

I. Introduction

1.1 Background

Nepal is a multilingual, multi-ethnic and multi-cultural state where people speak varieties of languages and dialects according to its geographical variation. The 2001 census establishes Nepal as a country of 102 ethnic groups and 92 languages. Such figures and formulations highlight the ethnic and linguistic diversities that contribute towards the cultural mosaic of Nepal. Thus, it is obvious that Nepal is a land of ethnic diversity and linguistic plurality.

The people of the Terai region of Nepal generally speak more than two languages at their command. They understand Bhojpuri, Nepali, Hindi, Maithili etc. Maithili is one of the prominent living languages spoken in India and Nepal – the two South Asian countries. Yadav has given many factual details about the Maithili language.

As its name implies, Maithili is properly speaking, the language of Mithila, the prehistoric ancient kingdom, which was ruled by king Janak and was the birth place of Sita or Janaki, Lord Ram's wife. This region was also called *Tairabhukti* the ancient name of *Tirhut* comprising both Darbhanga and Muzaffarpur districts of Bihar, India. Maithili belongs to the Eastern subgroup of the Indo-Aryan group within the Indo-Iranian branch of the European language family. It forms a sub-group with Bhojpuri and Magahi and is linguistically close to Assamese, Bangla and Oriya than to its more contiguous language, namely, Hindi and Nepali, which belong to Central and Western subgroup of Indo-Aryan respectively. (2001: 443-4)

The alternative names of the Maithili language are *Tirhutiya*, *Dehati*, *Abahata* or *Apabharamsa*. It is spoken mainly in the northern part of the Indian state of Bihar and the eastern part of Nepal's Terai region. There are also Maithili

speaking minorities in adjoining Indian states like West Bengal, Maharashtra and Madhya Pradesh and the Central Nepal Terai. There are seven regional dialects of Maithili. They are: the standard southern, eastern, *chikā#chiki*, western, *jolhi* and the central colloquial dialects. Of them, standard Maithili is spoken in the north of Darbhanga district (Bihar state, India) which now forms the part of the Madhubani district. Maithili exhibits social variations in its pronunciation, vocabulary and grammar in terms of the speaker's caste, sex, education, interpersonal relationship, and other social factors:

The Maithili language is spoken by more than 30 million people as a first language and by many other as a second language in the north eastern part of the Indian state of Bihar and the eastern part of Nepal's Terai region. In Nepal, it is the language of approximately 12 percent (approximately 2.3 million) of the total population and figures, second in terms of the number of the speakers – next only to Nepali, the language of the nation, spoken by a little over 50 percent of the population.

Previously, Maithili had its own script, called *Mithilakshar* or *Trihuta*, which originated from Brahmin (Of the third century B.C) via the proto-Bengali script and is similar to the modern Bengali and Oriya writing system. Besides the *Mithilā#kshar* script, the *Kan̄thi* script was also used by Kā#yashtha (belonging to a caste of writers and clerks) especially in keeping written records at government and private levels. These two scripts are now almost abandoned. For the sake of easy in learning and printing (and also perhaps under the influence of Hindi writing system), they have gradually replaced by the Devanagari script used in writing Hindi, Nepali and some other languages of both Indo-Aryan and Tibeto-Burman stocks spoken in adjoining areas.

In both Nepal and India, Maithili has been taught as a subject of study from school to university levels of education. Especially in India, however, it has been hampered by the lack of official recognition as a medium of instruction. In Nepal, there has recently been made a constitutional provision for introducing all the mother-tongues spoken at primary level of education.

This is, no doubt, a welcome step for their promotion, but in spite of speakers Zeal, there has not been much headway in this regard in the dearth of official initiatives and basic requirement like teaching, reading materials and trained manpower. Both PEN (Poets, Essayists, Novelists) and *Sahitya Academy* have recognized Maithili as the 16th largest language of India, though it has not yet been included in the eighth schedule of the Indian constitution despite the uneasing efforts made by the Maithili-speaking community in India.

1.2 The Study of Language

Language can be studied from different points of view. The study of language basically consists of three aspects – substantive aspect, formal aspects and meaning aspect. Roughly speaking, phonetics and phonology study the substantive aspects of language, grammar studies its formal aspect and semantics studies its meaning aspect. The study of these aspects of language constitutes the core linguistics.

These are different models of grammar such as Traditional Grammar, Structural Grammar, Transformation Generative Grammar, Stratificational Grammar, Systematic Grammar, Functional Grammar, Pedagogical Grammar, Case Grammar etc. All these grammars are concerned with study of language. These different grammars study the language from different perspectives. This study deals with case Grammar which is basically concerned with the relationship of NPs with the verb in the sentences.

1.3 Statement of Problem

Maithili, an independent and rich language in itself, still needs various types of studies, explorations, researches, conservations and developments, which can bring the facts and figures of the real situation, concept and attitude of the language speakers and necessity to take the preventive measures to preserve the Maithili language. This short research raises the following point:

- a) Maithili encodes three types of case marking:- zeromarking, use of clitics and postpositon whereas morphological forms:- preposition and word order are employed for case marking in English.

1.4 Objectives of the Study

The major objectives of this thesis is to shed light on the cases in Maithili language. The following are the main objectives formulated for this research:

- 1) To study and analyze cases of Maithili and English.
- 2) To find out areas shared by the two languages with respect to their cases.
- 3) To discover areas of difference in connection with the cases.
- 4) To identify areas of difficulty in learning English cases for Maithili speaking learners.
- 5) To suggest some pedagogical implications of the findings of the study.

1.5 Review of the Literature

Although the government of Nepal has not paid much attention to the Maithilig language, there are some linguists who have studied it, including cases. The review of literature upto now can be summarized as follows:

Yogendra Prasad Yadava has written so many articles and books regarding the Maithili language. For example, in his article, 'Non-nominative Subject in Maithili (2004), he discusses non-nominative cases, besides nominative one, function like

subjects, triggering the verb agreement. In another article 'Maithili' (2001) which is included in 'Facts about the World's Language', Yadava discusses briefly about gender, number, honorificity and case regarding Maithili language. Similarly, the book 'Reading in Maithili Language, Literature and Culture (1999)' edited by Yadava, discusses various aspects of the Maithili language, literature and culture.

'A Reference Grammar of Maithili (1997)' by Yadav is a standard grammar of Maithili language which describes, in details, the rules and various such as case marker, plural marker, honorific marker, post position etc. in the Maithili language. In this book, Yadav has talked of phonology, nominals, their inflections, adjectives, verbs, adverbs, passivization, causativization, sentence types etc. of the Maithili language.

Similarly, 'Maithili Vyakaran aur Rachana (Maithili Grammar and Composition) (1989) by Yogeshwar Jha is yet another grammar of the Maithili language in which Jha, like Yadav, talks of various grammatical topics in Maithili. In the Rachana portion, he further discusses about Maithili idioms, proverbs, essays, and letter. But the present researcher has compared and contrasted the case in both language. On the basis of the study the researcher has come out with his own findings in the form of similarities and differences.

