

CHAPTER- ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background of the Study

Language is the most convenient and permanent means and form for the expression of human feelings, thoughts, ideas, emotions etc. and unique feature of humankind the possessor of the power of articles, speech, which differentiates him from all the other species. By means of language, human beings can share their ideas. Language is not only the means of sharing feelings and emotions but also a good way of transmission of culture. Culture is inseparable aspect of human life. So, Widdowson (2003, p.12, as cited in Rai, 2005, p.2) defines “Language is a system of arbitrary vocal symbols which permit all people in a given culture or other people who have learned the system of that culture to communicate or to interact.” Culture is the identity of human beings and language promotes to transmit it. Language is a string of meaningful words in its format.

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to interact.’’ Culture is the identity of human beings and language promotes to transmit it. Language is string of meaningful words in its format.

Chomsky (1957, p.13) defines ‘‘language as a set of sentences, each finite in length and constructed out of a finite set of elements.’’ This shows that language is a means of communication within the same speech community. In this way, all languages are used to express and share feelings, ideas. It has different varieties, field characteristics, vernacularism, linguafranca, dialect, register, pidgin and creole within sociolinguistics. Though there are various languages every human being can acquire his/her mother tongue since his/her childhood and can share inner feelings.

1.1.1 The Linguistic Situation in Nepal

Nepal is a small land-locked country but it is regarded as the fertile land for languages. There are 124 mother tongues in Nepal, among them 120 are living languages and 4 are not known (Population census, 2011, as cited in Ethnologue: Languages of Nepal, 2012, p.33). Most of them have spoken form with a few native speakers. Due to the dominance of foreign language like English, some of them are being over shadowed. They need proper protection and preservation from all linguists and government of Nepal. Some language families in Nepal are given below.

1.1.1.1 Indo-Aryan Group

Indo-Aryan group of language is a sub-branch of Indo-European language family. It is the largest group of language in terms of speakers. Nearly 80 % of the Nepalese people use languages belong that this group. English is a language of Indo-European language family.

The Indo-Aryan languages spoken in Nepal can be sub categorized in the following figure:

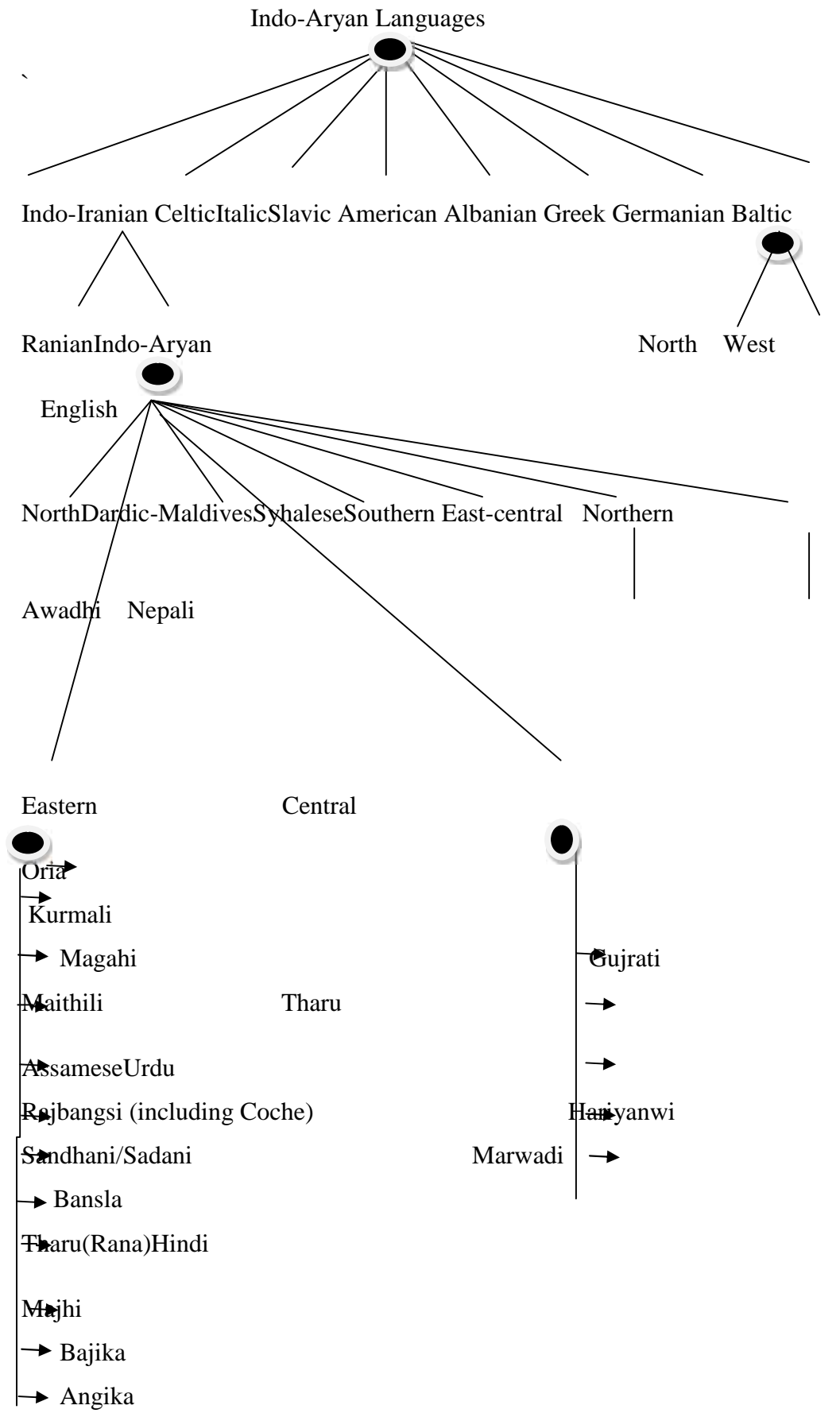


Figure 1: Indo-Aryan Languages in Nepal (Asher, 1994)

1.1.1.2 Dravidian Group

According to Population Census 2011, this group includes only two languages, i.e. Jhagar and Kisan. Jhagar is spoken in the province of the Koshi River in the Eastern region of Nepal. And Kisan with 489 speakers settled in Jhapa district. These are also the endangered languages of Nepal. These can be sub-categorized in the following figure:

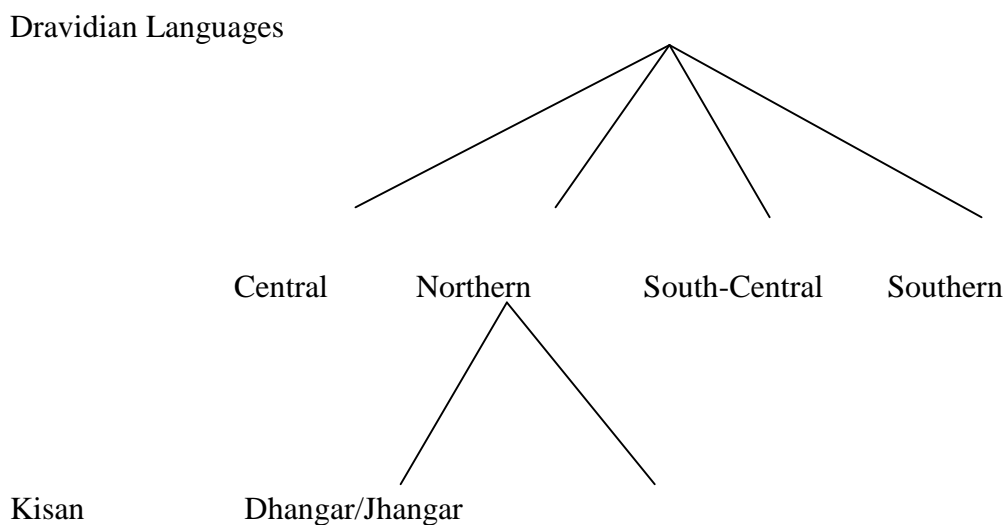


Figure2: Dravidian Languages in Nepal (Rai, 2009, p.7)

1.1.1.3 Tibeto- Burman Group

Tibeto-Burman group is another important language group of Nepal. It belongs to the Sino-Tibetan language family. It is the second largest language group in terms of the number of speakers but it is the largest group in terms of the numbers of language. There are about 57 languages in this group. Its origin is believed to be around the Yangsitkyang river of China. It can be clear from this figure.

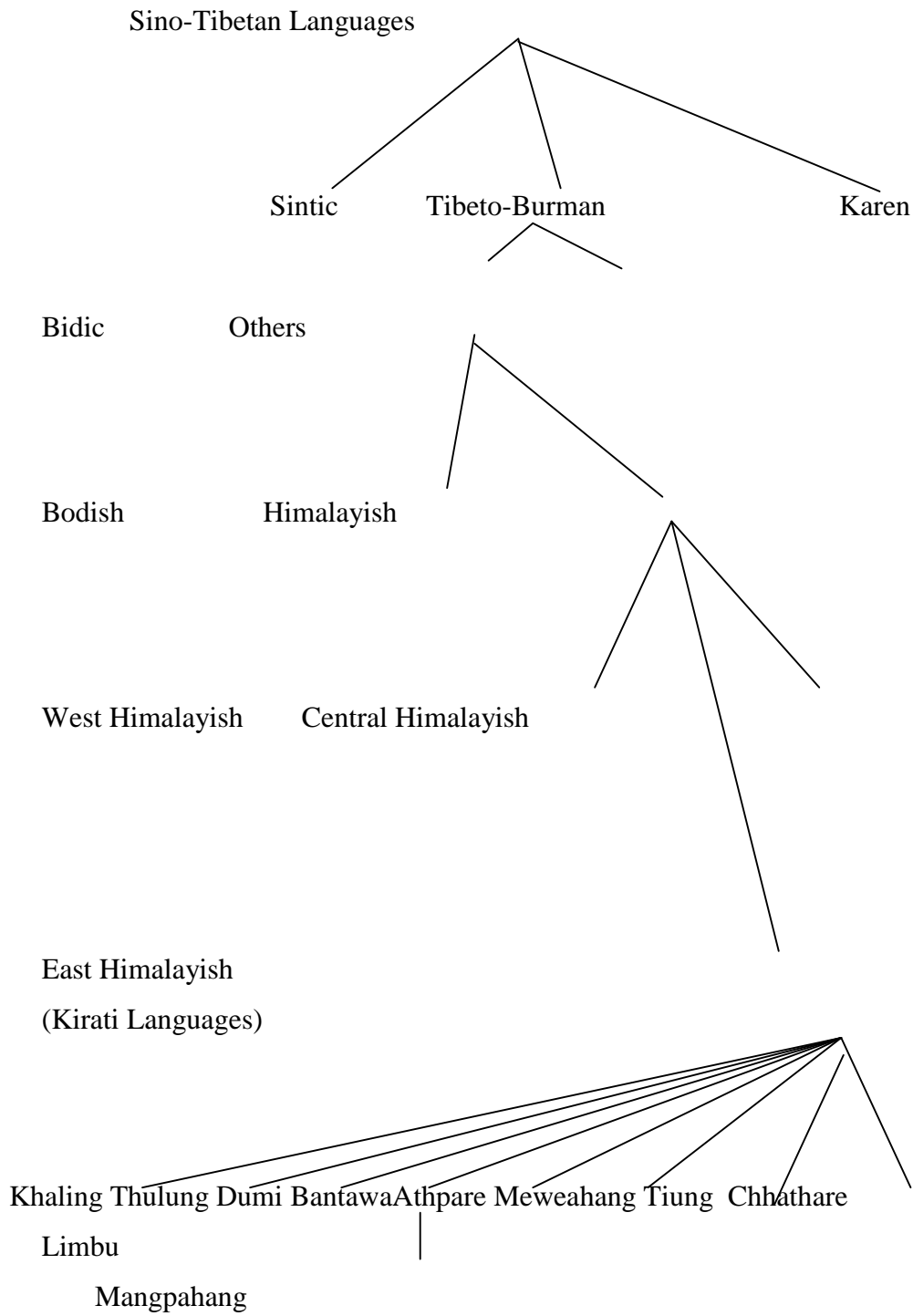


Figure 3: Sino-Tibetan Languages in Nepal (Rai, 2009, p.8)

