

# CHAPTER ONE

## INTRODUCTION

This study is about the "Negative and Interrogative Transformations of English and Raskoti dialect of Nepali". This section consists of general background, statement of problem, objectives of the study, research questions, significance of the study, delimitations of the study and operational definitions of the key terms.

### 1.1 General Background

Language is a chief means of communication. The possession of language makes a human the supreme creature of the world. So language is the species specific and special gift of human beings. Language is the most powerful convenient and permanent means and form of communication. It is a dynamic and open system that allows human beings to communicate their thoughts, ideas, feeling, desire, emotions and experiences. Chomsky (1957, p. 13) opines language is "a set (finite or infinite) of sentences. Each finite in length and constructed out of a finite set of elements". Similarly, Hall (1968, p. 158) states that "language is the institution where by humans communicate and interact with each other by means of habitually used oral – auditory arbitrary symbols".

The study is on "Negative and Interrogative Transformation in English and Raskoti Dialect " In this chapter, I provided the general background of language, language family, the English language in Nepal, language and dialects, criteria for determining dialect, classification of dialect, some variations of the English dialect, Nepali and its dialects, Jumli dialect at a glance, Raskoti dialect, differences between Raskoti dialect and standard Nepali, transformational theory, negative and interrogative transformations in English and contrastive analysis, statement of the problems, objectives of the study, research questions, significance of the study, delimitation of the study and review of the related literature.

Raskoti dialect is the dialect used by the people who live in Raskot and Sanni both of them were two states among 22 states before unification of Nepal in the past. But now they are in kalikot district. However, there are speakers of the Raskoti dialect in other parts of the district. This is one of the dialects of Raskoti people. Nearly 36,000 people of Raskot are using it as a mother tongue. So it is a separate dialect. The main speakers of this dialect are found in Raskot (Nanikot, Phukot, Syuna, Shipkhana VDCs) and Sanni area (Mumra, Mehalmudi, Raku VDCs) of Kalikot district. The other main places of this dialects are khatayed belt of Mugu, kundkhola of Bajura and northern part of Humla district and in around the origin-place of Mahakali- river. This dialect can also be heard in the speech of those who go to India at work for maintaining their daily lives and those persons who are spending their present days at business centers such as Manma, Nepalgunj, Surkhet, Tikapur, Sukhad, Dhangadi, Pahalmanpur, Karnali Chisapani and most part of the Karnali highway.

## **1.2 Statement of the Problem**

The research topic has been chosen originally on my personal interest. I have become concerned about the complaints from English teachers about students' grammar. I received a number of complains when I took part in teacher training program. The common complaints were about the students' negative and interrogative transformation in English and Raskoti dialect. Generally, in public schools, students start learning English grammar when they were in grade four and they learn throughout the school years. Despite learning and knowing the rules for multiple years, many students come up with difficulties in formation of negative and interrogative sentences. Such situation is quite serious in Raskoti speaking learners as I have experienced during my learning as well. So, the problems being addressed in this study are the common difficulties in formation of negative and interrogative sentences in Raskoti dialect.

Therefore, the researcher carried out a study the problem of students in their English negative and interrogative sentence formation. In order to arrive to the conclusion of this study, negative and interrogative sentence formation used as an indicator to enable the significant of wrong sentence formation.

### **1.3 Objectives of the Study**

The research had following objectives:

- I. To identify the processes of negative and interrogative transformations in Raskoti dialect of Nepali.
- II. To compare and contrast the process of negative and interrogative transformations of Raskoti dialect of Nepali with those in the English language.
- III. To provide some pedagogical implications.

### **1.4 Research Questions**

This study had the following research questions:

- I. What are the processes of negative and interrogative transformations of Raskoti dialect?
- II. What are the similarities and differences between Raskoti dialect and the English language in terms of negative and interrogative transformations?

### **1.5 Significance of the Study**

This will be invaluable for the department itself because the department could advise other researchers to undertake further researches in Raskoti dialect. The study further gave insights on Negation and Interrogation in Raskoti dialect with that in English. It is also believed to be significant for the language planners, syllabus designer and text book writer. They would get some ideas of making negative transformations of the Raskoti sentences. It would be helpful for the teachers and students. They could understand something about dialects, rule of making negative and interrogative transformations in English and Raskoti dialect. They could identify the gaps of transformation in both systems. They

could teach and read respectively taking it as a reference material. This study would be equally significant for the researchers. Researchers could research on the different title of Raskoti dialect of the Nepali language. In this respect, particularly the ELT teachers need to have the plenty of information on various teaching techniques so that he could apply them according to the needs, nature and level of students as well as per the condition of school/class. Moreover, the ELT teachers have to motivate students to become autonomous and self directed by implementing various creative methods/strategies in class.

While teaching and learning English language as ESL and EFL, learners tend to confront a lot of difficulties, problems and challenges inside and outside of classroom. It is believed that the ELT teachers are not adequately acquainted with the English and its significance. To overcome their problems ELT teachers require employing different innovative strategies while engaging students in diverse teaching and learning activities in ELT class. Due to the teacher's facilitating role, students can enhance good performance in English. Furthermore, the students would be communicatively competent in English, if they get the sufficient English exposure with well managerial role of teachers. In this sense, this study possesses a pedagogical value. Similarly, this study is expected to be useful to the students, ELT teachers, syllabus designers, text book writers, teacher trainers, policy makers and English language experts. It is also believed to be significant to all who are directly and indirectly interested in the field of pedagogy in one way another.

In class, we generally see that teacher, students and classroom are in vital positions because of which only teaching learning process takes place. Hence, it is claimed to have a great importance to make an instructional process more effective and successful.

## **1.6 Delimitations of the Study**

This study had following limitation:

- i. The total population of the study was limited only to fifty Raskoti native speakers from Nanikot, Phukot, Syuna, Shipkhana and Mumra VDCs of Kalikot district.
- ii. The study focused only on the process of negative and interrogative transformations of Raskoti with reference to English.
- iii. The negative transformation was limited only to assertive and imperative sentences (simple sentences).
- iv. The interrogative transformation was limited only to affirmative questions (yes-no question and Wh-question).

## **CHAPTER TWO**

### **REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURES AND CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK**

This chapter concerned with review of related literature and conceptual framework. This section is divided into four other subheadings. At first, the review of related theoretical literature focuses on describing the theoretical back bone of the study which provides base for the researcher. Secondly, the review of related empirical literature sheds light on empirical studies so far carried out on the related topic. Thirdly, the implication of the review for study presents the relation between reviewed works and the present one. Lastly, the conceptual framework summarizes the whole process to be followed for the selected topic.

#### **2.1 Review of Related Theoretical Literature**

A theoretical framework guides any research work by using 'what work' in the experience or exercise of doing something that directly involved research study. After reading relevant literature, a number of theories have been developed from different perspective. The information obtained from different literature is sorted under the main themes and theories. The theoretical literature of this study consists of language family, English language and its position, language and dialect, criteria for determining dialect status, Nepali and its dialects, Jumli dialect at a glance, Raskoti dialect, Differences between Raskoti dialect and standard dialect, Negative and interrogative patterns in Raskoti dialect, Transformation theory: an overview and Negative and Interrogative transformation.

##### **2.1.1 Language Family**

Nepal is situated on the lap of the Himalayas. According to the Interim Constitution of Nepal (2063, p. 2), Nepal is the multi-religious, multi-cultural and multi lingual country. Though it is a small country, it has been very fertile

land for languages. It is the country of linguistic diversity. According to the population census report (2068 B.S), there are 123 identified languages spoken in Nepal. These languages and their innumerable satellite dialects have genetic affiliation to at least four language families' viz. Indo-Aryan, Tibeto-Burman, Austro-Asiatic/Munds and Dravidian.

**(A) The Indo-Aryan Family**

It includes the following languages:

Nepali	Rajbansi	English	Maithili	Danuwar	Bhote	Bhojpuri
Bangali	Magahi	Tharu	Marwari	Churauti	Awadi	Bajjika
Hindi	Urdu	Majhi	Darai	Kumal		

**(B) The Tibeto-Burman Family**

It includes the following languages:

Tamang	Tibeton	Barmel	Newar	Jirel	Koche	Magar	
Yhomo	Kagate	Gurung	Dura	Lhomi	Limbu	Meche	Toto
Sherpa	Pahadi	Kham	Sunuwar	Lepche	Syang	Chepeng	
Raji	Marpha	Thams	Hayu	Nar	Dhimal	Byanghi	
Bhugel	Ghale	Thakali	Kaike	Raute	chhantyal		

**(C) The Austro-Asiatic/Munds Family**

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

**(D) 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 languages.

(Source: Ethnologue Report for Nepal, 2009)

### **2.1.2 The English Language and its Position in Nepal**

There are many languages in the world, among them English is the most widely used language. It is often believed that one in every group of seven people can speak English. It has dominated almost all the areas in the world such as politics, science and technology, medicine, marketing and so on. It is rich in its literature. It has gained the status of international standard. Therefore, it is used as a lingua franca to maintain communication among different linguistic communities.

English has significant influence in education of Nepal. English is taught as a compulsory subject right from grade one to bachelor degree in government schools and colleges. In the context of private schools, it is taught right from nursery to higher level as a compulsory subject as well as the medium of instruction. Basically, the main purpose of the teaching English in the schools of Nepal is to enable the students to exchange their ideas with people of any nationality who speak English.

In this regard, Bhattarai (1995, p. 217) states:

English has become 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 advantage of world citizen. Therefore, English is the only means of preventing our isolation from the world and we will act unwisely if we allow ourselves to envelop in the folds of dark curtain of ignorance.

The importance of the English language in the present day world need not be overemphasized. It is principal language for international communication. The English language is given great importance in the education system of Nepal.



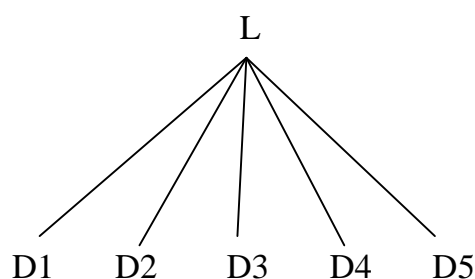
### 2.1.3 Language and Dialects

Language is the sum total of several linguistic norms whereas dialect is anyone of the several linguistic norms. In other words, language is the subordinate term that could be used without reference to dialect, but dialect is meaningless unless it is implied that there are other dialects that belong to the language. Sometime, it happens that sociolinguists are even unable to make a clear cut distinction between language and dialect. It causes difficulty in determining whatever variety 'A' and variety 'B' belong to two dialects of the same language or two independent languages. The following criteria can be established to distinguish language from dialect.

#### a) Whole-Part Relationship (Abstract-Concrete)

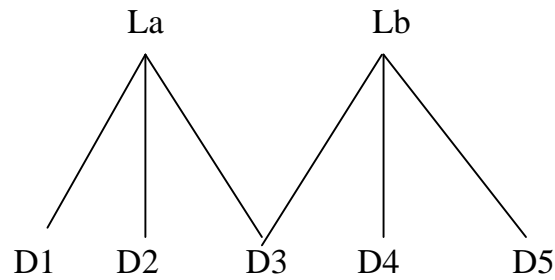
This is also called abstract concrete relationship. Language is as the sum total of one or more dialects. Dialect is the concrete manifestation of language. Everyone speaks a dialect not a language, as language is an abstract phenomenon. Thus, language is the whole and dialect is part of it. This is the most prominent and most commonly accepted criterion. A dialect identifies the regional background of its users. How dialects relate to each other is the subject of dialectology or dialect geography.

Coulmas (2005, p. 22) has given following example to show relation between language and dialect or dialect variation.



