

CHAPTER-ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1. General Background

Language is a means of communication in its looser sense. Communication refers to the exchange of ideas, feelings, desires which we can do by the means of linguistic symbols i.e. phonic or graphic symbols or by tactile, olfactory or gustatory modes. So, this type of definition includes human communication and communication by signpost within the boundary of language.

Language is the most valuable single possession of the human race. Everyone, in every walk of life, is concerned with language in practical way. We make use of it virtually in everything we do. For the most part of our use of language is so automatic and natural that we pay no more attention to it than we do to our breathing or to the beating of our hearts. So, we can conclude that language is the voluntary vocal system of human communication. Thus, human language is concerned only with auditory-vocal and visual mode of communication.

Etymologically, the term 'language' is derived from 'langue', which literally means 'tongue' in Latin. 'Lingua' was modified into 'langue' and then into 'language' in French and that came into English in 13th century (as cited in Singh and Poudel, 2009, p. 1). The English people further modified it into language. Asher (1994,) says, "Language may be used to refer to all systems of speaking and writing, as in sentence human language can talk about an infinite number of topics" (p.1894). Asher still says that language is also extended system of human communication other than speaking, writing and singing as in phrases such as body language and the language of gesture.

Similarly, Corder (1973) says, "Language is thus, seen as a part of human psychology, a particular sort of behavior, the behavior which has its principal function that of communication" (p. 23). The subjects that pay some attention to language include physiology, psychology, logic mathematics,

communication, engineering, sociology, anthropology and literary criticism. But none of these, however, studies language for its own sake, 'to find out how it works'. This is, on the other hand, precisely the task of the linguistic sciences. They have been built up to throw light on language. Their purpose is to find out how a language works and how languages work. For this purpose, language is best regarded as a form of activity of human beings in society and it has the properties of being patterned. So, studying how language works means studying the patterns and items which enter them; how people operate these patterns and items and how they persist at different times in different places and among different groups of people. All these matters could be considered as the domain of pure-linguistic sciences. The science which studies language scientifically is called "linguistics".

To study language scientifically means to construct a unified theory of how language works and to derive from it certain exact methods for describing languages. The statements should be rigorous, consistent and objective that they should be scientific. There are three aspects of language activity or three types of patterns in language: the material, the structure and the environment. From these three types of patterning, the three principle levels are derived. They are substance, form and context. The substance is raw material auditory or visual. The form is the internal structure. The context is the relation of language, which is in fact of relation of its internal pattern, its form, to other feature of the situations in which language operates.

As above mentioned description of language shows language is that variety of communication which is used by only human beings. When human beings come into contact and communicate with each other, they use language. So, we can say that human society and language are inextricably related to each other.

1.1.1 The English Language and its Importance

It is clear that without language, human being is more or less similar to animal, that is, language is species-specific possession through which human beings communicate in this world. English is the most prestigious lingua franca in the world. It is regarded as the main international language, by using which human beings can fulfill their intentions. It is emerging and becoming popular day by day because of international trades, business and modern technologies.

According to the American Heritage Dictionary, English is the language of Indo-European family. Now it is regarded as an indispensable vehicle of the transmission of the modern civilization across the countries. Wrenn (1989) says:

The vast expansion of English culture and commercial influence in many parts of the world, together with the more recent dominance of the material civilization of the United States of America has suggested to many that English might well become the international auxiliary language of world (p. 202).

In the world, English has become the most dominant language. It is not only spoken in Britain and America but also in every corner of the world. Thus, it is an international language as it is used even by UNO and SAARC countries. The countries which use the English language are far more ahead in trade, business, and modern technologies. Most of the important books of the world are written in English

As the Nepali language cannot fulfill our needs of the scientific and technological knowledge of the world, Nepal needs the English language for acquisition and transmission of the scientific and technological knowledge for tourism and business and as a language for higher education. The government of Nepal has implemented the English language as a compulsory subject up to

graduate level. Nowadays, the number of the students majoring in English is increasing in Nepalese colleges and universities. It has become the medium of instruction in higher education and almost everyone talks Nepali by mixing English codes. This also designates the importance of the English language in Nepal.

Regarding the importance of the English language in Nepal, Bhattarai and Gautam (2005) have opined, "The only factor that has lured the Nepalese society; rich and poor alike is the English language now as a subject and medium both" (p. 1). About the significance of ELT, Kansakar (1996) says, "Since the teaching of English in Nepal has assumed greater importance in view of the developmental needs of the country, ELT has become an essential component in Nepal Educational Strategy" (p.72). In the same way, Karna (2006) writes:

Nowadays, English is in virtually everyone's lips those who are able to communicate in English are deemed to be well educated, intelligent and so on whereas those who lack the ability to use English consider themselves to be educationally deprived and yearn to learn it in order to grow academically and professionally. This makes us realize the significance of English in today's academic ecology. In fact, English users enjoy a great deal of prestige in the present world. (p.73)

This statement clarifies that the interest and importance of the English language is increasing day by day. Likewise, Awasthi (2003) states:

There was no college and university for higher education in Nepal until Tri-Chandra college was opened in 1918. English for higher level was introduced with the opening of Tri -Chandra College. However, there was no provision for teacher training. English Language Teaching

(ELT) in Nepal started in 1971 with the implementation of National Educational Plan (NESP) and the same year Tribhuvan University started B.Ed. program in English educations. (p.22)

Such education history in Nepal shows that the teaching of English in Nepal began in the time of Rana's Regime. Its popularity is still growing day by day. For the promotion and enhancement of ELT in Nepal, Nepal English Language Teachers Association (NELTA) co-partnered with British Council, US Embassy, International Publishing Houses, Ministry of Education, etc. It has national-wide stakeholders or branches through which it provides teaching materials, publications, journals, etc. It organizes rounds of discussions, workshops, teacher training seminars, conferences, etc. for the promotion of ELT in Nepal.

1.1.2 The Linguistic Situation in Nepal

Nepal is a small country. Despite its small size, it is famous in the world as it accommodates an amazing cultural, ethnic and linguistic asserts. Nepal is proved to be a stock place for languages because of linguistic plurality. It can be taken as a research center or the laboratory for language researchers. Despite the lack of rigorous researches on the field, the population census report of 2001 has indentified ninety two distinct languages used by different ethnic groups as their mother tongue. Besides, a number of languages have been reported as unknown languages because of the lack of adequate knowledge and research. Such multiethnic, multicultural and multilingual settings confer Nepal to a peculiar position on the linguistic map of the world. Most of the languages are not codified in Nepal. Therefore, they are used only for day to day communication in spoken form. Out of this large number of languages used in Nepal, the major languages are mentioned here:

Nepali	48.61%	Maithali	12.3%
Bhojpuri	7.52%	Tharu	5.86%
Tamang	5.19%	Newari	3.63%
Magar	3.59%	Awadhi	2.47%
Santawa	1.36%	Gurung	1.49%
Limbu	1.47%	Bajika	1.05%
Urdu	0.77%	Rajbanshi	0.57%
Sherpa	0.57%	Others	3.47%

Source: Population Census, 2001

The languages spoken in Nepal have their genetic affiliation to four language families, viz. Indo-Aryan, Tibeto-Burman, Austro-Asiatic and Dravidian. Among them, Indo-Aryan family is the largest family in terms of the speakers whereas Tibeto-Burman is the largest family in terms of the number of the languages it contains. All the languages identified in Nepal are classified under the following four families:

a. Indo-Aryan

In Nepalese context, Indo-European family of languages mainly comprise Indo-Aryan groups of languages which form the largest group of languages in terms of speakers viz. nearly eighty percent. The following languages are spoken in Nepal under this family:

Angika	Nepali	Hindi
Awadhi	Palpa	Jumli
Bangheli	Rajbanshi	Kayort
Bengali	Sonha	Kumauni
Bhojpuri	Tharu-Chitwana	Kumbali
Dote-Majhi	Tharu-Dangaura	Kurmukar
Darai	Tharu-Kathariya	Maithali
Dhanwar	Tharu-Kochila	Majhi
Marwari	Tharu-Rana	Musasa

Source: Ethnologue Report for Nepal, 2009

b. Tibeto-Burman

Another important group of Nepal's languages is the Tibeto-Burman group of Sino-Tibetan family. It consists of the largest number of languages. The following languages are spoken in Nepal under this family:

Ahpariya	Limbu, Yakkna	Humla
Bahing	Magar Eastern	Jerung
Bantawa	Magar Western	Jirel
Barauma	Manangha	Kagate
Belhariya	Meohang Eastern	Noada
Bodo	Meohang Eastern	Nahiering
Bujhal	Meohang Western	Narphu
Byangsi	Mugon	Newari
Canling	Puma	Nubri
Chyantyal	Raji	Parbat Eastern
Chaudangsi	Route	Parbat Western
Chepang	Rawat	Phangduwli
Chhintange	Saam	Pongyong
Chhulung	Sampang	Kaike
Chukwa	Seke	Tomyang
Darmiya	Sherpa	Tseku
Dhimal	Sunwar	Tsum
Dolpo	Tamang Eastern	Walungge
Dumar	Tamang Eastern, Gorkha	Wambule
Dungmali	Tamang North Western	Wayu
Dzongkho	Tamang North Western	Yakha

Khaling	Tamang Western	Yamphe
Khamshashi	Thakali	Yamphu
Koi	Thangmi	Lorung Nortnem
Kuling	Thudami	Lorung Northem
Kyerung	Thulung	Lowa
Lambichhong	Tichurang	Gurung Eastern
Lepch	Tibetan	Gurung Western
Lhomi	Tilung	Halambu Sherpa
KhamGhale	Ghale Kutang	Lingkhim
Limbu	Ghale Northen	Ghale Southern

Source: Ethnologue Report for Nepal, 2009

c. Dravidian

According to Ethnologue Report for Nepal (2009), only one language named 'Jhangad' comes under this family. It is also named as Kurux-Nepali, Dhangar, Jhanger, Orau and so on. It is spoken in Janakpur and Dhanusa Districts.

d. Austro-Asiatic

According to the Ethnologue Report for Nepal (2009), two languages: Santar and Mundari come under this family. They are spoken in Morang and Jhapa Districts.

