

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 General Background

Language is a system of encoding and decoding information. In its most common use, the term refers to so-called "natural languages" the forms of communication considered peculiar to human kind. In linguistics the term is extended to refer to the human cognitive faculty of creating and using language. Essential to both meanings is the systematic creation and usage of systems of symbols—each referring to linguistic concepts with semantic or logical or otherwise expressive meanings. (<http://en.Wikipedia.org/wiki/language>).

Although some other animals make use of quite sophisticated communicative systems, and these are sometimes casually referred to as animal language, none of these are known to make use of all of the properties that linguists use to define language in the strict sense.

When discussed more technically as a general phenomenon then, "language" always implies a particular type of human thought which can be present even when communication is not the result, and this way of thinking is also sometimes treated as indistinguishable from language itself.

In Western philosophy, for example, language has long been closely associated with reason, which is also a uniquely human way of using symbols. In Ancient Greek philosophical terminology '*logos*' was used as a term for both language or speech and reason, and the philosopher Thomas Hobbes used the English word "speech" so that it similarly could refer to reason (Lyons, 1981, p. 220).

Moreover, language is a means of communicating ideas, emotions and thought. It can be taken as the system of human communication (Richards, 2002, p, 112). In other words, it is a systematic way of communicating ideas and feelings by the use of conventionalized signs, sound, gestures, or marks having

understood meaning. So, there is a great need of language. Pei,(1966, p.141) defines language as a system of communication by sound operating through the organs of speech and hearing, among members of a given community, and using vocal symbols possessing arbitrary conventional meaning.' Furthermore, language is viewed as one of the most important possessions of human beings. That is why it will not be wrong to claim that language has made we people different from other living beings. From the day when man tried to communicate, he is meant to transmit and interchange ideas, thoughts, information, desires, feelings etc. Perception of the world as a whole or parts is possible by means of language. Our history, literature, ideas, culture and achievements of human beings are being transmitted from one person to another, one generation to another, through the medium of language. Thus, we can say that language is responsible for social change, social mobility and stratification. Language is a powerful means in the absence of which present day world, particularly the development of education; science and technology would never have been possible.

1.1.1 The Awadhi Language

Nepal is multilingual and multiracial country where one hundred and twenty six languages are spoken. These languages belong to four major language families; Indo-Aryan, Tibeto-Burman, Austro-Asiatic (Munda) and Dravidian. Although the official language of Nepal is Nepali, there are many other languages which are spoken in various parts of the country. In fact, estimates indicate that less than half the people of Nepal actually speak Nepali – many using the spoken language in their region instead. The remaining percentage of the population may speak Maithali, Bhojpuri, Tharu (Dagaura/Rana), Tamang, Newar, Magar, Awadhi or a number of other languages which are unspecified because their language groups are small. In addition to this, some of those involved in government or who have large business may speak English. Awadhi is mainly spoken in Banke, Rupendhi and Bardiya districts. It is one of the national languages of Nepal along with Maithili, Bhojpuri, Tharu, Tamang,

Newari, Magar, Rai, Limbu, Bajjika. The remaining eighty-one languages are each spoken as mother tongue by less than one percent of the population. (Retrieved on Dec 03, 2009, from Nepal Interim Constitution 2007)

As it has already been mentioned that Nepal incorporated one hundred and twenty six languages (in which three has already died) identified languages; Awadhi is one of them. According to Grierson (1904) "the word Awadhi means literally the language of 'Awadh' or 'Oudh' and the area over which the dialect bearing this name is spoken agrees, to some extent, with the meaning of them (p.9)". Saksena (1972, p.1) agrees the above statement and says Awadhi has close connection with ancient holy place Awadhya (the state of religious and historical importance ruled by the then king, Hindu god Ram Chandra). Awadhi is a sub-branch of Indo-Iranian branch of Indo-European family. In this connection, both the English and Awadhi languages have genetic affiliation that they are the members of the same language family that is Indo-European.

Awadhi is in the eighth top position of hierarchy in terms of its number of native speakers that figures 2.48 % of the total population of Nepal (CBS-2001). In addition to this, Awadhi is not restricted to Nepal only. It is spoken in most of the part of UP (India), which is considered to be the central part of language and possesses one million native speakers (Grierson, 1904 as cited in www.google.com).

As many other languages, Awadhi has also its dialects. Though Upadhdhya (1978, p.2) mentioned that there are three dialects of Awadhi in existence, Grierson (1904) mentions that there are only two noticeable dialects, viz. Bagheli and Chhatisgadhi (as cited in google.com). Again both of them are limited to terminological differences only. Awadhi possessed over a half million people speaking it which excludes one million Indian Awadhi speaking people and people of Morasses and Fiji who use the same language. The world renowned poet Tulsi Das (whose comparison is often made with his

contemporary poet and dramatist, father of English literature, (William Shakespeare) wrote his master piece 'Ramcharit Manus' in Awadhi whose translated versions are available in two hundred different languages of the world (Tripathi 2005). Despite such property, Awadhi is still limited with spoken language only (Pathak 2000). And it does not have its full fledged dictionary and written grammar. This fact led the researcher to contribute something on the Awadhi language.

Although today Awadhi is only considered a dialect of Hindi, before its standardization, it was the second most important literary dialect of Hindustani (the first was Brij Bhasha). Important works in Awadhi are the *Ramcharitmanas* of Tulsidas, the *Padmavat* of Malik Moham mad Jaisi. Colorado Springs, - International Bible Society (IBS) pioneered the first prose literature ever written in the Awadhi language by completing the first Awadhi translation of the Bible. More than 50 native scholars in northern India worked for 12 years to accurately translate the language, style, and theology of the complete Bible into a language spoken by more than 20 million people. (Retrieved on Dec 04, 2009, from <http://www.indianetzone.com>)

1.1.2 Transformation Theory

In 1957, Noam Chomsky published *Syntactic Structures*, in which he developed the idea that each sentence in a language has two levels of representation — a deep structure and a surface structure. The deep structure represented the core semantic relations of a sentence, and was mapped on to the surface structure (which followed the phonological form of the sentence very closely) via *transformations*. Chomsky believed that there would be considerable similarities between languages' deep structures, and that these structures would reveal properties, common to all languages, which were concealed by their surface structures. However, this was perhaps not the central motivation for introducing deep structure. Transformations had been proposed prior to the development of deep structure as a means of increasing the

mathematical and descriptive power of context-free grammars. Similarly, deep structure was devised largely for technical reasons relating to early semantic theory. Chomsky emphasizes the importance of modern formal mathematical devices in the development of grammatical theory:

(Retrieved on Dec 03, 2009, from http://www.en.wikipedia.org/wiki/transformational_grammar)

1.1.3 Rules of Negative and Interrogative Transformation

Negation is a process in grammar to contradict the meaning or part of the meaning of a sentence. In other words, negation refers to the process of forming negative sentences, as opposed to sentences that are affirmative (i.e., She is not at the office vs. She is at the office). Negative sentences can serve a variety of functions in English. For instance, a negative sentence can be used to make an assertion about something. Funk and Wagnalls (1960) define negation as “the act of denying or of asserting the falsity of a proposition”. In English grammar, it is expressed by inserting the negative particle *not* or its contracted

form *n't*. However, if there is not an auxiliary verb in an affirmative sentence, we need to apply /do/ support (also known as operator addition) rule.