This is descriptive as well as contrastive, study of case of Maithili with some notes on the pedagogical implications of the findings of the study. As such, the study is expected to be useful to all those who are directly or indirectly involved in the study and teaching of, or the research on English and Maithili in general.

1.6 Research Methodology

Comparison will be made first by starting with one or more simple sentence in the first language. (Maithili) and their translation equivalent in the second language

(English). The study is mainly textual. The library data will be collected and analyzed. The researcher himself is the major source of data (being a Maithili speaker) and criticism, review, journals etc. will be taken as source of materials. The suggestions and guidelines of the respected lecturers and professor will be taken. It is based on library consultation. To meet the objectives of collecting information or literature review, informations were received visiting the following libraries in the Kathmandu valley.

- a) The Central library of Tribhuvan University,
- b) Library of the Central Department of Linguistics, T.U.
- c) The library of the Central Department of English, T.U.

1.7 Significance of the Study

This study becomes significant to explore that cases which help Maithili speaker to find equivalent cases in English to derive meaning easily. It also attempts to project where cases in both language are contrastive to each other. It also becomes helpful for English speaker to understand Maithili language.

1.8 Delimitation of the Study

This study will be confined to standard Maithili Grammar. It will be focused mainly on the cases in the Maithili language and do not go into deep while dealing with other aspects except for the case.

1.9 Organization of the Study

The study consists of six chapters. The organization will be as follows:

- i) Introduction

- ii) Case in English language
- iii) Case in Maithili language
- iv) Similarities and differences between the cases in English and Maithili
- v) Some pedagogical implications of the study
- vi) Conclusion

II. Case in English

2.1 Introductory Remarks

This chapter deals with case in English language. Traditionally, case is employed to refer to both certain inflection categories that are added to noun and to the set of syntactic or semantic distinctions carried by the forms of the category. Therefore, speaking precisely different forms of nouns are believed to be cases in traditional sense.

Dionysius Thrax has defined case in terms of inflections of nouns.

Cases are the secondary grammatical categories. They are the inflected forms of nouns, which fit for participation in key construction related to verbs. Cases are the inflection categories of nouns as tenses are the inflectional categories of verbs.

In recent years, 'Case Grammar' is associated with Charles Fillmore, an American linguist. He defines cases as the semantic roles, which noun phrases have with respect to their verbs. In 1968, he produced his seminal article "The case for case" in a book entitled 'Universals in Linguistic Theory' edited by E. Bach and R.T. Harms, Stressing the semantic relationship of different constituents in a sentence. In case Grammar verb which is considered to be the most important/central constituent of the sentence, shares a number of sentence shares a number of semantic relationships with various noun phrases. And these relationships are known as cases. Therefore, semantic role is the dominant and recently developed concept of case Grammar.

Though case marker is language specific, case relation is a universal feature of language. As case relation is prevalent in all the languages of the world, it is said to be universal feature of language.

2.2 Definition of Case

Charles Fillmore, in his Case Grammar presents a clear understanding of the difference between deep and surface structure. Case Grammar, as TGG accepts the notion of transformation and accounts for differences in surface structures in terms of case relations in deep structures.

According to Fillmore, the grammatical notion 'case' deserves a place in the base component of the grammar of every language. A common assumption is that the universal base specifies the needed syntactic relations, but the assignment of sequential order to the constituents of base structure is language-specific. Fillmore argued that the valid insights on case relationships are missed in earlier (past) researches on case, and that what is needed is a conception of base structure in which case relationships are primitive terms of the theory and in which such concepts as 'subject' and 'direct object' are missing. He uses the term *case* to identify the underlying syntactic semantic relationship, and the term *case* form to mean the expression of a case relationship in particular language whether through affixation, suppletion, use of clitic, particles, constrains or word order.

The sentence in its basic structure consist of a verb and one or more noun phrases, each associated with the verb in a particular case relationship. The 'explanatory' use of this framework resides in the necessary claim, that, although there can be compound instances of a single case, each case relationship occurs only once in a simple sentence. The basic structure of sentence at its deepest level consist of two constituents a 'propositional' constituent and a 'modality' constituent. The propositional constituent is a tenseless set of relationships involving verbs and nouns and the modality constituent includes such modalities on the sentences-as-a-whole as negation, tense, mood and aspect. It is likely, however, that certain 'cases' will directly

related to the modality constituents as others are related to the proposition itself

(Fillmore, 1968a: 21-24).

- a) Sentence Modality + Proposition
- b) S M+P (abbreviated)
- c) Proposition Verb+Case1+Case2 case n.
- d) P+V+C1+C2.....+Cn

The P constituent is expanded as a verb and one or more case categories. The expansion of P may be thought of as a list of formulas of the form seen in (d) above where at least one case category must be chosen and where no case category appears more than once.

P+V+C₁+.....+C_n (Fillmore 1968a)

It is important to notice that none of the cases can be interpreted as matched by the surface-structure relations, subject and object in any particular language. For example, in the following sentences, it is intuitively obvious that basically the same meaning is being expressed in each sentence but the surface structure relations are extremely variable. It means case analyses the relationship in deep structure.

- a) John opened the door with *the key*. (doer/performer)
- b) The key opened *the door* (affected object)
- c) *The door* opened.
- d) John used the key to open *the door*.
- e) It was the key that opened *the door*.
- f) It was John who opened *the door* with the key.

Every native speaker knows that in all these six sentences, there is the same verb, open, and in all six it is active. Yet the grammatical subjects are John, the key and the door respectively. We can account for these facts if we treat open as the

predicate, John, the key, and the door as the arguments and if, further, we handle John, the key and the door in terms of 'case relations' that are not directly related to grammatical subject and object, the case of each noun being the same in all six sentences. Thus John in Agentive (actor or doer) throughout, the key is Instrumental and the door is objective. The example 'C' is not in passive voice as the passive marker is absent. John, the key, and the door are the NPs immediately dominated by S. So they are surface subjects. But each of them shares different semantic relation with the verb open. Furthermore, these six sentences are closely related to one another and transformational rule cannot relate them. They can be related in terms of case relations. So Fillmore argues that the underlying meaning of NPs in relation to the verb does not change from sentence to sentence despite the surfacial difference and it is this fundamental identity which is the important thing to recognize about these sentences and the central fact which a system of grammatical analysis should explain.