1.1.1.4 Austro-Asiatic Group

There is one language i.e. Kusunda in Nepal, which does not belong to any of the language families, mentioned above. Linguists have used the term ‘language-isolate’ to refer to this language. Satar (Santhali) is the only language of this language family, which is spoken in Jhapa district of eastern Nepal. The genetic affiliation of the Austro-Asiatic language spoken in Nepal is shown in the following figure:

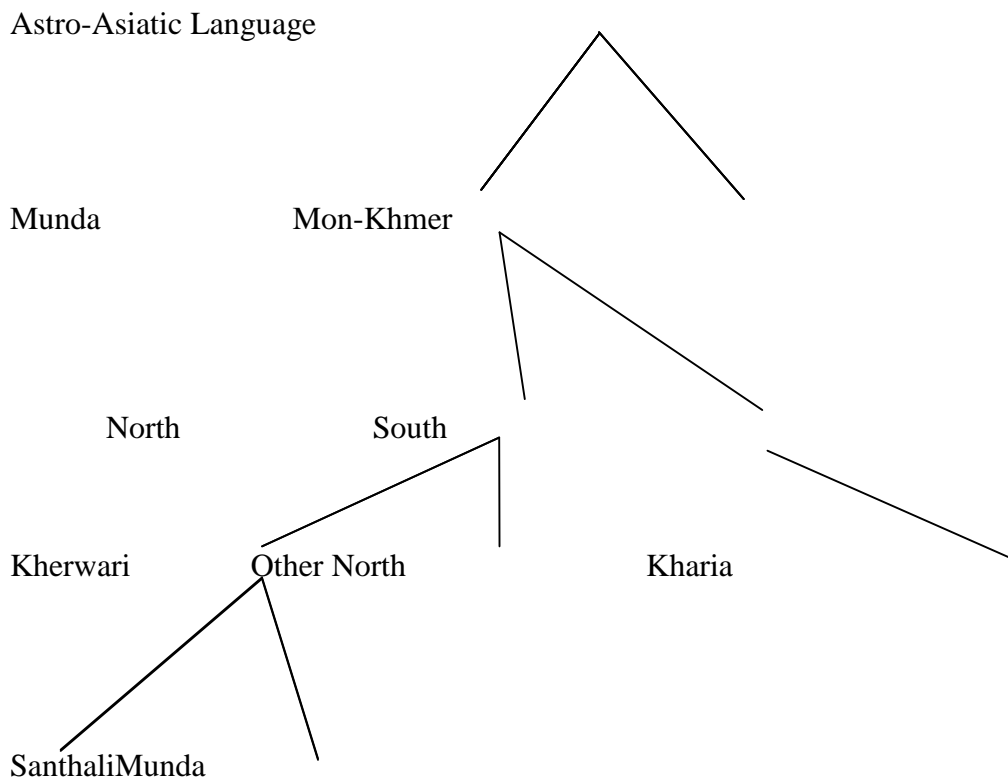


Figure 4: Austro-Asiatic Languages in Nepal (Rai, 2009, p.9)

1.1.2 Mangpahang Rai Language

Bantawa is a language of Nepalese ethnic’s classification that is descendant from Tibeto-Burman family, Bidic group, and East- Himalayish branch. It has four dialects such as, Amchoke dialect (Western Bantawa), Dhankute dialect

(Eastern Bantawa), Dilpali dialect (Northern Bantawa) and Hatuwali dialect (Southern Bantawa) (Epele et al. 2012, p.34). Dhankute dialect (Eastern Bantawa) also has varieties according to region and social status. This shows Mangpahang also is variety of Eastern dialect it differs from other varieties within the same dialect. Rai (1984, p.1) mentions that Bantawa is one of the pronominalized languages of Tibeto-Himalayan Branch belonging to Tibeto-Burman sub-family. It is widely spoken in the Eastern part of Nepal. Bhojpur, Dhankuta, Panchthar, Ilam, Jhapa, Morang and Sunsari are the major districts of Mechi Kosi and Sagarmatha zones of Eastern Nepal where Bantawa is spoken mostly. It is spoken in some parts of Darjeeling district West-Bengal (India), Sikkim and Bhutan. The Mangpahang language is also a dialect of Bantawa language. The origin place of the Mangpahang language is Bhojpur. Among the various ethnic groups the Rais fall under one of the principal tribes of Mongoloid origin in Nepal. According to the National Population Census (2011), the total population of Bantawa is 404,300 or 1.52% of the total population 2,66,21,000 CBS (Epele, et al. 2012, p.34). Mangpahang (2062, p.37) mentions ‘‘Bantawa has many tribes such as, Rungmang, Sangpahang, Khaling, Isara, Chinamkhom, Yongchen, Samsuhang, Kangmang, Sohan, Mangpahang,.....’’. This statement shows Mangpahang is sub-caste of Bantawa identified or referred by the term Rai ‘Kiranti’ or Kirant’. Then, it is clear that the language that is spoken by Mangpahang is the Mangpahang language. Mangpahang language is not itself separate language, in fact it is a regional or social variety of the Bantawa language. It will be clear from this figure. Northey and Morris (1927, as cited in Poudel, 2007, p.10) especially the term ‘Kiranti’ includes:

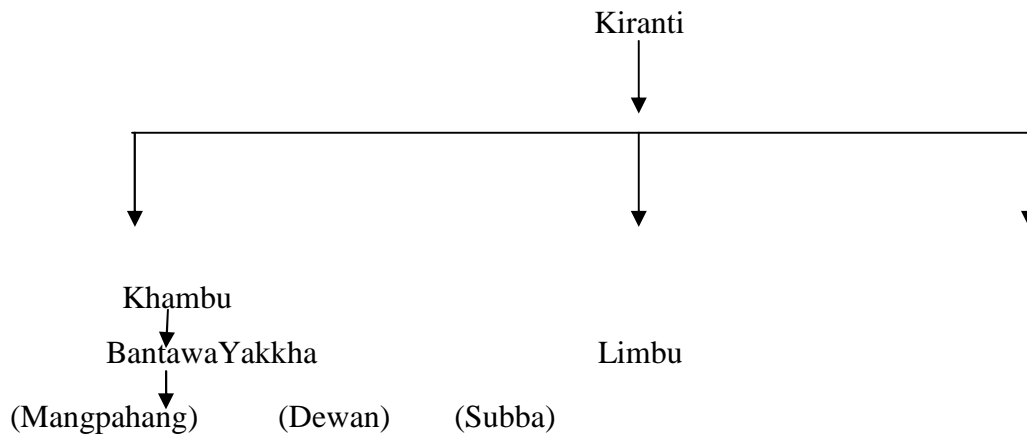


Figure 5: Classification of Kiranti

1.1.4 Concept of Transformation

Transformation means transforming one structure of sentence into another. The theory of transformational generative grammar was first proposed by Noam Chomsky in 1957 and he modified it in 1965. Then, the foundations of generative grammar were laid and a complete technical formation was developed. ‘Chomsky’s TG Model’ is based on the view that language is a mechanism of producing infinite number of utterances by using the internalized underlying rules and code. It is that mechanism of production which is called TG. Chomsky (1957, as cited in Sharma, 2006, p.31) defines ‘‘Language is the ‘process’ of producing utterances by transforming underlying structures by using transformational rules or grammar internalized by the speaker, and put the set of actually uttered sentences.’ The spoken form is called the surface phonetic structure of the sentence. This also involves transformation as in the modification of the underlying phonetic string for ‘arenot’/ ‘aren’t’ in an informal context.

According to Oxford Advanced Learners Dictionary of English Language (OALD 8th edition ,2015) transformation is defined as ‘‘In grammar is a system

that has a deep structure which changes in particular ways when real sentences are produced.’’ In the process of transforming, we may use any of the following four processes, addition, deletion, substitution, permutation.

1.2 Statement of the Problem

Nepal is a multilingual, multicultural, and multiracial country. Though it is small, it enjoys various kinds of diversities. One of the diversities is linguistic diversity and its distribution of language. It is clear that, our society is composed of various casts and ethnicities of people who speak different languages as their mother tongue. Even same community, people speak different languages and dialects. Because of the diverse social structure with diverse linguistic background, it is obvious that our school too welcomes the children with various linguistic backgrounds. Mangpahang is an agglutinating and complex pronominalized nature of language, to learn the processes of negative and interrogative transformation in English is difficult and commit more errors due to transfer of L1 rules. Mangpahang native speakers while learning English as L2 feel difficult to learn and to find out the similarities and differences between English and Mangpahang transformation processes that has created problems in teaching and learning then solve those problems, I feel necessary to select and study this topic for my research.

1.3 Objectives of the Study

The thesis had the following objectives:

- I. To find out the process of negative and interrogative transformation in the Mangpahang Rai language.
- II. To compare and contrast the processes of negative and interrogative transformation in Mangpahang with English.
- III. To point out some pedagogical implications of the study.

1.4 Research Questions

The study was carried out to answer the following research questions:

- I. What is the word order of Mangpahang sentences?
- II. What are the processes of forming negative and interrogative sentences in the Mangpahang language?
- III. What are the negative and interrogative particles in Mangpahang?
- IV. How do the processes of negative and interrogative transformation differ from that of English?
- V. What is the pedagogical implication of this study?

1.5 Significance of the Study

This study deals particularly with the negative and interrogative transformation process in the Mangpahang language with reference to English. Therefore, this study will be beneficial for those who teach English to the Mangpahang speaking children as L₂ as well as other learners of Mangpahang. The teachers who teach the Mangpahang language based curriculum in primary schools also will take advantages from this study. Similarly, the syllabus designers, textbook writers, language experts, linguists and others who are interested in this field will be equally benefitted by this study. This study has pragmatic value in the sense that it can be used as the reference of other relevant study. Although it is confined within simple negative and interrogative transformations, it will be a source of Mangpahang rules.

1.6 Delimitations of the Study

The study had the following limitations:

- a. This study was carried out on Mangpahang Rai, a dialect of Bantawa.
- b. The study was limited to Mangpahang Rai native speakers of only Limba-1 V.D.C. Panchthar district.

- c. The study was limited to only the process of simple negative and interrogative transformations in Mangpahang language that was compared with those of English.
- d. The total study population was thirty-four native speakers of the Mangpahang language.
- e. The negative transformation was limited to assertive and imperative sentences.
- f. The interrogative transformation was limited to positive assertive sentences.
- g. The transformation was limited only to simple sentences.
- h. Only structured interview and questionnaire were used for data collection.

1.7 Definitions of the Terms Used

Agglutinative: using changes to the ends of the words rather than separate words to show the functions of words in a sentence.