According to Ethnologue Report for Nepal (2009), there are 126 languages in total. But only 123 languages are used as the means for communication. Three languages: Dura, Kusunda and Waling have been already extincted. All these dead languages also come under the giant family, i.e. Tibeto-Burman family.

1.1.3 Dialect

The use of language varies according to place, time, group of people, topics of subject matter and situation. The variation in the use of language according to place, time, and people is called dialect. Dialects are simply linguistic varieties which are distinguishable in vocabulary, grammar, and pronunciation.

Wardhaugh (1998, p. 10) classifies dialects into two types viz. regional and social dialects. According to him, regional dialects are language varieties which are different in terms of pronunciation, choice and forms of word and syntax. Similarly, he says that social dialects are used to describe differences in speech associated with various social groups and classes. Crystal (2003) says, "Dialect is a regionally or socially distinctive variety of language identified by a particular set of words and grammatical structures" (p. 136). In fact, dialect is a non standard variety of language. Dialect is the form of a language used in a part of country or by a class of people with grammar, words and pronunciation that might be different from other forms of the same languages. It is such a variety of language that tells something about or identifies the speakers or the users of the language.

a. Regional dialect

It is a variety of language that differs according to the different geographical locations or regions. It is a specific form of a language spoken in the certain geographical territory. It is related to the physical boundary of certain locality. However, the dialect differs in terms of pronunciation, grammar and vocabulary. The Bajhangi dialect, spoken in Bajhang district is an example of regional dialect of the Nepali language.

b. Social dialect

It is that variety of a language which is based on the social stratification. It is a variety used by the members of certain social class. Socio-economic status, gender, ethnicity, religion, education, occupation, etc are the determining

factors for the emergence of the sociolects. The differences of the sociolect can be noticed in terms of pronunciation, grammar and vocabulary. For example, black English is the social dialect of the Standard American English.

1.1.4 The Bajhangi Dialect: An Introduction

Bajhangi is a variety/dialect of the Nepali Language. It is one of the several dialects of the Nepali language. (Ethnologue Report for Nepal, 2009). It is a dialect of the Nepali language because it reflects differences on vocabulary, grammar and pronunciation. On the other hand, it is intelligible to the speakers of the Nepali Language. The Bajhangi dialect is a regional dialect but not a social dialect. It is regionally different from other dialects of the Nepali Language. This dialect is spoken by Bajhangi people, not all, whatever may be their social status. Though four dialects (Chir-Bungali, Lakali, Dhuleli and Bajhangi) are in vogue currently in Bajhang, Bajhangi dialect is being used widely (Joshi 1989, p. 7). Chudamani Bandhu has mentioned it as 'ora-pachhima dialect'. Bajhangi dialect is spoken only in Bajhang district. Joshi (ibid) defines it as "the dialect spoken by the permanent inhabitants of the lower hills and valleys of Bajhang district".

It is spoken by 3/4th portion of Bajhangi people. Out of forty seven VDCs, it is spoken in thirty one VDCs of this district. In the lack of intensive study, the exact number of people speaking this dialect is not given some similar dialects, for some extent, are spoken in Bajura, Jumla, Kalikot, Achham districts. In spite of its close relationship with the Nepali language, it has its own linguistic qualities basically phonological, morphological and syntactic.

The Bajhangi dialect has neither well documented history nor fully fledged written materials. It has not been widely studied yet. It exists only in spoken form like most of the unrecorded languages of the world. Regarding its history, Jyotiprakash Joshi has written 'Jhagadiya Ganeshkumarko Milap' first in the dialect. Therefore, it is taken as the first material for this dialect. Later on Janak

Bahadur Bist had translated Guru Prasad Mainali's Naso (a story) in this dialect. Up to now, few of the research works are carried out in this dialect

The Bajhangi dialect is a less studied dialect. Bajhangi people use this dialect among themselves but while speaking with the speakers of other languages, they switch over the Nepali language. This dialect is not being used as a medium of instruction in primary schools too. People living in headquarter of Bajhang, Chainpur, Bajhangi dialect speaking areas have started using Nepali. There is an F.M. station, which conducts different programmes in Bajhangi dialect. Due to the influence of modernization and education, people have started speaking Nepali. It is also the case of prestige and status. Language shift is taking place due to the lack of language loyalty. Pokharel (2040, p. 43) has classified the dialects of Nepali into five groups which are as follows:

a. Purbeli group

This dialect is spoken in Dailekh, Jajarkot and Salyan.

b. Majhali group

This dialect is spoken all over the Karnali zone.

c. Orapachhima group

This dialect is spoken in Bajhang, Bajura and Achham.

d. Majhpachhima group

This dialect is spoken in Dadeldhura and Doti.

e. Parapachhima group

This dialect is spoken in Malla Sarad, Baitadi, Marma, Lekam, Chuwagadh and Purchaudi of Mahakali zone.

Bajhangi dialect falls under the Orapachhima group. It is one of the dialect of Nepali language. It is used as a native language by the people of Bajhang district.

1.1.5 Need and Importance of Contrastive Analysis

Contrastive analysis (CA) is the systematic study of two or more languages to find out the similarities and differences.

CA was developed by C.C. Fries and Robert Lado in the late 1940s and 50s. CA was used extensively in the field of second language acquisition (SLA) in 1960s and early 1970s. It was used as a method of explaining why some features of a target language (TL) were more difficult to acquire than others. This theory is based on behaviourism of psychology and structuralism of linguistics. Behaviourists argue that language learning is a matter of habit formation. Therefore, mastering over second language depends on the differences and similarities between the TL and mother tongue (L_1). Hence, CA was used as a method of explaining the language features extensively.

CA has been defined by some scholars and linguists differently. To quote some of them, James (1980) says, "CA is a linguistic enterprise aimed at producing inverted (i.e. contrastive not comparative) two valued typologies (CA is always concerned with a pair of languages) and found on the assumption that languages can be compared" (p. 3). So, CA is most often related to the study of language in pair. And, it is used to contrast two languages rather than to compare them. Similarly, Crystal (2003) defines CA as "A general approach to the investigation of language (contrastive linguistics), particularly carried on certain areas of applied linguistics, such as foreign language teaching and translation" (p. 107). By its nature, CA is used in the practical field of language teaching and learning, particularly in the field of applied linguistics". Richards et al. (1985) say, "CA is the comparison of the linguistic systems of two languages, for example, the sound system or the grammatical system." Thus, CA can be used for comparing any level of the two languages.

Contrastive analysis is very important in the field of language teaching and learning though its scope has been declined after 1970s. In this field, CA serves two functions, (i) to predict the possible errors of L_2 learners and (ii) to explain

the sources and reasons of those errors. CA helps a teacher to find out the areas of differences and the areas of difficulties while teaching. Similarly, a teacher can find the sources and reasons of errors in the performance of the students. A teacher having the knowledge of CA would be useful for course designers, teachers, examiners and students. This is why, CA is important from pedagogical view point.

1.1.6 An Introduction to Case

Case is a relative concept. It indicates the role relationship of noun phrases with the verb in a sentence. Hornby (1996) defines case as "the form of a noun, an adjective or a pronoun in some languages that shows its relationship to another word." Thus, case is the relationship of different NPs, adjectives and pronouns with the verb in a sentence. For example:

- a. Hari broke the door.
- b. The door was broken with hammer by Hari.

In, (a), the NPs 'Hari' and 'the door' have agentive and objective roles respectively. Similarly, the same door in (b) even though it comes to the position of subject does not cause much difference in meaning. Here, the NP, 'a hammer' has instrumental relationship with the verb. In the Greek period, Dionysus Thrax used the concept of case. Chomsky in 1965 came with his 'Standard Theory' of Transformational Generative Grammar in his book 'Aspects of the Theory of Syntax'. This theory emphasizes only on the grammatical categories such as NP, VP and grammatical functions such as subject, object as tools for analyzing sentence structures. 'The Standard Theory' assumes the notion of deep structure characterized by grammatical categories and grammatical functions. But this theory fails to capture the semanticity that the NPs adhere to the verb. If we analyze the aforementioned sentences in (a) and (b), the NPs 'Hari' in (a) and 'the door' in (b) they function as the subjects of the predicate 'broke'. But the same 'door' in (a) functions as an object. Here only the categories are shifted but not the notion inherent in them. That is why,

the notion of deep structure was vehemently criticized as it fails to maintain consistency of regularity about sentences. Even though the categorical and functional characteristics of the deep structure vary, the meaning aspects or semantic relations or roles always remain intact. Thus, the deep structure of a sentence is characterized by a verb and a series of semantic roles or cases. Such kind of relational channel or model of grammar is called case grammar. It is a model of generative grammar that Charles Fillmore developed in the late 1960s.

In case grammar, the verb plays a vital role. And as a central constituent of a sentence, it shares a number of semantic relationships with various noun phrases. These relationships are called cases. The traditional grammar regarded case as morphosyntactic variations in noun but for Fillmore, case is set of concepts which identifies the types of judgements which animate beings are capable of making about the events going on round them. They would judge who did something, whom it happened to, what got changed, where it happened.

There are many types of case. The following set is considered typical: nominative, accusative, genitive, instrumental, dative, comitative, ablativ, vocative, source, goal and locative (Yadav, 2004, p. 238). So, the researcher is interested to find out similar and different characteristics of the case system in English and Bajhangi dialect.