**Figure No. 1: - Language and Dialect**

This shows that within a language there may be several dialects. So, language is whole and dialects are its parts.



**Figure No. 2: - Variable Affiliation of Dialect**

The above figure show that within language –a, there may be different dialects. Similarly, within language –b there can also be found many other dialects. Furthermore, we may get many other dialects having the feature of "language – a" and "language-b".

Here, D3 shown above resembles the features of language-"a" and language-"b".

**b) Writing System Based Criteria**

Whether a particular variety has it written manifestation or not determines whether it is a language or a dialect. To follow this criterion, if a variety possesses its written manifestation, it is determined as a language whereas if it does not possess, it is simply a dialect.

**c) Prestige Based Criteria**

Hudson (1999, p. 32), states that contrast between language and dialect is a question of prestige; a language has prestige which a dialect lacks. The formal language having own writing system is called language; whereas the varieties which are not used in formal writing are dialects, whether some variety is called a language or a dialect depends on how much prestige one thinks it has and for most people this is clear cut matter, which depends on whether it is used in formal writing or not.

Among several varieties of linguistic code in a society one variety may deserve more prestige that the others. Among them, the most prestigious one is given the name, the "language" and less prestigious ones "dialects". The criterion is also not satisfactory. The matter of prestige is subjective. There may be no agreement between speakers of several varieties as to which one is more

prestigious. The speakers of all dialects can claim that dialects are prestigious.

**d) Grammar Based Criteria**

If the two or more varieties have common grammatical systems, they belong to the same language and are called dialects of the same language. If they have two different grammatical systems then they are regarded as separate languages. This criterion does not take vocabulary into account. Moreover, there are many languages such as Hindi, Urdu, and Nepali etc.

**e) Standardization Criteria**

Following this criterion, the one among the several varieties that has undergone through the process of standardization is regarded as language. If it has not undergone through the process of standardization, it is a dialect. A standardized variety is codified and used for a number of purposes whereas a non-standardized is not.

Haugen (1994 as cited in Hudson 1999, p. 33), has given the following criteria for a variety to be a standard language.

- i. **Selection:** A particular variety must have been selected as the one to be developed into a standard language. It may be an existing variety, such as the one used in an important political or commercial centre, but it could be an amalgam of various varieties. The choice is a matter of great social and political importance.
- ii. **Codification:** Some agency such as an academy must have written dictionaries and grammar books to "fix" the variety, so that everyone agrees on what is "correct". Once codification has been taken place, it becomes necessary for any ambitious citizen to learn the correct forms and not to use in writing any "incorrect" forms that may exist in their native variety.
- iii. **Elaboration of function:** It must be possible to use the selected variety in all the functions associated with central government and with writing: for example, in parliament and law courts, in bureaucracy, educational and scientific documents of all kinds

and, of course, in various forms of literature. This may require extra linguistic items to be added to the variety, especially technical word, but it is also necessary to develop new conventions for using existing forms – how to formulate examination questions, how to write formal letters and so on.

- iv. **Acceptance:** The selected variety has to be accepted by the relevant population as the variety of the community-usually, in fact, as the national language. Once this has happened, the standard language serves as a strong unifying force for the state, as a symbol of its independence of other states (assuming that its standard is unique and not shared with others), and as a marker of its difference from other states. It is precisely this symbolic function that makes states to some lengths to develop one. By observing the features mentioned above, it is clear that a dialect lacks then. So language is a standard variety; whereas dialect is a non-standard one. Nevertheless or not a particular variety is standard depends upon social judgment, rather than linguistic judgment.

**f) Population Based Criteria**

Some linguists say that the variety which is more popular among its users is called language and the one which is less popular or used by a few number of its user is the determinant factor in deciding whether the variety is a language or a dialect. This criterion is not scientific; such kind of judgment is not to be done in terms the number of people.

Hudson (1999, p. 33), there is a difference of size because a language is larger than a dialect. This is a variety called a language contain more items than one called a dialect. This is the sense in which we may refer to English as a language containing the sum total of all the terms in all its dialect. The greater size is a language and other smaller falls in dialect.

### **g) Mutual Intelligibility**

Following this criterion, variety A and B are regarded on the dialects of the common language if the speakers of "A" understand the variety "B" and speaker of "B" understand the variety "A". If not, they are regarded as two different languages otherwise. To make conclusion to distinguish language from dialect no single criterion is sufficient though some of them are more plausible to distinguish language and dialects. Taking this fact into account, Haven(1966) has pointed out that "language and dialect are ambiguous term ordinary people use them quite freely to speak about various linguistic situations but scholars often experience a considerable difficulty in deciding that one term should be used rather than the other in certain situations" Hudson (1999, p. 33) says "It is a part of our culture to make a distinction between language and dialect".

#### **2.1.3.1 Dialect**

It is a variety of a language spoken in one part of a country (regional /geographical dialects) or by people belonging to a particular social class (social dialects/sociolect) which are different in some words, grammar and pronunciation from others forms of the same language. Therefore, a dialect is such a variety of language that tells something about or identifies the speakers or the users of the language. A dialect is reflected in our geographical origin and our social background. Social background includes the social factors like sex, age, education, social class, castes, economical status, color and so on. Dialect is a regionally/ socially distinctive variety of language identified by particular set of words and grammatical structures, spoken dialects are usually also associated with a distinctive pronunciation or accent. Any language with a reasonably large numbers of speakers will develop a dialect especially when a geographical barrier separate groups of people from each other or if there are division of the social classes. Language varies from users to users or speaker, according to his/her social class background and geographical origin. So dialects are regarded as users based varieties. Dialects are generated due to

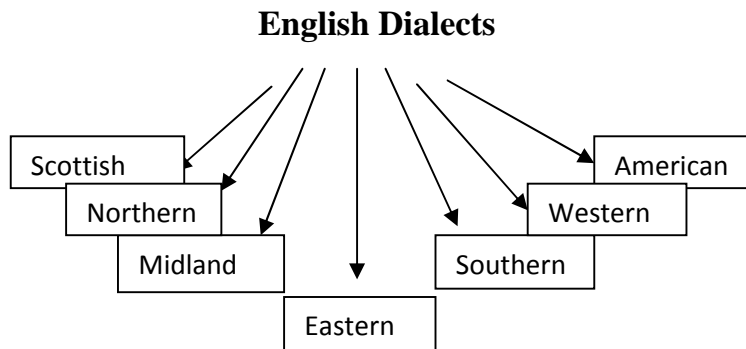
social background, geographical origin of the speakers. American English, British English, Black English etc are the example of the dialects.

Lyons (1995, p. 75) defines a dialect as "the form of a language that is spoken in one area with grammar words, and pronunciation that may be different from other forms of the same language".

Furthermore, Robins (1964, p. 49) defines the dialect is generally recognized as one of the language form; clearly observable differences of pronunciation, grammar and vocabularies are not haphazardly mixed, but occupy regions with the territory, shading continuously into one another in all directions. This sort of situation is apparent to anyone journeying by stages.

He further explains that dialect is an abstraction of the same sort of language; but as it covers fewer people. It enables one to keep one's statements closer to the actual speech of the speakers; each abstracted elements in the description of a dialect covers a less wide range of different phenomena. The number of dialect to be recognized within a language is clearly not fixed in advance; it depends on the fineness of the scale on which the linguist is working; the smaller each dialect is taken to be and therefore the greater, the numbers of dialects distinguished, the more precise each description can be as each generalization will cover a smaller range of divergence. In such circumstances dialects will fall into successively larger groups of dialects the largest group being the language itself as a unity. The lower limit of dialect division comes down to the individual speakers and for the limiting case of dialect the term idiolect (the speech habits of a single person) has been coined. So he adds that dialect is taken as sub-divisions of language only.

Some examples of English dialect are as follow:



**Figure No. 3: Robins (1991, p. 365)**

To concretize it, a dialect is simply a distinct form of language, possibly associated with a recognizable regional, social or ethnic group, differentiated from other forms of language by specific linguistic features (e.g. pronunciation or vocabulary or grammar, or any combination of these). This rough definition is intended to do no more than capture a certain intuitive idea of the term dialect.

### **2.1.3.2 Some Variations in the English Dialect**

It is important to note that dialects are never purely regional, or purely social or purely ethnic. For example, the distinctive Ozark and Appalachian dialects are not merely dialects spoken by any of the inhabitants. As we will see, regional social and the ethnic factors combine and intersect in various ways in the identification of dialects.

In popular usage the term dialect refers to a form of language that is regarded as "substandard", "incorrect" or "corrupt", as opposed to the "standard", "correct", or "pure" forms of a language. In sharp contrast to the dialect, as a technical term in linguistics carries no such value judgment and simply refers to a distinct form of a language. Thus, for example, linguists refer to so called Standard English which as a dialect of English, from a linguistic point of view, which is no more correct than any others form of English. From this point of

view, the Monarchs of England and teenagers in Los Angeles and New York all speak dialects of English.

Although dialects are often said to be regional, social or ethnic, linguists also use the term dialect to refer to language variations that cannot be tied to any geographical area, social class or ethnic group. Rather, this use of dialect simply indicates that speakers shows some variations in the way they use elements of the language, according to Aarts and Aarts (2004, pp. 276-285).

Levels that show the variation between different English dialects are as below:

**A) Variations at the Sentence Level**

There is not so difference between speakers. It is acceptable in most part of the world. And it cannot be linked to a particular region of the country or to a particular social class or ethnic group.

**B) Some Variations in Pronunciation, Vocabulary and Syntax**

Some of the examples of English dialect that shows some variation in pronunciation, vocabulary and syntax are given below:

**Table No.2.1 Table of Variation in Pronunciation, Vocabulary and Syntax**

<b>Standard British English</b>	<b>Scottish Dialect</b>	<b>North of the AME Dialect</b>	<b>Liverpool Dialect</b>
No- /nəʊ/	/no: /	-	-
Girl- /gɜ:l/	/gɜ:rl/		
	-	-	
Small man	-	-	Diddy man
Girl friend			Juddy
	Trilled /r/ as a symbol	/r/ the separate second person	

Source: Celce-Murcia and Larsen-Freeman (1999, p. 262).



C) **Some Words and their Corresponding Meaning in Different English Dialect that Shows the Variations.**

**Table No. 2.2 Table of Variation in Some Words and their Meaning**

<b>Words</b>	<b>Meaning</b>	<b>Dialects Name/Area</b>
Dope	Cola	Some part of the south
Fag	Cigarette	England
Bonnet	Hood (of a car)	England
Bubbler	Water fountain	England
Fetch up	Raise (children)	In the south
Happygrass	Grasshopper	Eastern Virginia
Pavement	Sidewalk	Eastern Pennsylvania and in England
Pocketbook	Purse	Boston and some part of the south

Source: Celce-Murcia and Larsen-Freeman (1999, p. 262).

**Table No.: 2.3: Some Words Pronunciation and its Meaning in English Dialect**

<b>Meaning</b>	<b>English</b>	<b>German</b>	<b>French</b>	<b>Italian</b>	<b>Spanish</b>
Hand	Hand /hænd/	Hand /hant/	Main /mæ/	Mano /mano/	Mano /'mano/
Foot	Foot /fut/	Fuss /fu:s/	Pied /pjæ/	Piede /piæde/	Pie /'pie/

Source: Celce-Murcia and Larsen-Freeman (1999, p. 262).

There are different dialectical variations in the English language. Among them British English, American English, Black English and White English are regarded as main.

