

# CHAPTER - ONE

## INTRODUCTION

### 1.1 General Background

Language is species specific means of human communication. It is the most highly developed and most frequently used means of communication that human beings possess. By means of language human beings can share their ideas, feelings, problems, desires and attitudes with each other. Human beings are distinguished from animals because of the structured, non-instinctive, productive and ever changing sign of communication that is human language. For Sapir (1921, p. 8 as cited in Hockett 1981, p. 3) “Language is a purely human and non-instinctive method of communicating ideas, emotions and desires by means of voluntarily produced symbols”.

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. Chomsky (1957, p. 13) defines language as, “... a set of sentences, each finite in length and constructed out of a finite set of elements”. In this way, language is defined as a meaningful set made up of meaningful elements which can transfer culture and ideas using arbitrary vocal symbols within the human communities. Moreover, Encyclopedia of Britannica (2006, p. 14, volume 6) defines language as “a system of conventional spoken or written

symbols used by people in shared culture to communicate with each other”. This shows that language is a means of communication within the same speech community. It means language varies from one speech community to another.

In this wide world, language is defined differently. Universally acceptable definition of language has not yet been found. By the way, all languages are used to express and share feelings, ideas, desires, thoughts, emotions and expressions. Language is also the means of civilization. It shows the individual and social status of the users. It has different varieties, fields and characteristics, vernacularism, lingua franca, pidgin and creole. Language is complex but modifiable. It is not just a logical system, but also psychological and social phenomenon. Though there are various languages, every human being can acquire his/her mother tongue since his childhood.

### **1.1.1 Need and Importance of English in Nepal**

English, one of the groups of Indo-European language family, is the largest and the giant language of the world.

It is believed that there are more than 6000 languages in the world. Among them English is the most widely used language. It is a global language which at present is the language most widely taught as a foreign language in over 100 countries. (Crystal 1997, as mentioned in Dewan, 2005, p. 2).

It has become the chief foreign language that is used in every field. It belongs to the Indo-European language family.

These days every country needs other country's cooperation in every field i.e. political, economical and others. So, they need a well recognized lingua franca

or a link language. English is accepted as the World wide lingua franca. It is also an official language offered by the UN. It is broadly used in business, policy, media, institutions, technology, science, medicine, e-mail and Internet, literature and everyday modern life. It is used as an official language, a second language or an international lingua franca in most of the countries.

English is generally acknowledged to be the world's most important language ... one criterion is the number of speakers of this language. A second is the extent to which a language is geographically dispersed; a third is the economic and political influence of the native speakers of the language (Quirk, Greenbman, Leech & Svartvick 1985, p. 3).

The number of English speakers is more in comparison to other languages. And this language is dispersed all over the world. According to Crystal (1997, p. 60),

English is used as L1 by 337,407,300 and L2 by 235,351,300 out of total population: 2,024,641,000 of the world. Because of the rapid development of industries, science and technology, press and media, international trade and commerce and the close independence of, it has become a global language.

Similarly, Crystal (*ibid* p. 8) states:

Any language at the centre of such an explosion of international activity would suddenly have found itself with a global status. And English ... was in the right place and right time. By the beginning of the nineteenth century, Britain had become the world's leading industrial and trading country. By the end of the century, the population of the USA (then approaching 100 million) was larger than that of any of the countries of Western Europe, and its economy was the most productive and the

fastest growing on the world. British political imperialism had sent English around the globe, during the nineteenth century; so that it was a language 'on which the sun never sets'. During the twentieth century, this world presence was maintained and promoted, almost single-handedly, through the economic supremacy of the new American superpower. And the language behind the US dollar was English.

There are so many languages and language speakers in the world. A famous and wide language is needed to link those people. So, English, the widespread and well-known language, is taken as an international link language or lingua franca or global language in the present world.

Nepal is one of developing countries. It needs cooperation and support of developed countries in several sectors. So, Nepal is also following English, the global language as an international link language, so that it can gather different knowledge and skills. In Nepal, English was started to teach from 1910 B.S. after the one year Britain-visit of the then Prime-Minister Janga Bahadur Rana. Durbar High school was established and education was provided only to the Rana families. The curriculum was based on the Indian Curriculum. English education was spread slowly until 2007 B.S. but after the abolition of the Ranacacy, the whole education system of Nepal was modified. Like many other disciplines, the English language also has got rapid growth. At present, English is taught as a compulsory subject from grade one to bachelor level. There are many private boarding schools and English language institutes which are devoted to teach English. In many sectors, like NGO and INGO, English is being an inevitable language.

According to Crystal (1997, p. 58), "There are 592,700 (out of total population

2,009,300 (population Census 1995) people in Nepal who use English as a second language”. Generally, we can say that English is the leading language of the modern world and it has been occupying the important place in our new Nepal as well. In this way, English is occupying a special position in our country not only for academic purpose but also for international link language. The rapid growth of English medium boarding schools and their impact on our society prove that the importance and demand of the English language is considerable.

### **1.1.2 Linguistic Scenario of Nepal**

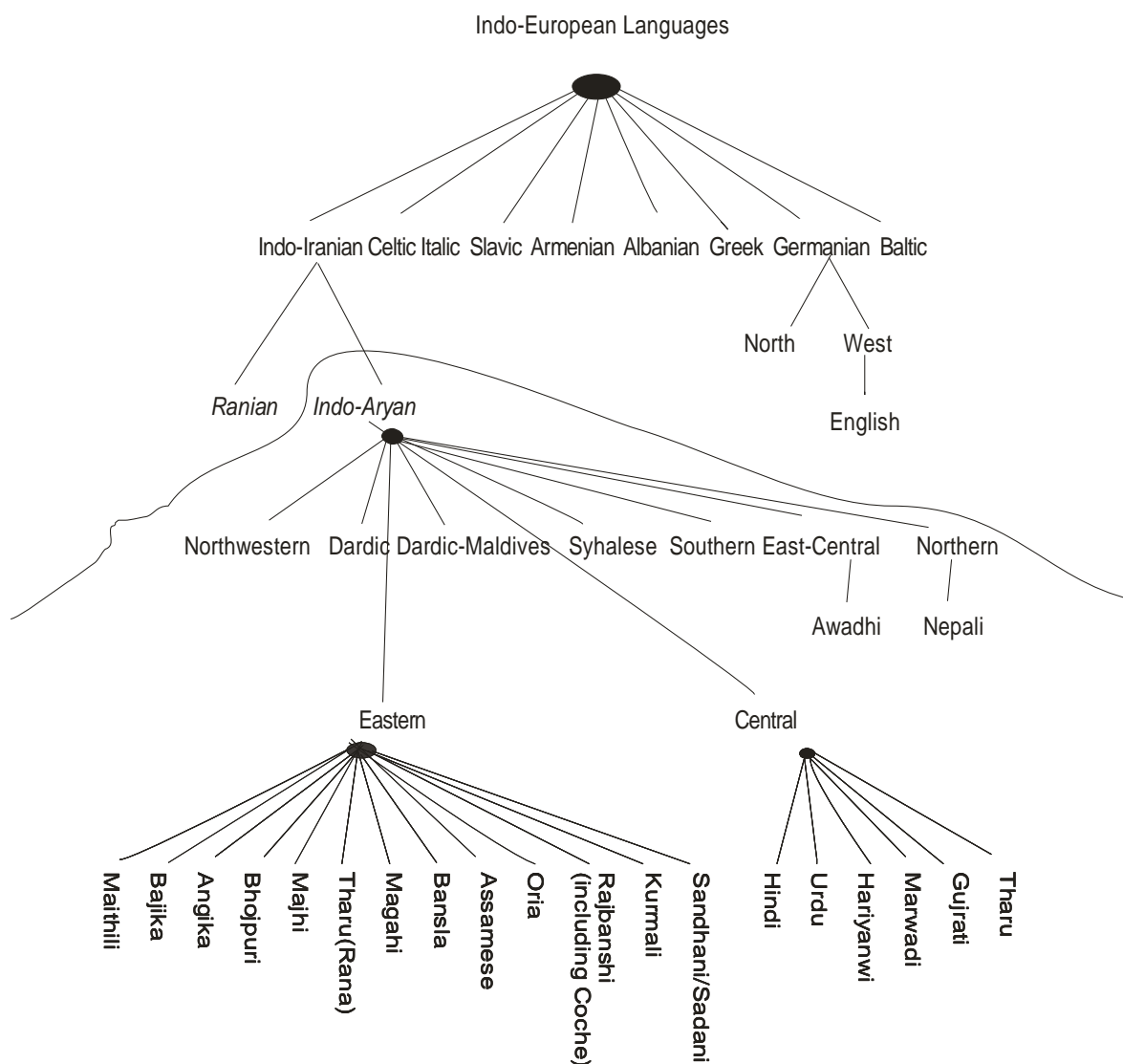
Nepal is a small landlocked country but it is regarded as the fertile land for languages. “There have been identified 92 mother tongues (barring some ‘unknown’ language) in the 2001 census”. (Population Monograph of Nepal, Volume I 2003, p. 139). Most of them have only the spoken form with a few native speakers. Due to the dominance of foreign languages and standard language; like Nepali, some of them are being overshadowed. They need proper protection and preservation by all conscious linguists and government of Nepal. The languages spoken in Nepal belong to the following language families:

#### **1.1.2.1 Indo-Aryan Group**

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

The Indo-Aryan languages spoken in Nepal can be subcategorized in the following diagram:

Diagram no. 1. Indo-Aryan languages in Nepal

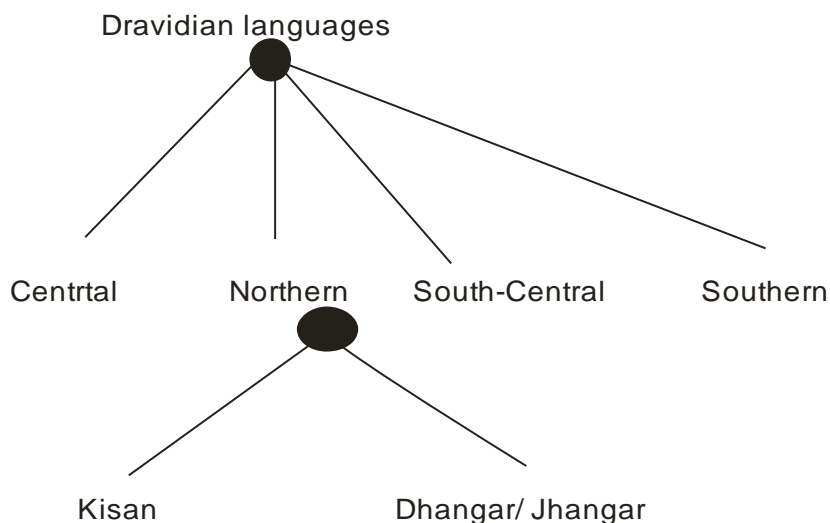


### 1.1.2.2 Dravidian Group

According to Population Census 2001, 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

subcategorized in the following diagram:

Diagram No. 2 Dravidian Languages in Nepal

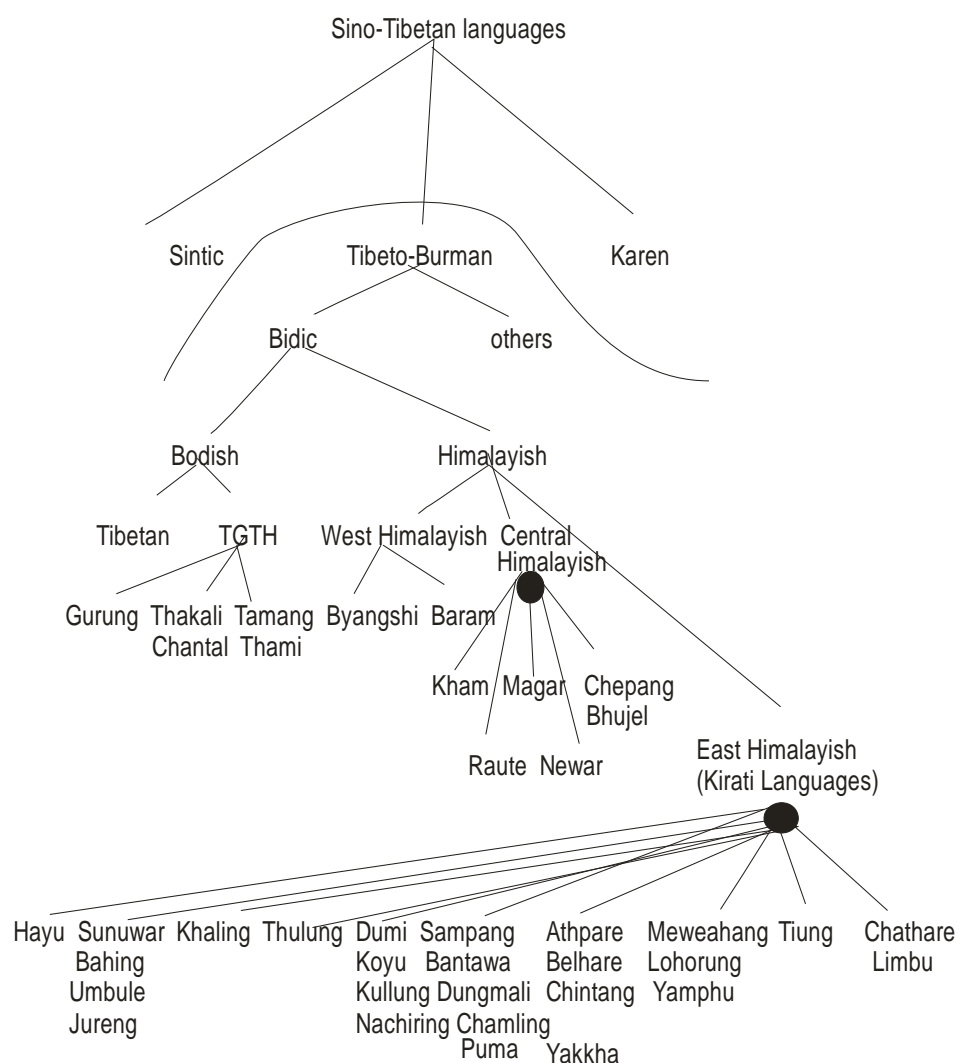


### 1.1.2.3 Tibeto-Burman Group

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 number of languages. There are about 57 languages in this group. (Its origin is believed to be around the Yangsitkyang river of China.)

The Sino-Tibetan languages spoken in Nepal can be sub-categorized as follows:

Diagram No. 3. Sino-Tibetan Languages in Nepal



Source: Bradeley (2002) and David Waters (Personal Communication) as mentioned in Population Monograph of Nepal p. 146, Volume I

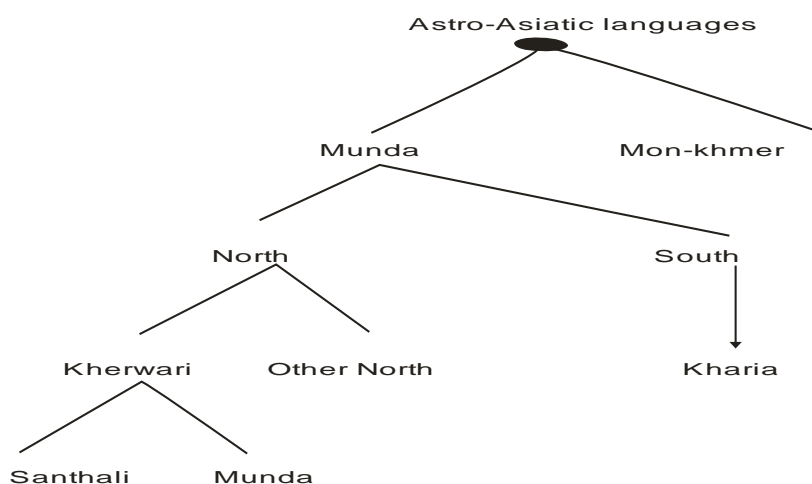
### 1.1.2.4 Austro-Asiatic Group

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 languages spoken in Nepal is shown in the following diagram:

Diagram No. 4. Austro-Asiatic languages in Nepal



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.

Among the four language families mentioned above, Tibeto-Burman language family covers the largest area. Dravidian and Austro-Asiatic language families are endangered language families.

### **1.1.3 An Introduction to Rai Ethnic Group and Puma Rai Language**

Nepal is a small country in size but amazingly rich in its cultural and linguistic diversity. More than 92 languages are spoken as mother tongues in Nepal. Mainly, four language families are well used in Nepal. “The languages

enumerated in the 2001 census belong to the four language families, viz. Indo-European, Sino-Tibetan, Austro-Asiatic and Dravidian” (Population Monograph of Nepal, 2003, p. 145, volume I). Among the four language families, Sino-Tibetan occupies the largest position in terms of the number of the languages. “...important group of Nepal’s language is the Tibeto-Burman group of Sino-Tibetan family. Though it is spoken by relatively lesser number of people than the Indo-European family, it consists of the largest number of languages, viz. about 57 languages” (ibid). The Kirat Rai language is one of the largest groups of Tibeto-Burman language family which is spoken by Kirati people of the eastern hilly region of Nepal.

The following map shows the existence of Rai languages in the eastern Nepal.



Except it, Kirat Rais can be found in Bhutan, Burma, Assam, Manipur, Nagaland, West Bangal and other parts of India. But nowadays, Kirat Rais are found in most of the districts of Nepal and most of the countries of the world.

Generally, the Kirat ethnic group and their names of the languages are same. For example, Bantawa language is spoken by Bantawa ethnic group (Bantawa) and in the same way, Puma is spoken by Puma ethnic group (Puma). Kirat Rais have distinct identity, culture, ritual functions and languages.

The language spoken by Puma ethnic group is called Puma language. It is one of the Kirati languages of the Tibeto-Burman language family. The original land of Puma native speaker is Diplung, Devisthan, Mauwabote and Chisapani VDCs of Khotang district. “Puma Rai language is spoken mainly in Khotang district, northwestern slopes of the Rapcha range from the highest peaks to Sawa Khola valley, directly south of the Khotang Bazar”( [www.ethnologue.com](http://www.ethnologue.com) 13/July/2008). Nowadays, Pumas are spread to Siddipur, Beltar and Basaha VDCs of Udayapur district and even to Kathmandu, Dharan, Itahari and other places of Nepal.

By profession, most of the Pumas are farmers. Rural agriculture is their main source of earning. Their farming depends on the monsoon rain. Their life is directly or indirectly related to natural sources and they are the worshippers of nature. They pray their sontum (ancestors) as god. Their main festivals are linked with seasons. ‘Chandinach’ is a great festival which is celebrated twice a year: One as dongwangsa (coming year) and another as dongdapsa (going year). They worship their corn after harvesting and then store. They believe and worship different local gods and goddesses. Among them goddess Hongma is believed to be more powerful. They remember her before and after the challengeous work. They sacrifice animals and birds to ask for eternal power. Their ancestral profession is rural agriculture but like other Mongolian clans, Puma youths also join the British and Indian armies and even go abroad to earn money.

Puma ethnic group is a developing ethnic group of Nepal. It has its own mother tongue, ritual functions and identity. The Puma language is still spoken by most young people although it is one of the endangered languages in the world. Puma families who have migrated to Beltar, Basaha, Dharan and other places in the Terai no longer speak their mother tongue although they can speak it for several reasons such as dominance of other language (particularly Nepali), inter-cast marriage and so on. However, it is good to see that children still learn Puma in their original homeland although their use of Puma shows higher degree of Nepali intrusion. According to Population Census 2001, (as cited in population Monograph of Nepal, p. 143, Volume I) the total population of Puma native speakers is 4310, which is 0.02% of the total population of Nepal. The alternative names of Puma language is PumaLa, PumaPima and PumaKala. The word 'La' means 'language', 'Pima' means 'speak' and 'k la' is a compound word (k =their and la=language) which means 'their language' or Puma's language'. So, all the three alternative names mean the 'Puma language'.

Most of the Kirati languages are pronominal in nature and so is the Puma language. It has only two tenses: past and non-past as many other languages and progressive in both past and non-past. Puma has three persons: singular, dual and plural. But unlike English, there are first person singular ( a), 1<sup>st</sup> person dual inclusive (keci), 1<sup>st</sup> person dual exclusive (kecika), 1<sup>st</sup> person plural inclusive (ke), 1<sup>st</sup> person plural exclusive (keka). This language has double negative markers which are used according to the person and number of the sentence. The interrogative sentences are made in different ways. Usually the verb follows the question word in a major sentence.

#### **1.1.4 Contrastive Analysis: An Introduction**

Contrastive analysis, CA in short, is a branch of applied linguistics, in which

two or more than two languages are compared to find out similarities and differences between them. There are several languages in the world. Only one language is not enough to the people who want to learn more things in the present world. So, learning a second language is an important issue. Among the languages of the world, some languages are genetically related and they have several common features. Some languages are not genetically related and they have several uncommon features. Such features can be found after the comparison of the languages. The comparison of languages is done on the phonological, morphological, syntactic, syntactic, discourse, semantic and pragmatic level. These comparisons are done under contrastive analysis. Nickel (1971, p. x) says, “Contrastive linguistics, of course also has a bearing on such topics as a language typology. It is evident from some papers that the findings of contrastive analysis are also of use in general linguistic investigations and in the study of language universals”. Contrastive analysis helps to compare and contrast the new language with the mother tongue and suggests for the main difficulties in learning the new language. CA even suggests for teaching materials to reduce the effects of interference.

Contrastive analyses are of mainly two types: interlingual and intralingual. Interlingual comparison refers to the comparison between two languages, for example, English and Puma. And in intralingual comparison, two dialects are compared, for example, eastern Nepali and Western Nepali.

#### **1.1.4.1 Assumption of CA**

The theoretical basis of CA is called CA hypothesis or CA. assumption, which are the features of learning second language. The pioneers of the assumptions of CA are C.C. Fries and Robert Lado. C.C. Fries, an American linguist, for the first time initiated the call to contrastive linguistic study to derive the best

teaching material in teaching second and foreign languages. Fries (1945 as cited in Fisiak, 1981, p.4) says, "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." Similarly, Robert Lado in his book 'Linguistics Across Cultures' (1957) presents the following propositions of CA:

- a) In the comparison between native and foreign language lies the key to ease or difficulty in foreign language learning
- b) The teacher who has made a comparison of the foreign language with the native language of the students will know better what the real learning problems are and can better provide for teaching them.