1.1.3.1 Forms of Negation

There are two principal types of negation, *verbal* and *nonverbal*. *Verbal negation* uses the negative element *not* with a verb to negate an affirmative statement, as follows:

Affirmative statement

John is very happy.

Negative statement with Not

John isn't very happy.

Nonverbal negation involves the use of words such as *nobody*, *nothing*, *no*, *none*, *neither/nor*, and *never* or the use of negative affixes such as *un-* and *non-*. The sentences below illustrate nonverbal negation.

- a. He did *nothing*
- b. There is *no* milk in the fridge.
- c. John has *never* been there

a. Verbal negation

Verbal negation can be further divided into two types, *primary* and *secondary* verb negation. They differ in the form of the verb with *not* is used.

I. Primary Verb Negation

Primary verb negation refers to the use of *not* to negate a clause that contains a present or past tense verb. In the negative given below the affirmative *not* is used with the tensed verbs and *lived* respectively.

Affirmative

Negative

- a. My cousins *are staying* with me. My cousins *are not staying* with me.
b. We *lived* there for a long time. We *did not live* there for a long time.

Primary verb negation takes the following forms:

a. Sentences with *auxiliary verbs*

If the affirmative form of a sentence has one or more auxiliary verbs or modal auxiliaries (such as *can* or *should*), *not* comes after the first auxiliary.

Affirmative

Negative

Contracted Not

- a. John *is* working. John *is not* working. John *isn't* working.
b. Jane *can* read it later. Jane *cannot* read it later. Jane *can't* read it later.

b. Statement with copula *Be*

Negation for sentences with copular *be* operates just like negation for sentences with auxiliary verbs; that is, *not* is inserted following the verbs element as shown below: *not* contracts with copula *be* as well.

Affirmative

Negative

Contracted Not

- a. He *is* a doctor. He *is not* a doctor. He *isn't* a doctor.
b. They *were* in class. They *were not* in class. They *weren't* in class.

c. Statement with No Auxiliary Verb or Copula *Be*

If there is no auxiliary verb or copular 'be' present in the affirmative version of a sentence, then an auxiliary must be added to make negation work properly. This is achieved by inserting the appropriate form of 'do', as shown below.

Affirmative

Negative

Contracted Not

- a. I liked the play. I *did not* like the play. I *didn't* like the play.
b. She has a car. She *does not* have a car. She *doesn't* have the car.

d. Yes/No Question

In negative *yes/no* questions, the auxiliary verb, which has been moved to the beginning of the sentence by subject-aux inversion, contracts with *not*, as illustrated below.

Affirmative

Negative

- a. Is he coming? Isn't he coming?
b. Can you lift it? Can't you lift it?

e. Tag question

Opposite polarity tag questions with positive stems always have contracted negative tags, as given below.

Affirmative

Negative

- a. He likes football, doesn't he? He *doesn't* like football, does he?
b. He is helping her, isn't he? He *isn't* helping her, is he?

f. Wh- Question

In negative wh- questions, *not* can contract with auxiliaries after the initial wh- question word.

Affirmative

Negative

- | | |
|-------------------------------|--------------------------------------|
| a. What have you seen? | What <i>haven't</i> you seen? |
| b. What do you like about it? | What <i>don't</i> you like about it? |

II. Secondary Verb Negation

Secondary verb negation refers to the use of the negative element *not* to negate a clause that has a verb in one of its secondary forms- that is, a verb in its infinitive, bare infinitive, present participle, or past participle form- and does not have a tensed verb.

a. Clauses that takes secondary negation

Secondary verb negation is most commonly applied to subordinate clauses, in which verbs often take a secondary form. For example, the affirmative sentence in (a) includes an infinitive complement clause (in brackets), with a verb in its infinitive form.

Affirmative

Negative

- | | |
|---|--|
| a. She promised him [<i>to come</i>]. | She promised him [<i>not to come</i>]. |
|---|--|

By contrast, the column on the right below shows what happens when *not* is placed before the infinitive. The meaning of the complement in (a), a that complement with the verb in its bare infinitive form in (b), and a gerund complement with its verb in its present participle form in (c).

Affirmative

Negative

- | | |
|---|---|
| a. It's important <i>to be seem</i> by someone. | It's important <i>not to be seen</i> by anyone. |
| b. She recommended <i>that we buy</i> it. | She recommended <i>that we not buy</i> it. |
| c. He hates <i>hearing the truth</i> . | He hates <i>not hearing the truth</i> . |

b. Nonverbal Negation

There are basically two form of nonverbal negation. The first involves the use of certain negative words; the second involves the use of negative affixes.

I. Negative words

The most grammatically complex method of nonverbal negation is through the use of a set of ‘negative words’, some common examples are none, no one, nobody, nothing, nor, never, or neither. Some negative words, such as neither/nor, are connecting function. Other, such as ‘nowhere’ and ‘no place’ are adverbs. Sentences with these negative words can often be paraphrased using verbal negation as illustrated in the following examples.

Nonverbal negation

Verbal negation

- | | |
|---|---|
| a. He revealed <i>no</i> information | He didn’t reveal <i>any</i> information. |
| b. She chose <i>none</i> of them. | She didn’t choose <i>any</i> of them. |
| c. They did <i>nothing</i> to stop him. | They didn’t do <i>anything</i> to stop him. |
| d. We were going <i>nowhere</i> . | We weren’t going <i>anywhere</i> . |
| e. We knew <i>neither</i> of them. | We didn’t know <i>either</i> of them. |
| f. She had <i>never</i> done that before. | She hadn’t <i>ever</i> done that before. |
| g. There is <i>no</i> news. | There isn’t <i>any</i> news. |

a. Double negatives with negative words

In some dialects of British and American English, sentences with so-called double negatives are common. A sentence is said to have a double negative when it either has more than one n negative word, such as.

- a. You’ve never seen nothing like it.
- b. I can’t get no satisfaction.
- c. I told her not to say nothing to nobody.

Each sentence above has a counterpart with verbal negation and *any*, as shown in the following sentences:

- a. You've never seen anything like it.
- b. I can't get any satisfaction.
- c. I told her not to say anything to anybody.

b. Not in nonverbal negation

Not appears before words other than verbs – for example, quantifiers, adjectives, and adverbs- as a form of nonverbal negation. Different meanings are produced, depending upon the element that *not* precedes. When *not* appears before the quantifiers *all*, *every*, *many*, and *much*, as in the following the resulting implied meaning is “*some*” or “*a limited amount of*.”

- a. *Not* all of his suggestions were accepted.
(*implication*: some of his suggestions were accepted.)
- b. *Not* every person is born rich.
(*implication*: some people are born rich.)

c. Negative affixes

Lexical items (word) can also undergo nonverbal negation, and this is done by attaching affixes to them. Negation by affixation is parallel to verbal negation, as in,

- a. That remark was not appropriate. → verbal negation
- b. That remark was *in*appropriate. → nonverbal negation (affixational)

English has many prefixes. The common negative prefixes are un-, in-, im-, ill-, ir-, dis-, a-, and non-. They may be attached to adjectives, adverbs, nouns, and in some cases verbs, as the examples in the following table show.