- i. British English Vs American English:** The English language speech connected with the united kingdom of Great Britain or Northern Ireland or the people who live there. Generally, the people of the UK are called British English. This English is not only spoken by the British of U.K. but also by the people of other countries. It is different in terms of their vocabularies, spelling, pronunciations and meanings than others. In Nepal, we are also accepting and using it as a standard variety of English in many terms. Most of the cases, the questions is properly raised that it is not totally different from others English especially, American English but it is separate than this. For example: jumble sale, agony aunt, chin way etc.

Whereas, American English refers to those expressions, spellings and pronunciations in American English as the name suggests, a person from America is called the American and the English language as spoken in the U.S or connected with North or South America especially the governmental language of it as well as speech used by the educated is American English. Mainly, this is spoken or its speakers can be found in the USA. Under it North America, South America, Central America, Canada, Mexico, Spain are the major places where the American English is being use. For example: bleachers, blindside and blooper.

Source: Celce-Murcia and Larsen-Freeman (1999, p. 262).

The above dialects vary in different areas. Some of them are given below:

**a) Spelling**

<b><u>British English</u></b>	<b><u>American English</u></b>
Centre	center
Colour	color
Labour	labor
Programme	program
Traveler	traveler
Skilful	skillful
fulfil	fulfill
a licence	a license
to practise	to practice

**b) Vocabulary**

<b><u>British English</u></b>	<b><u>American English</u></b>
Car park	parking lot
Coach	bus
Lift	elevator
Lorry	truck
Petrol	gasoline
Vest	undershirt
Call box	telephone booth

**c) Pronunciation**

<b><u>Word</u></b>	<b><u>British English</u></b>	<b><u>American English</u></b>
go	/gəʊ/	/goʊ/
car	/kɑ:(r)/	/kɑ:r/
card	/kɑ:d/	/kɑ:rd/
got	/gɒt/	/gɑ:t/

**d) Grammar**

**British English**

**American English**

Ram is taller than Hari.

Ram is taller from Hari.

Source: Celce-Murcia and Larsen-Freeman (1999, p. 262).

**2.1.4 Criteria for Determining Dialectical Status**

At this point the question is properly raised about the reasons for describing some differences of speech habits as being dialects within a language and others as being different language. In one usage, springing from the misguided attitude referred to in the preceding situations forms of speech without a writing system or those held to be characteristics of uneducated person, are regarded as dialects and contrasted with the true language of the literate and educated. By this usage, certain types of colloquial Arabic are contracted as 'the dialects' without further discrimination or qualification. Apart from this, several different and often conflicting criteria are commonly and tacitly admitted.

According to Robins (1999, p. 56), dialect is used for:

- I) Forms of speech those are different but mutually intelligible without special training.
- II) The forms of speech current within a politically unified area; and
- III) Forms of speech of speakers sharing a common writing system and set of written classics.

By I) the various types of English speaker in British Isles are regarded as dialects of English, whereas Welsh; Irish and Scots Gallic are different languages.

By II) the various types of low German spoken on either side of Dutch-German frontier are sometimes described as dialects of Dutch-German respectively,

without regarded to their mutual similarities and intelligibility in the same way Swedish, Norwegian and Danish are usually termed different language, despite their relatives inter comprehensibility, and in particular that is between standard Norwegian and Danish.

By III) the different tongues spoken in china and among the Chinese outside china (Malaysia, Formosa etc.) are traditionally called dialect, although spoken North Chinese tongue) are mutually comprehensible. These usage are somewhat reinforced by such factors as the existence and officials use of standard.

According to Coulamas (2005, p. 18), the following are the criteria for determining dialect:

- i) Dialect shows a speaker's regional origin.
- ii) There may be more than one dialect in one place.
- iii) Dialect shows a speaker's social position.
- iv) Speakers adjust their speech behavior to how they are spoken to.
- v) Dialect can be chosen.
- vi) Speakers adjust their speech behavior to particular social circumstances.

### **2.1.5 Classification of Dialects**

Coulamas (2005, p. 28), classified dialects into the following types:

#### **2.1.5.1 Geographical/Regional Dialects**

The variety of language that reflects the geographical origin of the speakers is called geographical or regional dialect. American English, British English etc. come under geographical dialect. All national dialects are geographical but not all geographical dialects are national dialects. Thus, language varies from one geographical region to another or one nation to another and such varieties are called geographical/regional dialects.

### **2.1.5.2 Social Dialects/Sociolect**

Social dialects refer to speech having non –regional differences. The relevant factors of sociolect are social class, sex, age etc. because of these factors; a speaker may be more similar in language to people from the same social group in a different area than to people from a different social group in the same area. Those speeches show their class of origin at least through their pronunciation, vocabulary and grammar difference between speakers which are not only to geography but also to other social factors. Speaker's sex, age, social class, race etc. belongs to particular social networks or groups which cause the origination of social dialects.

The variety of language that reveals the social background of the speaker is called social dialects or sociolects. Black English, Baby English; Educational English etc are the example of social dialects/sociolects.

### **2.1.5.3 Temporal Dialect**

Temporal dialect refers to speech that is created according to the gap of the time. It is the dialect connected with the real physical world, not spiritual matters. Similarly, temporal dialects is the speech (it may in written or in spoken form) connected with or limited by time, for example, Bhanubhakti Ramayan, Bewolf in English literature, copperplate in script etc. are examples of temporal dialect.

### **2.1.6 Nepali Language and its Dialects**

The Nepali language is included within Indo-Aryan language family. "Khas" is its prename. Most of the Nepalese people are using it as a major language. According to census report 2068 B.S. 50% of people in Nepal are using it as L1. It is taken as standard one which has the highest status in Nepalese community or in Nepal. It is usually based on the speech and writing. The Nepali language is generally used in the news media and in literature. It is describe in dictionaries and grammars. It is taught in schools and taught to non-

native speakers when they need and want to learn it. This language is spoken by many educated Nepali. It is given more priority and used in its greater size. It has greater importance than other in the contest of Nepal. It is selected as a prestigious one. It has its own writing system; it also involves the production of dictionary and grammar books, spellers, style manuals, punctuation, pronunciation guide and specialized glossaries and so on. It is able to serve all the functions associated with national affairs such as education, parliament, bureaucracy, mass communication, literature, law etc. It has some Nepalese technical words too.

Likewise the Nepali language is not only selected, codified and elaborated but also accepted by a majority of population usually as the national, official, formal and authentic language as a unifying force for the state and being a lingua-franca.

According to Pokharel (2005), "There are four main dialects in Nepali viz. purbeli, Majhali or pachhima, majpachhima and parpachhima. Under majhali; sijhali, Raskoti and Asidarali can be included".

### **2.1.7 Jumli Dialect at a Glance**

People living in Karnali zone and neighboring districts such as Achham, Bajura and Dailekh are called Jumli and their original speech is called Jumli dialect. It is one of the central and important dialects of the Nepali language. It is not only the dialect used in the above mentioned districts and zone but also in some parts of the Kailali, kanchanpur, Banke, Bardiya, Surkhet, and even in Dang districts. A large number of people from Karnali zone have migrated to the low-land districts and they have speaking Jumli dialect.

According to Pokharel cited in Baral (2008 B.S., p. 2), "Jumli dialect is also known as Majhali dialect. He again divides Jumli dialect into three dialects viz. Senjali, Asidarali, Raskoti dialect". Short explanation is given below.

- i) The Senjali is one of the dialects that falls under the Jumli or Majhali dialect. The speakers of this dialect can be found in whole Seeja area

and some others parts of Jumla district. This can be found practically in Mugu and Kalikot districts.

- ii) The Asidarali is the original speech of people who live in all areas of Jumla district except Senja south-west part of Dolpa and eastern part of the Mugu district.
- iii) Raskoti on the other hand, is the dialect used by the people who live in Raskot and Sanni both of them were two states among 22 states before unification of Nepal in the past. But now they are in Kalikot district. However, there are speakers of the Raskoti dialect in other parts of the district.

### **2.1.7.1 Raskoti Dialect**

This is one of the dialects of Raskoti people. Nearly 36,000 people of Raskot are using it as a mother tongue. So it is a separate dialect. The main speakers of this dialect are found in Raskot (Nanikot, Phukot, Syuna, Shipkhana VDCs) and Sanni area (Mumra, Mehalmudi, Raku VDCs) of Kalikot district. The other main places of this dialects are khatayed belt of Mugu, kundkhola of Bajura and northern part of Humla district and in around the origin-place of Mahakali-river. This dialect can also be heard in the speech of those who go to India at work for maintaining their daily lives and those persons who are spending their present days at business centres such as Manma, Nepalgunj, Surkhet, Tikapur, Sukhad, Dhangadi, Pahalmanpur, Karnali Chisapani and most part of the Karnali highway. Many scholars have said that Raskoti is not a separate dialect but most of the people are using it with their own pronunciation, vocabulary and grammar. It has its own speakers and covers most of the areas. This dialect is neither similar to standard variety of Nepali nor similar to others dialect of Nepali such as Doteli, Humli, Jumli etc. It is taken as the central dialect of the Nepali language. Nepali a National language is different from Doteli and Humli/Jumli. So Jumli is one of the dialects which Raskoti incorporates.



We can conclude that there are many differences from one language to another, one dialect to other due to the geographical differences, social and the cultural norms, values, castes, sex, color, social structures, religious and economic relations, profession, time gap, language condition, and regional difficulties. Most of the above qualities can be found in Raskoti dialect and many scholars have focused it as a central and separate dialect.

### **2.1.7.2 Differences between Raskoti Dialect and Standard Nepali**

Standard Nepali is a language that falls under the Indo –Aryan language family. It is common language of Nepal and it has its own specific status/position. It is being used in Nepalese science and technology, art, literature and communicative media. This is used as a lingua franca in Nepal. It is being taught from grade 1 to university level as a compulsory and measure subject. According to the census report (2068 B.S), 50 percent people are speaking it, not only the people of Nepal but also in India (Sikkim, Aasam, Deharradhun, Darjiling, Banaras, Bhutan, Myanmar) it is being used as a mother tongue. It specially found in oral form and it has its own written system. Similarly, Nepali is a formal language and much prestigious than other dialects. It has a separate grammatical system and different vocabularies. It has a great social and political importance in the same way, it is used in academic institutions and it has grammar and dictionaries. It is accepted as a major language in parliament and courts, in bureaucratic, educational and scientific documents of all parts in Nepal. This is accepted by the high variety of communities, so it is our national language. It has more speakers; its size is also larger than other speech communities of Nepal. It developed our national proud and national unity. It is broad and general. It had originated from the Indian Arya Bhasa and Khas Bhasa, Khas Bhasa is its prename whereas, Raskoti dialect is, original speech and mother tongue of Raskoti people in Raskot area of Kalikot district. This is one of the central and cultural dialects of the standard Nepali. Most of the scholars and other books had proved that it is original of the Nepali language too because 'Sijali Khas' is related to the

Raskoti in some vocabularies. It is common for Raskoti native speakers and the people of Karnali zone either they are in motherland or they have migrated. It has fewer speakers than Nepali. It has its own vocabularies, grammar system and pronunciation. All of them looks as if others dialects of Nepali or Nepali language. Especially, there are not authentic written system, grammatical books, dictionaries but some of the researches, local newspaper and magazines were published, but without proper care and attention of the concerned authority it is being rare one. This dialect covers the certain areas, certain speakers and certain speech communities having different vocabularies, grammar and pronunciation. It is not accepted by the parliament and courts, in bureaucracy, educational and scientific documents as the Nepali language. In the context of the Nepali language Raskoti dialect has its own gender, case, person, noun, pronoun, verb, adjective, adverb, tense forms etc. It was created due to geographical and social features. It is difficult to understand and measure. It has low prestige and related to daily local use only.

