation in the use of lg. according to place, time and group of people.

### **Discourse:**

A set of utterances that constitute a speech event.

### **First language:**

A language that a person acquires first (or one's mother tongue).

### **Foreign language:**

A language learned for some obvious purpose, mostly to communicate with the foreigners. It is not a native language of one's country.

### **Functional grammar:**

A grammar proposed by M.A.K. Halliday in the 1970s which is based on social function of language. It is based on social function of language. It adopts a pragmatic view of language as social interaction.

**Inversion:**

A term used in grammatical analysis to refer to the process or result of syntactic change in which a specific sequence of constituents is seen as the reverse of another.

**Ermutation:**

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).

**Phonology:**

The study of the system of sound patterns that occur in a particular language.

**Second language:**

A language other than one's mother tongue or native language which is widely used for a special purpose, e.g. for education government.

**Semantics:**

The study of the meaning of the words.

**Species-species:**

A property of language that regards human mind equipped with special type of innate capacity to acquire language.

**Substitution:**

Used in linguistics to refer to the process or result of replacing one item by another at particular place in a structure.

## **CHAPTER TWO**

### **METHODOLOGY**

The methodology adopted by the researcher to carry out the research in order to fulfill the objectives mentioned above is described below.

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

The data to complete the research were collected from both primary and secondary sources.

##### **2.1.1 Primary Sources**

The sixty Magar native speakers from Dandabazar and Bhedetar VDCs of Dhankuta district were the primary sources from whom the researcher elicited the required data for the research.

##### **2.1.2 Secondary Sources**

The secondary sources of data were different books, articles, journals, theses and other related materials to the topic. Some of them are: Arts and Arts (1986), Murphy (1997), Celce-Murcia and Larsen-Freeman (1999), Thomson and Martinet (1986), Sinclair (2000), Quirk and Greenbaum (1990),etc.

#### **2.2 Population of the Study**

The population of the study was the sixty native speakers of the Magar language of Dandabazar and Bhedetar VDCs in Dhankuta district who were 15-60 year of age. Thirty informants were taken from each VDC. They were 15 males and 15 females from each VDC. He selected the equal number of males and females for the collection of primary data.

#### **2.3 Sampling Procedure**

The researcher used random sampling procedure.

## **2.4 Research Tools**

The researcher elicited the required data from the selected informants using interview schedule as a research tool. (Appendix-I)

## **2.5 Procedure of Data Collection**

The researcher visited the selected VDCs of Dhankuta. He collected the census of Magar native speakers from the VDC office, and selected 60 speakers out of them. He involved two or three informants in one time and took structured interview. He did so to elicit more accurate data. He had also one Magar native speaker who as an interpreter facilitated him (the researcher) in data collection. The interview was recorded in written form using Devanagari script. (Appendix-II)

## **2.6 Limitations of the Study**

The study has the following limitations.

- (I) The study is limited to Magar native speakers of Dandabazar and Bhedetar VDC of Dhankuta District (i.e. only eastern dialect of Magar language).
- (II) The total study population is limited only 60 Magar native speakers.
- (III) The focus of the study is limited to only the processes of negative and interrogative transformations in Magar language with reference to English.
- (IV) The negative transformation is limited only to assertive and imperative sentences.
- (V) The interrogative transformation is limited only to positive assertive sentences.
- (VI) The transformation is limited only to simple sentences.
- (VII) Geographical and social variations are not accounted in this study.

## **CHAPTER THREE**

### **ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION**

This chapter deals with the analysis and interpretation of the data obtained from the selected informants by researcher in his research field. To achieve the objectives, the data elicited from 60 Magar native speakers were intensively studied, analyzed, compared and contrasted with those of English. The analysis and interpretation of the data has been presented as follows:

#### **3.1 Processes of Negative and Interrogative Transformation in Magar Language**

The processes of negative and interrogative transformation in the Magar language are separately described below.

##### **3.1.1 Processes of Negative Transformation in the Magar Language**

The processes of negative transformation include the negative transformation of both assertive and imperative sentences which are separately presented below.

###### **(I) Negative Transformation of Assertive Sentence in Magar Language**

Examples-Item (I)

1.           h n     g le  
          'I alcohol drink'  
          I drink alcohol.  
          h n     m -g le  
          'I alcohol not drink'

I do not drink alcohol.

