

CHAPTER - ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 General Background

Language is commonly used by human beings as a means of communication. The unique gift sets them apart from the rest of living beings. It facilitates human beings to express their experiences, thoughts, feelings, emotions, desires and ideas. Every normal human being uses language in his daily activities. Socio cultures, values, thoughts and conventions are preserved and inherited from generation to generation through language. There are so many languages existing in the world. Some of them are spoken as well as written and others exist only in spoken form.

Chomsky (1957) defines language as “A set (finite or infinite) of sentences, each finite in length and constructed out of a finite set of elements” (p.13). Richards et al. (1999) define language as “the systems of human communication which consists of the structured arrangement of sounds for their written representation into larger units, for example morphemes, words, sentences, utterances” (p.196). This definition further clarifies that language is a channel of spoken or written form of symbols in terms of morphemes, words and sentences.

Language is a social phenomenon by which one can express his/her ideas, thoughts, feelings, desires, likes, dislikes, etc. Human beings are distinguished from all the species in this universe only because they possess a unique faculty of speech known as language.

1.1.1 Importance of the English Language

There is no clear figure for the number of languages spoken in the world today. A general estimation indicates that the figure lays around four thousand to five thousand languages. They have been used in different countries from time immemorial employing words either in spoken or written forms to communicate ideas, to share feelings or to express emotions, desires and thoughts. Among all the languages in the world English is regarded as a global language. It is also true that English is the first language for most of the people of Great Britain, the U.S.A., Canada and the Australia. So, it is regarded as a prestigious language and thus, has become a subject to be studied in most of the countries in the world. Nowadays, one in every seven human beings can speak English and a half of the world's books have been written in English.

English is used to serve different purposes, for example, to establish diplomatic relationship with most of the countries in the world. Besides this, it is the language used by some internationally recognized organizations like the United Nations (UN), the South Asian Association for Regional Co-operation (SAARC), in extending their mutual co-operation, financial support and education in the countries which are in need of their support. As for media, over 50% of the world's newspapers or scientific and technical periodicals or radio stations use English as a medium of communication. So, it has been established as the most appropriate medium that plays a vital role in national and international communication. In this context, Sthapit et al. (1994) say, "the importance of English 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"(p.14). So, the English language has great importance in the education system of Nepal.

1.1.2 Linguistic Scenario of Nepal

Nepal is a small and beautiful landlocked country situated between two large countries namely China and India. It is a rich country in terms of linguistic diversity. According to the Population Census Report 2001, there are 92 languages identified in Nepal. Out of them, a very few languages have their own written scripts and others exist only in spoken form. All the languages specified in Nepal fall under the following four language families:

I. The Indo- Aryan Family

In the Nepalese context, Indo-European family languages mainly comprised of Indo-Aryan group of language, which forms the largest group of languages in terms of speakers: mainly eighty percent. Some of the Indo-Aryan languages spoken in Nepal are yet to be sub classified due to lack of their adequate description. These languages include Tharu, Bote, Darai, Kumal, Chaati and Danuwar. The Indo-Aryan group of languages includes:

Nepali	Urdu	Majhi
Rajbansi	Kumal	Hindi
Maithili	Danuwar	English
Bojpuri	Bengali	Mogahi
Tharu	Marwari	Churati
Awadhi	Bajjika	Dara

II. The Tibeto- Burman Family

Another group of Nepal's languages is the Tibeto-Burman group of Sino-Tibeto family. Though, it is spoken by relatively less number of people than that of the Indo-European family, their number is the largest, viz. 57 language as compared to other groups of languages. The Tibeto-Burman group of languages includes:

Tamang	Tibeton	Baram/ Baramu
Newar	Jirel	Koche
Magar	Kagate	Gurung
Yholma	Lhomi	Limbu
Dura	Toto	Sherpa
Mecha	Kham	Chepang
Pahari	Syang	Sunuwar
Lepcha/ Lepche	Morpha	Thami
Raji	Manag	Dhimal
Hayu	Nar	Bhujel/Khawas
Buangshi	Raute	Rai Languages (more than 33 languages)
Thakali	Ghale	
Chhantyal	Kaike	

III. The Austro- Asiatic/ Munda Family

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

IV. The Dravidian Family

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

According to the report of National report of National Languages Policy Recommendation Commission(2050),there are 70 languages in Nepal, out of which, 63 are languages of indigenous nationalities of Nepal. The 70 languages have been classified into four groups.

Among the four language families mentioned above, the Tibeto-Burman language family includes a large number of languages spoken in Nepal.

On the basis of their status, languages have been classified into four groups:

a. Languages with Written Script

There are many languages spoken in Nepal. Some of them have their written scripts. The languages which have their written script are given below:

Nepali	Maithali	Awadi
Limbu	Bhojpuri	Hindi
Newari	Urdu	Bhote/Tibeta

b. Languages Having Written Script in Emerging Condition

In Nepal, there are some languages which have their written script in emerging condition. They are;

Sherpa	Magar	Kulung
Thankali	Thulung	Bantawa
Gurung	Chamling	Tharu
Rajbanshi	Khaling	Tamang

c. Languages without Written Script

Most of the languages spoken in Nepal are still confined to their oral traditions. Each of them has a rich oral heritage of traditional folk stories and songs handed down from parent to child over a long period of time.

Languages which do not have their written script are as follows;

Yakka	Jhagad	Bhote
Chhyantal	Kumal	Kham
Majhi	Byanshi	Danuwar
Raji	Nachhiring	Marwadi
Yamphu	Darai	Dhimal

Lumba Yakka	Jirel	Kagate
Satar	Hyolmo	Athpahariya
Sampang	Chepang	Thami

d. Moribund Languages

A language that has reached such a reduced stage of use is generally considered moribund.