(Allen and Corder 1974, p. 280)

- c) Individuals tend to transfer the forms and meaning of their native language and culture to the foreign language and culture both productively when attempting to speak the language...and receptively when attempting to grasp and understand the language.

(Larsen-Freeman and Long, 1991, p. 52-53)

Furthermore, Lado attempts that the student who comes in contact with a foreign language finds some features of it quite easy and some others extremely difficult. Those elements that are similar to his native language will be simple to him and those are different will be difficult. In this way, while analyzing CA hypothesis, there may be said to have two aspects: linguistic and psychological which are also called assumptions of CA.

#### 1. Linguistic aspect/ facet

- a) Language learning is essentially matters of habit formation.
- b) The mind of a child at birth is tabula rasa
- c) Languages are comparable.

## 2. Psychological aspect/ facet

- d) The greater the difference between languages the greater the difficulty in learning the target language and accordingly the greatest the number of errors in performance.

### **1.1.4.2 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 interference. The ease or difficulty in learning L2 depends on whether it is similar to L1 and L2 or not. If L1 and L2 are similar, the learning will be easier and the learners commit less error. But if L1 and L2 are different L2 learning will be difficult and the learners commit more errors.

### **1.1.4.3 Usefulness of CA**

CA is also relevant to machine translation and linguistic typology. It is useful for designing the teaching materials and syllabuses/syllabi. Wilkins (1972, p. 271 as mentioned in James 1980, p. 141) suggests that while most teachers look for direct applications of linguistics, that is, "...cases where notions and information drawn from linguistics act directly upon the process of language teaching". So, CA is important from pedagogical point of view. James (1980, p. 145) points out three traditional pedagogical applications of CA. "CA has applications in predicting and diagnosing a proportion of the L2 errors committed by learners with a common L1 and in the design of testing instrument for such learners." The first application 'predicting' refers to the prediction of a problem or difficulty or the type of errors and the possible errors that are likely to be committed by a particular group of learners in learning a

particular language. The second application of CA is ‘diagnosing’ or diagnosis of error. The teacher organizes feedback to the learner and remedial work to diagnose the error. And the third application is ‘testing’. It suggests that the errors are to be tested in any way. “CA will have two roles to play in testing. First, since sampling is required, it will carry suggestions about what to test, and to what degree to test different L2 items” (ibid, p. 149). In this way,

CA is an important pedagogical aid to the language teachers and learners. In this modern world, the knowledge of two or more than two languages is essential which is promoted by the help of CA. So, the demand of CA is increasing day by day. It is equally important to the language teachers, linguists, textbook writer, testing experts and syllabus designers and even to the translators.

### **1.1.5 Syntax: A Brief Introduction**

Oxford Advance Learner’s Dictionary (2002, p. 1319) defines syntax as “the way that words and phrases are put together to form sentences in a language”. Syntax is the study of interrelationship between elements of sentence structure. It is concerned with the order of sentences. Traditional grammar defines syntax as the way words are combined to form sentences. TG grammar regards it as one of the three major organizational units among syntax, semantics and phonology.

Syntax is the meaningful strings of words. In other words, it studies the sentence building or the rules and categories of sentence formation. In general, syntax is the grammar of sentences. Grammar is the backbone or core of the sentence. Every language does not have same sentence structures. For example, English has SVO pattern and Puma Rai has SOV pattern.



Sentence is the main focus point of syntax. Sentences are classified from formal and functional point of view. From formal point of view, sentences are classified as declarative, interrogative, imperative and exclamatory and from functional point of view, they are classified as statements, questions, commands and exclamations. The main purpose of syntax is to help the learner to choose correct structure in proper situation. The structure of sentence gives the required meaning. For example, 'You are a student' is an affirmative statement but applying subject-verb inversion 'Are you a student?' is a question form. In comparative study of language the syntax is a proper input to find out the similarity and difference. Without the knowledge of syntax we cannot study any language.

The maximal grammatical unit is sentence and syntax operates the sentence. So, syntax is the main concern of grammarians, linguists, teachers and learners to manipulate the language on speech, writing and analyzing any language.

### **1.1.6 Transformation Theory: An Overview**

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 complex technical formation was developed. Transformational grammar is generative in nature. It contains finite set of rules, which can generate infinite number of all and only the grammatical sentences. Transformations show various relationships among linguistic categories and adding, permuting, deleting and substituting constituents by means of some rules and infinite numbers of grammatically correct sentences can be formed. Transformation is a part of functional grammar which includes

varieties of transformations like active/passive, direct/indirect, affirmative/negative and interrogative. According to Robins (1967, p. 242), “Essentially transformation is a method of stating how the structures in many sentences in languages can be generated or explained formally as the result of specific transformations applied to certain basic sentence structures.” Transforming one structure of a sentence into another applying the rules is the transformation.

Syntax is the grammar of sentences which studies how words are combined to form phrases, clauses and sentences. Grammar is the backbone of the structural language. It has various rules of the structuring sentences. Different languages have different rules for putting words in forming a sentence. The rules of a language are grammar. Every language has three components: syntax, semantics and phonology. Syntax deals with the formation of sentences. It studies how words are combined to form sentences. Grammar and transformation are interrelated with each other. Transformation is a grammatical process through which different surface structures can be derived from deep structures.

Both negative and interrogative transformations are the essential parts of syntax which involve other transformation as well. The present study deals with both negative and interrogative transformations. These are the integral parts of both the English and Puma Rai languages.

### **1.1.7 Negative and Interrogative Transformations**

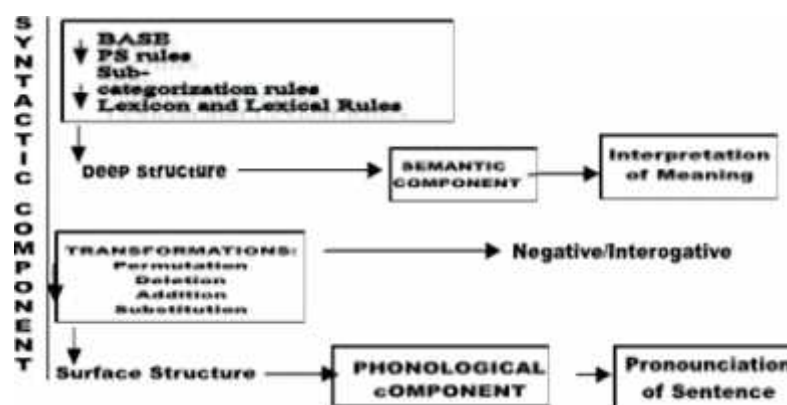
Negative and interrogative transformations are the part of syntax that have very significant role to play in both spoken and written discourses. Both negative and interrogative sentences facilitate communication and also make it possible,

effective and lively. These are the important factors of any language. Sentences are of various types. Among them negative and interrogative sentences are universal properties of all languages. These are essential input in all languages. The ways of negative and interrogative transformations are not same in all languages in terms of the structure but every language has negative and interrogative sentences.

Chomsky's aspect of the Theory of Syntax' (also called 1965 model) shows the negative and interrogative transformation as below:

Diagram No. 5 Negative and interrogative transformation in

Chomsky's 1965 Model



This figure shows that base and transformations are the two components of syntax. The base sub-component generates an infinite set of deep structures, which undergo certain transformations (permutation, deletion, addition and substitution) by means of transformation rules (negation, interrogation and so on). After undergoing the transformational process, the transformed surface structure gets phonetic representation from the phonological component and semantic representations from the semantic component and become sentences.

Every language is different in many respects. The rules of transformation may vary from language to language. Here our concern is only with negative and interrogative transformation. One language in surface level differs from another

language and applies the different rules in the process of negative and interrogative transformation.

The negative and interrogative transformations in English are stated below:

### **1.1.7.1 Negation**

Negation is an important input to any language. Speakers use negative sentences to deny or refuse the truth of the fact. To quote Celce-Murcia and Larsen-Freeman (1999, p. 183),

Negation in English is very broad topic; it affects words, phrases and sentences. The addition of the negative marker affects or contradicts the meaning of the sentence. In English, only one negative marker ‘not’ is used proceeding by any auxiliary verb. The use of two negative is also possible but it gives positive meaning. In other words, two negatives make one positive sentence in English.”

For example,

Nothing is impossible.

These two negatives ‘nothing’ and ‘im-’ give the positive meaning and the meaning of the sentence is ‘everything is possible.’

In English, there are different types of negation given by different scholars. Celce-Murcia and Larsen-Freeman (1999, p. 184) have given three levels of negation:

- a) The lexical level
- b) The phrase level
- c) The sentence level

### **a) The Lexical Level Negation**

In the process of negation, some negative affixes are attached to a word (i.e. noun, adjective, and adverb). That is called lexical or word level negation.

e.g.

happy	unhappy
possible	impossible
typical	atypical
logical	illogical

### **b) The Phrase Level Negation**

At this level, 'no' can function as a negative determiner in a noun phrase.

e.g.

No plans have been made.

Before infinitive verbs in infinitive phrases (i.e. a sequence of 'to + verb' that follows an inflected verb), 'not' is used to make the phrase negative:

Marge has decided not to pay her income tax this year.

### **c) The Sentence Level Negation**

'Not' is the main sentence level negator:

e.g.

John is not at home.          John isn't at home.

Do you move?                  Don't move!

Are you not going?          Aren't you going?

The negative particle 'no' can also make a sentence negative, especially, when it negates the subject.

e.g. No one was home to sing for the package.

Quark et al. (1985, p. 775) have classified the following three types of negation:

- a) Clause negation
- b) Local negation
- c) Predication negation

The present study is related to the clause negations. So, it is briefly describe as below:

### **a) Clause Negation**

In clause negation, a simple positive sentence (or a positive finite clause within a complex sentence) is negated by inserting the clause negator ‘not’ before the operator and the predication.

- e.g. My mom is cooking rice.
- My mom is not cooking rice.

The auxiliary ‘do’ is added if positive sentence lacks an operator.

- e.g. I go to school.
- I do not go to school.

The contracted form ‘n’t’ is usually used in informal situation.

- e.g. He wasn’t laughing.
- They didn’t buy a cow.

Clause negation may be accomplished by negating a clause element other than the verb with ‘no’ or ‘not’ or by using a negative word such as ‘none’ or ‘never’.

#### Verb negation

She isn’t any different  
An honest man would not lie  
I won’t make that mistake  
ever again.

#### Negation of other element

She is no difference  
No honest man would lie  
I will never make that mistake  
again.

In formal style, the negative element may be moved out of its usual position to the initial position in which case subject operator inversion is often required.

e.g. Not a word would he say.

Never will I make that mistake again.

The adverbials like *seldom*, *rarely*, *hardly* and *barely* and determiners like *little*, and *few* can affect clause negation.

e.g. I seldom get any sleep.

Hardly anyone wants the job.

Little help can be expected from Peter.

### **1.1.7.2 Interrogation**

Interrogation is the way of making question of a statement or declarative sentence. Question is a sentence, phrase or word that asks for information. An interrogative sentence starts with an auxiliary verb or a question word (wh-word). The usual function of a question in discourse is to request the listener to respond verbally to information that the questioner seeks. Richards et al. (1985, p. 238) defines question as "a sentence which is addressed to a listener/reader and asks for an expression of fact, opinion, belief etc is a question."

e.g. How do you do? Can she come?