2. a tis min k t badhin lo  
'I yesterday a clothe bought.

I bought a clothe yesterday.

- a tis min k t badhin m -lo  
'I yesterday a clothe not bought'

I did not buy a clothe yesterday.

3. pi r p sh hle  
'I tomorrow dance'

I will dance tomorrow.

- pinr p m -sh hle  
'I tomorrow not dance'

I will not dance tomorrow.

4. sita j t kh nane  
'Sita-by rice cooked-has'

Sit has cooked rice.

- Sita j t m -kh nnane  
'Sita-by rice not cooked has'

Sita has not cooked rice.

5. jaj koi k rgh many  
'Children me called had'

Children had called me.

- Jaj koi k m - rgh many  
'Children me not called had'

Children had not called me.

6. a mo mirus-khema mule  
'My mother angry be'

My mother will be angry.

a mo mirus-khema m -mule

'My mother angry not be'

My mother will not be angry.

7. prin shamhan munk m bh -le

'I the day after tomorrow by homework finished have'

I will have finished my homework by the day after tomorrow.

a prin shamhan munk m m -bh -le

'I the day after tomorrow by homework finished not have'

I will not have finished my homework by the day after tomorrow.

8. se il r kh ch n-le

'He here come allowed is'

He is allowed to come here.

se il r kh m -ch nle

'He here come not-allowed is'

He is not allowed to come here.

The above examples show that in Magar language the prefix 'm -' is the negative marker which is placed before the main verb while transforming the positive assertive sentence into the negative assertive sentence.

Exampes-Item(II)

9. shyam ra ram misna mume

'Shyam and Ram sleeping are'

Shyam and Ram are sleeping.

'shyam ra ram misna m -mume

'Shyam and Ram sleeping not are'

Shyam and Ram are not sleeping.



10. bo dis s tnana-le

'My father fishing was'

My father was fishing.

bo dis s tnana m -le

'My father fishing not was'

My father was not fishing.

In the Magar language, the above examples show that in continuous (ie. present and past continuous) tense the negative marker 'm -' is placed before the equivalent of English auxiliary verb.

### Examples-Item(III)

11. ce d r kkina parle

'He water bring has'

He has to bring water.

ce d r kkina m -parle

'He water bring not has'

He has not to bring water.

12. nima g n kh nk hyokle

'Nima curry cook can'

Nima can cook curry.

Nima g n kh nk m -hyokle

'Nima curry cook not can'

Nima can not cook curry.

13. n ko docterki dupkina parle

'You doctor-to visit must'

You must visit to the doctor.

n ko docterki dupkina m -parle

'You doctor to visit not-must'

You need not visit to the doctor.

14. k n dhankuta nunk parle  
 'We Dhankuta go should'  
 We should go to Dhankuta  
 k n dhankuta nunk m -parle  
 'We Dhankuta go not should'  
 We should not go to Dhankuta.
15. babu iscul nu le aul  
 'Uncle School go may'  
 Uncle may go to School.  
 babu iscul m - nunle aul  
 'Uncle School not go may'  
 Uncle may not go to School.

In the magar language another case is if there is equivalent of English modal verb' in positive assertive sentence the negative marker 'm -' is placed before the modal verb and before the main verb as well .

The examples presented above show that the transformation of assertive sentences into negative once is limited to syntactic process in Magar language. It is not extended to phonological process.

## (II) **Negative Transformation of Imperative Sentence in the Magar Language**

Examples:

16. kit b pareso  
 'Book read'  
 Read the book.  
 kit b m -pareso  
 'Book not read'

Don't read the book.

17. g l m thuno

'Door close'

Close the door.

g l m m -thuno

'Door not close'

Don't close the door.

The above examples clearly show that the negative imperative in the Magar language is formed by prefixing the negative marker 'm - ' before the verb (base).

### **3.1.2 Processes of Interrogative Transformation in the Magar Language**

The Magar language also has two types of interrogative. They are yes/no question and wh-question. The processes of these two types of interrogative are separately described below:

#### **(I) Yes/No Question**

Examples:

(18) mina di rakle

'Mina water brings'

Mina brings water.

mina di rakle?

'Mina water brings?'

Does Mina bring water?

(19) Jaj ko gesnanale

'Children playing are'

Children are playing

Jaj ko gesnanale?

'Children playing are?'

Are children playing?