The following group of languages falls under the moribund language group of Nepal;

Hayu	Polmacha	Dura
Dungmali	Kusunda	Baling
Raute	Chhintang	Koyu
Lambiching	puma	Mugali
Jerung	Belhare	Chhukwa
Phanduwali	Chakwa	Chhulung
Tilung		

The data mentioned above clearly show that there are nine languages in Nepal which have their own written script, the written scripts of 12 languages are in emerging condition, other 29 languages have no written scripts and 20 languages are in the verge of extinction, i.e. moribund languages. Similarly, linguists claim that any language which has at least 100,000 speakers can maintain its existence. Languages, having less than 100,000 speakers remain tolerable and languages spoken by fewer than 1,000 speakers are in the verge of extinction.

1.1.3 Indigenous People in Nepal

Nepal is a multi-ethnic, multi-cultural, multi-religious and multi-lingual country. There are more than 8,000,000 indigenous people in Nepal (Tamang

2058, p.1). Indigenous people are those ethnic groups or nationalities who have their own mother tongue, distinct culture, social structure and written history. They are the ethnic minorities of Nepal who are known as Janajati, Adivasi and by other alternatives. Janajati and Adivasi are the common terms widely used by the majority of population and in the government documents. Basically, indigenous people are animists or nature worshippers. However, They , at present adhere to different religions, such as Buddhism, Hindu, and so on.

According to ILO convention No. 169, indigenous people

are [those] regarded indigenous on account of their descent from the populations which inhabited the country or a geographical region to which the country belongs, at the time of conquest or colonization or the establishment of present state boundaries, and who, irrespective of their legal status, retain some or all of their own social, economic, cultural and political institutions.

According to the National Foundation for Development of Indigenous

Nationalities Act (2002, p.24) people of Nepal who meet with the following characteristics are termed as indigenous people.

- a. Those that have their own ethnic languages other than Nepali;
- b. Those that have their own distinct traditional customs other than those of the ruling high cases;
- c. Those who possess a cultural distinct from that of Aryan/Hindu culture of dominant groups;
- d. Those that have distinct social structures that do fall under hierarchical varna or caste system;

- e. Those who have written or oral history that traces their use of territories before their annexation into the present frontiers of Nepal and
- f. Those that are listed in schedule of indigenous people/nationalities published by HMG

Nepal Federation of Indigenous Nationalities has classified 59 indigenous groups or nationalities into 5 major categories which are as follows:

I. Endangered Groups

In the contest of Nepal there are some languages which are endangered. Those language speakers are hard to find out in Nepal. The following group of languages falls in endangered group of language;

Bankaria	Surel	Kushbadiya
Raji	Hayu	Kisan
Kusunda	Lepcha	
Meche	Raute	

II. Highly Marginalized Groups

The following group of languages falls under the highly marginalized group of languages in Nepal;

Santhal	Bote	Jhangad
Dhanuk (Rajbanshi)	Chepang	Lhomi (Singsawa)
Thami	Thundamba	Majhi
Siyar (Chuma)	Baharu	Danuwar

III. Marginalized Groups

The following group of languages falls under the marginalized language group of languages in Nepal;

Sunuwar	Tajpuria	Tharu
Pahari	Tamang	Dhokpya (Topkegola)
Bhujel	Dolpo	Kumal
Free	Rajbanshi (Koche)	Mugal
Gangai	Larke (Nupriba)	Dhimal
Lohpa	Bhote	Dura
Darai	Walung	

IV. Disadvantaged Groups

The following group of languages falls under the disadvantaged language group of Nepal;

Magar	Yakkha	Tinganule Thakali
Chhairitan	Tangbe	Marphali Thakali
Hyolmo	Barguale	Sherpa
Chhantyal	Gurung	Jirel
Rai	Byansi	Byansi
Limbu		

V. Advanced Group

The following group of languages falls under the advanced language group of Nepal;

Newar	Thakali
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1.1.4 Chepang People, their Origin and the Chepang Language

The word 'Chepang' is used to address certain ethnic groups, living in central south hilly region of Nepal. They are recognized as 'Praja' in their areas. The physical structure of them is not different from the people of other ethnic groups. They are one of the deprived and marginalized

groups among the indigenous people of Nepal. They have flat and short nose, round face, dark and brown complexion, thin and medium ears, dark eyes and prominent eyebrows. Chepangs' settlement has spread along central southern Mahabharat range of Nepal. However, some were migrated from their origin place and settled in the plain area of Chitwan and Makwanpur districts.

The Chepangs, one of the indigenous people of Nepal, are the ethnic group mainly found in four districts of Nepal - Chitwan, Makwanpur, Dhading and Gorkha. According to the survey of Nepal Chepang Association (2058), the total populations of Chepang is 52,237 in Nepal and among them about 21,000 of Chepangs live in the hilly regions of Chitwan.

The origin of Chepang has become the subject of controversy. There are several myths about their origin. One of them is that the Chepangs are the progeny of a holy man called 'Chewan' and it was pronounced as 'Chewang' and ultimately 'Chepang'.

According to another myth, the Chepangs are the offspring of Sita's son Lahari or Lava who is famous in Hindi epic 'Ramayan'. Most of the Chepangs widely believe that they are the descendants of Lahari or Lava and the Kusundas originated from Kusari or Kusa, another son of Sita. So, they have a close relationship with Kusundas.

Nowadays, most of the educated Chepang youths do not accept the Lahari and Chewan myths. They blame the sociologists, researchers and their elders who created fantasy and misinterpreted the truth. According to them, the word 'Chepang' is given by Nepali speakers. Chepangs are those who lived near the riverside, forests and around narrow places like caves. Such narrow places are called 'Chep' in Nepali. A person who lives

in 'Chep' is called Chepang. The forefathers of Chepangs lived in the 'Chep' areas of Mahabharat range. Therefore, the other people addressed them by using the word Chepang.

Almost all of the people who can be identified as Chepang by language and culture live in a roughly rectangular area of south-central Nepal, bounded to the north by the Trisuli River, in the west by the Narayani River, to the south by the Rapti River and in the east by the main highway from Kathmandu to India. Included within these boundaries are the southern sections of the administrative districts of Gorkha and Dhading, as well as western Makwanpur and northern Chitwan districts. The area, which lies immediately west and slightly south of Kathmandu, is about 40 miles long and 15 miles in breadth, covering approximately 600 square miles of rugged hills that form part of the Mahabharat Range. The altitude varies from under 1,000 feet in the Rapti Valley to over 8,000 feet above sea level for the main range itself. However, a very few Chepangs live above the 5,000 feet level and, until the last 15-20 years, not many lived below 2,000 feet because of the danger of malaria. The largest concentrations of houses are between 2,000 and 4,000 feet, on the sides of the main ranges or on spurs branching from them.