Chandinach: a festival celebrated by the Kirant Rai ethnic group in the occasion of coming year and going year twice in a year.

Creole: any pidgin language that has become established as the native language of a speech community.

Dialect: social or regional variety of a same language.

Equational: the act of making something equal or considering equal.

Ethnic: connected or belonging to a nation, race or tribe that shares a cultural tradition.

Periphrastic: use of separate words.

Pidgin: language with a very limited vocabulary and a simple grammar.

Syntax: the way that words and phrases are put together to form sentences in a language in the rules of grammar.

CHAPTER- TWO

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE AND THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK OF THE STUDY

There were many linguistic comparative researches carried out by different researchers in the Department of English Education in T.U. Different languages like Nepali, Limbu, Tharu, Newari, Bantawa Rai, Bhojpuri and Chhintang Rai have been compared with the English language and some pedagogical implications had been stated. The researcher has reviewed both theoretical and empirical literature related to the study below:

2.1 Review of Theoretical Literature

This study is theoretically related to behavioristic theory, contrastive analysis, error analysis and Noam Chomsky's transformation theory.

2.1.1 Behavioristic Theory

The history of SLA cannot be discussed at any point if we ignore the existence of learning theory of behaviorism that mostly enjoyed the value in language acquisition studies in the decade of 1950s. Views of language learning were derived from the theory of learning in general. There were few studies of SLA in its history. The theory of psychology to influence and explain the process of SLA was behaviorism. The supporters of this theory understands language as a general behavior of human being. When the learners imitate and learn the structures of language they can one day master over it. The learning of language becomes more effective with the help of reinforcement for positive response. The errors of the learners are expected to be corrected. When the learners are involved in the regular practice of language rules, they learn them. The learning of language structures is observable and language can be

described in terms of its structures. According to behaviorism, habit formation is formed when a particular stimulus becomes regularly linked with a particular response. We discuss the scope of behaviorism in terms of linguistic and psychological considerations.

2.1.1.1Linguistic Considerations

“ About language and language acquisition, behaviorists take language as habit or behavior that is always descriptive and observable. Speech or language in other words is the response or practical reaction to some stimulus.

Bloomfield(1933,as cited Sharma,2010,p.52) mentions that the first step of language learning is imitation that can be perfect or imperfect like babbling. Then the learner has to perform based on the stimulus- response connection, reinforcement and practice on it. It is believed that correct performance yields better results of language learning.

Fries(1957,as cited in Brown,1996,p.95) mentions that before any of the questions of how to teach a foreign language must come to much more important preliminary work of finding the special problems arising out of any effort to develop a new set of language habit against a background of different native habits.

2.1.1.2Psychological Considerations

In psychological consideration, the notion of transfer is the key concept of behaviorism in L₂ learning. ado (1957,pp.1-2) states that individual tends to transfer the forms and meanings of their native language and culture to the foreign language and culture both productively when attempting to speak the language and to act in the culture receptively when attempting to grasp and understand the language and the culture as practiced by native speakers.

2.1.2 Contrastive Analysis(CA)

CA is a branch of applied linguistics which compares two languages typologically in order to find out the similarities and differences between them and then to predict the areas of ease and difficulty in learning by the speakers of the other languages. Some statements supporting CA are below:

Fries (1945, as quoted by Lado, 1957, p.1) states the most effective materials are those that are based upon a scientific description of the language to be learned, carefully compared with a parallel description of the native language of the learner. Fries' idea is that CA findings are very useful in material production.

Wilkins (1978, quoted in Basnet, 2002, p. 216) states that wherever the structure of the foreign language differs from that of the mother tongue, we can expect both difficulty in learning and error in performance. Learning a foreign language is essentially learning to overcome the difficulties where the structures of two languages are, no difficulty.

Allen and Corder (1945, p.280) mention the teacher who has made a comparison of the foreign and the native language of the students will know better what the real learning problems are for teaching them. From this we can infer that languages are comparable and CA is the comparison of two linguistic systems, which can be any of the morphology, phonology and syntax or grammar. CA is a purposeful theory and it has structure as below:

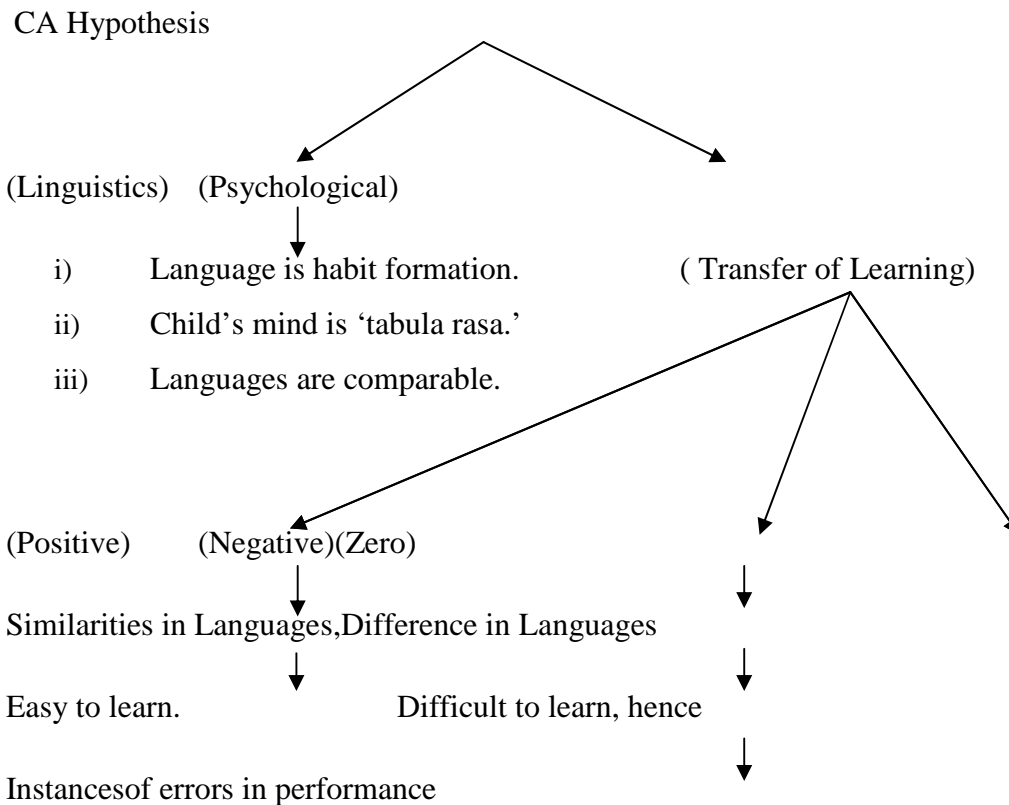


Figure8: CA Hypothesis(Saud, 2005, p. 142)

2.1.2.1 Transfer Theory

Transfer theory is the cornerstone of CA. This theory maintains that if the past learning helps present learning that is called positive transfer or facilitation. On the other hand, if the past learning hinders present learning that is called negative transfer or inference. In addition, if there is no help and hinder that is called zero transfer. The ease or difficulty in learning L_2 depends on whether it is similar to L_1 . If L_1 and L_2 are similar the learning will be easier and the learners commit less error, But if L_1 and L_2 are different L_2 learning will be difficult and the learners commit more errors.

2.1.2.2 CA Hypothesis/ Assumptions

According to Gass and Selinker (2009, pp. 96-97) CA hypothesis/ assumptions are as follows:

1. Contrastive analysis is based on a theory of language that claims that language habit and that language learning involves the establishment of new set of habits.
2. The major source of errors in the production and/or reception of a second language are the native language.
3. One can account for errors by considering differences between the L_1 and L_2 ; the greater the differences, the more error errors.
4. What one has to do in learning second language is learnt the differences. Similarities can be safely ignored as no new learning is involved. In other words, what is dissimilar between two languages is what must be learned.
5. Difficulty and ease in learning is determined respectively by differences and similarities between the two languages in contrast.

2.1.3 Error Analysis

Error analysis (EA) is one of the great contributions of behaviorism. Error analysis (EA) is basically concerned to CA because the assumption is that CA predicts the areas and nature of L_2 error with due respect to L_1 interference. When the CA accomplishes its duty to predict the errors, then EA starts to work for processing and treating those errors in L_2 acquisition. Thus, the framers of the hypothesis overemphasize the role of both CA and EA in second language acquisition. While CA examines similarities (ease) and differences (difficulty), the EA compares between the learners' actual performance in L_2 forms with the standard forms or rules of that L_2 . There are a number of steps:

Steps/strategies	Explanation
1. Collection of data	1. The errors in L ₂ production are collected as the data for analysis.
2. Identification of errors	2. The errors are identified in terms of different criteria. The errors should be frequent, systematic and regular. The errors are identified in terms of level, skills and aspects of language too.
3. Classification of errors	3. Errors are classified according to the features identified in step II, e.g. are they the errors of grammatical level or of phonological? , are they the errors in verb forms or noun forms?, etc.
4. Quantification of the errors	4. Errors are quantified according to the frequency of occurrence. Different statistical tools such as mean, median, standard deviation, percentage etc. can be used to compare and interpret the quantified data and to reach the conclusions of EA.
5. Analysis of the source	5. On the basis of description, classification, quantification, comparison, interpretation, of the errors, their sources are deduced and analyzed to that the remedial strategies can be set.
6. Remedy of the errors	6. The learners are trained or taught to remediate the errors from their L ₂ production. Correction according to sources is a major and ultimate part of EA.

Table1:Steps of Error Analysis (Gass and Selinker, 2009)

2.1.4 Transformation Theory with Reference to Chomsky's 1965

Model

Negation and interrogation are the universal properties of each language. Each language has its rules of transforming negative and interrogative sentences. Within a syntactic framework, negative and interrogative sentences are derived, formed and transformed. Negative and interrogative transformations are the parts of syntax that have very significant roles to play in both spoken and written form discourses. Both negative and interrogative sentences facilitate communication and make it possible, effective and lively. The negative and interrogative transformation has been shown in Chomsky's theory of syntax (also called 1965 Model) as below:

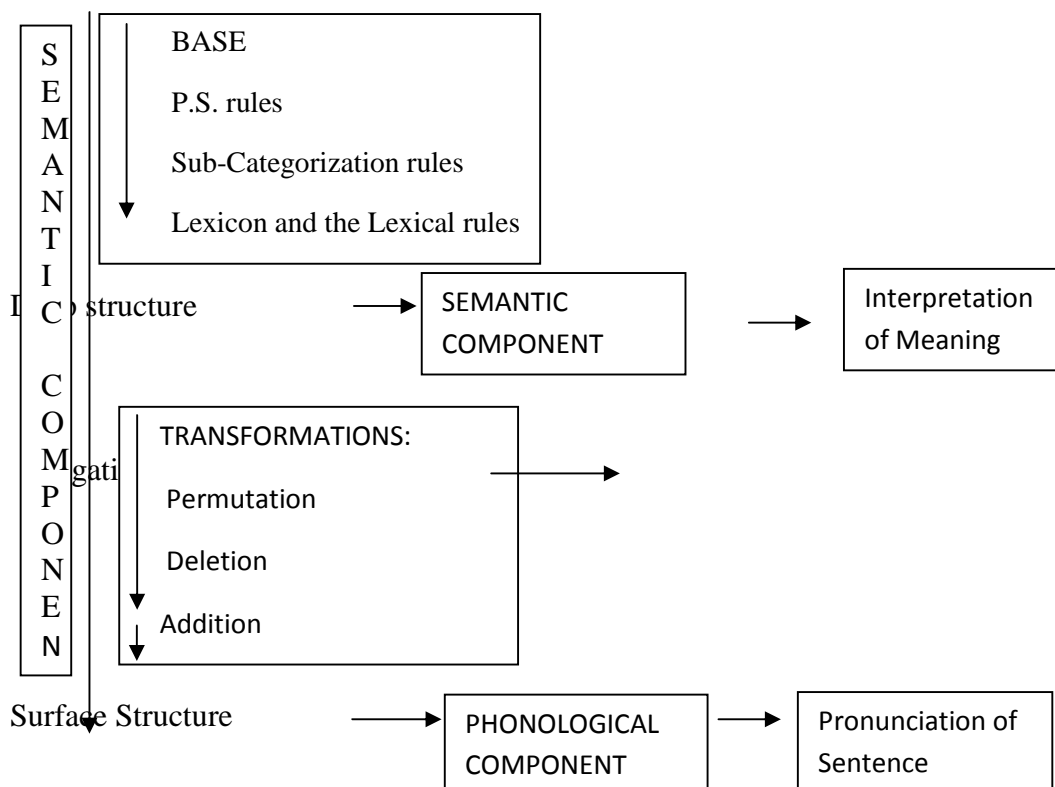


Figure 6: Chomsky's Model (Dewan, 2005)