(20) cei ki rgh mane

‘He me called has’

He has called me

cei ki rgh mane?

‘He me called has?’

Has he called me?

(21) k n il r h

‘We here came’

We came here.

K n il r h ?

‘We here came?’

Did we come here?

(22) b j g s cema mummy

‘My grandfather grass cutting was’

My grandfather was cutting grass.

b j g s cema mummy ?

‘My grandfather grass cutting was?’

Was my grandfather cutting grass?

(23) bajei arani kh s

‘Grandmother breakfast prepared’

Grandmother prepared the breakfast.

bajei arani kh s ?

‘Grandmother breakfast prepared?’

Did Grandmother prepare the breakfast?

(24) dae n koki rgh many

‘Sister you called had’

Sister had called you.

dae n koki rgh many ?

‘Sister you called had?’

Had sister called you/me?

(25) diwa pingr p nu le

‘Diwa tomorrow go’

Diwa will go tomorrow.

Diwa pingr p nu le?

‘Diwa tomorrow go?’

Will Diwa go tomorrow?

(26) rima sy kh ki hyokle.

‘Rima meat cook may’

Rima may cook meat.

rima sy kh nki hyokle?

‘Rima meat cook may?’

May Rima cook meat?

(27) cei kh ncha di g ki parle

‘He hot water drink should’

He should drink hot water.

cei kh ncha di g ki parle?

‘He hot water drink should?’

Should he drink hot water?

The above examples show that in Magar language yes/no question is formed by using rising intonation in the statement sentence. No subject auxiliary inversion takes place in forming yes/no question.

The same yes/no questions can also be formed by placing the wh element ‘h ’ in the beginning of the sentences without changing the order of the other constituents. But it is less used.

Examples:

(28) diwa pingr p nunle

‘Diwa tomorrow go’

Diwa will go tomorrow.

h diwa pingr p nunle?

‘What Diwa tomorrow go?’

Will Diwa go tomorrow?

(29) cei kh ncha di g ki parle

‘He hot water drink should’

He should drink hot water.

h cei kh ncha di g ki parle?

‘What he hot water drink should?’

Should he drink hot water?

## (II) Wh-question

The Magar language has the following equivalents of English wh-words which are used in forming questions like those of English wh-questions.

<u>English</u>	<u>Magar</u>
What	h
Who	s
Whose	suo
Which	Kuse
Where	Kul
Why	h ja
Whom	suki
When	sen
How	kuj tna

Examples:

(30) my rmin sima ho.

‘My name Sima is’

My name is Sima.

naku myr min h ho?

‘Your name what is?’

What is your name?

(31) Mohan c h k m j tnanale

‘Mohan now working is’

Mohan is working now.

s c ha k m j tnanale?

‘Who now working is?’

Who is working now?

(32) ise dayo badin ho,

‘This sister’s clothe is’

This is sister’s clothe.

ise badin suo ho,

‘This whose clothe is?’

Whose clothe is this?

(33) dut ciy j kle

‘I milk tea prefer’

I prefer milk tea.

Kuse ciya nako j kle?

‘Which tea you prefer?’

Which tea do you prefer?

(34) kewalei w k baj r n lh

‘Kewal-by pig market took’

Kewal took the pig in the market.

Kewalei w k kul lh ?

'Kewal-by pig where took?'

Where did kewal take the pig?

(35) moi ch l ki baj r nu y

'My mother salt buy the market-to went.

My mother went to the market to buy salt.

n ku moi hij i baj r nu y ?

'Your mother why market went?'

Why did your mother go to the market?

(36) shyamei hose khabar r mki dey

'Shyam-by that information Ram-to told'

Shyam told that information to Ram.

Shyamei hose khabar suki dey ?

'Shyam-by that information whom-to told?'

Whom did shyam tell that information?

(37) prem som baje r lh

'Prem three o'clock came'.

Prem came at 3 o'clock.

prem sen r lh ?

'Prem when came?'

When did Prem come?

(38) khurke mekh rku l f lakin khabar dup .

'They their friend-by message received'

They received the message with the help of their friends.

khurke kujatna khabar dup ?

' They how message received?'

How did they receive the message?

In wh-question of the Magar language, the examples present above clearly show that the question word in most of the cases is placed just



after the subject and at the beginning of the sentence when it functions as a subject.

No subject auxiliary inversion takes place in forming equivalents of English wh-questions in Magar language.

