CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 General Background

Language is most widely used means of communication among people. It is specially human possession. It is an abstraction based on the linguistic behaviour of its users. Jesperson (1904) defines as "Language is not an end in itself... it is a way of connection between souls, means of communication."

Human beings are distinguished from all other living creatures by language. Although, some languages may be more important than those of others according to time, place, situation, content, people etc., all languages are equally important in terms of communication values.

Language is a very complex psychological and social phenomenon in human life. So, it is common to all and only human beings. It is the most unique God's gift that sets them apart from the rest of living beings. It is the greatest accomplishment of human civilization. It is perhaps the most significant asset of human life. Sapir (1921:8) defines language as "a purely human and non-instinctive method of communicating ideas, emotions and desires by means of voluntarily produced symbols." It is the use of language that makes a life better. It is our ability to communicate through words that makes us different from animals.

1.1.1 English Language Teaching in Nepal

There are several languages spoken in the world. Among them English is the most widely used language of communication. It is probably the native language of more people than any other except Chinese. It is also used extensively as an auxiliary language. It is a global language which at present is most widely taught as a foreign language in over 100 countries. It is an invaluable means to access to new scientific, medical and technological information. It has penetracted deeply into the international domains of political life, business, safety, communication, entertainment, media and education. It has reached in every continent being either first or second or foreign or official language. It is so widely used that it is no longer the language of English people only. However, it has gained the status of an international language. It is equally used as a lingua franca so as to make communication possible among the speakers of different languages. It is also one of the official language offered by the U.N.O.

English has become an inevitable source of knowledge for non-naitve speakers because most of the important books of the world are written and translated in English. At the age of scientific discoveries and development, English is the gate way to knowledge. According to the Sthapit et al. (1994: Introduction), "The importance of English language in the present day world need not be over emphasized. It is a principal language for international communication and gateway to the world body of knowledge. In view of these facts, the English language is given great importance in the education system of Nepal." Bhattarai (1994:226) has stated that "English has become indispensable vehicle to the transmission of modern civilization in the nation. It is a passport through which one can visit the whole world and one who knows English can enjoy the advantages of the world citizen. He is received and understood everywhere. Therefore, English is the only means of preventing our isolation from the world and we will act unwisely if we allow ourselves to be enveloped in the folds of dark curtain of ignorance."

The history of teaching English in Nepal goes back to the establishment of Durabr High School, by the then Prime Minister Junga Bahadur Rana in 1910 B.S. The objective behind the establishment of this school was to extend amity and harmonious relationship with England and to educate the Rana children. Surprisingly the teaching was based on the curriculum of Indian English Schools.

The then Prime Minister Chandra Shamsher Rana established Chandra Middle School, the first English medium school outside the Kathmandu valley at Siraha. He also set up, Tribhuvan Chandra College in 1975 B.S., that makes the formal commencement of teaching/learning English in higher education in Nepal. Similarly, SLC Board, together with the development of SLC curriculum including two English papers carrying 100 full marks each, was established in 1990 B.S. Precisely, that curriculum was comprised of short stories, essays, grammar translation, anthology of verse and so forth.

Later, the New Education System Plan (NESP) was introduced in 2028 B.S. and new curricula in all subjects and all the text materials, including teaching methods and evaluation system were brought into practice and got revised respectively. English curriculum and textbooks by Nepalese authors were developed and prescribed accordingly for the first time. Since then the curriculum and text materials have received timely revision as per the demand of the day.

In short, English has been inevitable for academic and communicative purposes in Nepal. Thus, the rapid growth of English medium schools and their impact on our society prove that the teaching/learning of the English language has been highly emphasized in Nepal.

1.1.2 The Maithili Language

Mithil α # is the name of the part of the state of Bihar which is situated to the north of Ganges and lies to the east of the famous land of Bhojapur. The Maithili, one of the sweetest languages, is spoken in two adjoining South Asian countries Nepal and India. It is spoken by a total of about 30 million people in the eastern and northern regions of the Bihar state of north India and the south eastern plains, known as the Terai of Nepal. Maithili was originally the language of the ancient Mithila, the Kingdom of Janak, the father of Sita, which was bounded on the west by the river Gandak, on the north by the Himalaya mountains, on the east by the Kosi, and on the south by the Ganges. In the past, Maithili was regarded either as a dialect of Bengali, or of Eastern Hindi, or as one of the three dialects of a spurious language called Bihari. Today, however, it is recognized as a distinct language. Demographically, it is the second most widely spoken language in Nepal, and it is regarded as the 16th largest language of India according to the International P.E.N.

A total of the Scripts have been used for Maithili. These are: Mithilaksar (also known as Tirhuta and Maithili) Kaithi and Devanagari.

Mithila σ kar is the oldest script of Maithili; historically, it is quite similar to Bengali and Oriya scripts. Mithilaksar is no longer is use, and no books are printed in this script nowadays. Today its use is largely confined to ceremonies and rituals for purposes of decoration by Brahmins and Kayasthas. As the name suggests, Kaithi was extensively used by Kayasthas for record-keeping in government offices. However, throughout Maithila all educated people who were not Brahmins used the Kaithi character and found it extremely easy to read and write.

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Today Maithili is written in the Devanagari script, which is also the script associated with classical Sanskrit and with a number of modern Indo-Aryan languages such as Hindi and Nepali.

Maithili has a very rich literature, the growth and development which follows quite closely the political and cultural history of Mithila. Vidyapati Thakur (1360-1448) is the greatest and most celebrated poet of Mithila. He is the immortal singer of beauty, youth and vigour. He is a poet of mirth and merriment. Maithili has a very long tradition of oral story telling. Oral literature reigned in almost all genres of Maithili before the printing facility came into existence. Shri Krishna Thakur, Baidyanath Mishra Yatri, Kali Kumar Das, Lalit, Raj Kamal Chaudhary, Dhum Ketu, Harimohan Jha, Dr, Dhireshwor Jha Dhirendra, Dr. R.P. Bimal are some renowned literary personalities in Maithili. At present there have been literary writing in all literary genres especially poetry, plays, and fiction from both Nepali and Indian writers. Apart from literature, Maithili writers are contributing to other fields like culture, history, journalism, linguistics etc.

The Maithili language has its own special features. There are certain words which are used only by woman. Thus $\mu\nu\nu^{\alpha}\sigma\alpha\#$ 'man', $\beta\alpha*\rho$ 'husband', $\kappa\alpha\nu\nu\nu(\alpha\#, 'wife'; \nu\nu\alpha\#, 'woman's wearing cloth' etc.$ Children generally pronounce 'ch' for 's' and 'l' for 'r' and use some onomatopoetic words for names of animals such as $\eta\iota\#\alpha\#$ 'anox', $\beta\alpha$), 'cow'; $\mu\alpha\nu\nu\alpha$) 'a little animal' etc.

Another important characteristic of Maithili is the employment of general appropriate qualifying and modifactory words in connection with particular nouns and adjectives. They are peculiar in meaning and cannot, in all cases, be substituted even by their synonyms. Thus: $\lambda \alpha \lambda^{\alpha}$ tes^a,

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extremely red'; $\upsilon \varphi \varphi \alpha \rho^{\alpha} dap^{a} dap^{a}$, 'extremely white'; $\pi i \# \alpha \rho^{\alpha} \delta \eta \alpha \# \beta \upsilon \sigma^{\alpha}$, 'extremely yellow; $\kappa \alpha \# \rho i \# \kappa \eta \alpha \tau^{\alpha}$ - $\kappa \eta \alpha \tau^{\alpha}$, sextremely black'; $\eta \alpha i \rho \alpha * \rho \kappa \alpha \chi \circ \# \rho^{\alpha}$, 'extremely green' etc.

1.1.3 Importance of Contrastive Analysis (CA)

Contrastive analysis is a branch of applied linguistics. There are several languages in the world, some of which are genetically related and others are not. The languages which are genetically unrelated may resemble each other in some features while genetically related languages may be quite different in the same features. The credit of finding out the common and uncommon features between the languages goes to CA. CA compares two or more languages in order to find out their similarities and differences and then to predict the areas of ease and difficulty in learning. The comparison is done on phonological, morphological, syntactic, discourse and other levels as well. The comparison may be of two types:

a) Interlingual Comparison

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

b) Intralingual Comparison

The comparison between the two dialects like the standard Maithili and Southern eastern Maithili of the same language viz Maithili is called intralingual comparison.

CA is based on the behaviouristic theory of learning. According to this theory, learning is habit formation. An L_2 learner tends to transfer the system of his L_1 to the L_2 he is learning. Therefore, the L_1 and the L_2 need to be compared to find out their similarities and differences which are the sources of ease and difficulty in learning and L_2 , respectively. Transfer

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

Lado (1957: 1,2) disserminated the work initiated by Fries. Lado provided the following three underlying assumptions of CA which have significant role in language teaching.

- a) Individuals tend to transfer the forms and meaning and distribution of forms and meanings of their native language and culture to the foreign language and culture. Both productively when attempting to speak the language . . . and receptively when attempting to grasp and understand the language.
- b) In the comparison between native and foreign language lies the key to ease or difficulty in foreign language learning.
- c) The teacher who has made a comparison of the foreign language with the native language of the students will know better what the real learning problems are and can better provide for teaching them.