Celce-Murcia and Larsen-Freeman (ibid. 1999) discuss the three type of interrogation:

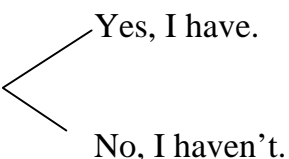
- a) Yes/No Question
- b) Wh-Question
- c) Other Structures that look like questions

A brief discussion of these types is as follow:

### a) Yes/No Question

The interrogative sentence which expects the answer 'Yes' or 'No' is called yes/no question.

e.g.

Have you got any book? 

Yes/no questions are of two types:

#### i) Negative yes/no

This type of yes/no questions starts with a negative marker following the auxiliary verb, e.g.

Aren't you going to Katmandu?

#### ii) Positive yes/no question.

This type of yes/no question starts with only auxiliary verb.

e.g. Do you like fruit?

### b) Wh-questions

Wh-questions are also known as information questions. The function of wh-question is seeking information but it does not expect the answer like 'yes' or 'no'. The wh-questions begin with wh-word such as what, who, when, where, how, whom, why, whose and which, that is why this type of question is called 'wh-question'.

Wh-questions are formed by placing wh-word in the beginning of the transformed sentence followed by subject auxiliary inversion.

e.g. They are teachers. (Who)

- Who are they?



Her name is Sylvia.

- What is her name?

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

i) Positive wh-question

e.g. What do you want?

ii) Negative wh-question

e.g. Why didn't you do?

The wh-words are sometimes modified by the intensifier 'ever' which emphasizes the bafflement or emotional involvement of the speaker.

e.g. Whatever is he doing?

Wherever does she live?

### **c) Other Structures that Look Like Questions**

There are some structures that start neither with auxiliary nor with wh-word but they function as question. The structures are:

i) Tag question

ii) Alternative question

iii) Exclamatory question

iv) Rhetorical question.

(Source: Celce-Murcia & Larsen-Freeman 1999, p. 259)

i) A tag question is a short question form appended to a statement. The tag question generally contrasts in polarity with the statement, that is, when the statement is affirmative, the tag is negative and vice versa.

e.g. You are a businessman, aren't you?

You are not a businessman, are you?

ii) Alternative question is also known as choice question and or-questions. This question offers listeners a choice between two alternatives.

a) Yes/no alternative question

e.g. Are you a student or a teacher?

Do you like tea or coffee?

b) Wh-alternative question

iii) An exclamatory question is not really a question at all but it undergoes subject-operator inversion and seeks information. It is also possible to have exclamatory questions that look like wh-question.

e.g. Is not that grand?

What a good idea?

iv) Rhetorical question is similar to an exclamatory question in that it is interrogative in form but not in function. It is used by the speaker to assert something without anticipating a response from the listener.

e.g. Have not we had enough wars?

Remember the great fluoride debate?

### **1.1.7.3 Transformational Rules**

The rules of negative and interrogative transformations are mainly derived from the secondary sources: Aarts and Aarts (1982), Thomson and Martinet (1960), Greenbaurn (1990), Celce-Murcia and Larsen-Freeman (1999), Leech and Svartick (2000), Quirk and and Sinclair (2000).

#### **a) Rules for Transforming Affirmative Sentences into Negative**

i) Simple positive sentence is negated by inserting the negative markers or

particles 'not' or 'n't' preceding by the auxiliary verb.

e.g.            Ram is a good boy.  
                  - Ram is not a good boy.

ii) If the 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 still put the form of 'do' and 'not' according to its tense and 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 a main verb, we usually put the form of 'do' followed by the base form of 'have'.

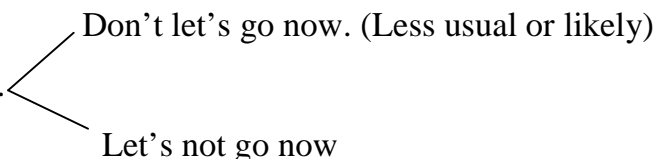
e.g.        He had a car.  
                 - He did not have a car.

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.

Let's go now. 

Don't let's go now. (Less usual or likely)  
Let's 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 dare 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 changed as follows:

<u>Affirmative</u>	<u>Negative</u>
some/every	any
too	either
as.....as	so.....as
already	yet
a lot of	many/much
and so	and neither

e.g. He knows everything.  
-He doesn't know anything.  
I have some pens.  
- I do not have any pens.  
She can play too.

- She cannot play either.
- Hari is as good as Shyam.
- Hari is not so good as Shyam.
- We have already done it.
- We have not done it yet.
- They sold a lot of apples.
- They did not sell any apples.
- I kick her and so did she.
- I did not kick her neither did she.

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

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

- e.g. I always go to school.  
 - I never go to school.  
 He is willing to say something to her.  
 - He is willing to say nothing to her.

- Everyone knows it.  
 -No one knows it.  
 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 not 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 totally negative.

e.g. We were able to move.

- We were rarely able to move.

Here is a list of the most common broad negatives:

Barely          hardly          rarely          seldom

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

e. g. It is possible to do.

-It is **im**possible to do.

He is happy.

- He is **un**happy.

I agree with you.

- I **dis**agree with you.

She is a regular student.

- She is an **ir**regular student.

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

e. g. They were completely helpful.  
-They were completely helpless.

### **b) Rule 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, then 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 base 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 the 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 labour?  
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:

e.g. She dares to ride a motorbike.

-Dare she ride a motorbike?

-Does she dare to ride a motorbike?

Judges need to be impartial.

-Need judges be impartial?

-Do judges need to be impartial?

His daughters used to be beautiful.

-Used his daughters to be beautiful?

-Did his daughters 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 of 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.

e.g. Hari has got some oranges.



-Has Hari got any oranges?

The boat has left already.

-Has the boat left yet?

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

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

e.g. Nita is not cooking rice.

-Isn't Nita cooking rice?

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

e.g. They are not the students.

-Are they not the students?

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

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?

ii) 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 to the shop?

iii) 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 she go?

iv) As in negative yes/no questions, 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?

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:

### **i. 'Who' and 'whom'**

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

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

Who did you see? (as 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 put at the end of the clause.

e.g. Who did you dance with?

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

e.g. To whom were you dancing?

## **ii. 'Whose' and 'which'**

'Whose' functions 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)

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

e.g. Which is the best restaurant?

Which item do you like best?

## **iii. 'When' and 'where'**

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

e.g. When did your cow die?

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

e.g. Where do you like?

Where is she going?

## **iv. 'Why' and 'how'**

'Why' is used to ask questions 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 questions about the way some one 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 words at the beginning of questions, e.g. how many, how much, how long, how far etc.

e.g. How many books do you have?

How long will your uncle stay here?

## **1.2 Review of Related Literature**

There are many linguistic comparative researches carried out by different researchers in the Department of English Language Education TU. Different Languages like Nepali, Limbu, Tharu, Newari, Bantawa Rai, Bhojpuri and Chhintang Rai have been compared with the English language and some pedagogical implications have been stated. There are some researches on negative and interrogative transformation. The research works which are related to this study are reviewed as follows:

Paudel (2004) compares and contrasts the process of the negative and interrogative transformations in the Limbu language with those of English in his study ‘*A Comparative Study on Negative and Interrogative Transformation in English and Panchthare Dialect of Limbu language*’. 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 Manjangabung Village Development Committees 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 (2004) has compared Rai Bantawa kinship terms with those of English on his study '*A Comparative Study of English and Rai Bantawa Kinship Terms*'. The main purpose of his study was to compare and contrast English and Rai Bantawa consanguineal and affinal kinship terms and both appellative and addressive use from both perspective male and female ego. His sample population was the native speakers of Timma, Chhinamkhu and Annarpurna 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 numbers. Most of the relations of Rai Bantawa have distinction in kinship term of male and female ego. Almost all kinship relations are addressed by kinship terms in Rai Bantawa.

Phyak (2004) has worked on '*English and Limbu pronominal: A Linguistic Comparative Study*'. The main objective of his 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 pronominal than English and even more complex. Limbu pronominal systems are different from those of English. Limbu personal and possessive pronouns are categorized under three numbers: singular, dual and plural.

Dewan (2005) has carried out a research on '*Negative and Interrogative Transformation in English and Yakkha language: A Comparative Study*' to analyze the process of negative and interrogative transformation in the Yakkha language and to 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 has found that the negative marker '-n' is used to negate the passive assertive sentence when the patient of the transitive verb is singular. The other negative marker '-ni' is used to negate the positive assertive sentence when the patient or agent of the transitive verb is plural. Whereas English negative marker 'not' is used in any situation. The yes/no interrogative particle in 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.

Kushwaha (2005) compares the English and Bhojpuri language in terms of negative and interrogative transformations on his study '*Negative and Interrogative Transformation in English and Bhojpuri: 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 district. The sample population was 60 Bhojpuri native speakers above 15 years of age. The population was divided into three groups viz. illiterate, literate and educated having 20 (10 males and 10 females) informants in each group using stratified random sampling procedure. He has found that subject auxiliary 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. Grammatical categories of aspects are realized through inflections 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.

Tumbapo (2005) has carried out a research on ‘*Verbal Affixation in Limbu and English: A Comparative Study*’. His main objective was to examine the similarities and differences in verbal affixation between Panchthare dialect of Limbu and English. He has completed his study by eliciting the data with the help of the structured interview schedule. The study was based on the sixty informants of the Chokmagu and Siwa VDCs of Panchthar district to elicit the Limbu verbal affixes. The population was selected through snowball sampling procedure. He has found that Panchthare dialect of Limbu has in-fixation system, whereas English lacks this system. Panchthare dialect of Limbu has negative marker prefixes, infixes and suffixes but English lacks. How affixes are added to the verbs depends upon even the person and number of the object of a sentence in Panchthare dialect of Limbu. But this system is not available in English.

Rai (2005) has compared the pronominals of Chintang with that of English on his study entitled ‘*Pronominals in English and Chintang: A Comparative Study*’. The main objective of his study was to compare and contrast Chintang

pronominal with those of English. He used a set of interview questionnaire as a research tool. All the informants for the study were the native speakers of Chhintang from Mulgaun and Sambugaun of Dhankuta district. The sample population was divided into three groups viz. 20 educated, 20 literate and 20 illiterate. Those who were unable to read and write were considered as illiterate, the people having academic qualification below SLC level were considered as literate and the people with academic qualification above SLC were assumed to be educated. He used stratified random sampling procedure to sample the population. He has found that Chintang has more number of pronouns for singular and plural whereas in English, the same forms are used for both singular and plural.