### **3.2 Comparison of the Processes of Negative and Interrogative Transformations in the Magar Language with those of the English**

The processes of negative and interrogative transformation in the Magar language with those in English are comparatively studied and analyzed as follows:

#### **3.2.1 Comparison of the Processes of Negative Transformation Between English and Magar Language.**

The present study includes the negative transformation of both assertive and imperative sentences of the Magar language which are separately compared with those of negative transformation of English assertive and imperative sentences.

##### **Negative Transformation of Assertive Sentences**

<b><u>Magar</u></b>			<b><u>English</u></b>
(1)	han g le	Aff.	I drink alcohol.
	'I alcohol drink'		
	han m -gale	Neg.	I don't drink alcohol.
	'I alcohol don't drink'		
(2)	r m ra shy m misna mume	Aff.	Ram and shyam are sleeping
	'Ram and shyam sleeping are'		

r m ra shy m misna m -mume Neg. Ram and Shyam are not sleeping

R m and Shyam sleeping not are'

(3) sita j t kh nane Aff. Sita has cooked rice

'Sita-by rice cooked has'

sitai j t m -kh nane Aff. Sita has not cooked rice

'Sita-by rice not cooked has'

(4) ai tisy min k t badin lo Aff. I bought a clothe yesterday.

'I-by yesterday a clothe bought'

nai tisy min k t badin m lo Neg. I did not buy a clothe yesterday.

'I-by yesterday a clothe did not buy'

(5) a boi disy s tnana le Aff. My father was fishing

'My father fishing was'

a boi disy s tnana m -le Neg. My father was not fishing

'My father fishing not was'

(6) jaj koi ki rgh may Aff. Children had called me.

'Children me called had'

jaj koi ki m - rgh many Neg. Children had not call me.

Children me not called had

(7) pingrap sh le Aff. I will dance tomorrow.

'I tomorrow dance'

pingrap m -shale Neg. I will not dance tomorrow.

'I tomorrow not dance'

(8) mo m rus khema mule AFF My mother will be angry.

'My mother angry will be'

mo m rus khema m -mule Neg. My mother will not be angry.

'My mother angry will not be'

(9) nim g n kh nki hyokle Aff. Nima can cook curry.

'Nima curry cook can'

nim g n kh nki m -hyokle Neg. Nima can not cook curry.

'Nima curry cook not can'

The researcher, while comparing the processes of negative assertive transformation system of the Magar and English languages, found the following main similarities and differences:

### **Similarities:**

(1) In the both Magar and English languages, negative transformation system is a common feature. Both languages have their own separate negative markers to negate the positive assertive sentences. They are:

#### **Magar**

m

#### **English**

not (or n't)

(2) In both Magar and English languages, the negative marker: m and 'not' occur in all situations (ie. The number system does not affect the use of negative markers in both languages).

(3) In both languages there is not phonological change.

### **Differences:**

(1) The negative marker is placed after an auxiliary verb in English whereas the negative marker is added before the main verb in most of the cases in the Magar language to make a positive assertive sentence negative.

(2) 'Not' is an independent negative marker in sentence level in English. In informal situation, the contracted form "n't" is used to negate the positive sentences in which case the negative marker "n't" is attached to the auxiliary verb. It means, it can not be used independently. The Magar negative marker can not be used

independently either. It is attached before the main verb and sometimes auxiliary verb also.

- (3) In English, if the positive sentence lacks the auxiliary verb, the periphrastic 'do' is used to form negative sentence. In this case, other forms of the verbs are changed into the root forms. This shows that in the case of English language the change is also the syntactic process, whereas in the case of Magar it is not.

### **- Negative Transformation of Imperative Sentence**

#### **Magar**

#### **English**

(1) ise kit b pareso Aff. Read this book.

'This book read'

ise kit b m -pareso Neg. Don't read this book.

'This book not read'

(2) kh nch die nahaso Aff. Have a bath with hot water.

'Hot water-by bath do'

Kh nch die m -nahaso Neg. Don't have a bath with not water

'Hot water-by bath not do'

In both Magar and English languages, imperative sentences are negated. In English imperative sentence, 'do not' (don't) is placed before the verb or the beginning of the sentence (i.e. negative imperative, sentence is initiated with 'do not' or 'don't') whereas the negative marker m is added just before the verb in Magar.