An L_2 learner tends to transfer the system of his L_1 to the L_2 he is learning. Therefore, the L_1 and the L_2 need to be compared to find out their similarities and differences which are the sources of case and difficulty in learning an L_2 respectively. Transfer may be either positive or negative. If the past learning facilitates the present learning, the transfer may be positive. It is called facilitation. On the contrary, transfer may be negative if the past learning interferes the present learning. It is called interference. The ease or difficulty in learning L_2 depends on whether it is similar to L_1 or different. It will be easy to learn L_2 if both L_1 and L_2 are similar and there will be less chance of committing errors. On the contrary, it will be difficult to learn an L_2 if both L_1 and L_2 are different and there will be more chances of committing errors.

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

CA has its great importance in language teaching. It has mainly two functions. Firstly, it predicts the tentative error to be committed by the L_2 learner and secondly, it explains the sources and reasons of the L_2 learner's error. So a language teacher should have knowledge of CA to treat the learners psychologically and academically. Unless a language teacher knows the sources and types of the errors that learners commit. S/he cannot import knowledge to the learners. James (980) points out three traditional pedagogical applications of CA. According to him, CA has applications in **predicting** and **diagnosing** a proportion of the L_2 errors committed by learners.

Sthapit (1978:23) writes the roles of CA in L_2 teaching in the following way: "when we start learning and L_2 our mind is no longer a clean state.

Our knowledge of L_1 has, as it were, stiffened our linguistically flexible mind. There linguistic habits of L_1 deeply rooted in our mental and verbal, activities, do not allow us to learn freely the new linguistic habits to L_2 . That is to say that the interference of the habits of L_1 is a key factor that accounts for the difficulties in leaning an L_2 . In other words, L_1 interference stands as a main obstacle on our way to L₂ learning. Learning an L_2 is, therefore, essentially learning to overcome this obstacle. So any attempt to teach an L_2 should be preceded by an explanation of the nature of possible influence of L_1 behaviour on L_2 behaviour. This is precisely what CA does." CA is helpful in identifying the areas of difficulties in learning and errors in performance, determining the areas which the learners have to learn with greater emphasis and designing teaching/learning materials for those particular areas that need more attention. CA not only predicts the likely errors to be committed by L_2 learners but also explains the sources of errors in one's performance. CA is important from pedagogical point of view. The language teachers, testing experts, syllabus designers and textbook writers get benefits from the findings of CA.

1.1.4 An Overview of Transformational Theory

Transformation refers to the change of one type of sentence into another one. For example affirmative into negative, active into passive, assertive into interrogative and so on. New standard Dictionary of English language (1960) defines transformation as "the act of transforming or the state of being transformed, a change in form, nature or character". Similarly, transformation refers to the process of transforming the sentence from one linguistic pattern to another. Moreover, it is a linguistic process in which basic (Kernel) sentence is changed or transformed by applying some rules.

Transformational – generative (TG) grammar has been proposed by the American linguist Chomsky in 1957. TG grammar is a model of the native speaker's competence which contains the finite set of rules which can generate infinite number of all and only grammatical sentences of a language and transform or map them onto others. It means TG grammar is both generative and transformational in nature. By transformation Chomsky means the rules which transform or map a sentence onto another and the deep structure into surface structure. Funk and Wagnalls (1960:254) define transformation as the act of transforming, or the state of being transformed a change in form, nature, or character." Similarly, according to Robins (1967:242) "Essentiably transformation is a method of stating how the structures of many sentences in languages can be generated or explained formally as the result of specific transformations applied to certain basic structures." The basic (Kernel) sentence like affirmative, active and direct can be transformed into derived (non -Kernel) sentences like negative and interrogative, passive and indirect respectively applying 4 T – rules such as (i) addition, (ii) deletion, (iii) substitution and (iv) permutation.

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

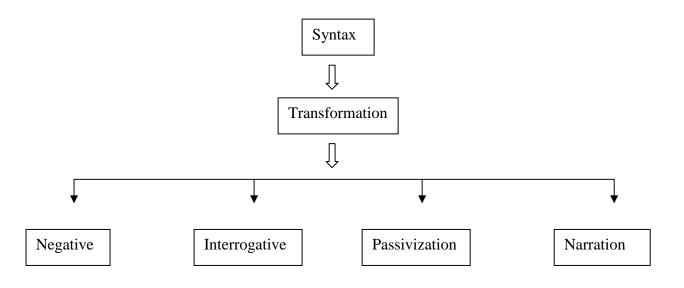


Figure no. 1

1.1.5 Negative and Interrogative Transformations: An Overview

a) Negative Transformation

When the speakers want to deny the truth of something they use the negative form of the sentences. Negation is a process in grammar to contradict the meaning or part of the meaning of a sentence. Similarly, Crystal (1997: 279) defines "Negative is a process or construction in grammatical or semantic analysis which typically expresses the contradictions of some of all of a sentences meaning." Funk and Wagnall (1960:1660) define negation as "the act of denying or of asserting the falsity of as proposition." In English grammar, it is expressed by inserting the negative practical not or its contracted form n't. However, if there is not an auxiliary verb in an affirmative sentence, we need to apply 'Do' support (also known as operator addition) rule. Negation affects words, phrases and sentences. Hence, it can be expressed on the following levels:

i. The word or lexical Level

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

happy – unhappy happily – unhappily

ii. The Phrase level

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

Plans have been made – No plans have been made.

Similarly, infinitive phrases can be made negative using not before infinitive verbs: Ramesh has decided to pay his income tax this year -Ramesh has decided not to pay his income tax this year.

iii. The Sentence Level

'Not' is the main sentence level negation as in Ashok is at home-Ashok is not at home.

However, 'no' can also make a sentence negative, especially when it negates the subject. No one was home to sign for the package.

b) Interrogative transformation

Interrogative transformation is a process of making assertive sentences interrogative. An interrogative sentence is also called question. Generally, interrogative sentence tends to request the listener to respond with the information that the questioner seeks. Richards et al. (1995:235) define question as "a sentence which is addressed to a listener/reader and asks for an expression of fact, opinion, belief etc." Question is broadly divided

into two types such as yes/no question and wh-question. All types of questions involve movement. The movement of tense and the first auxiliary verb to the initial position of a sentence is caused the subject – auxiliary inversion rule. There are two ways of asking questions:

i. Yes/no question

It expects yes/no answer. In this, tense and the first auxiliary verb are moved to the initial position of a sentence. In case only tense is present before a main verb except 'be' or 'have', 'do' is inserted by applying Do – support rule. Yes/no questions are of two types:

- a) Positive yes/no question: Does Ram study English?
- b) Negative yes/no question: Does Ram not study English?

ii. Wh – questions

It is also called content question. It asks for completing some specific information in a sentence. It involves both subject – auxiliary inversion and wh – fronting transformation rules. It also involve operator addition rule in the absence of auxiliary verb in a sentence. Like yes/no question, it is also of two types:

- a) Positive wh question: What is you name?
- b) Negative wh question: Where do you not go?

1.2 Review of the Related Literature

To this date a number of research works have been carried out on comparative study of languages under the Department of English Language Education, Tribhuvan University, Kirtipur, Kathmandu. Giri (1982) has carried out a research on 'English and Nepali Kinship terms: A Comparative Linguistic Study'. She wanted to determine the English and Nepali kinship terms used to refer to various kinship relations and to find our their corresponding addressive forms and then to compare and contrast the terms. She found that English kinship terms are less in number in comparison to Nepali kinship terms and most of the kinship relations in English are addressed by name, whereas they are addressed by kinship terms in Nepali.

Chalise (1998) has carried out a research on 'Negative and Interrogative Transformations in English and Nepali: A Comparative Study' (M.A. English). He found that the rules in changing affirmative sentences into negative and interrogative are more rigid and inflexible in English, whereas they are less rigid and flexible in Nepali. Negative and interrogative transformations simply extend the suffixes in Nepali, whereas they change the word order in English.

Paudel (2004) has conducted a research on 'A Comparative Study on Neagative and Interrogative Transformation in English and Panchathare Dialect of the Limbu Languages'. It shows that the affix 'me' is the negative marker in Limbu which occurs before the verb in assertive and imperative sentence, whereas the negative marker in English is 'not' which is added after the auxiliary verb. Yes/no question in Limbu is formed by placing 'bi' or 'pi' after the verb, whereas an auxiliary occurs at the beginning of the sentence in English. No subject auxiliary inversion takes place in interrogative in Limbu.

1.3 Objectives of the Study

The research had the following objectives:

- i. To identify the processes of negative and interrogative transformations in the Maithili language.
- To compare and contrast the processes of negative and interrogative transformations in the Maithili with those in English.
- iii. To suggest some pedagogical implications.

1.4 Significance of the Study

- i. This is the first research on negative and interrogative transformations in the Maithili language in the Department of English Education. So, it will be invaluable for the Department itself.
- ii. The study will be helpful for the prospective researchers in the Maithili language.
- iii. The study is equally significant for language planners, syllabus designers, textbook writers, students and teachers of language and linguistics, and people who are interested in this field.

1.5 Definitions of the Specific Terms

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

Negation: Negation is a process or construction in grammatical and semantic analysis which typically expresses the contradiction of some or all of a sentence's meaning.

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

Morpheme: Morpheme is the minimal distinctive unit of grammar, and the central concern of morphology.

Allomorph: Allomorph is any of the different forms of a morpheme.