While analyzing from this angle it can be observed that the semantically relevant relation common to the sentences – (a), (b) & (c) is that between the object of the transitive verb (a) & (b) and the subject of the transitive verb (c), not between the subjects of the two sentences. Another example of the subjects of the two sentences sharing no constant semantically relevant function can be observed in example (a) and (b), though there is between them the subject of (b) and the instrument of (a). If the term 'Patient' can be used for the semantic function of the subject of (c) and object and (a) and (b), a natural way to describe the syntax of the verb 'open' is to say that:

- i) It requires a patient, tolerates an instrument and an agent.
- ii) If the patient is alone, it becomes the subject.
- iii) If an instrument accompanies the patient, it becomes the subject unless there is an agent present.

- iv) In a sentence with both instrument and agent, the agent becomes the subject and the instrument comes late, set off by means of a preposition.

The arguments for case relations is not restricted to verbs such as 'open'. A similar sets of sentences, and similar analyses, can be provided for other verbs; e.g. 'break' or 'ring': John broke the window with a stone, the stone broke the window, the window broke. But the categories would still be formal – based only on relations of transformational kind between sentences.

Every English sentence has a surface subject, if only formally so. For most combinations of cases there is a 'preferred' or 'unmarked' subject choice; for some there is no actual choice – the subject is uniquely determined. In general the 'unmarked' subject choice seems to follow the following rule:

"If there is an A it becomes the subject; otherwise, if there is an I, it becomes the subject; otherwise, the subject is the O (Fillmore 1968a: 33)."

In this type of formulation, the notion 'subject' and 'object' pertain strictly to the surface syntax, the notion 'agent', 'patient' and 'instrument' on the other hand, can not be deduced from the syntax, but must have an independent source. For example,

The play	pleased me.
Object (patient)	(experiencer) and passive.

From the discussion so far, it is clear that such surface devices like word order, preposition, postpositions and inflections are used to indicate the syntactic functions of subject, object and the like and these functions are not easily defined according to meaning. A subject, for example, can be the agent the performs and action, a person or thing that is described, and instrument that is used in an action, or even the receiver of the action. Similarly, if an object is defined, as the receiver of the action, a lot of problems great as those for defining the subject are found. It becomes obvious that the

difficulty in assigning meaning to functions such as subject and objective arises as a result of heavy reliance upon surface manifestations. Therefore, in Fillmore's approach different NPs that function as subject, object and occur in prepositional phrase in surface structure are analyzed in terms of their semantic roles.

Much of Fillmore's work has been concerned with the cognitive structures and frames within which detailed roles specifications are articulated. However, the semantic roles such as agentive which Case Grammarians identify as case relations, signify the semantic functions which are basic to the lexicon and /or syntax. Concerning the set of roles that fulfill that semantic function in the grammar, there has been some agreement, and much disagreement among Case Grammarians (see Ency of Lg and Ling, 1994). After offering the set of case relations, Fillmore (1968a: 24-25) seems too sure that "additional cases will surely be needed." In 1977 he wrote an article entitled "The Case for Case Reopened" and further says about the number and identify of cases in this way:

I will discuss some of the most important challenges to the theory, including the serious one of how one can know what the cases are and how many of them there are: and I will fail to offer a satisfying solution to this problem. I will instead propose a new interpretation of the role of cases in a theory of grammar and a new method of investigating the question of their number and identity (Fillmore, 1977: 112).

The set of case relations offered in Fillmore was tentative and not intended as necessarily exhaustive. He suggests:

Agentive (A)	the case of the typically animate perceived instigator of the action identified by the verb;
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Instrumental (I)	the case of the inanimate force or object causally involved in the action or state identified by the verb;
Dative (D)	the case of the animate being affected by the state or action identified by the verb;
Factitive (F)	the case of the object or being resulting from the action or state identified by the verb, or understood as a part of the meaning of the verb;
Locative (L)	the case which identifies the location or spatial orientation of the state or action identified by the verb;
Objective (O)	the semantically most neutral case, the case of anything representable by a noun whose role in the action or state identified by the verb is identified by the semantic interpretation of the verb itself; conceivably the concept should be limited to things which are affected by the action or state identified by the verb.

Other possibilities are mentioned elsewhere. Fillmore (1971b: 4) proposes that the case notions that are most relevant to the sub classification of verb types include the following:

Agent (A)	the instigator of the event;
Counter-agent (C)	the force or resistance against which the action is carried out;
Object (O)	the entity that moves or changes or whose position or existence is consideration;
Result (R)	the entity that comes into existence as a result of the action;
Instrument (I)	the stimulus or immediate physical cause of an event;
Source (S)	the place from which something comes;

Goal (G)	the place to which something moves;
Experiencer (E)	the entity which receives or accepts experiences or undergoes the effect of an action (earlier called 'Dative').

Fillmore (1971a) contains a slightly different list, in particular lacking result (regarded there as a goal) and counter-agent and including location, time and path.

Hence the list of his cases is as follows:

- a) Agent (A)
- b) Object (O)
- c) Instrument (I)
- d) Source (S)
- e) Goal (G)
- f) Experiencer (E)
- g) Location (L)
- h) Time (T)
- i) Path (P)

Starosta (1988) suggests a set much reduced compared to his (and Fillmore's) earlier proposals:

Patient (PAT)	the perceived central participant in a state or event (formerly also object or Theme);
Agent (AGT)	the perceived external instigator, initiator, controller, or experiencer of the action, event, or state (formerly also dative, experiencer, force, instrument);
Locus (Loc)	
Inner	the perceived concrete or abstract source, goal, or location of the patient (formerly also source, goal, or path);

Outer the perceived concrete or abstract source, goal, or location of the action, event, or state (formerly also place);

Correspondent (COR)

Inner the entity perceived as being in correspondence with the patient (Formerly dative, experiencer, range, increment);

Outer the perceived external frame or point of reference for the action, event, or state as a whole (formerly benefactive, reference);

Means (MNS)

Inner the perceived immediate affector or effector of the patient (formerly instrument, material, vehicle);

Outer the means by which the action, state, or event as a whole is perceived as being realized (formerly instrument, manner), (see Ency of Lg and Ling, 1994).

And other scholars have proposed their own different lists of case. Cook (1978: 299) proposes agent, experiencer, benefactive, object and locative while Longacre (1976: 27-34) has experiencer, patient, agent, range, measure, instrument, locative, source, goal, path. Throughout the 1960s and the early seventies, various different versions of Case Grammar were proposed, to some extent independently. Anderson (1968, 1971), Platt (1971), Cook (1971, 1972a,b, 1973, 1978), Nilsen (1972), Longacre (1976), and Chafe (1970) each have given different lists (see Ency of Lg and Ling, 1994). A list similar to Fillmore is given by Radford (1988: 373) of Lg and Ling, 1994). A list similar to Fillmore is given by Radford (1988: 373): theme (patient, agent (actor), experiencer, benefactive, instrument, locative, goal, source. Andrews (1985) proposes agent, patient, directional (source/goal), inner locative,

experienter, recipient, theme, causer, instrumental, 'outer' locative, reason, circumstantial, comitative and temporal (69-71).