### **2.1.8 Transformation Theory: An Overview**

Transformation means a through or dramatic change in form or appearance. it it the state of being transferred.

Chomsky (1957) used the term transformation in his linguistic theory of transformation generative grammar (hence forth TG Grammar), which means transforming one structures of a sentences into another, deep structures into surface structure. Transformation rule is applied in syntax in language.

Transformation is a rule which may be applied input altering it to produce the other output. Obviously, there are two types of transformation rules: obligatory transformation in the case of kernel and optional transformation in the case of non-kernel sentences.

Robin (1967, p. 142) says "Essentially transformation is a method of stating how the structures in many sentences in any language can be generated or explained formally as the result of specific transformation applied to certain basic sentence structures".

To specify a transformation explicitly we must describe the analysis of the strings to which it applies and the structural changes that it affects on the strings. Transformational grammar is generative in nature. It contains finite set of rules which can generate infinite number of all and only the grammatical sentences.

Transformations show various relationships among linguistic categories by adding, permuting, deleting and substituting constituents. By means of rules, an infinite number of grammatically correct sentences can be formed.

Transformation is the part of functional grammar which eventually introduces varieties of transformations like active, passive, direct, indirect, affirmative, negative and interrogative. It has pragmatic value. The sentences derived from the transformation rules tend to serve communication purposes. These sentences in the English and Raskoti dialect make communication effective and possible as well. They are highly used in spoken and written discourses. The present study is deal with the negative and interrogative transformations in English and Raskoti dialect.

### **2.1.8.1 Negative and Interrogative Transformations**

#### **A. Negative Transformation**

Robins (1967, p. 242), define transformation as "Essentially transformations are the method of stating how the structures of many sentences in language can be generated or explain formally as the result of specific transformations applied to basic structures.

In English grammar, it is expressed by inserting the negative particle 'not' or its contrasted form 'n't'. However, if there is not auxiliary verb in an affirmative sentence, we need to apply do-support (also known as operator addition) rule. Negation affects word, phrase, and sentences. Hence, it can be expressed on the following levels.

**(i) The Word or Lexical Level**

The lexical level negation can be made by adding a negative derivational prefix (un, in, il, a) to adjectives and adverbs: For example

Happy – Unhappy                      happily – unhappily

**(ii) The Phrase Level**

The negative determiner 'no' is used to make a noun phrase (NP) negative. As in the example Plans have been made – No plans have been made. Similarly, infinitive phrase can be made negative using 'not' before infinitive words as in the example Kaushal has decided to pay his income tax this year - Kaushal has decided not to pay his income tax this year.

**(iii) Sentence Level**

'Not' is the main sentence level negation because it makes the whole proposition negative. As in the example Lata is at home – Lata is not at home.

Some general changes also possible in sentence level:

- (a) Some - any                      e.g.        They eat some apples – They don't eat any apples.
- (b) Already - yet                      e.g.        Dev has already visited Dharan - Dev hasn't visited Dharan yet.
- (c) Too - either                      e.g.        Arjun likes meat too – He doesn't like meat either.
- (d) And so – and either              e.g.        I wrote a letter and so did my sister – I don't write a letter and either did my sister.
- (e) Always – never                      e.g.        Gopal always smokes cigarette – Ramu never smoke cigarette.
- (f) Either or – neither nor              e.g.        Either Bindu or Pushpa went home – neither Bindu nor Puspa went home.

(g) Some body – no body e.g. Somebody break the bench – Nobody break the bench.

## **B. Interrogative**

Celce-Murica and Larsen-Freeman (1999, p. 261), states that: Interrogative transformation is the process of making assertive sentences interrogative. An interrogative sentence is also called question. Question is broadly divided in to two types such as yes/no and wh-question. All types of question involve movement. The movement of tense to the first auxiliary verb to the initial position of a sentence is called the auxiliary invention rule.

### **Types of Questions**

#### **a) Yes/No Questions**

As its name implies, it expects yes/no answer. In it, tense and the first auxiliary verb are moved to the initial position of the sentence.

Yes/no questions are of two types:

(a) Positive yes/no question

Does Ganesh study English?

(b) Negative yes/no question

Does Ganesh not study English?

#### **b) Wh-Question**

It is also called the content question. It asks for completing some specific information in a sentence. It involves operator addition rule in the absence of auxiliary verb in a sentence. Like yes/no question it has also of two types:

(a) Positive wh-question

What is your name?

(b) Negative wh-question

Where do you not go?

**c) Tag Question**

The meaning of tag question is reflected in their form: words something is a question attached to a statement. In other word, something is being asserted to which the listener is invited to respond.

Celce-Murica and Larsen – Freeman (1999, p. 261), states that a tag question is a short question from appended to a statement. The tag question generally contrasts in polarity with the statement. This is when the statement is affirmative; the tag is negative and vice versa.

Maximum conduciveness is express by a further type of yes/no question which conveys positive and negative orientation a tag question which convey positive or negative orientation a tag question appended to a statement:

As in the example: The boat hasn't left, has it?

Parkash recognized you, didn't you?

**d) Alternative Questions**

Those that expect as a reply one of two or more option present in the question, as in would you like to go for walk or stay at home? 'Shall you buy shirt or cap or coat?' are alternative questions.

Celce-Murcia and Larsen-Freeman (1999, p. 262), said that there are two minor types of question. They are yes/no alternative and wh-alternative questions.

**e) Exclamatory Question**

The exclamatory question is interrogative in structure, but it has the illocutionary force of an auxiliary assertion; typically it is a negative yes/no question with a final falling inserted of rising intonation.

e.g. wasn't it a marvelous correct!

#### **f) Rhetorical Question**

The rhetorical question is interrogative in structure, but it has the force of a strong assertion. It generally does expect an answer. A positive rhetorical yes/no questions are like a strong negative assertion, while a negative question is like strong positive one.

(a) Positive Rhetorical question.

Is that a reason for despair? (Surely this is not a reason)

(b) Negative Rhetorical question.

Isn't the answer obvious? (Surely that is obvious)

Source: Celce-Murcia and Larsen-Freeman (1999, p. 262),

#### **2.1.9 Contrastive Analysis**

Contrastive analysis (CA) is the systematic study of a pair of languages, with a view to identifying their structural differences and similarities. Historically, it has been used to establish language genealogies. As to define it more, CA is a branch of applied linguistics in which two or more than two languages are compared to find out similarities and differences between them. There are several languages in the world, some languages are genetically related and they have several common features and some languages are not genetically related and they have several uncommon features. One language is not enough to the people who want learn more things in the present world. So, learning a foreign language is an important issue in this modern age.

Contrastive analysis is the approach to the study of SLA which involves predicting and explaining learner's problem based on a comparison of L<sub>1</sub> and L<sub>2</sub> to determine similarities and differences. The strong version of the CA hypothesis is associated with Richards et al. (1999, p.3) state that CA is based on the following assumptions:

- a. The main difficulties of learning a new language are caused by interference from the first language

- b. These difficulties can be predicted by contrastive analysis.
- c. Teaching materials can make use of contrastive analysis to reduce the effects of interference.

There are mainly two types of contrastive analysis: inter lingual and intra-lingual. Inter-lingual comparison refers to the comparison between two languages for example, English and Raskoti. On the other hand, in intra-lingual comparison two, dialects are compared for example, Eastern Nepali and Western Nepali or White English and Black English.

CA is an inductive investigative approach based on the distinctive elements in a language. It provides required information about the similarities and differences between languages and also predicts the problems in L<sub>2</sub> or foreign language learning. Learners tend to use the knowledge of their L<sub>1</sub> while learning L<sub>2</sub>. If the structure of L<sub>1</sub> is similar to the structure of L<sub>2</sub>, learning is facilitated and if dissimilar, learning interfered. It is a relevant phenomenon in case of FLA context. It is also because it predicts the learner's errors, creates ease for learning different aspects of target language, and increases the rate of learning as well.

(Brown 2003, as cited in Sharma 2011 p.114), mentions:

Contrastive analysis consist both psychological and linguistic aspects. The psychological aspects of CA is also known as transfer theory which is based on the premise derived from behavioral psychology, that past learning affects present learning. On the other hand, the linguistic aspects of contrastive analysis are based on the following facts:

1. Language learning is normally matter of habit formation.
2. Languages are comparable.
3. The states of mind of first language and second language learners are full of language habit according to empiricism.



So, we can say that CA helps us to compare and contrast the mother tongue with foreign or second language and suggests for the main difficulties in learning the new language. CA is also useful for designing the materials and syllabus. It helps language teachers to identify difficulties and different areas for the second language learners. It is also concerned with explaining the source of errors in the learner's performance. It helps the language teachers to reform their teaching strategies by concentrating on difficult areas for learners. It is equally significant for language trainers. So, that they can train language teachers to help them to make their L<sub>2</sub> indirectly related to language teaching and learning.

### 2.1.10 Tense

There are three kinds of tense- present, past and future. Each tense has four forms- simple, continuous, perfect and perfect continuous.

For examples:

	<b>Present</b>	<b>past</b>	<b>future</b>
<b><i>Simple</i></b>	He writes a letter.	He wrote a letter.	He will write a letter.
<b>Continuous</b>	He is writing a letter. He was writing a letter.		He will be writing a letter.
<b>Perfect</b>	He has written a letter. He had written a letter.		He will have written a letter.
<b>Perfect continuous</b>	He has been writing a letter. He had been writing a letter.		He will have been writing a letter.

The present tense is used with the following signal words:

For examples:

Always, never, often, seldom, sometimes, nowadays, rarely, usually, generally, daily, hardly, occasionally etc.

The use of past tense:

- 1) The simple past tense is used to show past actions. It is generally used with 'yesterday, ago, last, those days, in+ past time etc'.

For example:

He came here yesterday.

She did not buy anything last week.

- 2) The past continuous tense is used to show the action that was going on for some time in the past time.

For example:

She was reading a novel all day yesterday.

- 3) The past perfect tense is used to show the occurrence of two past actions in a sequence in which one action has already completed before another action started. This tense is generally used with the time clauses like 'when', 'after', 'before', 'by the time' etc.

For example:

When the doctor came, the patient had already died.

- 4) The past perfect continuous is used to express the action which had been going on some time in the past before another action started.

For example:

I had been staying in a school hostel until my tenth year.

The use of future tense:

- 1) The simple future tense is used to express the action which takes place at a time in the future. It is generally used with 'tomorrow, next, soon, tonight etc'.

For example:

What will you do tomorrow?

- 2) The future continuous tense express the action that will be going on at some time in the future.

For example:

What shall I be doing at this time tomorrow?

- 3) The future perfect tense is used to express the action that will be completed before certain action or period of time in the future. This tense is generally used with 'by + point of time, in + period of time, before + point of time'.

For example:

By Sunday, they will have shifted the place.

- 4) The future perfect continuous tense is used to express the action that will have been going on for a certain time in the future. This tense generally comes with 'by + time with for + period of time'.

For example:

By five o'clock, your friend will have been waiting for you for two hours.

Source: Sarah Matchett and Anand Arora (2013, p. 122).

## **2.2 Review of Related Empirical Literature**

Regarding Raskoti dialect no research has been carried out. Thus, it will be an asset to the Department of English Education. Some researchers had carried out researches at Department of English Education. Those researchers have been reviewed below.

Paudel (2004) has done a research entitled "A Comparative System on Negative and Interrogative Transformations in English in Pachthare Dialect of Limbu". His sample area of research was Panchthare district of eastern Nepal. He used 80 native speakers of Limbu as a primary source. He also collected the data through judgmental non-random sampling by using questionnaire as a

research tool. He found out that the affix 'me' is the negative marker in Limbu, which occurs before the verbs in assertive and interrogative sentence, whereas the negative marker in English is 'not' which is added after auxiliary verb. Yes/no question in Limbu is formed by 'bi' or 'pi' after the verb whereas an auxiliary occurs at the beginning of the sentence in English.