### **3.2.2 Comparison of the Processes of Interrogative Transformation Between English and Magar**

The two types of interrogative i.e. yes/no-question and wh-question are separately compared as follows:

## (I) Comparison of the Processes of Yes/No Question Transformation

The processes of yes/no question transformation of Magar are compared with those of English as follows:

### Yes/No-Questions of Positive Assertive Sentences

<u>Magar</u>		<u>English</u>
(1) min di rakle state.		Mina brings water.
'Mina water bring'		
mina d rakle? yes/no-q.		Does Mina bring water?
'Mina water bring?'		
(2) jaj ko gesnanale state.		Children are playing.
'Children playing are'		
jaj ko gesnanale? yes/no-q.		Are children playing?
(3) ce ak rgh mane state.		He has called me.
'He-by me called has'		
ce ak rgh mane? yes/no-q.		Has he called me?
'He-by me called has?'		
(4) k n la r h state.		We came here.
'We here came'		
k n la r h ? yes/no-q.		Did we came here?
'We here came?'		
(5) boi gh s cema mumya state.		My father was cutting grass.
'My father grass cutting was'		
boi gh s cema mumya? yes/no-q.		Was my father cutting grass?
'My father grass cutting was?'		
(6) boe h n g many state.		Father had drunk alcohol.
'Father-by alcohol drunk had'		

boe h n g many ? yes/no-q. Had father drunk alcohol?

'Father-by alcohol drunk had?'

(7) d w p ngr p nunle state. Diwa will go tomorrow.

'Diwa tomorrow go'

d w p ngr p nunle ? yes/no-q. Will Diwa go tomorrow?

'Diwa tomorrow go?'

(8) k n shy chajj tca ch nle state. We will be dancing.

'We dancing will be'

k n shy chajj tca ch nle? yes/no-q. Will We be dancing?

'We dancing will be?'

(9) ce kh ncha d g k parle state. He should drink hot water.

'He hot water drink should'

ce kh ncha d g k parle? yes/no-q. Should he drink hot water?

'He hot water drink should?'

The researcher found the following similarities and differences while comparing the processes of yes/no question transformation between English and Magar.

- (1) Both in English and Magar language, the statement sentence can be transformed into yes/no question by using question mark.
- (2) The sign of interrogation or question mark (?) is introduced and placed at the end of the yes/no question in both languages.
- (3) If the assertive sentence has an auxiliary in it, the same is placed before the subject (i.e. the sentence is initiated with the auxiliary) in English whereas in Magar rising intonation is used for the formation of yes/no questions.

- (4) If the sentence has no auxiliary verb, we need to use a rule called 'do support' or 'operator addition' (do, does and did) rule and the form of the verb is changed into its root form to make a statement yes/no question in English whereas such rule does not occur in Magar.
- (5) Yes/no question can also be formed by placing 'h ' (what) element in the beginning of the sentence in both written and spoken forms in magar language whereas in English yes/no question always starts with auxiliary verb.
- (6) In English, the subject auxiliary inversion takes place while transforming the assertive sentence into yes/no question but this is not the case in Magar language.

## (II) Comparison of the Processes of the Wh-Question Transformation

The processes of Wh-question transformation of Magar are compared with those of English as follows:

### Wh-Question of Positive Assertive Sentences

- | <u>Magar</u>                        | <u>English</u>        |
|-------------------------------------|-----------------------|
| (1) my rmin dilip ho state.         | My name is Dilip.     |
| 'My name Dilip is'                  |                       |
| n ku my rmin h ho? wh-q.            | What is your name?    |
| 'Your name what is?'                |                       |
| (2) mohan c h k m j tnanale: state. | Mohan is working now. |
| 'Mohan now working is'              |                       |
| s c h k m j tnanale? wh-q.          | Who is working now.   |
| 'Who now working is?'               |                       |