Khanal (2005) has compared and contrasted the affixation system in English and Maithili on his study '*A comparative Study on Affixation in English and Maithili*'. The main objective was to find out the similarities and differences in affixation system in English and Maithili languages. Some informal interviews were conducted with the linguists, grammarians, teachers and native speakers of Maithili language. Interviews were recorded in the audio cassette. Books on grammar and Morphology of English and Maithili language were consulted. His study is mainly based on secondary sources. Although, he visited some Maithili dominated areas in Nepal and some Northern parts of Bihar state of India and consulted with linguists, grammarians, teachers and native speakers of Maithili language for the conformation of the data. He has found that both English and Maithili languages have prefixes and suffixes but not the infix. To give a negative meaning in English, the prefixes like 'a-', 'un-', 'dys-', 'in-', 'off-', 'retro-', 'mis-', 'de-', 'anti-' are added to a base. In Maithili, on the other hand, the prefixes like 'a-', 'ku-', 'para', 'nir-', 'dus-', 'prati-' 'bad-', 'ati-', 'ana-', 'na-', 'sam-' are added to a base. The same prefixes are added to nouns and verbs in English but such occurrences are not found in Maithili.



Sherpa (2006) has carried out a research on '*Subject-verb agreement in English and Sherpa: A Comparative Study*'. His main objective was to compare and contrast the Sherpa language with that of English language. The native speakers of Sherpa language from Solukhumbu, Ramechhap and Dolakha districts were the population of the study. He applied quota sampling procedure for selecting the sample population. His study was based on the fifty informants to elicit the Sherpa subject-verb agreement. A set of interview questionnaire based on the objectives of the study was prepared as tools for data collection. The major findings of his study are: English and Sherpa languages are different in several respects. English verbs agree with 'person' and 'number' but the Sherpa verbs agree with categories of 'person'. In Sherpa, the nominative proper nouns in past tense and possessive proper nouns in both tense are marked by some phonological changes: if the final vowel sound is not [i] then it changes into [i]. But if the nominative or possessive proper nouns end in consonant sounds then no changes are required. Similarly, accusative proper nouns are marked by suffix '-la'.

Meheta (2006) has completed his research entitled '*A Comparative Study on Subject-Verb Agreement in the Bhojpuri and English Languages*'. The main objective of his study was to find out the main similarities and differences of subject-verb agreement in Bhojpuri and English languages. The population of the study was the Bhojpuri native speakers, English teachers teaching at secondary and lower secondary levels in the public schools of Parsa district and local Bhojpuri authors. The sample population of the study was determined judgmentally by the researcher. He has found that the Bhojpuri language has honorific and nonhonorific terms. The agreement of verb is completely guided by gender and degree of honorific of the third person subject in Bhojpuri. In English, there is no variation observed in the verb paradigm on the basis of

number of the first person subject whereas such variation is notifiable in Bhojpuri.

Poudel (2007) has carried out a research entitled '*A Comparative Study on Negative and Interrogative Transformations in the English and Bantawa Languages*'. His main objective was to compare and contrast the process of negative and interrogative transformation in Bantawa with those of English. The sample population was taken from the Khoku VDC of Dhankuta district. The sample population 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. 83 sentences in Nepali were designed to translate into Bantawa language. All the sentences in the question item were requested to transform into negative and 76 were for interrogative transformation. He has found that the affixes '-n', 'man-' are the negative markers in Bantawa whereas the 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 as an independent element. Similarly, Bantawa yes/no question formation doesn't require subject verb inversion which is essential in English. The wh-words occur after the subject in Bantawa but in English they usually occur at the beginning of the sentence.

This study is different from other researches in some respects. It compares the processes of the Puma negative and interrogative transformations with those of the English. This is the first research study that has been carried out in the Puma language under the Tribhuvan University. It focuses not only the simple negative and interrogative sentences but also to negativization of some simple imperative sentences. This study is carried out in the perspectives of the Puma negative and interrogative process. Negative transformations in terms of tense, persons, and numbers and of imperative sentences are its main focuses and

interrogative transformations are also focused on the Puma interrogative process.

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

The objectives of the present study are as follows:

- a. To identify the processes of negative and interrogative transformations in the Puma Rai language.
- b. To compare and contrast the processes of negative and interrogative transformation in the English and Puma Rai languages and to find out the similarities and differences between them.
- c. To suggest some pedagogical implications.

### **1.4 Significance of the Study**

This study will be advantageous for those people who teach English to the native speakers of the Puma Rai language. Similarly, the findings of this study will be significant for the syllabus designers, language experts, linguists, textbook writers, grammarians and testing experts. This study will be the valuable research for English language education department. 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 the source or base of the Puma grammar as well.

## 1.5 Definition of the Specific Terms

**Chandinach:** - A festival celebrated by the Kirat ethnic group in the occasion of coming year and going year twice a year.

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

**Ethnic:** - connected with or belonging to a nation, race or tribe that shares a cultural tradition

**Lingua franca:** - A shared language of communication used by people whose main languages are different

**Mother tongue:** - The language that we first learn to speak when we are a child or the learner's first language

**Native speaker:** - A person who speaks a language as their first language and not learned it as a foreign language.

**Pidgin:** - Language with a very limited vocabulary and a simplified grammar. Pidgins usually arise to permit communication between groups with no language in common; if a pidgin becomes as established the native language of a group, it is known as a Creole.

**Sontum:** - The ancestors of the family (A Puma Word).

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

## **CHAPTER – TWO**

### **METHODOLOGY**

The following methodology was adopted to conduct this research.

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

The researcher collected the data from both primary and secondary sources.

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

The Puma Rai native speakers of Diplung and Mauwabote VDCs of Khotang district were the primary sources of data from which the researcher elicited required data for the study. The researcher herself is one of the primary sources of data.

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

Different books, journals, magazines, theses, different materials from the different internet and other related materials were the secondary sources of data. Some of them were Quark et al. (1985), Celce-Murcia and Larsen-Freeman (1999), Thomson and Martinet (1986), Sinclair (1990), and so on.

#### **2.2 Sampling Procedure**

The total sampling population was 60 Puma Rai native speakers of Diplung and Mauwabote VDCs of Khotang district. Among them 30 native speakers were

selected from Diplung and 30 from Mauwabote. The selected native speakers of each VDC were divided into two groups: 15 literate and 15 illiterate, by using stratified random sampling procedure and the required data were elicited.

### **2.3 Research Tool**

The data were elicited from the selected Puma Rai native speakers by using structured interview as a research tool. The research tool was the structured questionnaire which was prepared and asked to the Puma native speakers of the selected VDCs i.e. Diplung and Mauwabote of Khotang district.

### **2.4 Process of Data Collection**

The researcher visited the selected VDCs and established a good rapport with the selected Puma native speakers. Then she took structured interview. She herself wrote the responses of those who could not read and write or write clearly. Those who could write clearly were asked to write the responses themselves.

### **2.5 Limitations of the Study**

The study was carried out with the following limitations:

- a. The study was limited to Puma Rai native speakers of only Diplung and Mauwabote VDCs of Khotang district.
- b. The study was limited to only the process of simple negative and interrogative transformations in the Puma Rai language which were compared with those of English.
- c. The total study population was limited to only 60 native speakers of the Puma Rai language.

## CHAPTER - THREE

### ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION

This chapter deals with the analysis and interpretation of the data collected by the researcher for her research study. To achieve the objectives of the study, the elicited data were intensively studied, analyzed, compared and contrasted systematically with those of English. The analysis and interpretation of the data has been presented below.

#### **3.1 Negative and Interrogative Transformations in the Puma Language**

The processes of negative and interrogative transformations in the Puma language are separately presented below:

##### **3.1.1 Process of Negative Transformation in Puma Rai Language.**

The processes of negative transformation in terms of tense, person and number and imperative sentences in the Puma language are separately presented in the following way.

##### **3.1.1.1 Negative Transformation in Terms of Tense**

- |   |   |
|---|---|
| 1. khokku ro ki.<br>she rice cook.<br>She cooks rice. | Khokku ro <b>p</b> kinin.<br>she rice <b>Neg-cook-neg</b><br>She doesn't cook rice. |
| 2. a khim pu a<br>i home go                           | a khim <b>p</b> pu <b>n</b> .<br>i home <b>neg-go-neg</b> .                         |

I go home.	I do not go home.
3. kta m nna ria a man laughing A man is laughing.	kta m nna <b>p rininya</b> . a man <b>neg-laugh-neg-ing</b> A man is not laughing.
4. khokku w k dhokda. he field dug He dug field.	Khokku w k <b>p dhokden</b> . he field <b>neg-dug-neg</b> . He didn't dig the field.
5. khoku aksi caa she banana ate She ate banana.	khokku aksi <b>p caen</b> . she banana <b>neg-ate-neg</b> . She didn't eat banana.
6. khokku amba lakksa a she mango selling She was selling mango.	khokku amba <b>p laksenya</b> she mango <b>neg-selling-neg</b> She was not selling mango.
7. khokkuci khimko do m ipsa a they house inside They were sleeping inside the house.	khokkuci khimko do <b>nip ipsenya</b> they house inside <b>neg-sleep-neg-ing</b> They were not sleeping inside the house.
8. kh nna amba t huda you mango bought You bought mango.	kh nna amba t <b>huden</b> you mango bought <b>neg</b> You bought the mango.
9. kecika bu kha imcika we outside sleep We sleep outside.	kecika bu kha <b>p imciminka</b> we outside <b>neg-sleep-neg</b> We do not sleep outside.



After analyzing the Puma negative transformation in terms of tense the following findings are derived.

i) There are four tenses in the Puma language; past, past progressive, non-past and non-past progressive.

ii) In the Puma Rai language, the negative marker is attached to the verb of sentence. Generally, we can find two negative makers in a sentence.

e.g. a khulaitni pu a (I go to jungle.)

- a khulaitni **p** pu **n** .(I do not go to jungle.)

a kta r nlenkha chap a a (I am writing a story.)

- a kta r nlenkha **p** chap**n** ya ( I am not writing a story.)

kecika tit hudacika (we bought clothes.)

-kecika tit **p** hucim**inka**.(We did not bought clothes.)

iii) The two negative markers are attached with all the verbs of first and third person except dual third person and second persons of all tenses.

eg kh nna tayakhim t puksa (you went to school.) singular

-kh nna tayakhim t puks**n**

kh nnaci lamdo t phindaci (you jumped on the road.) dual

- kh nnaci lamdo t hindac**imin**

kh nnanin t khapaci (you cried.) plural

-kh nnanin t khapac**imin**

khokkuci p khapaci (they cried.) dual

-khokkuci p khapac**imin**

**Note:** the 'p -' in the third person dual is not a negative maker but a pronominal maker.

iv.) The negative makers are determined in terms of person and number rather than it's tense.

eg; a ro ca a (I eat rice.)

- a ro **p can** (I do not eat rice.)
- a ro cao ya (I was eating rice.)
- a ro **p can** ya (I was not eating rice.)
- kh nna t puksa (You went to school.)
- kh nna t puksen (You did not went to school.)
- khannaci t pu ca ci (you were going.)
- khannaci t puksacimin

Note: negative markers are also pronominalized.

V) The last [a] sound of past verb changes into [e] and the negative marker ‘-n’ is added in case of the past tense.

vi) In the past progressive tense of second person plural number, the last [n] sound converts into its corresponding sound [m].

e.g. kh nnanin ca t caa anin ( You were eating rice.)

-kh nnanin ca t caa animin (You were not eating rice.)