Adverbs	Adverb	Noun	Verb
<i>unhappy</i>	<i>unhappily</i>	<i>unhappiness</i>	
<i>inefficient</i>	<i>inefficiently</i>	<i>inefficiency</i>	
<i>implausible</i>	<i>implausibly</i>	<i>implausibility</i>	
<i>illegal</i>	<i>illegally</i>	<i>illegality</i>	
<i>irregular</i>	<i>irregularly</i>	<i>irregularity</i>	
<i>disloyal</i>	<i>disloyally</i>	<i>disapproval</i>	<i>dislike</i>
<i>asymmetrical</i>	<i>asymmetrically</i>	<i>asymmetry</i>	
<i>nonviolent</i>	<i>nonviolently</i>	<i>nonviolence</i>	

(Cowan 2008,p. 88-90)

1.1.4 Interrogation

Interrogative transformation is a process of making assertive sentences interrogative. An interrogative sentence is also called question. Cecle-Murcia and Larsen Freeman (1999, pp. 205) define question into two types: Yes/No questions and Wh-questions.

a. Yes/no Questions

Yes/no questions are often defined as questions for which either “yes” or “no” is expected answer.

Are you going to the party? { Yes (I am). No (I’m not).}

Yes/No question refers to a question for which either ‘yes’ or ‘no’ is the expected answer. ‘yes/no’ question is formed through the process of subject auxiliary operator inversion. Written variety is marked by placing the sign of interrogative (?) at the end of the sentence, whereas spoken variety is marked by rising intonation.

i. Rules for Transforming Statement into Yes/No Questions

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

- a) 'yes/no' question is usually made according to the pattern given below:
Aux. V + Subj+ M. V. +...?
- b) In a statement, if there is an auxiliary verb (except *do* and *have* in the main verb function), the auxiliary verb is moved to the initial position of the sentences which is followed by the subject then the main verb. For example:
They will like my garden. → Will they like my garden?
- c) If there is more than one verb, the auxiliary verb has to be moved at the beginning of the clause followed by the subject followed by the other verbs. For example:
He had been murdered. → Had he been murdered?
- d) If there is no auxiliary verb in a statement, we put *do*, *does* or *did* at the beginning of the clause in front of the subject followed by the base form of the main verb. For example:
You live in Sanfrancisco. → Do you live in Sanfrancisco?
- e) It is to be noticed that if the main verb is *do*, we still put *do*, *does* or *did* at the beginning of the clause in front of the subject. For example:
They do the work. → Do they do the work?
- f) If the verb is *have*, we usually put *do*, *does* or *did* at the beginning of the clause in front of the subject. For example:
Hedgehogs have intelligence. → Do Hedgehogs have intelligence?
- g) In yes/no questions, non-assertive words. (e.g. any word like *any*, *anybody*, *anyone*, *anymore*, *anything*, *anywhere* etc) are generally used.
For example:
He gave her something. → Did he give her anything?

b. Wh- Questions

The question which begins with a wh-word such as what, who, where, how etc. is called wh-question. Wh-question is also called content question. "A wh-question is a term used in the grammatical sub-classification of question types to refer to a question beginning with a question word" (Crystal, 2003, p. 499). Wh-question is formed by placing wh-word at the beginning of the sentence followed by subject auxiliary/operator inversion rule.

i. Rules for transforming statements into Wh-Questions

The following rules must be kept in mind while transforming statements into wh-question:

a. Wh-question is usually made according to the pattern given below.

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

b. While transforming a statement into wh-question, the exact answer should be deleted. For example:

John cut the grass. → What did John cut?

c. If we are using the simple present tense or the simple past tense of any verb except *be*, we put *do*, *does*, or *did* in front of the subject. For example:

d. Mary lives in London. → Where does Mary live?

e. If we are using the simple present tense or the simple past tense of *be*, the main verb has to be placed in front of the subject. We do not use *do*, *does* or *did*. For example:

The station is near the police station. → Where is the station?

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

a) 'Who' and 'Whom'

The pronoun 'who' is used to ask a question about a person's identity, 'who' can be the subject or object of a verb. For example:

Who passed the S.L.C. examination?

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

‘Who’ was he speaking to?

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

With whom do you sing?

b) ‘Whose’ and ‘which’

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

Whose pen is that?

‘This’ is used as a pronoun or determiner to ask someone to identify a specific person or things out of a number of people or things. For example:

Which pencil do you like most? (which ‘as’ determiner)

Which is the best hotel? (which ‘as’ pronoun)

c) ‘When’ and ‘where’

‘when’ is used to ask a question about the time something happened, happens or will happen. For example:

When did you take your breakfast?

‘where’ is used to ask a question about place, position or direction. For example:

Where do they work? ‘where’ as place

d) ‘Why’ and ‘how’

‘Why’ is used to ask a question about the reason for something. For example:

Why is he making a pot?

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

How do we close the door?

Wh- questions are used to request specific information, so need to use them arises often. For instance, wh-questions are used in social interaction (what's your name?), for getting directions (where's the post office?), in seeking explanations (why is the plane late?), for eliciting vocabulary (what's this?), and so forth. While yes/no questions query an entire proposition, wh-questions are used when the speaker is missing Wh-questions are used to request specific information, so need to use one specific piece of information.

Did someone walk the dog? (general query about the truth of the proposition)

Who walked the dog? (speaker is asking for the name of the person who walked the dog)

Furthermore, Cowan (2008, p.75) describes other types of *yes/no* and *wh-questions* which are illustrated as follows:

a. Alternative Questions

Alternative questions offer a choice between at least two alternative answers.

- a. Would you like eggs, pancakes, or waffles?
- b. Are you coming or going?

b. Echo Questions

Echo questions repeat all or part of what has just been said.

- a. John: I'll fax it to Elizabeth right now.
- b. Bill: you'll fax it to her?
- c. Sue: take a look at this.
- d. Ann: (take a look) at what?

c. Exclamatory Questions

Exclamatory questions, as shown below are really exclamations that assert the belief of the speaker.

- a. Isn't he big!
- b. Am I ever starved!

d. Rhetorical Questions

Rhetorical questions express the asker's opinion.

a. Diane: Have you heard the news about Alan?

b. Bill: who hasn't?

(implication: everyone has heard.)

e. Display Questions

Teachers often use question forms that do not begin with a wh- word. For instance, the wh- word comes at the end of the question.

a. So this play is about what?

b. And these isotopes are formed how?

c. So this book deals with what important issue?

1.1.5 Needs of Contrastive Analysis (CA)

Languages are compared to find similarities and differences. The technique of comparing languages is called contrastive analysis (CA in short). Contrastive Analysis was used extensively in the field of Second Language Acquisition (SLA) in the 1960s and early 1970s, as a method of explaining why some features of a target language were more difficult to acquire than others.

According to the behaviorist theories prevailing at the time, language learning was a matter of habit formation, and this could be reinforced or impeded by existing habits. Therefore, the difficulty in mastering certain structures in a second language (L2) depended on the difference between the learners' mother language (L1) and the language they were trying to learn.

The theoretical foundations for what became known as the Contrastive Analysis hypothesis were formulated in Lado's *Linguistics Across Cultures* (1957). In this book, Lado claimed that "*those elements which are similar to [the learner's] native language will be simple for him, and those elements that are different will be difficult*". While this was not a novel suggestion, Lado was the first to provide a comprehensive theoretical treatment and to suggest a systematic set of technical procedures for the contrastive study of languages. This involved describing the languages (using structuralism linguistics), comparing them and predicting learning difficulties.