The term 'Chepang' is the one used by Nepali speakers (the non-Chepangs) and has associations with the Nepali *cepto* 'flat-nosed' and *cepan* 'frog' (Turner, 1965 actually *cepto* means pressed, not actually 'flat-nosed') which are demeaning, so the word is not in common use amongst the people themselves. It has, however, become the standard name used in linguistic and anthropological literature and so there is a little choice but to use it here. Their own term is 'cyo?ba', of which the Nepali is evidently a corruption. The lexical decomposition of the word is simple enough, but unfortunately, as far as determining its meaning is

concerned, each of the two morphemes has more than one sense. The folk etymology refers to their coming from the underworld, out on top of the rocks. The first syllable *cyo?* basically means ‘*tip*’ or ‘*peak*’, with the extended meanings of ‘*tailend*’, ‘*end (of story)*’, ‘*descendant*’, and the additional emotive sense of less important as compared to *tu_?* ‘*base*’. The second morpheme *ba_* means both ‘*stone*’ and ‘*a curse*’ (these from PTB *ba_* ‘*ordure*’, compare Tibetan *sbarjs*). The combination could therefore mean either ‘*tip of rocks*’, referring to mountainous habitation of the Chepang in comparison with the lowland valleys, or it could mean ‘*cursed to be at the tailend*’ in reference to their low social position. Neither of these explanations is very satisfactory. The first uses the component words in a non-regular way: *ba_* is not normally applied to large scale geographic features such as mountains and hills while *cyo?*, is not used for the top of rocks.

1.1.5 An Introduction to Case

Almost all the grammatical terms have their origin in Greek and Latin grammars. So, is the the term ‘Case’. Among different traditional schools of philosophy and logic, the Stoics - a school of Greek philosophy gave a particular sense to this term. In Greek tradition, Dionysius Thrax mentioned parts of speech as noun, verb, adjective, adverb in his grammar. He was also devoted to the study of case. He described Case in terms of inflections of nouns. The same tradition was carried over in Latin.

Anderson (1977, p.172) discusses case and case relations in detail in study on case. According to him, the term ‘case’ was traditionally employed to refer both to certain inflectional categories that are added to nouns and to the set of syntactic and semantic distinctions carried by the forms of that category. These can be differentiated as case forms and case

relations or case functions respectively.

In traditional grammar, the case forms are categorized sometimes on the basis of their syntactic function and at other times on the basis of their semantic function. It shows inconsistency in results. Asher (1994) says, “The dominant theory of the function or content of case... proposes that at least some cases are syntactic, and reflect grammatical relations (such as subject, object” (p. 447). Other grammarians of the time recognized that some uses (at least) of some cases could not be reduced to the syntactic case. Traditionally, it represents the fundamental dimension in terms of which the forms of nouns may be classified or described. This classification underlies the traditional declensional paradigms whereby the expression of the morph syntactic categories appropriate to the noun or adjective is displayed. For the Stoic ‘noun’ included ‘substantive’ (noun’ in the modern sense) and ‘adjective’, largely on the basis of their shared morphology in Greek. It is generally agreed too that case is typically expressed as suffixation to a noun stem of a single morpheme but the nature of the relations of nouns in the sentences whether semantic or syntactic has remained controversial.

Traditional grammar proposed seven cases with their syntactic/semantic functions which are as follows:

- Nominative -it marks the subject
- Accusative -it marks the object or transitive verb
- Genitive -it expresses the possession semantically
- Dative -it marks to the indirect object
- Locative -it marks the adverb of place
- Ablative -it marks the instruments
- Vocative - it expresses the address semantically

Generally, case is defined in traditional grammars as the relation on which a noun stands to some other words or change of form (if any) by which this relation is indicated-grammatical relation as well as the change of form. In general, traditional grammarians use the following cases:

- 1) **Ram** saw Sita. (nominative)
- 2) He hit the **dog**. (accusative or objective)
- 3) Ram gave a book to **Sita**. (dative)
- 4) **Ram's** book. (genitive or possessive)
- 5) He was standing **on the table**. (locative)
- 6) He cut it **with a knife**. (ablative)
- 7) He came **with his wife**. (comitative)
- 8) You know **Ram** the world is very bad. (vocative)

Noam Chomsky developed the concept of Generative Grammar in late 1960s which was radically departed from the structuralism and behaviorism of the previous decades. Chomsky's Standard Theory, i.e. his theory of transformational grammar as presented in his 'Aspects of the Theory of Syntax' (1965,p. 34), propounded the notion of a deep structure underlying the surface structure of every sentence. The deep structure of a sentence was conceptualized as the underlying network of syntactic relationships, which determines the semantic representation of that sentence. The view held by this theory was that everything needed for the semantic representation of a sentence, was presented in the deep structure of that sentence.

Fillmore (1968) defines...

the case notions comprise a set of universal, presumably innate concepts which identify certain types of judgments: human beings

are capable of making about the events that are going around them, judgments about such matters as who did it, who it happened to and what got changed (p. 24).

From this definition of case by Fillmore, it can be pointed out that the notion 'case' is a universal property that is prevalent in all the languages of the world. It marks to the judgments of the relationship of the participants in the action or events. Fillmore (1968), in his seminal article 'The Case for Case' in a book entitled 'Universals in Linguistic Theory' edited by E. Bach and R. T. Harms, discussed mainly six cases. They are named as Agentive, Instrumental, Dative, Factitive, Locative and Objective. In 1971, he extended the number up to eight namely Agentive, Instrumental, Patient/Objective, Experiencer, Source, Goal, Locative and Time. These cases were deep structure cases, described as being 'underlying syntactic-semantic relationships'. They were to be distinguished from case forms, which comprise the means of expressing cases: inflections, prepositions, word-orders, etc.

