NEGATIVE AND INTERROGATIVE TRANSFORMATIONS IN ENGLISH AND THARU

**A Thesis Submitted to the Department of English Language
Education, T.U., Kirtipur, Kathmandu
In Partial Fulfilment for the Master's Degree in
English Language Education**

**By
Dipendra Patawari**

**Faculty of Education
Tribhuvan University, Kirtipur
Kathmandu, Nepal
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1

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2008

RECOMMENDATION FOR ACCEPTANCE

This is to certify that **Mr. Dipendra Patawari** has prepared the thesis entitled **"Negative and Interrogative Transformations in English and Tharu"** under my guidance and supervision.

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ABSTRACT

This thesis entitled **"Negative and Interrogative Transformations in English and Tharu"** is an attempt to identify the processes of negative and interrogative transformations in the Tharu language and to compare and contrast them with those in English. The researcher utilized both primary and secondary sources of data. The sample population of the study consists of 60 Tharu native speakers who were selected using stratified random sampling procedure to elicit the required data of negative and interrogative transformations in Tharu, but for English it was taken from secondary sources. A set of interview schedule was prepared for illiterate and literate informants but a set of test questions (questionnaires) were for the educated ones. After collecting the data, it was analyzed, interpreted and then presented descriptively and comparatively with the help of tables, diagrams and illustrations. The major findings of the study are:

1. The negative marker in English is 'not' or 'n't' which is placed after an auxiliary verb whereas the negative markers in Tharu are 'nat/mat' and 'naik$_h$e' which are added immediately before the main verb.

2. The Tharu negative markers 'nat/mat' occurs only in imperative sentences, but 'naikhe' occurs in either tenses.

3. In yes/no question, an auxiliary verb occurs at the beginning of the sentence in English whereas the yes/no question marker 'ka:' is introduced and placed at the end of the sentences in Tharu.

The thesis consists of four chapters. Chapter one deals with introduction. It consists of general background, review of the related literatures, objectives of the study, significance of the study and definition of the specific terms.

Chapter two deals with methodology. It encompasses sources of data, sample population and sampling procedure, research tools, processes of data collection and limitations of the study.

Chapter three deals with analysis and interpretation of the data. It comprises rules of negative and interrogative transformations in English and Tharu, and the processes of negative and interrogative transformations between Tharu and English.

Chapter four encompasses findings, recommendations and pedagogical implications.

CONTENTS

ABBREVIATIONS

Adv.	–	Adverb
Aff.	–	Affirmative
Aux. V.	–	Auxiliary Verb
CA	–	Contrastive Analysis
Edu.	–	Educated
F	–	Female
H	–	Honorific
HH	–	Higher Honorific
Illit.	–	Illiterate
Lit.	–	Literate
M	–	Male
m	–	modal
M.V.	–	Main Verb
Neg.	–	Negative
NH	–	Non- Honorific
NP	–	Noun Phrase
Pos.	–	Positive
Pres.	–	Present
Q.W	–	Question Word
Sg.	–	Singular
SLC	–	School Leaving Certificate
Stat.	–	Statement
Subj.	–	Subject
TG	–	Transformational Grammar
VDC	–	Village Development Committee
Wh-q.	–	Wh-Question
Y/nq.	–	Yes/No Question

CHAPTER ONE
INTRODUCTION

1.1   General Background

Human beings are gifted with the power of speech because of which human civilization has developed so much. Language is primarily a means of communication through which human ideas, feelings, thoughts, emotions, etc. are expressed. It is the unique possession of mankind. Human beings are distinguished from all other living creatures by language. Although some languages may be more important than that of others according to time, place, situation, content and people etc, all languages are equally important in terms of communicative values. It is a very complex psychological and social phenomenon in human life so much so that it has been taken as one of the mysteries that have confronted people, a topic on which there has been much speculation and no conclusion. It is common to all and only human beings. It is the most precious asset to human beings.

Chomsky (1957:13) defines language as "a set (finite or infinite) of sentences, each finite in length and constructed out of a finite set of elements". In the words of Sapir (1921:8), "It is a purely human and non-instinctive method of communicating experiences, ideas, emotions, and desires by means of voluntary produced symbols".

For Wardhaugh (1986:1), "language is what the members of a particular society speak".

Language is common to all human beings. It is the most unique gift that sets them apart from the rest of living beings. It exists in society and permits its members to relate to each other, to interact with each other, to co-operate with each other. It is the greatest accomplishment of human civilization. It is perhaps the most significant asset to human life.

1.1.1 The Linguistic Scenario of Nepal

Nepal, situated in the lap of the Himalayas, is a multi-racial, multi-religious, multi- cultural and multi-lingual country. It, though a small country, has been very fertile land for languages. It is a country of linguistic diversity. According to the population census report 2001, there are 92 identified languages spoken in Nepal. These languages and their innumerable satellite dialects have genetic affiliation to at least four language families, namely Indo-Aryan, Tibeto- Burman, Austro-Asiatic/Munda and Dravidian. The languages are classified under the four language families as follows:

a. The Indo-Aryan Family

It includes the following languages:

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

b. The Tibeto-Burman Family

It includes the following languages:

Tamang	Tibeton	Barman/Baramu
Newar	Jirel	Koche
Magar	Yholmo	Kagate
Gurung	Dura	Lhomi
Limbu	Meche	Toto
Sherpa	Pahadi	Kham
Chepang	Lepche	Syang
Sunuwar	Raji	Marpha

Thami	Hayu	Manang
Dhimal	Byangshi	Nar
Bhujel/Khawas	Ghale	Rai languages (More than 33 languages)
Thakali	Kaike	Chhantyal/Chhantel
Raute		

c. The Austro-Asiatic/Munda Family

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

d. The Dravidian Family

This family also includes only one language i.e. Jhangar/Dhangar which is spoken on the province of the Koshi River in the eastern part of Nepal.

Among the four language families mentioned above, the Tibeto-Burman language family is the largest one as it includes a large number of languages.

1.1.2   The English language in Nepal

There are several languages spoken in the world. Among them English is the most widely used one. It is probably the native language of more people than any other except North 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 penetrated 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 languages offered by the U.N.

English has become an inevitable source of knowledge for non-native 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 gateway to knowledge. The importance of English language in the present day world need not be overemphasized. 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 (1995:226) 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 a 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". Similarly, in Malla's (1979:12) words, "English is undoubtedly of vital importance for accelerating the modernization process in Nepal." Thus English is the language of higher education, mass media, business and diplomacy. We need English to make a link with the outer world. Teaching English language in Nepal was started for the first time at the Darbar High School in 1853. Now English has occupied an important place in the educational system of Nepal. In Nepal, it is taught as a subject right form grade one up to the Master's level whereas the English medium schools teach English right form nursery level. The rapid growth of English medium schools and their impact on society proves the importance of English in Nepal. We need English mainly for two purposes viz. academic and communicative. Such a giant language belongs to the Indo-European language family of the world.

1.1.3 Tharu Language: Origin and History

Tharu people live in different parts of Nepal, from Mechi to Mahakali. They generally live in Terai, inner Terai and in some hills. Nearly 5.86% of the total population of Nepal is occupied by Tharu according to population census report 2001. Not only in Nepal, Tharu people also live in Bihar, Uttarpradesh and West Bangal of India.

Grierson (1901:14) mentions "Tharu is classified as Indo-European, Indo-Iranian, Indo-Aryan, Central Zone, Western and Eastern Hindu Branch". Grimes. He lists six varieties of Tharu. Some consider them as distinct languages, and have classified all but one of these varieties in the eastern zone of Indo-Aryan. It is also affected by the geographical boundaries and adjustment with other languages users. So far detail and effective studies about Tharu language have not been done: Many scholars have said that Tharu have no actual language of their own. They say that Tharu speech veriety has greatly been affected by Indian languages found nearby such as Hindi, Bhojpuri, Maithili and Awadhi, and just be the mixture of them. Everywhere the Tharu speak more or less correctly the language of Aryan races with whom they are immediately in contact".

Chaudhary (2053:14) mentions, "The Tharu told him that they have their own literature and language, either of the east or of the west or far-west of Nepal. Because of geographical barrier there is variation in Tharu language. Broadly the varieties of Tharu languages are known as Morangia, Barajili, Dangorian and Desauriya".

"Many of the people also believe that they have come from the 'Thar Desert' of Rajstan in India, having fled at the time of Islamic invasions" (Singh, 1993:3).

1.1.4 Negative and Interrogative Transformations

A. Negative Transformation

According to Robins (1967:242), "Essentially transformation is a method of sating 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." Negation is process in grammar to contradict the meaning or part of the meaning of a sentence. Funk and Wagnalls (1960:1660) define negation as " the act of denying or of asserting the falsity of a proposition". In English grammar, it is expressed by inserting the negative particle *not* or its contracted form *n't.* However, if there is not an auxiliary verb in an affirmative sentence, we need to apply Do-support (also known as operator addition) rule. 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-, dis-, a-) to adjectives and adverbs:

For example,

        Happy-*unhappy*   happily-*unhappily*

(ii) The Phrase Level

The negative determine *no* is used to make a noun phrase (NP) negative:
Plans have been made. –*No* plans have been made.