From the definitions of case in this section above, it seems that the different sets of case offered by different scholars at least show some overlap. It might, indeed, be regarded as a sign of lack of responsibility to describe a particular case as a 'wastebasket'. Unless a theory of case is properly constrained, new cases are liable to crawl out of the 'wastebasket' or from even less desirable spots. From the discussion so far, it is also obvious that much effort has been devoted within Case Grammar not merely to the establishing of definitions and semantic/syntactic properties of the individual cases but also to the formulation of general principles governing the distribution of cases and of a general substantive theory of the category of case.

2.3 Types of Cases in English Language

In 1968, Charles Fillmore produced his seminal article 'The Case for Case' in a book titled 'Universals in Linguistics Theory' edited by E. Bach and R.T. Harms. He discussed mainly six cases namely, Agentive (A) Instrumental (I), Dative (D), Factive (F), Locative (L) and Objective (O). In 1971, he extended the number up to eight namely Agentive, Instrumental, Patient/Objective, Experience, Source, Goal, Locative and Time. However, every now and then some new cases are proposed and discussed. One of them is Benefactive case.

Aarts (1997) has discussed cases in terms of thematic roles. He is of the opinion that each argument carries at most one thematic role. He advocates that linguists don't agree exactly how many there are however, the following thematic roles (cases) are widely accepted.

2.3.1 Agent

Agent is a case which refers to an entity that performs an action. In other words, it is the doer or instigator of an action denoted by the predicate.

For example:

- 1) Mohan hit Hari.

In this sentence Mohan is the agent as he is the person (an entity) who does the hitting.

Here it is to be noted that agent must have their own volition and be able to perform an action of their own will. If so then they must be animates because only animates can have their own volition and will.

For example: considering the following sentence

- 2) A Lorry hit the boy.

Here, like Mohan the object a lorry is understood as the doer of the hitting. But unlike Mohan, it cannot be the Agent because it is inanimate and cannot have its own volition. Thus, an agent may be redefined as an animate doer of action.

2.3.2 Patient

Patient is a case referring to an entity which undergoes or is affected by the action or event. For example, considering the sentence.

- 3) a) The boy hit the girl.
- b) He cut the tree.

Here, the girl and the tree are affected by the action of hitting (3a) and cutting (3b) and are thus patients.

2.3.3 Theme

Theme refers to the case of an entity in motion i.e. moved by the action or event denoted by the predicate. For example, the parcel involves motion and is thus the theme in (4)

- 4) He sent the parcel to Butwal.

2.3.4 Experiencer

Experiencer is the case of an entity inwardly affected by the action or state expressed by the verb. In other words, it is the living entity that experiences the action or event denoted by the predicate. For example, consider the sentence (5).

- 5) The girl feared the serpent.

In (5) the entity the girl is inwardly affected by the state getting feared. In other words, the girl experiences feared inwardly. Thus this entity has the case or role of an experiencer.

Experiencers are commonly expressed spatially in languages. The mind is considered as a location where experiences reside or to which they come. Thus an experiencer is often expressed as the object to the preposition to in English.

- 6) This book is interesting to me or it can be the direct object of verbs prefixed with en- or in-.
- 7) The performance enthralled the audience.

2.3.5 Instrument

Instrument is a case for an entity (namely, an in-animate object) used to carry out an action. It is the medium by which the action or event denoted by the predicate is carried out. It thus expresses the sense 'by means of'. For example, consider the following sentence,

- 8) The cook cuts vegetables with a knife.

In the sentence (8) a knife is the object by means of which vegetables are cut. Thus, it is the instrument.

The instrument case is often expressed by the expression with NP, e.g. with a knife in the sentence (8). There are, however, other preposition (besides with) used to express the instrument. For examples, consider the sentences (9a) and (9b).

9) a) He washes utensils by hand.

b) I went to campus on foot.

The instrument may sometimes be used with a preposition, depending on the nature of verbs. Thus, we can have (10a) with the verb open but not (10 b) with the verb draw.

10) a. A key opened the door.

b. *Charocal drew the sketch.

Besides with some verbs, especially use, the instrument occurs as the object of the verb. For example, consider this sentence:

11) We use a key to open the door.

2.3.6 Source

The source refers to the case of the place from which something moves. For example,

Janakpur, which is the place from which

Mohan moved in the source in (12)

12) Mohan came from Janakpur.

The source is usually a location, as (in 12). But it may sometimes be an inanimate being, e.g. the farmer, as shown in (13).

13) I bought these apples from the farmer.

In addition, it may also be a thing, as in (14)

14) This place haunts me.

Finally, the source can also be expressed as an NP realized as a complement, as in the following sentences.

15) a. That he spoke rudely insulted me.

b. His speaking rudely insulted me.

2.3.7 Goal

As we noticed, the direction from which something moves is the source. Now, the direction to which something moves is the goal. It is the end point of movement or motion. It is generally expressed as a location NP preceded by the preposition to, as shown in (16).

16) Hari went to school.

However, certain locational NPs do not take preposition, as in (17).

17) Hari went home.

Besides to, the locational NPs may also take other prepositions such as at.

18) Ms. Sharma arrived at the store to buy cosmetics.

The goal is also expressed by adding the derivative suffix ward to the locational Np.

19) Hari went homeward.

However, the use of ward is considered archaic, i.e. extremely old-fashioned, in contemporary English.

The goal, like the source may also be an animate being used as an indirect object.

20) I sent the parcel to the officer.

In this case the indirect object may undergo the rule of dative shift, which deletes the preposition to and moves the indirect object to the position following the verb and preceding the direct object, as in (21).

21) I sent the officer the parcel.

Such an animat goal is also called recipient.

2.3.8 Path

The path refers to the case of the route taken by an entity from source to goal in its movement. Consider the sentence (22)

22) I left Kathmandu for Birgunj by Prithvi Highway.

Here by Prithvi Highway is the route by which I went to Birgunj and is thus the path. This case is expressed by various prepositions such as along, on, around, across, through etc.

2.3.9 Location

Location is the case which refers to the place in which an entity takes place or is situated. For example, at home in (23) is the place where Ram is present and is thus location.

23) Ram is at home.

Like path, location can be expressed by various prepositions such as in, under, etc, as in (24).

24) a. We sat in the room.

b. Put your shoes under the table.

Location can also be used as the subject.

25) a. The house smells (= in the house it smells)

b. The hall is hot (= in the hall it is hot).

2.3.10 Possessor

The possessor is the case which refers to the entity having something. The sense of possession may be physical, mental, or legal.

The possessor is expressed differently in different languages. In English it is expressed by belong to or in his possession, as in (26 a) and (26 b), respectively.

26) a. This house belongs to me.

b. He has much land in his possession.