- (3) se dayo bad n ho state. This is sister's clothe.  
 'This sister's clothe is'  
 se bad n s o ho? wh-q. Whose clothe is this?  
 'This clothe whose is?'
- (4) dut c y j kle state. I prefer milk tea.  
 'I milk tea prefer'  
 n ko kuse c y j kle? wh-q. Which tea do you prefer?  
 'You which tea prefer?'
- (5) kewalei w k baj r lh state. Kewal took the pig in the  
 market.  
 'Kewal-by pigin market took'  
 kewalei w k kul lh ? wh-q. Where did Kewal take the pig?  
 'Kewal-by pigin where took?'
- (6) mo ch l k baj r nunny state. My mother went to the  
 market to buy salt.  
 'My mother salt buy market-to went'  
 naku mo h ja baj r nu ny ? wh-q. Why did your mother go  
 to the market?  
 'Your mother why market-to went?'
- (7) shyamei r mki kitab yh lhe state. Shyam will give Ram a book.  
 'Shyam-by Ram-to book give'  
 shyamei suk kitab yh lhe? wh-q. whom will Shyam give a book?  
 'Shyam-by whom-to book give?'
- (8) prem som baje r h state. Prem came at 3 o'clock.  
 'Prem 3'oclock came'  
 prem sen r h ? wh-q. When did Prem come?  
 'Prem when came?'



(9) khurik hw ra r many state. They had come on foot.

'They foot-on come had'

khurik kuj tn ra r many ? wh-q. How they had come?

'They how come had?'

While comparing the processes of wh-question transformation between Magar and English, the following similarities and differences are found.

### **Similarities:**

- (1) In the both English and Magar languages, assertive sentences are transformed into wh-question.
- (2) Both languages have their own separate words (i.e. 'wh-words') for transforming statements into wh-questions.
- (3) The sign of interrogation or question mark (?) is placed at the end of the wh-question in both English and Magar languages.

### **Differences:**

- (1) 'Wh-word' occurs at the beginning of the sentence (i.e. wh-question is limited with wh-words) in English whereas the equivalent of English wh-word occurs after the subject and also at the beginning of the sentence when it functions as the subject in Magar.
- (2) Auxiliary verb comes between the 'wh-word' and the subject except the 'wh-word' functioning as the subject in English whereas the equivalent of English wh-word is placed just at the beginning of the sentence if it functions as subject if not it is placed just after the subject of the sentence in Magar.

- (3) If there is no auxiliary verb in the sentences, we need to use a rule called 'do support' or 'operator addition' (do, does, did) rule and the form of the main verb is changed into its root form in English whereas this rule is redundant in Magar.
- (4) Like in yes/no question, subject-auxiliary/operator inversion rule is also required in wh-question in English whereas it is not necessary in Magar.

No distinction was found between the processes of negative and interrogative transformation done by the male and female informants of Dandabazar and Bhedetar VDCs of Dhankuta district.

## **CHAPTER FOUR**

### **FINDINGS AND RECOMMENDATIONS**

This chapter deals with the findings, recommendations, and pedagogical implications of the study.

#### **4.1. Findings of the Present Study**

Any two languages share some common and uncommon features which are found when they are compared. The comparative study between the Magar and English languages shows that the negative and interrogative transformation systems between them are similar in some respects and different in others.

On the basis of the analysis and interpretation of the collected data, the major findings of the present study are summarized in the following points.

- (1) In the Magar language the prefix 'm -' is the negative marker which is placed before the main verb in all tenses except continuous tense. In this case, the prefix 'm -' is placed before the equivalent of English auxiliary verb.
- (2) In the Magar language, another case is if there is equivalent of English modal verb in positive assertive sentence the negative marker 'm -' is placed before the modal verb and before the main verb as well.
- (3) The negative imperative in the Magar language is formed by prefixing the negative marker 'm -' before the verb (base).

- (4) In the Magar language yes/no question is formed by using rising intonation in the statement sentence. No subject auxiliary inversion takes place in forming yes/no question. The same yes/no questions can be formed by placing the wh-element 'h' in the beginning of the sentences without changing the order of the other constituents.
- (5) In the Magar language wh-question, the question word in most of the cases is placed just after the subject and at the beginning of the sentence when it functions as a subject. No subject auxiliary inversion takes place forming equivalent of English wh-question in Magar language.
- (6) English sentence structure is **SVO**, where as Magar sentence structure is **SOV**.
- (7) The, negative marker in English is 'not' or "n't" which is placed after an auxiliary verb in an assertive sentence where as the negative marker in Magar language is 'm' which is added in most of the cases before the main verb.
- (8) If there is no auxiliary verb in a positive assertive sentence, we need to use a rule called 'do support' or 'operator addition' (do, does and did), rule and the negative marker 'not or "n't" is added after it as it functions as an auxiliary verb in English whereas there is no need of introducing such rule in order to transform a positive sentence into negative in Magar.
- (9) While forming negative of imperative sentence, 'do not' (don't) is placed before the verb or at the beginning of the

sentence in English whereas the negative marker ‘ma’ is added just before the main verb in most of the cases in Magar.