Similarly, infinitive phrase can be made negative using *not* before infinitive verbs:
For example,

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 negator:

For example,

　　　Nirmala is at home. – Nirmala is *not* at home.

　　　However, *no* can also make a sentence negative, especially when it negates the subject:

For example,

　　　　　No one was home to sign for the package.

B. Interrogative Transformation

　　　Interrogative transformation is process of making assertive sentences interrogative. An interrogative sentence is also called question. 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 called the subject-auxiliary inversion rule.

a. Types of Question
(i)   Yes/No Question

　　　It expects yes or no answer. In it, 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 question is of two types:

　　　(a) Positive yes/no question: Does Pratibha study English?

　　　(b) Negative yes/no question: Does Pratibha not study English?

(ii)   WH-Question

It is also called content question. It asks for completing some specific informaiton in a sentence. It involves 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 your name?

(b) Negative wh-question: Where do you not go?

1.1.5   Need and Importance of Contrastive Analysis (CA)

To quote James (1980:45), "Contrastive analysis is a linguistic enterprise aimed at producing inverted (i.e. contrastive, not comparative) two-valued typologies (a CA is always concerned with a pair of languages), and founded on the assumption that languages can be compared". Although in early 19th century CA was used for the study of genetic relationships of languages, from mid 20th century CA was started to be used in the field of language teaching. CA approach in language teaching was first advocated by C.C. Fries and Robert Lado. In 1945, Fries published a book entitled "Teaching and Learning English as a Foreign Language" in which he writes "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 to be learned, carefully compared with a parallel description of the native language of the learner". Robert Lado, in 1957, wrote a book entitled "Linguistics Across Culture" which disseminated the work initiated by Fries. Lado provided three underlying assumptions of CA, which have significant role in language teaching.

(a)   "Individuals tend to transfer the forms and meanings and distribution of forms and meanings of their native language and culture of the foreign language and culture, both productively when attempting to speak the language ……… and receptively when attempting to grasp and understand the language."

19

(b)   "In the comparison between native and foreign languages 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" (Lado, 1957: 7).

CA is based on the behaviouristic theory of learning. According to this theory, learning is a matter of habit formation. It may happen that before a learner starts to learn a new habit he has already mastered an old habit. In such case, they transfer the system of their L_1 in learning L_2 due to the gravitational pull of the first langrage. Therefore, the L_1 and the L_2 need to be compared to find out their similarities and differences which are sources of ease and difficulty in learning an L_2 respectively. Due to the gravitational pull of the first language, the learner creates either positive or negative transfer in his statement. If the knowledge of L_1 helps in learning the second language due to their similarities, this is called positive transfer. On the contrary, when the knowledge of L_1 interferes in learning the second language, the transfer becomes negative.

CA is an important part of application of linguistics to language teaching because it helps teachers show the relation between the areas of differences in the two languages, identifying which areas are more difficult for learners, and occurs errors in their performance. CA is important form pedagogical point of view.

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.

Sthapit (1978: 8b) writes the roles of CA in L_2 teaching in the following way:

"When we start learning an L_2 our mind is no longer a clean slate. Our knowledge of L_1 has, as it were, stiffened our linguistically flexible mind. The 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 learning an L_2. In other words, L_1 interference stands as a main obstacle on our way to L_2 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."

1.2   Review of the Related Literatures

Regarding Tharu language, more than six researches have been carried out So far. Truly speaking, no research has yet been carried out on the topic "Negative and Interrogative Transformations in English and Tharu language" in the Department of English Education. Thus, it will be asset to the Department of English Education. The related literatures to the present study are as follows:

Rana (2001) has carried out a research entitled "A Comparative Study of Tense and Aspect System of Magar and English Language". It was found that Magar language has past vs. non-past binary split system as English has. Both past and non-past tenses are marked feature in the Magar language whereas only the past tense is marked feature in English.

Khaniya (2002) has conducted a research on "Proficiency of the Students in Negative and Interrogative Transformation". He wanted to find out the proficiency in negative and interrogative transformation of the students of

grade 9 of Lamjung district. He found that the students have better performance in negative transformations in respect to interrogative transformation and the boys are more proficient than the girls on both negative an interrogative transformation.

Paudel (2004) has done a research entitled "A Comparative Study on Negative and Interrogative Transformation in English and Pachthare Dialect of Limbu language". He found out that the affix 'me' is the negative marker in Limbu which occurs before the verbs in assertive and interrogative sentence, whereas the negative marker in English is 'not' which is added after auxiliary verb. Yes/no question in Limbu is formed by placing 'bi' or 'pi' after the verb whereas an auxiliary occurs at the beginning of the sentence in English.

Phyak (2004) has carried out a research on "English and Limbu Pronominals: A Linguistic Comparative Study". He wanted to determine Limbu pronominals and to find out similarities and differences between those in relation to English pronominals. He found that Limbu has more pronouns and more complex pronominal system than those of English. There is no distinct use of Limbu pronouns for male, female, human and non-human beings. Regarding personal and possessive pronouns, both are categorized under singular, dual and plural number in Limbu, but they are categorized under singular and plural number in English.

Kushawaha (2005) has carried out a research on "Negative and Interrogative Transformation in English and Bhojpuri: A Comparative Study". He wanted to find out the negative and interrogative systems of English and Bhojpuri. He found that they are similar in same respects but different in others. It shows that only negative marker in English is 'not' or 'n''t' which is placed after an auxiliary verb in an assertive sentence whereas the negative markers in Bhojpuri are 'nat', 'mat', 'naikhe' and 'naikhi' which are added immediately before the main verb.

Adhikari (2006) has carried out a research work on "A comparative Study on Passivization in English and Tharu language" and found out that the Tharu-speaking students may commit an error while passivizing English verbs because in English only transitive verbs are passivized but in Tharu language both are available.

1.3   Objectives of the Study

The study had the following objectives:

a.   To identify the process of negative and interrogative transformations in Tharu.

b.   To analyse the processes of negative and interrogative transformations of English and Tharu.

c.   To enlist some suggestions and some pedagogical implications.

1.4   Significance of the Study

i)   This will be the first research on negative and interrogative transformation in the Tharu language in the Department of English Education. Thus, it will be invaluable for the Department itself.

ii)   The study will give insight on negation and interrogation in the Tharu language along with that in English.

iii)   This study will be significant for language planners, syllabus designers, textbook writers, students and teachers of language and linguistics, and people who are interested in this field.

iv)   This study will be equally significant for the researchers on the Tharu language.

1.5   Definitions of the Specific Terms

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 two levels of structural representation to be placed in correspondence.

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

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

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

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

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

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 that something is true, accurate or justified.

CHAPTER TWO
METHODOLOGY

The methodology adopted by the researcher to carry out the research is described below.

2.1   Sources of Data

The researcher utilized both primary and secondary sources of data to complete the research study.

2.1.1 Primary Sources

Sixty Tharu native speakers from Madhuwan Mathaul and Bagbana VDCs of Parsa district were the primary sources from whom the researcher elicited the required data for the research.

2.1.2 Secondary Sources

The Secondary sources of data were different books, articles, journals, theses and others related materials to the topic in question, e.g. Aarts and Aarts (1986), Murphy (1997), Celce-Murcia and Larsen-Freeman (1999), Thomson and Martinet (1986) etc.

2.2   Population

The population of the present study is the inhabitants of Madhuwan Mathaul and Bagbana VDCs of Parsa district.

2.3   Sample Population and Sampling Procedure

The total sample population was sixty Tharu native speakers above fifteen years of age from Madhuwan Mathaul and Bagbana VDCs of Parsa district. Thirty 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 qualification below S.L.C. were taken as literate and the population with academic qualification above S.L.C. was assumed as educated ones.

Table No. 1

District: Parsa

VDCs	Madhuwan Mathaul						Bagbana					
Types of Informants	Illit.		Lit.		Edu.		Illit.		Lit.		Edu.	
Sex	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	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											

2.4 Research Tools

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

2.5 Process of Data Collection

The stepwise procedure of data collection adopted by the researcher to collect the required data are given in the following points:

(i) The researcher developed two types of research tools such as interview schedule and questionnaire under the guidance of his research supervisor.

(ii) He went to the selected VDCs and established a good rapport with the selected informants.

(iii) He motivated the respondents by explaining clearly and in simple terms the objectives and relevance of the study.

(iv) He kindly asked for their invaluable co-operation 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 written form.

(vi) He smilingly thanked the informants when the interview was over and test items were returned.

