

**CASE IN ENGLISH AND MAGAR:
A COMPARATIVE STUDY**

**A Thesis Submitted to the Department of English Language Education
University Campus, Kirtipur
In Partial Fulfilment for the Master's Degree in Education
(Specialization in English Language Education)**

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2007**

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To

my parents and

all well wishers

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would like to offer my sincere and heartfelt gratitude to **Mrs. Hima Rawal**, lecturer, Department of English Education, T.U. Kirtipur, who as my research guide equipped me with all sorts of basic concepts and techniques to carry out this research work. Actually, I have no words to extend my sincere gratitude for her patience, kindness, proper guidance, supervision and valuable suggestions that gave inspiration to develop my thesis.

I am deeply indebted to **Dr. Chandraeshwar Mishra**, Reader and Head, Department of English Education, T.U. Kirtipur, for his remarkable administrative co-operation and valuable suggestions to carry out this research.

I am very grateful to **Dr. Jai Raj Awasthi**, Professor and Chairperson, English and Other Languages Education Subject Committee, T.U., Kirtipur for his direct or indirect kind co-operation, suggestions and for his OHP assisted motivate class teaching.

I am deeply indebted to my respected Gurus **Dr. Shanti Basnyat, Dr. Tirth Raj Khaniya, Dr. Anjana Bhattarai, Dr. Bal Mukunda Bhandari, Mr. Prem Bahadur Phyak, Mrs. Madhu Neupane** and Other members of the Department.

My special words of gratitude goes to **Ms. Madhavi Khanal** for her kind co-operation to prepare this thesis. **Mr. Ramesh K.C.** and **Mrs. Naina G.C.**, Nature Computer Centre, Kirtipur deserve sincere thanks for their excellent computer work.

I am immensely thankful to those language informants for their kind help and co-operation in the collection of data and to all my friends and especially to **Mr. Birendra Kumar Limbu, Sakendra Limbu, Amar Thapa, Chandra Bahadur Shahi, Lok Rana, Suresh Khatri** and **Gopal Sijapati** for their help during my study.

Raj Kumar Thapa

ABSTRACT

The thesis entitled 'CASE IN ENGLISH AND MAGAR: A COMPARATIVE STUDY' is an attempt to identify cases in the Magar language and to compare and contrast them with those of English. The researcher has found out that the Magar is a tripartite type of language whereas English is a nominative accusative type of language. In tripartite system, all the arguments S, A and P are treated differently. As a result, they are marked with case markers. The cases identified in the Magar are genitive, instrumental, dative, comitative, ablative/source, goal and locative. Suffixes are found to be used as case markers in the Magar language. Word order does not play a vital role in meaning change in the Magar language.

The researcher collected data from forty-eight native speakers of Barah Magarati language also known as Dhut Magar language. Two VDCs namely Radhapur and Rajhena of Banke district were the research fields for the researcher to elicit data from the informants. He used both the primary and secondary sources to carry out this research work.

The thesis consists of four chapters. The first chapter deals with introduction. It consists of general background, importance of the English language, the sociolinguistic situation in Nepal, an introduction to the Magar language, an introduction to case, CA and its importance on language teaching, review of related literature, objectives of the study and significance of the study.

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

Chapter three deals with analysis and interpretation of the data. It comprises identification and analysis of cases in the Magar language and similarities and differences between the Magar and English cases.

Chapter four encompasses findings and recommendations and pedagogical implications.

ABBREVIATIONS AND SYMBOLS

∅	-	zero morph
A	-	Agent
L1	-	First language
L2	-	Second language
ABL	-	Ablative
ABS	-	Absolutive
ACC	-	Accusative
B.S.	-	Bikram Sambat
CA	-	Contrastive Analysis
CBS	-	Central Bureau of Statistics
COM	-	Comitative
DAT	-	Dative
DEF	-	Definite
Dr.	-	Doctor
e.g.	-	For example
ERG	-	Ergative
et al.	-	And other people (Latin et alii/alia)
GEN	-	Genitive
GOA	-	Goal
i.e	-	That is to say (Latin id est)
INDEF	-	Indefinite
INS	-	Instrumental
LOC	-	Locative
NELTA	-	Nepal English Language Teacher's 'Association'
NHDR	-	Nepal Human Development Report
NOM	-	Nominative
NPs	-	Noun Phrases
Obj	-	Objective
OP	-	Operator
P	-	Patient
PL	-	Plural
S	-	Single argument
Sg	-	Singular
UNO	-	United Nations Organization
VDC	-	Village Development Committee
Viz	-	That is to stay
1	-	1 st person
2	-	2 nd person
3	-	3 rd person

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CHAPTER-ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 General Background

Language, being a voluntary vocal system of human communication is one of the most important means of communication. Here, the term 'communication' refers to the change of message, information, ideas, etc. It should also be noticed that language is a means of communication only for human beings but it is not the only means, i.e. the human beings can communicate through other modes of communication also. This implies that there are other modes of communication which can be used by human beings or other animals but language is for human beings only.

There are other modes of communication too, i.e. olfactory, gustatory, tactile, etc but these are not as developed as language. These are commonly used by animals in a large scale.

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. It is as inevitable for human beings as the human basic requirements: food, shelter and clothes. It is species-specific and species –uniform possession of man. It is the greatest achievement of human civilization. Chomsky (1957: 13) defines language as "a set (finite or infinite) of sentences, each finite in length and constructed out of a finite set of elements. In Sapir's (1921:8) words, "language is a purely human and non-distinctive method of communicating ideas, emotions and desires by means of voluntarily produced symbols." Similarly, Hall (1968:158) defines languages as "the institution where by human

communicates and interacts with each other by means of habitually used oral-auditory arbitrary symbols".

There are hundreds of languages existing in the world. Some of them have both spoken and written forms and others exist only in spoken form. Language is a social need that comes into existence after a long process of development in accordance with the necessity of human beings. Languages change in course of time. If they are out of the daily use, they disappear from the society and turn into dead languages such as Latin, Sanskrit, etc.

Every normal person uses language in his/her daily life. Human life can not be imagined in the absence of language. Different people interact, share happiness and sorrow, co-operate with each other within or beyond the same society. Language is a vehicle in transferring social cultures, values, thoughts, arts, conventions preserved and inherited from generation to generation. A language exists until there are people who speak it as a native language.

1.1.1 Importance of the English Language

English is the dominant language in the world today. It is spoken all over the world as a lingua-franca. It is one of the widely used West-Germanic sub-branches of the Germanic branch of the Indo-European family.

It has a great importance as a lingua-franca due to the reason of being one of the languages of the UNO which plays a vital role for the developing countries like Nepal. Countries that adopt the English language as the national language are far more ahead in trade, business and modern scientific technologies. Most of the books in the world are written in English. Therefore, the English language has become an indispensable source of knowledge for all.

The English language has made the people know other's cultures, religions, languages, arts, civilizations, conventions, inventions, discoveries, etc. in a short period of time. English is the first language of the United Kingdom. At present, it is taught as a foreign language in over 100 countries and it is emerging in most of the countries as a chief foreign language to be taught in schools.

English has an immense influence on the education system of Nepal. English is taught and learnt as a compulsory subject from class one to graduate level and as an optional subject from secondary level to graduate level. This proves its need, significance and popularity.

1.1.2 The Sociolinguistic Situation 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, 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

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

II. The Tibeto- Burman Family

It includes the following languages:

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	Bhujal/Khawas
Buangshi	Raute	Rai Languages (more than 33 languages)
Thakali	Ghale	
Chhantyual	Kaike	

III. The Austro- Asiatic/ Munda Family

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

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

According to the Report of National Languages Policy Recommendation Commission (2050), there are 70 languages in Nepal, out of which, 63 languages are languages of indigenous nationalities of Nepal. The 70

languages have been classified into four types:

a. Languages with written script

Nepali	Maithali	Awadi
Limbu	Bhojpuri	Hindi
Newari	Urdu	Bhote/Tibeta

b. Languages Having Written Script in Emerging Condition

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

c. Languages without Written Script

Eastern Mewahang	Norher Lohorung	Raji
Western Mewahang	Southern Lohorung	Thami
Yakka	Jhagad	Bhote
Chhyantal	Kumal	Kham
Majhi	Byanshi	Danuwar
Chepang	Nachhiring	Marwadi
Yamphu	Darai	Dhimal
Lumba Yakka	Jirel	Kagate
Satar	Hyalmo	Athpahariya
Sampang	Kaike	

d. Moribund Languages

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. Morbibund 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 2058:1). 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. But, they at present adhere different religions, such as Buddhist, 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, people of Nepal who meet with the following characteristics are termed as indigenous people.

- a) Those who have their own ethnic languages other than Nepali,
- b) Those who 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 who 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 who 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:

1. Endangered Groups:

Bankaria	Surel	Kushbadiya
Raji	Hayu	Kisan
Kusunda	Lepcha	
Meche	Raute	

II. Highly Marginalized Groups :

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

III. Marginalized Groups:

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

IV. Disadvantaged Grups:

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

V. Advanced Group:

Newar	Thakali
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Indigenous people constitute 37.2% of Nepal's total population. The population census 2001 shows that the largest indigenous groups of Nepal are Magar (7.1%), Tharu (6.7%), Tamang (5.6%), Newar (5.5%), Rai (2.8%), Gurung (2.4%) and Limbu (1.6%). Among indigenous people the literary rate of Thakali, Byansi, Hyolmo, Newar, Gurung, Limbu Yakkha, Darai, Chhantyal, Jirel, Dura, Rai and Magar rose in 2001 above the national average (53.7%), but other indigenous nationalities have their literacy rates below the national average of the 352,000 Nepalese graduates and postgraduates, only 8.7% (30.5 thousand) are indigenous people-excluding Newars and of the 831,500 persons who have done SLC or their equivalent, 18.2% are Janajatis excluding Newars. Similarly, only 2.72% mountain's and hills' indigenous people are legislators, senior officials, managers, professionals, 1.51% are

technicians and associate professionals, and 1.94% are clerks or office assistants. As regards the Terai Indigenous People, 1.30% are legislators, senior officials, managers and professionals, 0.78% are technicians and associate professionals and 1.84% are clerks or office assistants.

The occupation of majority of indigenous people is farming. However, there are some indigenous groups such as Newars, Thakalis, Marphali Thakalis, Sherpas and Gurungs who work in business and industry. Almost one of the indigenous population is engaged in non-farm activities. Though majority of indigenous people engage in agriculture, they have no access to resources related to land ownership. Only 2.8% of the Tharu, 0.32% of the Tamang, 0.76% of the Rai and 0.63% of the Magar communities, respectively, have self-operated land of more than 10 acres regarding the religions, these people are, in addition to Hindus, largely Buddhists, Mundhumists (the kiratis), Bonists and Animists or Shamanists.