Phyak (2004) has carried out a research on "English and Limbu Pronominal: A Linguistic Comparative Study". He took 70 native speakers from Pachther district as a primary source of data. He had collected the data through random sampling by using questionnaire as a research tool. He wanted to determine Limbu pronominal and to find out similarities and differences between those in relation to English pronominal. He found that Limbu has more pronoun and more complex pronominal system than English. There is no distinct use of Limbu pronouns for male, female, human and non human beings. Regarding personal and possessive pronouns, both are categorized under singular, dual and plural number in Limbu, but they are categorized under singular and plural number in English.

Kushawaha (2005) has carried out a research on "Negative and Interrogative Transformations in English and Bhojpuri: A Comparative study". He used 90 Bhojpuri native speakers as a primary source of data. He also collected the data through judgmental non-random sampling by using questionnaire as a research tool. He wanted to find out the negative and interrogative system of English and Bhojpuri. He found that they are similar in many respect but different in others. It shows that only negative marker in English is 'not' or n't which is placed after an auxiliary verb in an assertive sentence and where as the negative markers in Bhojpuri are 'nat', 'mat', naikhe, and naikhi which are added immediately before the main verb. There is no operator addition system.

Rana (2001) has carried out a research entitled "A Comparative Study of Tense and Aspect System of Magar and English". He used 60 native speakers of magar language from Dailekh district as a primary source. He collected the data through judgmental non-random sampling by using questionnaire as a

research tool. Finally, he found that Magar language has past vs. non past binary spilt-system as English has. Both past and non past tenses are marked feature in the Magar language where as only the past is marked in English.

Adhikari (2006) has carried out a research work on "A Comparative Study on Passivization in English and Tharu Languages". He used 60 native speaker of Tharu from Dang district as a primary source of data. He had collected the data through random sampling by using questionnaire as a research tool. He found out that the Tharu-speaking student may commit an error while passivizing English verbs because in English only transitive verbs are passivized but in Tharu both transitive and intransitive are passivized.

Oli (2007) has carried out a research on "Question Transformation in English and Tharu: A comparative Study". He carried this research in Dang district. He selected 60 Tharu native speakers to elicit the data. He also collected the data through random sampling by using questionnaire as a research tool. Finally, he concluded that the Tharu yes/no question marker /ka:/ is introduced at the beginning of the sentence whereas in English auxiliary verb is placed at the beginning for yes/no question or 'do support' is applied. In wh-question of Tharu 'k-word' is introduced just after the subject whereas in English wh-words for fronted. In alternative question of Tharu /ki/ is used to present the alternation whereas 'or' is introduced in English. In the context of tag-question, the tag question marker /ka:/ is used in the beginning of the tag in Tharu, whereas auxiliary verb is used at the beginning of the tag and periphrastic do is also applied in English.

### **2.3 Implications of the Review for Study**

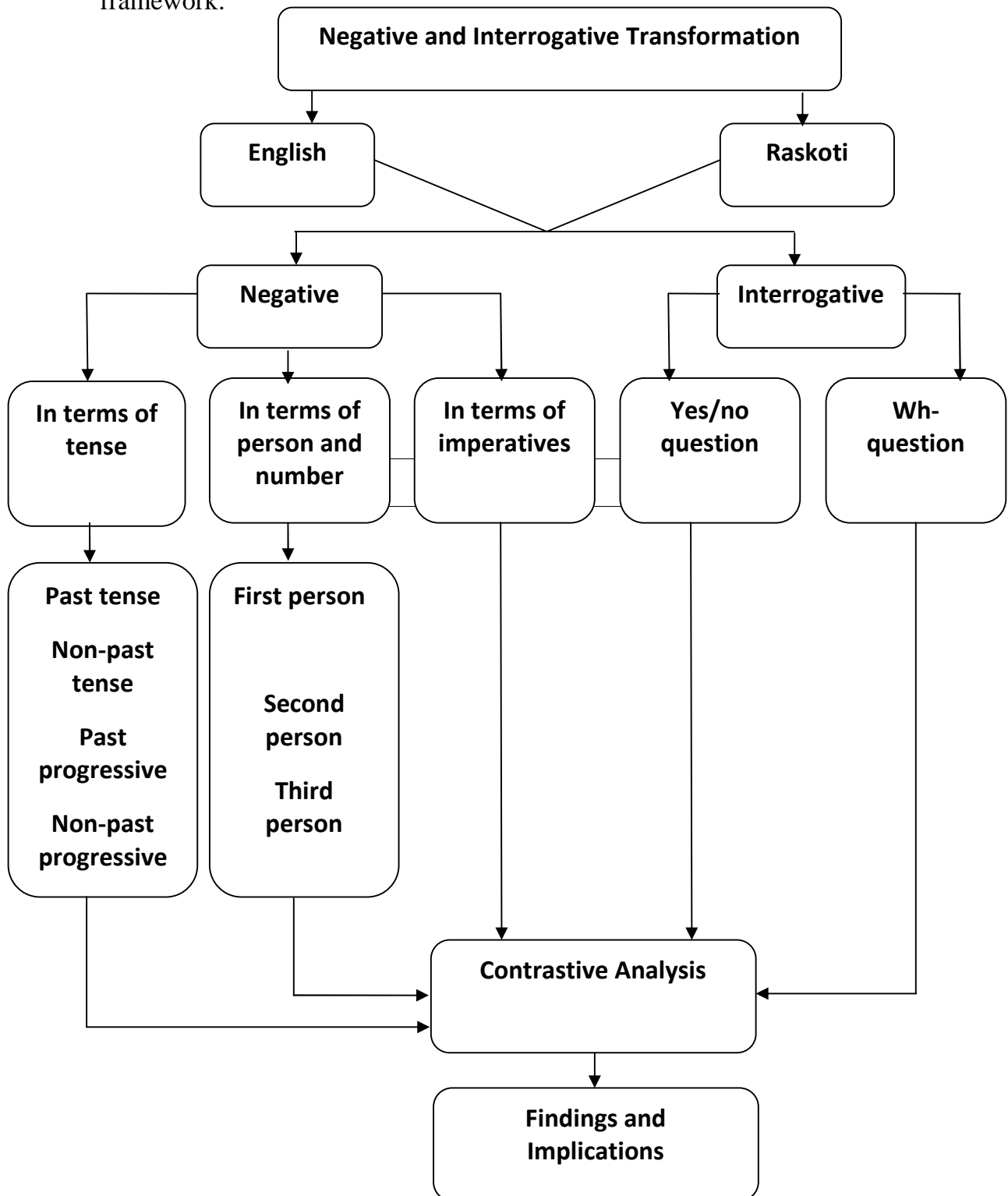
I have reviewed existing literature like thesis, books and articles and read them critically. The literature review has helped me to enhance and consolidate my knowledge and helped me to integrate my study with existing body of knowledge.

Specially, I have reviewed six different studies. These studies were conducted regarding the transformations of different dialects and English language. These studies are some extent related to my study. After reviewing these works, I have got lots of ideas regarding my study. They have used survey research design and I will also follow the same i.e. survey research design. Therefore, after reviewing these research works, I have got ideas on the process of survey research design. Likewise, they have used questionnaires as a tool to elicit data and I will use the similar tool for my study.

From the study of Adhakari (2006) I have got the idea about the study of passivization in English and Tharu language. Similarly from the study of Rana (2001) I have become familiar with a comparative study of tense and aspect system of Magar and English. The studies of Phyak (2004) have made me familiar with English and Limbu Pronominal. The studies of Oli (2007) have served me to familiar with question transformation in English and Tharu. The study of Paudel (2004) has familiarized me with a comparative system on negative and interrogative transformation in English and Pachthare dialect of Limbu. At last from the study of Kushawaha (2005) I have got ideas about the negative and interrogative transformation in English and Bhojpuri. Moreover, the tools which were used by them will assist me to prepare the questionnaires. The survey research process which was used by them will be applied to my study.

## 2.4 Conceptual Framework

For this whole research study I will go through using following conceptual framework:



## **CHAPTER THREE**

### **METHODS AND PROCEDURES OF THE STUDY**

I adopted the following methodologies for this study.

#### **3.1 Design and methods of the Study**

A research design is a plan, structure and strategy of investigation so conceived as to obtain answers to research questions. The plan is the complete scheme or program of the research. This step answers the questions of how to investigate.

The study design of this research is survey in nature. The study will be design to study the transformation of negative and interrogative of Raskoti and English. According to Nunan (1992, p. 140), "The main purpose of survey is to obtain a snapshot of conditions, attitudes and events at a single point of time". The collection of data usually related to attitudes, beliefs and intentions from subjects without attempting to manipulate the phenomena under investigation.

Nunan (1992, p. 141) suggests the following eight-step procedure of survey research in a more comprehensive way:

##### **a) Define Objectives**

Defining a research objective is the first and most important step in the research process. Research objectives needs to be defined in order to conduct any type of research. So is the case in survey research. A research objective identifies our destination. If we conduct research without defining objective it will lead us nowhere. Therefore, defining objective is the first and important thing in survey research.

##### **b) Identify Target Population**

According to survey research process, after defining the objectives, we need to identify the unit of analysis. The unit of analysis is the analysis of entity under study or who is being described or analyzed. It answers the questions of whom we want to know.



**c) Literature Review**

Literature review informs us what others have said/discover about the issue. It is the central and most important task for a researcher. Reviewing the related literature expands the body of knowledge and acquaints the researcher with available literature in the area of the study.

**d) Determine Sample**

In this phase, we need to decide how many subjects we should survey and how we will identify those subjects. The sample size is an important feature of any empirical study in which the goal is to make inference about a population from a sample.

**e) Identify Survey Instruments**

We have to identify how the data will be collected. We have to generalize instruments required for data collection. They are questionnaire, observation, interview, test item and so on.

**f) Design Survey Procedures**

After preparing the tools for data collection we have to design survey procedures of data collection. In this phase, we have to answer the question of how the data collection will actually be carried out. It means we need to be clear regarding the systematic process of data collection. Inaccurate data collection can impact the result of a survey and ultimately lead to invalid result.

**g) Identify Analytical Procedures**

Analytical procedures inform us how the data will be assembled and analyzed. Raw data themselves may not give any sense/information. Coded data can be analyzed manually or with the help of computer. We have to analyze it using appropriate statistical and descriptive tools like mean, mode, median etc.

**h) Determine Reporting Procedures**

Reporting procedure is the last step of the research process. The report informs the world what we have done, what we have discovered and what conclusions we have drawn from our findings.

I selected this design on the public opinion regarding transformation of negative and interrogative sentences from Raskoti speakers in kalikot.

### **3.2 Population, Sample and Sampling Strategy**

The total population for the study was native speakers of Raskoti dialect of Kalikot district. The sample population consists of fifty native speakers of Raskoti dialect. The sample populations were selected using stratified random sampling procedure. The stratified random sampling procedure was selected because it is quite difficult to identify the Raskoti native speakers due to the limited number of speakers. The sample population was selected on the basis of the researcher's contact and relation to the Raskoti people.

### **3.3 Study Area/Field**

The study area was Kalikot district. Moreover, Raskoti native speakers were selected as the informants. The field of this study was related with contrastive analysis.

### **3.4 Data Collection Tools and techniques**

The researcher basically used two tools for gathering required information viz. interview schedule and questionnaires. Both tools were based on certain negative and interrogative (questions) transformations of Raskoti sentences.