2.6 Limitations of the Study

The study was limited in the following ways:

(i) The total population of the study was limited only to sixty Tharu native speakers from Madhuwan Mathaul and Bagbana VDCs of Parsa district.

(ii) The total population was confined only to 3 groups viz. illiterate, literate and educated having 20 (10 males & 10 females) informants in each group above 15 years of age.

(iii) The study focused only on the processes of negative and interrogative transformations of Tharu with reference to English.

(iv) The negative transformation was limited only to assertive and imperative sentences.

(v) The interrogative transformation was limited only to positive assertive sentences.

(vi) The transformation was limited only to simple sentences.

CHAPTER THREE
ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION

This chapter deals with the analysis and interpretation of the data obtained from the selected informants from Madhuwan Mathaul and Bagbana VDCs of Parsa district. 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). Similarly, sentences for English have been taken from Murphy (1994). And then these rules were verified on the basis of oral and written primary data collected from 60 Tharu native speakers from Madhuwan Mathaul and Bagbana VDCs of Parsa district. Then it deals with the comparison and contrast of the processes of negative and interrogative transformation of Tharu with those of English. The collected data was analysed 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 transformation of English and Tharu with illustrations.

3.1   Rules of Negative and Interrogative Transformation of English

The rules of negative and interrogative Transformation of English have been extracted from Sinclair (2000), Quirk and Greenbaum (1990), Thomson and Martinet (1986), Arts and Arts (1986) and Hornby (1992) and Celce-Murcia, and Larsen-Freeman (1999).

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 some or all of a sentence's meaning". Although negative transformation is found in almost all languages of the world, the process of

transformation from affirmative into negative differs from one language to another.

a. Rules for Transforming Affirmative Sentences into Negative

The following rules must be borne in mind while transforming affirmative sentences into negative.

(i) The negation of a simple sentence is accomplished by inserting the negative marker *'not', 'n't'* between the operator and predication.

For example:

He is coming. ⟶ He is not (isn't) coming.

- Quirk and Green Baum (1990:185)

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:

They play hockey. → They do not (don't) play hockey.

He speaks English. → He does not (doesn't) speak English.

I knew that. → I did not (didn't) know that.

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:

We do our homework. → We do not (don't) do our homework.

Saloni does this. → Saloni does not (doesn't) do this.

I did that.   →   I did not (didn't) do that.

(ii) If the verb is *have* in an affirmative sentence and it functions as a main verb, we usually put *'do', 'does'* or *'did'* after the subject followed by not or n't followed by the base form of *'have'*.

For example:

I have my meal   → I do not (don't) have my meal.

She has her meal.   → She does not (didn't) have her meal.

He had a grand salary → He did not (didn't) have a grand   salary.

(v)   Imperative sentences are changed into negative by using *do not or don't* in the beginning of the sentences.

For example:

Tell the truth. → Do not (don't) tell the truth.

Speak honestly. → 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*" (Marphy, 1994:110).

For example:

Nirmala gave him something.→ Nirmala did not give him

anything.

But if these words (somebody, someone, something etc.0 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	No one
Somebody/everybody	Nobody
Something	Nothing

For example:

Someone helped me.   →   No one helped me.

Something is lost.   →   Nothing is lost.

(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
every........../some......../any.......	no
everyone/someone/anyone	on one/none
either.........or...........	neither.....nor

For example:

Ravi always smokes $\rightarrow$ Ravi never smokes.

Either Saloni or Palavi will come $\rightarrow$ Neither Saloni nor Palavi 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" (Swan, 1996:189).

For example:

You must make two copies. $\rightarrow$ You need not make two copies. One will do.

You must repeat this to someone $\rightarrow$ 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:

We were able to move. $\rightarrow$ We were scarcely able to move.

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

(x)   "Some negative prefixes can be added to the beginning of some words to give them the opposite meaning" Thomson and Martinet (1986:141).

For example:

*Un*happy, *in*visible, *di*slike, *im*possible, *il*legal, *ir*responsible, *mal*nutrition etc.

They were happy.→ They were *un*happy.

(xi)   Similarly, the suffix-*less* also can be added to many nouns in order to form negative adjectives.

For example:

Care*less*   harm*less*   home*less*   name*less*   child*less*

help*less*   need*less*   end*less*   hope*less*   sense*less*

land*less* etc.

They were completely helpful. → They were completely

help*less*.

3.1.2 Rules of Interrogative Transformation

According to Crystal (2003:241), "Interrogative refers to verb forms or sentence/clause types typically used in the expression of QUESTIONS, e.g. the inverted order of 'is he coming?' or the use of an interrogative word; (or simply 'interrogative') often sub-classified as interrogative ADJECTIVES (e.g. which ADVERBS why) and PRONOUNS (e.g. who)". An interrogative sentence is also called question. Question is broadly divided into two types such as yes/no question and wh-question.

A. 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

interrogation (?) at the end of the sentence whereas spoken variety is marked by rising intonation.

a. Rules for Transforming Statements into Yes/No Questions

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

i)   Yes/no question is usually made according to the pattern given below:

        Aux. V. + Subj. + M.V. +........?

ii)   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 sentence which is followed by the subject then the main verb.

For example:

They will like my garden. → Will they like my garden?

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

For example:

    He had been murdered. → Had he been murdered?

iv)   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. → Do you live in Sidney?

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

For example:

They do the work. → Do they do the work?

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

For example:

Hedgehogs have intelligence. → Do Hedgehogs have intelligence?

vii)   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. → Did he give her anything?

B. WH-Question

"The interrogative pronouns are *who, whose, whom, what and which. They are used to introduced direct WH-questions"* (Arts and Arts, 1986: 55).

The question which begins with a wh-word such as *what, who, when, 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.

a. Rules for Transforming Statements into WH-Questions

The following rules must be borne in mind while transforming statements into wh-question.

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

Q.W.+Aux.V.÷Subj.+M.V.+.........?

ii)   While transforming a statement into wh-question, the exact answer should be deleted.

For example:

Jack climbed the tree. → What did jack climb?

iii)   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.   Where does Mary live?

iv)   "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*" (Sinclair, 2000:101).

For example:

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

Some rules which have to be considered to use different wh-words (e.g. who, whom, whose, which etc. in making wh-questions 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 discovered this?

'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 did you dance with?

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

For example:

To whom is a broadcaster responsible?

b)   'Whose' and 'Which'

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

For example:

Whose babies did you think they were?

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

For example:

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

Which item do you like best? ('Which' as 'determiner')

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 find her?

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

For example:

Where does she live? ('where' as 'place')

d)   'Why' and 'How'

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

For example:

Why are you here?

'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 open it?

'How' is also used to ask a question about the way a person feels about the way someone or something looks or about the way something sounds, feels or testes.

For example:

How are you feeling today?

How do I look?

'How' can be combined with other words at the beginning of questions.

For example:

How many, How much, How long, How far etc.

3.2 Rules of Negative and Interrogative Transformation in Tharu

The researcher tested the rules of negative and interrogative transformation in Tharu language with the help of oral and written primary data collected from 60 Tharu native speakers from Madhuwan Mathaul and Bagbana VDCs of Parsa district.

3.2.1 The Rules of Negative Transformation

In Tharu, the negation is generally formed by adding negative marker (naikhe) 'not' immediately before the verb. The negative marker [naikhe] is sometimes placed in the middle position of the related verbs also. The negative marker 'mat/nat' is used in imperative sentence only.

For example:

i)   u: pani naikhe Piatau

        he water not drink- (3rd, Sg. pres.)

        'he doesnot drink water.'

ii)   Pani mat/nat pi:

        Water not drink- (imp)

        'Don't drink water.'

iii)   Sita redio naikhe sunat rahalai

        Sita redio sunat naikhe rahalai

Sita redio listeing not was (3rd , sg., cont.)

'Sita was not listening to the radio'.

3.2.2   Rules of Interrogative transformation

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

A. Yes/No-Question

The researcher tested the rules of yes/no question in Tharu language with the help of oral and written primary data collected from sixty Tharu native speakers from Madhuwan Mathaul and Bagbana VDCs of Parsa district.

Actually, in Tharu language question morpheme /Ka:/ comes at the final position of the sentences and functions as question.

For example:

i)   t : bhat khaibe ka: ?

        You rice eat (2nd sg., pres.)

        Do you eat rice?

ii)   u: Kathmandu me rahalak ka: ?

        He Kathmandu in lives question (3rd sg. pres.)

        Does he live in Kathmandu?

iii)   t : pani piabe ka: ?

        you water drink question (2nd ,sg.,pres.)

        Do you drink water?

Type-I interrogative (yes/no question) involves the introduction of interrogative morpheme/Ka:/ at the final position of the sentences. The structural description for this type of interrogative transformation may or may not require K-morpheme. Symbolically, this is show in figure 3.1.