(Source: NHDR, 2004)

1.1.4 An Introduction to the Magar Language

Nepal is a rich country in terms of linguistic diversity. More than 92 languages are identified according to CBS report, 2001. The Magar is the third largest ethnic group in Nepal. It is also the largest group among the indigenous nationalities. The language, used by the Magar is called 'Magarat' language which falls under the Tibeto-Burman language family.

The total population of the Magars has been registered in the number of 1,622,421 i.e. 7.14% of the total population and the Magar language is being used as the mother tongue in the number of 770,116 i.e. 3.39% of the total population (CBS, 2001). Other remaining Magars speak Khas and Nepali. But Lafa Magars claim that the actual population of Magars is between 3,000,000 to 3,500,000 (Adiwashi Janajati Diwas: 2001).

There are several controversial issues on Magar's origin and history due to the lack of sufficient and substantial evidences and accurate and chronological documents. It is believed that the Magars were first in Mid-hill of central Nepal and had slowly migrated to other parts in the country over a long period of time. Lower hilly region of Palpa is considered to be the Magars' residence from the very beginning and scattered into central and western parts of Nepal.

The Population Censes Report, 2001 shows that The Magar language speakers are increasing day by day. The Magar language speakers are originally found in the districts like Palpa, Tanahun, Nawalparashi, Baglung, Shyanja, Gulmi, Myagdi, Arghakhanchi, Parbat, Udayapur, Salyan, Rukkum, Rolpa, Pyuthan, Dang, Surkhet, Dailekh, Dolpa, Banke, Bardia, etc. The Magar language speakers have also settled down in some parts of India such as Darjeeling, Dehardun, Sikkim, Gorkhpur, etc. Bhutan and Barma are two other countries where a number of Nepali people including the Magar language speakers are found.

Now, the Magar language community has felt that they are backward in their literature, after all, they have their own distinct language, culture and religion. Therefore, they are proceeding ahead for developing their literature. As a result, different dictionaries, journals, magazines and other reading materials are published in the Magar language nowadays. Some documentary films in the Magar language also have contributed to the development of the Magars and the Magar language.

Some experts say that two Magars named 'Sing' and 'Chitu' have first come to the southern part of Nepal from the Sim of China. Others argue that their origin was the eastern Nepal as there is more similarities between the Magar language and the language of Lepcha, residences of

Sikkim, it is also imagined that Magars had come to Nepal from 'Kham' region of China as 'Kham Magar' dialect comes under a Tibetan language of 'Athar Magarati'. Similarly, some of them claim that Magars had migrated from 'Rajputana' of India. Somebody claims that Magars were residing on lower hilly region of Palpa from the very beginning and had slowly scattered into central and western parts of Nepal.

To some historians, they were termed 'Magar' as they had lived in mid hill of Nepal. Similarly, people in this part used to say 'Khanal' to the worker whose job was doing work in mine and 'magara' whose job was throwing mud out of mine. It is assumed that they were named 'Magars after 'Magara' by the new generation.

Like other castes, the Magars have also different subcastes namely Thapa, Rana, Ale and Pun. Other subcastes of the Magar are Marsangi, Sinjali, Sijapati, Khapangi, Baral, Rokka, Darlami, Hiski, Pulami, Saru, etc.

I. The Magar Language and its Dialects

The Magars have their own language called 'Magarati' language. Baral (1993) has grouped the Magar language basically into two groups, namely Barah and Athar Magarati languages. The Athar Magarati is divided into two dialects, namely, Kham and Kaike dialects. Kham dialect is spoken by the Magars in western part of Rukum, Pyuthan, Baglung, Dailekh, Surkhet, etc. Kaike dialect is spoken by especially Rokka Magars of Dolpa. Besides, the dialects of the Magar language spoken in the specified regions, the Magar language spoken all over Nepal comes under 'Barah Magarati' language.

II. Script of the Magar Language

The Magar language has its own script named 'Akkha' script. This script was discovered by M. S. Thapa Magar. However, it is claimed that this script was freely being used by 'Lichchhavis' in Nepal. Only a few scholars and language experts have claimed over it and say that it was the Magar's ancient script. The sixth central conference of Magar association held from 15-18 Falgun, 2054 in Nawalparasi district had authoritatively accepted 'Akkha' script as the Magar script.

1.1.5 An Introduction to Case

The term 'Case' in general refers to the relationship of nouns, pronouns or noun phrases with that of verbs in a sentence. Case, being one of the language universals, can be found in every language of the world. But case markers are language specific.

Almost all the grammatical terms have their origin in Greek and Latin grammars. So is the case of the term 'case'. The Stoics-a school of Greek philosophy gave a particular sense to this term.

Anderson (1977) says that 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 or semantic distinctions carried by the forms of that category. These can be distinguished as 'case forms' and 'case relations' or 'case functions' respectively. But case relations are not found well defined in the traditional grammars.

Traditional grammarians identified case at morphosyntactic level whether a noun has been used in the nominative or accusative or genitive case or in only other whereas case is ascertained on the basis of morphosyntactic marker at the end of that noun. The morphosyntactic forms differ from language to language. Different morphosyntactic forms that mark cases are inflections, prepositions, postpositions, word order,

intonation affixation, suppletion, etc. Traditional grammarians proposed the following seven cases:

- i. Nominative: It marks the subject
- ii. Accusative: The object of transitive verb
- iii. Genitive: It expresses possession semantically
- iv. Dative: Indirect object
- v. Locative: Adverb of place
- vi. Ablative: Source
- vii. Vocative: Expresses address semantically.

During 1960s, although Chomsky (1965) brought a revolution in the area of grammar, he has limited his analysis up to only syntactic level in terms of surface and deep structure. So, Fillmore, an American linguist, made an endeavor to rectify deficiencies of Chomsky on model of grammar and later on he developed 'case grammar', the grammar based on semantic relation of NPs with verbs in sentences. Fillmore (1968:24) defines 'case' as "... notions comprise a set of universals, presumably innate concepts which identify certain types of judgements human beings are capable of making about the events that are going around them, judgement about such matters as who did it, who it happened to and what got changed." For Fillmore, the notion 'case' is a universal type of 'underlying syntactic- semantic relationship' which may or may not manifest itself in the form of morphosyntactic markers on the surface.

Fillmore (1968) in his seminal paper entitled "The case for case" has proposed the following six cases; Agentive, Dative, Instrumental, objective, locative and Factitive. In 1971, Fillmore again came up with eight cases: Agent, Source, Experiencer, Goal, Instrument, Location, Patient/ Objective, Time.

Although case concept is universal, the case markers are language specific. So, the researcher intended to find out the similarities and differences of case system in English and the Magar Language.

I. Basic Concepts of Case Grammar

The concept of case is nothing new in Grammar. Traditional grammarians have been discussing it for centuries, particularly in the case of syntactic languages like Latin, Greek and Sanskrit. Cases are morph-syntactically 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 morph-syntactic variations and listing the exceptions to those rules in books of traditional grammar.

In case grammar, the verb is considered as the most important constituent of a sentence which shares a number of semantic relationships with various constituent noun phrases. These relationships are called cases. Thus, by case, Fillmore does not mean the inflectional variations in noun, which is the traditional sense of the term. For Fillmore, case is a set of concepts which identify types of judgments which human beings are capable of making about the events going on around them. They would judge on who did something, whom it happened to, what got changed, where it happened, etc. There are three basic concepts of case grammar. They are as follows:

- 1) Syntactic Function
- 2) Morph-syntactic Form
- 3) Semantic Role

a. Syntactic Function

The concept of syntactic Function is the traditional notion related to Case Grammar. It is the sentence level function. It, in the case of

Grammar is the function of NP according to its position in the structure of a sentence. Subjective (that comes in the beginning of a sentence.), objective (undergoers of the action that comes in the middle or at the end of a sentence) and complement (that is needed to complete a sentence) are the examples of syntactic functions. In the sentences:

- 1) Peter remembered me
- 2) I was invited by Peter.
- 3) The plane crashed.

'Peter' 'I' and 'plane' have the function subject; 'me' has the object function. 'Peter' in the second sentence has adverbial function.

b. Morpho-syntactic Form

Morpho-syntactic Form is a word level concept. The morpho-syntactic forms in Case Grammar refer to prepositions or inflections, post positions and case endings that show particular relationship of related noun or noun phrase with the verb. By morpho-syntactic form, Fillmore refers to the different cases which stand in a certain relationship within a structure. Morpho-syntactic forms differ from language to language. Different Morpho-syntactic forms that mark cases are inflections, prepositions post-positions, word order, intonation, affixation, suppletion, (irregular changes as in write, wrote, written) etc. A language may have one or more than one such morpho-syntactic forms which show the case relation. In language 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 Morpho-syntactic forms – word order and preposition reveal the case relation in English the following prepositions are taken from the examples given by

Fillmore (1968), Quirk, R. et al. (1985) and Blake (1994) for corresponding Cases.

Morpho-syntactic Forms	Case
by	agent
with, by	instrument
from	source/ablative
to, into, until, towards	goal
in, at ,on	locative
to	dative
to, for	benefactive

c. Semantic Role

Semantic role is the meaning level concept. The semantic role in case Grammar is a dominant and recently developed concept. Fillmore has described his case grammar from the point of view of semantic role what he calls ‘case or case relationship’. He has explained the whole case grammar as having a semantic role. “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, 1968:21).

Fillmore has 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 **subjective** role; ‘the window’ in all sentences has **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 identified by the verb.

II. Case Marking System

In order to adequately define grammatical relations, it is convenient to identify three semantico-syntactic roles, termed S, A and P. These terms presuppose two prototypical clause types:

a. Single argument

“Bob left.”

S V

b. Multi-argument

“Bob greeted Aileron.”

A V P

[Source: Payne, 1997: 133]

The S is defined as the only nominal argument of a single argument clause. Sometimes this type of clause is referred to as an **intransitive clause**. The A is defined as the most AGENT like argument of a multi-argument clause. Sometimes this type of clause is referred to as a **transitive** clause. If there is no argument that is a very good AGENT, the A is the argument that is treated morpho syntactically in the same manner as prototypical AGENTS are treated. Usually there will be one argument in every verbal clause that exhibits this property, though there may be. P is the “most patient-like” argument of a multi-argument clause. Again, if non of the arguments is very much like a PATIENT, then the argument that is treated like a prototypical PATIENT is considered to be the P.

The grammatical relation of **Subject** can be defined as S together with A while **direct object** or simply “object”, can be defined as P alone.

Some languages pay much attention to this grouping than do others. Payne (1997:134) has presented the various systems for grouping S,A, and P and the morpho- syntactic means languages employ to express these groupings.

According to him, languages may treat S and A the same, and P differently. The following English examples illustrate this fact with pronominal case forms –one form, **he**, is used for third person singular masculine pronouns in both the S and A roles. A different form **him**, is used for third person masculine singular pronouns in the P role.

- a. He left.
- b. He hit him.