This figure shows that the base and transformation are the two- components of syntactic component of syntax. The base sub- component generates an infinite set of deep structures, which undergo certain transformations (addition,

deletion, substitution, permutation) by means of transformation rules (negation, interrogation and so on). After undergoing the transformational process, the phonological component becomes sentences. This shows we can use any of the following four processes, addition, deletion, substitution, permutation in transformation. This figure also clarifies as following:

Syntax

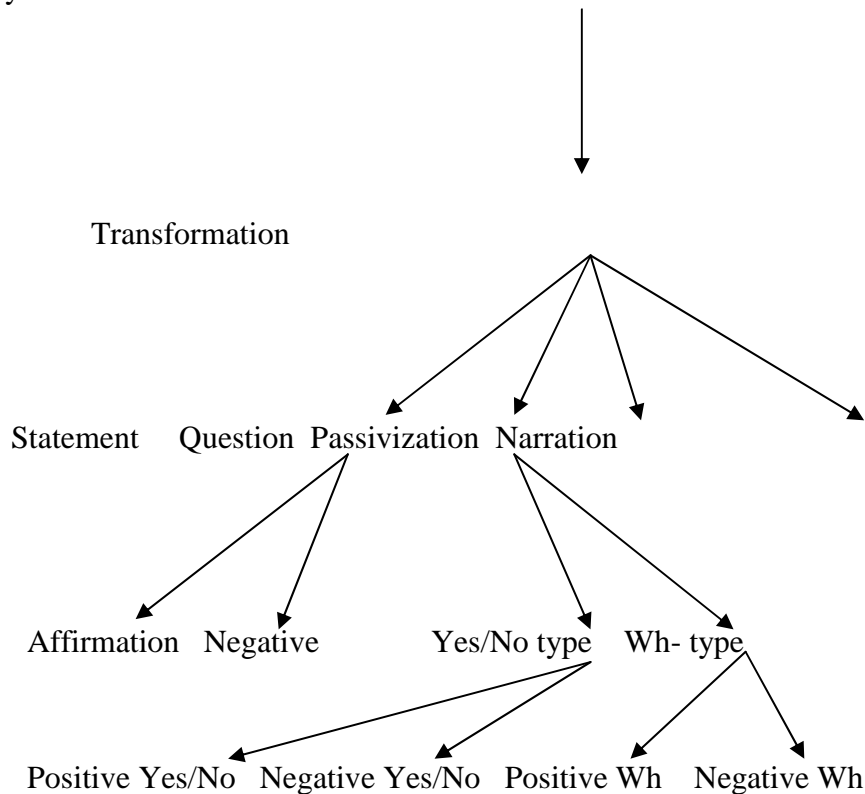


Figure7: Types of Transformation (Dewan, 2005, p. 21)

Some general transformation rules are given below:

2.1.4.1 Rules for Transforming Affirmative Sentences into Negative

i) Simple positive sentence is negated by inserting the negative marker or particle ‘not’ or ‘n’t’ and precedes by the auxiliary verb.

e.g. Ram is crying.

-Ram is not crying.

ii) If affirmative sentence does not have any auxiliary verb, the periphrastic 'do' must be used.

e.g. She dances very well.

-She does not dance very well.

iii) If the main verb is 'do' in the affirmative sentence, we put the form of 'do' and 'not' according to its tense, number, and person followed by the main verb 'do'.

e.g. They do their work.

-They do not do their work.

iv) If the sentence contains 'have', 'has' or 'had' as main verb, we usually put the form of 'do' followed by the base form of 'have'.

e.g. He had a car.

-He did not have a car.

v) Positive imperative sentences are changed into negative ones by placing 'do not' in the beginning of the sentence.

e.g. Shut the door.

-Do not shut the door.

Inclusive imperative sentences are negated in two ways:

e.g. Do not let us go now. (~~Less~~ usual/ likely)

Let us go now.

Let us not go now.

vi) The affirmative sentences containing 'dare' and 'need' are negated in two ways:

a) If they are used as an auxiliary verb, the negative marker 'not' or 'n't' is added after them in which case they take the bare infinitive.

e.g. He dares to challenge me.

-He dares not (or daren't) challenge me.

You need to be cautious.

-You need not (needn't) be cautious.

b) If they are used as a main verb, the periphrastic 'do' must be used. In this case, they take the full infinitive with 'to'.

e.g. He dares to challenge me.

-He does not (or doesn't) dare to challenge me.

You need to be cautious.

-You do not (or don't) need to be cautious.

Vii) While transforming affirmative sentences into negative, some words or phrases are to be changed as follows:

Affirmative Negative

some/ every any

too either

as...as so.....as

already yet

a lot of many/much

and so and neither

e.g.

a) He knows everything.

He does not know anything.

b) I have some pens.

I do not have any pens.

c) She can play too.

-She cannot play either.

d) Hari is as good as Shyam.

-Hari is not so good as Shyam.

e) We have already done it.

-We have not done it yet.

f) They sold many apples.

-They did not sell any apples.

g) I kick her and so did she.

-I did not kick her and neither did she.

viii) Negative sentence can also be formed by changing the following affirmative words into negatives, without adding the negative markers 'not' or 'n't' after the auxiliary verb.

Affirmative

Negative

Always/ever

never

Every.../some.../any...

no

Everyone/someone/anyone

no one/none

Either/or

neither/nor

Examples;

a) I always go to school.

-I never go to school.

b) He is willing to say something to her.

-He is willing to say nothing to her.

c) Everyone knows it.

-No one knows it.

d) I will call either Nima or Rina.

-I will call neither Nima nor Rima.

ix) 'Must' is changed into 'need not' where there is the absence of obligation and rarely into 'must not' when there is negative obligation imposed by the speaker.

e.g. The student must wear uniform in the school.

-The student must not wear uniform in the school.

(Wearing uniform in school is obligatory)

x) Another way in which we can make a statement negative is by using a broad negative marker. Broad negatives (Sinclair, 2000, p. 214) are adverbs like 'rarely' and 'seldom', which are used to make statement almost very negative.

e.g. We were able to move.

-We were rarely able to move.

Here is a list of most common broad negatives:

barely, hardly, rarely, seldom

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

a) It is possible to do.

-It is impossible to do.

b) He is happy.

-He is unhappy.

c) I agree with you.

-I disagree with you.

d) She is a regular student.

-She is an irregular student.

xii) Just by adding the suffixes ‘-less’ to some words, we can change the affirmative sentences into negatives.

e.g. They were completely helpful.

-They were completely helpless.

2.1.4.2 Rules for Transforming Statements into Yes/No Questions

i) In a statement, if there is an auxiliary verb except ‘do’ and ‘have’ as a main verb the auxiliary verb is moved to the initial position of the sentence which is followed by the subject, and the main verb.

e.g. She will dance beautifully.

-Will she dance beautifully?

ii) If there is more than one auxiliary verb in the statement, yes/no questions are formed by putting the first auxiliary in front of the subject.

e.g. She should have given it to him.

-Should she have given it to him?

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

e.g. You live in Sydney.

-Do you live in Sydney?

iv) If a statement contains 'do' or 'have' as a main verb, yes/no question is formed by putting 'do', 'did' or 'does' according to tense, number and person at the beginning of the clause in front of the subject.

e.g. They do hard labour.

- Do they do hard labor?

I have a beautiful car.

- Do I have a beautiful car?

v) If there is 'dare', 'need' or 'used' in a statement, yes/no is formed in two ways:

1) She dares to ride a motorbike.

- Dares she ride a motor bike?

- Does she dare to ride a motorbike?

2) Judge need to be impartial.

-Need judge be impartial?

-Does judge need to be impartial?

3) His daughter used to be beautiful

-Used his daughter to be beautiful?

-Did his daughter use to be beautiful?

vi) If a statement contains 'have got' / 'has got' / 'had got', yes/no question is formed by putting 'have', 'has' and 'had' at the beginning of the clause followed by the subject by 'got'.

e.g. He has got some money.

- Has he got any money?

vii) Yes/No question can also be expressed through the use rising intonation in the statement. This type of yes/no question is called uninverted yes/no question. It is used when a speaker expects confirmation of a positive or negative presupposition. Using an uninverted question thus suggests that the person asking the question knows the other person well enough to predict the other's answer.

e.g. Worker to supervisor: You are going to dance?

viii) The words like 'some' and 'already' are changed into 'any' and 'yet' respectively while forming yes/no question.

a) e.g. Hari has some oranges.

- Has Hari got any oranges?

b) The boat has left already.

-Has the boat left yet?

ix) The negative statement is changed into negative yes/no question in two ways:

1) If the contracted form of 'n't' is used, 'n't' precedes the subject.

e.g. Nita is not cooking rice.

- Isn't Nita cooking rice?

2) If the negative particle 'not' is used, it follows the subject.

e.g. They are not the students.

- Are they not the students?

2.1.4.3 Rules for Transforming the Sentences into Wh-Question

i) Wh-question is usually formed according to the following pattern:

Wh-word+auxiliary verb+subject+main verb+...?

e.g. where did Ram go?

- What is he doing?

i) The exact answer is deleted when we transform the sentence into Wh-question

e.g. She eats rice.

- What does she eat?

His father went to the shop to buy salt.

-Why did his father go the shop?

ii) If a statement contains an auxiliary verb, the same auxiliary verb follows the wh-word while transforming the statement into wh-question. If the statement contains a main verb, the periphrastic 'do' is used.

e.g. They are playing football.

- What are they playing?

Binita goes to school.

-Where does Binita go?

iii) As in negative yes/no question, the negative statement is transformed into negative wh-question in two ways:

a) If the contracted form 'n't' is used, it precedes the subject or moves along with an auxiliary verb.

e.g. Anil didn't go to school.

- Where didn't Anil go?

b. If the full negative particle 'not' is used, it follows the subject.

e.g. It is not a good time today.

- When is not a good time?

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

1) 'Who' and 'whom'

The pronoun 'who' is used to ask questions about a person's identity. 'Whom' can be used as a subject or an object of a verb.

e.g. Who keeps the keys? (as a subject)

Who did you see? (an object)

The pronoun 'whom' functions as an object of a verb.

e.g. Whom did the committee appoint?