### **3.5 Data Collection Procedures**

The stepwise processes were used to collect the primary data by the researcher are given below:

- i. The researcher developed two types of research tools such as interview schedule and a set of questionnaires.
- ii. The researcher went to the selected VDCs and establishes a good rapport with selected informants.
- iii. The researcher motivates the informants by explaining clearly in simple term about the interview schedule, questionnaire, purpose and relevance of the study.
- iv. Then, the researcher was randomly selecting the sample.

- v. The researcher thanks for their invaluable co-operation and elicit require data for the completion of the study.
- vi. After that, the researcher conducted the structured interview with selected informant.
- vii. Researcher makes personal contact stronger, use their own dialect and give some necessary instructions and help them. Then the researcher record and elicit the informant's oral responses in written form.
- viii. Similarly, the researcher handed over the questionnaires to the selected educated informants giving them necessary instructions clearly.
- ix. When the informants finish their responses, the researcher thanks the informants for their kind help and co-operation

### **3.6 Data Analysis and Interpretation Procedures**

Generally, most of the survey researches are qualitative and quantitative in nature. To be specific, generally qualitative and particularly quantitative data are dealt in survey research. Being a survey research it has the characteristics of qualitative and quantitative analysis. In this study, the raw data was analyzed descriptively and comparatively with the help of illustrations.

## **CHAPTER FOUR**

### **ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION OF RESULTS**

This chapter deals with the analysis and interpretation of the data obtained from the selected informants from Kalikot district. It deals with the comparison and contrast of the processes of negative and interrogative transformations of Raskoti with those of English.

#### **4.1 Analysis of Data and Interpretations of Results**

The collected data were analysed and interpreted descriptively and comparatively with the help of illustrations. After the data were compared, the points of similarities and differences were drawn between the processes of negative and interrogative transformation of English and Raskoti. The analysis and interpretation of the data have been presented where the responses of the Raskoti native speakers were intensively studied and analyzed below:

##### **4.1.1 The Process of Negative Transformation in Raskoti**

Negative transformation refers to the process of making negative sentences from assertive sentences. This section deals with the negative transformations in Raskoti in different ways. The researcher interpreted and analyzed the negative transformations on the basis of tense, person and imperatives. The processes of negative transformations in Raskoti dialect have been separately presented in the following ways:

###### **4.1.1.1 In terms of Tense**

On the basis of the tense the negative transformations of Raskoti have been presented in the next page.

Examples

**Raskot**

Ma kathmandu **Jado**

I kathmandu go

Ma kathmandu **jadaina**

Ma bhat khai **rayako chau**

I rice eating

Ma bhat khai **rayakonai**

Tailay bhat **khai**

She rice eats

Tailay bhat **khaina**

Tinulay kharayo **laya**

They rabbit bough

Tinulay kharayo **layanai**

Hami Dilli **gairayaka chau**

We Delhi going

Hami Dilli **gairahayakanai**

Tinulay **khaliaaya**

They played

Tinulay **khalyakanai**

After analyzing the Raskoti negative transformations in terms of tense the following observations had been made:

1. According to above data there are mainly four tense in the Raskoti dialect: past , past progressive, non past and non past progressive but English has twelve aspect of tenses.

Source: Celce-Murcia and Larsen-Freeman (1999, p. 262).

2. In the Raskoti dialect the negative marker 'nai' is used which is attached to the verb in sentences.

Example,

### **Raskoti**

Tailay bhat **khai**

She rice eats

Tailay bhat **khayakinai**

She rice not eats

The above examples show that 'nai' is the negative marker of Raskoti dialect which immediately occurs after verb.

#### **4.1.1.2 Negative Transformation in terms of Person and Number in Raskoti dialect**

On the basis of person and number the negative transformations have been presented as follows:

##### **a) First person**

Examples,

### **Raskoti**

Mailay sau **khaya**

I apple eat

Mailay sau **khaina**

Hami kam **aarirayakachau**

We working

Hami kam **aarirayakanai**

Here, the word 'nai' is used to negate the first person.

**b) Second person**

Example,

**Raskoti**

Tamilay bhat **khayau**

You rice eat

Tamilay bhat **khayauna**

Here the negative marker 'na' is used to negate second person singular or plural, they can use the word 'naikita' some places.

Example,

**Raskoti**

Tamilay nauulo ghar **kinau**

You new house bought

Tamilay nauulo ghar **kinauna**

You new house not bought

**c) Third person**

Examples,

**Raskoti**

Tailay bhat **khayo**

He rice eats

Tailay bhat **khayona**

Tailay rukh **kati**

She tree cut

Tailay rukh **katina**

Tinulay kharayo **kinay**

They rabbit bought

Tinulay kharayo **kinaynan**

The examples presented above show that the negative marker ‘na and nan’ is used for third person either singular or plural number of pronoun of the Raskoti dialect. In Raskoti dialect ‘Tailay’ used for both girl and boy but in English he and she are used for boy and girl respectively.

#### **4.1.1.3 Negative Transformations of Imperative Sentences in Raskoti Dialect**

In English imperative is started with v<sup>1</sup> but in Raskoti dialect imperative is started with noun. Negative transformations of imperatives have been analyzed and interpreted given below:

Examples,

**Raskoti**

Bazar **ja**

Market go

Bazar **naja**

Aaba **bol**

Cry not

Aaba **nabol**

The above examples shows while negating imperatives of Raskoti dialect the negative marker ‘na’ is used. The negative marker ‘na’ comes after the subject or before the verb.

#### **4.1.2 Interrogative Transformation in Raskoti Dialect**

Mainly there are two types of interrogative clauses in Raskoti. They are yes/no question and wh-question. These two types of question have been discussed one after another as follows.



### **a. Yes/no question**

Yes/no question is formed through the process of subject-auxiliary/ operator inversion. Written variety is marked by placing the sign of interrogation (?) at the end of sentences; whereas spoken variety is marked by rising intonation.

Examples :

#### **Raskoti**

Tyo ghara **gayo**

He home goes

Kay tyo ghara **gayo?**

Kay tyo ghara **gayona?**

Ma kathmandu **jado**

I kathmandu go

Kay ma kathmandu **jau?**

Kay ma kathmandu **jauna?**

The examples presented above show that in the Raskoti dialect Yes/ No question is formed by putting the interrogative mark at the end of the sentences or putting 'kay' at the beginning of the sentences.

For example,

Tyo ghara **gayo**

He home goes

Kay tyo ghara **gayo?**

Kay tyo ghar **gayakonai?**

In the conclusion, in Raskoti dialect negative yes/no question is formed by inserting 'kay' at the beginning of the sentence and negative yes/no question is formed by inserting 'nai' after the verb.

## **b. Wh-question**

In Raskoti dialect wh-question is formed by placing k-word immediately after the subject.

Examples:

### **Raskoti**

Tailay sau khai

Tailay **kay** khai?

Hami Surkhet gayau

Hami **kaha** gayau?

Hami Pokhara Phawatal herna gayau

Hami **kayaarna** pokhera gayau?

Ti sasti sasti aaya

Ti **kaari** aaya?

Ti polish hun

Ti **ko** hun?

Ti anil ka tala hun

Ti **kaikha** tala hun?

Ti pop git bhala manni chan

Ti **kasta** git bhala manni chan?

Lata beli Surkhet gai

Lata **kailay** Surkhet gai?

These examples shows that in Raskoti dialect wh-question is formed by placing 'k-word' after the subject or before the verb. The Raskoti dialect has the following equivalents of English wh-words.

They have been mentioned below.

<b>English</b>	<b>Raskoti</b>
What	Kay
Who	Ko
Why	Kina
Where	Kaha
Whose	kaikho
When	Kailay
How	Kahari
Which	Kun

### **4.1.3 Comparison of Negative Transformation**

In this section the negative transformations of English and Raskoti has been compared and analyzed in different terms. The process of negative transformations has been separately compared and analyzed below.

#### **4.1.3.1 Comparison of Negative Transformation in terms of Tense**

In this section negative transformations of English and Raskoti have been systematically compared in terms of tense with the help of examples.

For example,

a) Non-past Tense

**English**

I go to kathmandu.

I don't go to kathmandu.

**Raskoti**

Ma Kathmandu **jado**

I kathmandu go

Ma kathmandu **jadaina**

b) Past tense

**English**

They laughed.

They did not laugh.

**Raskoti**

Ti **hasya**

They laughed

Ti **hasyanan**

c) Non- past progressive tense

**English**

We are working.

We are not working.

d) Past progressive tense

**English**

We were writing.

We were not writing.

**Raskoti**

Hami kam **aarirayaka** chau

We working

Hami kam **aarirayakanai**

**Raskoti**

Hami **lakhirayaka** chau

We writing

Hami **lakhirayaka** nai

After analyzing the negative transformations of tense of both the English and Raskoti dialect the following similarities and differences have been found:

**a. Similarities**

1. Both English and Raskoti dialect have the process of negative and interrogative transformations.
2. The negative markers of English precede the verb as same as the negative markers of Raskoti are 'nan and nai' which also precede to the verb.

For example,

<b>English</b>	<b>Raskoti</b>
We are working.	Hami kam <b>aarirayaka chau</b> We working
We are not working.	Hami kam <b>aarirayaka nai</b>

3. In English 'not' is an independent word that is used in the sentence level negation. Similarly, in Raskoti dialect negative markers are also independent word which are used in sentence level negation.

**b. Differences**

1. The only negative marker 'not' or 'n't' is placed after an auxiliary verb in English; whereas the negative markers such as 'nan', 'nai' are added immediately after the main verb in Raskoti to make a positive assertive sentence negative.

For example,

<b><u>English</u></b>	<b>Raskoti</b>
They have eaten rice.	← pos → Tinulay bhat <b>khailay</b>
They have not eaten rice.	← neg → Tinulay bhat <b>khayaka nai</b>

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 used after it to form a negative assertive sentence. While forming negative in Raskoti, there is no need of introducing this rule.

2. The sentence structure of English is **subject + verb + object** where as the Raskoti dialect structure is **subject + object + verb**.

#### 4.1.3 .2 Negative Transformation in terms of Person and Number.

The comparison of negative transformations in terms of person and number has been given below.

- a. First person

**English**

I am a girl.

I am not a girl.

**Raskoti**

Ma chotti **hau**

I girl am

Ma chotti **hauna**

- b. Second person

**English**

You ate rice.

You did not eat rice.

**Raskoti**

Tamilay bhat **khayau**

You rice ate

Tamilay bhat **khayaka nai**

- c. Thied person

**English**

S/he was cutting a tree.

s/he was not cutting tree.

**Raskoti**

Tinulay rukh **katirayaka chhaya**

s/he tree cutting

Tinulay rukh **katirayaka chhayan**

The following similarities and differences have been found after the study of Raskoti and English negation processes in terms of person and number.

**a. Similarities:**

1. Both the English and Raskoti dialect have three persons : first, second and third.
2. In both the English and Raskoti dialect negative marker is added as an independent word while making sentence negative.

**b. Differences:**

1. English has only one negative marker 'not' in all the cases of person and number but Raskoti dialect consists of two negative markers 'nan and nai', 'nai' is especially used for second person pronoun.

For example,

<b>English</b>	<b>Raskoti</b>
You ate rice.	Tamilay bhai <b>khayau</b> You rice ate
You did not eat rice.	Tamilay bhai <b>khayakanai</b>
S/he was cutting a tree.	Tinuharulay rukh <b>katirayaka chhaya</b> s/he tree cutting
s/he was not cutting tree.	Tinuharulay rukh <b>katirayaka chhyanan</b>

2. Gender specific terms of the third person singular pronoun in English are he for male and she for female but tinulay is for both she and he in Raskoti.