Although the concept 'case' is universal, the case markers are language specific. So, the researcher is interested to find out the similar and different characteristics of case systems in the English and the Chepang languages.

1.1.5.1. Basic Concepts of Case Grammar

The concept of case is not new in grammar. Traditional grammarians have been discussing it for centuries, particularly in the case of synthetic languages like Latin, Greek and Sanskrit. In the books of traditional grammar, cases are morphosyntactically identified, whether a noun has been used in the nominative, accusative or genitive case or in any other

case is ascertained on the basis of the morphosyntactic markers at the end of the noun. Fillmore (ibid.) has defined cases as the semantic roles which noun phrases have with respect to their verbs. There are three basic concepts of case grammar and they are: Syntactic function, Morphosyntactic form, and Semantic role.

I. Syntactic Function

The concept of syntactic function is the traditional notion related to case grammar. Syntactic function is the sentence level function. Syntactic function in Case Grammar is the function of NP according to its position in the structure of a sentence. Subjective (that comes in the very beginning of a sentence), objective (which undergoes of the action that comes in the middle or at the end of a structure) and complement (that is needed to complete a sentence) are the examples of syntactic functions. In the sentences:

1. John hit Harry.
2. Harry was hit by John.
3. The window was broken.

‘John’, ‘Harry’ and ‘window’ have the subject function; ‘Harry’ in first sentence has object function. ‘John’ in the second sentence has adverbial function.

II. Morphosyntactic Form

Morpho syntactic form is a word level concept. The morphosyntactic forms in Case Grammar refer to prepositions or inflections, postpositions and case endings that show particular relationship of related noun or noun phrases with the verb. By morphosyntactic form Fillmore (ibid.) marks to the different cases, which stand in a certain relationship within a

structure. Morphosyntactic forms give some functional informations. The morphosyntactic forms differ from language to language. Different morphosyntactic forms that mark cases are inflections, prepositions, postpositions, word order, intonation, affixation, suppletion (irregular change as in write, wrote, written), etc. A language may have one or more than one such morphosyntactic forms which show the case relation. Mainly two morphosyntactic forms - word order and preposition reveal the case relation in English. The following prepositions are taken from the examples given by Fillmore (1968), Quirk et al. (1985) and Blake (1994) for corresponding cases.

<i>Morphosyntactic forms</i>	<i>Case</i>
<i>by</i>	<i>agent</i>
<i>with, by</i>	<i>instrument</i>
<i>from</i>	<i>source/ablative</i>
<i>to, into, until, towards</i>	<i>goal</i>
<i>in, at, on</i>	<i>location</i>
<i>to</i>	<i>dative</i>
<i>for</i>	<i>benefacative</i>

III. Semantic Role

It is the dominant and recent developed concept of case grammar. It is the concept at meaning level. Fillmore (ibid.) paid special attention to this concept and has called it as ‘case or case relationship’. He has explained the whole case grammar as having a semantic role. According to Fillmore, (ibid., p.21), “The sentence is its basic structure consisting of a verb and one or more noun phrases, each associated with the verb in a particular relationship.” Fillmore has further explained his Case Grammar as the semantic role with the help of the following examples:

1. John broke the window.
2. A hammer broke the window.
3. John broke the window with a hammer.
4. The window broke.

“John” in both the sentences (1 and 3) has **agentive** role; ‘the window’ in all sentences has **object** role; and a ‘hammer’ is the **instrument**. Thus, semantic role does not depend on its position in a sentence as syntactic function does. It depends upon its relationship with the action or state identified by the verb.

1.1.5.2 Cases in English by Fillmore

Fillmore (1971,p.34) produced a list of eight cases, which was organized hierarchically. They are agent, experiencer, instrument, object, source, goal, location, time and later he produced some other cases like possessor, commutative and benefactive. Each of them is described below:

1. Agent

Agent is a case, which marks to an entity that performs an action. In Fillmore’s phrase, "it is the instigator of an action or event”. Agent must be an animate being which performs an action by means of its own energy. For example,

I. *I* speak English.

II. *The boy* played.

III. *Mohan* hit Hari.

2. Experiencer

It is the case of an entity inwardly or psychologically affected by action or state expressed by the verb. In other words, it is an entity that experiences or undergoes the effect of an action with genuine psychological event or mental state of verb. For example,

I. *I* love you.

II. *The girl* is feared.

III. *He* felt hot.

3. Instrumental

Instrumental is the case of something which is used inanimately as a means that is helpful to perform an action or is the case of inanimate force or object causally involved in the action or state identified by the verb. For example,

I. *The Fire* burnt my hand.

II. They cut the thread *with a razor blade*.

III. *The wind* opened the door.

4. Object

It marks to an entity, which undergoes or is affected by the action or event. This is the semantically most natural case. Fillmore calls it wastebasket case. For example,

I. He cut *the tree*.

II. Ram gave a book *to me*.

III. Roshan donated his property *to the school*.

5. Source

It marks to the place from which something moves as a result of the activity expressed by the predicate. In other words, we can say that the entity that signifies the ‘separation’ and the starting point of the action identified by the verb is said to be source. For example,

- I. I came *from Dang*.
- II. He earned money *from his job*.
- III. I bought mangoes *from the shop*.

6. Goal

It marks the place to which something moves or it is also known as destination later stage, end point of the period, and result of an action. For example,

- I. He threw a ball *to Petter*.
- II. They elected *their leader*.
- III. The seed *became plant*.

7. Location

The case, which denotes the location or spatial orientation of the state or action identified by the verb is called locative case. It expresses the basic relationship between the location and the object involved on it. It holds the attitude of being oriented, depending upon or consisting of inseparable relationship between the object and the location or spatial orientation of the action or state identified by the verb. For example,

- I. It is cold *in Kathmandu*.
- II. The table is *next to the door*.
- III. The cat sat *in front of me*.

8. Time

It marks to the temporal orientation of the predicate. For example,

- I. I was born *on 13th Feb. 1985*.
- II. Ram worked in a company *for 3 years*.
- III. Kathmandu will be polluted *after 10 years*.