Based on Yadava, Y.P. (2004) Theories of Grammar.

CHAPTER - TWO

METHODOLOGY

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

2.1 Sources of Data

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

2.1.1 Primary Source of Data

The Maithili native speakers from Sothiyain and Gadha VDCs of Siraha district were the primary sources from whom the researcher elicited the required data for the research.

2.1.2 Secondary Source of Data

In addition to the primary sources, the researcher made use of the secondary sources of data, viz books, theses, journals, periodical, articles, reports and materials available in internet which have close relevance with the present study.

2.2 Sample Population and Sampling Procedure

The total sample population was 60 Maithili native speakers above 15 years of age from Sothiyain and Gadha VDCs of Siraha district. 30 informants were taken from each VDC. The total sample 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. Those who were unable to read and write were considered as illiterate. Similarly, the people having academic qualifications below S.L.C. were taken as literate and the population with academic qualifications above S.L.C. were assumed to be educated ones.

Table No.1: Sample of the Study

District: Siraha

VDCs	Sothiyain				Gadha							
Types of	Illiterate		Literate		educated		Illiterate		Literate		Educated	
informants												
Sex	Μ	F	Μ	F	Μ	F	Μ	F	Μ	F	Μ	F
No. of informants	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5
Total	10		10		10		10		10		10	
Grand total	60											

2.3 Research Tools

The researcher elicited the required data from the informants using interview schedule and from the selected educated informants using test items as research tools.

2.4 **Process of Data Collection**

The stepwise procedures of data collection are given as follows:

- i. The researcher developed two types of research tools; interview or questionnaire schedule and test items.
- ii. He went to the selected VDCs and established a good rapport with the selected informants.
- iii. He explained the objectives and relevance of the study to the informants.

- iv. He asked them for their invaluable cooperation and elicited the required data for the completion of the study.
- v. He conducted the structured interview with the selected illiterate and literate informants and handed over the test items to the selected educated informants after giving necessary instructions. The responses were recorded in the written form.
- vi. He thanked the informants when the interview over and test items were returned.

2.5 Limitations of the Study

The study was limited in the following ways:

- i. The total sample of the study was only 60 Maithili native speakers form Sothiyain and Gadha VDCs of Siraha district.
- The study focused only on the processes of negative and interrogative transformations in Maithili with reference to English.
- iii. The negative transformation was only to assertive and imperative sentences.
- iv. The interrogative transformation was only to positive assertive sentences.
- v. The transformation was only for simple sentences.

CHAPTER-THREE

ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION

This chapter deals with the analysis and interpretation of the data obtained from the informants and secondary sources. Firstly, the analysis of rules of negative and interrogative transformations of English was done mainly on the basis of secondary data extracted basically from Sinclair (2000), Quirk and Greenbaum (1990) and Thomson and Martinet (1986). Secondly, the rules of negative and interrogative transformations of Maithili were analyzed on the basis of oral and written primary data collected from 60 Maithili native speakers. Then, the comparison and contrast of the processes of negative and interrogative transformation of Maithili with those of English was done. The collected data was analyzed and interpreted descriptively and comparatively with the help of tables, diagrams and illustrations. After the data was compared, the points of similarities and differences were drawn between the processes of negative and interrogative transformations of similarities.

3.1 Rules of Negative and Interrogative Transformations of English

The rules of negative and interrogative transformation of English have been extracted from Sinclair (2000), Quirk and Greenbaum (1990) and Thomson and Martinet (1986).

3.1.1 Rules of Negative Transformation

Crystal (2003: 310) defines negation as "a process or construction in grammatical and semantic analysis which typically expresses the contradiction of some or all of a sentences meaning". Although negative transformation is found in almost all languages of the world, the processes of transformation from affirmative into negative differs from one language to another.

The following rules are used while transforming affirmative sentences into negative in English:

- i. The negation of simple sentence is accomplished by inserting the negative marker *not*, n't between the operator and prediction. For example:
 - a) He is coming. \rightarrow He is not (isn't) coming.
 - b) She is going to market. \rightarrow She is not (isn't) going to market.
- ii. If there is no auxiliary verb in the affirmative sentence, we put *do, does,* or *did* after the subject followed by *not* or *n't* followed by the base form of the main verb. For example:
 - a) They play hockey. \rightarrow They donot (don't) play hockey.
 - b) He speaks English. \rightarrow He does not (doesn't) speak English.
 - c) I knew that. \rightarrow I did not (didn't) know that
- iii. If the main verb is *do* in an affirmative sentence, we still put *do does* or *did* after subject followed by *not* or *n't* followed by the base form of do. For example:
 - a) We do our homework. → We donot (don't) do our homework.
 - b) Sarita does this. \rightarrow Sarita does not (doesn't) do this.
 - c) You did that. \rightarrow You did not (didn't) do that.

- iv. If the verb is *have* in an affirmative sentence and it functions as a main verb, we usually put *do*, *does* and *did* after the subject followed by *not* or *n't* followed by the bare form of *have*. For example:
 - a) I have my meal. \rightarrow I donot (don't) have my meal.
 - b) She has her meal. \rightarrow She doesnot (doesn't) have her meal.
 - c) He had a grand salary. → He didnot (didn't) have a grand salary.
- v. Imperative Sentences are changed into negative by using *donot* or *don't* in the beginning of the sentences. For example:
 - a) Tell the truth. \rightarrow Do not (don't) tell the truth.
 - b) Speak honestly. \rightarrow Do not (don't) speak honestly.
- vi. *Some* is changed into *any*. Therefore, *somebody* is changed into *anybody*, *something* into *anything*. *Someone* into *anyone*, *somewhere* into *anywhere*. For example:
 - a) Sarita gives him something. → Sarita doesnot give him anything.
 - b) They buy some books. \rightarrow They do ot buy any books.

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

Affirmative	Negative		
Someone	Noone		
Somebody/everybody	Nobody		
Something	Nothing		

For example:

- a) Someone helped me \rightarrow No one helped me.
- b) Something is wrong. \rightarrow Nothing is wrong.
- c) Somebody helps me. \rightarrow Nobody helps me.
- vii. In some cases, formation of negative is possible only by changing the following affirmative words into negative ones without adding *not* after auxiliary verb.

Affirmative	Negative
Always/ever	Never
Ever/some/any	No
Everyone/someone/anyone	No one/none
Eitheror	Neithernor

For example:

- a. Sita always smokes. \rightarrow Sita never smokes.
- b. Either Ram or Sita will come. →Neither Ram nor Sita will come.
- viii. *Must* is often changed into *need not* when there is the absence of obligation and rarely into *must not* when there is negative obligation imposed by the speaker or very emphatic advice. For example:
 - a) You must make two copies. →You neednot make two copies. One will do.

- b) You must repeat this to someone. →You must not repeat this to anyone.
- ix. Another way in which we can make a statement negative is by using a broad negative marker. Broad negatives, according to Sinclair, are adverbs like *rarely* and *seldom* which are used to make statement almost totally negative. For example:
 - a) We were able to move. \rightarrow We were scarcely able to move.

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

 x. Some negative prefixes can be added to the beginning at some words to give them the opposite, meaning.

For example: *un*happy, *invisible*, *im*possible, *il*legal, *ir*responsible, *mal*nutrition etc.

a) They were happy. \rightarrow They were unhappy.

xi. Similarly, the suffix – less also can be added to many nouns in order to form negative adjectives.

For example: harm*less*, end*less*, home*less*, child*less*, need*less*, hope*less*, sense*less*, land*less* etc.

a) They were completely helpful. →They were completely help*less*.

3.1.2 Rules of Interrogative Transformation

An interrogative sentence starts with an auxiliary verb or with a question word (wh-word) and it is used to ask question. Interrogative refers to verb forms or sentences clause types typically used in the expression of questions. In English interrogative sentences can generally be divided into two types. Yes/no question and wh- question.

i. Yes/No Question

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

Rules for Transforming Statement into Yes/No Questions

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

- a) 'Yes/no' question is usually made according to the pattern given below: Aux. V+Subj + M.V. + ...?
- b) In a statement, if there is an auxiliary verb (except *do* and *have* in the main verb function), the auxiliary verb is moved to the initial position of the sentences which is followed by the subject then the main verb. For example:

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

c) If there is more than one verb, the auxiliary verb has to be moved at the beginning of the clause followed by the subject followed by the other verbs. For example:

He had been murdered. \rightarrow Had he been murdered?

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

You live in Sidney. \rightarrow Do you live in Sidney?

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

They do the work \rightarrow Do they do the work?

f) If the verb is *have*, we usually put *do*, *does* or *did* at the beginning of the clause in front of the subject. For example:

Hedgehogs have intelligence. \rightarrow Do Hedgehogs have intelligence?

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

He gave her something. \rightarrow Did he give her anything?

ii. WH – Question

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

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

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

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

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

Mohan cut the grass. \rightarrow What did Mohan cut?

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

Mary lives in London. \rightarrow Where does Mary live?

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

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

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

a) 'Who' and 'Whom'

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

Who passed the S.L.C. examination?

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

'Who' was he speaking to?

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

With whom do you sing?

b) 'Whose' and 'which'

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

Whose pen is that?

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

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

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

c) 'When' and 'where'

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

When did you take your breakfast?

'Where' is used to ask a question about place, position or direction, for example:

Where do they work? 'Where' as place

d) 'Why' and 'How'

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

Why is he making a pot?