Similarly, he has given another example of the Quechuan languages, quoted from (Weber, 1989), that manifest this system in morphological case marking on free noun phrases. In the following examples, the same case marker, 0 (zero), occurs on noun phrases in both the S and A roles. Another case marker –**ta**, occurs on noun phrases in the P role.

Hu nuco Quechua.

- a. Juan- ϕ aywan. “Juan goes.”

Juan – NOM goes.

S

- b. Juan- ϕ pedro-ta maqan. “Juan hits Pedro.”

Juan-NOM Pedro –ACC hits

A

P

[Source: Payne, 1997: 134]

This system is often referred to as **nominative accusative** system. In other words, the nominative-accusative system groups S and A (nominative) together against P (accusative). If any morphological case

marks both S and A roles, it is called the **nominative** case, while the case that marks only the P role is the **accusative** case.

The following examples from Yup'ik Eskimo (Alaska) illustrate another system for grouping S, A and P.

- a. Doris –aq ayallruaq. "Doris traveled."

Doris –**ABS** traveled

S

- b. Tom –am Doris-aq cingallrua. "Tom greeted Doris."

- c. Tom-**ERG** Doris –ABS greeted

A

P

[Source: Payne, 1997: 35]

In these examples the case marker –**aq** occurs on the S argument of an intransitive clause (a) and the **P** argument of a transitive clause (b). The case markers-**am** marks only the **A** of a transitive clause. If any morphological case marks **A** alone it can be called the **Ergative case**. Similarly, any morphological case that marks both **S** and **P** can be termed the **Absolutive Case**.

Ergative/Absolutive

This system is known as an **ergative/absolutive** system. In other words, the ergative/absolutive system groups S and P (absolutive) together against A (ergative).

In addition to morphological case marking on pronouns or free noun phrases, languages also manifest an ergative absolutive **GR** system in person marking on verbs.

The following examples from Yup'ik (Alaska) illustrate such a system.

a. Ayallruu-nga. "I traveled."

traveled **-1SG**

S

b. Ayallruu-q. "He traveled."

traveled **-3SG**

S

c. cingallru –a-nga. "He greeted me."

Greeted **-3SG -1SG**

A P

[Source: Pyane, 1997:136]

In example (a) the suffix-**nga** indicates a first person singular S argument of an intransitive verb. In (b) the suffix-**q** marks the third person S. In (c) the suffix-**nga** marks the first person P argument of a transitive clause. Since this is the same marker that is used for first person S arguments, this suffix groups S and P together morphologically into an absolutive category. The third person singular A argument of a transitive is expressed by a suffix-**a**. Since this suffix is different from the third person S suffix. It can be said to identify ergative arguments. This treatment of S together with P as distinct from A is defined as an **ergative/absolutive** system. All the logically possible ways in which languages could conceivably group 'S, A and P in terms of case marking on noun phrases or agreement/concord on verbs are listed below along with a general indication of how commonly they arise in the languages of the world.

Possible grouping of S, A, and P.

Grouping	Label	Frequency
[A, S] [P]	Nominative/Accusative	Common
[A] [S,P]	Ergative/Absolutive	Common
[A] [S] [P]	Tripartite	Very rare
[S] [A,P]	Accusative focus	unattested
[A,S,P]	Neutral	Unattested

[Source: Whaley, 1997:158]

In a tripartite system S, A and P all receive unique morpho-syntactic treatment. Compare the following transitive (a) and intransitive (b) clauses from Wangkumara (Pama-Nyangan: Australia):

a. kana-ulu kalkana titi-nana

man-ERG hit dog-Acc (FEM)

The man (A) hit the bitch (P)

b.kana-ia paluna

man-NOM died.

The man(s) died.

[Source: quoted by Whaley, 1997:158 – Data from Mallinson and Blake 1981]

As these data show, A, S and P are all distinct case suffixes. A true tripartite system- that is, in which A, S and P are consistently treated uniquely- is extremely rare. It is more common, although still, quite rare, for a language to use a tripartite system for a certain subset of the noun phrases in the language such as pronouns.

III. Cases in the English language

The English cases which are to be discussed: Nominative, Accusative, Genitive, Instrumental, Dative, Comitative, Ablative/ source, Goal and Locative are based on the ones discussed by Fillmore (1968, 1971), Payne (1997), Whaley (1997), Blake (1994), Huddleston (1996), Anderson (1977), etc. Each of them is explained as follows:

1. Nominative

Nominative is syntactic/grammatical case and it is the form taken by a noun phrase when it is subject of intransitive or transitive clauses. According to Huddleston (1996:98), "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 inflection or analytical markers. We call these cases nominative and accusative respectively. The English 'I' and 'me' series of forms clearly satisfy these definitions, . . ." Payne (1997:134) says that if any morphological case marks both S (single argument of intransitive predicate) and A (agent argument of transitive verb) roles, it is called the nominative case, while the case that marks only the P (Patient argument of two place transitive verb) role is the accusative case." For example,

- a. **He** left.
- b. He hit **him**.

[Source: Payne, 1997: 134]

Here, subject of intransitive verb 'left' 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 (1989:111) says that 'In

English one Case is used to encode S and A -a case of this kind is called nominative; and another case is used encode P -a case of this kind is called accusative."

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

a. **The boy** broke the window. (agent)

NOM ACC

b. **Tom** felt happy. (experiencer)

NOM

c. **The snowflake** melted. (Patient)

NOM

2. Accusative

Accusatives is also a syntactic/grammatical case; it refers to the form taken by a noun phrase when it is the object of a verb. According to Blake (1994: 134), "The accusative is the case that encodes the direct object or a verb." From the definition given by Huddleston (1996), Payne (1997), and Comrie (1989), quoted in section (1.1.8.11), it is clear that accusative case is treated differently than nominative case in English. For example,

a. **I** laughed.

NOM

b. **I** love **him**.

NOM ACC

The core semantic function of the accusative case is to express the role of 'Patient'. For example,

- a. **He** broke **the window**. (patient)
NOM ACC
- b. **A cat** drank **the milk**. (Patient)
NOM ACC

3. Instrumental

Fillmore in his own words defined instrumental case as: "The case of the inanimate force or object casually involved in the action or state identified by the verb" (Fillmore, 1968:24).

According to Blake (1994:69) instrumental is "the means by which an activity or change of state is carried out."

From these definitions, we come to know that instrument is the case of something used inanimately to perform an action. The force or object is used as a weapon or means to carry out the action or state identified by the verb. For example,

- a. I dug the field **with a spade**.
- b. We wash utensils **by hand**.
- c. **A key** opened the door.
- d. She goes to school **on foot**.
- e. **The wind** has broken the window glass.

I4 Genitive

The genitive case expresses a possessive relationship. "the genitive is the case of possession" (Lyons, 1968: 290). For example,

- a. **Horse's tail** is long.
- b. This is **dog's tail**.
- c. This car **belongs to** Ram.

d. **The window of this house** is too small.

English uses possessive pronouns to express the possessive relationship. For example,

a. This is John's bag. – This is **his bag** (Determinative function)

b. This bag is John's – This bag is **his**. (Independent/pronominal function)

5. Dative

The dative case expresses an indirect object relationship. According to Blake (1994:145), "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." For example,

a. I gave **my friend** a gift.

b. She brings a cup of tea for **me**.

c. The boss has sent **him** a message.

d. The cow feed **the calf** her milk.

e. My mother told **us** an interesting story.

f. Do you write **her** a long letter?

6. Comitative

The comitative usually marks the animate (typically human) which is conceived 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 is usually used of animates" (Blake, 1994: 198). For example,

a. I ran to the nearest town **with my father**.

- b. They chase a tiger **with guns**.
- c. **A mother with her baby** has just crossed the river.
- d. The cat has slept **with the dog**.
- e. We take every breakfast **with eggs**.
- f. The fire burns **with a huge flame**.

7. Ablative (source)

"The case that expresses the role of source . . ." (Blake, 1994: 196). Fillmore calls this case as 'Source'. This semantic role is mostly associated with the verbs of motion, transform and time. Fillmore defines this case as "the place from which something, . . . the starting point, . . . the earlier state, . . . the start of this period." This definition entails that this case marks the origin or the starting point of an action. For example,

- a. John bought the car **from Danny**.
- b. We leased the apartment **from Mr. Thomas**.
- c. The program continued **from morning to evening**.
- d. An apple fell down **from the tree**.
- e. We get hit **from the sun**.
- f. Children learn good behaviour **from the parents**.

8. Goal

Fillmore (1971: b) defines the case, 'goal' as "the place where something moves; destination, later state, end point of time period; end result of action." In simple, goal is the direction to which something moves and it is the end point of a movement or motion. For example,

- a. Joe went **to college**.
- b. I send the parcel **to the officer**.

- c. She went **home**.
- d. A woman arrived **at the store** to buy sugar.

9. Locative

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

- a. Hary is **at home**.
- b. A dog hides **behind you**.
- c. A parrot was kept **in the cage**.
- d. Somebody was there **under the tall tree**.
- e. It is windy **in Chicago**.
- f. The coffee is **on the table**.

1.1.6 CA 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 (L1) 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 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 Fries C.C. who made the first clarion call for it.

In his work 'Teaching and learning English as a foreign language (1945), Fries (1945: 259) quoted 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 languageand 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. [Source: Lado, 1957: 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, a language teacher cannot impart knowledge to the learners. James (1980:145) 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 to learning and the more differences between the two languages the more difficult to learn. We can say that greater the similarities greater the ease, and greater the ease lesser the chances of errors and greater the differences, greater 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 Related Literature

There are several comparative research works carried out to study several grammatical aspects on different languages such as Nepali, Magar, Gurung, Tharu, Maithili, Rai, Limbu, Newar, etc. Up to now, two research works on English and Maithili cases and one research work on English and Limbu cases have been carried out.

Fillmore (1968) studied cases and produced his seminal paper entitled 'The case for case'. He has proposed six main and 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 purpose of this study was to find out similarities and difference between the Nepali and English case systems and to identify morphological and syntactic features of the case of both English and Nepali languages. The result showed that: (a) if there is only one case in sentence; it automatically becomes the subject in both languages. (b) The verb in Nepali inflects according to sex and honorific grade but English doesn't have this system. (c) Case marker appears before the noun in English but after the noun in Nepali.

Adhikari (2001) carried out a research on 'Case Realization in English and Nepali: A Comparative Study.' The main purpose of this study was to identify the similarities and differences in case realization between English and Nepali languages. The result shows that: (a) English is a nominative-accusative' kind of language whereas Nepali is an 'ergative-absolutive' type of language. (b) The same case marker can occur with various cases in both the languages.

Karn (2004) has carried out a research on 'A comparative study of cases in Maithili and English'. The main purpose of this study was to identify and analyze case in Maithili and to compare Maithili case with English one. The researcher found out that the Maithili language has the following case: nominative, accusative, instrumental, dative, ablative, genitive and locative.