Both 'who' and 'whom' can also be the object of preposition; the preposition is placed at the end of the clause.

e.g. Who did you dance with?

When 'whom' is the object of a preposition, the preposition is placed at the beginning of the clause, in front of 'whom'.

e.g. To whom were you dancing?

2) 'Whose' and 'which'

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

e.g. Whose mum is more lover than mine?

Whose car broke down? (as a Subject)

3) 'When' and 'where'

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

e.g. When did your cow die?

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

e.g. Where do you like?

Where is she going?

4) 'Why' and 'how'

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

e.g. Why couldn't Mina speak?

Why did you slap him?

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

e.g. How do you open it?

'How' is also used to ask about the way someone or something looks, or about the way something sounds, feels, or tastes.

e.g. How are you feeling today?

How does it look?

'How' can be combined with other at the beginning of questions such as, how many, how, how long, how far etc.

e.g. How many books do you have?

How long will your uncle stay here?

2.2 Review of Empirical Literature/ Previous study

The following theses related to the present study have been reviewed below:

Rai (2001) compared English, Nepali and Limbu Kinship terms on the thesis 'A Comparative Linguistic Study of English, Nepali and Kinship Terms.' She has done a comparative study of the linguistic systems used to refer to kinship relations of both consanguineal and affineal types across five generations from ego points of view in those three VDCs of Panchthar district by means of oral structured interview. The study shows that English has less number of kinship terms in comparison to both Nepali and Limbu. Both Nepali and Limbu languages have no distinction between male and female ego except the terms husband and wife and no distinction of elder and younger.

Phyak (2004) worked on 'English and Limbu Pronominals: A Linguistic Comparative Study.' The main objective of this study was to compare and contrast Limbu pronominal with those of English. He prepared a set of interview questionnaire and elicited data from the Limbu native speakers. His study shows that Limbu language has more number of pronominals than English. Limbu pronominal systems are more complex and different from those of English. Limbu personal and possessive pronouns are categorized under three numbers: singular, dual and plural.

Rai (2004) compared Rai Bantawa Kinship terms with those of English on his study on 'English and Rai Bantawa Kinship Terms.' The main purpose of this study was to compare and contrast English and Rai Bantawa consanguineal and affineal kinship terms and both appellative and addressive use from both perspective male and female ego. His sample population was the native speakers of Timma, Chhinamakhu and Annapurna VDCs of Bhojpur district. He used snowball-sampling procedure to sample the population. Taking help of three types of pre-determined set of questions, the relevant data were collected. He used pre-determined set of question for gathering the terms from both perspective namely male and female ego. He has found that there are a few

kinship terms in English in comparison to Bantawa's in terms of number. Most of the relations of Rai Bantawa have distinction in kinship term of male and female ego.

Poudel (2004) studied negative and interrogative transformation in English and Panchthare dialect of Limbu on his thesis 'A Comparative Study on Negative and Interrogative Transformation in English and Panchthare Dialect Limbu'. His main objective was to compare and contrast the negative and interrogative transformation with those of English. He prepared a set of questionnaire as a research tool and elicited the concerned data. The native speakers of Yasok and Mangjabung VDC of Panchthar district were the sample population. By using random sampling procedure he took the study population and elicited data for the study. He has found that the negative marker in English is 'not' but the affix 'me' is of the Panchthare Limbu dialect. By placing 'bi' or 'pi' after the verb of Panchthare Limbu yes/no question is formed where as an auxiliary verb occurs at the beginning of the sentence in English.

Rai (2005) compared the pronominal of Chhintang with that of English on his study entitled 'Pronominal in English and Chhintang. A Comparative Study.' The main objective of his study was to compare and contrast Chhintang pronominal with those of English. He used a set of interview questionnaire as a tool. The entire informants for the study were the native speakers of Chhintang from Mulgaun and Shambhu gaun of Dhankuta district. The sample population was divided into three groups' viz. 20 educated, 20 literate and 20 illiterate. He used stratified random sampling procedure to sample population. He has found that Chhintang has more number of pronouns for singular and plural whereas in English, the same forms are used for both singular and plural.

Kushwa (2005) researched about negative and interrogative transformation in English and Bhojpuri on his research work 'Negative and Interrogative Transformation in English and Maithili: A Comparative Study.' His main objective was to compare and contrast the negative and interrogative

transformation with those of English. He prepared a set of questionnaire and collected data from the native speakers of the Bhojpuri language. The population of the study was the inhabitants of Jhitkaiya and Dohari VDCs of Bara districts. The sample population was divided into three groups' literate, illiterate and educated having 20(10 males and 10 females) informants in each group using stratified random sampling procedure. In the subject or operator inversion rule is also required to transform a statement into yes /no question in English whereas it does not take place in Bhojpuri language. He has also found that in wh-question 'do' support (operator addition) and subject-auxiliary inversion (subject- operator inversion) rules are applied in English whereas they are redundant in Bhojpuri.

Tharu (2005) studied about transformation in English and Maithili Language on his work 'Transformation in English and Maithili Language'. The main objective of this study was to compare and contrast the Maithili in relation to the English language. He has carried out study of the subject-verb agreement in English and Tharu language. He found that in English the third person pronouns do not change for honorific forms, whereas they do in the Tharu language, the Tharu verbs are marked for formal and informal forms, whereas English verbs are not and English and Tharu verbs do not agree with the categories of gender.

Dewan (2005) compared English and Yakkha language on his study 'Negative and Interrogative Transformation in English and Yakkha Language'. The main objective was to analyze the process of negative and interrogative transformation in Yakkha language and compare with those of English. The data were collected from the selected Yakkha speakers by using structured interview as a research tool. The sample population was the Yakkha native speakers of Angna VDC of Panchthar district. He had found that the negative marker 'n' is used to negate the passive assertive sentence when the agent of the transitive is singular. The other negative marker 'ni' is used to negate the positive assertive sentence when the agent of the transitive verb is plural.

Whereas English negative marker 'not' is used in any situation. The yes/no interrogative particle Yakkha language is 'i' which is attached at the end of the verb. Yakkha wh-question can be formed in two ways by adding the interrogative particle 'la' at the end of the verb and without adding the particle. While forming negative yes/ no and wh-questions, the negative marker is not fronted in Yakkha language but always attached to the verb.

Poudel(2007) carried out a research entitled 'A Comparative Study on Negative and Interrogative Transformations in Bantawa Language'. His main objectives were to find out the processes of negative and interrogative transformation in Bantawa language and then to compare and contrast the process of negative and interrogative transformation in Bantawa with those in English language. The sample population from Khoku VDC of Dhankuta district was divided into three groups using random sampling procedure. The main tool for the collection of the data was a structured interview containing sentences for transformation. He had translated different types of sentences. He found that the affixes 'n', m n, are the negative markers whereas negative marker in English is 'not'. The negative markers are added to the verb in Bantawa but the English negative marker 'not' is added after the auxiliary verb as independent element.

Rai (2009) compared English and Puma Rai language on her study 'A Negative and Interrogative Transformations in English and Puma Rai'. The main objective of this study is to find out similarities and differences between Puma and English language. Her sample population was from Mauwabote VDC Khotang district. Structured interview was tool for data collection. She made two groups of 15 literate and 15 illiterate native speakers. Negative markers in Puma language are 'pa', 'na ', 'min', 'n', 'ni', 'and 'men' etc.

2.3 Implications of the Review

The behavioristic theory provided me insights and knowledge since it had based on the stimulus- response connection, reinforcement and practice on it. As a learner, my research also went in behavior/practice in research field. While using in educational field there needs real stimulus–response connection. CA was major implication in this research due to it was contrast and comparison between Mangpahang and English language in dual situation. Contrastive analysis consists transfer theory and CA hypothesis gave how to contrast and compare between them. Error analysis provided how and where language learners may commit errors while learning Mangpahang language. From the empirical review, the researcher drew important ideas how to collect data, which tool is appropriate, way of selection sample, procedure for sampling and formulation of rules.

2.4 Theoretical/ Conceptual Framework of the Study

This research is theoretically based on contrastive analysis, transfer theory and transformation theory. Contrastive analysis helped me to compare and contrasts between English and Mangpahang 'A Comparative study on Negative and Interrogative Transformations,' Transfer theory provided me insights about how positive transfer, negative transfer and zero transfer become. Transformation theory gave me the idea about negative and interrogative rules, variables and processes. The empirical studies reviewed above provided me the conceptual ideas on how to collect data, which theory should be used, how to formulate rules of any processes and shoes particular way to compare and contrast two languages based on various variables.

CHAPTER-THREE

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

I adapted the following methodology to carry out research.

3.1 Design and Method of Study

This study was qualitative type of research since this study analyzed data without numerical analysis. It was descriptive and comparative in nature since the collected data from specifically Mangpahang were described, analyzed and compared with those of English.

3.2 Population, Sample and Sampling Strategy

Population, sample and sampling strategy of the proposed study were as follows:

3.2.1 Population

Mangpahang Rai native speakers of Limba VDC ward No.-1, Panchthar were the population of my study.

3.2.2 Sample

Thirty-four Mangpahang Rai native speakers of Limba VDC, Panchthar were the sample of my study.

3.2.3 Sampling Strategy

Thirty-four Mangpahang Rai native speakers were selected in this study using simple random sampling procedure.

3.3 Study Area/ Field

The study area was grammar, particularly the negative and interrogative transformation process between English and Mangpahang. To collect data in Mangpahang, the researcher visited Limba-1, Panchthar which was the field of the study.

3.4 Data Collection Tools and Techniques

Structured questionnaire and interview were used as the tools for data collection.

3.5 Data Collection Procedures

The researcher visited the place Limba-1 Panchthar. He met the native speakers and made good rapport with them. He told them purpose of visiting. Then, they helped him to collect data. He distributed questionnaire. Some native speakers were taken interviews and responses were recorded using paper and pencil technique.

3.6 Data Analysis and Interpretation Procedure

After collecting data from the respondents, the researcher transliterated in Roman script selecting symbols for each letter. Then, analyzed the data comparing and contrasting Mangpahang negative and interrogative processes with those of English to find out the negative markers (morphs), interrogative (information) words and structures from each sentence of answers of respondents. Moreover, the responses of the Mangpahang native speakers were deeply studied for systematic formulation of rules of transformation.

CHAPTER-FOUR

ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION OF RESULTS

This chapter deals with the analysis and interpretation of the data collected by the researcher for his study. The analysis and interpretation of the data were presented as below.

4.1 Process of Negative Transformation in Mangpahang

The processes of negative transformation in the Mangpahang language are described below:

4.1.1 Negative Transformation of Assertive Sentence in Mangpahang

The processes of negative transformation in Mangpahang are given below:

(I) The assertive sentences are transformed into negative by suffixing the negative markers ‘-nu’, ‘-min’, ‘-nin’ to the stem of the verb.

Affirmative Sentences

Negative Sentences

1. u k pokhar khat a

u k pokhar kh **tnu**

‘I Pokhara go’

‘I Pokhara not go’

I go to Pokhara.

I don’t go to Pokhara.

2. u k lenolen ku se na u k ku se **nu**

‘I always teeth brush’

‘ I teeth do not brush’

I always brush teeth.

I do not brush teeth.