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

How do we close the door?

3.2 The Rules of Negative and Interrogative Transformations in the Maithili

The researcher tested the rules of negative and interrogative transformations in the Maithili language with the help of oral and written primary data collected from 60 Maithili native speakers from Sothiyain and Gadha VDCs of Siraha district.

3.2.1 The Rules of Negative Transformation

In Maithili, the negation is generally formed by adding marker $[v\alpha\iota]$ 'not' immediately before the verb. In Maithili, negation is standardly indicated by the use of the particle 'vai' but in formal and written style 'vani.' The same invariant particle is used in all negative sentences irrespective of the sentence type and the form of the predicate. The following example are illustrative:

a)	χη □)ρ8α	χ	ναι	συτ - αιτ	αιχη	1		
	Boy	NEG	Sleep	-IMPERF	AUX-PRES	S-(3NH)		
	The boy doesn't sleep.							
b)	νοκαρ	ναι		ξ-λ				

Servant NEG come-PST- (3NH)

The servant didn't come.

c) ναι φ-0!

> NEG go-IMP- (2NH)

Don't go!

d) σαβυν αλμαρι με ναι αιχη.

Soap almirah in NEG be-PRES- (3NH)

The soap is not in the almirah.

e) ο μυρκη ναι χη-αιτη.

He (H) fool NEG be-PRES-3H

He is not a fool.

f) το# βυδηιψαρ ναι χη-αη

You (MH) wise NEG be-PRES- (2 MH)

You are not wise.

g) φανακπυρ ναι χαλ-αβ

Janakpur NEG walk-FUT- (2H).

Won't you come to Janakpur?

In terms of position, the negative particle 'v α ı' is closely associated with the verb or the verb phrase that in sentences (i to vii) the negative particle immediately precedes the verbal group.

Maithili doesnot have inherently negative quantifiers and adverbs of the none, no – one, nothing, never, and nowhere type. Instead, these are realized as a combination of indefinite pronoun and negative particle in that order, as illustrated below:

a) κεοναι κακρο σα κιυχη δα βαφ-αλ

Indef.pron.+NEG anyone from anything about speak-PST- (3NH)

Nobody spoke with anyone about anything.

```
b) κεοναι βηετ-αλ
```

Indef.pron.+NEG	meet-PST- (3NH+1)
I met none.	
c) κυχηναι	καη-l-ainh
Indef.pron+NEG	say-PST- (3H+1)
He said nothing to r	ne.
d) κοηιοναι	δεκη-al-iainch
Indef.pron.+NEG	see-PST- (1+3H)
I never saw her.	

In general, it is not possible to negate compound verbs.

i.	а) νοκαρ	βηαιγ	γε-1					
	Servant	run	go-PST- (3NH)					
	The servant ran away.							
	b) νοκαρ	βηαιγ	ναι γε-l					
The servant didn't run away.								
βυτ	νοκαρ ναι βαγ-al							
	Servant NEG run – PST- (3NH)							
	The servant didn't run away.							
ii.	a) ο μαιρ	ο γε-l- αη						

he(H) die go-PST-(3H)

He died.

b) *ο μαιρ ναι γε-λ-αη

He didn't die.

But ο ναι μαρ-λ-αη

He (h) NEG die-PST- (3H)

He didn't die.

The scope of negation in a subordinate clause may depend upon the type of predicate used in the main clause. For instance, with non-factive verbs, such as ' $\lambda \alpha \gamma \alpha \beta \beta$ ' to feel' 'think/appear', ' $\beta \upsilon \phi \eta \alpha \epsilon \beta \beta$ ' to think/feel/appear' $\chi \alpha \eta \alpha \beta$ 'to want' etc. The negative practicle of the main clause may be interpreted as negating the subordinate clause as well.

i. a) leg-ait aich gr-aith graith

appear-IMPERF AUX-PRES- (3NH+1) that he (H) village on NEG be-PRES- (3H)

I feel that he is not at home

b) $\lambda \epsilon \gamma$ - $\alpha \iota \tau$ val algo $\varphi \epsilon$ o $\gamma \alpha \mu$ $\pi \alpha \rho$ $\chi \eta$ - $\alpha \iota \tau \eta$ appear-IMPERF NEG AUX-PRES-(3NH+1) that he (H) village on be-PRES- (3H)

I don't think that he is at home

ii. a) bugha-it aich $\varphi \varepsilon$ o vai $\beta \alpha \#$)c-t-ah

```
feel – IMPERF AUX-PRES- (3NH+1) that he(H) NEG survive
-FUT-(3+1)
```

I feel that he won't survive

b) $\beta \upsilon \varphi \eta \alpha$ -17 val algh $\varphi \varepsilon$ o $\beta \alpha \#)\chi$ -7-ah feel – IMPERF NEG AUX-PRES- (3NH+1) that he(H) survive – FUT-(3+1)

I don't think that he will survive.

Finally, mention must be made of the fact that two interrogative pronouns $\alpha\eta\alpha$), where may indicate negation (usually a refutation of a claim) in such construction as:

i. $o \kappa \alpha \eta \alpha$) $\equiv -\lambda$ $\chi \eta - \alpha \iota \tau \eta$ He(H) where come – PERF AUX-PRES- (3H) He hasn't come.

ii. $\tau o \# \kappa \alpha \eta \alpha$) $\pi \alpha \sigma \beta \eta \epsilon - \lambda - \epsilon$)

You (NH) where pass become –PST- (2NH) You didn't pass.

3.2.2 Rules of Interrogative Transformation

There are two main types of interrogative clauses in Maithili. They are yes/no question and wh-question. It would be better to indicate yes/no question as type I interrogative and wh questions as type II interrogative.

i. Yes/no question

This yes/no question starts with the question morpheme $/\kappa_{12}$ and can be answered with the words 'yes' or 'no' although fuller responses are also appropriate and acceptable. For example

a) κι: το# βυδηιψαρ χη-αη

Question you wise $-(2^{nd}, pl; pres.)$

"Are you wise"?

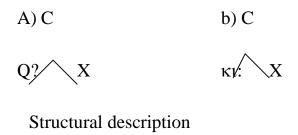
b) κι: ι: ηαμαρ α-παν γα:ι χη-αιτη

Question my own cow is $(1^{st}, sg, pres.)$

Is this my own cow?

Type-I interrogative (yes/no question) involves the introduction of the interrogative morpheme / κ 1:/ in the beginning of the sentence. It stems from the Q? node which is simultaneously deleted. The structural description for this types of interrogative transformation requires the absence of κ - morphemes from all the constituents following the initial Q? node symbolically this is represented in figure 3.1:

Figure 3.1 Yes/No question transformation



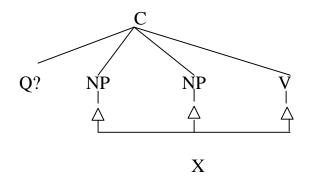
The symbol 'X' represents the non-interrogative or non- κ constituents. The deep structure of an interrogative types – I (yes/no) question) of sentence (i) can be shown in figure 3.2

κι: ηαμ χαλ-αβ φανακπυρ

question I walk Janakpur – 1st, sg. Fut.

Should I walk to Janakpur?

Figure 3.2 Deep Structure for above sentence (i)



ii) WH- Question

Wh-questions are questions about noun phrases or adverbs. Thus the sentences in the following (i) and (ii) are questions about the subject NP (i) and the NP time (II) an adverbial question in Maithili involves reason and manner in (iii) and (iv) respectively. Generally, the wh-question

begins with the interrogative morpheme. / $\kappa\epsilon$:/, / $\kappa\alpha\tau\eta\iota$ /, / $\kappa\alpha\tau\eta\alpha\nu$ /, / $\kappa\alpha\tau$ / For example:

ι. κε: κερα: κηα:β

Who banana eat (3rd, m/f, fut)

"Who will eat the banana? "

ii. ο κακηαν κερα: κηι:ta:h

he when banana eat (3rd, sg. m, fut)

"When will he eat the banana?"

iii. Ο κι: ψα: κερα: κηετα:η

he why banana eat (3rd, sg., m.fut)

"Why will he eat the banana?"

iv. ο κονακε κερα: κηετα:η

he how banana eat (3rd, sg., m.fut)

"How will he eat the banana?"

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

ν. ο κατηι: κηεται:

he what eat (3rd, sg., m. fut)

"What will he eat?"

- vi. ο κατ κερα: κηεται: (3rd, sg., m. fut) he where banana eat. (3rd, sg., m. fut) "Where will he eat the banana?"
- vii. ο κεκαρα: κερα: δεται he whom banana give (3rd, sg., m. fut) "To whom will he give the banana?"
- viii. ο κεκαρα: γηαρμε κερα: κηεται

he whose house banana eat (3rd, sg., m. fut)

"At whose will he eat the banana?"

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

When one NP or Adv segment contains a [k] in deep structure, it is being questioned. With this interpretation, the interrogative morphemes / $\kappa\epsilon$:/, $\kappa\alpha\kappa\eta\alpha\nu$, $\kappa\iota:\psi\alpha$:, $\kappa\circ\nu\alpha\kappa\epsilon$, $\kappa\alpha\tau\eta\iota$, $\kappa\alpha\tau$ / all contain the feature [k]. However, / $\kappa\epsilon$:/ 'who' is marked in the lexican with the feature [human]; / $\kappa\alpha\tau\eta\iota$ / is marked with the feature [nonhuman] and there are also some other features given in the following sub-categorization, which distinguish these interrogative morphemes from each other.