During the 1960s, there was a widespread enthusiasm with this technique, manifested in the contrastive descriptions of several European languages, many of which were sponsored by the Center of Applied Linguistics in Washington, DC. It was expected that once the areas of potential difficulty had been mapped out through Contrastive Analysis, it would be possible to design language courses more efficiently. Contrastive Analysis, along with behaviorism and structuralism exerted a profound effect on SLA curriculum design and language teacher education, and provided the theoretical pillars of Audio-Lingual Method.

1.2 Review of the Related Literature

Despite other department of T.U. very few researches have been carried out up to now in our department in Awadhi language, they are Verbs of harvesting and wedding ceremony in Nepali Awadhi and English, tense and aspect system in Awadhi an English verbs A comparative study of English and Awadhi kinship terms respectively. However, there are some researches which have been accomplished successfully under negative and interrogative transformation in different languages of Nepal, such as Maithili, Tharu and Doteli. The related literatures to the present study are as follows. Chalise (1998) has carried out a research on 'Negative and Interrogative Transformation in English and Nepali'. The study shows that the rules in changing affirmative sentences into negative and interrogative are more rigid and inflexible in English, whereas, they are less rigid and flexible in Nepali. Negative and interrogative transformations simply extend the suffixes in Nepali, whereas they change the word order in English.

Paudel (2004) has tried to compare and contrast the processes of negative and interrogative transformations in the Limbu language with those of English on his study 'A Comparative study on Negative and Interrogative Transformation in English and Panchthare Dialect of Limbu Language'. The study shows that the affix 'me' is the negative marker in the Limbu language which occurs

before the verb and affixes like 'n' and 'nne' are added respectively at the end of the verb in English is 'not' which is added after the auxiliary verb. Yes/no question in Limbu is formed by placing 'bi' or 'pi' after the verb, whereas an auxiliary occurs at the beginning of sentence in English. No subject auxiliary inversion takes place in interrogation in limbu language.

Kushwaha (2005) has carried out a research on 'Negative and Interrogative Transformation in English and Bhojpuri'. He wanted to find out the negative and interrogative systems of English and Bhojpuri. He found that they are similar in some respects 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 whereas the negative markers in Bhojpuri are 'nat', 'mat', 'naai *khe*', and 'naai *kht*'. Which are added immediately before the main verb. Likewise, Raika (2007) has carried out a research entitled 'Negative and Interrogative Transformation in English and Magar language: A comparative study'. The main objective of this study was to identify the processes of negative and interrogative transformation in the Magar languages and compare and contrast the concerned processes of the Magar language with that of English language. The result showed that (a) in the Magar language the prefix *ma* is the negative worker which is placed before the main verb in all the tenses except continuous tenses. (b) Yes/No question is formed by using rising intonation in the statement sentence in the Magar language. The same Yes/No question can also be formed by placing the element *hi* which refers to 'what' in the beginning of the sentence without change in order of the other constituents in the sentence (c) the equivalent of English wh- word in the Magar language in most of the cases occurs after the subject and also in the beginning of the sentence when they function as subject.

Since, very few researches have been accomplished in the Awadhi language. One research just tried to find out kinship terms in relation to the English language. Another one is tense and aspect system in the Awadhi and English language in this research researcher tried to go little core but does not seem to

be quite successful, in this respect I should say nobody had done in this aspect. Thus, my research will try to find out in what aspect negation and interrogation pattern is similar or differ that in English and Awadhi and I have done what other researchers had failed to comprise while doing negative and interrogative transformations.

1.3 Objectives of the Study

The study had the following objectives

- a. To identify the process of negative and interrogative transformations in the Awadhi language.
- b. To compare and contrast the process of negative and interrogative transformations in Awadhi with those of English.
- c. To suggest some pedagogical implications.

1.4 Significance of the Study

This is the first research on negative and interrogative transformations in the Awadhi language. So, it will be of course invaluable for the department itself. The study will give further insight into negation and interrogation of the Awadhi language along with that of English. This study will be helpful for researchers, language planners, syllabus designers, text book writers, students and teachers and people who are interested in this field. This study will also be beneficial for those who teach English to the Awadhi children as a foreign language.

1.5 Definitions of the Specific Terms

This research includes some specific terms which are defined as follows:

Negative: Negation is a process or construction in grammatical and semantic analysis which typically expresses the contradiction meaning.

Interrogative: An interrogative is a term used in the grammatical classification of sentence types, and usually seen in contrast to declarative.

Passivization: Passivization is a process in the grammatical analysis of voice, referring to a sentence, clause or verb form where the grammatical subject is typically the recipient or 'goal' of the action denoted by the verb.

Transformation: Transformation is a formal linguistic operation which enables the levels of structural representation to be placed in correspondence.

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

Comparative: Comparative is a term used to characterize a major branch of linguistic, in which the primary concern is to make statements comparing the characteristics of different language (dialects varieties etc), or different historical status of a language.

Insertion: Insertion is a basic syntactic operation within the framework of transformational grammar which introduces (inserts) a new structural element into a string.

Substitution: Substitution refers to the process or result of replacing one item by another at particular place in a structure.

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

Permutation: Permutation is a basic kind of transformational operation which has the effect of moving constituents (usually one at a time) from one part of a phrase-marker to another.

Verification: Verification is the process of making sure or showing something as true, accurate or justified.

Kernel: Kernel is a term used in early generative grammar to refer to a type of structure produced by the phrase structure rules of a grammar.

CHAPTER – TWO

METHODOLOGY

The researcher adopted the following methodology to carry out the research.

2.1 Source of Data

In order to carry out this research, the researcher utilized both primary and secondary sources of data.

2.1.1 Primary Sources

The native speakers of Awadhi from Banke district were the primary sources from whom the researcher elicited the required data for the research.

2.1.2 Secondary Sources

In addition to the primary sources, the researcher made use of different books, journals, articles, theses, internet and other related materials to the topic, such as Aarts and Aarts (1986), Martinet (1986), Thompson (1986), Celce Murcia- and Freeman (1999), Cowan (2008), and different websites.

2.2 Sampling Procedure

The total sampling population was sixty Awadhi native speakers from Banke district. The total population has been purposively divided into two groups each group having thirty respondents, male and female respectively.

2.3 Tools for Data Collection

The researcher elicited the required data from the selected informants using questionnaire as a research tool.

2.4 Process of Data Collection

The stepwise procedures of data collection are given as follows:

- i. The researcher developed two types of research tools; interview and questionnaire.
- ii. He visited the study area and contacted the sample population and then he established a good rapport with them.
- iii. He explained the objectives and relevance of the study to the informants.
- iv. He asked them for their invaluable cooperation and elicited the required data for the completion of the study.
- v. He conducted the structured interview with the selected illiterate and literate informants and handed over the questionnaires to the selected educated informants after giving necessary instructions.
- vi. The Nepali language was used to make the concept clear.
- vii. He wrote down the responses of the respondents on the interview schedule sheet. And he collected the questionnaire from the informants as well.

2.5 Limitations of the Study

The study had the following limitations:

- a. The study was limited to Awadhi native speakers of Banke district.
- b. The total study population was limited to sixty native speakers.
- c. The study covered the processes of negative and interrogative transformations in the Awadhi language with reference to English.
- d. The transformation was limited to affirmative sentences.