1.1.7 Basic Concepts of Case Grammar

The concept of case is nothing new in grammar. Traditional grammarians have been discussing it for ages, especially in the case of synthetic language 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 morphosynatic marker at the end of that noun. Discussing case

means presenting rules of morphosyntactic variations and listing the exceptions to those rules.

Case grammar was first proposed as one of the arguments in favour of Generative semantics, but it is best understood as the analysis in terms of predicates and participants in which the emphasis is largely upon the functions of the participants. Case notions actually are a set of universal, presumably innate concepts which proceed to define them in semantic terms.

There are three concepts of case grammar. They are:

- a. Syantactic function
- b. Morphosyantactic form
- c. Semantic role

a. Syantactic function

The concept of syntactic function is the traditional notion related to case grammar. It is the sentence level function. Syntactic function in case grammar is the function of an NP according to its position in the structure of a sentence. Subjective (that comes in the very beginning of a sentence), objective (that undergoes the action that comes in the middle or at the end of a structure) and complement (that completes a sentence) are the example of syantatic functions.

Let us observe the following sentences:

- i. Prakash won the trophy.
- ii. The trophy was won by Prakash.
- iii. The cat slept.

In the above sentence, 'Prakash', 'the trophy' and 'the cat' have subjective function. But the same subject 'Prakash' functions as an agent in the second sentence and 'the trophy' functions as an object in the first sentence. By this, it is clear that the notion syntactic function in case grammar is traditional. It doesnot care semantic aspects and assigns roles as categories are shifted.

b. Morphosyntactic form

Morphosyntactic 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 phrase with the verb. By morphosyntactic form, Fillmore refers to the different cases which stand in a certain relationship within a structure. Morphosyntactic forms give some functional and categorical information. They differ from one language to another. Different morphosyntactic form that mark cases are inflections prepositions, postpositions, word order, intonation, affixation and suppletion (irregular change as in go, went, gone). A language may have one or more such morphosyntactic forms which show the case relation. In languages like Greek, Latin and Sanskrit, a special class of affixation functions as the case marker. This type of specific class does not exist in English. So, mainly two morphosyntactic forms- word order and preposition reveal the case relation in English. The common prepositions used for different cases are as follows:

Morphosyntactic Forms	Cases
by	agent
with, by	instrument
from	source
to, into, until towards	goal
in, at, on	locative
to, for	benefactive

There are some other morphosyntactic forms that function as prepositional phrases. They are given below:

- i. on the roof - locative case marker
- ii. towards the jungle - directional case marker
- iii. on Sunday - time case marker

- iv. in a haphazard way - manner case marker
- v. by a bus - instrumental case marker
- vi. by her father - agentive case marker

Word order shows the cases like agentive, experiencer and patient. For example:

- i. Ram goes to school. (agentive)
- ii. Laxmi beats Sita. (patient)
- iii. Dhurba feels cold. (experiencer)

c. Semantic role

Semantic role is a recently developed concept of case grammar. It has more dominating position in case grammar than that of the previous two concepts. This is a meaning level concept. Fillmore has described his 'Case Grammar' from the viewpoint of semantic role what he calls 'case' or 'case relationship'. He has explained the whole case grammar as having a semantic role. Fillmore (1968) says, "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" (p. 1). In an underlying structure, there is one verb and one or more NPs, each having a particular semantic relationship with the action or state represented by the verb. This is related with semantic role. Thus, it seems that the case relations are semantically identified though distributionally distinctive.

Fillmore has explained his case grammar as the semantic role with the help of the following sentences:

- i. John broke the window.
- ii. A hammer broke the window.
- iii. John broke the window with a hammer.
- iv. The window broke.

'John' in both sentences i and ii has an agentive role; 'the window' in all sentences has an objective 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 represented by the verb of that sentence.

1.1.8 Cases in the English Language

The English Cases which are going to be discussed: nominative, accusative, instrumental, genitive (possessive), comitative, locative, ablative, dative and vocative are based on the ones discussed by Fillmore (1968), Quirk et al. (1985), Comrie (1989), Blake (1994) and Huddleston (1996). Each of them are explained below:

a) Nominative

Nominative is syntactic/grammatical case and it is the form taken by a noun phrase when it is the subject of intransitive or transitive clauses. According to Huddleston (1996) says, " Nominative and accusative are definable at the general level as distinct cases associated respectively with the subject of a finite clause and with the direct object: if the NPs in subject and direct object function characteristically have distinct case inflections or analytical markers we call these cases nominative and accusative respectively. The English 'I' and 'me' series of forms clearly satisfy these definitions" (p. 98). For example:

- i. He felt.
- ii. He hit him.

Here, subject of intransitive verb 'felt' and subject of transitive verb 'hit' are treated in the same way as 'he' but object of transitive verb is treated differently as 'him'. Similarly, Comrie (1989) says," In English one case is used to encode S and A- a case of this kind is called nominative; and another case is used to encode P- a case of this kind is called accusative" (p. 111).

The nominative marks the subject of grammatical relation encoding several roles such as agent, experiencer and patient. For example:

- i. The boy broke the window. (agent)

NOM ACC

- ii. Tom felt happy. (experiencer)

NOM

- iii. The snowflake melted. (patient)

NOM

b) Accusative

Accusative is also a syntactic/grammatical case. It refers to the form taken by a noun phrase when it is the object of a verb. Blake (1994) says, "The accusative is the case that encodes the direct object of a verb" (p. 134). From the definitions given by Comrie (1989), and Huddleston (1996), it is clear that accusative case is treated differently than nominative case in English. For example:

- i. I laughed.

NOM

- ii. I love him.

NOM ACC

The core semantic function of the accusative case is to express the role of 'patient'. For example, 'the window' and 'the milk' in the following examples function as patient.

- i. He broke the window.

NOM ACC

- ii. A cat drank the milk.

NOM ACC

c) Instrumental

Fillmore (1968) in his own words defined instrumental case as, "The case of the inanimate force or object causally involved in the action or state identified by

the verb" (p. 24). Similarly, According to Blake (1994), " instrumental is the means by which an activity or change of state is carried out" (p. 69).

From these definitions, we come to know that instrument is the case of something used inanimately to perform an action. The force of object is used as a weapon or means to carry out the action or state identified by the verb. For example, 'with a spade', 'the sun', 'the wind' and 'with a knife' in the following examples function as instrumental cases.

- i. He dug the hole with a spade.
- ii. The sun dried the clothes.
- iii. John beat me by hand.
- iv. The wind broke the window.
- v. I cut my finger with knife.

d) Genitive (possessive)

The genitive case expresses a possessive relationship. "... the genitive is the case of possession, ..." (Lyons 1968, p. 29). For example:

- i. It is Harry's pencil.
- ii. The hood of the car was dented.
- iii. The head lights of the bus are damaged.
- iv. The cow's tail is cut.

In the above examples, 'Harry', 'the car', 'the bus' and 'the cow' show the case of possession of 'pencil', 'the hood', 'the head lights' and 'tail' respectively.

English uses possessive pronouns to express the possessive relationship. For example, 'her' and 'hers' in the following examples show the possession of 'book'.

- i. This is Sheila's book. This is her book. (determinative)
- ii. This book is Sheila's. This book is hers. (independent/pronominal)

e) Comitative

The 'comitative' usually marks the animate (typically human) which is concerned of as accompanying the participation of some more centrally involved participant in a predication. This case indicates the notion of togetherness and the preposition operating as the marker of this case means 'and'; "A case expressing with whom an entity is located: Usually used of animates" (Blake, 1994, p. 198). For example, 'with' in 'with his master', 'with his wife' and 'with Yule' in the following examples indicates a comitative case marker.

- i. The dog is with his master.
- ii. He is coming with his wife.
- iii. George sang with Yule.

f) Locative

Fillmore (1968) defined the term locative as, "The case which identifies the location or spatial orientation of the state or action identified by the verb" (p. 25). Blake (1994) says, "It is the position of an entity" (p. 69). For example:

- i. The vase is on/under/near the table.
- ii. Chicago is windy.
- iii. It is windy in Chicago.
- iv. A cat is behind me.
- v. The dog ran towards the house.
- vi. The table is in front of me.

In the above examples, 'on/under/near the table', 'Chicago', 'in Chicago', 'behind me', 'towards the house', and 'in front of me' indicate locative cases.

g) Ablative (Source)

The case that expresses "The role of source, ..." (Blake, 1994, p. 196) is an ablative case. Fillmore calls this case as 'source'. This semantic role is mostly associated with the verbs of motion, transformation of time. Fillmore defines

this case as "the place from which something, ... the starting points, .. the earlier state, ... the start of time period." The definition entails that this case marks the origin or starting point of an action. For example:

- i. Sherry bought the car from Dave.
- ii. We leased the apartment from Mr. Bains.
- iii. The programme lasted from morning to evening.
- iv. An apple fell down from the tree.

'From' in the above examples is an ablative case marker which marks the sources 'Dave', 'Mr. Bains', 'morning to evening', and 'the tree'.

h) Dative

The dative case expresses an indirect object relationship. According to Blake (1994), "The dative is a syntactic case that can encode a variety of roles, its central function is to encode entities that are the target of an activity or emotion"(p. 145). For example:

- i. She gave the cat a dish of milk.
- ii. He gave me a book.
- iii. He gave a book to me.
- iv. She bought a pen for her sister.
- v. Sam sold the car to Jennie.

In the above examples, 'the cat', 'me', 'to me', 'for her sister' and 'to Jennie' respectively encode the entities targeted by the action of 'giving' in the first three sentences and 'buying' and 'selling' in the fourth and the last respectively.

i) Vocative

Vocative is the case form taken by noun phrase when it is used in the function of address. According to Blake (1994), "The vocative is used as a form of address" (p. 9).