3. kxananin bulun se sin

kh nin bulun se **simin**

‘You room clean’

‘you the room do not clean’

You clean the room.	You do not clean the room.
4. kh n nin khipl kh kh rin	kh n nin khipl kh kh rimin
‘You school go’	‘You school do not go’
You go to school.	You do not go to school.
5.kh n nin khipl kh kh rin	kh n nin khipl kh kh rimin
‘You school go’	‘You school do not go’
You go to school.	You do not go to school.
6. moko ch pl phe ch p	moko ch pl phe ch pnin
‘He letter writes ‘	‘He letter do not write’
He writes letter.	He do not write letter.
7.hari badheois dhankut kh t	hari badheois dhankut kh tnin
‘Hari mostly Dhankuta goes’	‘Hari mostly Dhankuta does not go’
Hari mostly goes to Dhankuta.	Hari does not go to Dhankuta.

(II) When the non-pastverbs end in (n) in Mangpahang the sentences are transformed into negative using ‘-min’ at last and /n/ changes into /m/.

Affirmative Sentences

Negative Sentences

1. u k n chenkhl d ch nu lolisin	u k n chenkhl d ch nu
lolis imin	
‘I in exam will be pass’	‘I in exam won’t be pass’
I will be pass in exam.	I won’t be pass in exam.
2. kh n nindh r n kh rin	kh n nin dhar n kh rimin

‘You Dharan will go to’

‘You Dharan will not go to’

You will go to Dharan.

You will not go to Dharan.

(III) Progressive non-past and past tense (verbs) are transformed into negative by placing negative marker ‘-ni-’ in the middle position of the words.

1. khoci khim kh ty khoci khim kh **tniy**

‘They home going’

They home not going’

They are going home.

They are not going home.

2. kh n ninci s mso heky

kh n ninciS mso hek**niy**

‘You grass are cutting’

‘You grass are not cutting’

You are cutting grass.

You are not cutting grass.

3. p rbat i c kh n muy

p rbat i c kh n **muniy**

‘Parbati food is cooking’

‘Parbati food is not cooking’

Parbati is cooking food.

Parbati is not cooking food.

4. hari kok muy

hari kok **muniy**

‘Hari food cooking was’

‘Hari food cooking was not’

Hari was cooking rice.

Hari was not cooking rice.

Iv) Assertive sentences in past simple, past progressive and present perfect tenses are transformed into negative by adding the prefix ‘m n-’ at initial position with the verb and in the case of perfective aspect affixes ‘d ,’ ‘ ’, ‘yuk’ are also added at the end of the verb.

Affirmative Sentences

Negative Sentences

1. khokoci ims

khokoci **m nimyuk**

‘They slept’

‘They not sleep’

They slept.

2. asmit khipl kh kh r

‘Asmita school was going’

Asmita was going to school.

3.khokoci mus mumuw

‘They fighting were’

They were fighting.

4. khoko inkhitl kh r yu s

‘He market has gone’

He has gone to market.

They didn’t sleep.

asmit khipl kh **m nkh d**

‘Asmita school not going’

Asmita was not going to school.

khokoci mus **m nmud**

‘They fighting were’

They were fighting.

khoko inkhitl **m nkh yuk**

‘He market has not gone’

He has not gone to market

V) The verb ‘to be’ is not found in Mangpahang equational sentences however periphrastic negative markers ‘m ’, ‘m tdu ’ are added (Rai,2067).

Affirmative Sentences

Negative Sentences

1. moko lu t k

‘That stone is’

That is stone.

2.moko u buw

‘That my brother’

He is my brother.

3. khoko doctor

‘He doctor is’

He is doctor.

moko lu t k **m**

‘That stone is not’

That is not stone.

moko u buw **m n**

‘That my brother is not’

That is not my brother.

khoko doctor **m**

‘He doctor is not’

He is not doctor.

4. mod c w y

mod c w **m tdu**

‘There water was’

‘there water not was’

There was water.

There was not water.

VI) Imperative sentences are transformed into negative by putting the prefix ‘m n-’ in the beginning of the verb.

Affirmative Sentences

Negative Sentences

1) moko tomphuk or ne

moko tomphuk **m nor** ne

‘That stick break’

‘That stick do not break’

Break that stick.

Do not break that stick.

2. n oklim c ne

n oklim **m nc** ne

‘Orange eat’

‘Orange do not eat’

Eat that orange.

Do not eat that orange.

3.ch pl ri khipd ne

ch pl ri **m nkhipd** ne

‘Magazine buy’

‘Magazine do not buy’

Buy the magazine.

Do not buy the magazine.

4) moko duw ri ho s num

moko duw ri **m nhomd** num

‘that door open’

‘that door do not open’

Open that door.

Do not open that door.

5) khim kh re

khim **m nk** re

‘home go’

‘home not go’

Go home.

Don’t go home.

4.1.2 Interrogative Transformation of Assertive sentence in

Mangpahang

Interrogative sentences include yes/no questions and wh-questions. The interrogative transformation processes in Mangpahang are given below:

4.1.2.1 Process of Yes/No Question Formation in Mangpahang

The processes of yes/no question formation in Mangpahang are given below:

(I) All Mangpahang yes/no questions are formed by using *rising intonation* in all tenses, persons and numbers without subject-auxiliary inversion.

Declarative Sentences

Questions

1. kh n nin khipl kh kh rin.

kh n nin khipl kh kh rin?

‘You school go’

‘you school do go?’

You go to school.

Do you go to school?

2. u k lenolen ku se gn .u ka lenolen ku se n ?

‘I always teeth brush’ ‘I teeth do brush?’

I always brush teeth.

Do I brush teeth?

3. kh n nin bulun se sin.

kh nin bulun se sin?

‘You room clean’

‘You clean room.’

You room do clean?

Do you clean room?

4. moci l de l de inkhitl mukh y . moci l de l de inkhitl mukh y ?

‘They sometimes market go’

‘They sometimes market go?’

They sometimes go to market .

Do they go to market?

5. u k ch pl phe ch p .

‘He letter writes’

He writes letter.

6. hari badheois dhankut kh t.

‘Hari mostly Dhankuta goes’

Hari mostly goes to Dhankuta.

7. sit yuyu l d t y kh dmu.

‘Sita in office work does’

Sita works in office.

8. hari u k d b nm mu.

‘Hari in me used to come’

Hari used to come in me.

u k ch pl phe ch p ?

‘He letter does write?’

Does he write letter?

hari badheois dhankut kh t?

Hari mostly Dhankuta go?’

Does Hari go to Dhankuta?

sit yuyu l d t y kh dmu?’

‘Sita in office work (does)?’

Does Sita work in office?

hari u k d b nm mu?

‘Hari in me did come?’

Did Hari come in me?

4.1.2.2 Process of Wh-Question Formation in Mangpahang

The equivalent wh-words of English in Mangpahang are ‘di’ (what), ‘s ko’ (whose), ‘kh is ri’ (how), ‘demkh ’ (when), ‘kh d ’ (where), ‘s ’ (who) and ‘den ’ (why) which are placed before or after the subject. Examples;

Declarative Sentences

Questions

1. u k pokhar kh t .

‘I Pokhara go’

I go to Pokhara.

2. khoci inl kh mukh t.

di u k pokhar kh t ?

‘What I Pokhara go?’

What do I go to Pokhara?

di khoci inl kh mukh t ?

'They market go'	'what they market go?'
They go to market.	Do they go to market?
4. prem wenchuk met a.	pre di met a?
'Prem volleyball plays'	'Prem what does play?'
Prem plays volleyball.	What does Prem play?
5. u k l fitm o met .	u k di met ?
'I football am playing.'	'I what am playing?'
I am playing football.	What I am playing?
6. kh n nin chukusi dher numkoy .	s kochukusi dhet numko y ?
'You your finger have cut.'	'Whose fingercut have ?'
You have cut your finger.	Whose finger have cut?
7. r m cepy s kh ry .	r mkhaisari kh ry ?
'Ram speaking is going'	'Ram how is going?'
Ram is going by speaking	How is going Ram?
8. moci l de l de inkhitl mukh t.	moci demkh inkhitl mukh t?
'They sometimes market go'	'They when market do go?'
They sometimes go to market.	When do they go to market?
9. hari badheois dhankut kh t.	hari badheois kh d kh t?
'Hari mostly Dhankuta goes'	'Hari mostly where does go?'
Hari mostly goes to Dhankuta.	Where does Hari mostly go?
10. sit yuyu l d t y kh dmu.	sit kh d t y kh dmu?

‘Sita in office work does’	‘Sita where does work?’
Sita works in office.	Where does Sita work?
11. u k n ukh ru ukkh mummy k .	s ukh rumuy nk ?
‘We are working.’	‘who working are?’
We are working.	Who are working?
12. khokoci muims .	S muims ?
They slept.	Who slept?
13. khoko khit a kh r .	khokodena kh r ?
‘He to buy went’ ‘He why went’	
He went to buy.	Why did he go?

4.1.3 Comparison of the Process of Negative and Interrogative Transformation in Mangpahang with those of English

The processes of negative and interrogative transformation in Mangpahang language are compared with those in English below:

4.1.3.1 Comparison of the Processes of Negative Transformation in Mangpahang with those of English

(1) Mangpahang negative markers are ‘-n’, ‘u-’, ‘-nu’, ‘-min’, and ‘-nin’ which are attached to the verb whereas English negative marker is ‘not’ which is separately written with the auxiliary verb.

a) mokoci b nci	mokoci b ncin(Mang.)
They come.	They do not come. (Eng.)

b) u k pokhar kh t	u k pokhar ukh tnu (Mang.)
I go to Pokhara.	I do not go to Pokhara. (Eng.)
c)kh n nin khipl kh kh rinkh n nin	khipl kh kh rimin (Mang.)
You go to school. (Eng.)	You do not go to school. (Eng.)
d)khoko c kni b n	khoko c kni ub nnin
He will come soon.	He will not come so

(2)Mangpahang has three forms (prefixes, suffixes and middle affix) and English has only negative marker 'not' at the syntactic level. Middle affix occurs in progressive tenses as below:

Affirmative Sentences Negative Sentences

khoci khimd mukh y (Mang.) khoci khimd mukh **niya** (Mang.)

(Middle neg.marker)

They are going at home.(Eng.) They are **not** going at home.(Eng.)

(3)Mangpahang has no auxiliary verb but English has. In the absence of auxiliary verb in assertive sentences 'do' is used and in this process other form of verbs are changed into root form in English.

unk kok ca unka kok **m nc** (Mang.)

I eat rice. I do not eat rice. (Eng.)

(4) In addition to the negative markers, morphophonemic changes take place (i.e. /n/ sound changes /m/ or/n/) in the verb of negative sentences in Mangpahang but in English the present form (V¹) is used in the sentences without auxiliary. For example;

kh n ci s mso hectin(Mang.) kh n ci s mso hectin**in**(Mang.)

You cut grass. (Eng.) You do not cut grass.(Eng.)

(5) In imperative sentences, prefix 'm n-' is attached to the verbs to make the negative sentences of Mangpahang whereas 'do not 'or 'don't' is placed before the verb in English. Examples:

a) moko tomphuk or ne	moko tomphuk m nor ne
'That stick break'	'That stick do not break'
Break that stick. (Eng.)	Do not break that stick. (Eng.)
b) n oklim c ne	n oklim m nc ne
Eat orange. (English)	Do not eat orange.

4.1.3.2 Comparison of the Processes of Interrogative Transformation in Mangpahang with those of English

Interrogative sentences of Mangpahang are compared and contrasted with English as follows:

A. Comparison of Yes/No Question Processes

1. Both in English and Mangpahang statements can be transformed into yes /no questions by using only rising intonation but their usage is found more usual in Mangpahang than in English.