### 3.1.1.2 Negative Transformation in Terms of Person and Number.

#### A. First Person

Examples:

- |                                 |                               |
|---------------------------------|-------------------------------|
| 1. a meladitni pu a (sing.)     | a meladitni <b>p pu n</b>     |
| i market-to go                  | i market-to <b>neg-go-neg</b> |
| I go to market.                 | I go to market.               |
| 2. keci tit huci (dl. incl.)    | keci tit <b>p hucimin</b>     |
| we clothes buy                  | we clothes <b>neg-buy-neg</b> |
| We buy clothes.                 | We do not buy clothes.        |
| 3. kecika ro cacika (dl. excl.) | kecika ro <b>p caciminka</b>  |
| we rice eat                     | we rice <b>neg-eat-neg</b>    |

We eat rice.	We do not eat rice.
4. ke meladitni puksi (plural inclusive) we market-to go We go to market.	ke meladitni <b>p</b> puksimin we market-to <b>neg-go-neg</b> We do not go to market.
5. keka kagajdo chapdika (pl. excl.) We paper-in write We write in the paper.	keka kagajdo <b>p</b> chapdiminka We paper-in <b>neg-write-neg</b> We do not write in the paper.

i) The first person negative markers are affixes: ‘p -’, ‘n ’ and ‘min’ as shown in the above examples. The prefix ‘p -’ is the common negative marker and ‘-n ’ is a suffix which is added to the verb of first person singular number to make it negative. And the affix ‘-min’ is common to all first person verbs except singular number.

ii) The negative marker ‘-min’ is added to the verb as a suffix to the first person dual inclusive and first person plural inclusive.

iii) The negative marker ‘-min-’ is infix to the verb of first person dual exclusive and first person plural exclusive.

## B. Second Person

Examples:

1. kh nna khu do t ca (sing.) you plate-on eat You eat on the plate.	kh nna khu do t <b>canin</b> you plate-on eat- <b>neg</b> You do not eat on the plate.
2. kh nnaci sakhant kici (dl.) you meat cook You cook meat.	kh nnaci sakhant kici <b>min</b> you meat cook- <b>neg</b> You do not cook meat.
3. kh nnanin kathmandu t puksi (p.l.)	kh nnaninkathmandut puksimin

you	kathmandu	go	you kathmandu go- <b>neg</b>
You go to kathmandu.			You do not go to kathmandu.
4. kh	nna	kitab t huda(sing.past)	kh nna kitab t hud <b>n</b>
you	book	bought	you book bought- <b>neg</b>
You bought a book.			You did not buy a book.

- i) The second person negative markers are ‘-nin’, ‘-n’ and ‘-min’.
- ii) The negative marker ‘-nin’ is attached to the second person singular verb and ‘-min’ with the dual and plural verbs.
- iii) In the past tense, the suffix ‘-n’ is attached to the verb after the change of [a] sound into [e].

i.e. khokku puksa(He went.)  
khokku p puksen (He didn't go.)

### C. Third Person

Examples:

1. khokku	chaplawa	chap (sing.)	khokku chaplawa <b>p</b> chap <b>nin</b>
he/she	letter	write	he/she letter <b>neg</b> -write- <b>neg</b>
He/She writes a letter.			He/she does not write a letter.
2. khokkuci	chaplawa	p chapci(dl.)	khokkuci chaplawa p chapci <b>min</b>
they	letter	write	they letter write- <b>neg</b>
They write a letter.			They do not write a letter.
3. Khokkuci	tembudo	m phin (pl.)	Khokkuci tembudo <b>nip</b> h <b>innin</b>
they	foreground-on	jump	they foreground-on <b>neg</b> -jump- <b>neg</b>
They jump on the foreground.			They do not jump on the foreground.

- i) The third person negative markers are ‘p -’, ‘-min’, ‘ni-’ and ‘nin’.
- ii) The negative marker ‘p -’ is prefixed to the third person singular number verb, ‘-min’ with dual marker and ‘nin’ with plural marker.

iii) In the third person dual number, the prefix ‘p -’ is not a negative marker as in others but a pronominal marker. So, only one negative marker ‘min’ is suffixed to the verb.

iv) In the process of the third person dual number’s negativization, prefix ‘ni-’ is also attached by some native speakers.

e.g. khokuci tembudo p phinci(They jump on the foreground.)

- khokkuci tembudo **nip phincimin**

Khokkuci chaplawa p chapci

-khokkuci chaplawa **nip chapcimin**

v) In the case of the third person plural number, the prefix ‘ni-’ and suffix ‘-nin’ are negative markers. The /m/ sound of the assertive verb is assimilated to /p/ sound in the process of negativization.

More examples:

Khokkuci m ri (They laugh.)

-Khokkuci **nip rinin** (They do not laugh.)

Khokkuci m khap (They cry.)

-Khokkuci **nikhapnin** (They do not cry.)

But some of the native speakers add only ‘nin’ with the third person plural verb in the process of negativization.

e.g. khokkuci m khap( They cry.)

-khokkuci m khap**nin**

khokkuci ca m ki (They cook meal.)

-khokkuci ca m **kinin**

### 3.1.1.3 Negative Transformation of Imperative Sentences

Examples:

1. bu kha puksa

out go

bu kha **menpu da**

out **neg-go**

Go out.	Don't go out.
2. b ddhe yu a too-much sit Sit too much.	b ddhe <b>menyu</b> da too much <b>neg</b> -sit Do not sit too much.
3. bu kha loindakina khelalisa outside go-and play Go outside and play.	bu kha loindakina khela <b>men</b> nlida outside go-and play- <b>neg</b> -do Don't go outside and play.

i) According to the above examples, imperative assertive sentences are made by affixing 'men' to the verbs.

ii) In compound verb, the imperative negative marker 'men' is infixes.

iii) The [s] sound of assertive sentence changes into [d] and if there is no [s] sound extra [d] is added to the verb while making negative and the [k] sound changes into [ ] and [p] into [m].

e.g. laksa (sell)	<b>men</b> la da (Don't sell.)
khupsa (wake up)	<b>men</b> khumda (Don't wake up.)
yu a (sit)	<b>menyu</b> da (Don't sit.)
caa (eat)	<b>men</b> cada (Do not eat.)

### 3.1.2 Interrogative Transformation in the Puma Language

#### 3.1.2.1 Yes/No Question

Examples:

1. khokkulai asasetma k sukhali. he-to fish kill-to like He likes fishing.	Khokkulai asasetma k sukhali? he-to fish kill-to likes? Does he like fishing?
2. a mor di yu a I Morang-in live I live in Morang.	a mor di yu a? i Morang-in live? Do I live in Morang?

3. kh nna to yami	kh nna to yami?
you student	you student?
You are a student.	Are you a student?

i) In the Puma language, yes/no questions in written form are marked by only putting interrogative mark at the end of the sentence as shown in the above examples

ii) The intonation pattern is changed, i.e. falling into rising in speech.

iii) Subject-verb inversion is not found in the Puma language.

iv) The copula verb 'be' is not found in the Puma language.

### 3.1.2.2 Wh-Question

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

Wh-word in English and Puma.

<u>English</u>	<u>Puma</u>
What	doro/n mma
Who	sa
Where	khado
Why	n mmakina
Whose	sabo
When	demkha/khap gari
Which	khakku
How	kh s ni

Examples:

1. khokkuci khak k cinci. (sa)	tokkuci <b>saci</b> ?
they teachers	they who
They are teachers.(Who)	Who are they?

- |  |  |
|--|--|
| <p>2. khokku ca kiya (doro)<br/> she meal cooking<br/> She is cooking meal. (What)</p>   | <p>khokku <b>doro</b> kiya ?<br/> she what cooking<br/> What is she cooking?</p>                               |
| <p>3. khokuci khela m liya (n mma)<br/> They play doing<br/> They are playing. (What)</p>  | <p>khokuci <b>n mma</b> m ciya ?<br/> they what doing<br/> What are they doing?</p>                            |
| <p>4. a u ch nnao yu a (sao )<br/> i my-aunt-with live<br/> I live with my aunt. (Whom)</p>  | <p>a <b>sao</b> yu a?<br/> i whom-with live<br/> With whom do I live?</p>                                      |
| <p>5. kh nna cisapanido t yu (khado)<br/> you Chisapani-at live<br/> You live at Chisapani. (Where)</p>  | <p>kh nna <b>khado</b> t yu ?<br/> you where live<br/> Where do you live?</p>                                  |
| <p>6. b ddhe wa taakina khokku dhilo<br/> lisa(n mmakina)<br/> heavy rain came-and he late became<br/> Because of the heavy rain he became<br/> late.(why)</p> | <p><b>n mmakina</b> khokku dhilo lisa?<br/> why he late became<br/> Why did he become late?</p>                |
| <p>7. kku r mesbo k l m (sabo)<br/> This Ramesh's pen<br/> This is Ramesh's pen. (Whose)</p>   | <p>kku <b>sabo</b> k l m?<br/> this whose pen<br/> Whose pen is this?</p>                                      |
| <p>8. a k setlam pac b je khum a<br/> (khapp g ri)<br/> I morning five o'clock wake up<br/> I wake up at five o'clock in the<br/> morning. (When)</p>          | <p>a k setlam <b>khapp g ri</b> khum a?<br/> I morning when wake up<br/> When do I wake up in the morning?</p> |
| <p>9. raju j n w rido USA pu ya (demkha)<br/> Raju January-in USA going<br/> Raju is going to USA in January. (When)</p>                                       | <p>raju demkha USA pu ya ?<br/> Raju when USA going<br/> When is Raju going to USA?</p>                        |



10. khokkulai mak c kwa r k sukhali  
 (khakku) khokkulai **khakku** r k sukhali?  
 She-to black colour like her-to which colour like  
 She likes black colour. (Which) Which colour does she like?
11. a b sdo k benong (kh s ni) a kh s ni benong?  
 I bus-by came I how came  
 I came by bus.(how) How did I come?
12. khokkup do sumra khipaci m yu ya khokkup do **demk ra** khipaci  
 (demk ra) m yu ya ?  
 He with three dogs are him to how many dogs are  
 He has three dogs.(How many) How many dogs has he got?
13. u b a p do ss muri cahukwa yu ya u b a p do **demni** cahukwa  
 (demni) yu ya ?  
 my uncle with two muri rice is ncle with my how much rice is  
 My uncle has two muri rice. How much rice does my uncle  
 have?
14. kku dum nimnalai r ma p linin kku dum **salai** r ma  
 (salai) p linin?  
 This matter other person to tell should not this matter whom to tell should  
 not  
 We should not tell this matter to other Whom should not we tell this  
 person. matter?

i) In the Puma language, the equivalent to English wh-question words are formed by substituting the object or answer by the equivalent English wh-words. i. e. see above examples.

ii) We cannot find subject-verb inversion in Puma language while making wh-question.

iii) The sentence structure of Puma wh-question is:

*subject+ question word+ verb?(verb is compulsory.)*

vi) The Basic Wh-question words in the English language are eight in Number and The equivalent to English wh-question words in the Puma language are ten in number. (See the above list)

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

The processes of negative and interrogative transformations in the Puma language are analyzed and interpreted above. The processes of these transformations of both Puma and English are comparatively studied and analyzed below:

#### **3.2.1 Comparison of Negative Transformation**

##### **3.2.1.1 Negative Transformation in Terms of Tense**

###### **a) Non-Past Tense**

<u>Puma</u>	<u>English</u>
1. a khim pu a I home go a khim p pu n I home <b>neg-go-neg</b>	I go home I do <b>not</b> go home.
2.khokku ro ki she rice cook khokku ro p kinin She rice <b>neg-cook-neg</b>	She cooks rice. She does <b>not</b> cook rice.
3. kh nna cham t mu you song sing	You sing a song.

kh nna cham t munin	
You song sing-neg	You does <b>not</b> sing a song.
4. khokkuci mela m pu	
they market go	They go to market.
khokkuci mela m pu nin	
they market go-neg	They do <b>not</b> go to market.
5. kh nnanin kag jdo t chapdi	
you paper on write	You will write on the paper.
kh nnanin kag jdo t chapdimin	
You on the paper write- <b>neg</b>	You will <b>not</b> write on the paper.