Limbu (2007) has carried out a research on 'Case in English and Limbu: A comparative study'. His study concentrated on determining case in Limbu language and finding the similarities and differences between Limbu and that of English language. The result showed that:

a) The Limbu is an ergative - absolutive type of language.

- b) The Limbu personal pronouns except third person plural, have different genitive case marker than those of other nouns.
- c) The Limbu language uses different vocative case markers for singular and non-singular nouns.

Raika (2007) has carried out a research entitled 'Negative and Interrogative Transformation in the English and Magar languages: A comparative study'. The main objective of his study was to identify the processes of negative and interrogative transformation in the Magar language and compare and contrast the concerned processes of the Magar language with that of the English language. The result showed that: (a) In the Magar language the prefix 'm ' is the negative marker which is placed before the main verb in all tense except continuous tense (b) Yes/No question is formed by using rising intonation in the statement sentence in the Magar language. The same Yes/No question can also be formed by placing the element 'h ' which refers to 'what', in the beginning of the sentence without changing the order of the other constituents in the sentence. (c) The equivalent of English Wh-word in the Magar language in most of the cases occurs after the subject and also in the beginning of the sentences when they function as subjects.

So far, no comparative study has been carried out to find out the similarities and differences between English and Magar case systems. Therefore, the researcher is interested to identify and describe cases in the Magar language, and to compare and contrast between case systems of the English and Magar languages.

1.3 Objectives of the Study

This study has the following objectives:

- i. To determine and describe cases in the Magar language.

- ii. To find out similarities and differences between the English and Magar cases.
- iii. To suggest some pedagogical implications.

1.4 Significance of the Study

- i. This study will be a valuable work for the department itself in the sense that no research has been carried out yet on the topic of case in Magar and English.
- ii. This study will be basically helpful for the future researchers who are interested to conduct the intensive study either on case system in any language or on any topic in the Magar language.
- iii. This study will be beneficial to the language teachers; Magar community, language experts, linguists, syllabus designers, textbook writers, etc.

1.5 Definition of the specific terms

Some specific terms which are used in this study are defined as follows:

A: The agent argument of a transitive verb plus only other role that is treated in the same way.

Absolutive: A grammatical relation that subsumes S and P whereas S is equivalent to the subject of an intransitive clause and P is equivalent to the direction object of a transitive clause.

Agent: A semantic role for an entity that is instigating an action.

Case marker: Case marker refers to preposition, post position and case ending.

Case: Morphological marking that establishes the grammatical relation or semantic role that a nominal bears to the clause in which it occurs.

Definite: An entity that is specific and which the speaker assumes can be identified by the hearer.

Dialect: It is user base variety of a language. Dialect is generally determined by geographical boundaries and social boundaries.

Ergative –obslutive: A case system in which S and P are marked in the same way, but different from A.

Ergative: A grammatical relation that subsumes A, where A is equivalent to the subject of a transitive clause. The term is also used for case markers that mark A. Ergative contrasts with nominative.

Grammatical Relation: The morpho-syntactically signaled function a constituent plays in the grammar of a clause. It includes purely syntactic relations like 'subject' and semantic relations like 'locative'.

Indefinite: An entity which is not specific and which the speaker assumes can not be identified by the hearer.

Intransitive Verb: A verb which has a patient in a subject position and which does not take an agent.

Morphosyntactic form: Morpho-syntactic form is the form that marks the case. Preposition and syntactic position in English are the morpho-syntactic forms.

Nominal: A term used for a category that contains nouns, pronouns, and noun phrases.

P: The Patient argument of a transitive verb plus any other role that is grammatically treated in the same way.

Participant/Argument: participant/ argument in this study refers to the NP that participates in the action or process in a sentence. Each participant

is said to have a certain type of case relationship with the verbal element of the sentence.

Patient: A semantic role that indicates the entity being directly affected by the action of the verb.

S: The single argument of one place predicate.

Transitive Verb: A two –place verb with an agent and an affected patient.

Tripartite: A language system in which the grammatical arguments S, A and P are treated distinctly.

CHAPTER-TWO

METHODOLOGY

The researcher adopted the following methodology to carry out the research in order to fulfil the objectives:

2.1 Sources of Data

The required data to carry out the research were collected from both primary and secondary sources.

2.1.1 Primary Sources

The native speakers of the Magar language of Radhapur and Rajhena VDCs of Banke district were the primary sources from whom the researcher elicited the required data for the research.

2.1.2 Secondary Sources

For the secondary sources of data, the researcher consulted the Fillmore (1968), Fillmore (1971), Anderson (1977), Blake (1994), Huddleston (1996), Payne (1997), Lyons (1968), Quirk, R. et al.(1985), Whaley (1997), Yadav (2004), etc.

2.2 Population of the Study

The population of the study consists of forty eight Magar native speakers of Radhapur and Rajhena VDCs of Banke district. Twenty-four informants, age group of 15-70, were taken from each VDC. The number of male and female informants were equal in the proportion of 12:12 from each VDC.

2.3 Sampling Procedure

The researcher selected the population/informants through snowball random sampling procedure to collect the primary data.

2.4 Research Tools

The data for the study were elicited by using structured interview schedule. The interview questionnaires, prepared before hand, were based on the objectives of the study. (See Appendix-III)

2.5 Process of Data Collection

The researcher visited Radhapur and Rajhena VDCs and met the native speakers of the Magar language. Then, he established a good rapport with the Magar native speakers. Making the Magar native speakers known about their research work, he conducted interview according to the prepared interview schedule. Simultaneously, he kept records of the responses revealed by them on paper using Roman Transliteration of Devanagari script. The researcher verified the elicited data from the native speakers after the interview in terms of accuracy and correctness/ appropriateness with the help of their kind co-operation.

2.6 Limitations of the Study

The present research work had the following limitations:

- i. The study was limited to Magar native speakers of Radhapur and Rajhena VDCs in Banke district.
- ii. The total study population was limited to forty eight native speakers of the Magar language.
- iii. The study was limited especially to Instrumental, Dative, Comitative, Ablative/Source, Goal, Locative based on Fillmore (1968), Fillmore (1971) and others and Nominative, Accusative, Genitive based on traditional grammarians.

- iv. The research work was descriptive in nature.
- v. Only the simple past, simple present and present perfect tense sentences with different cases were compared and analyzed.

CHAPTER THREE

ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION

This chapter deals with the analysis and interpretation of the data obtained from the selected informants by the researcher in his research field. The data has been analyzed descriptively with the help of tables and illustrations. After the analysis of the data, the similarities and differences between Magar and English cases are mentioned with illustrations. Hence, this chapter consists of two parts: Identification and Analysis of Case in the Magar language and Similarities and Differences between the Magar and English case systems.

3.1 Identification and Analysis of Cases in the Magar Language

3.1.1 Magar Language as a Tripartite type of Language

Tripartite system in language is very rare. This system treats the language uniquely. Hence, the arguments S, A and P have distinct morphosyntactic case markers. In other words, It can be said that each argument in a language is treated distinctly to each other.

The Magar language manifests a tripartite system in case marking on free noun phrases. The argument P is treated with the suffix **-ke** if it happens to be an animate being. For example,

1. rames ec sy le.

Ramesh –S well dances.

Ramesh dances well.

2. m n-ei rames –ke e .
 Meena –A Ramesh –P called.
 Meena called Ramesh.
3. naren ar ec re ane.
 Narendra –S sweetly smiled.
 Narendra has smiled sweetly.
4. lenj m j-ei naren ar-ke dut .
 Son –A Narendra –P followed.
 The son followed Narendra.
5. ci uw iy .
 Tiger-S died.
 The tiger died.
6. au kh nch bo-ei ci uw -ke s .
 my uncle–A tiger–P killed.
 my uncle killed a tiger.
7. ciu m cy m cy hw mane.
 cat–S silently walks.
 The cat walks silently.
8. ciu-ei su hu-ke l g r ih .
 dog–A cat–P chased away.
 The dog chased away the cat.

The Magar language does not manifest a tripartite system only on inanimate noun phrases but as of ergative-absolute system.

9. basy phalko mhinane.

Apples–S are ripen.

The apples are ripen.

10. r m– ei/ai basy phalko jy le.

Ram–A apples–P eats.

Ram eats apples.

11. k t ec lihi bh i le.

A beautiful song–S.

A beautiful song ends.

12. hose- k ec lhi lhi .

she–A a beautiful song –P sang.

She sang a beautiful song.

The Magar language manifests a tripartite system in case marking of personal pronouns.

13. y r j t .

I–S traveled.

I traveled.

14. ho e- -ke jhor .

He–A I–P greeted.

He greeted me.

15. ho eko caur- kher .
They –S ground–Loc ran.
They ran on the ground.

16. n ko- ho eko-ke u .
you-A them –P beat.
you beat them.

17. hoce sa ai re le.
He –S everyday baths.
He baths everyday.

18. k nko- ho -ke cin ily .
We-A he–P recognized.
We recognized him.

The cases which are identified in the Magar language are as follows:

3.1.2 Genitive Case

The genitive case typically expresses a possessive relationship or it is the case of possession. In the Magar language, genitive case is marked by the suffixes are: **-au, and -yau/ai.**

19. r m-au bo mo ars ikl-i khuriy .
Ram-GEN 3sg-father the bike fell off
Ram's father fell off the bike.

20. Sim-au bo sa ai a nu le.

Seema –GEN 3sg-father daily office goes.

Seema's father goes to office daily.

21. gho -au meme lho c le.

Horse-GEN-3sg tail long is.

Horse's tail is long.

22. kit b-au khol orc le.

book-GEN 3sg Kh 1 yellow is.

The book's cover is yellow.

23. gho -au memeko lho c le.

Horse-GEN-pl tail- pl are.

Horses' tails are long.

24. e e ci -ai meme le.

This dog-GEN-sg tail is.

This is dog's tail.

Magar Personal pronouns with their Possessive Case Function

Table No. 1

Number	Person	Possessive case	
Singular	1	au	
	2	nu/nau	Non-honorific
		naku /n kau	Honorific
	3	hocyau/hoceu	Non-honorific
		ho ku	Honorific
		i yau/useu	Honorific
icyau/iceu		Non-honorific	
Plural	1	k nu	
	2	n ku /n kau	
	3	ho eku	

25. **au-bo** ki n le.

1sg-father farmer is.

My father is a farmer.

26. **k nau** ichak-ai ec pa h kle.

2pl –teachers very well have taught.

Our teachers have taught us very well.

27. **n kau** k nch bo Fr ns-i r h . (honorific)

2sg- uncle france- ABL came.

Your uncle came from France.

28. **hocyau** baini-yai 2062 l SLC p s gari . (non-honorific)

3sg –sister 2062 SLC did.

His sister did SLC in 2062 B.S.

29. **hosku** pos ako ebul- le. (honorific)

3sg-book-pl table –LOC are.

Her books are on the table.

30. ho eko- **menau** k m bh mane.

They- 3pl work have finished.

They have finished **their** work.

31. ho e **au** im le.

That- 1sg home is.