Figure 3.1 yes/no question Transformation

a)
```
       C
      / \
     /   \
    X     Q?
```

b)
```
       C
      / \
     /   \
    X     Ka:
```
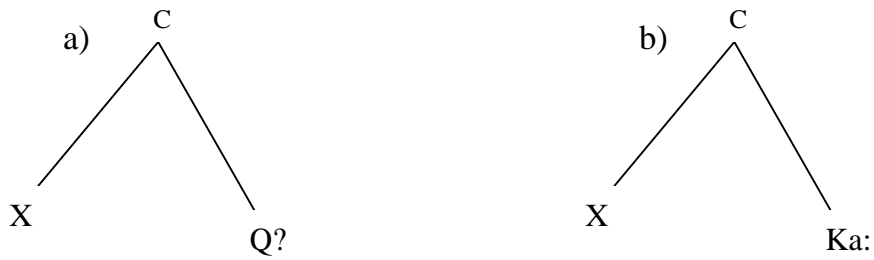
The symbol 'X' represents the succeeding non-interrogative or non- K constituents. Thus, an interrogative type-I (Yes/no question) sentence such as the following sentence (i) has a deep structure shown in figure 3.2.

i)   Hame git ga : ka: ?

I a song sing question (1st , sg., pres.)

Should I sing a song?

Figure 3.2: Deep structure for above sentence.

```
                C
           /  |  |    \
          /   |  |     \
        NP    NP  V     Q?
         |    |   |
        / \  / \ / \
```
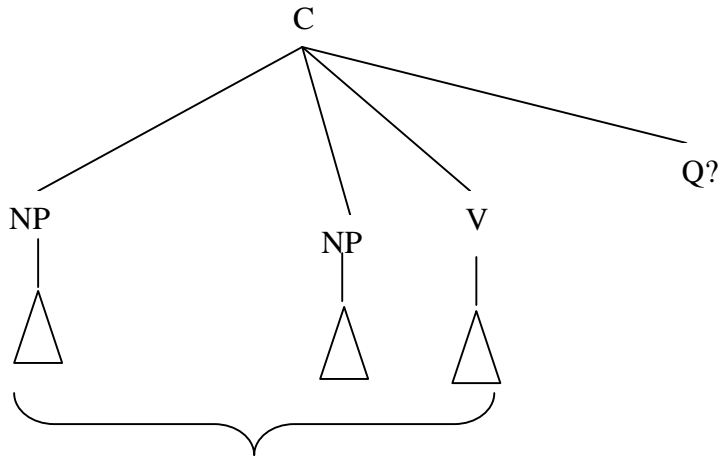
The transformation rule stated in figure 3.1 for the yes/no question will transfer the structure shown in figure 3.2 into a derived structure representing sentence (i). This transformed structure is illustrated in figure 3.3.

Figure 3.3: Representation of the structure before yes/no question transformation applied to the tree in figure 1.2.
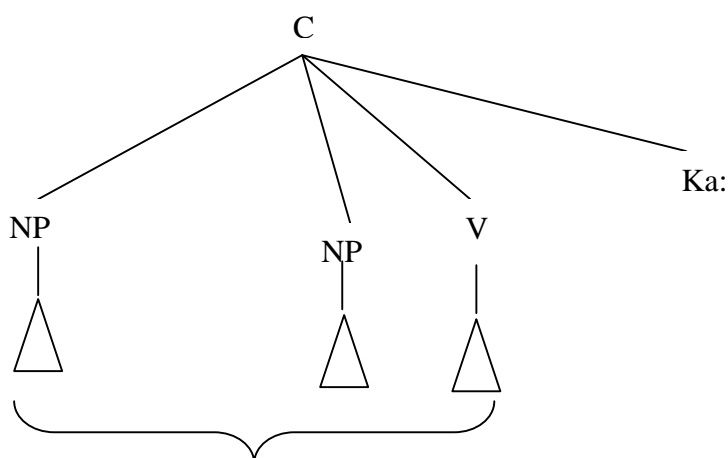
B. WH-Question/Type -II Interrogative Questions

"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). And adverbial question in Tharu involves reason and manner in (iii) and (iv) respectively" (Celce-Murcia and Larsen-Freeman, 1999:241).

For example:

(i)   Ke: pa: ni: pi: ta:i ?
        who water drink -(3rd, sg, press)
        Who drinks water?

(ii)   u: kabhi pa:ni: pi: ta:i ?
        he when water drink -(3rd, sg., pres.)
        When does he drink the water?

(iii)   u: ka: he: pa: ni: pi: tai ?
        he why water drink -(3rd, sg., pres.)
        'Why does he drink the water?'

(iv)   u: kaise pa:ni: pi: tai ?
        he how water drink -(3rd, sg., pres.)
        'How does he drink the water?'

Tharu has the following different types of interrogative morphemes participating wh-question.

(v)   u: kathi pi: tai ?

he what drink -(3rd,sg., pres.)

'What does he drink?'

(vi)   u: ke:kaike a:m de:tai ?

he who mango give-(3rd, sg., pres.)

'To whom did he give a mango?'

(vii)   u: kahawa: pa:ni: pi:tai ?

he where water drink -(3rd sg., pres.)

'Where does he drink the water?'

(viii) u: kekara: ghare: pa:ni: pi: tai ?

he whose house water drink-(3rd, sg., pres.)

'At whose house does he drink the water?'

All these interrogative morphemes contain an interrogative feature [k] . These morphemes like pronouns and adverbs originate in terms of features on noun or adverb segment in the deep structure.

When an NP or Adv segment contains a [k] in deep structure, it is being questioned. With this interpretation, the interrogative morphemes /ke:, Kathi, kahã:, kab, kaise , ka:he:, kekar/ all contain the feature[k]. However, /ke:/ 'who' is marked in the lexicon with the feature [human]; [kathi] is marked with the feature [non-human]'. And there are also some other features given in the following sub-categorization, which distinguish these interrogative morphemes from each other.

a. Sub-categorization of Interrogative Morphemes

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

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

[thi ; pro, non-human, k...]

[kãhawa:, pro, location, k....]

[kab, pro, time, k]

[kaise, Adv., manner, k....]

[ka:he:, Adv., reason, k.....]

[kekar, Det, genitive, k....]

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

Type-II interrogatives [Wh-questions] contain [k] in their deep structure. The presence of [k] under an NP or 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

(a)　Structural description (b)　Structural change
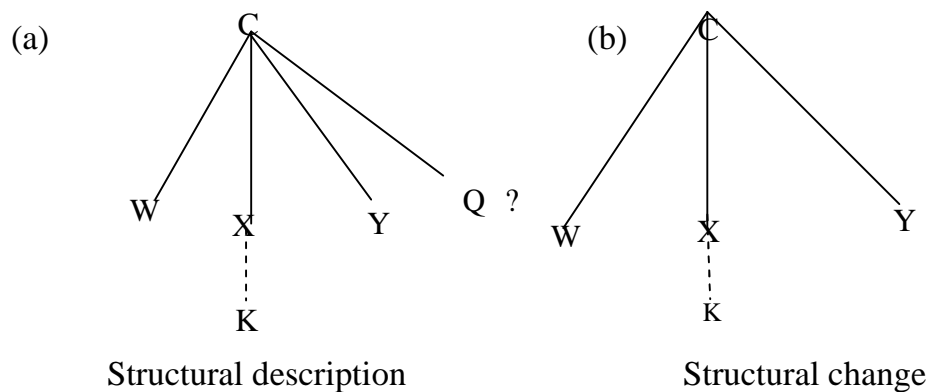
In figure 3.4 'W' and 'Y' represent constituents flanking the interrogative morpheme stemming from the node 'X'. 'W' can also be a null symbol. Thus, the following sentence (i) has the deep structure shown in figure 3.5.

(i)　　ke pa: ni: pi:tai: ?

　　　who water drink -(3rd, sg., pres.)

　　　'Who does drink water?'

Figure 3.5 Deep structure for sentence (i)

```
                              C
              _____/ | _____
             /             |  \            \
           NP             NP   V           Q ?
            |              \___/
         _____           Y
        |  Pro   |
        | human  |
        |   k    |
        |_____|
           \___/
             X
```
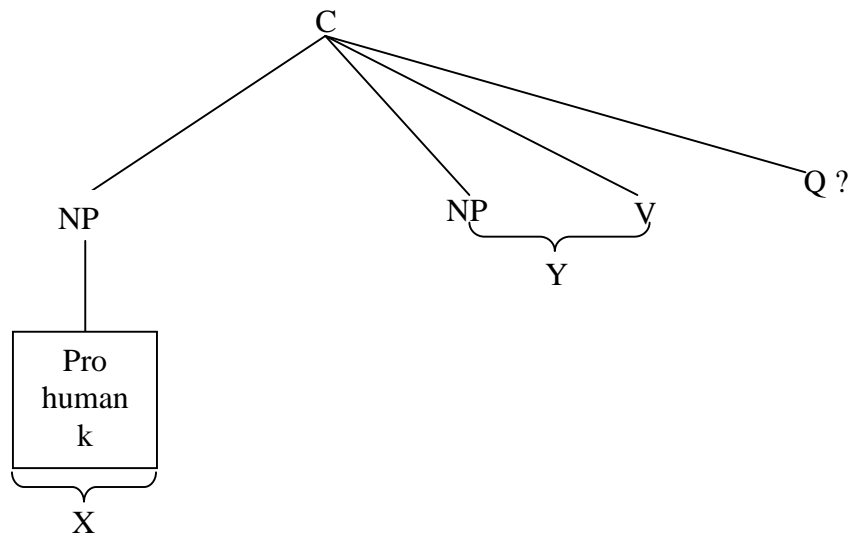
The rule given in figure 3.4 will delete the Q? from the surface structure and the result will be sentence (i). The following sentence (ii) will have the deep structure shown in figure 3.6.