Declarative Sentences Questions

r m khim kh t r m khim kh t?(Mang.)

Ram goes home. Ram goes home?(Eng.)

2. If assertive sentence contains an auxiliary in it , the same is placed before the subject (i.e.the sentence is initiated with an auxiliary) in English whereas the element 'di' is also used to emphasize in yes/no question in Mangpahang in both written and spoken forms.

a) kh n nin khipl kh kh rin **dikh** n nin khipl kh kh rin? (Mang.)

You go to school. Do you go to school? (Eng.)

b)u k lenolen ku se n **diu** ka lenolen ku se n ? (Mang.)

I always brush teeth. Do I always brush teeth? (Eng.)

3. If there is not auxiliary in English assertive sentence, the auxiliary 'do' is used to form yes/no question, and other forms of verb are to be changed into root forms but this kind of transformation is not found in Mangpahang.

Declarative Sentences Questions

a) moko ch pl phe ch p **di** moko ch pl phe ch p ?(Mang.)

He writes a letter. (Eng.) Does he write letter. (Eng.)

b)prem wenchuk mey **'diprem** wenchuk mey ?(Mang.)

'Prem volleyball plays' Does prem volleyball play?

Prem plays volleyball. (Eng.) Does Prem play volleyball? (Eng.)

c)kh nin kok ch iy **di** kh n nin kok ch iy ?(Mang.)

You are eating rice. (Eng.) Are you eating rice?(Eng.)

B. Comparison of wh- Question Processes

1. The Mangpahang question words occur after or before the subject whereas they occur only at the beginning of the sentences in English. Examples;

i) u k pokhar kh t **kh d** u k kh t ? (Mang.)

I go to Pokhara. What do I go to Pokhara? (Eng.)

ii) khoci inl kh mukh tkhoci **kh d** mukh t?(Mang.)

They go to market. Do they go to market?(Eng.)

2. In Mangpahang while making information question, subject-auxiliary inversion is not required whereas in English is essential. Examples;

i) kh n nininl kh kh rin (Mang.)kh n nin **khādā** kh rin? (Mang.)

I go to market.(Eng.) **Where** do you go? (Eng.)

ii) u k ku se n u k **di** se na?(Mang.)

I brush teeth. **What** do I brush? (Eng.)

4.2 Summary/Discussion of Findings

As its objectives, in the negative processes the statements are transformed using negative markers not only single but also using double negative markers. The double negative markers remain at word initial and word final position. And next new finding in Mangpahang transformation process is the negative marker ‘ni’ occurs in the middle of verb in non-past and past progressive tense. In Mangpahang interrogative processes, yes/no question is formed only making rising tone without subject-auxiliary inversion were the major findings of this research.

CHAPTER -FIVE

FINDINGS, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Findings

The main objective of this study is to find out the processes of negative and interrogative transformation in Mangpahang and compare and contrast those with English. Based on analysis and interpretation of the collected data, the following findings were found.

5.1.1 Processes of Negative and Interrogative Transformation in the Mangpahang Rai

1. The affixes '-n', '-nin', '-nu', '-ni-', 'm n-' are negative markers in Mangpahang.
2. The suffix '-n' becomes '-nu' when it occurs with first person suffix ' '.
3. While forming negative of imperative sentences in Mangpahang the prefix 'm n-' is added to the verb.
4. The assertive sentences can be transformed into yes/no question with rising intonation in Mangpahang without sub-auxiliary inversion.
5. In Mangpahang yes/no question sometimes the element 'di' is added in the beginning.
6. The question words in Mangpahang are 'di' (what), 'kh d' (where), 'demkh' (when), 's' (who), 'den' (why), and 's ko' (whose).
7. The declarative sentences are transformed into information questions by placing the question words after or before the subject..

5.1.2 Similarities between the Processes of Negative and Interrogative Transformation between English and Mangpahang

1. Both languages have negative markers.
2. In both languages assertive sentences can be formed into interrogative using rising tone.
3. The question words in Mangpahang are ‘di’, ‘kh d ’, ‘demkh ’, ‘s ’, ‘den ’, and ‘s ko’ which are equivalent to English what, where, when, who, why and whose, respectively.

5.1.3 Differences between the Processes of Negative and Interrogative Transformation between English and Mangpahang

1. The negative and interrogative transformation system in Mangpahang and English are different in many respects.
2. Mangpahang has multiple negative markers such as ‘-n’, ‘-nin’, ‘-nu ’, ‘-ni-’ and ‘m n-’ which occur in different context in syntactic level.
3. The morph ‘-n’ becomes ‘-nu ’ when it occurs with the 1st person suffix ‘- ’. The negative markers are added to the stem as dependent in Mangpahang whereas the English negative marker ‘not’ is added after the auxiliary as an independent element. However, in some cases in English, the affirmative sentences are also transformed into negative by changing the affirmative words into negative ones.
4. In Mangpahang when the affixes added to the verb, morphophonemic changes occur while forming negative sentences. / / becomes /n/. Example;
5. While forming negative of imperative sentences in Mangpahang, the prefix ‘m n-’ is added before the verb whereas in English do not (don’t) is used before the verb.

6. Mangpahang yes/no question formation does not require subject verb inversion that is essential in English.
7. There is double negative system in Mangpahang whereas it lacks in English.
8. Mangpahang negative markers are affixes which do not exist independently whereas English negative 'not' can exist independently.
9. Mangpahang information questions are formed by simply placing the question word equivalent words before/after the subject but in English along with wh-word, other internal changes (such as subject- auxiliary inversion) should be made while forming wh-questions.
10. The verb 'to be' is not available in Mangpahang in equational sentences however, it has negative and interrogative forms but in English verbless sentence is impossible.
11. Mangpahang has (SOV) structure whereas English has (SVO).

5.2 Conclusion

This research has a comparative study on 'A Comparative Study on Negative and Interrogative Transformation between English and Mangpahang Rai' which was carried out to find out their similarities and differences. The objectives were to find out the processes of negative and interrogative transformation in Mangpahang language and to point out pedagogical implications. To meet the objectives purposive random sampling procedure was used with tools interview and questionnaire. While carrying out this research it was found that similar processes of Mangpahang are easy and differences are difficult to learn. Gass and Selinker(2009) states that 'one can account for errors in the production or reception the L1 and L2, the greater the differences, the more error occur. It was also found that Mangpahang and English have fewer similarities and more differences in transformation processes. On the basis of the major findings pedagogical implications and the main processes in research level have been

suggested. Eventually, it was concluded that the Mangpahang native speakers who learn English as second language commit more errors due to more differences between Mangpahang and English.

The researcher does not claim that this present study is sufficient to compare the processes of negative and interrogative transformations between English and Mangpahang language. This study does not include all the rules of negative and interrogative transformation of the English and Mangpahang language. It is the study of only the comparison of simple sentences in Mangpahang and English. This study includes only the responses of thirty-four Mangpahang native speakers.

5.3 Pedagogical Implications

Based on the findings obtained from the analysis and interpretation of the collected data, some recommendations and pedagogical implications have been given below:

5.3.1 Policy Related

The pedagogical implications of this research in the policy level are given below:

1. This research gives light to educators, curriculum developer, syllabus developers, textbook writers to be more aware of the processes of negative and interrogative transformation between English and Mangpahang so that they can meet a better English curriculum, syllabus, and textbooks.
2. The research shows that English and Mangpahang negative and interrogative process are different, studies on CA show that different cause difficult and learners commit more errors. The concerned authorities should take consideration of this fact while making the policy on ELT and language testing.

3. As L₂ learners in our context are from different linguistic and cultural backgrounds, who make. More different problems in foreign language learning, the policy makers should not be blindfolded to English language teaching and learning policy of the west. They should make multilingual language policy appropriate to our Nepali soil.

5.3.2 Practice Related

This research has the following implication of the practice level:

1. The teachers who teach English to the learners of Mangpahang, should identify the similarities and differences between English and Mangpahang negative and interrogative transformation processes and special attention should be paid in that area of difficulty.
2. The study also shows that the processes of negative and interrogative transformations of English differ from Mangpahang. Therefore, this difference should be taken into account while teaching English transformation systems to Mangpahang speaking children.
3. The knowledge of auxiliaries is essential for both negative and interrogative transformations in English. Therefore, special attention should be paid on the use of auxiliaries in different tenses and aspects while teaching the Mangpahang speaking skill (due to lack of auxiliary in Mangpahang).
4. Due to morphophonemic and other changes in negative transformation in Mangpahang, special attention should be given in those features of Mangpahang so that the Mangpahang learners check themselves in transforming this habit.
5. In English contracted forms of auxiliaries are used in negative and wh-questions especially in communication but not in Mangpahang.

Therefore, attention should be paid on such features while teaching Mangpahang in English medium.

6. The syllabus designers and textbooks writers should be more conscious while designing the syllabus and preparing the textbooks for the Mangpahang learners while preparing English as second language.

5.3.3 Further Research Related

The pedagogical implication of this research in research related level are given below:

1. The study was concluded to identify the processes of negative and interrogative transformation in Mangpahang and to compare and contrast them with those of English. As the sample size was small and only the processes of negative and interrogative transformation of simple sentences were compared, further researches are needed to identify make processes of negative and interrogative transformation.
2. There is no empirical evidence to verify whether the different processes of negative and interrogative transformation in Mangpahang cause difficulty to learn English negatives and interrogatives and whether they cause errors. Further research on error analysis should be carried out to verify the fact.

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Appendix- I (a)

Questions of Interview

This questionnaire has been prepared to accomplish a research work entitled ‘**A Comparative Study on Negative and Interrogative Transformation in English and Mangpahang Language**’ under the guidance of Mr. **Shankar Dewan**, Department of English Sukuna Multiple Campus, Morang. The researcher hopes that your cooperation will be a great contribution in the accomplishment of this research work. Thank you.

Researcher

Hem Jyoti Rai

Sukuna Multiple Campus, Morang

Name:

1) Please translate these non-past, non-past progressive, non-past perfect, past, past- progressive, past perfect sentences, into Mangpahang in terms of tense, number and person.

I go to school.

I always brush my teeth.

Ass.- u k khipkh l kh t .

u k lenolen ku se sin.

You do not go to school.

I always do not brush my teeth.

Neg.- u k khipl kh **ukh tnu** .

u k lenolen ku se **simin**.

Do you go to school?

Do you brush your teeth?

Interr.- di u k khipl kh kh t ?

di u k lenolen ku se sin?

Where do you go?

When do I brush my teeth?

Wh. - kh n kh d kh t ?

u k demkh ku se sin?

You clean the room.

They sometimes go to market.

.....

.....

You do not clean the room.

.....

Do you clean the room?

.....

What do you clean?

.....

He writes a letter.

.....

He does not write letter.

.....

Does he write letter?

.....

What does he write?

.....

Sita works in office.

.....

Sita does not work in office.

.....

Does Sita work in office?

.....

Where does Sita work?

.....

They never go to market.

.....

Do they go to market?

.....

Where do they go?

.....

Hari mostly goes to Dhankuta.

.....

Hari never go to Dhankuta.

.....

Does Hari go to Dhankuta?

.....

Where does Hari go?

.....

Hari comes to me.

.....

Hari does not come to me.

.....

Does Hari come to me?

.....

Who does come to me?

.....

I am playing football.
.....

Parbati is cooking rice.
.....