Sub - categorization of interrogative morphemes

The following listing offers a complete sub-categorization of Maithili interrogative morphemes.

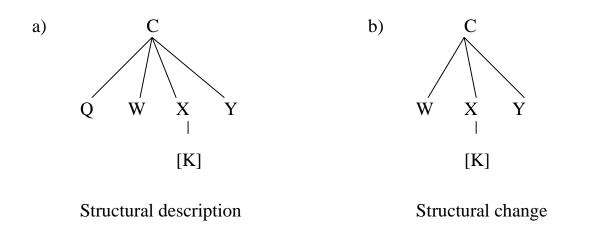
[κε:, pro, human, K....] [κατηι:, pro, nonhuman, K....] [κατ:, pro, location, K....] [κακηαν:, pro, time, K....] [κι:ya:, pro, reason, K....] [κονακε:, pro, manner, K....]

The interrogative morphone [$\kappa \alpha \tau \eta \iota$, pro, nonhuman, K...] must be distinguished from the yes/no question marker [$\kappa \alpha \tau \eta \iota$, κ]. The yes/no question marker [$\kappa \alpha \tau \eta \iota$] is not pronominal or adverbial in nature. It simply questions that sentence with a 'yes' or 'no' answer and is in

complementary distribution with the rest of the K-morphemes.

The –II interrogatives [wh-questions] contain [K] in their deep structure. The presence of [k] under an Np as an adv. node indicates that it is being questioned. The wh-questions are generated by the single step transformation which simply deletes the Q? node in the surface structure. The structural description and the structural change involving wh questions are represented in figure 3.4.

Figure 3.4 wh-questions transformation



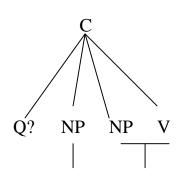
In figure 3.4 'w' and 'y' represent constituents flanking the interrogative morpheme stemming form the node 'x' . 'w' can also be a null symbol. Thus, the following sentence (i) has the deep structure shown in figure 3.5.

i. $\kappa\epsilon: \alpha: \mu \kappa\eta\alpha: \beta$

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

'Who will eat the mango?'

Figure 3.5 Deep Structure for sentence (i)



[pro human K] Y

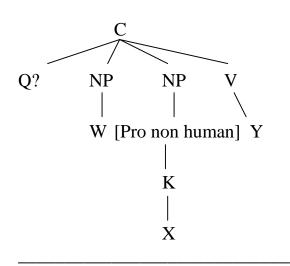
The rule given in figure 3.4 will delete the Q? from the surface structure and the result will be sentence

- i. The following sentence
- ii. Will have the deep structure shown in figure 3.6

ο κατηι κηεται

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

Figure 3.6 Deep Structure for Sentence (ii)



The application of the rule given in figure 3.4 will give use the ultimate sentence (ii). The selection of the proper interrogative morpheme will depend on the sub-categorization of morphemes. Thus, (pro,human,K) (figure 3.5) and (pro, non human, K) (figure 36) will be replaced by $/\kappa\epsilon$:/ 'who' $/\kappa\alpha\tau\eta\iota$ / 'what', respectively.

3.3 Comparison of the Processes of Negative and Interrogative Transformation in Maithili with those in English

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

3.3.1 Comparison of the Processes of Negative Transformation on between English and Maithili

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

i. Negatives of Assertive Sentences

a) Ramesh lives in Janakpur.

ραμεσ φανακπυρ με ρηειτ αιχη

ramesh Janakpur in lives'

Ramesh does not live in Janakpur.

ραμεση φανακπυρ -με ναι ρηειτ αιχη

'ραμεσ φανακπυρ ιν νοτ λισεσэ

b) The boy sleeps.

ch])ρ8α συτ-αιτ αιχη

boy sleep AUX – PRES

The boy does not sleep.

ch])ρ8α ναι συτ-αιτ αιχη

Boy not sleep AUX-PRES

c) Kabita is drinking water.

καβιτα: πα: νι: πι: ατ: αιχη

'kabita water drinking '

Kabita is not drinking water.

καβιτα: πα: νι: ναι πι: ατ: αιχη

Kabita water not drinking.

d) He cooked meat yesterday.

ka: l: ma: us pakene-cyle

'he yesterday meat cooked'

He did not cook meat yesterday.

ο κα:λι: μα: υσ ναι πακενε-χη

'he yesterday meat not cooked.'

e) The farmer was working in the field.

κισα:ν κηετμε κα:μ κρειτ-χηαλ

'farmer field in work doing was'

The farmer was not doing work in the field.

κισα:ν κηετ-με κα:μ ναι κρειτ-χηαλ

f) Rakesh will come tomorrow.

ρα:κεσ κα:λι α: 🖸 :τ

'rakesh tomorrow come'

Rakesh will not come tomorrow.

ρα:κεσ κα:λι ναι α: 🗆: τ

'rakes tomorrow not come.

g) The players will be playing cricket.

κηελα:
δι σαβ κιρκετ κηελαιτ ραηιτ αιχη

'players cricket playing will be'

The players will not be playing cricket.

κηελα:δι σαβ κιρκετ ναι κηελαιτ ραηιταιχη

'players cricket not playing will be'

h) Dilip is buying an umbrella.

διλιπ εγο χηα:τα: κιννε αιχη

dilip an umbrella buying is

Dilip is not buying an umbrella.

διλιπ εγο χηα:τα: ναι κιννε αιχη

dilip an umbrella not buying is

ii) Negatives of Imperative Sentences

a.	Write this poem.	-Aff	ι: καβιτα: λι:κη 'this poem write'
	Do not (don't) write this poem.	-Neg-	ι: καβιτα: ναι λι:κη 'this poem not write'
b.	Open the door	-Aff-	κε: ωα: ρι κηολ 'door open'
	Do not (don't open the door	-Neg	κε: ωα: ναι κηολ
			'door not open'
с.	Pick up bananas	-Aff	κε:ρα: το:ρ 'bananas pick up'
	Don not (don't) pick up bananas	-Neg	κε:ρα: ναι το:ρ
			'bananas not pick up'

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

a. Similarities

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

English		Maithili
Assertive		Assertive
He eats a mango	-Pos	ο α:μ κηαιτ αιχη
He doesnot eat a ma	ango -Neg	ο α:μ ναι κηαιτ αιχη
Imperative		Imperative

Drink water -Pos.- $\pi \alpha$:vi: π i: Do not (don't) drink water -Neg.- $\pi \alpha$:vi: v α i π i:

ii. In both languages, separate negative markers are used. In English, not or n't is the main negative marker whereas 'v α ı' is the main negative marker in Maithili. These negative markers are used to transform the positive sentences into negative.

b. Differences

i. The English negative marker is always treated in the structure 'sub+Aux+not+verb' except past and simple present. But Maithili is not so much rule bounded language in case of transformation. The negative marker 'v α t' is generally added before the related verb. But, in some cases, the negative marker 'v α t' can be placed either middle or final position of the related verbs. Maithili treats all the tense forms with the same negative marker. For honorific and nonhonorific remarks there is no any special negative marker for them. The same 'v α t' is used for them. For example:

Positive	Negative
ηαμ δαβα:ι κηα:ι :χηι:	ηαμ δαβα:ι ναι κηα:ι :χηι:
το# βυδηιψαρ χη-αη	το# βυδηιψαρ ναι χη-αη
ο μυρκη χη-αιτη	ο μυρκη ναι χη-αιτη
ραμεσ δαβα:ι: κηα: ιχηα-ι	ραμεσ δαβα:ι: ναι κηα: ιχηα-ι
απνε βαισ αλ φα-ε	απνε ναι βαισ αλ φα-ε

While observing the above sentences deeply we can find that person markers are used differently for different purposes. Generally, the following person markers are more and frequently used in the Maithili language. For example

iii) Singular Plural

First person	ηαμ	ηαμ σαβ/λοκαιν
Second person		
High honorific	απνε	απνε σαβ/λοκαιν
Honorific	αηα(αηα σ αβ/λοκαιν
Mid honorific	το(το(σαβ/λοκαιν
Non-honorific	το(το(σαβ
Third person		
Honorific	0	ο σ αβ/λοκαιν
Non honorific	υ/ο	υ/ο σαβ

ii. Maithili doesnot have inherently negative quantifiers and adverbs of the none, no-one, nothing, never and nowhere type. Instead, there are realized as a combination of indefinite pronoun and negative practical in that order, as illustrated below: α. κεοναι κακρο σο κιυχη δα βαφα αλ
 Indef.pron+NEG anyone from anything about speak PST- (3NH)
 Nobody spoke with anyone about anything.

b. κεοναι βηετ-αλ Indef. porn. +NEG meet-PST- (3NH+1)

'I met none.'

c. κιυχηναι	καη-λ-αινη
Indef. porn. +NEG	meet-PST- (3H+1)

He said nothing to me.

iii. If a positive assertive sentence does not contain any auxiliary verb we need to supply a rule called 'do support' or 'operater addition' (do, does and did) rule and the negative assertive marker 'not' as n't is used after it to form a negative assertive sentence. While forming negative by applying this rule. The form of the main verb is changed into its root form in English whereas there is no need of introducing auxiliary verb to make a positive sentence negative in Maithili.