CHAPTER – THREE

ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION

This chapter deals with the analysis and interpretation of the data obtained from the informants and other sources. Firstly, the analysis of rules of negative and interrogative transformations of English was done mainly on the basis of secondary sources extracted mainly from Cowan (2008), Sinclair (2000) and Quirk and Greenbaum (1990). Secondly, the rules of negative and interrogative transformations of Awadhi were analyzed on the basis of written primary data collected from sixty Awadhi native speakers. Then, the comparison and contrast of the processes of negative and interrogative transformation of Awadhi with those of English was done. The collected data was analyzed and interpreted descriptively and comparatively with the help of tables, diagrams and illustrations. After the data was compared, the points of similarities and differences were drawn between the processes of negative and interrogative transformations of English and Awadhi with illustrations.

3.1 The Rules of Negative and Interrogative Transformation in the Awadhi

The researcher tested the rules of negative and interrogative transformation in the Awadhi language with the help of written primary data collected from sixty Awadhi native speakers from Banke district.

3.1.1 The rule of Negative Transformation

The negation is generally formed by adding negative markers both *naai* and *na* before the verb. It has been found that though, both *naai* and *na* are used to make the sentence negative, *naai* has been used most frequently used then the negative particle *na*. This will be more tangible with the help of the following examples.

- a) ham bhaat khaait hay
ham bhaat naai khaait hay
I rice NEG eat-IMPER AUX-PRES
I rice not eat
I don't eat rice.
- b) bacchaalog khelat hay
bacchalog naai khelat hae
Children NEG play – IMPERF
Children not playing
Children weren't playing.
- c) nirmala kal aai
nirmala kal na aai
Nirmala tomorrow NEG - come – FUT
Nirmala tomorrow not come
Nirmala will not come tomorrow.
- d) khidki kholo
khidki na kholo
Window NEG open – IMP
Window not open
Don't open the window.
- e) sunita sundar hay
sunita sundar naai hay
Sunita beautifulNEG be – PRES
Sunita not beautiful is
Suntia is not beautiful.
- f) tum jaaya sakatho
tum naai jaaya sakatho
You NEG go can – AUX
You not can go

You cannot go.

After analyzing aforementioned examples we can say that the negative particle *naai* is closely associated with the verb or the verb phrase. This negative marker is always preceded by verb or verb phrase. *na* appears as alternative negative marker for *naai*. *na* is associated with the future tense while *naai* is associated with the rest of the tenses. It is also found that *naai* occurred frequently whereas *na* existed rarely.

An outstanding similarity between English and Awadhi, is there the both languages do not possess honorificity expression. For example.

English

Awadhi

Father eats rice.

bappa bhaat khaait hay

He eats rice.

U bhaat khaait hay

Unlike English Awadhi does not has inherently negative quantifiers and adverbs of the none, no-one, nothing, never and nowhere type. Instead, these are realized as a combination of indefinite pronoun and negative particle in that order. The given examples will make it more transparent.

a) koi Ram se baat karat hay

koinaai Ram se baat karat hay

Indef.pron. + NEG Ram with speak – PST – (3rd)

Nobody spoke Ram with

Nobody spoke with Ram.

b) koi mil – a

koinaai mil – a

Indef.pro. + NEG meet – PST – (3rd + 1st)

None met

I met none.

c) kuch	batais
kuchnaai	batais
Indef.pro. + NEG	say-PST - (3 rd)
Nothing me said	
He said nothing to me.	

d) kavi	dekkehain
kavinaai	dekkehain
indef. Pro. + NEG	see – PST – (3 rd)
never saw	
I never saw.	

Generally, it is not possible to negate compound verbs.

I. a) nokar	bhag	gawa
servent	run	go – PST – (3 rd)
servant run away.		

b) *nokar	bhaag	naai	gawa
servant didn't run away.			

But, nokar naai bahg – gawa
 Servant + NEG run – PST – (3rd)
 The servant didn't run away.

Similarly,

II) a) u mar – gawa
He die go – PST- (3 rd)
He died.

b) *u mar naai gawa
he didn't die

But, u naai mar – gawa
 He NEG die – PST (3rd)
 He didn't die.

The scope of negation in a subordinate clause which may depend upon the type of predicate used in the main clause. For example, with non-factive verbs such as ‘labgat’ ‘to feel’/ appear’, ‘sochit’ ‘to think/ and ‘chahit’, to want etc. the negative particle of the main clause may be interpreted as negating the subordinate clause as well.

I. a) laagat hai u ghar par hay
 laagat hai u ghar par naai hay
 appear – IMPER AUX – PRES – (3rd) that he home on NEG be –
 PRES
 feel that he home not is
 I feel that he is not at home.

b) lagat hay u ghar par hay
 lagat – naai hay u ghar par hay
 appear – IMPERF. NEG AUX – PRES – (3rd) that he home on be –
 PRES
 think not that he at home is
 I don’t think that he is at home.

II. a) sochit hay u bachi
 sochit hay u naai bachi
 feel – IMPERF AUX – PRES – (3rd) that he NEG survive – FUT
 feel that he not survive is
 I feel that he won’t survive.

b) sochit hay u bachi
 sochit naai hay u bachi
 feel – IMPERF NEG AUX – PRES – (3rd) that he survive – FUT
 think not he survive is
 I don’t think that he will survive.

3.2.2 Rules of Interrogative Transformation

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

I. Yes/no question

This yes/no type of question starts with the question morpheme /ka/ and can be answered with the two alternative words viz: 'yes' or 'no'. Sometimes full response is appropriate and acceptable. It can be illustrate as follows.

a) ham mastar hay.

kaa ham mastar hay?

Question I teacher am

Am I a teacher?

b) i hamaar ghar hay.

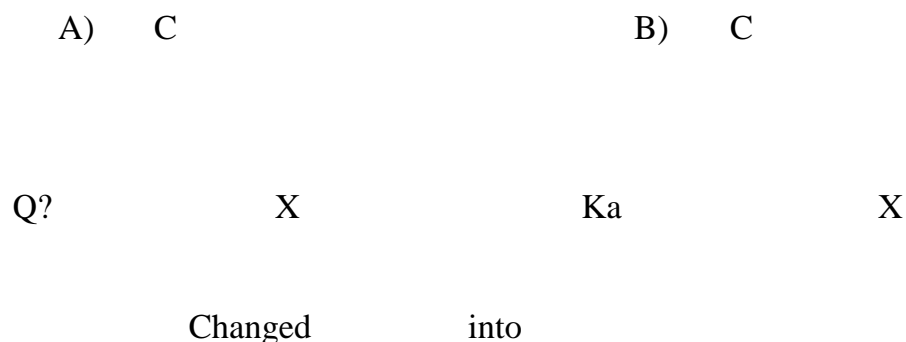
kaa i hamaar ghar hay?

Question my house is (1st sg, pres)

Is this my house?

Interrogative (yes/no question) involves the introduction of the interrogative morpheme *ka* in the beginning of the sentence. It stems from the Q? node which is simultaneously deleted. The structural description for these types of interrogative transformation requires the absence of *kaa* morphemes from all the constituents following the initial Q? node symbolically this is represented in figure 1.

Figure No. 1. Yes/No question transformatio



The symbol 'X' represents the non-interrogative or non-K constituents. The deep structure of interrogative types – I (yes/no question) of sentence (i) can be shown in figure No.2

- i) ham nepalgung jaaibe
 kaa ham nepalgung jaaibe?
 Question I nepalgung go – 1st, sg, Fut.
 Do I go to Nepalgnj?