3. The pattern of English negative sentence is subject + aux. verb + not + main verb and the pattern of the raskoti dialect is Subject + object + neg. + verb.

### 4.1.3.3 Negative Transformation of Imperative Sentences

The processes of negative transformation of imperative sentences comparatively have been studied and analyzed as below:

<b>English</b>	<b>Raskoti</b>
Go to market.	Bazar <b>ja</b> Market go
Do not go to market.	Bazar <b>naja</b>
Take it.	<b>Laya</b> Take it
Do not take it.	<b>Nalau</b>

The following similarities and differences have been found after the comparative analyzed of the imperative sentence of English and Raskoti.

#### **a. Similarities**

1. Both the English and Raskoti dialect have imperative sentence.

#### **b. Differences**

1. English imperative sentence starts with verb but in Raskoti verb occurs at the end of the sentence and starts with noun.
2. In English language negative marker 'not' always preceded by 'do' and followed by the verb in imperative sentence whereas Raskoti negative markers 'na' is used before the verb to negate imperative.



For example,

<b>English</b>	<b>Raskoti</b>
Go to market.	Bazar <b>ja</b> Market go
Do not go to market.	Bazar <b>naja</b>

#### **4.1.4 Comparison of Interrogative Transformations**

In this section yes/no questions and wh-questions of English and Raskoti dialect have been systematically compared with the help of the examples.

##### **4.1.4 .1 Yes/ No question**

The comparison of yes/no question transformations between Raskoti and English languages have been systematically presented as below:

Examples,

<b>English</b>	<b>Raskoti</b>
I go to kathmandu.	Ma kathmandu <b>gaya</b> I kathmandu go
Do I go to kathmandu?	<b>Kay</b> ma kathmandu <b>jau?</b>
Do not I go to kathmandu?	<b>Kay</b> ma kathmandu <b>najau?</b>
He goes to home.	Tyo ghar <b>gayo</b> He ghar goes
Does he go to home?	<b>Kay</b> tyo ghar <b>gayo?</b>
Does not he go to home?	Kay tyo ghar <b>gayona?</b>

After analyzing the Yes/No question transformations, the following similarities and differences have been found:

**a. Similarities**

1. Both the English and Raskoti dialect have Yes/ No question.
2. The sign of interrogation or question mark (?) is introduced and placed at the end of the yes/no question in both English and Raskoti.

**b. Differences**

1. English language needs an auxiliary verb while making yes/no question but Raskoti does not need.
2. English yes /no question starts with auxiliary verb but the Raskoti dialect has Intonation question at the end of the sentence ( Question ends with rising tone) or starts with ‘kay’.

For example,

<b>English</b>	<b>Raskoti</b>
I go to kathmandu.	Ma kathmandu gaya
	I kathmandu go
Do I go to kathmandu?	<b>Kay</b> ma kathmandu <b>jau</b> ?

3. Subject verb inversion takes place in English yes/no question formation but this is not the case in the Raskoti dialect.

**4.1.4.2 Wh- question**

The wh-question transformation of Raskoti and the equivalent of Raskoti wh-question in English have been comparatively studied and analyzed as below:

**English**

I go to Birgunj

Where do I go?

I eat a banana.

What do I eat?

They came slowly.

How did they come?

**Raskoti**

Ma Birgunj gaya

I Birgunj go

Ma **kaha** gaya?

Maily kala khaya

I banana eat

Ma **kay** khau?

Ti sasti sasti aaya

They slowly came

Ti **kahari** aaya?

After analyzing the wh-question transformation, the following similarities and differences have been found:

**a. Similarities:**

1. Both English and Raskoti have interrogative sentence.
2. Both English and Raskoti have their own separate words (i.e. 'wh-words' in English, 'k-words' in Raskoti) for transforming statements into wh-questions.

For example,

**English**

I eat a banana.

What do I eat?

They came slowly.

How did they come?

**Raskoti**

Mailay kela khaya

I banana eat

Mailay **kay** khaya?

Ti sasti sasti aaya

They slowly came

Ti **kahari** aaya?

In the above presented examples wh-words **what** and **how** have been used in English wh-questions whereas k-words **kay** and **kahari** have been used in Raskoti wh-questions to make wh-questions.

3. The sign of interrogation or question mark (?) is placed at the end of the wh-question in English and Raskoti.

#### **b.Differences:**

1. English wh words preceded the auxiliary verb where as Raskoti wh words occur after the subject.

For example,

#### **English**

I go to Birgunj

Where do I go?

I eat a banana.

What do I eat?

#### **Raskoti**

Ma Birgunj jau

I Birgunj go

Ma **kaha** jau?

Mailay kela khaya

I banana eat

Mailay **kay** khaya?

2. The basic wh-question words in English are normally eight where as the wh words of Raskoti are at least nine.
3. Subject verb inversion takes place in English wh-question formation but this is not the case in Raskoti.

## 4.2 Summary of Findings

After detailed analysis and interpretation of data, some results have been drawn using illustrations. Some results are presented as the major findings in the following points:

### **A: Finding on the basis of process:**

1. In both English and Raskoti dialect separate negative markers (i.e., 'not' or 'n't' English and 'na' 'nan' in Raskoti dialect) are used while transforming positive sentence into negative.
2. The only negative marker 'not' or 'n't' is placed after an auxiliary verb in English whereas the negative markers such as 'na', 'na:i' and 'nan' are added immediately after the main verb in Raskoti dialect to make positive assertive sentence negative. The Raskoti negative markers 'na', 'nai' and 'nan' are used in different tenses or in the same tense on the basis of sentences. But only 'na' is used in imperative sentence.
3. If the assertive sentence has an auxiliary verb in it, the same auxiliary verb is placed before the subject (i.e. the sentence is initiated with an auxiliary verb) in English whereas yes/no question marking morpheme /ki:ta or kya:/ is introduced and placed at the beginning.
4. 'Wh-word' occurs at the beginning of the sentence (i.e. wh-question is initiated with wh-words) in English whereas 'K-words' occurs before the main verb or just after the subject/subject pronoun. In English the 'wh-word' occurs at the beginning of the sentence, whereas, in the Raskoti dialect there is no 'wh-word' but only alternation /ki:ta/ or /kya:/.

### **B: Finding on the basis of similarities and differences:**

1. In both English and Raskoti dialect both assertive and imperative sentence are negated.

2. 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 particle 'not' or 'n't' is used after it to form a negative assertive sentence. While forming negative by applying this rule, the form of the main verb is changed into its root/verb first form in English whereas there is no need to introduce auxiliary verb or 'do' support in Rasktoi dialect to make a positive sentence into negative.
3. In both English and Raskoti dialect assertive sentence are transformed into yes/no question.
4. If there statement/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 or verb one form to make a statement yes/no question in English whereas such rule does not occur in Raskoti dailect.
5. In both English and Raskoti dialect's assertive sentence are transformed into wh-question.
6. Wh-words and 'K-words' are to transform a statement into wh-question in English and Rastokot dialect respectively.
7. Wh-alternative question are found in both English and Raskoti dialect.
8. Alternations are presented after the sign of interrogation in both English and Raskoti dialect.
9. In English wh-alternative question 'or' is used to present the alternation, whereas, in Raskoti /ki or /kya:/ is used to present the alternation.
10. The yes/no alternative question have alternative marker /ki:/ and /ya:./used in Raskoti dialect whereas 'or' used in English.
11. In the Raskoti dialect, there is no use of auxiliary verb at the beginnings of the sentence as in English.

## **CHAPTER FIVE**

### **CONCLUSION AND RECOMENDATION**

The major concern of this study is to explore the sentences formed by the Raskoti speakers of Kalikot district were analyzed and interpreted. In this connection, this chapter deals with conclusion and recommendations drawn by the researcher after the analysis and interpretation of data. This chapter is divided into two parts: conclusion and recommendation. Further, recommendation is divided into policy, practice and research level.

#### **5.1 Conclusion**

The present study entitled "Negative and Interrogative transformation in English and Raskoti dialect"; were carried out with the aim of finding out the negative and interrogative transformation in English and Raskoti dialect. This was based on the primary source of data. The sample size of study was 50 Raskoti speakers of Kalikot district. The required data was collected by using sets of questionnaires and interview schedule. Finally, data was analyzed and interpreted on the basis of collected data.

The whole study has been presented dividing into five different chapters. The first chapter, 'introduction includes the background of the study, statements of the problems and objectives of the study, research questions, significance of the study and delimitations of the study. This chapter provides the picture of the content that necessitates the study the rationale behind selecting the topic, problem that are to be answered in the study, purpose of the study, significance or the usefulness of the study and scope of the work to be performed.

In second chapter, I attempted to review the knowledge or the theories which could guide my study. The literatures developed by scholars like Lyons, J (1995), Robins, H.R (1994), Nunan, D. (1992) Hudson, R.A. (1999) and others provide the theoretical background to the study and broadens the knowledge in the research area. By studying their literature regarding the different variables

that affects instructional process of English language teaching and learning. I sharpened my theoretical understanding of this study.

Secondly, through the review of the literatures contributed by Coulamas (2005), Nunan (1992) and Aarts, F. and Aarts, J. (1986) helps to develop a systematic methodology to solve the research problems as well as to integrate the findings with the existing body. I reviewed the previous works done in the department applying the theories related to my topic. In this chapter I have tried to provide authenticity to my study by presenting theoretical literature, empirical literature and conceptual framework developed on the basis of the review.

The third chapter deals with the methods and procedures employed to conduct the study. It gives information about the design of the study, population and sample, sampling procedure, tools for data collection, procedure of data collection and data analysis and interpretation procedure. It attempts to lead the whole research study.

In fourth chapter Collected data were presented, analyzed and interpreted. The data were tabulated and analyzed using language and simple statistically tools.

The last chapter concludes the whole study and recommends some implications of this study for the policy level, practice level and further research policy level. This chapter is followed by references and appendixes to make the study reliable, valid and authentic.

## **5.2 Recommendations**

On the basis of the findings obtained from the analysis of the collected data, pedagogical implications with some recommendations have been suggested at the following three levels:



### **5.2.1 Policy Level**

Policy is a line of argument rationalizing the course of action of a government. It is made to systematize the activities of the people belonging to the particular field. It is the plan pursued by a government. The study done on the process of transforming negative and interrogative of Raskoti dialect would be very helpful. The main implication in this level are:

- a. Government policies should be oriented to develop the overall status of Raskoti dialect by investing ample fund, conducting seminar, induction program, training and conference about the Raskoti dialect.
- b. Especially, policy making government organizations and institutions such as MoE, NCED and nongovernment organizations such as NELTA should include pedagogy of Raskoti dialect by being based on my findings the process of transformation of negative and interrogative in terms of tense, person and interrogative questions. As a policy to uplift the status of Raskoti dialect the government should provide ample information on Raskoti dialect.

### **5.2.2 Practice level**

Practical level recommendations have been presented as follows:

- a. Present study shows that there is so many similarities and differences between transformations system of both Raskoti and English so, the teachers who teach English to the Raskoti native speakers should know the similarities and differences between Raskoti and English negative and interrogative transformations process while teaching English transformations system to Raskoti native speakers.
- b. As the finding of this study; mother tongue influences in learning the second language while teaching language, a teacher should see what difficulties the learners are facing because of their mother tongue.

- c. The students of Raskoti native speakers commit more errors in auxiliaries inversion rules so, the students of this linguistics community should be taught in the ways of do support and auxiliaries inversion rules more carefully.
- d. In English contracts of auxiliary verbs are used in negative and interrogative transformations so much attention should be paid to such features of auxiliary verbs in English while teaching Raskoti speaking children.
- e. The finding of this study shows that students of this community have poor knowledge about the transformations system of English and Raskoti dialect so, the lerners of this community should know the negative and interrogative transformations system of Raskoti dialect and English language.