9. Possessor

The possessor is the case, which marks the entity having something. The sense of possession may be physical, mental or legal. The possessor is expressed differently in different languages. In English, it is expressed by "belong to" or "on his possession". For example,

- I. This car belongs *to me*.
- II. He has much land *in his possession*.
- III. that is *Ram's* book.

10. Commitative

It is the case of an entity-expressing accompaniment. For example,

- I. I went to market *with him*.
- II. They *with their dog* sat under the tree.

We take every breakfast **with eggs**.

11. Benefactive

It is the case of an entity benefiting from the action or event denoted by the predicate. For example,

I. I have a gift *for the baby*.

II. I bought new shoes *for my brother*.

III. Ram made a cup of coffee *for him*.

1.1.6 Contrastive Analysis and its Importance on Language Teaching

Contrastive analysis (CA) is defined as a scientific study of similarities and differences between languages. It is a branch of applied linguistics, which compares languages to find out the similarities and differences between or among them and to predict the areas of difficulty in learning. The first language (L 1) is known as mother tongue or native language or source language or filter language and second language (L2) is known as foreign language or target language or other language. CA came into existence during the late 1940's and 50's and was highly popularized during the 60's and its popularity declined during the 70's. The development of CA for foreign language teaching can be traced back to the American linguist C.C. Fries who made the first clarion call for it. In his work 'Teaching and learning English as a foreign language'(1945), Fries (1945,p. 259) said that "the most effective materials are those that are based upon a scientific description of the language to be learned, carefully compared with a parallel description of the native language of the learner."

Robert Lado, in 1957, wrote a book entitled "Linguistic Across Culture" in which he has provided three underlying assumptions of CA., which have significant role in language teaching. They are as follows:

- a) Individuals tend to transfer the forms and meanings and distribution of forms and meanings of their native language and culture to the foreign language and culture both productively when attempting to speak language and receptively when attempting to grasp and understand the language.
- 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, pp. 2-3)

CA has its great importance in language teaching. It has mainly two functions. Firstly, it predicts the tentative errors to be committed by the L2 learners and secondly, it explains the sources and reasons of the L2 learners' errors. So, a language teacher should have knowledge of CA to treat the learners psychologically and academically. Unless the sources and types of errors committed by the learners are identified a language teacher cannot impart knowledge to the learners. James (1980,p.145) points out three pedagogical applications of CA. According to him, CA has application in predicting and diagnosing a proportion of the L2 errors committed by learners with a common L1 and in the design of testing instruments for such learners.

The most important thing, to remember by a language teacher is basic assumption behind CA. Lado's (1957) first assumption states that when we come in contact with an L2, our knowledge of L1 comes on the way: while learning an L2, some features are easier to learn and some are difficult because of the transfer of the old habits/ knowledge. If old knowledge is similar to the new knowledge, there is positive transfer,

which facilitates in learning an L2 but if old knowledge is different from the new knowledge, there is negative transfer, which interferes in learning an L2. In short, the more similarities between the two languages the more easier it is them to learn and the more differences between the two languages the more difficult it is them to learn. We can say that greater the similarities greater the ease, and greater the ease lesser the chances of errors and grater the differences, greater the difficulty and greater the difficulty, greater the chances of errors. CA has its significant contribution to the L2 teaching. It provides sound conceptual insights about the language, a teacher teaches. It helps the teacher to diagnose the level of difficulty and causes of the errors that learners commit.

1.2 Review of the Related Literature

There are several comparative research studies carried out on different languages such as Nepali, Limbu, Rai, Gurung, Tharu and Newari in the Department of English Education but only five research works have been carried out regarding the case system. The related literature to the present study is reviewed here:

Fillmore (1968) studied cases and produced his seminal paper entitled “The cases for case”. He proposed six main and some other cases in English and defined them as semantic roles associated with deep structure level. It is the concept, which is determined from the relation between nouns or noun phrases with the verb used in the sentence.

Bhattarai (2001) carried out a research on ‘Case in English and Nepali: A Comparative study’. The main objective of the study was to find out the similarities and differences between Nepali and English case systems. The study showed that the verb appears at the beginning of the

prepositions section of the sentence in English but it appears at the end Nepali.

Adhikari (2001) made an attempt to analyze the “Case realization in English and Nepali”. This study concentrated on the similarities and differences in case realization between these languages. He came to the conclusion that English is a nominative-accusative kind of language whereas Nepali is an ergative - absolutive type of language.

Karn (2004) carried out a research on “A comparative study of cases in Maithili and English”. The study was carried out to find out and analyze cases in Maithili. The finding of this study showed that the Maithili language has nominative, accusative, instrumental, dative, ablative, genitive and locative cases.

Thapa (2007) attempted to analyze the cases in English and Magar. The main purpose of the study was to find out the similarities and differences between the English and Magar languages. The finding of this research was that the Magar language does not make definite- indefinite, male-female, exclusive-inclusive, distinction but it makes honorific distinction with pronominals.

Limbu (2007) has carried out a research on 'Case in English and Limbu: A comparative study'. His study concentrated on determining case in the Limbu language and finding the similarities and differences between Limbu and that of English. The result showed that the Limbu is an ergative-absolutive type of languages. The Limbu personal pronouns except third person plural, have different genitive case marker that those of other nouns.

The above-mentioned studies are related to case systems on different languages but up to now, no comparative study has been conducted to find out the similarities and differences between English and the Chepang language case systems following Fillmorian case. Therefore, the present is different from the ones reviewed here.

1.3 Objectives of the Study

The objectives of the research were as follows:

- i. To identify and describe cases in the Chepang language.
- ii. To find out similarities and differences between the Chepang and English cases.
- iii. To suggest some pedagogical implications.

1.4 Significance of the Study

This research will be valuable work for the Department of English Education itself since no research has been conducted yet on case in 'English and Chepang. It will also be significant to the prospective future researchers on the Chepang language, linguists, teachers, students, text-book writers, course designers and to the people interested in this field and mainly it will help to the teachers to teach cases of both languages. This work can be helpful for the course designers to design the course of both the languages and it can be proved as a milestone in the field of grammar of the Chepang language because up to now, no research has been carried out on case system of the Chepang language.