Figure No. 2. Deep Structure for the above sentence (i)

Q? NP NP Y

I. WH – Question

Wh-questions are questions about noun phrases or adverbs. Thus, the sentences in the following (i) and (ii) are questions about the subject NP (i) and the NP time (ii) an adverbial question in Awadhi involves reason and manner in (iii) and (iv) respectively. Generally, the wh-question begins with the interrogative morpheme. *kaun, kab, kahe, kaisan*. For example:

- i) kela khaat hay.
 ko kela khaat hay?
 Who banana eat (3rd, m/f, fut)
 Who will eat the banana?
- ii) u kela khaat hay.
 u kab kela khaat hay?
 He when banana eat (3rd, sg, m, fut)

When will he eat the banana?

- iii) u kela khaat hay.
u kahe kela khat hay?
He why banana eat (3rd, sg, m, fut)
Why will he eat the banana?

- iv) u kela khaat hay.
u kaisen kela khat hay?
He how banana eat (3rd, sg, m, fut)
How will he eat the banana?

Different kinds of interrogative morphemes can be observed in the Awadhi language.

- v) u khaat hay
u kaa khaat hay?
He what eat (3rd, sg, m, fut)
What will he eat?

- vi) u kela ghare khaat hay.
u kaaha kela khat hay?
He where banana eat (3rd, sg, m, fut)
Where will he eat the banana?

- vii) u ham kaa kelaa diyat hay.
u kika kela diyat hay?
He whom banana give (3rd, sg, m, fut)
To whom will he give the banana?

- viii) u apne gharmaa kela khaat hay.
u kike gharmaa kela khat hay?
He whose will he eat the banana (3rd, sg, m, fut)
At whose house he eat the banana?

An interrogative feature [K] can be seen in all these interrogative morphemes. These morphemes like pronouns and adverbs originate in terms of feature on noun or verbs segment in deep structure.

When one NP or Adv segment contains a [K] in deep structure, it is being questioned. With this interpretation the interrogative morphemes *k*, *kab*, *kaahe*, *kaisan*, *kaa*, *kahaa*, *kika* and *kike* all contain the feature [K]. However, *kaun* ‘who’ is marked in the lexicon with the feature [human], *kaun* is marked with the feature [non human] and there are also some other features given in the following sub categorization, which distinguish these interrogative morpheme from each other.

Sub – categorization of interrogative morphemes

The following listing presents a comprehensive sub-categorization of Awadhi interrogative morphemes.

[ko;, pro, human, k...]

[kaun;, pro, non human k...]

[kahaa, pro, location, k...]

[kab;, pro, time, k...]

[kaahe;, pro, time, k...]

[kaahe;, pro, reason, k...]

[kise;, pro, manner, k...]

[kike;, det, genitive k...]

The interrogative morpheme [kaun, pro, nonhuman, k...] must be distinguished from yes/no question marker [kaun, k]. The yes/no question marker [kaun] is not pronominal or adverbial in nature. It simply questions that sentence with a ‘yes’ or ‘no’ answer and is in complementary distribution with rest of the k-morphemes.

The – II interrogatives [wh-questions] contain [K] in their deep structure. The presence of [K] under an Np as an adv. node indicates that it is being questioned. The wh-questions are generated by the single step transformation

which simply deletes the Q? node in the surface structure the structure description and the structural change involving wh-question are represented in figure 4.

Figure No.4 wh-questions transformation

a)

Structural description

b)

Structural change

In figure 3.4 'w' and 'y' represent constituents flanking the interrogative morpheme stemming from the node 'x'. 'w' can also be a null symbol. Thus, the following sentence (i) has the deep structure shown in figure.

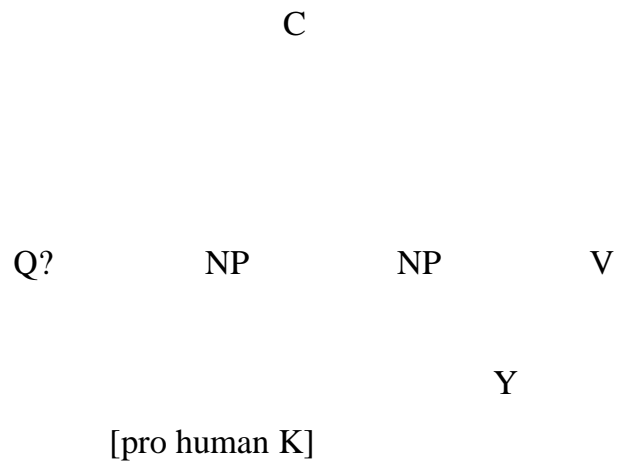
i) u aam khaat hay

ko aam khaat hay?

Who mango eat [3rd, sg, m/f, fut]

Who will eat the mango?

Figure no.5 Deep structure for sentence (i)



The rule given in figure .4 will delete Q? from the surface structure and the result will be the sentence.

i) The following sentence

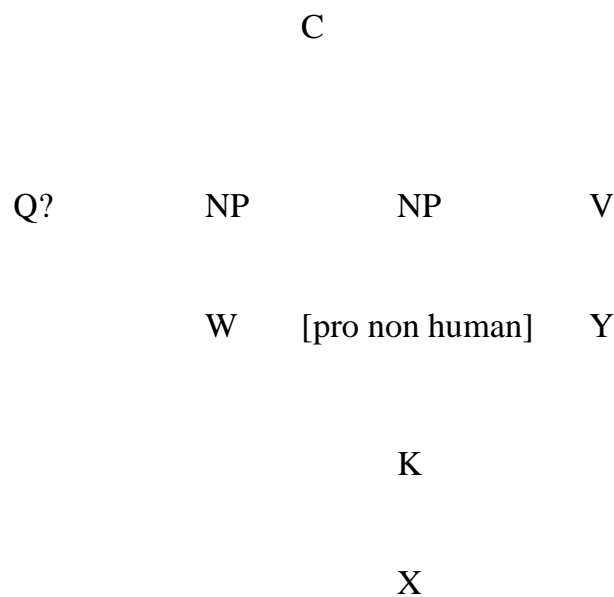
ii) Will have the deep structure shown in figure (ii)

u kela khaat hay.

u kaa khaat hay?

He what eat [3rd, sg., m. fut]

Figure 3.6 Deep structure for sentence (ii)



The application of the rule given in figure 4 will give use the ultimate sentence (ii). The selection of the proper interrogative morpheme will depend on the sub-categorization of morphemes. Thus, (pro, human, K) (figure.5) and (pro, nonhuman, K) (figure 6) will be replaced by *ko* 'who' *kaa* 'what' respectively.

3.3 Comparison of the Processes of Negative and Interrogative Transformations in Awadhi with those in English

In this unit, the negative and interrogative transformations with that of affirmative sentences are presented to find out similarities and dissimilarities in both languages, i.e. Awadhi and English.