Positive	Negative
I read a book.	I do not read a book.
Lalita reads a book.	Lalita does not read a book.
Santosh read a book.	Santosh did not read a book.

iv. In an imperative sentence, 'do not' (don't) is placed before the verb or in the beginning of the sentence (i.e. negative imperative sentence is initiated with 'do not'. or don't) in English whereas the negative marker such as 'v α t' is added just before the main verb or middle or final position in some cases.

Maithili	English
εκ γιλα:σ χα: ι: λα: υ	Bring a glass of tea.
εκ γιλα:σ χα: ι: ναι λα: υ	Donot (don't) bring a glass of tea.

3.3.2 Comparison of the Processes of Interrogative Transformation between Maithili and English.

There are two kinds of interrogative sentences in both the Maithili and English languages such as yes/no question and wh-question. They have been compared one by one as follows:

A. Comparison of the Processes of Yes/no Question Transformation

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

i. Yes/no Questions of Positive Assertive Sentences

a.	Maithili μοηαν εγο γι:τ γβαι:τ αιχη	-stat	English Mohan sings a song
	'mohan a song sings' κι:μοηαν εγο γι:τ γβαι:τ αιχ	(y/n. q.)	Does Mohan sing a song?
b.	η? 'question mohan a song sings' ι: ηαμαρ απαν γα: ι χη-αη 'this my own cow is'	-stat	This is my own cow.
	κι : ι: ηαμαρ απαν γα: ι χη- αη? 'question this my own cow is'	(y/n. q.)	Is this my own cow?

c.	'σι: τα: εγο πεν κι: νε αιχη' sita a pen bought has	-stat	Sita has bought a pen.
	κι :σι: τα: εγο πεν κι: νε αιχη?	(y/n. q.)	Has Sita bought a pen?
d.	'question sita a pen bough has' 'ο μυρκη χη-αιτη' He fool (be) is	-stat	He is a fool.
	κι : ο μυρκη χη-αιτη?	(y/n. q.)	Is he a fool?
	'question he fool is'		
e.	'ρα: νι πα: νι πι : ατ' rani water drink	-stat	Rani will drink water. Will Rani drink water?
	κι : ρα: νι πα: νι πι : ατ? 'question rani water drink'	(y/n. q.)	
f.	ρα:κεσ κα:λι α:οτ rakes tomorrow come	-stat	Rakesh will come tomorrow.
	κι :ρα:κεσ κα:λι α:οτ? 'question rakesh tomorrow come'	(y/n. q.)	Will Rakesh come tomorrow?

While comparing the process of yes/no question transformation between Maithili and English the researcher found the following similarities and differences.

I. Similarities

i. In both languages, assertive sentences are transformed into yes/no question. For example:

English		Maithili	
Ram is drinking water	-stat	ρα: m πα:	νι πι :
		ατ αιχη	
Is Ram drinking water	(y/n. q.)	κι :ρα:m πα:ν	ι πι:
		ατ αιχη	

- ii. In the both languages, yes/no question markers (i.e. auxiliary verbs in English and particle ' $\kappa\iota$:' in Maithili) are placed in the beginning of the sentence.
- iii. The sign of interrogative or question mark (?) is introduced and placed on the end of the yes/no question in both languages.

II. Differences

- i. If the assertive sentence has an auxiliary verb in it, the same is placed before the subject (i.e. the sentence is initiated with an auxiliary verb) in English whereas yes/no question marking particle' κ_1 :' is introduced and placed before the subject (i.e. the sentence is initiated with the particle ' κ_1 :' in Maithili.
- ii. If the sentence has no auxiliary verb. We need to use a rule that is called 'do support' or 'operator addition' (do, does and did) rule and the form of the verb is changed into its rest form to make a statement yes/no question in English whereas such rule does not occur in Maithili. For example:

English		Maithili	
You sing a song.	-stat	αηα# εγο γι: τ γα:υ	
Do you sing a	(y/n. q.)	κι: αηα# εγο γι: τ γα:υ?	
song?			
Mohan sings a song	-stat	μοηαν εγο γι: τ γβαιτ: αιχη	
Does Mohan sing a	(y/n. q.)	κι:μοηαν εγο γι: τ γβαιτ: αιχη	
song?			
I sang a song.	-stat	ηαμ εγο γι: τ γβαιχι:	
I didn't sing a song?	(y/n. q.)	κι:ηαμ εγο γι: τ γβαιχι:?	

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

English		Maithili
Rakesh will come	-stat	ρα:κεσ κα:λι α:οτ
tomorrow.		
Will Rakesh come	(y/n. q.)	κι: ρα:κεσ κα:λι α:οτ?
tomorrow?		

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

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

i. WH-Questions of Positive Assertive Sentences

a.	Maithili Ramesh reads a book.	-stat	English ραμεσ κι:ταβ πρηαιτ-αιχη
	Who reads a book?	(wh-q)	'ramesh book reads' κε κι:ταβ πρηαιτ-αιχη? 'who book reads'
b.	My name is Santosh.	-stat	ηαμαρ να: ω σαντοσ αιχη 'My name santosh is'
	τοηαρ/ηαμαρ να: ω κατηι αιχ η 'your/my name what is'	(wh-q)	What is your name?
c.	It is 8 o' colock.	-stat	α: τη βαφαλ αιχη '8 o' clock'
	What time is it?	(wh-q)	κατε βαφαλ αιχη? ' what time'

He is going to the field.	-stat	ο κηετ-με φα:ιτ αιχη
Where is he going to?	(wh-q)	'he the field to going is' ο κατ- φα:ιτ αιχη 'he where going to is'
Raju comes at 4'o colck.	-stat	ρα: φυ χα: ρ βαφε: α: βαι:
When does Raju come?	(wh-q.)	ταιχη 'raju 40' clock comes'
		ρα: φυ κακηαν α: βαι: τ αιχη ? 'raju when come does'
I like white colour.	-stat	ηαμ-ρα:
Which colour do I like?	(wh- q.)	υ:φαρ ρανγ νι:κλγαιτ αιχη ' I white colour like' ηαμ-ρα: κεηαν ρανγ νι:κλγαιτ αιχη ? 'I which colour like'
	Where is he going to? Raju comes at 4'o colck. When does Raju come? I like white colour.	Where is he going to?(wh-q)Raju comes at 4'o colckstatWhen does Raju come?(wh-q.)I like white colourstat

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

a. Similarities

a) Assertive sentences can be transformed into wh-question transformation between Maithili and English. For example

English	Maithili	
Nikhil writes a story	-stat	νι:κηιλ κατηα λικηατ αιχη
Who writes a story?	(wh- q.)	κε κατηα λικηατ αιχη ?

b) Both languages have their own separate words (i.e. 'wh' – words' in English and 'k-words' in Mathili) for transforming statements into wh-questions they are shown in the following table .

Table no. 2

English	Maithili
Who	ке
What	κατηι
Where	κατ
When	κακηαν/κακηυν
Why	κιψα:
How	κενακε
Whom	ке
Whose	κακαρ
How often	κατε βερ
How many	κψα:γο
How much	κατε:

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

b. Differences

- 1. 'wh-words' and 'k-words' are used to transform a statement into whquestion in English and Maithili respectively.
- 2. 'wh-word' occurs in the beginning of the sentence (i.e. wh-question is initiated with wh-words) in English whereas 'k-word' occurs after the subject and also in the beginning of the sentence when it functions as a subject in Maithili. For example.

English	Maithili
Nikhil drinks water.	νι:κηιλ πα: νι πι : ατ αιχη
Who drinks water?	κε:πα: νι πι : ατ αιχη?
	Beginning of the sentence

Ram eats a mango. $\rho \alpha: \mu \epsilon \gamma \circ \alpha: \mu \kappa \eta \alpha: \iota \tau \alpha \iota \chi \eta$ $\rho \alpha: \mu \kappa \alpha \tau \eta \iota \kappa \eta \alpha: \iota \tau \alpha \iota \chi \eta$ (After the subject)

3. Auxiliary verb comes between the 'wh-word' and the subject (expect the 'wh-word' functioning as the subjects in English whereas just 'kword' is placed in the beginning of the sentence if it functions as a subject if not it is placed just after the subject of the sentence in Maithili. For example

English	Maithili
Nikhil drinks water.	νι:κηιλ πα: νι πι : ατ αιχη
Who drinks water?	κε:πα: νι πι : ατ αιχη?
	Beginning of the sentence
Ram eats a mango.	ρα:μ εγο α: μ κηα : ιτ αιχη
	ρα:μ κατηι κηα : ιτ αιχη
	(After the subject)

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

Statements	wh-questions
I write a letter.	What do I write?
	Wh-word Aux.v. subj. m.v

Ram reads a poem.

What does Ram read?

Wh-word Aux.v. subj. m.v

She cooked meat.

What did she cook?

Wh-word Aux.v. subj. m.v

Note: The researcher himself coined 'wh-question' 'k-question' because it starts with 'k-word' in Maithili.

No any distinction the researcher found between the processes of negative and interrogative transformation done by the male and the female informal of both Sothiyain and Gadha VDCs of Siraha district.