I am not playing football.
.....

Parbati is not cooking rice.
.....

Do I playing football?
.....

Is Parbati cooking rice?
.....

Who is playing football?
.....

What is Parbati doing?
.....

You are eating rice.
.....

We have written a letter.
.....

You are not cooking rice.
.....

We have not written a letter.
.....

Are you cooking rice?
.....

Have we written a letter?
.....

Who is cooking rice?
.....

Who have written a letter?
.....

We are working
.....

You have cut finger.
.....

We are not working.
.....

We have not cut finger.
.....

Are we working?
.....

Have we cut finger?
.....

What are we doing?
.....

He has gone market.
.....

He has not gone to market.
.....

Has he not gone to market?
.....

Who has gone to market?
.....

They slept.
.....

They did not sleep.
.....

Did they sleep?
.....

Who did sleep?
.....

Bina went home.
.....

Bina did not go to home.
.....

Who have cut finger?
.....

They have tasted mangoes.
.....

They have not tested mangoes.
.....

Have they tested mangoes?
.....

Who have tested mangoes?
.....

Ram passed in the exam.
.....

Ram did not pass in the exam.
.....

Did Ram pass in the exam?
.....

Who passed in the exam?
.....

You went to home yesterday.
.....

You did not go to home yesterday.
.....

Did Bina go to home.

.....

Where did Bina go?

.....

I was sleeping.

.....

I was not sleeping.

.....

Was I sleeping?

.....

What was I doing?

.....

You were going to Dhankuta.

.....

You were not going to Dhankuta.

.....

Were you going to Dhankuta?

.....

Where you going?

.....

Asmita was going school.

.....

Did you go to home yesterday?

.....

Where did you go yesterday?

.....

You were singing.

.....

You were not singing.

.....

Were you sleeping?

.....

What were you doing?

.....

You were dancing.

.....

You were not dancing.

.....

Were you dancing?

.....

What were you doing?

.....

Jyoti was reading a book.

.....

Asmita was not going to school.

.....

Was Asmita going to school?

.....

Why Asmita going to school?

.....

I had gone to Kathmandu.

.....

I had not gone to Kathmandu.

.....

Had I gone to Kathmandu?

.....

Where had I gone?

.....

You had gone to picnic.

.....

You had not gone to picnic.

.....

Had you gone to picnic?

.....

Where had you gone?

.....

Jyoti was not reading a book.

.....

Was Jyoti reading a book.

.....

Why Jyoti was reading a book.

.....

We had bought a book.

.....

We had not bought a book.

.....

Had we bought a book?

.....

What had we bought ?

.....

Prakash had gone to there.

.....

Prakash had not gone to there.

.....

Had Prakash gone to there?

.....

Where had Prakash gone?

.....

We will be pass in exam.

.....

We will not be passed in exam.

.....

Will we be passed in exam?

.....

What will we be in exam?

.....

He will come soon.

.....

We will not come soon.

.....

Will he come soon?

.....

How will he come?

.....

They will be eating mangoes.

.....

They will not be eating mangoes.

.....

Will they be eating mangoes?

.....

You will go to Dharan.

.....

You will not go to Dharan.

.....

Will you go to Dharan?

.....

Where will you go?

.....

They will come tomorrow.

.....

They will not come tomorrow.

.....

Will they come tomorrow?

.....

When will they come?

.....

We will be playing by laughing.

.....

We will not be playing by laughing.

.....

Will we be playing by laughing?

.....

What they will be eating?

.....

You will be cutting grass.

.....

You will not be cutting grass.

.....

Will you be cutting grass?

.....

What will you be doing?

.....

How will be we playing?

.....

We will be gone to school.

.....

We will not be gone to school.

.....

Will we be gone to school?

.....

Where will we be gone?

.....

2) Please tell these imperative sentences into Mangpahang assertive and negative language.

Break that stick.

Ass.

Don't break that stick.

Neg.

Eat orange.

.....

Don't eat orange.

.....

Read magazine.

.....

Don't read magazine.

.....

Go home.

.....

Don't go home.

.....

Kill that snake.

.....

Don't kill that snake.

.....

Open that window.

.....

Don't open that window.

.....

Appendix- II (a)

Questionnaire

१) तलका कथनात्मकवाक्यहरुलाई माइपाहाङ् भाषामा अनुवाद गरी खाली ठाउँमा क्रमशः कथनात्मक (क), नकरात्मक(न) र प्रश्नार्थक (प्र_१, प्र_२)वाक्यमा परिवर्तन गरिदिनुहोस् ।

नाम:.....

म पोखरा जान्छु ।

उनीहरु बजार जान्छन् ।

क.....

.....

न.....

.....

प्र_१.....

.....

प्र_२.....

.....

हामी खेतमा काम गर्छौं ।

प्रेम भलिबल खेल्छ ।

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

हामी विद्यालय जान्छौं ।

म सँधै दाँत माभ्छु ।

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

तपाईं कोठा सफा गर्नु हुन्छ ।

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.....
.....
.....

उ चिठी लेख्छ ।

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.....
.....

सीता अफिसमा काम गर्छे ।

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.....
.....
.....

प्रीति खुब पढ्ने गर्छे ।

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.....

तपाईं जहिले पनि घाँस काट्नु हुन्छ ।

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.....

तिनीहरु बहिलेकाही बजार जान्छन् ।

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.....

हरि धेरैजसो धनकुटा जान्छ ।

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.....

हरि म कहाँ आउने गर्छे ।

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तिमीहरु घाँस काट्दै छौ ।

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.....

पार्वती खाना पकाउँदैछिन् ।

.....
.....

.....
.....
पढने केटाकेटी लाई सबैले मन पराउँछन् ।

.....
.....
उनीहरु घर जाँदैछन् ।

.....
.....
म फुटवल खेल्दैछु ।

.....
.....
मैले खेलेको छु ।

.....
.....
तिमी भात खाँदै छौ ।

.....
.....
हामीले चिठी लेखेका छौ ।

.....
.....
हामी काम गरीरहेका छौ ।

.....
.....
तपाईंले औलो काट्नु भएको छ ।

ऊ बजार गएको छ ।

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प्रितम्ले रामायण पढेको छ ।

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उनीहरुले आँप चाखेका छन् ।

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तिमीले चिठी लेखेका छौ ।

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मैले भात खाँए ।

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उनीहरु सुते ।

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तिमिले चिठी लेख्यौ ।

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राम जाँचमा पास भयो ।

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बिना घर गईन् ।

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हिजो तिमि घर गयो ।

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.....

हामीले फूटवल खेल हँ-यौ ।

उसले गत महिना गाई किन्यो ।

म सुतीरहेको थिएँ ।

तिमी गीत गाउँदै थियौ ।

हामी धनकुटा जाँदै थियौं ।

म काठमाडौँ गएको थिएँ ।

तपाईं कोठामा नाच्दै हुनुहुन्थ्यो ।

हामीले पुस्तक किनेका थियौं ।

अस्मिता विद्यालय जाँदै थियो ।

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.....
.....
.....

ज्योति पुस्तक पढ्दै थिईन् ।

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उनीहरु लडाईं गर्दै थिए ।

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रीनाले बिनोदलाई माया गरेकी थिई ।

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म धेरै खेल्ने गर्थे ।

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तिमीहरु बनभोज गएका थियौ ।

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प्रकाश त्यहाँ गएको थियो ।

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तिमीहरुले पेस्तोल ल्याएका थिए ।

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हामी जाँचमा पास हुनेछौ ।

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तपाईं धरान जानुहुनेछ ।

.....
.....

.....
.....
उनी ज्यादै रुने गर्थिन् ।

.....
.....
उ छिट्टै आउनेछ ।

.....
.....
तपाईंहरू लापा खेले गर्नुहुन्थ्यो ।

.....
.....
तिनीहरू भोलि आउने छन् ।

.....
.....
हामी चिडीयाखाना जाने गथ्यौं ।

.....
.....
गीता पर्सि घर जान्छिन ।

.....
.....
बाले गुच्चा खेल्ने गथ्यौं ।

.....
.....
शुनिल अर्को सालअमेरिका जानेछ ।

म हिलेमा पखिरहेको हुनेछ ।

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.....

हामी खेलिरहेका हुनेछौं ।

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.....

उहाँहरु आँप खाँदै हुनुहुनेछ ।

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.....

तँ घाँस काटीरहेको हुनेछस् ।

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दिनेश खेतमा काम गरिरहेको हुनेछ ।

.....
.....

म बजार गएको हुनेछु ।

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हामी विधालय गएका हुनेछौं ।

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तिमी जाँचमा पास भएको हुनेछौ ।

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दुर्गाले एउटा बाँदर मारेको हुनेछ ।

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उनीहरुले सुँगुरको मासु किनेका हुनेछन् ।

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Appendix - III

Roman Transliteration of Devanagari Script based on Turner (1931, as cited in Dewan, 2005, p. 94)

a	c					d	ड		y	य	ॠ
	cf	र	k	क	ख	dh	ढ		R	र	
i	o	ि	kh	ख	ख		ण	प	L	ल	ॡ
i	o{	ी	g	ग	ग	t	त	ट	W or v	व	ॢ
u	p	ु	gh	घ	घ	th	थ	थ	sh	श	ॣ
u	ऊ	ॠ		ड		d	द		sh	ष	।
ri	ऋ	ॡ	c	च	च	dh	ध	ध	s	स	॥
e	ए	ॢ	ch	छ		n	न	न	h	ह	
ai	ऐ	ॣ	j	ज	ज	p	प	प			
o	ओ	।	jh	झ	झ	ph	फ	फ			
au	औ	॥		ञ	ञ	b	ब	ब			
Am	अं	०	t	ट		v	भ	भ			
a:	अः	:	th	ठ		m	म	म			

Note: the traditional letters क्ष,त्र,ज्ञ treated as conjunct letters e.g. क्ष =ks, ksh, kch;त्र= tr; ज्ञ= gya and the symbols a and ॠ are used for the Devnagari scripts अ and ड respectively.

Appendix-IV

Respondents/Informants:

S.N.	Name of Respondents/Informants
1	Maha P. Mangpahang Rai
2	Khobendra Mangpahang
3	Binod K. Mangpahang Rai
4	Jagat Mangpahang Rai
5	Anjit Mangpahang Rai
6	Tek B. Mangpahang Rai
7	Bhim Mangpahang Rai
8	Narendra Mangpahang Rai
9	Sajandip Mangpahang Rai
10	Mani K. Mangpahang Rai
11	Tika R. Mangpahang Rai
12	Amrit Mangpahang Rai
13	Bhupati Mangpahang Rai
14	Pravtkiran Mangpahang Rai
15	Hemraj Mangpahang Rai
16	Ram P. Mangpahang Rai
17	Naresh K. Mangpahang Rai
18	Badal Mangpahang Rai
19	Kesab Mangpahang Rai
20	Arendra Mangpahang Rai
21	Bhakta Mangpahang Rai
22	Bhim P. Mangpahang Rai
23	Tara Mangpahang Rai
24	Raj K. Mangpahang Rai
25	Sunita Mangpahang Rai

26	Ganga P. Mangpahang Rai
27	Santa Mangpahang Rai
28	Asman Mangpahang Rai
29	Kesab Mangpahang Rai
30	Sanjip Mangpahang Rai
31	Anup Mangpahang Rai
32	Pramod Mangpahang Rai
33	Sandip Mangpahang Rai
34	Chandra Mangpahang Rai