That is my home.

3.1.3 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 inanimate force or object casually involved in the action or state identified by the verb. In the Magar language, the form of the instrumental is identical to that of argument A of transitive verb. Hence, **-ai**, **-ei**, **-yai**, and **-e** are the suffixes in the Magar language.

32. **ai ko ali-yai** g r h kw h .

I spade-INS field dug.

I dug the field with a spade.

33.c **bi-yai** gal m khol i .

Key-INS door opened.

The key opened the door.

34.k /k t **cabi-yai** gal m khol i .

A Key-INS door opened.

A key opened the door.

35.kanai **hut-ai** bh nd hurle.

We hand-INS utensils wash.

We wash utensils by hand.

36.ho e **mihil-yai** hw ma i kul nle.

she foot-INS school goes.

She goes to school on foot.

37.ho eko- big r i c **ciu-ke ban uk-ai** tmane.

They mad dog gun –INS have killed.

They have killed a mad dog with a gun.

38.k /k **ectar-ai** g r ghoele.

A tractor –INS field ploughs.

A tractor ploughs the field.

39.nadi-ei/ai /**khol-ai** l ha l .

river-INS village flooded.

The river flooded the village.

40. **hi-yai/ei** khop-au is bh kmane.

wind-INS window glass has broken.

The wind has broken the window glass.

41.bharmiko- **lhu -ai** apna bul .

men-stone-INS-pl snake killed.

The men killed the snake with the stones.

3.1.4 Dative

Dative is the case of animate being affected by the state or action identified by the verb. This case is, sometimes, also treated as the case of indirect object in a sentence. It is semantically related to the role 'recipient.'

In the Magar language, dative case is marked by the suffix **–ke**.

42. hen -ai **mij -ke** menau u h k sle.
 cow calf-DAT her milk feeds.
 The cow feeds the calf her milk.
43. ai menau **l f -ke** up h r y h .
 I my friend –DAT gift gave.
 I gave my friend a gift.
44. ichak-ai **i y ko-ke** phutbal ges k .
 Teacher student-DAT-PL football played.
 The teacher played the students football.
45. mahe -ai **a-ke** arikuj mi h i lomy .
 Mahesh I-DAT some sweets bought.
 Mahesh bought some sweets for me.
46. au mo **kanko-ke** k ec ka h se k .
 My mother we- DAT an interesting story told.
 My mother told us an interesting story.
47. n ko- **ho -ke** k nay e an lomy .
 you she-DAT a new watch have purchased.
 You have purchased her a new watch.
48. bharmi-ei/yai **ho -ke** arikuj hilso y h .
 Man he-DAT some money asked.
 The man asked him for some money.

49.bo-ei/yai **cyu-ke** sy y ke ch n .
father dog-DAT meat has given.
Father has given the dog meat.

3.1.5 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 Magar language, this case is marked by the suffix-khata/kh t . For example,

50.i e na i **mahen ra r jl m-kha a** hw mane.
This river Mahendra highway-COM flows.
This river flows with Mahendra Highway.

51.nanj ko ra **bauj ko-kha a** re .
Girl also boy-COM-pl laughed.
The girls also laughed with the boys.

52.su hu **ciu-kha a** mismane.
Cat a dog-COM has slept.
The cat has slept with a dog.

53.k nko- pa a arni **mihiruko/gw ruko-kha a** jy le.
We every breakfast egg-COM-pl take.
We take every breakfast with the eggs.

54.mehe k r c **lapk -kha a** h le.
Fire huge flame-COM burns.
The fire burns with a huge flame.

55. **namas-kha a** jhirlu ko jh 1 .
 rain-COM haistones fell down.
 The hail stone fell down with the rain.
56. m rc bhoya **-kha a** iskul nu le.
 Young brother I-COM school goes.
 The young brother goes to school with me.
57. menau **mij -kha a** mo cam cam na i ar ismane.
 her baby-COM mother just river has crossed.
 A mother with her baby has just crossed the river.

3.1.6 Ablative/Source

The ablative/source case refers to 'separation' of an entity (animate or inanimate) with the starting 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 Magar language, ablative case is marked by the suffix- **i**

58. cam cam **nep lganj-i** r mne.
 I Just Nepalgunj-ABL has arrived.
 I have just arrived from Nepalgunj.
59. ho e **thap-i** khuriy .
 She ladder-ABL fell off.
 She fell off the ladder.
60. min-ai kherepo **ban-i** si ko jhurumane.
 Mina nearest forest- ABL firewoods has collected.
 Mina has collected firewoods from the nearest forest.

61.resam-ai ake **Pokhar-i** k /k ci hi birhin .

Resham me Pokhara-ABL a letter sent.

Resham sent me a letter from Pokhara.

62.kanko- **n kh n-i** josm/j lc P mne.

We sun-ABL heat get.

We get heat from the sun.

63.bharmiko- **u -i** goras kh sle.

People milk-ABL curd make.

People make curd from milk.

3.1.7 Goal

The location from something moves is the source whereas the location to which something moves is the goal. It is generally expressed as a location NP followed by the suffix-**l k,-a and -ke**.

64. **k thmandu-l k** nu g .

I Kathmandu-GOA went.

I went to Kathmandu.

65.k nko **ha ka -l k** bhurle.

We Hong-Kong-GOA take a flight.

We take a flight to Hong-Kong.

66.bh n e ch kh ske **bh nsi-l k** nu le.

Cook food cook kitchen-GOA goes.

The cook goes to the kitchen to cook food.

67.ragh kar c **ja gal -l k** kher h .

Lion thick jungle-GOA ran.

The Lion ran towards the thick jungle.

68.n ko en gher **im-** nu g .

You me than earlier home-GOA went.

You went home earlier than me.

69.ho e **pasal-** s manko loke t r h mane.

She store-GOA goods to buy arrived.

She has arrived at the store to buy goods.

70.m -ei m s **mij -ke** s man brihanane.

Mother daughter-GOA parcel gave.

The mother gave the parcel to the daughter.

3.1.8 Locative

The case which identifies the location or spatial orientation of the state or action identified by the verb is known as locative case. There is the inseparable relationship between the location and the object involved with it. The objects are dependent on the locations. Some of the Magar locative case markers are: - , **-nhunl k,-mh kl k, -chewa /kherep, -hema , -b reya , etc.**

71.r m **im-** le.

Ram im –LOC is.

Ram is at home.

72.k ciu **n ku nhunl k** rcile.

A dog you-LOC hides.

A dog hides behind you.

73.ho e **kakch- au** gher mun .

She class-LOC I- LOC sits.

She sits in front of me in the class.

74.hol n gh c bu mh k-l k k bharmi ly h .

there tall tree-LOC a man was.

A man was there under the tall tree.

3.2 Similarities and Differences between the Magar and English Cases

3.2.1 Genitive

Both the Magar, and English languages have the case, ‘genitive’ but they differ in case markers. In Magar, it is marked by suffix **-au** and **-yau/ai** preceded by nominals. On the other hand, English uses apostrophe ’S preceded by nominals and preposition ‘of’ followed by nominals for genitive case markers. For example,

Magar

a. **R m-au** bo mo ars ikal-i khuriy .

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

Ram’s father fell off the bike.

- b. **S m-au** mo sa ai a nu le.
 Seem-GEN 3sg- mother daily office goes.
 Seema's mother goes to office daily.
- c. **Kitab-au** khol orc le.
 Book-GEN 3sg. cover yellow is.
 The book's cover is yellow.

English

- a. **Martin's car** is damaged.
- b. It is the top floor **of this building**.
- c. I had used **Henry's quarter** for a month.

Both the Magar and English languages have possessive pronouns with both functions: determinative and pronominal. But both the functions are expressed by the same pronouns in the Magar Language.

Magar

Determinative function

- a. **au** bo .
 1sg. –father.
 My father.
- b. **kanu** im.
 1pl- house.
 Our house.
- c. **nu/nau** ciu. (Non-honorific)
 2sg. –dog.
 Your dog.

d. **aku** /**n kau** ciu. (Honorific)

2sg. –dog.

Your dog.

e. **naku** /**nakau** ciu. (Honorific–Non-honorific)

2pl- dog .

Your dog .

f. **hocyau** bari . (Non-honorific)

3sg.-cloth.

Her/his cloth .

g. **ho ku** barin (Honorific)

3sg.-cloth

Her/his cloth

h. **ho eku** su hu.

3pl –cat

Their cat

i. **isyau** meme

3sg. Non-human-tail.

Its tail

j. ho e hen e **au** le.

Tht cow 1GEN is.

That cow is mine.

k. ho e bari **nu/nau** ly h . (Non- honorific)

That cloth you-GEN was.

That cloth was yours.

l. i e su hu ho eku le. (honorific/Non-honorific)

This cat they-GEN is.

This cat is theirs.

m. i e ciu **ho ku** le. (honorific)

This dog she-GEN is.

This dog is hers.

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**.
- f. This house is **theirs**.

There is no existence of inclusive and exclusive pronouns with their different forms in English. Similarly, such types of pronouns are not found in the Magar language. For example,

Magar

k nu im

/dl/pl/incl/exc/

Our house

English

Our School.

/dl/pl/incl/exc/

In English, second person possessive pronoun ‘your’ does not have singular-plural, male-female and honorific–non-honorific distinction. But in the Magar Language, second person possessive pronoun has honorific–non-honorific distinction.

English

Magar

Your house

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

In the magar language, third person singular possessive pronouns do not make male-female distinction but it makes honorific–non-honorific distinction.

English

Magar

his

her

his

her

Magar Personal pronouns with their Possessive Case Function

Table No. 2

Number	Person	Possessive case	
Singular	1	au	
	2	nu/nau	Non-honorific
		naku /n kau	Honorific
	3	hocyau/hoceu	Non-honorific
		ho ku	Honorific
		i yau/iseu	Honorific
		icyau/iceu	Non-honorific
	Plural	1	k nu
2		n ku /n kau	
3		ho eku	

3.2.2 Instrumental

In both Magar and English, instrumental case can occur as the subject of a sentence if there is no other argument in sentence. For example,

Magar

a. **ka c bi-yai gal m khol is .**

A key-INS door opened.

A key opened the door.

English

a. A key opened the door.

A key-INS opened the door-ACC.

In both Magar and English, natural force is also regarded as instrument. For example,

Magar

a. **hi-yai khop-au** sis bh s kmane.

wind-INS window glass has broken.

The wind has broken the window glass.

b. **na i-ei** l h l .

river-INS village flooded.

The river flooded the village.

English

a. **The wind** has broken the window the glass.

The wind-INS has broken the window glass –ACC.

b. **The river** flooded the village.

The river-INS flooded the village-ACC.

The Magar instrumental case markers are identical to subject of transitive verb or argument 'A' of transitive verb.

Magar

a. ai **ko li-yai** g r h kw h .

I spade-INS field dug.

I dug the field with a spade.

b.k nai **hut-ai** bh n a hurle.