Quirk et al. (1985) say, "A vocative is an optional element, usually a noun phrase, denoting the one of more persons to whom the sentence is addressed" (p. 773). English does not make use of the vocative case inflectionally, but

expresses the notion using an optional noun phrase in certain positions and usually with a distinctive intonation. For example:

- i. JOHN, DINner's ready.
- ii. And THAT, my FRIENDS, concludes my SPEECH.
- iii. My BACK is aching, DOctor. (ibid)

1.1.9 Cases in the Nepali Language

In Nepali, 'case' is called 'karak' and the case forms are called 'vivakti'.

Traditionally, Nepali has eight cases although some linguists do not accept two cases namely; 'Sambandha' and 'Sambodhan' because of their no direct relation with verbs. Cases and their symbols proposed by traditional grammarians in Nepali are:

Cases	Symbols	Case ending
karta (agent)	le, bata	prathama (1 st)
karma (patient)	kana, lai	dwitiya (2 nd)
karan (instrument)	le, द्वारा	tritiya (3 rd)
sampradan (dative)	lai, लागि	chaturthi (4 th)
apadan (ablative)	dekhi, bata	panchami (5 th)
sambandha (gentitive)	ko, ka, ki, ro, ra, ri, no, na, ni	sasthi (6 th)
adhikaran (locative)	ma, mathi	saptami (7 th)
sambodhan (vocative)	hae, oo, yae	sambodhan

The above table shows that traditional Nepali cases have clear case markers. In Nepali, case markers are those postpositions, which are attached with the nominals and show different case relations associated with the verb in a sentence. Adhikari (1995), has proposed following fourteen cases in the Nepali Language:

a. Abhikarta (Agentive)

Abhikarta (agentive) is that role in which the animate being or human institution is involved to carry out an event or action. The action is performed with its own intention and energy. For example:

Harile bhat khaya.

Hari ate rice.

Bimaldwara patra lekhiyo.

A letter was written by Bimal.

b. Parinami (Resultative)

Semantic role that refers to something which comes into being as the result of the action or event identified by the verb. For example:

Birle ghar banayo.

Bir made house.

Lunale ghas kati.

Luna cut grass.

c. Nriapakchya (Neutral)

Semantic role in which the noun or noun phrase is unaffected and unchanged from the action but it becomes the subject of the function identified by the verb. For example:

Sitale birami kuryo.

Sita looked after the patient.

Bimule barsha bitayo.

Bimu spend the year.

d. Sattatmak (Essive)

It is the case which indicates stativeness of existence identified by the verb.

The stativeness is expressed through stative verb used in a sentence. For example:

Uni *bhagwan* hun.

He is very good man.

Yo *kalam* ho.

This is a pen.

e. Adhikaran (Locative)

Adhikaran (locative) is the case of location or place or base of an entity. This case covers locative, temporal and other bases under it. For example:

Narad *gharma* bashyo.

Narad lived in house.

Meri *taraima* cha.

Meri is in terai.

f. Aanuprapak (Recipient)

The case of living being who receives the material or physical effect identified by the verb. For example:

Tarale *bhailai* pityo.

Tara bit brother.

Amale *dokolai* ucalyo.

Mother lifted the basket.

g. Hetu (cause)

Hetu is the case of non-animate peripheral cause of a state, action or event identified by the verb. For example:

Barshale bali bigaryo.

Rain destroyed the crops.

Hiule chiso garyo.

Snow made cold.

h. Apadan (Ablative)

Semantic role that indicates the disintegration, dispersion or starting point of an action or event or state identified by the verb. For example:

Rukhbata ama khasyo.

A mango fell down from tree.

Kathmandubata kar aayo.

A car came from Kathmandu.

i. Lavak (Benefactive)

The case of animate beings that are benefitted in some ways from the action identified by the verb. For example:

Hemle *Anillai* kalam diyo.

Hem gave a pen to Anil.

Laxmile *bhailai* sweater buni.

Laxmi knitted sweater for her brother.

j. Paryojaniya (Purposive)

The case of something that indicates the purpose of an activity. For example:

Harile *samanlai* trukma halyo.

Hari put goods in truck.

Ramle *paisalai* bankma rakhyo.

Ram deposited money at bank.

k. Saharthak (Comitative)

Semantic role in which more than one noun phrase shares equal or same participation indicating association or accompaniment for the action identified by the verb. For example:

Gopal *babasangai* bazaar gayo.

Gopal went to market with his father.

Ram *Sitasangai* ban gayo.

Ram went to jungle with Sita.

l. Aanubhawak (Experiencer)

Aanubhawak (experience) is the case of animate being that experiences a psychological state or a physical perception identified by the verb. For example:

Loglai chisho bhayo.

Log felt cold.

Basantile pahad dekhi.

Basanti saw hillside.

m. Karan (Instrumental)

Karan (instrument) is the case of something which is used inanimately as a means or weapon of agent that is helpful to perform an action identified by the verb. For example:

Cakhule hat katiyo.

His hand was cut by knife.

Gadile balaklai kichyo.

Bus run over the child.

n. Parwarthya (Affected)

Parwartya is that semantic role which indicates the actual state of something which changes due to the action identified by the verb. For example:

Puspale *Puskarlai* bhetyo.

Puspa met Puskar.

Ramle *Khel* Jetyo.

Ram won the match.

Adhikari (1995) has classified above mentioned cases into two categories namely, central and peripheral. Central cases mean the cases which are determined on the basis of the functional characteristics of the verb and peripheral cases are those, which are not directly associated with the functional characteristic of the verb but they take part as peripheral participants for the action in some way identified by the verb.

Although case concept is universal, the case markers are language specific. So, this study has been proposed to find out the similar and different markers of case in English and Bajhangi.

1.2 Review of Related Literature

Research is a scientific study made on a topic or problem under some specific conditions. It is carried out on the foundation of the previous study. The previous studies provide guidelines for the later ones. There are still many topics or problems which need to be studied. 'Case in English and Bajhangli' is one of them which need to be studied in detail to contribute to Bajhangli dialect of Nepali Language. However, no single study has been focused to study Bajhangli dialect of Nepali with reference to case system. So, the researcher has tried to study the case system of Bajhangli dialect. Many researches have been carried out to fulfil different objectives. Many researchers have compared different languages like English, Nepali, Limbu, Rai, Newari, Tharu, Maithali, Doteli, Baitadeli, Achhami and Bhojpuri. So, the researcher has studied and used many previous articles, reports, books, researches, internet to fulfil his objectives. A brief survey of them has been given below.

Fillmore (1968) studied the case and produced his seminal paper entitled, "The Case for Case". He has proposed six main cases in English and defined them as semantic roles associated with deep structure level. It is that concept which is determined from the relation between nouns or noun phrases with the verb used in the sentence. Similarly, Blake (1994) in his book entitled "Case" has discussed the case from all aspects viz. morphosyntactic, syntactic and semantic. He has shed light on cases dealt by both traditional grammarians and modern semanticists like Fillmore, Anderson, etc. He has also mentioned the problems in describing case systems.

Bhattarai (2001) carried out a research on "Case in English and Nepali: A Comparative Study". His main objectives were to find out the similarities and differences between Nepali and English case system and to identify morphological and syntactic features of the case of both English and Nepali languages. His study was centered around Fillmorian case. He talked about positive and negative transfer in cases from Nepali to English Language. Fifty students of public school from Tanahun district were picked up as informants

for this study. His findings are: a) the same case marker can occur with various cases in both languages. b) if there is only one case in a sentence, it automatically becomes the subject in both languages and c) the verb appears at the beginning of the preposition section of the sentence in English but it appears at the end in Nepali.

Adhikari (2001) carried out a research on "Case Realization in English and Nepali: A Comparative Study". His study concentrated on the similarities and differences in case realizations between these languages. Some cases namely accusative, dative, instrumental, source and locative were compared. He took hundred native speakers of Nepali language from Kathmandu district. His major tool for this study was interview schedule. He consulted both educated and uneducated native speakers. The result shows that; a) English is a nominative -assuasive' kind of language whereas Nepali is an ergative-absolute type of language and b) the same case marker can occur with various cases in both languages.

Karna (2004) carried out a research on "A Comparative Study of Cases in Maithili and English". The main purpose of this research was to identify and analyze cases in Maithili, and to compare Maithili cases with English cases. For the study, the researcher took 60 students of grade ten from public schools of Siraha district. They were selected from two public schools. A set of questionnaires was administered to collect information. The researcher found out that unlike English case system, Maithili case system makes use of clitics as informational markers. Moreover, Maithili language follows postpositions and word order for case making. It is not similar to English as it pro-drop language while English is not.

Limbu (2007) carried out research work entitled "Case in English and Limbu: A Comparative Study". His main objectives were to identify and describe cases in Limbu and compare and contrast these cases with English cases. He selected eighty Limbu speakers from Jhapa district as his informants. It included both educated and uneducated native speakers. His major tool for this study was an

interview schedule. His main findings were: (a) Limbu is an 'ergative absolute' type of language where as English is a 'nominative accusative', (b) English nominals have more number of cases marking than Limbu and (c) Most cases are common in both the Limbu and English languages.

Yadav (2008) carried out a research on "Case in Bhojpuri and English: A Comparative Study." His main objective was to identify and determine the major morphological and syntactic features of cases in Bhojpuri. He took eighty native speakers of Bhojpuri language, forty students from two different schools of Parsa district and forty educate and uneducated people of the very language. His main tool was a test comprising five different questions viz. translation, fill in the blanks, short answer questions, controlled writing. His research shows that case markers in Bhojpuri language are postpositions whereas they are prepositions in English. It also states that in Fillmorian case, objective and possessive cases are marked differently but objective and genitive cases are characterized by the same marker in Bhojpuri.

Joshi (1989) conducted a research entitled "A Linguistic Study of Bajhangi Dialect." His main objective of carrying out his research was to describe and determine the grammatical patterns of the Bajhangi dialect. He took 100 native speakers of Bajhangi dialect as his informants. The major tools of his study were interview schedule and questionnaire. He determined the structures and concluded that the grammatical structures in this dialect are quite distinct and peculiar.