**b) Past Tense**

1. a khim pukso	
I home went	I went home.
a khim p pu n	
I home <b>neg-went-neg</b>	I did <b>not</b> go home.
2.kh nna kho niku sari t huda	
You cute sari bought	You bought a cute sari.
kh nna kho niku sari t huden	
you cute sari bought- <b>neg</b>	You did <b>not</b> buy a cute sari.
3. keka ca caaninka	
we meal ate	We ate meal.
keka ca caaniminka	
we meal ate- <b>neg</b>	We did <b>not</b> eat meal.
4. kh nnaci bu kha t ipsaci	
you outside slept	You slept outside.
kh nnaci bu kha t ipsacimin	
you outside slept- <b>neg</b>	You did <b>not</b> sleep outside.

5. khokkucia sel p laksaci

they bread sold

They sold the bread.

khokkucia sel p laksacimin

they bread sold-**neg**

They did **not** sell the bread.

6. khokku bariya dhokda

he field-on dug

He dug on the field.

khokku bariya dhokden

he field-on dug-**neg**

He did **not** dig on the field.

### c) Non-Past Progressive

1. a tayakhim pu a a

I school going

I am going to school.

a tayakhim p pu n ya

I school **neg-going-neg**

I am **not** going to school.

2. kh nna mamphuli t caya

you almond eating

You are eating almond.

kh nna mamphuli t caninya

you almond eating-**neg**

You are **not** eating almond.

3. kh nnaci t rica ci

you laughing

You are laughing

kh nnaci t rica cimin

you laughing-**neg**

You are not laughing.

4. khokkuci ca m kiya

they meal cooking

They are coking meal.

khokkuci ca m kininya

they meal cooking-**neg**

They are **not** cooking meal.

### d) Past Progressive

1. a mela pukso ya

I market going a mela <b>p pu n</b> ya	I was going market.
I market <b>neg-going-neg</b>	I was <b>not</b> going market.
2.khokku caurido ipsa a he lawn-on sleeping khokku caurido <b>p</b> ipsenya he lawn-on <b>neg-sleeping-neg</b>	
	He was sleeping on the lawn.
	He was <b>not</b> sleeping on the lawn.
3.kh nna khu t huda a you plate buying kh nna khu t hudenya You plate buying- <b>neg</b>	
	You were buying a plate.
	You were <b>not</b> buying a plate.
4. khokkuci p ria aci They laughing khokkuci p ria acimin they laughing- <b>neg</b>	
	They were laughing.
	They were <b>not</b> laughing.

After analyzing the negative transformation in terms of tense of both the Puma and English languages the following similarities and differences are found:

- i) Both Puma and English have the processes of negative and interrogative transformations.
- ii) The sentence structure of **English** is: *subject+verb+object* however of the **Puma** is: *subject+object+verb*.
- iii) The negative marker of English is 'not', but the negative markers of Puma are: 'p -', 'n ', 'nin', 'min', '-n' and 'ni-'.The negative markers 'n ', 'nin',and 'min' can be used as both suffix and prefix.
- iv) In English, 'not' is an independent word that is used in sentence level negation. But Puma negative markers are affixes that are attached to the verb of the sentences.

- v) English negative marker 'not' always follows as auxiliary verb but Puma negative markers are combined to the verb.
- vi) Puma negative markers are pronominalized in nature whereas English negative marker is common to all persons.
- vii) Puma negative marker also depends on the tense of the sentence in some cases but English negative markers are common to all tenses.

### 3.2.1.2 Comparison of Negative Transformation in Terms of Person and Number

#### a) First Person

<u>Puma</u>	<u>English</u>
1. a kta kitap hu a I a book buy a kta kitap <b>p</b> hun I a book <b>neg-buy-neg</b>	I buy a book.  I do <b>not</b> buy a book.
2. keci tit huci (dl. excl.) we clothes buy Keci tit <b>p</b> hucimin we clothes <b>neg-buy-neg</b>	We buy clothes.  We do <b>not</b> buy clothes.
3. kecika ro cacika (dl. excl.) we rice ate kecika ro <b>p</b> caaciminka we rice <b>neg-ate-neg</b>	We ate rice.  We did <b>not</b> ate rice.
4. ke aksi laksa anin (pl. incl.) we banana selling ke aksi laksa anin <b>p</b> laksa animin we banana selling <b>neg-selling-neg</b>	We were selling banana.  We were <b>not</b> selling banana.
5. keka kagajdo chapdika (pl. incl.)	

we paper-on write  
keka kagajdo **p** chapdiminka

We write on the paper.  
We do **not** write on the paper.

## b) Second Person

1. kh nna khu do t ca (sing.)

you plate-on eat

You eat on the plate.

kh nna khu do t **canin**

you plate-on eat-**neg**

You do **not** eat on the plate.

2. kh nnaci cakha t caca ci (dl.)

you porridge eating

You are eating porridge.

kh nnaci cakha t caca **cimin**

you porridge eating-**neg**.

You are **not** eating porridge.

3. kh nnnin meladitni t puksa anin.(pl.)

you market-to going

You were going to market.

kh nanin meladitni t puksa **animin**

you market-to going-**neg**

You were **not** going to market.

4. kh nna kitap t huda (sing.)

you book bought

You had buy a book.

kh nna kitap t **huden**

you book bought-**neg**

You had **not** buy a book.

## c) Third Person

1. khokku chaplawa chap (sing.)

he letter write

He writes a letter.

khokku chaplawa **p** chap**nin**

he letter **neg-write-neg**

He does **not** write a letter.

2. khokkuci p phindaci (dl.)

They jumped

They jumped.

khokkuci p phindac**imin**

they	jumped- <b>neg</b>	They did <b>not</b> jump.
3. khokkuci w k p dhokca ci (dl.)		
they	field digging	They are digging the field.
khokkuci w k p dhokca <b>cimin</b>		
they	field digging- <b>neg</b>	They are <b>not</b> digging the field.
4. khokkuci jhara m phinda a (pl.)		
they	all jumping	They were all jumping.
khokkuci jhara <b>nip</b> phindenya		
they all	<b>neg</b> -jumping- <b>neg</b>	They all were <b>not</b> jumping.

The following similarities and differences are found after the study of Puma and English negation processes in terms of person and number:

- i) Both the English and Puma languages have three persons: first, second and third.
- ii) English has two numbers: singular and plural whereas Puma has three: singular, dual and plural. In case of first person, Puma has first person singular ( a:I), dual inclusive (keci:we), dual exclusive (kecika:we), plural inclusive (ke:we) and plural exclusive (keka:we) but English has only two: singular(I) and plural(we). This is shown in the following table:

Table No. 1. Personal Numbers

Pronoun Language	Singular	Dual		Plural	
		Dual Inclusive	Dual Exclusive	Plural Inclusive	Plural Exclusive
<b>Puma</b>	a	keci	kecika	ke	keka
<b>English</b>	I	we	we	we	we



- iii) English second person indicator pronoun is only one (you) whereas Puma has three different forms: singular (kh nna:you), dual (kh nnaci:you) and (kh nnanin:you). It can be shown in the following table:

Table No. 2. Second Person Pronoun

<b>2<sup>nd</sup> Person Language</b>	<b>Singular</b>	<b>Dual</b>	<b>Plural</b>
Puma	kh nna	kh nnaci	kh nnanin
English	You	You	You

- iv) Gender specific terms of third person singular pronoun in English are ‘he’ for male and ‘she’ for female but Puma has no such gender specific term; it has only one gender marker pronoun for both male and female (khokku).
- v) English has only one negative marker ‘not’ in all cases on person and number but Puma consists of number wise negative markers. Look at the Following table:

Table No. 3. Puma Negative Markers

<b>First Person Negative Marker</b>	‘p -’, ‘-n’, and ‘-min’
<b>Second Person Negative Marker</b>	‘-nin’, ‘-n’, and ‘-min’
<b>Third Person Negative Marker</b>	‘p -’, ‘-min’, ‘-nin’ and ‘ni-’

- vi) English negative marker ‘not’ is added as an independent word while making sentence negative, on the contrary, the negative marker of the Puma language is affixed to the verb in the process of negation.
- vii) In English negation process, an auxiliary verb (preceding to ‘not’) is necessary that shows the person number and tense of the sentence

but the Puma language does not have any auxiliary verb, the main verb itself shows the person, number and tense of the sentence.

viii) The Pattern of English negative sentence: Subject+Auxiliary Verb+**not**+...

e.g. You **did not** eat mangoes.

You **are not** a farmer.

ix) The pattern of Puma negative sentence: Subject+Object+**neg**-Verb-**neg**. e.g. a ro **p can** .

Khokkuci **nip rinin**.

**Note:** We can find double negation in all number and person except all number of **second person** and **third person dual** number.

### 3.2.1.3 Negative Transformation of Imperative Sentences

The processes of negative transformation of Imperative sentence are comparatively studied and analyzed as follow:

<u>Puma</u>	<u>English</u>
1. bu kha puksa out go	GO out
bu kha <b>menpu</b> da out <b>neg-go</b>	<b>Don't</b> go out.
2. b ddhe yu a too much sit	Do sit too much.
b ddhe <b>menyu</b> da too much <b>neg-sit</b>	<b>Don't</b> sit too much.
3. khupsa wake up.	Wake up
<b>menkhumda</b> <b>neg-wake up</b>	<b>Don't</b> wake up.

4. bu kha londakina khelalisa

out go-and play

Go out and play.

bu kha londakina khelamenlida

out go-and play-**neg**-do

**Don't** go out and play.

The following similarities and differences are found after the comparative analysis of the imperative sentences of the two languages:

- i) Both languages have imperative sentences.
- ii) Both languages have the only one imperative negative marker.
- iii) English imperative sentences starts from the verb but in Puma, imperative verb occurs at the end of the sentences.
- iv) English imperative negative marker 'not' is always preceded by 'Do' and followed by the verb whereas Puma imperative negative marker 'men' is attached to the verb.
- v) In English imperative sentence, the sound or word is not affected in the process of negation. In the contrary, the [s] sound of verb changes into [d] and if there is no [s] sound, extra [d] sound is added to the verb while making negative and the [k] sound into [ ]. If there is {ps} sound in the verb, [p] is changed into [m] and [s] into[d]. See the above example No. (3)

### **3.2.2 Comparison of Interrogative Transformation of the English and Puma Language**

#### **3.2.2.1) Yes/No Question**

The yes/no question transformations of the Puma and English are comparatively Studied and analyzed as below:

<u>Puma</u>	<u>English</u>
1. a mor do yu a I Morang-in live	I live in Morang.

a mor do yu a?	
I Morang-in live?	Do I live in Morang?
2. khokkulai asasetma k sukhali.	
he-to fish-kill his-like	He likes fishing.
khokkulai asasetma k sukhali?	
he-to fish-kill his-like ?	Does he like fishing?
3. kh nna to yami	
you student	You are a student.
kh nna ti yami?	
you student?	Are you a student?
4. rima chaplawawa chapya	
rima etter writing	Rima is writing a letter.
rima chaplawawa chapya ?	
rima letter writing?	Is Rima writing a letter?