CHAPTER-FOUR

FINDINGS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

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

4.1 Findings

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

- i. The only negative marker in English is 'not' or n't which is placed after an auxiliary verb in an assertive sentence whereas the negative marker in Maithili is 'v α t' which is added immediately before the main verb, and sometimes at the middle of final position of the related Verb.
- ii. If there is no auxiliary verb in a positive assertive sentence, we need to use a rule that is called 'do support' or 'operator addition' (do, does and did) rule and the negative marker 'not' or 'n't' is added after it as it functions as an auxiliary verb in English whereas there is no need of such rule in order to transform a positive sentence into negative in Maithili.
- iii. 'Donot' (don't) is placed before the verb while forming negative of imperative in English whereas the negative marker 'vαι' is just added before the verb in Maithili.
- iv. The systems of negative and interrogative transformation in English and Maithili are similar in some respects but different in others.

- v. In the yes/no question, an auxiliary verb occurs in the beginning of the sentence in English whereas the yes/no question markers 'κι:' is introduced and placed in the beginning of the sentence and sometimes at the end of the sentences also.
- vi. In the absence of an auxiliary verb, a rule called 'do support' or 'operator addition' (do, does and did) rule is applied to change a statement into yes/no question in English whereas such rule is not applied in Maithili.
- vii. Both languages have their own separate words for transforming statements into wh-question.
- viii. 'Subject-auxiliary/operator inversion' rule is also required to transform a statements into yes/no question in English whereas it does not take place in Maithili.
- ix. 'wh-word' and 'k-word' are used in English and Maithili respectively to transform a statement into wh-question.
- In wh-question, 'do support' (operator addition) and 'subject auxiliary inversion' (subject operator inversion) rules are applied in English whereas they are redundant in Maithili.
- xi. 'wh-words' occur in the beginning if the sentences in English whereas 'k-words' generally occur after the subject and sometimes also in the beginning of the sentence when they function as subject.

4.2 **Recommendations**

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

i. This research is comparative study between two languages: Maithili and English. The researcher hopes this research makes a significant contribution for those teachers who are teaching English as a second or foreign language, because a comparative study helps the teachers to predict the areas of difficulty that learners face and possible errors that learners commit.

- ii. While teaching, language teacher should see what sorts of difficulties that the learners are facing because of their mother tongue.
- iii. The process of negative and interrogative transformation system in English are different from those in Maithili. Therefore, it is recommended that the differences should be taken into trace while teaching English transformation systems to Maithili speaking students.
- iv. The students of this ethnic community should be taught the ways using 'do support/operator addition' and 'subject auxiliary inversion, rules more carefully as they do not exist in Maithili.
- v. The processes of negative and interrogative transformation system in English are different from those in Maithili. Therefore, it is recommended that the differences should be taken into trace while teaching English transformation systems to Maithili speaking students.
- vi. In English contractions of auxiliary verbs are used in negative and interrogative transformation, especially in communication. So attention should be paid on such features of auxiliaries in English while teaching Maithili speaking children.
- vii. A logical problem in learning of a second language is because of the transfer of knowledge related to the first language is different from the second language, learning will be difficult. So, a language teacher should analyze what are the similarities and differences between the native language of the learners and the target language they are going to learn.

- viii. Mother tongue influences in learning second language so while teaching language a teacher should see what difficulties. That the learners are facing because of their mother tongue.
- ix. The teachers should use appropriate teaching materials as far as possible during the classroom teaching.
- x. The syllabus designers and textbook writers should be more conscious while designing the syllabus and writing the textbook for the Maithili learners who are learning English as a second language.

The researcher here does not claim that the present study covers all the rules of negative and interrogative transformations in the Maithili because he has not carried out this research in all types of sentences available in the Maithili language. The sentences which are taken for this purpose are related with assertive and imperative sentences, and only 60 native informants from Sothiyain and Gadha of Siraha District are taken. However, the researcher has tried his best to generalize the rules of negative and interrogative transformations in the Maithili explicity based on the collected data.

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

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APPENDIX – II

Informants of the Research Study

Sothiyain

Illiterate

S.N.	Name	Sex	Age
1.	Bhola Prasad Yadav	Μ	46
2.	Ram Kumar Thakur	Μ	20
3.	Shiv Ram Yadav	Μ	25
4.	Dinesh Kumar Yadav	Μ	35
5.	Ram Dayal Das	Μ	40
6.	Sarita Yadav	F	65
7.	Lalita Devi Yadav	F	34
8.	Sunita Devi Mahato	F	40
9.	Raj Kumari Gupta	F	35
10.	Anju Kumari Yadav	F	20

Literate

S.N.	Name	Sex	Age	
1.	Manoj Kumar Chaudhary	Μ	26	
2.	Satya Dev Mahato	Μ	30	
3.	Ram Dinesh Yadav	Μ	45	
4.	Nand Kishor Chaudhary	Μ	18	
5.	Nitesh Kumar Yadav	М	20	
6.	Nitu Kumari Das	F	35	
7.	Lila Kumar Sha	F	40	
8.	Santa Kumari Chaudhary	F	22	
9.	Mamta Kumari Chaudhary	F	20	
10.	Sarmila Kumari Yadav	F	18	

Educated

S.N.	Name	Sex	Age
1.	Nirmala Yadav	F	20
2.	Devi Yadav	F	25
3.	Bindu Kumari Chaudhary	F	18
4.	Pramila Devi Gupta	F	19
5.	Kabita Kumari Chaudhaly	F	22
6.	Ram Bahadur Sah	Μ	26
7.	Ashok Kumar Yadav	Μ	25
8.	Dilip Kumar Karn	Μ	28
9.	Dipendra Kumar Yadav	Μ	18

10.	Santosh Kumar Yadav	Μ	20	

Gadha

Illiterate

S.N.	Name	Sex	Age	
1.	Ram Kumari Yadav	F	25	
2.	Ranjita Kumari Yadav	F	22	
3.	Ajita Kumari Yadav	F	20	
4.	Amrita Kumari Yadav	F	19	
5.	Pratima Kumari Mahato	F	18	
6.	Naresh Thakur	Μ	20	
7.	Hari Sah	Μ	22	
8.	Mahendra Kumar Das	Μ	25	
9.	Binod Karn	М	28	
10.	Raju Mahato	М	29	

Literate

S.N.	Name	Sex	Age	
1.	Ganga Kumar Yadav	Μ	32	
2.	Ramu Kumar Yadav	Μ	30	
3.	Rajendra Kumar Sah	Μ	28	
4.	Amit Chaudhary	Μ	26	
5.	Amardip Chaudhary	Μ	25	
6.	Sushila Chaudhary	F	22	
7.	Susma Kumari Chaudhary	F	18	
8.	Koshila Kumari Mahato	F	19	
9.	Priya Kumari Mukhiya	F	20	
10.	Punam Kumari Mukhiya	F	21	

Educated

S.N.	Name	Sex	Age	
1.	Bhagwan Dev Chaudhary	Μ	19	
2.	Ram Kumar Yadav	Μ	20	
3.	Rakesh Karn	Μ	22	
4.	Roshan Kumar Chaudhary	Μ	25	
5.	Mahesh Mahato	Μ	26	
6.	Sanju Kumari Yadav	F	20	
7.	Sakila Kumari Chaudhary	F	19	
8.	Krisha Karn	F	22	
9.	Susha Kumari Das	F	21	
10.	Binita Kumari Yadav	F	18	

APPENDICES

APPENDIX – I

Interview Schedule

This interview schedule has been prepared in order to accomplish a research work entitled "Negative and Interrogative Transformation in English and Maithili: A Comparative study". This research is being carried out under the supervision of Mr. Prem Bahadur Phyak, the lecturer in the Central Department of English Education, Faculty of Education, T.U., Kirtipur, Kathmandu. It is hoped that your invaluable co-operation will be great contribution in the accomplishment of this valuable research.

Researcher Pramod Kumar Yadav T.U., Kirtipur, Kathmandu उमेर (Age) लिङ्ग (Sex)

नाम (Name):

गा.वि.स. (VDC):

पेशा (Occupation):

शैक्षिक योग्यता (Academic Qualification)

1. Transform the following Maithili sentences into negative with the help of given examples.

Examples:

(Ravi sings a song). रवि गीत गावैछै। रवि गीत नगावैछै।

(Go home) घर जो।

घर नजो ।

1. मोहन काठमाण्डुमे रहैत अछि । (Mohan lives in Kathmandu) 2. कविता पानि पिऐत अछि। (Kabita is drinking water.) 3. हम एकटा नीक कथा लिख्ने छी। (I have written a good story.) 4. ऊ कालि माउस पकेने छलै। (He cooked meat yesterday.) 5. किसान खेतमे काम करैत छल । (The farmer was working in the field.) 6. हमर भैया दिनाजपुर गले छल। (My brother had gone to Dinajpur.) 7. राकेश कालि आओत । (Rakesh will come tomorrow.) 8. खेलाडी सव किकेट खेलैत रहत । (The players will be playing cricket.) 9. दिलिप एकटा किताब किन्ने रहत । (Dilip will have bought a book.) 10.ई लड्किंग कहियोकाल बजार जाइ अछि । (This boy sometimes goes to market.)