Bohara (2010) conducted a research on "Deixis System in English and the Bajhangi Dialect of Nepali". His main purpose was to find out Bajhangi Deixis and to compare with English deixis. He found out that Bajhangi Deixis is different than English. Similarly, Joshi (2010) conducted a research entitled "Pronominals in English and Bajhangi Dialect". His main objective was to find out pronominals in Bajhangi and compare them with English language. The researcher found out that Bajhangi has many pronominals than English and they are distinctive.

Till now no comparative study has been carried out to find out the similarities and differences between the cases in English and Bajhangi. So, the researcher is interested in finding out cases in Bajhangi dialect and comparing similarities and differences between cases in English and Bajhangi.

1.3 Objectives of the Study

This study had the following objectives:

- i. To identify cases in Bajhangi dialect.
- ii. To compare and contrast English and Bajhangi cases.
- iii. To suggest some pedagogical implications.

1.4 Significance of the Study

Although some researches have been carried out on the case system in Bhojpuri, Maithali and other languages, there is no research work carried out on "Case System in English and Bajhangi" in the Department of English Education. So, this work is expected to be significant to the students and teachers of Bajhangi language in the sense that they get insights into the areas of similarities and differences in terms of the case system which make the learning and teaching easier and comprehensible. The teacher can prepare materials for those aspects which are dissimilar and treat the students accordingly. Similarly, linguists, grammarians and researchers of Bajhangi dialects are also benefitted from this study. It provides platform for them to design syllabus, textbook and relevant materials. This study will be very beneficial for the Department of English Education, T.U. Kirtipur for further research. It is of paramount importance for the teachers who especially teach English in Bajhang district because he/she can be familiar with the area where especial treatment is an avoidable. This will also be significant for the language planners and policy makers with the concept of mother tongue education instruction. The teachers who teach English language as a second language to the Bajhangi children, writers and followers of the Bajhangi dialect will get a huge amount of benefit from this research.

CHAPTER TWO

METHODOLOGY

The following methodology was adopted to carry out this study.

2.1 Sources of Data

Both Primary and Secondary sources of data were used to attain the objectives of this study.

2.1.1 Primary Sources

The native speakers of the Bajhangi dialect of Nepali language from Chaudhari and Maulali VDCs of Bajhang district were the primary sources of data. They were above the age of 15 years. Except the age factor, there was no other boundary.

2.1.2 Secondary Sources

The secondary sources of data were primarily different articles, related grammar books, books, journals, magazines, theses and internet. Some of them are Fillmore (1968), Nunan (1992), Aarts (1997), Adhikari (1995), Bhattarai (2001), Chaudhary (2005), Yadav (2008), Bohara (2010), Joshi (2010).

2.2 Sample and Sampling Procedure

The sample of this research was from the Bajhang district. Eighty native speakers of Bajhangi dialect living in Chaudhari and Maulali VDCs were the major sample of this research. I used the judgemental/ purposive non-random sampling to sample the population. I selected eighty native speakers of the Bajhangi dialect from Chaudhari and Maulali VDCs. All the informants were above 15 years of age. I selected forty native speakers from each VDC. As far as possible, I tried to make inclusiveness as caste, literacy, social background and economic status.

2.3 Tools for Data Collection

I used my own prepared questionnaire and interview for the collection of data as well as to fulfil the additional needs for the research. English sentences were used as the reference for data collection. To facilitate understanding, corresponding Nepali sentences were also used.

2.4 Process of Data Collection

I adopted the following procedure for data collection.

- a. I went to the field and built rapport with the native speakers of Bajhangi dialect of Chaudhari and Maulali VDCs of Bajhang district.
- b. Then, I explained to them the purpose of my investigation and its significance.
- c. Then, I distributed the sheet of structured questionnaire to each informant and requested them to translate in their own mother tongue.
- d. Then, I took interview of those people who were unable to understand this questionnaire and made them easy to understand.
- e. For the data of English case, I used only secondary sources.

2.5 Limitations of the Study

This study had the following limitations:

- a. This study was limited to determine the cases in Bajhangi dialect.
- b. This study was limited to compare and contrast between English and Bajhangi cases.
- c. This study was limited to only eighty native speakers of the Bajhangi dialect of Nepali language of Chaudhari and Maulali VDCs of Bajhang district.
- d. The study was limited especially to agentive, instrumental, dative, comitative, vocative, time, possessive, objective and locative cases based on Fillmore (1968, 1971).
- e. The work was descriptive in nature.

CHAPTER THREE

ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETRATION

This chapter is the most important or core part of the thesis. It includes analysis and interpretation of the data. The data which were obtained from selected informants have been analyzed and interpreted descriptively with the help of tables and illustrations. The data have been analyzed to find out the differences between English and Bajhangic case system. This chapter consists of two parts:

-) Identification and analysis of cases in Bajhangic dialect.
-) Finding similarities and differences between English and Bajhangic cases

3.1 Identification and Analysis of Cases in Bajhangic Dialect

The cases which are identified in Bajhangic dialect are given as follows:

3.1.1 Nominative Case

A nominative case is a case which refers to an entity that performs an action. The agent must be an animate being which performs an action by the means of its own energy or volition. In the Bajhangic dialect, nominative case has been found which is realized by the case markers: *le*, *dwara*, *bata*, *batai*, *bakhi*, *baki* and sometimes marked by zero(\emptyset) case marker. For example:

- a. *Mui-le* roto khanya.
I-NOM bread ate.
I ate bread.
- b. *Hami-le* kanalo khanya.
We-NOM field dug.
We dug the field.
- c. *Tanu- \emptyset* hãnse.
They-NOM laughed.
They laughed.

- d. Munale *Madan-batai* patrara payo.
Muna Madan -*NOM* letter got.
Muna was given a letter *by Madan*.

3.1.2 Objective Case

The second semantic role is that of an object. An object is the entity that moves or changes and whose position or existence is in consideration. In other words, an object is a case referring to an entity which undergoes or is affected by the action or event. There is an objective case in Bajhangi dialect but no any objective case marker has been found. For example:

- a. Hamile *unkhi- \emptyset* dakya.
We them-*OBJ* invited.
We invited *them*.
- b. Tu *ghar- \emptyset* laga.
You house-*OBJ* make.
You make *house*.
- c. Suryale *dhar- \emptyset* ghin garyo.
Surya door-*OBJ* dusted.
Surya dusted *the door*.
- d. Kamalle *gundelo- \emptyset* ugaryo.
Kamal window-*OBJ* opened.
kamal opened *the window*.

3.1.3 Instrumental Case

The instrumental case is the case of something which is used inanimately as a means or device or tools of an agent and that is helpful to perform an action. In

other words, it is the case of inanimate force or object causally involved in the action or state identified by the verb. The instrumental case is found in Bajhangi dialect. It is marked by only the single case marker *-le'*. For example:

- a. Uile *thuna-le* shap maryo.
He stick-*INS* snake killed.
He killed a snake *with a stick*.

- b. *Barsh-le* tul khaytam banayo.
Rain-*INS* crops destroyed.
The rain destroyed the crops.

- c. Bhajile *caku-le* sheu chholi.
Sister knife-*INS* apple peeled.
Sister peeled the apple *with a knife*.

- d. Mattarle *lantha -le* skule kutyo.
Teacher stick -*INS* students beat
The teacher beats the students *with a stick*.

3.1.4 Locative Case

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 with 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. In Bajhangi dialect, locative case is marked by the case markers: *ma, mathi, mai, tarpha, bhitra, tira, utha, itna*, and sometimes it is realized by zero (\emptyset) case marker also. For example:

- a. U *dela-mathi* bashi rui.
She door -*LOC* sitting wept.
She wept *at the door*.

- b. Hamile *skul-mi* janch diyo.
We school-*LOC* exam took.
We took exam *in the school*.
- c. Swa *pijada-bhitari* chha.
Parrot cage-*LOC* be.
Parrot is *in the cage*.
- d. Taile *ghar-math- tarpha* ama layo.
He house-*LOC* mango planted.
He planted a mango *above the house*.

3.1.5 Possessive Case

A possessive case is also found in Bajhangi dialect. It is the case which refers to the entity having something. It is also called genitive case. The sense of possessive may be physical, mental or legal. Possessive case in Bajhangi dialect is often expressed by the suffixes *ko, ka, ki, ro, ra, no, na, ni, o,* and *lo*. For example:

- a. *Tan-no* bhaja skul gyo.
His brother-*POSS* school went.
His brother went to school.
- b. *Ramo-chelo* desha gyo.
Ram's son-*POSS* abroad went.
Ram's son went abroad.
- c. Tyo kipata *hamalo* ho.
This book our-*POSS* be.
This book is *ours*.

- d. *Uiko-kuka jabar chha.*
His-*POSS* uncle strong is.
His uncle is strong.

3.1.6 Dative Case

A dative case is in Bajhangi dialect. The dative case typically expresses an 'indirect object' relationship. It is given special status in case grammar, where it refers to the case or animate beings affected by the state or action indicated by the verb. It is equivalent to semantic recipient. In the Bajhangi dialect, dative case is marked by the case markers: *lai, lagi, ki, khi, lakha, lekhi and li*. For example:

- a. Tanne *mui-khi* phultin dyo.
They me-*DAT* pen gave.
They gave *me* a pen.
- b. Sitale uika *poi-ki* nika paula chhanyo.
Sita her husband-*DAT* good shoes chosed.
Sita chosed good shoes for *her husband*.
- c. Gitale *bhaja-kilai* baniyan buni.
Gita brother-*DAT* sweater knitted.
Gita knitted a sweater *for her brother*.
- d. Kamarale *gai-lai* ghās dhiyo.
Servent cow-*DAT* grass fed
The servent fed grass *to the cow*.