CHAPTER - TWO

METHODOLOGY

The researcher adopted the following methodology to conduct this research.

2.1 Sources of Data

The study was based on both primary and secondary sources of data.

2.1.1 Primary Sources of Data

The native speakers of the Chepang language of Sarikhet VDC of Makawanpur district were the primary sources from whom the researcher collected the required data for this research.

2.1.2 Secondary Sources of Data

The English ‘cases’ were totally taken from the secondary sources. The secondary sources of the data were different books, journals, thesis and internet. The major secondary source was Fillmore (1968, 1971).

2.2 Population of the Study

Forty Chepang speakers living in Sarikhet VDC were selected as the population of the study.

2.3 Sampling Procedure

The sample population from Sarikhet VDC was selected using judgmental non-random sampling procedure. The sample population belonged to the age group between 20 – 60.

2.4 Research Tool

The main tool for the data collection was a set of questionnaire .The questionnaire was used to draw for information on case system of Chepang from the Chepang native speakers.

2.5 Process of Data Collection

The researcher visited the Sarikhet VDC of Makawanpur district to meet the native speakers of Chepang. Particularly, he visited two higher secondary schools to have a personal contact with the Chepang literate informants where most of the teachers are Chepang. Then, he built a good rapport with them. He told his purpose and distributed the questionnaire to them. With the help of those Chepang teachers, he was able to contact and distribute the questionnaires to other literate Chepang native speakers. After the completion of the questionnaires, he collected them to analyze and interpret. In order to collect the secondary data, the researcher studied through the relevant materials such as textbook of different writers and other related literature so as to get some theoretical knowledge and skill to carry out the research work.

2.6 Limitations of the Study

The study had the following limitations:

- i. The study was limited to Chepang speakers of Sarikhet VDC in Makawanpur district.
- ii. The total study population was limited to forty native speakers.
- iii. The study was conducted following Fillmorian case.
- iv. The research was descriptive in nature.
- v. Only questionnaire was used as a research tool

CHAPTER- THREE

ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION

This chapter deals with the analysis and interpretation of the data. The data have been analyzed descriptively with the help of table, diagram and illustration. After the analysis of data the similarities and difference between Chepang and English cases are mentioned with illustration. Hence this chapter consists of two parts: identification and analysis of cases in the Chepang language and similarities and difference between the Chepang and English languages.

3.1 Cases in Chepang

3.1.1 Genitive Case

The genitive case type expresses a passive relationship. It is the case of possession. In the chepang language genitive case is marked by the suffix: 'ko'

- a. Ram ko baba motasalk\sai tonchha Syaba
Ram-GEN 3sg-father the bike fell off.
Rams father fell off the bike.
- b. Sima-ko baba yattyam karyalayaka also syauna.
Sima-GEN 3sg- Father daily office goes.
Sima's father goes to office daily.
- c. Ghoda-ko me gyangtomana.
Horse –GEN-3sg tail long is
Horse's tail is long

- d. Ei-kui-ko me tani
This dog –GEN-sg tail is
This is dog’s tail

3.1.2 Instrumental

Instrumental is a type of case that is used inanimately by the means, tools, weapons or other equipments as an agent in performing an action. It is also the case of something an animated force or object casually involved in the action or state identified by the verb. In the Chepang language, -‘I’ is the suffix to indicate instrumental case.

- a. Ngai kodali-I khet taunang
I spade -1NS field dug
I dug the field with a spade
- b. Chabi-I dailo khola
The key -1NS door opened
The key opened the door
- c. Omai banduk-I yajyo kui sato mana
They gun-1NS mad dog have killed
They have killed a mad dog with a gun
- d. Aau dom bati-I skul aalso syauna
She foot -1NS school goes
She goes to school on foot

3.1.3 Dative

Dative is the case of animated being affected by the state or action identified by the verb. It is semantically related to the role 'recipient'. In the Chepang language, dative case is marked by the suffix- 'Kai'

- a. Syai lei-kai dual chokai.
Cow calf –dative milk feed.
The cow feeds the calf milk.
- b. Nang sathi-kai upaha baiyalang.
I my friend –DAT gift gave .
I gave my friend a gift.
- c. Manstari bidhyarthilam-kai fohutball khela yakang.
Teacher student-DAT football played.
The teacher played the students football.

3.1.4 Comitative

The Comitative is a type of case indicating the notion togetherness or along with. It can be accompanied by animate or inanimate things in the Chepang language, this case is marked by the suffix- kusi.

- a. It is mahendra rajlam-kusi bagna.
This river Mahendra highway – com flows.
This river flows with Mahendra highway.
- b. Myumcholan goichi-kusi ke nyakai.
Girls boy-com laughed.
The girls also laughed with the boys.

- c. Birali kui-kusi yantimana.
Cat a dog-com has slept.
The cat has slept with a dog.
- d. Ngi yatyam anda- kusi khana jena.
We breakfast egg- com take.
We take breakfast with eggs.

3.1.5 Ablative/ source

The ablative/ source case refers to ‘separation’ of an entity point of the action identified by the verb. It is the case of an entity which is itself a starting point of something other in a phrase or sentence. In the Chepang language, ablative case is marked by the suffix- ‘se’.

- a. Nga bharkhar Nepalgunj – se da
I just Nepalgunj- ABL arrived .
I have just arrived from Nepalgunj.
- b. Aau lai-se tona.
She – ladder-ABL fell off.
She fell off the ladder.
- c. Ni nyam-se shato chyona.
We sun-ABL heat get.
We get heat from the sun.
- d. Mantalami dudh-se dahi Jangnami.
People milk-ABL curd make .
People make curd from milk

3.1.6 Goal

The location from something moves is the sources whereas the location to which something moves is the goal. It is expressed as a location NP followed by the suffix- “tang”.

- a. Nga Kathmandu-tang aalala.
 I Kathmandu – GOA went.
 I went to Kathmandu.