After the analysis of yes/no question transformation, the following similarities and differences are found:

- i) Both languages have yes/no question but the processes are different.
- ii) English language needs an auxiliary verb while making yes/no question but Puma need not.
- iii) English yes/no questions begin with an auxiliary verb, but Puma language has intonation question (question end with rising tone).
- iv) Subject-verb inversion takes place in making English yes/no question, but this is not the case in Puma language.

### 3.2.2.2 Wh-Question

The Wh-question transformation of English and the equivalent of English wh-question in Puma are comparatively studied and analyzed as below:

<u>Puma</u>	<u>English</u>
1. u n rc na (doro) my-name Archana (doro) u n doroo? my-name what	My name is Archana. (What)  What is my name?
2. kh nna dh rando t yu (khado) you Dharan-at live (khado) kh nna khado t yu ? you where live?	You live at Dharan.(Where)  Where do you live?
3. kku himalbo k khim (sabo) This Himal's his house (sabo)  kku sabo k khim? this whose his-house?	This is Himal's house. (Whose)  Whose house is this?
4. khokku b sdo k bena (kh s ni) he bus-by came Khokku kh s ni bena? (kh s ni) he how came?	He came by bus. (How)  How did he come?
5. kh nna jundo uk t pu ya (demkha) you June-on UK go  kh nna demkha uk t pu ya ? you when UK go?	You are going to UK on June. (When)  When are you going to UK?

6. tokkuci to yamici (sa)  
 they students (sa) They are students. (Who)  
 tokkuci saci?  
 they who? Who are they?
7. enbo ss ra khipaci yu ya ci (demk ra)  
 our two dogs are We have two dogs. (How)  
 enbo demk ra khipaci yu ya ci?  
 our how many dogs are? How many dogs do we have?

The following similarities and differences are found after the study and analysis of the wh-question transformation:

- i) Both languages have interrogative sentences.
- ii) English wh-question words precede the auxiliary verb but Puma question words occurs after the subject.
- iii) Subject-verb inversion is found in English wh-interrogation whereas that is not found in Puma.
- iv) The basic Wh-question words in the English language are eight in number and the equivalent to English wh-question words in the Puma language are ten in number.
- v) The equivalent to English ‘what’ is ‘doro’ and ‘n mma’ in Puma. They are synonymous words.
- vi) The equivalent to English ‘whom’ is ‘sao ’ and ‘salai’ in Puma. They are also synonymous. ‘sao ’ is equivalent to ‘with whom’ and ‘salai’ is to ‘to whom’
- vii) The equivalent to English ‘when’ is ‘demkha’ and ‘khap g ri’. Generally, ‘demkha’ is used to ask the time of year or month and ‘khap g ri’ is used to ask the time of day, o’clock etc.

## **CHAPTER - FOUR**

### **FINDINGS AND RECOMMENDATIONS**

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

The major findings of the present study are as follows:

##### **4.1.1 Processes of Negative and Interrogative Transformations in Puma**

- i. In the Puma language, the negative markers are determined in terms of person and number. Tense does not bring much difference.
- ii. There are seven negative markers in the Puma language, i.e. ‘p ’, ‘n ’, ‘min’, ‘nin’, ‘n’, ‘ni’ and ‘men’ which are attached to the verb of the sentence.
- iii. Among the Puma negative markers, ‘p -’ and ‘ni-’ are prefixes and rest of them function as either infix or suffix according to the tense of the verb.
- iv. The Puma language is a pronominal language and negative markers are also pronominalized.
- v. There are only four tenses in the Puma language, i.e. past, non-past, past progressive and non-past progressive.
- vi. The negative marker of imperative sentence is ‘men-’ in the Puma language which is different from the assertive negative markers.
- vii. In the Puma language, we can find double negatives except in second person and third person dual number of all tenses.
- viii. The negative process does not confine to syntactic level; phonological process also involves in the Puma language. The [s]

sound of imperative verb is changed into [d]. If there is no [s] sound extra [d] sound is added to the verb to make it negative and [k] sound changes into [ ] and [p] into [m]. i.e. *puksa* - *menpu da* and *khupsa* – *menkhumda*.

- ix. In the Puma language, yes/no questions are marked by only putting interrogative mark (?) at the end of the sentence in written form and in speech; the intonation is changed from falling to rising.
- x. The question words in the Puma language are ten in number. They are: *doro/n mma* (what), *sa* (who), *khado* (where) *n mmakina*(why) *sabo* (whose), *demkha\khap gari*(when), *khakku* (which), *kh s ni* (how).
- xi. We cannot find subject-verb inversion in Puma language while making wh-questions.
- xii. The sentence structure of Puma wh-question is:

*subject+ question word+ verb?(verb is compulsory.)*

#### **4.1.2 Similarities and Differences in the Processes of Negative and Interrogative Transformations Between English and Puma**

##### **A. Similarities**

- i. Both languages have negative and interrogative markers.
- ii. Both languages have subject, verb and object in a simple sentence.
- iii. Both languages have three numbers: first, second and third.
- iv. Both languages have imperative sentences as well as imperative negative markers.
- v. Both languages have only one imperative negative marker.
- vi. Both languages have yes/no question.



- vii. The English language has wh-question words and the Puma language also has the equivalent question words to the English one.

## **B. Differences**

- i. The Puma language has three persons (first, second and third) and three numbers (singular, dual and plural). But English has only two numbers (singular and plural). There is a significant point to note that the Puma language has inclusive and exclusive pronouns in the case of first person. Which are not found in English.
- ii. English negative marker 'not' always follows an auxiliary verb but Puma negative markers are directly attached to the verb.
- iii. Subject-verb inversion, which is obligatory in forming interrogation in English, it is lacking in Puma interrogative transformation.
- iv. The sentence structure of English is: subject + verb + object however of the Puma is: subject + object + verb.
- v. English second person indicator pronoun is only one (you) whereas Puma has three different forms: singular (kh nna:you), dual (kh nnaci:you) and (kh nnanin:you).
- vi. English has two gender specific terms for animate, i.e. 'he' for male and 'she' for female. But the Puma has only one, i.e. 'khokku'.
- vii. English has only one sentence level negative marker 'not' (or n't) in all persons and numbers but Puma consists of number wise negative markers. i.e first person negative markers: 'pΛ-', '-nΛŋ' and '-min', second person negative markers: '-nin', '-n', and '-min' and third person negative markers: 'pΛ-', 'min', '-nin' and 'ni'.
- viii. An auxiliary verb (preceding to 'not') is necessary in the English negation process that marks the person, number and tense of the

sentence but the Puma language does not have any auxiliary verb, the main verb and the negative markers attached to it mark the person, number and tense of the sentence.

- ix. The pattern of the English negative sentence is: subject + auxiliary verb + not..... Whereas the pattern of the Puma negative sentence is: subject + object + verb + negative marker affixes.
- x. English imperative negative marker 'not' is always preceded by 'Do' and followed by the verb whereas Puma imperative negative marker 'men' is attached to the verb.
- xi. In English imperative sentence, the sound or word is not affected in the process of negation. On the contrary, the [s] sound of verb changes into [d] and if there is no [s] sound, extra [d] sound is added to the verb while making negative and the [k] sound into [ ]. If there is {ps} sound in the verb, [p] is changed into [m] and [s] into[d].
- xii. Subject-verb inversion takes place in making English yes/no question, but this is not the case in Puma language.
- xiii. The basic wh-question words in the English language are eight in number and the equivalent to English wh-question words in the Puma language are ten in number.
- xiv. English wh-question words precede the auxiliary verb but Puma question words occurs after the subject.
- xv. Subject-verb inversion is found in English wh-interrogation whereas that is not found in Puma.

## 4.2 Recommendations

On the basis of the findings obtained from the analysis and interpretation of the collected data some recommendations and pedagogical implications have been made below:

- i. The findings of the present study show that the sentence structure and the process of negation and interrogation are different in the Puma and English language. So, it should be considered while teaching English to Puma native speakers.
- ii. There are seven negative markers in the Puma language whereas English has only one 'not'. This should be kept in mind while teaching.
- iii. The Puma language has dual numbers in all persons but English lacks it. The Puma native speakers might be confused in numbers and their negation process. So, it should be considered while teaching.
- iv. There is a significant fact that the first person of the Puma language has inclusive and exclusive pronouns and difference in the use of negative markers but English lacks such features. The students may commit several errors in learning English negative process. The language teacher should be aware of it.
- v. The Puma language does not have any auxiliary verbs in the process of negation and interrogation but they are obligatory in English. The Puma native speakers may commit errors because of it. i.e. 'I not go to school.' instead of saying 'I do not go to school.' That's why the language teacher should provide the basic knowledge of auxiliary verbs while teaching.

- vi. The Puma verbs are affected by the subject of the sentence and so are negative markers. But English negative marker is only one 'not' in all cases. So, this should be considered while teaching. In the Puma language, the imperative marker 'men-' is different than those of assertive negative markers but English has same in all sentences, i.e. 'not'. So, it should be first kept in mind while teaching imperative negation.
- vii. In the Puma language, the imperative marker 'men-' is different than those of assertive negative markers but English has same in all sentences, i.e. 'not'. So, it should be first kept in mind while teaching imperative negation.
- viii. The English imperative negative marker 'not' is always preceded by 'do' and followed by the verb but the Puma imperative negative marker 'men' is attached to the verb. In such case, the native speakers may commit errors like:
  - \*Men bAddhe yuŋa – by the English native speakers
  - \*Not sit too much. – by the Puma native speakers

To avoid the possible errors, the language teachers must be aware of the process of yes/no question.

- ix. In Puma interrogation, there is no subject-verb inversion but it is there in English. In the same way, English yes/no questions begin with auxiliary verb but Puma has only intonation question. So, the Puma native speakers may make intonation question in English as well.
  - \*<sup>1</sup>Sita ate rice?
  - \*She is dancing?

x. The interrogation process in the Puma language does not seek subject-verb inversion. So, the students may commit errors while making interrogation in English as:

\*Your name what?

\*He where go?

xi. The syllabus designers, course-book writers and testing experts should be conscious of those distinct processes of negative and interrogative transformations in the Puma language while designing the syllabuses, preparing textbooks or course-books and designing questions to test the L2 learners.

The researcher does not claim that the present study is sufficient to compare the processes of negative and interrogative transformations between the English and Puma languages as

-this study does not include all the rules of negative and interrogative transformations of the English and Puma languages.

-it is the study of only the comparison of simple sentences in Puma and English.

-this study includes only the responses of 60 Puma native speakers of Khotang district.

It is suggested that the other candidates carry out various research studies on Puma in different aspects. Furthermore, capable linguists may devote to the grammatical study of this language in near future.