(i)   u: kathi pi:tai:
        he what dirink -(3rd, sg., pres.)
        'What does he drink?'

Figure 3.6 Deep Structure for Sentence (ii)

```
                              C
              _____/ /  |  _____
             /      /    |         \
           NP     NP     V         Q ?
          \__/     |    \_/
           W    _____  Y
              |  Pro   |
              | human  |
              |        |
              |   k    |
              |_____|
                \___/
                  X
```
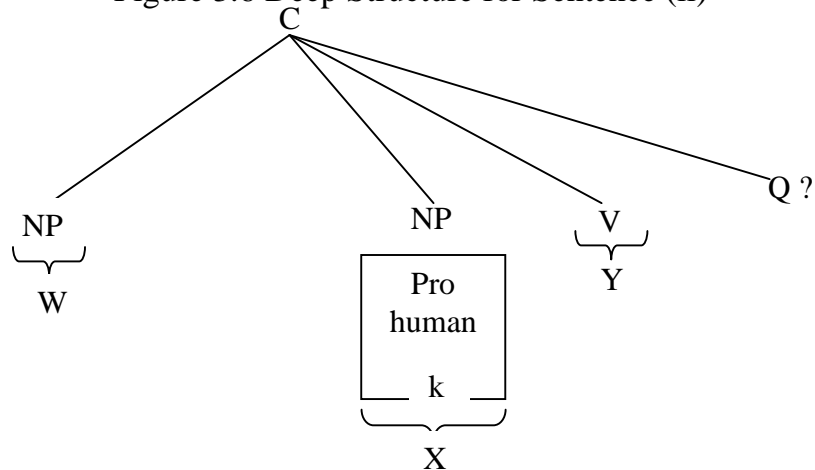
Here again, the application of the rule given in figure 3.4 will give us the ultimate sentence (ii). The selection of the proper interrogative morpheme will depend on the sub-categorization of morphemes . Thus [pro, human, k]

(figure 3.5) and [pro, nonhuman, k] (figure 3.6) will be replaced by /ke:/ 'who' and [kathi] 'what' respectively.

3.3 Verification of the Rules of Negative and Interrogative Transformations of Tharu

The researcher tested the rules of negative and interrogative transformations of Tharu with the help of oral and written primary data collected from sixty Tharu native speakers from Madhuwan Mathaul and Bagbana VDCs of Parsa district. It was found that all the rules set previously are simlilar with the reponses given by the selected informants of the study. However, some dissimilarities were seen regarding with the use of negative marking morphemes and with the use of wh-words. In course of analyzing the primary data collected from the informants, it was found that the main negative marking morpheme is [naikhe]. It was also found the morpheme [naikhe] has three allomorphs such as [nat]/[mat], [naikhe], and the first two were found to be occurred before the verbs of imperative sentences, the second [naikhe] before any tenses.

Regarding wh-question, it was found that the wh-question marking words have also several other names. They are given in the following table.

Table No. 2

Primary data
ke:/kawan
/kathi /kae/ketana:
kab/katijuga:/kaunijuga:/ka:wan bera:
ka:he/kathikha:tir
kaise/ke e/kathise/
/keke/kekara/ke
kekar/kekarake/ke/
Kawan

3.4 Negative and Interrogative Transformations between Tharu and English

3.4.1 Negative Transformation between English and Tharu.

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

a. Negative of Assertive Sentences

	Tharu	**English**

1. Ramesh Kathamandu me rahlak   Aff.   Ramesh lives in Kathmandu.

  Ramesh Kathamandu in live'

  Ramesh Kathamandu me naikhe rahlak   Neg.   Ramesh does not

  live in Kathmandu.

  'Ramesh kathmandu in not live'

2. pratib^{h}a: pa:ni: pia thi   Aff.   Pratibha is drinking water.

  'pratibha water drinking'

  pratib^{h}a: pa:ni: naike piathi

  pratib^{h}a: pa:ni: naikhe pi:-at hi   Neg.   Pratibha is not drinking water.

  'pratib^{h}a water not drinking.

3. hame ego niman kabita: likeha-le badi: Aff.   I have written a good poem.

  'I a good poem written have'

  hame ego niman kabita: naik^{h}e likea-le ba:di:

  ham ego niman kabita. naikhe: likh-le badi   Neg.   I have not written a good poem.

4. u: ka:lhu ma:s inhã-lai   Aff.   He cooked meat yesterday.

  'he yesterday meat cooked'

  u:ka:lhu ma:s naikhe inhã-lal   Neg.   he did not cook meat yesterday.

  'he yesterday meat not cooked'

5. kisa:n khet -me ka:m kar-at rahlai   Aff.   Farmer was doing work in the field.

'farmer field in work doing was'

kisa:n khet -me ka:m naikhe kar-at rahlai   Neg.   Farmer was not
doing work in the field.

'farmer field in work not doing was'

6.   Balaram kathmandu ga:il rahalai   Aff.   Balaram had gone to
Kathmandu.

'Balaram: Kathmandu gone had.'

Balaram:m Kathmandu naikhe ga-il rahalai   Neg.   Balaram had not
gone to kathmandu.

'Balara:m Kathmandu not gone had.

7.   Kishor biha:n awtau   Aff.   Kishor will come tomorrow.

'Kishor tomorrow come'

Kishor biha:n naikhe awtau   Neg.   Kishor will not come tomorrow.

'Kishor tomorrow not come.'

8.   khela: di: -sab kirket khel-at hotau   Aff.   The players will be playing
cricket.

'player-s cricket playing will be'

khela:di-sab kirket naikhe khel-at hotau   Neg.   The players will
not be playing cricket.

'player-s cricket not playing will be.'

9.   Amit ego chha:ta kin-le-le hotau   Aff.   Amit will have bought an
umbrella.

'Amit an umbrella bought will have'

Amit ego chha:ta: naikhe kin-le hotau   Neg.   Amit will not have
bought an umbrella.

'Amit an umbrella not bought will have'

b. Negatives of Imperative Sentences

10. i: kabita: paDh   Aff.   Read this poem.

'this poem read'

i: kabita: nat/mat paDh   Neg.   do not (don't) read this poem.

'this poem not read'

11.   ke: wa:ri: khol   Aff.   Open the door.

'door open'

kewari nat/mat khol   Neg.   Do not (don't) open the door.

'door not open'

12.   nu:n de   Aff.   Pass the salt.

'salt pass'

nu:n nat/mat de   Neg.   Do not (don't) pass the salt.

'salt not pass'

The researcher,while comparing the processes of negative transformation system between Tharu and English, found the following main similarities and differences.

c. Similarities

1.   In both English and Tharu languages, both assertive and imperative sentences are negated.

For example:

English   **Tharu**

Assertive   Assertive

I drink water.   (pos.)   hame pa:ni: pibau

I do not drink water.   (neg.)   hame pa:ni: naikhe pi:bau

Imperative   **Imperative**

Drink water   (pos.)   pa:ni: pi:

Do not (don't) drink water.   (neg.)   pa:ni:nat/mat pi:

2.   In both languages, separate negative markers (i.e. 'not' or n't in English, and 'nat/mat', 'naikhe' in Tharu) are used while transforming positive sentences into negative.

d. Differences

1. The only negative marker 'not' or 'n't' is placed after an auxiliary verb in English whereas the negative markers such as 'naikhe' is added immediately before the main verb in Tharu to make a positive assertive sentence negative. The Tharu negative markers 'naikhe' is used in either tenses and 'mat/nat' in imperative sentences.