- b. Ni Hongkong- tang sumna.
 We Hongkong-GOA flight.
 We flight to Hongkong.

- c. Bhanse aam khanglkang bhansa-tang aanla.
 Cook food cool kitchen-GOA goes.
 The cook goes to the kitchen to cook food.

- d. Dhyom dau ban-tang aala.
 Bear thick jungle-GOA ran.
 Bear ran towards the thick jungle.

3.1.7 Locative

The case which identifies the location of spatial orientation of the sate of action identified by the verb is known as locative case. There is the inseperable relationship between the location and the object involved with the location.The Chepang locative case makers are;- mang, pachi. aagadi, kamse.

- a. Ram ki-mang man.

Ram house-LOC is.

Ram is at house.

b. Kui manko puchhi kuhna.

A dog you-LOC hides.

A dog hides behind you.

c. aau kachhy-mangko aagadi mana.

She class-LOC 1-LOC sits.

She sits in front of me in the class.

d. aajyang manta sinko-kamse mana.

A man tree-LOC was.

A man was under the tree.

3.2 Similarities and Differences Between the Chepang and English Language

There are many similarities and differences between the Chepang and English cases. They are as follows:

3.2.1 Genitive

Both the Chepang and English languages have the case 'Genitive' but they differ in case markers. In Chepang, it is marked by suffix -ko preceded by nominals. On the other hand, English uses apostrophe 's' preceded by nominal and preposition 'of' case markers. For example:

a. Ram ko baba motasalk\sai tonchha Syaba

Ram-GEN 3sg-fatben the bike fell off.

Rams father fell off the bike.

- b. Sima-ko baba yattyam karyalayaka also syauna.
Sima-GEN 3sg- Father daily office goes.
Sima's father goes to office daily.
- c. Ghoda-ko me gyangtomana.
Horse –GEN-3sg tail long is.
Horse's tail is long.
- d. Ei-kui-ko me tani
This dog –GEN-sg tail is.
This is dog's tail.

English

- a. Ram's car is damaged.
- b. It is the top floor of this building.
- c. I used Sita's car for a month.
- d. Hari's mother is at house.

Both the Chepang and English languages have possessive pronouns with both functions: determiner and pronominal.

Chepang

Determinative function

- a. Ngako baba.
1sg - father
My father.
- b. Niko ki.
1pl- house.
Our house.

- c. Nangko kui.
2sg-dog.
Your dog.
- d. Auko master.
3sg-teacher.
His/ her teacher.
- e. Oko kadali.
3pl-kodali.
Their spade.
- f. Iko me.
3sg.non-human-tail.
Its tail.
- g. I sya ngko kim.
This cow 1 GEN is.
This cow is mine.

English

- a. My father met me on the way.
- b. Our teacher teaches us well.
- c. Your bag is small.
- d. She has collected their bags.
- e. That pen was yours.

In English, the second person possessive pronoun ‘your’ does not have singular-plural, male-female and honorific, non honorific distinction. Similarly, in the Chepang language, the second person possessive pronoun does not have honorific, non-honorific distinction.

Similarly, in English, the third person singular possessive pronouns are used differently for male ‘his’ and female ‘her’ but there is no honorific-non honorific distinction.

In the Chepang language, the third person singular possessive pronoun does not make male-female, honorific- non honorific distinction.

English	Chepang
Your	Nangko
His	Auko
Her	Auko

3.2.2 Instrumental

In both Chepang and English, instrumental cases can occur as the subject of a sentence if there is no other argument. In Chepang, it is marked by suffix-i

example

- a. Ngai kodali-I khet taunang
I spade -1NS field dug
I dug the field with a spade
- b. Chabi-I dailo khola
The key -1NS door opened
The key opened the door
- c. Omai banduk-I yajyo kui sato mana
They gun-1NS mad dog have killed
They have killed a mad dog with a gun

- d. Aau dom bati-I skul aalso syauna
 She foot -1NS school goes
 She goes to school on foot

3.2.3 Dative

The Chepang dative case is identical to the direct object of transitive verb. In Chepang. It is marked by suffix –kai.

example

- a. Syai lei-kai dual chokai.
 Cow calf –dative milk feed.
 The cow feeds the calf milk.
- b. Nang sathika upaha baiyalang.
 I my friend –DAT gift gave .
 I gave my friend a gift.
- c. Manstari bidhyarthilam-kai fohutball khela yakang.
 Teacher student-DAT football played.
 The teacher played the students football.
- d. Maheshi nga –kai syukochij layankang.
 Mahesh 1- DAT some sweet bought.
 Mahesh bought some sweets for me.

3.2.4 Comitative

Comitative case is found in both the Chepang and English languages. In Chepang, it is marked by suffix –kusi whereas, in English, it is marked by preposition –with.

example

- a. It is mahendra rajlam-kusi bagna.
This river Mahendra highway – com flows.
This river flows with Mahendra highway.
- b. Myumcholan goichi-kusi ke nyakai.
Girls boy-com laughed.
The girls also laughed with the boys.
- c. Birali kui-kusi yantimana.
Cat a dog-com has slept.
The cat has slept with a dog.
- d. Ngi yatyam anda- kusi khana jena.
We breakfast egg- com take.
We take breakfast with the eggs.

English

- a. The hailstones fell down with the rain.
- b. A mother with her baby has just crossed the river.
- c. A girl with a red sari is my sister.
- d. We take dinner with milk.

3.2.5 Ablative /Source

Ablative/source case is found in both the Chepang and English languages.

In Chepang, it is marked by suffix –se.

For example:

- a. Nga bharkhar Nepalgunj – se da
I just Nepalgunj- ABL has arrived .

I have just arrived from Nepalgunj.

- b. Aau lai-se tona.
She – ladder-ABL fell off.
She fell off the ladder.
- c. Ni nyam-se shato chyona.
We sun-ABL heat get.
We get heat from the sun.
- d. Mantalami dudh-se dahi Jangnami.
People milk-ABL curd make .
People make curd from milk

But in English, ablative case is marked by preposition ‘from’. There is no distinction whether source is animate or an animate. Example,

- a. Danny has borrowed a big amount of money from Mr. Jack.
- b. She took out his bike from the garage.