3.1.7 Comitative Case

Generally speaking, a comitative case indicates an equal participation or the notion of togetherness to carry out the state or action identified by the verb. In

other words, it is a case form taken by a noun when it expresses the meaning of 'along with' or 'accompanied by'. The comitative case is also found in Bajhangi dialect. It is marked by the case markers: *lai, sita, sanna sannai, sanga, satsatai*. For example:

- a. U rai uikhi *bhaji-lai* aune hun.
She and her sister-*COM* will come.
She and her sister will come.

- b. Ram *Sita-sanna* ghar gyo.
Ram Sita-*COM* house went.
Ram went house *with Sita*.

- c. Tan *ui-sita* nachhe.
He her-*COM* danced.
He danced *with her*.

- d. Rabit *Rabita-Sita* bajar jancha.
Rabit Rabit-*COM* go market.
Rabit goes to market *with Rabita*.

3.1.8 Vocative Case

A vocative is a case form taken by a noun when it is used in a form of address. Vocative case is found in Bajhangi dialect. In Bajhangi dialect, vocative case is marked by the case markers: *oo, hei, ei* and sometimes marked by zero(\emptyset) case marker too. For example:

- a. *Hei-bhagwanau*.
VOC- god.
Oh! My god.

- b. *Oo! Bubu.*
 VOC-grandfather.
Grandfather!
- c. *Satyau! Geet gauli.*
Friends!-VOC lets sing.
Friends! lets sing.
- d. *Ei! eeja.*
 VOC-mother.
Mother!

3.1.9 Temporal Case

It is the case of timely notion. In other words, it refers to the temporal orientation or background of the predicate. Temporal case is marked by the suffixes: *ma, mi, khi, me, mai, aga* and *pachha* in Bajhang dialect. For example:

- a. Kathmandu *10 bassa-pachha* ghin hunyaho.
 Kathmandu 10 years-*TIM* polluted will be.
 Kathmandu will be polluted *after 10 years*.
- b. Devkota *1966 sala-mi* janme.
 Devkota 1966-*TIM* born.
 Devkota was born *in 1966*.
- c. *1990 sala-khi* tholo bhaisalo gyo.
 1990 sala-*TIM* great earthquake was.
 There was great earthquake *in 1990*.
- d. Mera dudale *2060-mai* 10 kalas pass garyo.
 My brother 2060-*TIM* 10 class passed.
 My brother passed ten class *in 2060*.

3.2 Similarities and Differences Between English and Bajhangi Cases

In this part of analysis and interpretation, the similarities and differences between English and Bajhangi cases have been presented on the basis of identification and analysis of Bajhangi cases. To compare English and Bajhangi cases, the data of English cases have taken from the Filmmore's work (1968 and 1971) have been included. For the purpose of analysis and interpretation, only secondary sources have used in English.

3.2.1 Nominative Case

English and Bajhangi language have nominative cases. In Nepali language, nominative case is known as 'Abikarta'. Though all of them have nominative cases but they differ in case making systems. They are different in terms of making terms of the presence and absence of case making terms and kinds of case makers. English language doesn't have case marker for nominative but it is marked by the word order. However, nominative case in Bajhangi language is represented by the case markers: *le, द्वारा, bata, batai, bakhi, baki, batai, bakhi, baki* and sometimes it is denoted by zero case markers. All the nominative case markers used in Nepali language are used in Bajhangi and some other markers also. Nepali and Bajhangi case markers are found in post positions. In comparison to English and Bajhangi has more nominative case markers. This can be illustrated as follows:

- a. Bajhangi : *Mui-le* roto khanya.
Nepali : *Mai-le* roti khayoa.
English : *I* ate bread.

- b. Bajhangi : *Hami-le* kanalo khanya.
Nepali : *Hami-le* khet khanyau.
English : *We* dug field.

- c. Bajhangi : *Tanu- \emptyset hãnse.*
 Nepali : *Tiniharu- \emptyset hãnse.*
 English : *They laughed.*
- d. Bajhangi : *Munale Madan-batai patrara payo.*
 Nepali : *Munale Madan-bata patra payo.*
 English : *Muna was given a letter by Madan.*

3.2.2 Objective Case

In English and Bajhangi languages, objective case has been found. Objective case is known as 'Parwartya' in Nepali language. Bajhangi has no objective case marker. On the other hand, English has objective case markers which are prepositional. Sometimes, English objective case is marked by zero case marker too. For example:

- a. Bajhangi : *Hamile unkh i - \emptyset dake.*
 Nepali : *Hamile uniharulai- \emptyset bolayau.*
 English : *We invited- \emptyset them.*
- b. Bajhangi : *Tu ghar- \emptyset laga.*
 Nepali : *Timi ghar- \emptyset banau.*
 English : *You make- \emptyset home.*
- c. Bajhangi : *Tami skul- \emptyset jau.*
 Nepali : *Tapain vidhalaya- \emptyset januhos.*
 English : *You go to school.*
- d. Bajhangi : *Kamal le gundelo- \emptyset ugaryo.*
 Nepali : *Kamalle jhyal- \emptyset kholyo*
 English : *Kamal opened- \emptyset the window.*

3.2.3 Instrumental Case

Instrumental case is found in English and Bajhangi. In Nepali language, instrumental case is called 'Karan'. In English, instrumental case is marked by 'by' and 'with'. Similarly, in Bajhangi, instrumental case is marked by the suffix 'le'. This can be clarified by the following examples:

- a. Bajhangi : Uile *thuna-le* shap maryo.
Nepali : Unile *latthi-le* sharpa maryo.
English : He killed a snake *with a stick*.

- b. Bajhangi : *Barssa-le* tul khatam banayo.
Nepali : *Barsha-le* bali nash garyo.
English : *The rain* destroyed the crops.

- c. Bajhangi : Harile *bausha-le* garo khanyo.
Nepali : Harile *kodalo-le* Khet khanyo.
English : Hari dug the field *with a spade*.

- d. Bajhangi : Mattarle *latha-le* skule kutyo.
Nepali : Shikshakale *latthi-le* bidhyathi pityo.
English : The teacher beats the students *with a stick*.

In Bajhangi, instrumental case markers are in post-positions but in English language, instrumental case markers are prepositional. In English and Bajhangi have natural force regarded as an instrument. So, that natural force can be considered to be an instrumental case. Sometimes instrumental case functions as a subject in English and Bajhangi dialect, if there is no other argument in the sentence.

3.2.4 Locative Case

A locative case is found in both English and Bajhangi. In Nepali, locative case is known as 'Adhikaran', and is marked by the locative case markers: *ma, mathi, tira, bhitra, wari, pari, bahira, patti, tala, muni*. Similarly, in English Language, locative case markers are: *in, at, on, under, above, into, etc.* On the other hand, in Bajhangi, locative case markers are *ma, mathi, mai, tarpha, bhitari, muni, tira, utha, itna* and sometimes it is marked by zero case marker. For example,

- a. Bajhangi : U *dela-mathi* bashi rui.
Nepali : Uni *dela-ma* basher roina.
English : She wept *at the door*.

- b. Bajhangi : Shivle aphano kitav *desk-mai* rakhyo.
Nepali : Shivle aphano pustak *mech-mathi* rakhyo.
English : Shiv put his bag *on the desk*.

- c. Bajhangi : Taile *ghar-mathi-tarpha* apa layo.
Nepali : Unale *ghar-mathi* ama layo.
English : He planted mango *above the house*.

- d. Bajhangi : Swa *pijada-bhitari* chha.
Nepali : Suga *pijada-bhitra* chha.
English : Parrot is *in the cage*.

3.2.5 Possessive Case

Possessive case is found in English and Bajhangi. It is also called genitive case. In English language, possessive case markers are possessive pronouns. Similarly, in Nepali language possessive case is called 'Sambandha'. The possessive case markers in Nepali are: *ko, ka, ki, ro, ra, ri, no, na, ni*. In the

same way, in Bajhanggi dialect, possessive case markers are: *ko, ka, ki, ro, ra, ri, no, na, ni, o* and *lo*. This can be illustrated by the following examples:

- a. Bajhanggi : *Tan-no* bhaja skul gyo.
Nepali : *Unko* bhai vidyala gayo.
English : *His* brother went to school.

- b. Bajhanggi : *Ramo* chelo desh gyo.
Nepali : *Ram-ko* chhora bidesh gayo.
English : *Ram's* son went abroad.

- c. Bajhanggi : Yo kipata *hamalo* ho.
Nepali : Yo pustak *ham-ro* ho.
English : This is *our* book.

- d. Bajhanggi : Yo *hama-ro* mato ho.
Nepali : Yo *ham-ro* desh ho.
English : This country is *ours*.

3.2.6 Dative Case

Dative case is common to English and Bajhanggi but it is different in terms of case markers and word order. In Nepali, Dative case is called 'Anubhawak' and it occurs in post-positions. Similarly, English dative case markers are: *to* and *for* and they are prepositional. In Nepali, dative case is marked by the case markers *le* and *lai*. On the other hand, in Bajhanggi it is represented by the case markers: *lai, lagi, lekhi, ki, khi, and li*. They are found in post-positions. On the basis of the above comparison, it is identified that Bajhanggi dialect is the richest in terms of dative case markers. For example:

- a. Bajhanggi : Tanne *mui-khi* phultin dyo.
Nepali : Tiniharule *ma-lai* kalam diyo.
English : They gave *me* a pen.

- b. Bajhangi : Sitale *poi-ki* nika paula chhanyo.
 Nepali : Sitale aphna *shriman-lai* ramro jutta roji.
 English : Sita chooses good shoes *for her husband*.
- c. Bajhangi : Gitale *bhaja-kilai* baniyan buni.
 Nepali : Gita le *Bhai-lai* banela buni.
 English : Gita knitted a sweater *for her brother*.
- d. Bajhangi : Kamarale *gai-lai* ghas dyo.
 Nepali : Nokarle *gai-lai* ghas diyo.
 English : The servant fed grass *to the cow*.