- (10) In yes/no questions, an auxiliary verb occurs at the beginning of the sentence (i.e. the sentence is initiated with an auxiliary verb) in English whereas the assertive sentence can be transformed into yes/no question with the use of rising intonation in Magar.
- (11) Magar yes/no question formation doesn’t require subject verb inversion which is essential in English.
- (12) In Magar the element ‘h ’ occurs in the beginning of yes/no question which is equivalent to the wh-question word ‘what’, which is not in English.
- (13) In the absence of auxiliary verb, a rule called ‘do support’ or ‘operator addition’ (do, does and did) rule applied to change a statement into yes/no question in English whereas such rule is not applied in Magar.
- (14) Subject-auxiliary/operator inversion’ rule is also required to transform a statement into yes/no question in English whereas it does not take place in Magar.
- (15) Regarding wh-question, both languages have their own separate words for transforming statements into wh-questions.
- (16) ‘Wh-words’ are used in English to transform a statement into wh-question whereas the equivalent of English wh-words are used in Magar to transform a statement into wh-question.

- (17) The wh-word in English occurs at the beginning of the sentence, whereas the equivalent of English wh-word in the Magar language in most of the cases occurs after the subject and also at the beginning of the sentence when they function as subjects.
- (18) In wh-question, 'do-support' operator addition and 'subject-auxiliary inversion' (subject operator inversion) rules are applied in English whereas they are redundant in Magar.

## **4.2. Recommendations and Pedagogical Implications**

On the basis of the findings obtained from the analysis of the collected data, pedagogical implications with some recommendations have been suggested which are presented separately under two topics:

### **4.2.1 Recommendations and Pedagogical Implications in Teaching English Negative and Interrogative Transformations Systems to Magar Native Speakers**

- (1) The findings of the present study show that the processes of negative and interrogative transformations in the English language differ from those of the Magar language. Therefore, the difference should be taken in to account while teaching Magar native speakers.
- (2) English negative assertive sentences are formed either by using the negative marker 'not' or 'n't'. These two negative markers are used in different situations which should be made clear to Magar native speakers while teaching English negative transformation system to them.
- (3) Magar native speakers should not have the knowledge of the auxiliaries while forming negative and interrogative sentences in

English. Therefore special attention should be paid on the use of auxiliaries in different tenses and aspects while teaching Magar native speakers.

- (4) As Magar verbs are not changed into root forms while forming negative and interrogatives, Magar native speakers should be taught how the other forms of the verbs are changed into root forms in English.
- (5) As Magar language does not follow the trend of subject auxiliary inversion while forming questions, Magar native speakers should be made clear about the changes that take place in subject auxiliary inversion.
- 6) Wh-word in English occurs at the beginning of the wh-question, but in Magar language the equivalent of English wh-word in most of the cases occur after the subject. So, while transforming assertive sentence into wh-question, the learners may commit the errors by placing the wh-word just after the subject due to the transfer of L<sub>1</sub> rule (sita what do). The L<sub>2</sub> teacher should make the learners aware of it.

#### **4.2.2 Recommendations and Pedagogical Implications in Teaching Magar Negative and Interrogative Transformations System to English Speakers.**

- (1) As Magar negative and interrogative transformation systems differ from those of English, the difference should be taken in to consideration while teaching Magar negative and interrogative transformations systems to English speakers.

- (2) The L2 learners may over generalize the rules of Magar yes/no question while forming the negative assertive sentences, so special attention should be paid on such case while teaching Magar yes/no questions to English speakers.
- (3) The syllabus designers, course book writers and testing experts should be conscious about those distinct processes of negative and interrogative transformations in Magar language while designing the syllabuses, preparing textbooks or course books and designing questions to test the L2 learners.

The researcher does not claim that the present study covers all the rules of negative and interrogative transformation of Magar as he has not carried out this research in all types of sentences available in the Magar language. It is based on only assertive and imperative sentences and only on 60 Magar native speakers from Dandabazar and Bhedetar VDCs of Dhankuta district. However, the researcher has tried his best to generalize the rules of negative and interrogative transformation of Magar explicitly based on the collected data.