    The person markers used in present continuous tense are shown in the following figures:

                                    hame 'I' '-a:ri:', '-ba:di'
    1st person
                                    hamani:(-sab) 'we' '-a:ri:', '-ba:di:'

                                    tu 'you' (NH) '-a:re', '-ba:de'
    2nd person   apne 'you' (H) '-a:ri'. '-ba:di'
                                    apane (-sab) 'you' (HH) '-adi:', '-ba:ni:

                                    u: 'he' '-thi:
    3rd person   u: 'she' '-thi:'
                                    okani: (-sab) 'they'   M '-thi'
                                                                  F'-'thi:'
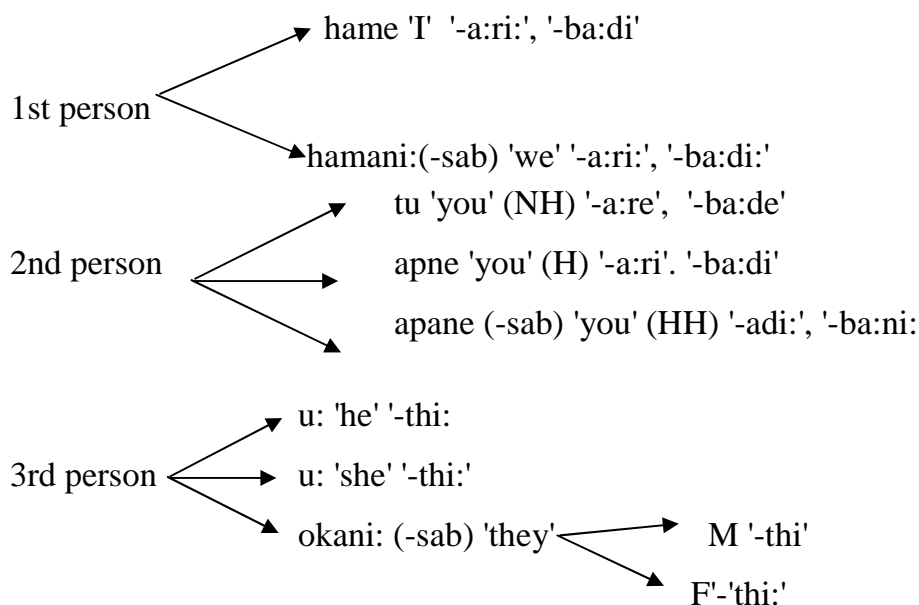
    Similarly, when the positive assertive sentences of present perfect tense are converted into negative using the negative morphemes 'naihe', the last particle '-le' of the verb are omitted from the sentence.

For example:

Positive	**Negative**
hame ego gi:t likhe-le le la;d:	hame ego gi:t naikhe. likeh-le badi
tu ego gi:t likh-le-le ba:De	tu ego git naikhe likh-le bade.
u: ego gi:t likh-le-le bai.	u: ego gi:t naikhe likh-le bai.
si:ta: ego git likhe-le-le bai	si:ta ego git;t naikhe likh-le bau.

The person markers used in present perfect tense are shown in the following figures.

1st person
→ hame 'I' '-ba:di:'
→ hamani: (-sab) 'we' '-ba;di:'

2nd person
→ tu 'you' (NH) '-ba;De:'
→ apne 'you' (H) '-ba:di'

3rd person
→ u: 'he' '-bai:' 'hai'
→ u: 'she '-bai:''hai'
→ okani: (-sab) 'they'
  → M '-bai'/hai'
  → F 'bai' hai'
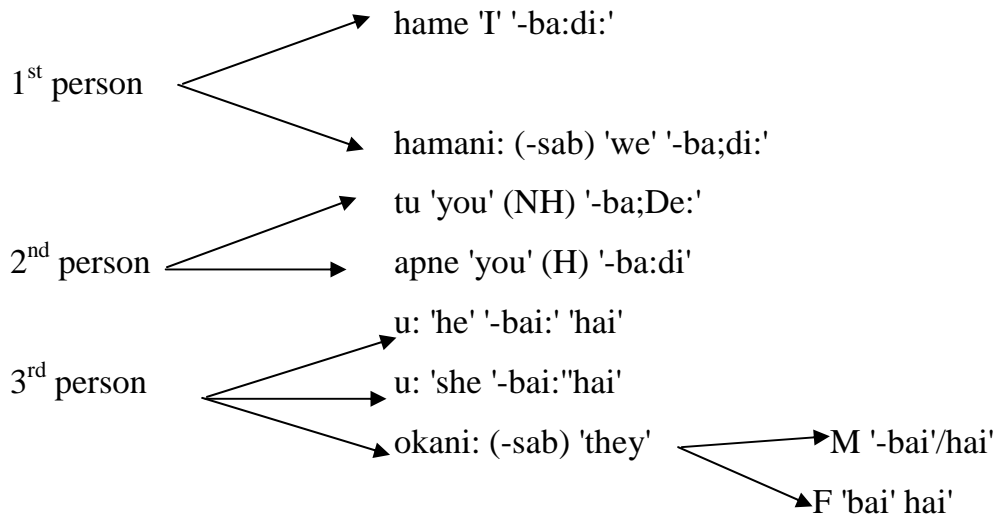
2. If there is no auxiliary verb in a positive assertive sentence, we need to use a rule called 'do support' or ' operator addition' (do, does and did) rule andthe negative particle 'not' or 'n't' is used after it to form a negative assertive sentence. While forming negative by appying this rule, the 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 Tharu.

For example;

Positive	**Negative**
I write a letter.	I do not write a letter.
Nirmal writes a letter.	Nirmala does not write a letter.
Saloni wrote a letter.	Saloni did not write a letter.

3. In imperative sentence, 'do not' (don't) is placed before the verb or at the beginning of the sentence (i.e. negative imperative sentence is imitated with 'do not' or 'don't') in English whereas the negative markers such as, 'nat' and 'mat' are added just before the main verb in Thau.

For example :

English   **Tharu**

Bring me a glass of water   (Aff.)   ek gila:s pa:ni: lea:wa

Do not (don't) bring me a glass of water.   (Neg.)   ek gila:s pa: ni: nat/mat lea:wa

3.4.2 Interrogative Transformation between English and Tharu

There are two types of interrogatives sentence in both English and Tharu languages such a yes/no and wh-question. They have been compared one by one as follows:

3.4.3 The Processes of Yes/No question Transformation

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

a. Yes/no questions of positive Assertive Sentences

    Tharu   **English**

1.   tohar be Ta: gi:t ga:walo   Stat.   Your son sings a song.

    'your son song sings'

    tohar be Ta: gi:t ga: wlo ka:?   y/n q.   Does your son sing a song?

    ' your song sings question '

2.   Binda chah piathi   Stat.   Bindu is sipping tea.

    'Bindu tea sipping'

    Bindu chaj piathi ka:?   y/n q.   Is Binda sipping tea?

    'Bindu tea sipping. question '

3.   hame ego ga:i: kin-le-le badi: stat.   I have bought a cow.

    'I a cow bought have'

    ham ego ga:i: kin-le-le badi ka:?   y/n q.   Have I bought a cow?

    ' I a cow bought have question '

4.   u: ka: lhu apan ghar-e galai   stat.   He went to his house yesterday.

    'he yesterday his house went'

u: ka: lhu apan: ghar-e galai ka:?   y/nq.   did he go to his house
                                                      yesterday?

' he yesterday his house went question '

5.   hamar babuji: a:m kin-at rahalai   stat.   My father was buying a
                                                         mango.

'my father mango buying was'

hamar ba:buji: a:m kinat rahalai ka:?   y/n q.   Was my father buying a
                                                         mango?

' my father mango buying was question '

6.   Raj da;ru: pi:-le rahalau   stat.   Raj hand drunk wine.

'Raj wine drunk had'

Ra:j da:ru:pi:-le rahalai ka:?   y/n q.   Had Raj drunk wine?

'Raj wine drunk had question '

7.   Ra:ni: du: dh pi:atau   stat.   Rani will drink milk.

'Rani milk drink'

Ra:ni: du: dh piatau ka:?   y/nq.   Will Rani drink milk?

'Rani milk drink question '

8.   Nirma:la: ego su:i: tar bin-at hotau   stat.   Nirmala will be knitting a
                                                             sweater?

'Nirmala a sweater knitting will be'

Nirma:la: ego su:i: tar bin-at hotau ka:?   y/n q.   Will Nirmala be a
Nirmala a sweater knitting will be question?   knitting sweater?

9.   okar ma: i: baja:r-se chal a:el hotau   stat.   His mother will have come
'his mother market from come will have'   from market.

oker ma: i: baja:r-se chal a: el hotau ka:?   y/n q.   Will his mother
his mother market from come will have question '   have come from
                                                                market?

The researcher found the following similarities and differences while comparing the process of yes/no question transformation between English and Tharu.

b. Similarities:

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

   For example:

   English   **Tharu**

   Ravi is taking exam.   (stat.)   rabi ja:ch dethi

   Is Ravi taking exam?   (y/n q.)   rabi ja:ch dethi ka:?

2. In English, yes/no question markers (i.e. auxiliary verb) are placed at the beginning of the sentence) but in Tharu, yes/no question marker (ka:) is placed at the end of the sentences.