11.अशोक सबदिन स्कुल जायत अछि। (Ashok always goes to school.) 12.सुनिल कनि फलफूल किन रहल अछि। (Sunil is buying some fruits.) 13.सिता बहुत भात खाइछै। (Sita eats a lot of rice.) 14.कोइ आदमी किताब चोरबै छलै। (Someone was stealing a book.) 15.ऊ सब गाछ प चहैर जाइछै। (They can climb on the tree.) 16.तुँ कनिकालमे आइब सकै चिही । (You may come after a while.) 17.अपना आउरके/ सबके लहान ज्याप्रतै । (We should go to Lahan.) 18.तोरा डाक्टरके भेट करप्रतै । You must visit the doctor.) 19.ई कविता पन्ह । (Read this poem.)

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20.केबार खोल। (Open the door.)

••••

2. Transform the following Maithili sentences into yes/no question with the help of given examples.

Examples

निर्मला भारतमे रहैछे। (Nirmala lives in India.) की निर्मला भारतमे रहैत अछि ? ऊ खेलैत अैछ। (He will play.) की ऊ खेलैत अैछ ? 1. तोहर बेटा गीत गाबैछै। (Your son sings a song.) 2. बिन्दु चाय पीयेछै। (Bindu is sipping tea.) •••• 3. हम एगो गाई किन्ने चियै। (I have bought a cow.) 4. ऊ कालि अपन घर गेलै। (He went to his house yesterday.) 5. हमर बाबुजी आम किनै छलै। (My father was buying a mango.) 6. राज् एक दिन दारु पिने छलै। (Raju had drunk wine one day.)

7. रानी दुध पितै। (Rani will drink milk.) 8. पुष्पा एगो स्वीटर वुनैत रहतै । (Pushpa will be knitting a sweater.) 9. ओकर माँ वजार स चैल याल रहतै । (His mother will have come from market.) 10.ई लड्की कहियोकाल नचैहै । (This girl sometimes dances.) 11.प्रिति कनि किताब किन्ने रहतै । (Preeti has bought some books.) 12.हम बहुत भात खेलिये। (I ate a lot of rice.) 13.नित् अपन काम अगारीए कैरलेनछै। (Nitu has already done her work.) 14.पासाङ्ग सबदिन नहाइछै। Pasang always takes bath.) 15.सजु अंग्रेजी बज सकैछै। (Saju can speak English.)

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16.निर्जराके संगीत सिके चाही । (Nirjara should learn music.)

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••••

3. Transfer the following Maithili sentences into wh-questions with the help of given examples.

हम दही खेलिएै । (क) [I eat curd.(who)] के दही खेलकै ? 1. हमर नाम सन्तोष चियै। (कथि) [My name is Santosh. (what)] 2. रवी राज चिट्ठि लिखैछै। (के) [Ravi Raj writes a letter. (who)] 3. सात बजलै । (कते) [It is 70' clock (what)] 4. सुजीता बजार ग्याल्छै । (कत) [Sujita has gone to market. (where)] 5. किरण पाँच बजे ऐले । (कख्न) [Kiran came at 50' clock. (when)] 6. प्रशान्त पइसाल्या काम करै छलै । (कल्या) [Prashant was working for money. (why)]. 7. वकराआउरके पाउदले ऐलै। (कनाके) [They had come on foot. (How)]

8. हम निर्मलाके एगो आम देबै। (के) [I will give Nirmala a mango. (whom)] 9. ई हमर किताब चियै। (ककर) [This book is mine. (whose)] 10.हमरा लाल रङ्ग निक लगैए। (कोन) [I like red colour. (which)] 11.ऊ महिनाके एक वेर घर जाइछै। (कते वेर) He goes home once a month. (how often)]. 12.रामु पाँचगो भैंसी किनके आन्नेछै । (क्यागो) [Ramu has bought five buffaloes. (how many)] • • • • • 13.हमरा उजर रंङ्ग निक लागैत अछि । (कोन) [I like white colour. (which)] 14.हमर पहुँच प्रधान मंत्री तक नई अछि । (केकर) [I have no access to the prime minister. (whose)]. 15.रमेश खेतमे जाईत रहैत अछि । (कत) [He is going to field. (where)]

Test Items

This set of test ideas schedule has been prepared in order to accomplish a research work entitle "Negative and Interrogative Transformation in English and Maithili: A Comparative Study". This research is being carried out under the supervision of Mr. Prem Bahadur Phyak, the lecturer in the Central Department of English Education, Faculty of Education, T.U., Kirtipur, Kathmandu. It is hoped that your invaluable co-operation will be great contribution in the accomplishment of this valuable research.

Researcher Pramod Kumar Yadav T.U., Kirtipur, Kathmandu उमेर (Age) लिङ्ग (Sex)

नाम (Name): गा.वि.स. (VDC): पेशा (Occupation): शैक्षिक योग्यता (Academic Qualification)

1. Transform the following Maithili sentences into negative with the help of given examples.

Examples:

(Ravi sings a song). रवि गीत गावैछै।

रवि गीत नगावैछै।

(Go home) घर जो।

घर नजो ।

1. मोहन काठमाण्डुमे रहैत अछि । (Mohan lives in Kathmandu)

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2. कविता पानि पिऐत अछि। (Kabita is drinking water.) 3. हम एकटा नीक कथा लिख्ने छी। (I have written a good story.) 4. ऊ कालि माउस पकेने छलै। (He cooked meat yesterday.) 5. किसान खेतमे काम करैत छल । (The farmer was working in the field.) 6. हमर भैया दिनाजपुर गले छल । (My brother had gone to Dinajpur.) 7. राकेश कालि आओत । (Rakesh will come tomorrow.) 8. खेलाडी सब क्रिकेट खेलैत रहत । (The players will be playing cricket.) 9. दिलिप एकटा किताब किन्ने रहत । (Dilip will have bought a book.) 10.ई लड्किंग कहियोकाल बजार जाइ अछि । (This boy sometimes goes to market.) 11.अशोक सबदिन स्कूल जायत अछि । (Ashok always goes to school.)

12.सुनिल कनि फलफूल किन रहल अछि। (Sunil is buying some fruits.) 13.सिता बहुत भात खाइछै। (Sita eats a lot of rice.) 14.कोइ आदमी किताब चोरबै छलै। (Someone was stealing a book.) 15.ऊ सब गाछ प चहैर जाइछै। (They can climb on the tree.) 16.तुँ कनिकालमे आइब सकै चिही । (You may come after a while.) 17.अपना आउरके/ सबके लहान ज्याप्रतै । (We should go to Lahan.) 18.तोरा डाक्टरके भेट करप्रतै । You must visit the doctor.) 19.ई कविता पन्ह । (Read this poem.) 20.केबार खोल। (Open the door.)

2. Transform the following Maithili sentences into yes/no question with the help of given examples.

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Examples
निर्मला भारतमे रहैछे। (Nirmala lives in India.)
की निर्मला भारतमे रहैत अछि ?
ऊ खेलैत अैछ। (He will play.)
की ऊ खेलैत अैछ ?
1. तोहर बेटा गीत गाबैछै। (Your son sings a song.)
                           • • • • •
2. बिन्द् चाय पीयेछै। (Bindu is sipping tea.)
.....
. . . . .
3. हम एगो गाई किन्ने चियै। (I have bought a cow.)
 .....
....
4. ऊ कालि अपन घर गेलै। (He went to his house yesterday.)
  .....
....
5. हमर बाबुजी आम किनै छलै। (My father was buying a mango.)
. . . . .
6. राज् एक दिन दारु पिने छलै। (Raju had drunk wine one day.)
7. रानी दुध पितै । (Rani will drink milk.)
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8. पुष्पा एगो स्वीटर वुनैत रहतै । (Pushpa will be knitting a sweater.) 9. ओकर माँ वजार स चैल याल रहतै । (His mother will have come from market.) 10.ई लड्की कहियोकाल नचैहै । (This girl sometimes dances.) 11.प्रिति कनि किताब किन्ने रहतै । (Preeti has bought some books.) 12.हम बहुत भात खेलिये । (I ate a lot of rice.) 13.नितु अपन काम अगारीए कैरलेनछै। (Nitu has already done her work.) 14.पासाङ्ग सबदिन नहाइछै। Pasang always takes bath.) 15.सजु अंग्रेजी बज सकैछै। (Saju can speak English.) 16.निर्जराके संगीत सिके चाही । (Nirjara should learn music.) ••••

3. Transfer the following Maithili sentences into wh-questions with the help of given examples.

हम दही खेलिएै । (क) [I eat curd.(who)] के दही खेलकै ? 1. हमर नाम सन्तोष चियै । (कथि) [My name is Santosh. (what)] 2. रवी राज चिट्ठि लिखैछै। (के) [Ravi Raj writes a letter. (who)] 3. सात बजलै। (कते) [It is 70' clock (what)] 4. सुजीता बजार ग्याल्छै । (कत) [Sujita has gone to market. (where)] 5. किरण पाँच बजे ऐलै । (कखुन) [Kiran came at 50' clock. (when)] 6. प्रशान्त पइसाल्या काम करै छलै । (कल्या) [Prashant was working for money. (why)]. 7. वकराआउरके पाउदले ऐले । (कनाके) [They had come on foot. (How)] 8. हम निर्मलाके एगो आम देबै। (के) [I will give Nirmala a mango. (whom)]

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9. ई हमर किताब चियै। (ककर) [This book is mine. (whose)]
                                10.हमरा लाल रङ्ग निक लगैए। (कोन) [I like red colour. (which)]
....
11.ऊ महिनाके एक वेर घर जाइछै। (कते वेर) He goes home once a month. (how
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