3.2.7 Comitative Case

There is comitative case in English and Bajhangi. Comitative case is called 'Saharthak' in Nepali Language. In English, it is marked by the preposition 'with'. However, comitative case, in Nepali language, is marked by the suffixes: *sanga, sita, sathi and sahit*. In the same way, in Bajhangi dialect, comitative case markers are: *lai, sita, sanna, sannai, sanga, and satsatai*. Thus, Bajhangi has more comitative case markers than English and Nepali. It can be shown in the following examples:

- a. Bajhangi : U rai uikhi *bhaji-lai* aune hun.
 Nepali : U ra ushaki *bahini-lai* aune hun.
 English : She and *her sister* will come.
- b. Bajhangi : Rabit *Rabita-sita* kuda adha chha.
 Nepali : Rabit *Rabita-sita* kura gardai cha.
 English : Rabit is speaking *with Rabita*.
- c. Bajhangi : Ram *Sita-sanna* ghar gyo.
 Nepali : Ram *Sita-sangai* ghar gayo.
 English : Ram went home *with Sita*.

- d. Bajhangi : Bikash *kutta-sitai* gyo.
 Nepali : Bikash *kukur-sita* gayo.
 English : Bikash went *with dog*.

3.2.8 Vocative Case

Vocative case is found in English and Bajhangi. In English language, vocative case is marked by 'oh' and sometimes by zero case markers. In Nepali language, vocative case is represented or marked by the case markers: *hae*, *oo*, and *Yae*. On the other hand, in Bajhangi dialect, vocative case is marked by *hei*, *oo*, *ei* and sometimes by zero markers. This can be illustrated by the following examples:

- a. Bajhangi : *Hei!* Bhagwanau.
 Nepali : *Hae!* Bhagawan.
 English : *Oh!* My god.
- b. Bajhangi : *Satyau!* Geet gauli.
 Nepali : *Sathiharu!* Geet gaun.
 English : *Friends!* Lets sing.
- c. Bajhangi : *Oo!* Bubu.
 Nepali : *Hajurbuba!*
 English : *Grandfather!*
- d. Bajhangi : *Ei!* Eeja
 Nepali : *ama!*
 English : *Mother!*

From the above example, it is derived that Bajhangi dialect has always vocative case marker but English and Nepali may have vocative case marker and sometimes they may have zero case marker too.

3.2.9 Temporal Case

Temporal case is equally found in English and Bajhangli. It differs only in case making system. In English language, temporal case markers are time prepositions such as *at, on, in*. In Nepali, temporal case is realized by case marker *ma, aghi, pachi*, etc and sometimes by zero case markers. On the other hand, in Bajhangli temporal case markers are: *ma, mi, khi, me, mai, aga, pachha*. From the above comparison, it is clarified that Bajhangli is richer in terms of temporal case markers. For example:

- a. Bajhangli : Mu parbhat *chakalai-ø* uthochhu.
Nepali : Ma bihana *sabera-ø* uthchhu.
English : I get up early *in the morning*.

- b. Bajhangli : Kathmandu 10 *bassa-pachha* ghin hunya ho.
Nepali : Kathmandu 10 *barsha-pachi* phohor huneho.
English : Kathmandu will be polluted *after 10 years*.

- c. Bajhangli : Devkota 1966 *sala-mi* janme.
Nepali : Devkota 1966 *sala-ma* janmiya.
English : Devkota was born *in 1966*.

- d. Bajhangli : 1990 *sala-khi* thulo bhaisalo gyo.
Nepali : 1990 *sala-ma* thulo bhukampa gayo.
English : There was great earthquake *in 1990*.

On the basis of above analysis, interpretation and comparison, we can list the above mentioned cases and case markers of English and Bajhangli in the following table.

Table No. 1

Cases	Case Markers		
	English	Nepali	Bajhangi
Nominative	zero (\emptyset)	le, द्वारा, bata	le, द्वारा, bata, batai, bakhi, baki and zero (\emptyset)
Objective	to, fro and zero (\emptyset)	zero (\emptyset)	zero (\emptyset)
Instrumental	with and by	le, द्वारा, bata	le
Locative	in, on at, under, over, etc.	ma, mathi, wari, pari, bahira, patti, near, etc.	ma, mathi, mai, tarpaha, bhitri, tira, muni, utha itna and zero (\emptyset)
Possessive	my, mine, your, his, her, their, its, our.	ko, ka, ki, ro, ra, ri, no, na, ni	ko, ka, ki, ro, ra, ri, no, na, ni, o and lo.
Dative	to and for	le and lai	lai, lagi, li, lakha, ki and khi
Comitative	with	sanga, sita, sathai, sahit	lai, sita, sanna, sannai, sanga, satsatai
Vocative	oh, and zero	hae, yae, and oo	Oo, hei, ei
Temporal	at, on, in, etc	ma, tira, aghi, pachi, etc.	ma, mi, khi, me, mai aga, pachha, etc.

CHAPTER FOUR

FINDINGS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This chapter is divided into two parts: findings and recommendations. After analyzing and interpreting the data, some findings have been carried out. On the basis of findings, some recommendations or pedagogical implications have been mentioned.

4.1 Findings

On the basis of the analysis and interpretation of the data, the findings of the study can be summarized in the following points:

4.1.1 Cases Identified in the Bajhangi Dialect

- i. The cases which are found in the Bajhangi dialect are as follows:
 - a. Nominative case
 - b. Objective case
 - c. Instrumental case
 - d. Locative case
 - e. Possessive case
 - f. Dative case
 - g. Comitative case
 - h. Vocative case
 - i. Temporal case
- ii. The main case markers in the Bajhangi are the post-positions whereas English case markers are prepositional.
- iii. Suffixes are the main case markers in the Bajhangi dialect which are attached with noun phrases.
- iv. Two case markers occur together in locative case in Bajhangi: *Mathi-tarpha*.
- v. Natural force is also taken as an instrument in Bajhangi.

- vi. Some case markers in Bajhangi dialect such as *mi*, *khi*, *bata* and *lai* are over used to indicate different cases.
- vii. In Bajhangi dialect, objective case has zero case markers and instrumental case has only one case marker 'le' whereas other cases have more case markers in comparison to English.
- viii. Verb plays central role to determine cases in Bajhangi dialect.
- ix. The case markers which are found in the Bajhangi dialect are as follows:

Cases	Case markers
Nominative	le, द्वारा, bata, batai, bakhi, baki and zero (\emptyset)
Objective	zero (\emptyset)
Instrumental	le
Locative	ma, mathi, mai, tarpha, bhitari, tira, muni, utha, itna, and zero (\emptyset)
Possessive	ko, ka, ki, ro, ra, ri, no, na, ni, o and lo
Dative	lai, lagi, lakha, ki, khi, lakhi and lekhi
Comitative	lai, sita, sanna, sannai, sanga and satsatai
Vocative	oo, hei and ei
Temporal	ma, mi, khi, me, mai, aga, pachha, etc.

4.1.2 Comparison Between English and Bajhangi Cases

The comparison between English and Bajhangi cases is presented in the terms of both similarities and differences.

4.1.2.1 Similarities between English and Bajhangi Cases

- i. As the case is a universal phenomenon, it is inevitable in English and Bajhangi. The common cases in English and Bajhangi are: nominative, objective, instrumental, locative, possessive, dative, comitative, vocative and temporal.
- ii. Natural force is taken as an instrument in English and Bajhangi.
- iii. Verb plays central role in determining cases in English and Bajhangi.

- iv. If there is only one case in a sentence, it automatically becomes the subject in English and Bajhangi.
- v. Some cases can occur without main verb in a sentence in English and Bajhangi.
- vi. Some case markers can occur with two or more cases in English and Bajhangi.
- vii. In Bajhangi, nominal encodes three types of case making: zero marking, post-positions and 'Bibhakti' whereas in English nominal encodes three types of case making: zero markers, prepositions and word order.

4.1.2.2 Differences Between English and Bajhangi Cases

- i. Although the cases: nominative, objective, instrumental, locative, possessive, dative, comitative, vocative and temporal are common to English and Bajhangi, they are marked differently. In English, cases are marked by prepositions and word order whereas in Bajhangi, cases are realized by post-positions or 'Bibhakti'.
- ii. Objective case in Bajhangi is realized by only zero case marker but in English it is marked by some prepositions such as 'to' and 'for'.
- iii. English employs prepositions for case making whereas Bajhangi use suffixes for the same purpose.
- iv. Bajhangi has the strange and complex case making system due to the presence and absence of case makers rather than English.
- v. The verb in Bajhangi inflects according to gender but this does not happen in English.
- vi. An instrumental case in Bajhangi is realized by only one case marker 'le' but in English, it is marked by many case markers.
- vii. The Bajhangi dialect does not make male-female difference in pronominal whereas it is found in English.
- viii. In Bajhangi dialect, some case markers occur to mark different cases in comparison to English.

- ix. Constituents order is most significant in English but it is a bit flexible in Bajhangi.

4.2 Recommendations

On the basis of the findings obtained from the analysis and the interpretation of the collected data, the researcher has come to recommend the following pedagogical implications:

- i. This research is a comparative study between two languages viz. Bajhangi and English. As there are a number of differences between Bajhangi and English case systems, the teacher teaching Bajhangi speaking students learning English should pay special attention on different aspects of case.
- ii. English cases are marked by the prepositions and word order but Bajhangi case are marked by suffixes which are *bibhakti*. So, attention is required on the part of the teachers while dealing with the diametrically opposed stuffs.
- iii. Two case markers occur together in locative case in Bajhangi. So, the teacher teaching Bajhangi students should be conscious about this.
- iv. Instrumental case in English should necessarily be associated with inanimacy limited to animacy only. However, natural force is also taken as an instrumental in Bajhangi. So, this should be clear to the teacher who is teaching English to Bajhangi speakers.
- v. There is very restricted word order in English. If there is change in the word order to the constituents in a sentence, the meaning may be changed but in Bajhangi word order is flexible. So, the teacher teaching English as a foreign language or second language to the Bajhangi speakers should pay more attention while teaching constituent order. She/he should give the concept of restriction on word order in English and make the learners careful to prevent the mother tongue interference.
- vi. There is the concept of mother tongue as the medium of instruction at basic level. So, this research is helpful to the curriculum designer and

textbook writers and syllabus makers in Bajhang to design these in accordance with these findings.