We hand-INS utensils wash.

We wash utensils by hand.

c.hose **mihil-yai** hw ma iskul nle.

She foot-INS school goes.

She goes to school on foot.

d.bharmiko- **lhu - ai** pna bul s .

Men stones-INS-pl snake killed.

The men killed the snake with the stones.

e.hoseko- big r i c ciu-ke **ban uk-ai** s mane.

They mad dog gun-INS have killed.

They have killed a mad dog with a gun.

English

a.I reached Pokhara **by bus**.

Jimmy has touched the flower **with his dirty hand**.

3.2.3 Dative

The Magar dative case is identical to the direct object of transitive verb (P the patient argument of a transitive verb).

In Magar, it is marked by suffix **-ke**.

Magar

a. ai manau I f -ke up h r y h .

I my friend –DAT gift gave.

I gave my friend a gift.

I gave a gift to my friend.

b.hoske- a-ke k kap c h r kle.

she I –DAT a cup of tea brings.

She brings me a cup of tea.

She brings a cup of tea for me.

But English behaves accusative and dative cases differently. Here, dative is marked by prepositions ‘to’ and ‘for’ and word order. Dative is followed by accusative if there is no use of those prepositions in the sentence. For example,

a.You have purchased **her** a new **watch**

NOM DAT ACC

b.You have purchased **a new watch** for **her**.

NOM ACC DAT

c.A man asked **me** **the way** to Kirtipur.

NOM DAT ACC

d.The cow feeds **her milk** to **the calf**.

NOM ACC DAT

3.2.4 Comitative

Comitative case is found in both the Magar and English languages. In Magar, it is marked by suffix **-kha a/kh** whereas, in English, it is marked by preposition **-with**. For example,

Magar

a. Su hu k **ciu-kh t** mis .

Cat a dog-COM has slept.

The cat has slept with a dog.

b. Mehe k r c **lapk -kha a** h le.

Fire huge flame-COM burns.

The fire burns with a huge flame.

c. Marc bhoya **a-kh** iskul nu le.

Young brother I-COM school goes.

A young brother goes to school with me.

English

a. The girls also laughed **with the boys**.

b. The hailstones fell down **with the rain**.

c. A mother **with her baby** has just crossed the river.

3.2.5 Ablative/Source

Ablative/source case is found in both the Magar and English languages. In Magar, it is marked by suffixes **-i** , **-khata** whereas – **'khata'**, the suffix is marked for animate source/ablative.

Magar

a. cam cam **nep lganj-i** r mane.

I just Nepalgunj-ABL have arrived.

I have just arrived from Nepalgunj.

b.k nko- **na kh n-i** josm/j ic p mane.

We sun-ABL heat get.

We get heat from the sun.

c.K nko- **binaya-khata** s man din .

We Binaya-ABL parcel got.

We got the parcel from Binaya.

But in English, ablative/source case is marked by preposition 'From'. There is no distinction whether ablative/source is animate or inanimate. For example,

a.Danny has borrowed a big amount of money **from Mr. Abram.**

b.She took out his bike **from the garage.**

3.2.6 Goal

Both the languages, Magar and English, have the semantic case 'goal'. In Magar, the case, goal is marked by suffix **-l k**, **-ke** and rarely, **-khata**. The suffixes, **-l k** and **-ke or khata** are marked for inanimate goal (place) and animate goal respectively. For example,

Magar

a. K nko- **ha ka -l k** bhurle.

We Hong-Kong-GOA take a flight.

We take a flight to Hong-Kong.

b.mo-yai m st mija-ke s man birihanane.

mother daughter-GOA parcel gave.

The mother gave the parcel to the daughter.

c. K t bharmi menau phunc in m n ike a-ke.

Ye ne **a-khata** t rh .

A man his birthday party to invite 1-GOA reached.

A man reached to me to invite on his birthday party.

But in English, the case, goal is identified with prepositions to, at towards, etc. For example,

a. Angela worked **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 Magar 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 Magar in comparison to English. Some of Magar locative case markers are: - , **-nhunl k**, **-mh kl k**, **-chewa /kherep**, **- hema** , **-b reya** , etc.

And English locative case markers are 'in', 'at', 'on', into/onto, under, over, towards, behind, about, before, through, after, near. etc.

Magar

a. r m **im-** le.

Ram home-LOC is.

Ram is at home.

b. K ciu naku **nhunl k** rcimane.

A dog you –LOC hides.

A dog hides behind you.

c. hol gh c bu **mh kl k** t bharmi ly h .

There tall tree-LOC a man was.

A man was there under the tall tree.

d. ho e/hoce sarit **khrep/chew n** muw .

She sarita-LOC sat.

She sat besides Sarita.

English

- a. A man ran **towards the river.**
- b. The doctor stands **in front of the patient.**
- c. We live **in town.**
- d. There is a flower **on the table.**

CHAPTER-FOUR

FINDINGS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This chapter is divided into two parts: findings and recommendations/pedagogical implications. Some findings are carried out after analyzing and interpreting the obtained data. On the basis of findings, some recommendations and pedagogical implications 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 Magar and English languages.

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

4.1.1 Cases Identified in the Magar Language

- i) The cases which are identified in the Magar language are: genitive, instrumental, dative, comitative, ablative/source, goal and locative.
- ii) The Magar is a tripartite type of language which treats arguments S, A and P differently.
- iii) The suffixes are the main case markers in Magar.
- iv) The Magar language does not make definite-indefinite, male-female, exclusive-inclusive pronoun distinction but it makes honorific–non-honorific distinction with pronominals.
- v) The verb does not play a central role to determine case in the Magar language.

- vi) The direct object (inanimate) uses zero marker in the Magar language.

4.1.2 Similarities between the Magar and English Cases

- i) The common cases found in the Magar and English languages are: genitive, instrumental, dative, comitative, ablative/source, goal and locative.
- ii) If there is only one case in a sentence, it automatically becomes the subject in both the languages.
- iii) Both the Magar and English languages do not make exclusive-inclusive distinction.
- iv) Both the Magar and English Languages have possessive pronouns with determinative and pronominal function.
- v) The same case Marker can be used for various cases on both the languages.
- vi) Both the Magar and English languages have categorized personal pronouns under two numbers: singular and plural.
- vii) The direct object (inanimate) in the Magar language and the accusative case in English use zero marker.

4.1.3 Differences between the Magar and English Cases

- i) Despite the common cases found in the Magar and English languages, they have different case markers.
- ii) The Magar language is a tripartite type of language where arguments S,A and P are treated differently but English is a nominative- accusative type of language where arguments S and A are treated as the same and P differently on the other hand.

- iii) The Magar language makes honorific– non-honorific distinction with pronominal whereas the English language makes definite -indefinite distinction.
- iv) The Magar language does not make Male-Female distinction whereas of English language does with pronominals.
- v) Both the Magar and English languages have possessive, determinative and pronominal functions. The Magar language uses the same possessive pronouns for the both functions but English uses the different ones for them.
- vi) In the Magar language, nominals encode two types of case marking: zero Marking and suffix, whereas English nominals encode three types of case marking: zero marking, preposition and word order.
- vii) In the Magar language dative, goal (animate) and direct object (animate) object of the transitive verb are marked by the same case marker **-ke** but they are marked differently in English.
- viii) Constituent order is not so significant in the Magar language but it is extremely Significant in English.
- ix) Case marker precedes the noun in the Magar language but it follows the noun in English.
- x) The objective pronoun can occur in the subject position either by constituent order or subject deletion in the Magar language but it is not found in English.
- xi) It is mentioned earlier that case markers are '**suffixes**' in Magar and '**preposition**' in English. This is the basic difference observed between case marking in Magar and English. The case suffixes and prepositions in both the languages are given below:

Magar

S :	-ϕ
Tripartite a.	
A :	-ai, -ei/yai, -e,-i
P:	-ϕ, -ke
b. Genitive :	-au, -yau/ai
c. Instrumental :	-ai, -ei/yai, -e
d. Dative :	-ke
e. Comitative :	-kha a/kh
f. Ablative/Source:	-i
g. Goal:	-l k, -ke,-
h. Locative:	- , -nhunl k, -mh kl k, -chew /kherep, - hem , -barey .

English

1. Nominative : -ϕ
2. Accusative : -ϕ
3. Instrumental : with, by
4. Genitive : -'s, of
5. Comitative : with
6. Locative : on, in, at, over, under, above, below, towards, to, behind, in front of, by, next to, etc.
7. Ablative : from
8. Dative : to, for
9. Goal : to, at,
10. Vocative : -ϕ

4.2 Recommendations and Pedagogical Implications

The researcher has recommended the following pedagogical implications on the basis of findings mentioned above:

- i) This research is a comparative study between two languages; Magar and English. A comparative study always helps the language teachers either of Magar or English to identify the difficult areas of language teaching. So, the language teacher should pay attention to this fact.
- ii) The Magar is a tripartite type of language. This language treats the subjects of transitive and intransitive verbs and the direct object differently, i.e. they are marked with different case markers whereas English is a nominative-accusative type of language. This language treats the subjects of transitive and intransitive verbs the same. This fact should be made clear to the language learners.
- iii) The Magar language does not make male-female distinction in the third person singular personal and possessive pronouns. So, the language teacher should be aware of this fact.
- iv) There is a distinct use of pronominal for the second person and third person singular pronouns in terms of honorific–non-honorific category but English lacks it. Therefore, it is a prime concern in language teaching.
- v) In the Magar language, dative case [indirect object) and direct object (animate) are marked by the same case marker whereas they are marked differently in English. This difference may cause confusion among the language teachers and learners. So, it should be taken carefully.

- vi) In the Magar language, nasal sound / /, palatal sound /j/, glottal /h/, etc. are frequently used in unusual position in comparison to English. They are really difficult to pronounce. So, the language teacher should give more emphasis on their pronunciation.
- vii) Constituent order do not play a significant role in meaning change in the Magar language whereas a random constituent order change can make great difference in meaning. It should be made clear especially to the language teacher of English to the Magar native speakers who can commit errors changing randomly the constituent order.
- viii) The Magar language uses suffixes as case markers which precede the nouns but English uses prepositions as case markers which follow the nouns. This fact is necessary to be known by the language learners.
- ix) In the Magar language, direct object (inanimate) does not take any case marker (zero marker) whereas nominative and accusative cases do not take any case marker (zero marker) in English. So, learners should be made aware of this fact.
- x) Without linguistic knowledge of a language, one can not teach the language. This study gives linguistic knowledge to a teacher who intends teaching the Magar or English language.
- xi) The Magar case marking system is different and complicated than that of English. So, this research work is important for language teachers, text book writers, syllabus designers, etc.

Finally, the researcher hopes this work will provide detailed information about the Magar and English case systems as it helps the teachers to teach cases of both languages. This research work can be proved as a milestone in the field of grammar of the Magar language since no research has been carried out yet on 'case system'. Language

teachers, linguists, textbook writers, syllabus designers and the Magar community may take more benefits from this research work.