3. The sign of interrogation or question mark (?) is introduced and placed at the end of the yes/no question in both languages.

c. Differences:

1. 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 'ka:' is introduced and placed at the end of the sentence in Tharu.

2. If the sentence has no auxiliary verb, we need to use a rule called 'do support' or 'operator addition' (do, does and did) rule and the form of the verb is changed into its root form to make a statement yes/no question in English where as such rule does not occur in Tharu.

   For example:

   English   **Tharu**

   You sing a song.   (stat.)   tu ego gi:t gawle ka:?

   Do you sing a song?   (y/n q.)   ka: tu ego gi: t gawlo.

   Nirmal sings a song   (stat.)   nirmal ego gi:t ga; wel

   Does Nirmal sing a song?   (y/n q.)   nirmal ego gi ta ga: wla: ka:?

   I sang a song.   (stat.)   hame ego gi:t gaili.

   Did I sing a song ?   (y/n q.)   hame ego gi:t gaili ka:?

3.	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 Tharu.

For example:

English	**Tharu**
Ramesh will come tomorrow. (stat.)	remesh biha:n awtau.
Will Ramesh come tomorrow? (y/n q.)	ramesh biha:n awtau ka:?

Note: The researcher himself has named 'yes/no' question' 'hã/naikhe: 'pransa' as the expected answer he has found is 'hã' 'yes' or 'naikhe' 'no' in Tharu.

3.4.4 The Processes of Wh question Transformation

The processes of wh-question transformation of Tharu are compared with those of English as follows:

a. Wh-questions of Positive Assertive Sentences

<u>**Tharu**</u>	<u>**English**</u>

1.	Rabi chiThi: likh-lak	(stat.)	Ravi writes a letter.
	'Ravi letter writes'
	ke/kawane chithi: likh lak?	(wh-q.)	Who writes a letter?
	'who letter writes'

2.	hamar na:w pratibha: -hau?	(stat.)	My name is Pratibha.
	'my/your name what is'

3.	sa:t bajthi:	(stat.)	It is 7 o'clock.
	'seven o'clock'
	kae/ketana: bajthi ?	(wh-q.)	What time is it?
	'what time'

4.	sujit baja:r ga-il bau/hau	(stat.)	Sujit has gone to market.
	'sujit market gone has'
	sujit ka: ha:wa ga-il bau/hau?	(wh-q.)	Where has Sujit gone?
	'sujit where gone has'

5.   kiran pã:ch baje alai   (stat.)   Kiran came at 5 o'clock?

      'kiran five o'clock came'

      kiran kae baje alai?   (wh-q.)   When did Kiran come?

      'kiran when caem'

6.   Ruchi: paisa: khatir ka:m kar-at rahlai.   (stat.)   Ruchi was doing

      Ru:chi: ka:he ka:m kar-at rahlai ?   work for money.

      'Ruchi why work doing was'

7.   okani: paedal a:el rahlai   (wh-q.)   They had come on foot.

      'they on foot come had'

      okani: kaise a:el rahlai?   (wh-q.)   How had they come?

      'they how come had'

8.   hame nirma:la: -ke a:m debau.   (stat.)   I will give Nirmala a

                                                      mango.

      'I nirmala to mango give'

      hame kekarake a:m di ?   (wh-q.)   To whom will I give a mango?

      'I who (OM) to mango give'

9.   i: hamar kita: b hai.   (stat.)   This is my book.

      'this my book is'

      i: kekar kita:b hai?   (wh-q.)   Whose book is this?

      'this whose book is'

10.   hamar hariar ran pasand bau/hau.   (stat.)   I like green colour.

      'I green colour like'

      hamara:/tohara:kawan ra   pasand bau/hau?   (wh-q.)   Which colour
                                                                  do you like?

      'I/you which colour like'.

11.   u: mahina:-me ek ber gʰar-e ja:-lak?   (sat.)   He goes to house once a
      . 'he month in once house goes'.   month.

54

u:mahina:-me kaeber g^har-e ja:- lak? (wh-q.)   How often does he go

'he month in how often house goes'   to house in a month?

12.   ra:mu: pã:c^h-go bhais kin-le-le bau/hau.   (stat.)   Ramu has bought

'ramu five buffaloes bought has'.   five buffaloes.

ra:mu: kaego b^haisi: kin-le-le bau?   (wh-q.)   How many buffaloes

'ramu how many buffaloes bought has'   has Ramu bought?

13.   i:sa:Di:-ke da:m ti:n sae ropaya:bai/hai   (stat.)   This sari costs 300

. 'this sari costs 300 rupees'.   rupees.

i:sa:Di:-ke da:m ketana: bai?   (wh-q.)   How much does this sari

'this sari costs how much'.   cost?

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

b. Similarities:

1.   In both English and Tharu languages, assertive sentence are transformed into wh-question.

For example:

English   **Tharu**

Ruchi writies a poem.   (stat.)   ru:nci:kabita:lik^h lak.

Who writes a poem?   (wh-q.)   ke/kawane kabita: lik^h lak?

2.   Both languages have their own separate words (i.e, 'wh-words' in

English and 'k-words' in Tharu) for transforming statements into wh-questions. They are shown in the following table.

Table No. 3

English	Tharu
Who	ke/kawan
What	kat^hi/kae/ketana:
Where	ka:hã:/ka:hã:wa:/kene/keneka:ri
When	kab/kaunijuga:/ka:wana:bera:/kaunibera:
Why	ka:he/ka:hek^ha:tir

How	kaise/ke e/kat^{h}ise
Whom	kake/kekara:ke
Whose	Kekar
Which	Kawan
How often	kaeber/kaober
How may	kaego/kaogo
How much	ketana:

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

c. Differences:

1.   'Wh-words' and 'k-words' are used to transform a statement into wh-question in English and Tharu respectively.

2.   'Wh-word' occurs at 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 at the beginning of this sentence when it functions as a subject in Tharu.

For example:

English	**Tharu**
Amit goes to school.	amit sku:l ja:lak.
Where does Amit go?	amit kahawa: ja:lak ?
	kahawa: amit ja:lak ?

CHAPTER FOUR
FINDINGS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This chapter deals with the 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.

1.   The negative and interrogative transformation systems of English and Tharu are similar in some respects but different in others.

2.   The only negative maker in English is 'not' or 'n' 't' which is placed after an auxiliary verb in an assertive sentence whereas the negative markers in Tharu are ,'nat/mat' and 'naikhe' which are added immediately before the main verb.

3.   The Tharu negative markers such as 'naikhe' occurs before the verbs of assertive sentences in any tense and 'nat/mat' occurs especially before the verbs of imperative sentences.

4.   If there is no auxiliary verb in a positive assertive sentence, we need to use a rule called 'do support' or 'operator addition' (do, does and did) rule and the negative marker 'not' or 'n't' is added after it as it functions as an auxiliary verb in English whereas there is no need of introducing such rule in order to transform a positive sentence into negative in Tharu.

5.   While forming negative of imperative sentence, 'do not' (don't) is placed before the verb or at the beginning of the sentence in English whereas the negative markers such as 'naikhe' and 'nat/mat' are added just before the main verb in Tharu.

6. In the yes/no question, an auxiliary verb occurs at the beginning of the sentence (i.e. the sentence is initiated with an auxiliary verb) in English whereas the yes/no question marker 'ka:' is introduced and placed at the end of the sentence in Tharu.

7. 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 Tharu.

8. Subject-auxiliary/ operator inversion' rule is also required to transform a statement into yes/ no question in English whereas it does not take place in Tharu.

9. Regarding wh-question, both languages have their own separate words for transforming statements into wh-questions.

10. 'Wh-word' and 'k- word' are used in English and Tharu respectively to transform a statement into wh-question.

11. 'Wh-words' occur at the beginning of the sentence in English whereas 'k-words' occur after the subject and also at the beginning of the sentence when they function as subjects.

12. In wh-question, 'do support' (operator addition) and 'subject- auxiliary inversion' (subject operator inversion) rules are applied in English whereas they are redundant in Tharu.

13. The grammatical categories of the tense are realized through inflections and auxiliary verb in English whereas grammatical categories of aspects are realized through inflexions in Tharu.

4.2 Recommendations and Pedagogical Implications

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

1.   The processes of negative and interrogative transformation systems of English are different from those of Tharu. Therefore, the differences should be taken into account while teaching English transformation systems to Tharu speaking students.

2.   The knowledge of auxiliary verbs is essential for both negative and interrogative transformations in English so that special attention should be given in the use of auxiliaries in different tenses and aspects while teaching the Tharu speaking students.

3.   Since the person markers such as,'bad','bade','a:ri','are' are used in any tenses. The negative markers such as 'naikhe' and 'nat/mat' are used in negative transformation in Tharu. Attention should be given to these features of the Tharu language so that Tharu speaking students check themselves in transforming this habit.