- vii. English and Bajhang have two kind of number singular and plural and three kinds of cases subjective, objective and genitive. This similarity should be taken into consideration while teaching cases to Bajhang students.
- viii. In some cases, Bajhang has optional cases. Therefore, such optionally used terms should be presented with examples.
- ix. Bajhang is richer in terms of case markers of nominative case, locative case, Dative case, comitative case. Therefore, the teacher should teach the very to the Bajhang students.

At last, the researcher hopes this work will provide detailed information about Bajhang dialect in comparison to English. English and Bajhang case systems help the teacher to teach cases in these languages. This work is also helpful for course designers to design the course of these languages. Bajhang case making system is different from English and similar with Nepali but not the same. The case system itself is very complex area in grammar. So, many aspects should be taken into account while dealing case system in a language such as tense, aspect, animacy, agreement, word order, definiteness and so on. So, the researcher hopes that further researchers should be carried out on different grammatical, lexical, semantic, phonetic and pragmatic aspects of Bajhang dialect of Nepali language to provide full insights into different difficult areas to be dealt.

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Appendix I

Questionnaire

Dear respondents!

This questionnaire has been prepared to draw data /information for the research work entitled “Case system in English, Nepali and Bajhangi” which is carried out under the guidance of **Mr. Raj Narayan Ray Yadav**, Department of English Education, T.U. Kirtipur, Kathmandu. The researcher hopes that you all will give him authentic and reliable information that will be invaluable contribution to accomplish this research work.

Researcher

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Name: -

Sex:-

Address: -

Age:-

Academic Qualification:-

Occupation:-

→ How do you say the following sentences in the Bajhangi dialect(in your own language ?

1. I ate bread. मैले रोटी खाएँ ।

.....

2. Muna was given a letter by Madan. मदनद्वारा मुनालाई पत्र दिइयो ।

.....

3. The servant fed the cow grass. नोकरले गाईलाई घाँस दिइयो ।

.....

4. He killed a snake with a stick. उनले लट्ठीले सर्प मार्यो ।

.....

5. Hari dug the field with spade. हरिले कोदालोले खेत खन्यो ।

.....

6. Sister peeled the apple with a knife. बहिनीले चक्कुले स्याउलाई छोल्यो ।
.....
7. She wept on the door. उनी ढोकामा बसेर रोइन् ।
.....
8. Shiva put his bag on the desk. शिवले आफ्नो भोला मेचमा राख्यो ।
.....
9. Parrot is in the cage. सुगा पेजारोमा छ ।
.....
10. We invited them. उनीहरूलाई हामीले बोलायौं ।
.....
11. You make home. तिमी घर बनाउ ।
.....
12. You go to school. तिमी विद्यालय जाउ ।
.....
13. Ram went home with Sita. राम सितसँग घर गयो ।
.....
14. She and her sister will come. उनी र उनकी बहिनी आउने छन् ।
.....
15. Bikash went with dog. विकास कुकुरसँगै गयो ।
.....
16. I get up early in the morning. म बिहान सबै उठ्छु ।
.....
17. Devkota was born in 1966. देवकोटा १९६६ मा जन्मिए ।
.....
18. There was great earthquake in 1990. १९९० सालमा ठूलो भूकम्प गयो ।
.....
19. Ram's son went to school. रामको छोरा विदेश गयो ।
.....
20. Ram opened the door. रामले ढोका खोल्यो ।
.....
21. The door was opened by Ram. रामद्वारा ढोका खोलियो ।
.....
22. I cut my finger with a knife. मैले चुक्कुलले मेरो औंला काटे ।
.....

23. Sita wrote a letter with a ball pen. सीताले बलपेनले चिठी लेखी ।
.....
24. Bikash puts his glass on the chair. बिकासले उसको चस्मा मेचमा राख्छ ।
.....
25. He slept in the bed. उ ओछ्यानमा सुत्यो ।
.....
26. We danced at the yard. हामी आँगनमा नाच्यौ ।
.....
27. They played at the school. उनीहरूले स्कूलमा खेलें ।
.....
28. Kathmandu is beautiful city. काठमाडौं रमणीय शहर हो ।
.....
29. Kamal opened the window. कमलले भ्याल खोल्थो ।
.....
30. The door opened. ढोका खुल्यो ।
.....
31. We ate an apple. हामीले स्याऊ खायौ ।
.....
32. Surya dusted the door. सूर्यले ढोका फोहर गऱ्यो ।
.....
33. The snow melted. हिऊ पग्लियो ।
.....
34. She called me a taxi. उनले मेरो लागि ट्याक्सी बोलाइन ।
.....
35. She looked her husband a good meal. तिनले तिनको श्रीमनको लागि राम्रो खाना खोजिन् ।
.....
36. Laxman selected Harish's shoes. लक्ष्मणले हरिसलाई जुत्ता रोज्यो ।
.....
37. Gita knitted her brother a sweater. गीताले भाईलाई स्वीटर बुनिन् ।
.....
38. Dog barked at him. कुकुर उसलाई देखेर भुक्थो ।
.....
39. Government distributed the land to landless. सरकारले सुकुम्बासीलाई जग्गा वितरण गऱ्या ।
.....

40. They laughed. तिनीहरु हाँसे ।
.....
41. She gives the baby a cup of milk. उनले बालकलाई एक कप दुध दिई ।
.....
42. Janak was frightened from lightening. जनक चट्याङ देखि डरायो ।
.....
43. They gave me a book. उनीहरुले मलाई एउटा किताब दिए ।
.....
44. He gave a book to me. उसले एउटा किताब मलाई दियो ।
.....
45. She bought a pen for her sister. तिनीले तिनकी बहिनीको लागि एउटा कलम किनी ।
.....
46. Shivaraj built the house. शिवराजले घर बनायो ।
.....
47. Prem paints the pictures. प्रेमले तस्वीर रँगौंछ ।
.....
48. She destroys the forest. उनीले जंगल मास्छे ।
.....
49. Laxman boiled the potato. लक्ष्मणले आलु उसिन्यो ।
.....
50. They made him the leader. तिनीहरुले उसलाई अगुवा बनाए ।
.....
51. He dug the hole with a spade. उसले प्वाललाई कोदालीले खन्यो ।
.....
52. The key opened the door. साँचोले ढोका खोल्न्यो ।
.....
53. The rain destroyed the crops. वर्षाले बाली सखाप पार्न्यो ।
.....
54. Mrs. Joshi arrived at the market to buy books. श्रीमती जोशी किताबहरु किन्न बजारमा पुगिन् ।
.....
55. Keshav went to school. केशव विद्यालय गयो ।
.....
56. You went towards the jungle. तिमि जंगलतिर गयौ ।
.....

57. We take a flight to London. हामी लण्डनसम्मको उडान लिन्छौ ।
.....
58. Who killed the cat? कसले विरालो माच्यो ।
.....
59. What broke the egg? केले अण्डा फुटायो ।
.....
60. This pen is yours. यो कलम तिम्रो हो ।
.....
61. This pen is mine. यो कलम मेरो हो ।
.....
62. Hari came from Ramesh's house. हरी रामेशको घरदेखि आयो ।
.....
63. Grandfather! हजुरबुवा !
.....
64. Friends? Open the door. साथीहरू ! ढोका खोल्नुस् ।
.....
65. Friends! Lets sing. साथीहरू हो ! गीत गाऔं ।
.....
66. Mother ! आमा !
.....
67. Oh! my god. हे ! भगवान ।
.....
68. Doctor came for her. डक्टर उनका लागि आयो ।
.....
69. He is coming with his wife. उ श्रीमतीसँगै आउँदै छ ।
.....
70. He and his wife are coming. उ र उसकी श्रीमती आउँदैछन् ।
.....
71. They chased us with a dog. तिनीहरूले कुकुरसँगै हामीलाई लखेटे ।
.....
72. Rabit is speaking with Rabita. रवित रवितासँग कुरा गर्दैछन् ।
.....
73. Prakash sang with Laxmi. प्रकाशले लक्ष्मीसँग गायो ।

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74. She made a new house last year. उनले नयाँ घर गत वर्ष बनाइन ।
.....
75. Our school starts at 9 o'clock. हाम्रो स्कूल नौ बजे शुरु हुन्छ ।
.....
76. Kathmandu will be polluted after ten years. काठमाडौं दश वर्ष पछि प्रदुषित हुनेछ।
.....
77. World Health Organization was established on 7th April, 1947. विश्व स्वास्थ्य संगठन ७ अप्रिल,
१९४७ मा स्थापना गरियो ।
.....
78. Prakash gets up early in the morning. प्रकाश बिहान सबेरै उठ्छ ।
.....
79. They came from Kirtipur. तिनीहरू कीर्तिपुर देखि आए ।
.....
80. Where do you come from? तिमीहरू कहाँ देखि आउँछौ ?
.....
81. Lalit walked from the base camp to his school. ललित बेस क्याम्प देखि स्कूलसम्म हिँड्यो ।
.....
82. Janaki has been working hard labour from his childhood. जानकी बाल्यकाल देखि नै कडा परीश्रम
गर्दै आइरहेकी छिन् ।
.....

Thanks for Your Co-operation!