3.3.1 Comparison of the Process of Negative Transformation Between English and Awadhi

The processes of negative transformation of Awadhi are compared with those of English as follows:

i. Negative of Assertive Sentences

a) ham bhaat khait hay

I rice eat

I eat rice.

ham bhaat naai khait hay

I rice not eat

b) bappaa hamkaa parem karat hay

father me love – PRES

Father loves me.

bappaa hamkaa parem naai karat hay

father me not love – PRES

Father doesn't love me.

c) dadi khaana banaot hay

Grandmother meal preparing

Grandmother is preparing meal.

dadi khaana naai banaot hay
Grandmother meal not preparing
Grandmother is not preparing meal.

d) unke bappaa kalhi mare hay
Her father yesterday died.
Her father died yesterday.
unke bappaa kaalhi naai mare hay
her father yesterday not died
Her father did not die yesterday.

e) mohan naachath rahe
Mohan dancing was
Mohan was dancing
mohan naai naachath rahe
Mohan not dancing was
Mohan was not dancing

f) kakuwa kalhi aaihay
uncle tomorrow come.
Uncle will come tomorrow
kakuwaa kaalhi na aaihay
uncle tomorrow not come
uncle will not come tomorrow.

g) tum padat hoiyo
You reading will be
You will be reading
tum padat na hoihao
You reading not will be
You will not be reading.

- h) hamaar kakuwa dharanse aaot hay.
 My uncle dharan from coming is.
 My uncle is coming from Dharan
 hamaar kakuwaa dharnase na aaot hay
 My uncle from dharan not coming is
 My uncle is not coming from dharan.

II. Negative of Imperative Sentences

a. Open the window.	- AFF.-	khidki kholo
Window open		
Do not (don't)	- NEG.-	khidki na kholo
Open the window		window not open
b. Work hard	-AFF.-	mehenet karek chaahi
		Hard work
Do not (don't)	NEG.-	mehenet na karek chaahi
Work hard		hard not work
c. Beat me	-AFF.-	ham kaa maarin
		Me beat
Do not (don't)	-NEG.-	ham kaa naai maarin
Beat me		me not beat

Now, the researcher has found that the process of negative and interrogative transformation system in Awadhi is different from English. However, the following sentences will show similarities and differences between negative and interrogative transformations of Awadhi English.

a. Similarities

- i. In the English and Awadhi languages, both assertive and imperative sentences are negated.

English

Assertive

Awadhi

Assertive

3.3.2 Comparison of the Processes of Interrogative Transformation Between Awadhi and English

There are two kinds of interrogative sentence in both the Awadhi and English languages such as yes/no and wh-questions. They have been compared one by one as follows.

A. Comparison of the Processes of Yes/No question Transformation

The processes of yes/no question transformation of Awadhi are compared with those of English as follows.

i. Yes/no Question of Positive Assertive Sentences

	<u>Awadhi</u>		<u>English</u>
a.	ram bhaat khaait hay ram rice eats	-stat.-	Ram eats rice
	kaa raam bhaat khaait hay? Question ram rice eats	(y/n.q.)	Does Ram eat rice?
b.	i ghar hamaar hoy this house mine is	-stat.-	this house is mine
	kaa i ghar hamaar hoy? Question this house mine is	(y/n.q.)	is this my house?
c.	jon k paas ek gadi hay John a car got has	-stat.-	John has got a car
	John a car got has kaa jon ke paas gaadi hay?	(y/n.q.)	Has John got a car?

d.	sunita sundar hay	-stat.-	Sunita is beautiful
	Sunita beautiful is		
	kaa sunita sundar hay?	(y/n.q.)	is Sunita beautiful?
	Question sunita beautiful is		
e.	nirmala kaalhi aai	-stat.-	Nirmala will come tomorrow.
	Nirmala tomorrow come		
	kaa nirmala kaalhi aai?	(y/n.q.)	Will Nirmala come tomorrow?
	Question Nirmala tomorrow come		

After comprising the process of yes/no question transformation between Awadhi and English, the researcher found the following similarities and differences.

I. Similarities

- i. In both languages, assertive sentences are transformed into yes/no question.

For example.

<u>English</u>		<u>Awadhi</u>
John is dancing	-stat.-	jon naachat hay
Is John dancing?	(y/n.q.)	kaa jon naachat hay?

- ii. In the both languages, yes/no question markers (i.e. auxiliary verbs in English and particle *kaa* in Awadhi) are placed in the beginning of the sentence.

- iii. The sign of interrogative or question mark (?) is introduced and placed on the end of the yes/no question in both languages.

I. Differences

- i. If the assertive sentence has an auxiliary verb in it, the same verb is placed before the subject (i.e. the sentence is initiated with an auxiliary verb) in English whereas, yes/no question marking particle *kaa* is introduced and placed before the subject (i.e. the sentence is initiated with the particle *kaa*) in Awadhi.

ii. If the sentence has no auxiliary verb need to use rule that is called ‘do support’, or ‘operator addition’ (do, does and did) rule and the form of the verb is changed into its rest form to make a statement yes/no question in English whereas such rule does not exist in Awadhi. For example

<u>English</u>		<u>Awadhi</u>
John eats rice	-stat.-	jon bhaat khaait hay
Does John eat rice?	(y/n.q.)	kaa jon bhaat khaath hay?
You eat rice	-stat.-	tum bhaat khaaeo
Do you eat rice?	-stat.-	kaa tum bhaat khaaeo?
I ate rice	-stat.-	ham bhaat khaait hay
Did I eat rice?	(y/n.q.)	kaa ham bhaat khaait hay?

iii. Subject – auxiliary inversion or subject operator inversion rule is inevitable to transform a statement into yes/no question in English whereas it is redundant in Awadhi. For example.

<u>English</u>		<u>Awadhi</u>
John will come tomorrow	-stat.-	jon kaalhi aaihay
Will John come tomorrow?	(y/n.q.)	kaa jon kaalhi aaihay?

B. Comparison of the Processes of the WH-Question Transformation

The processes of wh-question transformation in Awadhi can be compared with those in English as follows.

i. WH-Question of Positive Assertive Sentences

<u>English</u>		<u>Awadhi</u>
a. John eats curd	-stat.-	jon dahi khaawa

		John curd eats dahi ko khaawa?
Who eats curd?	(wh-q)	
b. My name is June	-stat.-	hamaar naam juni hay My name June is
What is my name?	(wh-q)	hamaar naam kaa hay?
c. Ravi writes a letter	-stat.-	ravi chitthi likhat hay Ravi letter writes
What does Ravi writes?	(wh-q)	ravi kaa likhat hay?
d. Sunita has gone to market	-stat.-	sunita bajaar gai hay Sunita market gone has
Where does sunita gone?	(wh-q)	Sunita kaahaa gai hay?
e. They will be back at 2p.m.	-stat-	u log do baje lauti hay They 2p.m. back will
When will they be back?	(wh-q)	u log kab laut hay?
f. White is my favorite colour	-stat-	safed hamaar manpasand rang hay White my favorite colour is

English	Awadhi
Who	Kaun
What	Ka
Where	Kahaa
when	Kab
Why	Kaahe
How	Kaise
Whom	Kika
Whose	Kike
How much	Katta

iii. The sign of interrogative or question mark (?) is placed at the end of the wh-question in both the English and Awadhi languages.

a. Differences

- i. 'wh-words' and 'k-words' are used to transform a statement into wh-question in English and Awadhi respectively.
- ii. 'wh-words' occurs in the beginning of the sentence (i.e. wh-question is initiated with wh-words) in English whereas 'k-word' occurs after the subject in Awadhi. For example

English

John drinks water.

Who drinks water?

We are going through sub way.

Which way we are going through

Awadhi

jon paani pihat hay

paani ko pihat hay?

After subject

ham chotaa rastaa se
jaait hay

Ham kaune rastaa se
jaait hay?