Other ways of expressing the possessor include following:

27) a. Mohan has a house.

b. The house is Mohan's/his

c. I met a man with a stick.

d. I bought his house.

e. I saw the house of your brother

2.3.11 Recipient

Recipient is a case of an entity receiving an object. For example, the school, which receives the donation, is the recipient in (28)

28) Mr. Sharma donated his property to the school.

2.3.12 Benefactive

Benefactive is the case of an entity benefiting from the action or event denoted by the predicate. Consider the sentence in (29).

29) I have got a gift for the baby.

Here the baby is benefiting from the gift. It is thus benefactive.

2.3.13 Comitative

Comitative is the case of an entity expressing accompaniment. Consider the sentence in (30).

30) Mohan goes for walking with his dog.

In (30) his dog accompanies Mohan while walking and is, therefore, comitative.

2.3.14 Force or Counteragent

An inanimate doer without its own volition is called force or counteragent.

31) a. A lorry willingly hit the boy.

b. The man willingly hit the boy.

Let us look at the sentence in (2) again. Here a lorry is interpreted as the doer of hitting. But this doer is not animate and doesnot have its own volition. Such as inanimate doer without its own volition is called force or counteragent. Thus, a lorry in (2) is the force. Had this doer been animate having its own volition, we would have treated it as the agent. The force is supposed to initiate actions such as hitting, driving etc. but it, unlike animates (humans and animals), lacks volition of its own. Thus, we cannot say (31a) using the adverb willingly while (31b) with willingly is perfectly acceptable.

The brief discussion of Fillmore's notion of case may create the impression that the cases discussed by him can be identified in terms of their categorical properties. It may create the impression, for example, that agentive and dative can be identified on the basis that they are animate and that the locative and the instrumental cases, for example, can be identified on the basis that they are necessarily inanimate. In an attack on Case Grammar, Peter Finke (1974) concentrated on the categorical implication of cases. His main point is that a Case Grammar make an ontological commitment about the number of sorts of objects that can exist in a universe, that number equal to the number of case. Grammarians have able to come up with a common and stable collection of case. It denotes that the theory of case is not to be

taken seriously. But Fillmore (1977) has made it clear that though categorical properties like animate, inanimate, etc. help in identifying cases, his notion of case is essentially a relational notion.

He states:

[...] Even if some universe contained only one sort of object, say, human beings, the role identifying function of the cases could still be maintained. One person could pick of another person, use that person body for knocking down a third person, that third person could feel embarrassment, and so on. In a universe with only one sort of object, in short, the case relation of agent, instrument, patient, and experiencer could all be easily imagined. Perhaps it was my misleading statements about animacy that created the impression that case notions were to be understood as categories rather than as types of relations (1977: 66)

Mainly, two morphological forms-word order and preposition reveal the syntactic relation in English. The common preposition used for different cases as follows:

Morphological forms	Case
By	Agent
With, by	Instrument
From	Source
To, into, until, towards	Goal
In, at, on, near, around, beyond	Locative
To, for	Benefactive
With, along, together	Comitative
O	Experiencer
Along, on, around, across	Path
To, for	Recipient
To	Patient

III. Case in Maithili

3.1 Introductory Remarks

This chapter deals with case in Maithili language and how it is realized with the help of different case marker such as zero marking, use of clitics and postposition. Case is semantic concept. According to Chomskyian principle (1981), case is a universal principle (1981), case is a universal concept, there is no noun or pronoun in a sentence of any language without case. It marks the relationship of noun or noun phrase with the verb in a sentence. In Eastern tradition, Sanskrit is the mother of most of the language which has eight cases. In Sanskrit there are cases of adjectives but in Maithili such cases are not found. It is Panni who is well known as the first Sanskrit grammarian and a great grammarian of the world. He laid the foundation of the grammar of the world's language. In Sanskrit, the case is called Kark and the case markers are known as bibhakti. The same trend continues in Maithili.

3.2 Definition of Case

Jha (1989) defined case as the word that is helpful in the origin of verb is called case. (Je Shab Kriya Utpatti me Sahayak ho so thik kark)

For example

σηψαμ	φιβαχη	κε#	δεκη-↔λ-ι↔ινη
Shyam	Jibach	Acc/DAT	see-PST- (1+3)

Shyam saw Jibach.

The above example shows that both words Shyam and Jibach are helpful in the origin of verb 'see'. So Shyam and Jibach are cases.

3.3 Types of Cases in Maithili Language

Really speaking, the characterization of cases in Maithili language differs from grammar to grammar. Some tradition grammarians held the view that there are eight cases in Maithili language.

Jha (1979) in his book "Uccatar Maithili Vayakarn" has maintained that are eight cases in Maithili namely nominative (karta karak), accusative (karan karak), instrument (karn karak), dative (sampradan), ablative (apadan), genitive (sambandh), locative (adhi karan) and vocative (sambodhan). However, he is reluctant to accept dative (sampradan), genitive (sambandha) and vocative (sambodha) as cases. He asserts that in the absence of the lender who lends something to the borrower, act of lend cannot take place. Moreover, it seems as if it were a vocative case.

Example

1. मोहान के पोती देलतिव

Mohan book gave

(Gave book to Mohan)

2. छात्रा के पुस्तक छी

Student book has

The student has book.

About genitive case, he says that a noun is connected with a another noun, which has nothing to do with the verb. Therefore, it is not appropriate to include it under the characterization of case.

Mishra and Thakur (1984) in their book "Maithili Vasa Vigyan" and Bal Govind Jha (1964) in his book "Maithili Subodh Vyakarn" have almost repeated the same characterization.

And other scholar proposed their own different lists of case. Jha proposes nominative (karta karak), dative (sampradak), accusative (karan karak), instrument (karan karak), ablative (apadan), genitive (sambandha), locative (adhikaran) and vocative (sambodhan) (24-25). Yadav (1996) has nominative, accusative, dative, instrumental, genitive and locative but Yadav (1996) treats dative as separate case.

From the discussion of case in this section above, it seems that the different sets of case offered by different scholars at least show some overlap. However, Yadav (1996) 'A Reference Grammar of Maithili' presents cases which are widely accepted by scholar of Maithili grammar.

3.3.1 Nominative

Nominative case in Maithili are indicated by the absence of any case marker.

The noun in nominative case performs the grammatical function of a subject.

For example:

- | | | |
|--------|---------|------------|
| 3. βεN | μoτ | ↔ιχη |
| Frog | fat be- | pre- (3nh) |

The frog is fat.

- | | |
|-----------|-------------|
| 4. Iσωηoρ | χη-↔ιτχη |
| God be | Pres – (3H) |

God is/exists.

The above examples indicate that both nouns the frog and god are zero marked. In other words, they lack any marker.

3.3.2 Accusative-dative

The accusative-dative case in Maithili is marked by the clitic $\kappa\epsilon/\kappa\epsilon\#$. however, its use is not obligatory. The noun phrase in accusative dative case generally performs the grammatical function of object-direct or indirect.