The researcher has carried out this work in a limited number of cases concerned. He does not claim that the present research work covers all the aspects of case system. The aspects dealt in this research work are: tense, aspect, animacy, honorific, number, gender, definiteness, and word order. So the researcher hopes that further researches will be carried out on case system in the Magar language concerning other case types and aspects.

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APPENDIX- I

ROMAN TRANSLATION OF DEVANAGIRI SCRIPT

(Based on Turners, 1931). Nepali Alphabet and Diacritic Marks)

Note: The traditional letters क्ष, क्श and क्च are treated as conjunct letter, e.g. क्ष = ks, क्श = ksh, क्च = kch; त्र = tr, and ग्न = gn gy.

APPENDIX-II

Devanagari Alphabets used for Magar Phonemes (or sound units) and their equivalent Roman translation.

Vowels

a. Simple Vowels

b. Breathy vowels

S.N.	Devanagari	Roman equivalent	S.N.	Devanagari	Roman equivalent
1	अ	a	1	अ	
2	आ		2	आ	
3	ई		3	ई	
4	ऊ		4	ऊ	ū
5	ए	e	5	ए	
6	ऐ	ai	6	ओ	
7	ओ	o			
8	औ	au			

Consonants

S.N.	Devanagari	Roman equivalent	S.N.	Devanagari	Roman equivalent			
1	क	k	11	ठ	th	21	र	r
2	ख	kh	12	ड	d	22	ल	l
3	ग	g	13	ढ	dh	23	व	w
4	घ	gh	14	न	n	24	स	s
5	ङ		15	प	p	25	ह	h
6	च	c	16	फ	ph	26		
7	छ	ch	17	ब	b	27		
8	ज	j	18	भ	bh	28		
9	झ	jh	19	म	m	29		
10	ट	t	20	य	y	30		

B. Breathy Consonants

26. ड 27. न 28. म 29. य 30. र 31. ल 32. व

APPENDIX-III

This interview questionnaire has been prepared to draw information for the research work entitled **Case in English and Magar: A comparative Study** which is being carried out under study the guidance of **Mrs. Hima Rawal**, Central Department of English Language Education, faculty of Education, T.U., Kirtipur. The researcher hopes that your co-operation will be a great contribution to this research work.

Thank You.

Raj Kumar Thapa

Name (opt):

VDC:

Sex:

Age:

How do you say the following sentences in Magar?

1. I ate rice. (म भात खाँए)
2. I slept with my mother. (म मेरो आमासँग सुतेँ)
3. You have called the police. (तिमीले पुलिसलाई बोलाएका छौ)
4. He sat on the bench. (ऊ/उनी बेन्चमा बसिन्)
5. They have invited him. (उनीहरूले उस/उनीलाई बोलाएका छन्)
6. The cow slept. (गाई सुत्यो)
7. The cow grazed the grass. (गाईले घाँस खायो)
8. We drive a car. (हामीहरू गाडी चलाउछौँ)
9. He gave us some mangoes. (उसले हामीहरूलाई केही आपहरू दियो)
10. Ramesh dances well. (रमेश राम्रो नाचदछ)
11. Meena called Ramesh. (मिनाले रमेशलाई बोलाइन्)
12. Narendra has smiled sweetly. (नरेन्द्र मिठोसँग हासेको छ)
13. The son followed Narendra. (छोराले नरेन्द्रलाई पछ्यायो)
14. The tiger died. (बाघ मर्‍यो)

15. My uncle killed a tiger. (मेरो काकाले बाघ मारुभयो)
16. The cat walks silently. (बिरालो चुपचापसँग हिड्छ)
17. The dog chased away the cat. (कुकुरले बिरालोलाई लखेट्यो)
18. The apples are ripen. (स्याउहरु पाकेका छन्)
19. Ram eats apples. (रामले स्याउ खान्छ)
20. A beautiful song ends. ((एउटा) राम्रो गीत सकिन्छ)
21. She song a beautiful song. (उनी (एउटा) राम्रो गीत गाउँछिन्)
22. I traveled. (मैले यात्रा गरें)
23. He greeted me. (उसले मलाई अभिवादन गर्‍यो)
24. They ran on the ground. (उनीहरु चौरमा दौडे)
25. you beat them. (तिमी(हरु)ले उनीहरुलाई पिट्यौ)
26. He baths everyday. (उ/उनी प्रत्येक दिन नुहाउछिन्)
27. We recognized him. (हामीले उसलाई चिन्यौं)
28. Ram's father fell off the bike. (रामको बुबा मोटरसाइकलबाट लड्नुभयो)
29. Seema's father goes to office daily. (सीमाको बुबा प्रत्येक दिन कार्यालय जानुहुन्छ)
30. This car belongs to me. (यो कार मेरो हो)
31. The window of this house is too small. (यो घरको भ्याल धेरै सानो छ)
32. We have collected the children's bags. (हामीले बच्चाहरुको भोला जम्मा गरेका छौं)
33. The boys' hostel is separate from the girls' hostel. (केटाहरुको छात्रावास केटीहरुको छात्रावासबाट अलग्गै छ)
34. Horse's tail is long. (घोडाको पुच्छर लामो छ)
35. The book's cover is yellow. (किताबको जिल्ला पहेलो छ)
36. Horses' tails are long. (घोडाहरुका पुच्छर लामा छन्)

- 37.This is dog's tail. (यो कुकुरको पुच्छर हो)
- 38.My father is a farmer. (मेरो बुवा किसान हुनुहुन्छ)
- 39.Our teachers have taught us very well. (हाम्रा शिक्षकहरूले हामीलाई राम्रो पढाउनु भएको छ)
- 40.Your uncle came from France. (तिम्रो काका फ्रान्सबाट आउनुभयो)
- 41.His sister did SLC in 2062 B.S. (तिम्रो बहिनीले वि.सं. २०६२ सालमा एस.एल.सी. पास गरिन्)
- 42.Her books are on the table. (उहाँको किताब टेबलमाथि छ)
- 43.They have finished their work. (तिनीहरूले आफ्नो काम सकिसकेका छन्)
- 44.They took our bicycle yesterday. (उनीहरूले हाम्रो साइकल हिजो लगे)
- 45.That is my home. (त्यो मेरो घर हो)
- 46.This cow is mine. (यो गाई मेरो हो)
- 47.The pen on the table was yours. (टेबलमाथि भएको कलम तपाइको थियो)
- 48.I dug the field with a spade. (मैले कोदालीले खेत खनँ)
- 49.The key opened the door. (चाबीले ढोका खुल्यो)
- 50.A key opened the door. ((एउटा)चाबीले ढोका खुल्यो)
- 51.We wash utensils by hand. (हामी हातले भाडा धुन्छौं)
- 52.She goes to school on foot. (उहाँ खुट्टाले हिडेर स्कुल जानुहुन्छ)
- 53.They have killed a mad dog with a gun. (उनीहरूले बन्दुकले एउटा पागल कुकुर मारेका छन्)
- 54.A tractor ploughs the field. ((एउटा) ट्र्याक्टरले खेत जोत्छ)
- 55.The river flooded the village. (नदीले गाउँ बगायो)
- 56.The wind has broken the window glass. (हावाले भ्यालको शिशा फुटाएको छ)

- 57.The men killed the snake with the stones. (मानिसहरुले ढुङ्गाले हानेर सर्प मारे)
- 58.The cow feeds the calf her milk. (गाईले आफ्नो बाच्छालाई दुध खुवाउँछ)
- 59.The teacher played the students football. (शिक्षकले विद्यार्थीहरुलाई फुटबल खेलाउनुभयो)
- 60.Mahesh bought some sweets for me. (महेशले मेरोलागि केही मिठाईहरु किन्यो)
- 61.My mother told us an interesting story. (मेरो आमाले हामीलाई चाखलाग्दो कथा सुनाउनुभयो)
- 62.She brings a cup of tea for me. (उनीले मलाई एक कप चिया ल्याउँछिन्)
- 63.I gave my friend a gift. (मैले आफ्नो साथीलाई उपहार दिएँ)
- 64.You have purchased her a new watch. (तिमीले उनलाई एउटा घडि किनिदिएकी छौ)
- 65.The man asked him for some money. (मान्छेले उसँग केही पैसा माग्यो)
- 66.Father has given the dog meat. (बुवाले कुकुरलाई मासु दिनुभएको छ)
- 67.This river flows with Mahendra Highway. (यो खोला महेन्द्रराजमार्ग सँगै बग्दछ)
- 68.The girls also laughed with the boys. (केटीहरु पनि केटाहरूसँग हाँसे)
- 69.The cat has slept with a dog. (बिरालो कुकुरसँग सुतेको छ)
- 70.We take every breakfast with the eggs. (हामी प्रत्येक खाजा अण्डासँग खान्छौ)
- 71.The fire burns with a huge flame. (आगो ठूलो ज्वालासँग बल्दछ)
- 72.The hail stone fell down with the rain. (पानीसँगै असिना पयो)
- 73.The young brother goes to school with me. (भाई मसँग स्कूल जान्छ)
- 74.A mother with her baby has just crossed the river. (आमाले बच्चा लिएर भर्खर खोला तरेकी छिन्)
- 75.I have just arrived from Nepalgunj. (म भर्खरै नेपालगंजबाट आएको छु)

76. She fell off the ladder. (उनी भ्याडबाट लडिन्)
77. Mina has collected firewoods from the nearest forest. (मिनाले नजिकैको जंगलबाट दाउराहरु जम्मा गरेकी छिन्)
78. Resham sent me a letter from Pokhara. (रेशमले पोखराबाट मलाई एउटा चिठी पठायो)
79. He earns money from his job. (उहाँले आफ्नो नोकरीबाट पैसा कमाउनु हुन्छ)
80. Children learn behaviour from the parents. (बच्चाहरुले बुबाआमाबाट राम्रो बानी व्यवहारहरु सिक्छन्)
81. The shopkeeper has bought many apples from the farmer. (पसलेले किसानसँग धेरै स्याउहरु किनेको छ)
82. We got the parcel from Binay. (हामीले बिनयबाट सामान पायौं)
83. We get heat from the sun. (हामी सूर्यबाट ताप पाउँछौं)
84. People make curd from milk. (मानिसहरुले दुधबाट दही बनाउँछन्)
85. I went to Kathmandu. (म काठमाडौं गए)
86. We take a flight to Hong-Kong. (हामी हङकङतिर उड्यौं)
87. The cook goes to the kitchen to cook food. (भान्से खाना पकाउन भान्सातिर लाग्छ)
88. The Lion ran towards the thick jungle. (सेर बाक्लो जङ्गलतिर दौड्यो)
89. You went home earlier than me. (तिमी मभन्दा छिटो घर गयौं)
90. He gave the book to his sister. (उसले आफ्नो साथीलाई पुस्तक दियो)
91. A man reached to me to invite on his birthday party. (एउटा मान्छे आफ्नो जन्मदिनको निमन्त्रणा दिन म सम्म आइपुग्यो)
92. She has arrived at the store to buy goods. (उहाँ सामानहरु किन्न पसलमा आइपुग्नु भएको छ)

- 93.The mother gave the parcel to the daughter. (आमाले छोरीलाई सामान दिइन्)
- 94.Ram is at home. (राम घरमा छ)
- 95.A dog hides behind you. ((एउटा) कुकुर तपाइको पछाडि लुक्छ)
- 96.She sits in front of me in the class. (उनी कक्षामा मेरो सामुन्ने बस्छिन्)
- 97.A man was there under the tall tree. (त्यहाँ अग्लो रुखमुनि एउटा मान्छे थियो)
- 98.The coffee is on the table. (कफी टेबलमाथि छ)
- 99.He sat in the chair. (यहाँ कुर्सीमा बस्नुभयो)
100. Bikash sat besides Sarita. (बिकास सरिताको छेउँमा बस्यो)

APPENDIX-IV

This interview questionnaire has been prepared to draw information for the research work entitled '**Case in English and Magar: A Comparative Study**' which is being carried out under study the guidance of **Mrs. Hima Rawal**, Central Department of English Language Education, Faculty of Education, T.U., Kirtipur. The researcher hopes that your co-operation will be a great contribution to this research work.