Finally, the researcher would like to request the concerned authority to take the above mentioned recommendations into consideration. Furthermore, he would like to request the authority to carry out other researches on the various areas of the Magar language.

Furthermore, it is to be hoped that a capable linguist will devote himself or herself to the grammatical study of this language in the very near future so as to preserve and promote it.



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## APPENDIX-III

### Information of research study

S.N.	Name	Sex	Age	VDC	Ward no.
1.	Hari Bhadur Magar	Male	36	Dandabazar	7
2.	Kul Bhadur Magar	Male	32	Dandabazar	7
3.	Dinesh Magar	Male	19	Dandabazar	7
4.	Rajendra Magar	Male	33	Dandabazar	7
5.	Bhim Bhadur Magar	Male	48	Dandabazar	7
6.	Thal Bhadur Magar	Male	33	Dandabazar	2
7.	Tek Bhadur Magar	Male	42	Dandabazar	2
8.	Kali Bhadur Magar	Male	54	Dandabazar	2
9.	Prem Bhadur Magar	Male	29	Dandabazar	2
10	Phogendra Bhadur Magar	Male	27	Dandabazar	7
11	Chandra Bhadur Magar	Male	31	Dandabazar	7
12	Shom Bhadur Magar	Male	31	Dandabazar	7
13	Madav Bhadur Magar	Male	35	Dandabazar	7
14	Bir Bhadur Magar	Male	17	Dandabazar	2
15	Khagendra Magar	Male	26	Dandabazar	2
16	Tank Maya Magar	Female	30	Dandabazar	7
17	Milam Magar	Female	19	Dandabazar	7
18	Bindu Magar	Female	23	Dandabazar	7
19	Shree Maya Magar	Female	21	Dandabazar	7
20	Damayanti Magar	Female	21	Dandabazar	7
21	Gita Magar	Female	28	Dandabazar	8
22	Babita Magar	Female	25	Dandabazar	8
23	Lila Maya Magar	Female	48	Dandabazar	2
24	Kamda Magar	Female	23	Dandabazar	2
25	Chandra Maya Magar	Female	27	Dandabazar	8
26	Durga Magar	Female	34	Dandabazar	2
27	Bhadra Maya Magar	Female	19	Dandabazar	2
28	Padam maya Magar	Female	23	Dandabazar	2
29	Damayanti Magar	Female	21	Dandabazar	7
30	Tara Thapa Magar	Female	27	Dandabazar	7
31	Magendra Thapa Magar	Male	30	Bhedetar	7
32	Chitra Bahadur Magar	Male	58	Bhedetar	7

33	Bikkram Magar	Male	23	Bhedetar	7
34	Ram Bahadur Magar	Male	42	Bhedetar	7
35	Giri Raj Magar	Male	25	Bhedetar	7
36	Roshan Magar	Male	23	Bhedetar	6
37	Mabin Magar	Male	15	Bhedetar	6
38	Lalit Magar	Male	29	Bhedetar	6
39	Kaji Man Magar	Male	34	Bhedetar	6
40	Dipak Magar	Male	16	Bhedetar	7
41	Devi Lal Magar	Male	31	Bhedetar	7
42	Anil Magar	Male	38	Bhedetar	7
43	Tanka Bahadur Magar	Male	35	Bhedetar	7
44	Ram Kumar Magar	Male	28	Bhedetar	7
45	Tek Bahadur Magar	Male	33	Bhedetar	7
46	Anita Magar	Female	22	Bhedetar	6
47	Nirmala Magar	Female	20	Bhedetar	6
48	Urmila Magar	Female	17	Bhedetar	6
49	Ram Maya Magar	Female	26	Bhedetar	6
50	Jhari Maya Magar	Female	27	Bhedetar	7
51	Anjali Magar	Female	20	Bhedetar	7
52	Kalpana Magar	Female	25	Bhedetar	7
53	Mina Magar	Female	24	Bhedetar	7
54	Bimala Magar	Female	17	Bhedetar	7
55	Rehka Magar	Female	27	Bhedetar	7
56	Sanu Magar	Female	20	Bhedetar	7
57	Kumari Magar	Female	39	Bhedetar	7
58	Kamala Magar	Female	28	Bhedetar	7
59	Sanu Magar	Female	24	Bhedetar	7
60	Krishna Maya Magar	Female	41	Bhedetar	7