For example:

Direct Object

5.	ηαμ	φιβαχη	κ ϵ	δεκηλι- \leftrightarrow ιχη
	I	Jibach	Acc/DAT	See-PST (1+3H)

The proper names of place are also unmarked for the accusative-dative case.

6.	raja	janak	janakpur	sahar	bas- \square - λ - \leftrightarrow ινχη
	King	Janak	Janakpur,	town	establish PST (3H)

King Janak established the town of janakpur.

Indirect Object

Indirect objects are more likely to be personal pronouns, proper names and animate common noun phrases, these will be obligatorily marked with the accusative-dative clitic.

7.	νοκαρ	γηορα	κ ϵ	γηασ	κηι- \square - λ - α κ
	Servant	horse	ACC/DAT	grass	eat-CAU-PST (3NH) + 3N)

The servant fed the horse grass.

3.3.3 Instrumental

The instrumental case in Maithili is marked by the use of clitic- $\sigma\alpha/\sigma\alpha\#$ $\alpha\nu\delta$ optionally suffixation of the case marker – $\epsilon/\epsilon\#$

For example

8. $\mu\Theta\chi\leftrightarrow\kappa\kappa\upsilon$ $\sigma\alpha\#$ $\alpha\mu$ $\sigma\eta\text{-}\lambda\text{-}\alpha\iota\nu\eta$
 Mother knife, INSTR mango peel-PST (3H)
 The mother peeled the mango with a knife.
9. $\nu\omicron\kappa\alpha\rho$ $\gamma\Theta\kappa\epsilon$ $\varphi\alpha\upsilon\rho$ $\sigma\alpha\#$ $\beta\alpha\nu\eta\text{-}\lambda\text{-}\alpha\kappa$
 Servant cow ACC/DAT rope INSTR tie-PST (3NH + 3NH)
 The servant tied the cow with a rope.

R.A. Yadav has integrated ablative case also under the instrument one to express removal or separation.

10. $\pi\alpha\tau$ $\gamma\alpha\chi\eta$ $\sigma\alpha\#$ $\kappa\eta\alpha\sigma\text{-}\alpha\lambda$
 Leaf tree INSTR fall-PST- (3NH)
 The leaf fell from the tree.
11. $\sigma\alpha\tau\rho\upsilon$ $\sigma\alpha\#$ $\beta\leftrightarrow\chi\iota$
 Enemy INSTR save-IMP
 One should keep away from the enemy.

The instrumental case in Maithili may be optionally marked by the suffixation of the case marker $-\epsilon/\epsilon\#$ to the noun, provided that the latter is not animate.

For examples

12. $\eta\leftrightarrow\mu$ $\pi\Theta\rho\text{-}\epsilon\#$ $\Theta\text{-}\lambda\text{-}\leftrightarrow\eta\upsilon$
 I foot-INSTR come-PST-(I)
 I came on foot.
13. $\delta\leftrightarrow\eta\iota\nu\alpha$ $\eta\alpha\tau\eta\epsilon\#$ $\kappa\eta\alpha\text{-}\upsilon$
 right hand-INSTR eat-IMP- (2H)

Eat with (your) right hand.

3.3.4 Genitive

The genitive case in Maithili is marked by the case marker -$\leftrightarrow\kappa$ when the noun phrase ends in a consonant, and by -k when it ends in a vowel. The noun phrase in the genitive case basically performs an adjectival function and qualifies the noun to which it bears the case relationship.

The genitive case marker conveys the following semantic notions:

i) Kingship relation, e.g.

14. $\rho\alpha\rho\alpha\text{-}\kappa$ $\beta\epsilon\tau\alpha$
 King-GENT son
 King's son.

ii) Ownership or possession, e.g.

15. $\kappa\alpha\kappa\alpha\text{-}\kappa$ $\kappa\iota\tau\alpha\beta$
 Uncle-GENIT book
 The uncles book.

iii) part-whole relation, e.g.

16. $\rho\omicron\tau\iota\text{-}\kappa$ $\kappa\eta\leftrightarrow\#\rho\alpha$
 bread-GENIT piece
 A piece of bread.

iv) Source, e.g.

17. $\chi\eta\alpha\nu\delta\alpha$ $\varphi\eta\alpha\kappa$ $\rho\alpha\mu\alpha\psi\alpha\nu$
 chanda jha-GENIT Ramayana
 The Ramayana of Chanda Jha

The locative case in Maithili is marked by the use of clitics *me* and *per*. The locative case is basically the in or at case and expresses location. The following discussion illustrates some of the main semantic notions expressed by locative clitics.

Me, 'in'

i) Location within, e.g.

24. $\mu\Theta$ $\gamma\eta\leftrightarrow\rho$ $\mu\epsilon$ $\chi\eta\leftrightarrow\iota\tau\chi\eta$
 mother house LOC be-PRES- (3H)

Mother is inside the house.

ii) price of a thing, e.g.

25. $\chi\alpha\lambda\iota\sigma$ $\tau\alpha\kappa\alpha$ $\mu\epsilon$ $\epsilon\kappa$ $\kappa\iota\lambda\omicron$ $\mu\alpha\chi\eta$
 Forty rupee LOC one kilo fish

Forty rupees for one kilo of fish.

iii) duration, e.g.

26. $\eta\leftrightarrow\mu\leftrightarrow\rho$ $\mu\leftrightarrow\kappa\alpha\nu$ $\epsilon\kappa$ $\sigma\alpha\lambda$ $\mu\epsilon$ $\beta\leftrightarrow\nu\leftrightarrow\lambda$
 I-GENIT house one year LOC make-PST (3NH+1)

My house got constructed in one year's time.

iv) Comparison, e.g.

27. $\beta\eta\alpha\iota$ $\mu\epsilon$ $\phi\epsilon\tau\eta$
 Brother LOC old

The eldest among the brothers.

Per 'at, on'

Per is used to indicate:

i) Location at or on something.

28. $\pi\alpha\eta\upsilon\nu$ $\kappa\upsilon\rho\sigma\iota$ $\pi\leftrightarrow\rho$ $\beta\leftrightarrow\iota\sigma\text{-}\lambda\leftrightarrow\eta$
 Guest chair LOC sit-PST- (3H)

The guest sat on the chair.

ii) point of time and place, e.g.

29. $\tau\alpha\iota\mu$ $\pi\leftrightarrow\rho$ $\beta\eta\omicron\phi\alpha\nu$ $\kappa\epsilon\rho-\upsilon$
 time LOC meal do-IMP- (2H)

Have your meal on time.

iii) aftermath of an action, e.g.

30. $\gamma\epsilon-\lambda\alpha$ $\pi\epsilon\rho$ $\beta\eta\epsilon\#\tau$ $\eta\omicron\epsilon-\tau$
 Go (verbal noun) LOC meeting be-FUT- (3NH + 2H)

You will meet (him) after going (there)

iv) object of mercy, faith, anger, etc.