Thank You.

Raj Kumar Thapa

Name (opt):

VDC:

Sex:

Age:

How do you say the following sentences in Magar?

1. I ate rice. (म भात खाँए)
.....
2. I slept with my mother. (म मेरो आमासँग सुतेँ)
.....
3. You have called the police. (तिमीले पुलिसलाई बोलाएका छौ)
.....
4. He/she sat on the bench. (ऊ/उनी बेन्चमा बसिन्)
.....
5. They have invited him. (उनीहरूले उस/उनीलाई बोलाएका छन्)
.....
6. The cow slept. (गाई सुत्यो)
.....
7. The cow grazed the grass. (गाईले घाँस खायो)

-
- .
8. We drive a car. (हामीहरू गाडी चलाउँछौं)
-
9. He gave us some mangoes. (उसले हामीहरूलाई केही आपहरू दियो)
-
10. Ramesh dances well. (रमेश राम्रो नाचन्छ)
-
11. Meena called Ramesh. (मिनाले रमेशलाई बोलाइन्)
-
12. Narendra has smiled sweetly. (नरेन्द्र मिठोसँग हासेको छ)
-
13. The son followed Narendra. (छोराले नरेन्द्रलाई पछ्यायो)
-
14. The tiger died. (बाघ मर्‍यो)
-
15. My uncle killed a tiger. (मेरो काकाले बाघ मार्नुभयो)
-
16. The cat walks silently. (बिरालो चुपचापसँग हिँड्छ)
-
17. The dog chased away the cat. (कुकुरले बिरालोलाई लखेट्यो)
-
18. The apples are ripen. (स्याउहरू पाकेका छन्)
-
19. Ram eats apple. (रामले स्याउ खान्छ)
-
20. A beautiful song ends. ((एउटा) राम्रो गीत सकिन्छ)
-

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

22. I traveled. (मैले यात्रा गरें)

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

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

25. You beat them. (तिमी(हरु)ले उनीहरुलाई पिट्यौ)

26. He baths everyday. (उ/उनी प्रत्येक दिन नुहाउछिन्)

27. We recognized him. (हामीले उसलाई चिन्यौं)

28. Ram's father fell off the bike. (रामको बुबा मोटरसाइकलबाट लड्नुभयो)

29. Seema's father goes to office daily. (सीमाको बुबा प्रत्येक दिन कार्यालय
 जानुहुन्छ)

30. This car belongs to me. (यो कार मेरो हो)

31. The window of this house is too small. (यो घरको भ्याल धेरै सानो छ)

32. We have collected the children's bags. (हामीले बच्चाहरुको भोला जम्मा
 गरेका छौं)

33. The boys' hostel is separate from the girls' hostel. (केटाहरुको छात्रवास केटीहरुको छात्रावासबाट अलग्गै छ)

34. Horse's tail is long. (घोडाको पुच्छर लामो छ)

35. The book's cover is yellow. (किताबको जिल्ला पहेलो छ)

36. Horses' tails are long. (घोडाहरुका पुच्छर लामा छन्)

37. This is dog's tail. (यो कुकुरको पुच्छर हो)

38. My father is a farmer. (मेरो बुवा किसान हुनुहुन्छ)

39. Our teachers have taught us very well. (हाम्रा शिक्षकहरुले हामीलाई राम्रो पढाउनु भएको छ)

40. Your uncle came from France. (तिम्रो काका फ्रान्सबाट आउनुभयो)

41. His sister did SLC in 2062 B.S. (तिम्रो बहिनीले वि.सं. २०६२ सालमा एस.एल.सी. पास गरिन्)

42. Her books are on the table. (उहाँको किताब टेबलमाथि छ)

43. They have finished their work. (तिनीहरूले आफ्नो काम सकिसकेका छन्)
.....
44. They took our bicycle yesterday. (उनीहरूले हाम्रो साइकल हिजो लगे)
.....
45. That is my home. (त्यो मेरो घर हो)
.....
46. This cow is mine. (यो गाई मेरो हो)
.....
47. The pen on the table was yours. (टेवलमाथि भएको कलम तपाइको थियो)
.....
48. I dug the field with a spade. (मैले कोदालीले खेत खनँ)
.....
49. The key opened the door. (चाबीले ढोका खुल्यो)
.....
50. A key opened the door. ((एउटा)चाबीले ढोका खुल्यो)
.....
51. We wash utensils by hand. (हामी हातले भाडा धुन्छौं)
.....
52. She goes to school on foot. (उहाँ खुट्टाले हिडेर स्कूल जानुहुन्छ)
.....
53. They have killed a mad dog with a gun. (उनीहरूले बन्दुकले एउटा पागल कुकुर मारेका छन्)
.....

54. A tractor ploughs the field. ((एउटा) ट्र्याक्टरले खेत जोत्छ)
.....
55. The river flooded the village. (नदीले गाउँ बगायो)
.....
56. The wind has broken the window glass. (हावाले भ्यालको शिशा फुटाएको छ)
.....
57. The men killed the snake with the stones. (मानिसहरुले ढुङ्गाले हानेर सर्प मारे)
.....
58. The cow feeds the calf her milk. (गाईले आफ्नो बाच्छालाई दुध खुवाउँछ)
.....
59. I gave my friend a gift. (मैले आफ्नो साथीलाई उपहार दिएँ)
.....
60. The teacher played the students football. (शिक्षकले विद्यार्थीहरुलाई फुटबल खेलाउनुभयो)
.....
61. Mahesh bought some sweets for me. (महेशले मेरोलागि केही मिठाईहरु किन्यो)
.....
62. My mother told us an interesting story. (मेरो आमाले हामीलाई चाखलाग्दो कथा सुनाउनुभयो)
.....

63. She brings a cup of tea for me. (उनीले मलाई एक कप चिया ल्याउँछिन्)

64. You have purchased her a new watch. (तिमीले उनलाई एउटा घडि किनिदिएकी छौ)

65. The man asked him some money. (मान्छेले उसँग केही पैसा माग्यो)

66. Father has given the dog meat. (बुवाले कुकुरलाई मासु दिनुभएको छ)

67. This river flows with Mahendra Highway. (यो खोला महेन्द्रराजमार्ग सँगै बग्दछ)

68. The girls also laughed with the boys. (केटीहरु पनि केटाहरुसँग हाँसे)

69. The cat has slept with a dog. (बिरालो कुकुरसँग सुतेको छ)

70. We take every breakfast with the eggs. (हामी प्रत्येक खाजा अण्डासँग खान्छौ)

71. The fire burns with a huge flame. (आगो ठूलो ज्वालासँग बल्दछ)

72. The hail stones fell down with the rain. (पानीसँगै असिना पऱ्यो)

73. The young brother goes to school with me. (भाई मसँग स्कुल जान्छ)

74. A mother with her baby has just crossed the river. (आमाले बच्चा लिएर
 भर्खर खोला तरेकी छिन्)

75. I have just arrived from Nepalgunj. (म भर्खरै नेपालगंजबाट आएको छु)

76. She fell off the ladder. (उनी भ्याडबाट लडिन्)

77. Mina has collected firewoods from the nearest forest. (मिनाले
 नजिकैको जंगलबाट दाउराहरु जम्मा गरेकी छिन्)

78. Resham sent me a letter from Pokhara. (रेशमले पोखराबाट मलाई एउटा
 चिठी पठायो)

79. He earns money from his job. (उहाँले आफ्नो नोकरीबाट पैसा कमाउनु हुन्छ)

80. Children learn behaviour from the parents. (बच्चाहरुले बुबाआमाबाट
 राम्रो बानी व्यवहारहरु सिक्छन्)

81. The shopkeeper has brought many apples from the farmer. (पसलेले
 किसानसँग धेरै स्याउहरु किनेको छ)

82. We got the parcel from the Binaya. (हामीले बिनयबाट सामान पायौं)

-
83. We get heat from the sun. (हामी सूर्यबाट ताप पाउँछौं)
-
84. People make curd from milk. (मानिसहरुले दुधबाट दही बनाउँछन्)
-
85. I went to Kathmandu. (म काठमाडौं गए)
-
86. We take a flight to Hong-Kong. (हामी हङकङतिर उड्यौं)
-
87. The cook goes to the kitchen to cook food. (भान्से खाना पकाउन भान्सातिर लाग्छ)
-
88. The Lion ran towards the thick jungle. (शेर बाक्लो जङ्गलतिर दौड्यो)
-
89. You went home earlier than me. (तिमी मभन्दा छिटो घर गयौं)
-
90. He gave the book to his sister. (उसले आफ्नो साथीलाई पुस्तक दियो)
-
91. A man reached to me to invite on his birthday party. (एउटा मान्छे आफ्नो जन्मदिनको निमन्त्रणा दिन म सम्म आइपुग्यो)
-

92. She has arrived at the store to buy goods. (उहाँ सामानहरु किन्न पसलमा आइपुग्नु भएको छ)

93. The mother gave the parcel to the daughter. (आमाले छोरीलाई सामान दिइन्)

94. Ram is at home. (राम घरमा छ)

95. A dog hides behind you. ((एउटा) कुकुर तपाइको पछाडि लुक्छ)

96. She sits in front of me in the class. (उनी कक्षामा मेरो सामुन्ने बस्छिन्)

97. A man was there under the tall tree. (त्यहाँ अग्लो रुखमुनि एउटा मान्छे थियो)

98. The coffee is on the table. -कफी टेवलमाथि छ)

99. He sat in the chair. (यहाँ कुर्सीमा बस्नुभयो)

100. Bikash sat besides Sarita. (बिकास सरिताको छेउँमा बस्यो)