3.2.6 Goal

Both Chepang and English have the semantic case ‘goal’. In Chepang, the case is marked by suffix –tang.

For example:

- a. Nga Kathmandu-tang aalala.
I Kathmandu – GOA went.
I went to Kathmandu.
- b. Ni Hongkong- tang sumna.
We Hongkong-GOA flight.
We flight to Hongkong.

- c. Bhanse aam khanglkang bhansa-tang aanla.
Cook food cool kitchen-GOA goes.
The cook goes to the kitchen to cook food.
- d. Dhyom dau ban-tang aala.
Bear thick jungle-GOA ran.
Bear ran towards the thick jungle.

But in English, the case goal is identified with preposition to, at, towards etc. examples;

- a. Ram works to the nearest town.
- b. They have approached towards the jungle.
- c. He went home earlier to me.
- d. Sister goes back to her mother.

3.2.7 Locative

Both the Chepang and English languages have the semantic case 'locative'. They are different only because of their distinct cases marking system. There are less number of case markers in Chepang in comparison to English. Some of Chepang locative case markers are: mang, pachhi, aghi, kamse.

And English locative case markers are 'in, at, on, into, under, over, towards, behind, about etc.

For example:

- a. Ram ki-mang man.
Ram house-LOC is.
Ram is at house.

- b. Kui manko puchhi kuhna.
A dog you-LOC hides.
A dog hides behind you.
- c. aau kachhy-mangko aagadi mana.
She class-LOC 1-LOC sits.
She sits in front of me in the class.
- d. aajyang manta sinko-kamse mana.
A man tree-LOC was.
A man was under the tree.

English

- a. A man ran towards the river.
- b. We live in village.
- c. There is a flower on the table.
- d. The nurse sits in front of me.

CHAPTER – FOUR

FINDINGS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This chapter is divided into two parts: findings and recommendations. The findings are derived after analyzing and interpreting the obtained data. On the basis of findings, some recommendations are also made.

4.1 Findings

The analysis of the obtained data shows that there are some similarities and differences in case systems between the Chepang and English languages.

On the basis of the analysis and interpretation of the obtained data, the major findings of this research are presented here:

4.1.1 Cases in the Chepang Language

- i. The cases which are identified in the Chepang language are: Genitive, Instrumental, Dative, Comitative, Ablative/Source, Goal and Locative.
- ii. The suffixes are the main case markers in Chepang.
- iii. The Chepang language does not make definite-indefinite, male/female and honorific-non honorific distinction.

4.1.2 Similarities Between the Chepang and English Cases

- i. The common cases found in the Chepang and English languages are: Genitive, Instrumental, Dative, Comitative, Ablative/Source, Goal and Locative.

- ii. Both the Chepang and English languages have possessive pronouns with determinative and pronominal function.
- iii. If there is only one case in a sentence, it automatically becomes the subject in both the languages.

4.1.3 Differences Between the Chepang and English Cases

- i. Despite the common cases found in the Chepang and English languages, they have different case markers.
- ii. The Chepang language does not make male/female distinction where as the English language does have. For example,

English	Chepang
His	Auko
Her	Auko

- iii. In the Chepang language, Dative, goal (animate) and direct object (animate) object of the transitive verbs are marked by the same case marker – kai but they are marked differently in English.
- iv. The case markers are suffixes in Chepang and preposition in English. The case suffixes and prepositions in both the languages are given below;

Chepang

- A. Genitive: ko
- B. Instrumental: i
- C. Dative: kai
- D. Comitative: kusi
- E. Ablative/Source: se

- F. Goal: tang
 G. Locative: ki, pachhi, aghi, kamse

English

- A. Genitive: s, of
 B. Instrumental: with, by
 C. Dative: to, for
 D. Comitative: with
 E. Ablative/Source: from
 F. Goal: to, at
 G. Locative: on, in, at, over, under, below, towards etc

4.2 Recommendations

The following recommended are made on the basis of findings mentioned above:

- i. This research is a comparative study between two languages Chepang and English. A comparative study always helps the language teacher either of Chepang or English to identify the difficult areas of language teaching. Therefore, it will help to the teachers to teach cases of both languages.
- iii. In the Chepang language, dative case and direct object are marked by the same case markers whereas they are marked differently in English. So, it should be taken carefully.
- iv. The Chepang language uses suffixes as case markers but English uses preposition as case markers. This fact is necessary to be known by the language learners.

- v. Without linguistic knowledge of a language, one can not teach the language. This study gives linguistic knowledge to a teacher who intends to teach the Chepang or English language.
- vi. The Chepang case marking system is different and complicated than that of English. So, this research work is important for language teachers, textbook writers, syllabus designers.

Finally the researcher hopes that work will provide detailed information about the Chepang and English case systems. This research work can be proved as a milestone in the field of grammar of the Chepang language. Language teachers, linguists, writers and the Chepang community may take more benefits from this research work.

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QUESTIONNAIRE

1. The tiger died. (बाघ मर्यो)

.....

2. My uncle killed a tiger. (मेरो काकाले बाघ मारुभयो)

.....

3. The cat walks silently. (बिरालो चुपचापसँग हिड्छ)

.....

4. The dog chased away the cat. (कुकुरले बिरालोलाई लखेट्यो)

.....

5. The apples are ripening. (स्याउहरु पाकेका छन्)

.....

6. Ram eats apples. (रामले स्याउ खान्छ)

.....

7. A beautiful song ends. (एउटा राम्रो गीत सकिन्छ)

.....

8. She sung a beautiful song. (उनी एउटा राम्रो गीत गाउँछिन्)

.....

9. I traveled. (मैले यात्रा गरें)

.....

10. He greeted me. (उसले मलाई अभिवादन गर्‍यो)

.....

11. They ran on the ground. (उनीहरु चौरमा दौडे)

.....

12. You beat them. (तिमीहरुले उनीहरुलाई पिट्यौ)

.....

13. He takes bath everyday. (उ/उनी प्रत्येक दिन नुहाउछिन्)

.....