31. $\gamma\epsilon\rho\iota\beta$ $\pi\leftrightarrow\rho$ $\delta\leftrightarrow\psi\alpha$ $\kappa\epsilon\rho-\upsilon$
 poor LOC mercy do-IMP- (2H)

Be kind to the poor.

From the discussion above mentioned in this section, it seems that Maithili nominal involve a rich case system. They encode three types of case markings: Zero marking, clitics and –a (k) + postposition. Nominative and accusative with non-human nouns are zero marked. Accusative with human nouns, dative, instrumental, locative, ablative employs clitics for case markings and finally genitive case is marked by post position.

IV. Similarities and Differences between Maithili and English Cases

4.1 Introductory Remarks

In this chapter, we made an attempt to show the similarities and differences between Maithili and English cases with recommendations which are discussed below:

4.2 Similarities

Those similarities that are universal in all the language in the world are not supposed to be appropriate to state here. Only other type of similarities typically found in Maithili and English are cited below:

- I) Since case relation is a universal feature, both the languages have case system and a number of cases are found in both languages.

English language has the following cases in term of semantic role of the noun phrase in relation to verb:

Agent, force, instrument, experiencer, source, goal, path, location, possessor, recipient, benefactive, comitative, theme, and patient.

Similarly, the following cases have been identified in Maithili:

Nominative, accusative, instrumental, dative, ablative, genitive and locative.

- II) Nominative case is the Maithili counterpart of English 'Agent'. Equivalence is established between them on the basis of their realizations in both the languages. Let us consider the example:

My sister is cooking rice pudding. (English)

η↔μαρ βαηιν κηιρ βाना ρानालχिηातुि. (Maithili)

My sister- (Nomi)-rice pudding bana-PRES-PROG

My sister is cooking rice pudding.

In the above examples clarified that nominative case is zero-marked in the both languages; in Maithili and in English.

- III) In Maithili and English languages, the cases like agentive and accusative are marked by word order. For example:

English

1. Hari hits Ram
2. Ram hits Hari.

Maithili

3. μαηαραφ δαυρ-λ-αη

King run-PST-(3H)

The king run.

4. ραφα φανακφανακπυρ σαηαρ βασ-λ-↔ινχη

King Janak Janakpur, town, establish PST-(3H)

King Janak established the town of Janakpur.

IV) Some cases can occur without main verb in a sentence in both the language.

English

Maithili

5. Mohan is inside the house.

μοηαν γηερ με χη-↔ιτχη

Mohan house LOC be-PRE

Mohan is inside the house.

6. The parrot is in the cage.

συγα πιηρα με ↔ιχη

Parrot cage LOC be-PRE-(3NH)

The parrot is in the cage.

V) The same case marker can occur with various cases in both the language

English

7. He wrote a letter with pencil (Instrument)

8. He came with his wife (comitative)

Maithili

9. (↔ηα) मोहान के बेफा-उ

You (H) Mohan ACC call-IMP (-2H)

(You (H)) call Mohan (Accusative)

10. वोकेर के भोकेर चि-↔िक (Dative)

Servant DAT fever be-PRE- (3NH+3NH)

The servant has fever.

11. $\mu\Theta$ $\chi\epsilon\kappa\kappa\upsilon$ $\sigma\leftrightarrow\#$ $\alpha\mu$ $\sigma\sigma\eta\text{-}\lambda\text{-}\leftrightarrow\iota\nu\chi\eta$
 Mother knife INST mango peel-PST-(3H)

The mother peeled the mango with a knife.

12. \omicron $\gamma\alpha\chi\eta$ $\sigma\leftrightarrow\#$ $\kappa\eta\epsilon\sigma\text{-}\lambda\alpha\eta$
 he(H) tree ABL fall-PST- (3H)

He fell from the tree.

- VI) In both the languages, the common cases are nominative, accusative, instrumental, ablative, locative and dative.
 VII) In both the languages, the subject is always zero marked and never takes an overt case marker. For example

13. $\eta\alpha\rho\iota$ $\gamma\eta\alpha\rho\text{-}\pi\epsilon\rho$ $\chi\eta\text{-}\leftrightarrow\iota\tau\eta$. (Maithili)
 Hari house (LOC) Aux-(3H)

Hari is at home.

14. Hari is at home. (English)

- VIII) 'Experiencer case' (Dative case) corresponds to syntactic subject in some sentences in both ten language. For example:

Maithili

15. $\beta\alpha\beta\upsilon$ $\kappa\epsilon$ $\beta\omicron\#\kappa\eta\alpha\rho$ $\lambda\alpha\iota\gamma$ $\gamma\epsilon\text{-}\lambda\text{-}\leftrightarrow\iota\nu\chi\eta$
 father DAT fever attach go-PST- (3NH+3NH)

The father caught fever.

EXP (DAT)

SUB

English

16. The father caught fever.

Exp

SUB

4.3 Differences

Though both Maithili and English languages have cases namely, nominative, accusative, dative, instrumental, locative, ablative, there are a number of difference between the two systems;

1. Mainly, two morphological forms, word order and preposition reveal the syntactic relation in English whereas like other South Asian languages, Maithili nominals encode three types of case-marking: zero marking, clitics and (a) + k post-position. They have been illustrated as follows,

In English, both nominative and accusative are marked by word order. e.g.

17. Shyam hits Rahul.

18. Rahul hits shyam.

Mother knife INST mango peel-PST-(3H)

The mother peeled the mango with a knife.

22. ραμεση απαν गा#मु-सा# आि-ल-आη (Ablative)

Ramesh-h- self village -ABLcome-PST-(3H)

Ramesh came from his village.

Dative and Accusative with human noun are marked by the use of clitic –ke.

23. वोकार के# बोकार चि-↔िक (Dative)

Servant DAT fever be-PRE-3NH)

The servant has fever.

24. वोकार घोरा के गिास क्कि-ि-आक (Accusative)

Servant horse ACC grass eat-CAU-PST (3MH+3N)

The servant fed the horse grass.

Genitive case in Maithili is marked by- (a) k + post position.

Examples:

25. गाचि-आक दारि (part-whole relation)

tree-GENIT branch

Branch of tree.

26. च↔न्दा फिा-आक रामायण

Chanda Jha-GENIT Ramayan

Finally, locative case in Maithili is marked by the clitics –me and π↔र.

27. चाुर बोर मे-आचि

rice sack LOC-be-PRES- (3H)

The rice is in the sack.

28. ραμ-φι γηαρ- παρ χηη-αιτη

Ram-H room- LOC-AUX-(3H)

Ram is at home.

2. Case markers appear before nouns in English but they appear after nouns in Maithili.

Examples

English

29. The book is on the table.

30. The trees fell down by the wind.

Maithili

31. πρεμ-φι γηαρ- παρ χηη-αιτη

Prem-H room- LOC-AUX-(3H)

Prem is at home.