4.   The students of this ethnic community should be taught the ways of using 'do support/operator addition' and 'subject-auxiliary inversion/ subject-operator inversion' rules more carefully as they do not exist in Tharu.

5.   In English, contractions of auxiliary verb are used in negative and interrogative transformation especially in communication. So attention should be paid on such features of auxiliaries in English while teaching Tharu- speaking children.

6.   The syllabus designers and textbook writers should be more conscious while designing the syllabus and writing the textbook for the Tharu learners who are learning English as a second language.

The researcher does not claim that the present study covers all the rules of negative and interrogative transformations of Tharu as he has not carried out this research in all types of sentences avaiable in the language. It is based only on assertive and imperative sentences and only on sixty Tharu native speakers

from Madhawan Mathaul and Bagnama VDCs of Parsa district. However, the researcher has tried his best to generalize the rules of negative and interrogative transformations of Tharu explicitly based on the collected data.

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

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Appendices

Appendix-I

Informants of the Research Study

MADHUWAN MATHAUL

Illiterate			
S.N.	Name	Sex	Age
1.	Rogaahi Khawas	M	60
2.	Bhuna Tharu	M	36
3.	Sesman Khawas	M	30
4.	Amit Chaudhary	M	35
5.	Tala Patawari	M	80
6.	Laxmi Devi Patawari	F	70
7.	Mamita Das Tharuni	F	18
8.	Ambika Devi Tharuni	F	20
9.	Chinta Patawari	F	35
10.	Champa Patawari	F	30
Literate			
1.	Bhupendra Patawari	M	42
2.	Raju Raut	M	32
3.	Shukha Dhami	M	25
4.	Ramnarayan Gauro	M	18
5.	Ramraj Chaudhary	M	38
6.	Aashmaya Tharu	F	40
7.	Suratiya Patawari	F	30
8.	Mira Chaudhary	F	25
9.	Sunita Das	F	18
10.	Palbi Kumari Das	F	15
Educated			
1.	Pradip Chaudhary	M	35

2.	Kapindra Khawas	M	29
3.	Mukul Patawari	M	22
4.	Rajendra Mahato	M	40
5.	Bhagwat Tharu	M	55
6.	Menu Chaudhary	F	32
7.	Amrita Chaudhary	F	35
8.	Rekha Tharu	F	50
9.	Rina Raut	F	18
10.	Bina Tharu	F	25

BAGBANA

Illiterate			
S.N.	Name	Sex	Age
1.	Bishnu Khawas	M	60
2.	Surendra Patawari	M	45
3.	Chokat Das	M	19
4.	Bhulai Chaudhary	M	25
5.	Lalan Mahato	M	25
6.	Phoolmatiya Devi	F	70
7.	Kajari Tharuni	F	50
8.	Jyoti Das	F	18
9.	Madri Patawari	F	27
10.	Nisha Raut	F	30
Literate			
1.	Rajan Das	M	50
2.	Raghu Patawari	M	17
3.	Om Mahato	M	23
4.	Niranjan Das	M	40
5.	Rohan Chaudhary	M	30
6.	Nitu Chaudhary	F	18

7.	Kriti Patawari	F	24
8.	Prerna Das	F	30
9.	Chameli Mahato	F	35
10.	Chiloria Tharuni	F	40
Educated			
1.	Mohan Khawas (Chaudhary)	M	25
2.	Dipendra Das	M	30
3.	Rohit Mahato	M	19
4.	Upendra Chaudhary	M	18
5.	Rabi Patawri	M	18
6.	Hina Chaudhary	F	17
7.	Archana Das	F	18
8.	Khusbu Patawari	F	20
9.	Bishekha Panjiyar	F	22
10.	Dipika Chaudhary	F	25

APPENDIX -II
QUESTIONNAIRE

नाम (Name) :   लिङ्ग (sex) :

गा.वि.स. (VDC) :   उमर (Age) :

पेशा (Occupation) :

शैक्षिक योग्यता (Academic Qualification):

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

राम गीत गावलक । (Ram sings a song)

राम गीत नइखे गावलक ।

हेने आव । (Come here)

उमा हेने मत आव ।

1.   उमा काठमाण्डु मे रहकल । (Uma lives in Kathmandu)

      ………………………………………………………………..

2.   प्रतिभा पानी पिअथी । (Prativha is drinking water)

      ………………………………………………………………..

3.   हमे एगो निमन कविता लिखले वाडी । (I have written a good poem)

      ………………………………………………………………..

4.   उ काल्हु मास इन्हलई । (He cooked meat yesterday)

      ………………………………………………………………..

5.   गिरहत खेतमे काम करत रहलई। (The farmer was working in the field)

      ………………………………………………………………..

6.   हमर भइया पटना गइल रहलउ । (My brother had gone to Patna)

      ………………………………………………………………..

7.   किशोर विहा आवतउ । (Kishor will come tomorrow)

      ………………………………………………………………..

8.   खेलाडीसव क्रिकेट खेलत होतउ । (The players will be playing cricket)

      ………………………………………………………………..

9.   भात खो । (eat rice)

      ………………………………………………………………..

10. हमइके एक गिलास पानी द ।   (Give me a glass of water.)

……………………………………………………………

2. **Transform the following Tharu sentences in to yes/no question with the help of given examples.**

सीता भारतमे रहलक । (Sita lives in India)

सीता भारतमे रहलक ?

ऊ सुततउ । (He will sleep)

उ सुततउ ?

1. तोहर बेटावा गीत गावलो । (Your son sings a song)

……………………………………………………………

2. विन्दु चाय पिअथु । (Bindu is sipping tea)

……………………………………………………………

3. होम एगो गाई किनले वाडी । (I have bought a cow)

……………………………………………………………

4. ऊ काल्हु अपन घर गलइ । (He went to his house yesterday)

……………………………………………………………

5. हमर बावु आम किनत रहलउ । (My father was buying a mango)

……………………………………………………………

6. राज एक दिन दारु पिले रहलउ । (Raj has drunk wine one day)

……………………………………………………………

7. रानी दूध पीतउ । (Rani will drink milk)

……………………………………………………………

8. पुष्पा एगो स्वीटर विनत होतउ । (Pushpa will be knitting a sweater)

……………………………………………………………

9. ओकर माई बजारसे चल आइल होतउ । (His mother will have come from market)

……………………………………………………………

10. ई छउडी कवोकवो नाचलक । (This girl sometimes dances)

……………………………………………………………

3. **Transform the following Tharu sentences into wh-question with the help of given examples.**

हाम दही खाइले । (I eat curd. (who))

के दही खालक ?

ऊ खेतमे जाथु (कहाँ) । (He is going to field (where))

उ काहाँ जाथु ?

1. रविराज चिठ्ठी लिखलक । (Ravi Raj writes a letter. (who))

   …………………………………………………………………….

2. हमर नाँव प्रतिभा हउ (काथि) । (My name is Pratibha. (what))

   …………………………………………………………………….

3. सात बजथी (केतना) । (It is 7 o'clock. (what))

   …………………………………………………………………….

4. सुजीत बजार गइलहउ (काहाँ / काहवा) । (Sujit has gone to market. (where))

   …………………………………………………………………….

5. किरण पाँच बजे अलउ (कव) । (Kiran came at 5'oclock. (when))

   …………………………………………………………………….

6. प्रशान्त पइसा खातिर काम करत रहलइ । (काहे) (Prashant was working for money. (why)

   …………………………………………………………………….

7. ओकनी पैदल आइल रहलई (कइसे) । (They had come on foot (how))

   …………………………………………………………………….

8. हम निर्मलाके आम देवउ (केकराके) । (I will give Nirmala a mango. (whom))

   …………………………………………………………………….

9. इ हमर किताव हउ (केकर) । (This book is mine. (whose))

   …………………………………………………………………….

10. हमरा हरिहर रङ्ग पसन्द बउ (कवन) । (I like green colour. (which))

    …………………………………………………………………

DEVANAGARI SYMBOLS

The Devanagari Symbols for Tharu Vowels and Consonants

with their Corresponding Phonemes

Vowels:	1. अ a	2. आ a:	3. इ i	4. ई i:	5. उ u
	6. ऊ u:	7. ए e/e:	8. ऐ ai/æ	9. ओ o/o	10. औ au

Consonants :	Stops				Nasals:
Velar :	11. क ka	12. ख kha	13. ग ga	14. घ gha	15. ङ ng
Palatal :	16. च ca	17. छ cha	18. ज ja	19. झ jha	20. ञ na
Retroflex:	21. ट ta	22. ठ tha	23. ड da	24. ढ dha	25. ण na
Dental	26. त ta	27. थ tha	28. द da	29. ध dha	30. त na
Labial :	31. प pa	32. फ pha	33. ब ba	34. भ bha	35. म ma
Other Consonants	36. य ya	37. र ra	38. ल na	39. व wa	40. श sha
	41. ष sa	42. स sa	43. ह ha		