### **5.2.3 Further Research Related**

This research study will be very helpful for those who want to carry out further researches in the similar topics. They will be benifitted by the following ways:

- a. The present study shows that the learners commit many errors in the process of negative and interrogative transformations so, the new researcher should give attention while carrying out a research on this field.
- b. This study help the new researcher to make hypothesis in other areas in Raskoti dialect so, this study should be a valuable source for the new researchers.
- c. This study is concerned with negative and interrogative transformations system of Raskoti and English, so it should be a good secondary source for the later researchers who want to carry out the researches in Raskoti dialect.

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http: [www.en.wikipedia.org/wiki/](http://www.en.wikipedia.org/wiki/transformational_grammar) transformational grammar

## Appendix- I

### रासकोटी भाषिकामा अन्तरवार्ता

सोधकर्ता : ..... । (Beda kaku jadey dhok aray)

वेद:.....

..... (Bhagyamani Bhayas bhaua. Bhali niki chhas kay ta? dhok ta aris mailay ta ramrod raina ta?)

सोधकर्ता:.....

..... (Makana rayanua kita kaku ma Hem Raj hau. Happa Neupane bada ko pardhan ko nati kay?)

वेद :.....। (Aau aau aaila raya bhau a.)

सोधकर्ता : .....

(Aaru garauda ka sabbi kabila takatoki saniaama pana bhalei chhau kay?)

वेद.....

..... (Bhalei cha bhaua. Aajali to kayt aado chas ta? Masti pachadi dhakala padis. Tero bat khushal badia cha kay?)

सोधकर्ता.....

..... (Bhali chau kaku Ma kana ta sat barst bhaya. Tala Kathmandu aaudio ghakna bhani gayako chaya.)

वेद : .....

(Sabis thulli nau rakhnay aari kar dares hai kay?)

सोधकर्ता:.....

.....

..... (Hola hola aaru tammo kantho choro kaushalay kati class ma ghokti cha aadi bhauju kay aani chan, Iskula Jani chan ki kay aani chen?)

वेद : .....

(Kaushalaya bara class ma ghokta cha. Bhauju pani ghokna jadi cha.)

सोधकर्ता:.....

.....

.....

(Aau kaku tamma palauni tanni clash padai hudo chayo aarya aaja bhola aathara samma padai hudo cha. Aabta campu pani kholnu parya bhani kana sabbi lagyaka chau )

सोधकर्ता : ..... (Aaba ma baijado kao hola?)

वेद:.....

.....

....(Bar bhaya Jala bhaua, kailay kailay samjhialays ma pana to kana aamni mando chu rai kary?)

सोधकर्ता : ..... (Bhaya basa to haku ma baigaya)

वेद : ..... (Bhaya Ja Ja bhaua.)

## Appendix- II

नाम (Name): Nanda Gopal Baral लिंग (Sex) : M

गा.वि.स (VDC) Phukot उमेर (Age): 50 Years

पेशा (Occupation) : Teacher

शैक्षिक योग्यता (Academic Qualification): I.Ed.

(This questionnaire is only for educated informants)

A. Transform the following Raskoti Sentences into negative with the help of given example

१. .... (Hegar pani khado cha.) (Hegar drinks water).

..... (Hegar pani khadina.)

२. .... (Dehalo ughada.)(Open the door).

..... (Dehalo na ughada.)

३. ....(Lata Chitthik lakhati cha.) (Lata writes letter).

उत्तर : ..... (Lata Chitthik lakhati na.)

४. .... (Uh tamikana dhukirahiyako cha.) (He is waiting for you).

उत्तर : ..... (Uh tamikana dhukyako nai.)

५. .... (Maile kannaliudo baut khelyna.) (I have swan across the Karnali).

उत्तर: ..... (Maile kannaliudo baut khelina.)

६. .... (Tehikhi joile asti sekar pakai.) (His wife cooked meat the day before yesterday).

उत्तर: ..... (Tehikhi joile asti sekar pakaina.)

७. .... (TokaToki Gana Gairahayaka chiya.)  
(Young boys and girls were singing a song).

उत्तर : ..... (TokaToki Gana Gairahayaka  
chiyanan.)

८. .... (Jhayal dhepa.) (Close the window).

उत्तर: ..... (Jhayal nadhepa)

९..... (Ti Angregy ghokauda chhan). (They teach  
English).

उत्तर : ..... (Ti Angregy ghokaudinan).

१०. .... (Makan yek gelash chaha deu.) (Give me  
a glass of tea).

उत्तर: ..... (Makan chaha nadeu.)

B. Transform the following Raskoti sentence into yes/no question with the help  
of given example.

१. .... (Sarmila Surkeht Basti cha). (Sarmila lives  
in Surkhet).

उत्तर : ..... (Sarmila Surkeht Basti cha kya/kita?)

२. .... (Tammo choro gana gauda cha.) (Your son  
sings a song).

उत्तर : ..... (Tammo choro gana gauda cha kay?)

३. .... (Basanti tala dhoirahenecha.) (Basanti will  
be washing clothes).

उत्तर : ..... (Basanti tala dhoirahancha ki ta?)

४. .... (Teikhi aamale sapan kinin.) (His mother  
brought soap).

उत्तर : ..... (Teikhi aamale sapan kinin ki ta?)

५. .... (Ti Baigaya.) (They went).

उत्तर: ..... (Ti Baigaya ki ta?)



६. .... (Ma mahalo bhala mando chau) (I like sweet).

उत्तर : ..... (Ma mahalo bhala mando chau Ki ta?)

७. .... (Uh makana raidina.) (She hasn't known me).

उत्तर : ..... (Uh makana raidina Ki ta?.)

८. .... (Ma Chaudado dhagududo chau.) (I run in the field).

उत्तर: ..... (Ma Chaudado dhagududo chau ki ta?)

९. .... (Rajendra char class ma paddhicha.) (Rajinda read in class four).

उत्तर : ..... (Rajendra char class ma paddhicha ki ta?)

१०. .... (Sita belchahala aai.) (Sita arrived yesterday morning).

उत्तर : ..... (Sita belchahala aai ki ta?)

C. Transform the following Raskoti Sentences in Wh-questions with the help of given example.

१. .... (Aarjun katha lektho cha.) Arjun writes a story (Who).

उत्तर : ..... (ko katha lektho cha?)

२. .... (Mero nau Ganesh ho.) (My name is Ganesh (What).

उत्तर: ..... (Kay mero nau Ganesh ho.)

३. .... (Manch Bajyo) (It is five O'clock (What).

उत्तर : ..... (Kati Bajyo?)

४. .... (Himal cha bajya uthyo?) (Himal got up at 6 O'clock (When).

उत्तर: ..... (Himal kaibela uthyo?)

५. .... (Ram Bhayammo Dhulyo) (Ram slept on the floor (Where).

उत्तर: ..... (Ram kammo dulyo?)

६. .... (Yi julaf merai hun.) (These sucks are mine (Whose).

उत्तर: ..... (Yi julaf kaikha hun?)

७. .... (Timiharu haderai aayaka hun.) (They had come on foot (How).

उत्तर: ..... (Timiharu kayari aayaka hun)

८. .... (Mehandra angraji ghoktocha.) (Mahendra reads English (What).

उत्तर: ..... (Mehandra kya ghoktocha.)

९. .... (Uh aamni bainikana kela kinidine ho.) (He will bought banana for his sister (Whom).

उत्तर: ..... (Uh kaikhana kela kinidine ho?)

१०. .... (kaushal byapar aardo cha.) (Kaushal does business (Who).

उत्तर: ..... (byapar ko aardo cha.)

## Appendix- III

### रासकोटी भाषिकामा अन्तरवार्ता

सोधकर्ता : ..... । (Beda kaku jadey dhok aray)

बेद:.....

..... (Bhagyamani Bhayas bhaua. Bhali niki chhas kay ta? dhok ta aris mailay ta ramrod raina ta?)

सोधकर्ता:.....

..... (Makana rayanua kita kaku ma Hem Raj hau. Happa Neupane bada ko pardhan ko nati kay?)

बेद :.....। (Aau aau aaila raya bhau a.)

सोधकर्ता : .....

(Aaru garauda ka sabbi kabila takatoki saniamana pana bhalei chhau kay?)

बेद.....

..... (Bhalei cha bhaua. Aajali to kayt aado chas ta? Masti pachadi dhakala padis. Tero bat khushal badia cha kay?)

सोधकर्ता.....

..... (Bhali chau kaku Ma kana ta sat barst bhaya. Tala Kathmandu aauda ghakna bhani gayako chaya.)

बेद : .....

(Sabis thulli nau rakhnay aari kar dares hai kay?)

सोधकर्ता:.....

.....

..... (Hola hola aaru tammo kantho choro kaushalay kati class ma ghokti cha aadi bhauju kay aani chan, Iskula Jani chan ki kay aani chen?)

वेद : .....

(Kaushalaya bara class ma ghokta cha. Bhauju pani ghokna jadi cha.)

सोधकर्ता:.....

.....

.....

(Aau kaku tamma palauni tanni clash padai hudu chayo aarya aaja bholi aathara samma padai hudu cha. Aabta campu pani kholnu parya bhani kana sabbi lagyaka chau )

सोधकर्ता : ..... (Aaba ma baijado kao hola?)

वेद:.....

.....

....(Bar bhaya Jala bhaua, kailay kailay samjhialays ma pana to kana aamni mando chu rai kary?)

सोधकर्ता : ..... (Bhaya basa to haku ma baigaya)

वेद : ..... (Bhaya Ja Ja bhaua.)

## Appendix- IV

नाम (Name): Nanda Gopal Baral लिंग (Sex) : M

गा.वि.स (VDC) Phukot उमेर (Age): 50 Years

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उत्तर : ..... (Lata Chitthik lakhati na.)

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उत्तर : ..... (Uh tamikana dhukyako nai.)

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उत्तर: ..... (Tehikhi joile asti sekar pakaina.)

७. .... (TokaToki Gana Gairahayaka chiya.)

(Young boys and girls were singing a song).

उत्तर : ..... (TokaToki Gana Gairahayaka  
chiyanan.)

८. .... (Jhayal dhepa.) (Close the window).

उत्तर: ..... (Jhayal nadhepa)

९..... (Ti Angregy ghokauda chhan). (They teach  
English).

उत्तर : ..... (Ti Angregy ghokaudinan).

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उत्तर: ..... (Makan chaha nadeu.)

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उत्तर : ..... (Tammo choro gana gaudo cha kay?)

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be washing clothes).

उत्तर : ..... (Basanti tala dhoirahancha ki ta?)

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brought soap).

उत्तर : ..... (Teikhi aamale sapan kinin ki ta?)

५. .... (Ti Baigaya.) (They went).

उत्तर: ..... (Ti Baigaya ki ta?)

६. .... (Ma mahalo bhalo mando chau) (I like sweet).

उत्तर : ..... (Ma mahalo bhalo mando chau Ki ta?)

७. .... (Uh makana raidina.) (She hasn't known me).

उत्तर : ..... (Uh makana raidina Ki ta?.)

८. .... (Ma Chaudado dhagududo chau.) (I run in the field).

उत्तर: ..... (Ma Chaudado dhagududo chau ki ta?)

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उत्तर : ..... (Rajendra char class ma paddhicha ki ta?)

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१०. .... (kaushal byapar aardo cha.) (Kaushal does business (Who).

उत्तर: .... (byapar ko aardo cha.)