After the subject

- iii. Auxiliary verb comes between the ‘wh-word’ and the subject (except the ‘wh-word’ functioning as the subjects in English) on the contrary just ‘k word’ is placed in the sentence in Awadhi. For example

<u>English</u>	<u>Awadhi</u>
John drinks water	jon paani piat hay
Who drinks water?	Paani kaun piat hay?
	In the between and after the subject

- iv. If there is no auxiliary verb in the sentence, we need to use a rule that is called ‘do support’ or ‘operator addition’ (do, does and did) rule and the form of the main verb is changed into its root form in English whereas this rule is redundant in Awadhi. For example:

Statements	wh-question
I write a letter.	what do I write? Wh- word AUX.v.subj m.v
John reads a story.	what does John read? Wh-word AUX.v. subj. m.v
She cooked meal.	What did she cook? Wh- word AUX.v. subj.m. v

[Note: the researcher himself coined ‘wh-question’ ‘K - question because it starts with ‘K – word in Awadhi].

CHAPTER-FOUR

FINDINGS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

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

4.1 Findings

a. The following are the negative and interrogative transformations in Awadhi.

I. Negative transformations

- i. In Awadhi *naai* and *na* (which is less frequently use i.e. with the future time) are added immediately before the main verb, and sometimes at the middle of final position of the related verb.
- ii. Awadhi negative quantifiers and adverbs are realized as a combination of indefinite pronoun and negative particle
- iii. The scope of negation in a subordinate clause which may depend upon the type of predicate used in the main clause. For example, with non-factive verbs such as ‘labgat’ ‘to feel’/ appear’, ‘sochit’ ‘to think/ and ‘chahit’, to want etc. the negative particle of the main clause may be interpreted as negating the subordinate clause as well.

II. Interrogative transformation:

- a. Interrogative (yes/no question) involves the introduction of the interrogative morpheme *ka* in the beginning of the sentence.
- b. Generally, the wh-question begins with the interrogative morpheme. *kaun, kab, kahe, kaisan*.
- c. An interrogative feature [K] can be seen in all the interrogative morphemes. With this interpretation the interrogative morphemes *k, kab, kaahe, kaisan, kaa, kaha, kika* and *kike* all contain the feature [K]. However, *kaun* ‘who’ is marked in the lexicon with the feature [human].

- b. The following similarities between Awadhi and English negative and interrogative were found.
- i. In the English and Awadhi languages, both assertive and imperative sentences are negated.
 - ii. In both languages, separate negative markers are used. In English, not or n't is the main negative marker whereas *naai* or sometimes *na* is the negative marker in Awadhi. These negative markers are used to transform the positive sentences into negative.
 - iii. It is found that in both languages, assertive sentences are transformed into yes/no question.
 - iv. In the both languages, yes/no question markers (i.e. auxiliary verbs in English and particle *kaa* in Awadhi) are placed in the beginning of the sentence.
 - v. The sign of interrogative or question mark (?) is introduced and placed on the end of the yes/no question in both languages.
 - vi. Assertive sentences can be transformed into wh-question transformation between Awadhi and English.
 - vii. Both languages have their own separate words (i.e. 'wh- words' in English and 'k' – words' in Awadhi) for transforming statements into wh – question.
 - viii. The sign of interrogative or question mark (?) is placed at the end of the wh-question in both the English and Awadhi languages.
- c. The following differences between the Awadhi and English negative and interrogative transformation are found.
- i. The English negative marker is always treated in the structure 'sub + AUX + not + verb' except past and simple present. But Awadhi is not so much rule bounded language in case of transformation. The negative marker *naai* is generally added before the related verb. But, in some cases, the negative marker *naai* can be placed either middle or final position of the related verbs. Awadhi treats all the tense forms generally

with some negative marker *naai*. For honorificity there is no any distinct marker. [Note: though it is very rare some nasalized words /~/ *hoy* represent honorificity in Awadhi]. The same *naai* is used all the cases except *na* in the future and in imperative sentences.

- ii. If the assertive sentence has an auxiliary verb in it, the same verb is placed before the subject (i.e. the sentence is initiated with an auxiliary verb) in English whereas, yes/no question marking particle *kaa* is introduced and placed before the subject (i.e. the sentence is initiated with the particle *kaa*) in Awadhi.
- iii. If the sentence has no auxiliary verb need to use rule that is called ‘do support’, or ‘operator addition’ (do, does and did) rule and the form of the verb is changed into its rest form to make a statement yes/no question in English whereas such rule does not exist in Awadhi.
- iv. Subject – auxiliary inversion or subject operator inversion rule is inevitable to transform a statement into yes/no question in English whereas it is redundant in Awadhi.
- v. ‘wh-words’ and ‘k-words’ are used to transform a statement into wh-question in English and Awadhi respectively.
- vi. ‘wh-words’ occurs in the beginning of the sentence (i.e. wh-question is initiated with wh-words) in English whereas ‘k-word’ occurs after the subject in Awadhi.
- vii. Auxiliary verb comes between the ‘wh-word’ and the subject (except the ‘wh-word’ functioning as the subjects in English) on the contrary just ‘k word’ is placed in the sentence in Awadhi.

4.2 Recommendations

It is universal truth that languages are different. Their patterns of sentences and the uses of words are also different. This truth proved the importance of any comparative study on languages. Thus, this comparative work also will be useful for the language learners, teaches and policy maker of the related languages, especially for those who are related to the Awadhi language and for

all in general. The present study has the following recommendations and pedagogical implications.

On the basis of the findings obtained from the analysis of the collected data, pedagogical implications with some recommendation have been suggested as follows:

- i. While teaching, language teacher should see what sorts of difficulties that the learners are facing because of their mother tongue.
- ii. The process of negative and interrogative transformation system in English are different from those in Awadhi. Therefore, it is recommended that differences should be taken into trace while teaching English transformation system to Awadhi speaking students.
- iii. The students of this linguistic community should be taught the ways using 'do support/operator addition' and 'subject auxiliary inversion, rules more carefully as they do not exist in Awadhi.
- iv. In English contraction of auxiliary verbs are used in negative and interrogative transformations, especially in communication. So attention should be paid to such features of auxiliaries in English while teaching Awadhi speaking children.
- v. A logical problem in learning of the second language is because of the transfer of knowledge related to the first language is different from the second language, learning will be difficult. So, a language teacher should analyze what the similarities and differences are between the native language of the learners and the target language they are going to learn.
- vi. Mother tongue influences in learning the second language so while teaching language a teacher should see what difficulties, the learners are facing because of their mother tongue.
- vii. If linguistic items of the two languages are similar, the second language learners tend to learn the language faster. But at the same time, there is the danger of making overgeneralization and creating

idiosyncratic structures similar to ones own first language. The teachers and learners should be aware of this kind of tendency.

- viii. The syllabus designers and textbook writers should be more specific while designing the syllabus and writing the textbook for the Awadhi learners who are learning English as a second language.

The researcher does not claim that the present study covers all the rules of negative and interrogative transformations in the Awadhi because he has not carried out this research in all types of sentences available in the Awadhi language. The sentences which are taken for this purpose are related with assertive and imperative sentences, and only sixty native Awadhi speakers for Banke district are taken. However, the researcher has put his immense knowledge and effort to generalize the rules of negative and interrogative transformations in the Awadhi explicitly based on the collected data.

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

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