3. English makes use of preposition for case markings. On the contrary, Maithili makes use of postposition for the very purpose.

Examples

32. It is windy in Chicago (English)

33. ηαμ κιταβ -ακ -λελ/βαστε αε-ι-χη-λ

I book GEN come PCL AUX-1

I have come for the book.

4. Unlike English, clitics are used for case marking in Maithili.

Example

34. πρεμ-φι κοτηαρι- me χηη-αιτη (Maithili)

Prem-H room- LOC-AUX-(3H)

Prem is in the room. (English)

5. In English the cases patient, theme and experiencer are treated separately.

Examples

35. Ashok dusted the carpet. (patient)
 36. He sent the parcel to Janakpur. (theme)
 37. Tendurkar likes cricket. (Experiencer)

Unlike English, patient, theme and experiencer are treated under accusative-dative.

6. In Maithili, both instrument and ablative make use of the same clitic- $\sigma\alpha\#$.

Examples

38. $\sigma\alpha\delta\iota\kappa\sigma\eta\alpha\pi\epsilon\nu\sigma\iota\lambda-\sigma\alpha\#$ likh- $\lambda-\leftrightarrow\kappa$ (Maithili)

Sadiksha pencil - INS write-PST- 3(NH)

Sadiksha wrote with a pencil.

39. σ $\gamma\alpha\chi\eta$ $\sigma\leftrightarrow\#$ $\kappa\eta\epsilon\sigma-\lambda\alpha\eta$
 he(H) tree ABL fall-PST- (3H)

He fell from the tree.

Unlike Maithili, English makes use of with/by (preposition) to mark instrumental and from for ablative (source).

Examples

Instrumental

40. They cut the thread with a razor blade.
 41. The terrorists killed the soldier with a gun

Ablative

42. Our program lasted from sunset to mid-night.

7. English is an SVO pattern language whereas Maithili is an SOV pattern language.

Example

43. Birkesh wrote with a pencil.

44. बिरकेश पेंसिल-सा# लिख-ल-क (Maithili)

Birkesh pencil - INS write-PST- 3(NH)

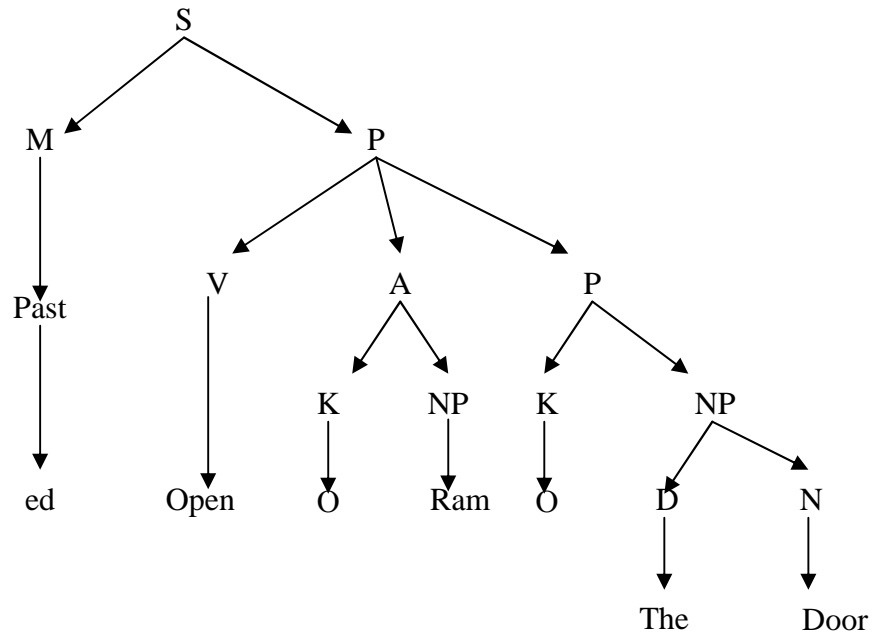
Birkesh wrote with a pencil.

8. In case grammar a sentence is divided into two parts-modality and proposition. In

English the verb occurs at the initial position of the proposition section in the sentences whereas it occurs at the final position in Maithili.

English

45. Ram opened the door.

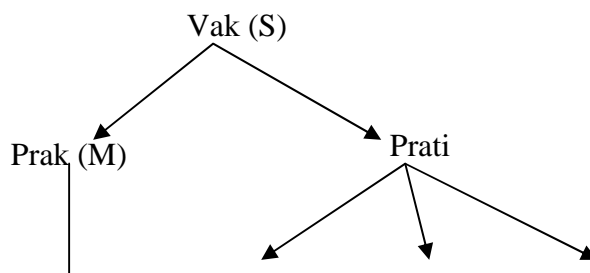


Maithili

46. राम दोका कहोल-क

Ram door open-PST- (3NH)

Ram opened the door.



9. Constituent order is very significant in English. There is special restriction in constituent order in English. Meaning may be reversed if we change the order of the constituents in a sentence. But in Maithili there is no strict restriction except few cases.

English

47. Ram kept the book on the table

Ram on the table the book kept.

The book on the table Ram kept.

Maithili

ραμ ταβλε -παρ κιτααβ ρακηαλακ

Ram table on book keep-PST- 3(NH)

Ram kept the book on the table.

ταβλε -παρ ραμ κιτααβ ρακηαλακ

table on Ram book keep-PST- 3(NH)

Ram kept the book on the table.

10. Cases such as force, goal, path, possessor, recipient, benefactive, comitative and theme are not found in Maithili grammar.

The foregoing analysis reveals that both case system and some cases are common in them. However, the way they are marked is different.

4.4 Recommendations

The following recommendation have been made on the basis of above similarities and differences.

- 1) Case relation is universal in the language of the world whereas case realization is language specific. The case realization in Maithili differs from its realization in English on the basis of the different case marking system of these language.
- 2) English is an S-V-O language whereas Maithili is an S-O-V language. Therefore, special are should be given while dealing with word order.
- 3) English employs prepositions for case marking. In the contrary, Maithili makes use of postposition and word-order for the very purpose. So, attention is required on the part of teachers while dealing with the diametrically opposed stuffs.
- 4) Unlike English case system, Maithili case system makes use of clitics as inflection markers for some cases namely accusative, dative, instrumental, source and locative. Therefore, extra attention has to be paid while teaching these cases.
- 5) The interference of Nepali which I myself realized while doing this thesis, is seen more than that of Maithili in learning English. Thus, the concerned bodies should keep this in their mind.
- 6) Maithili is a pro-drop language which English is not. Therefore, the concerned body should be vigilant while dealing with such an implicit concept in Maithili.
- 7) Case is semantic concept. It is so vague that the research on case is never ending. The deeper we go the deeper it seems to be. The more is remaining to be done in this field.

- 8) So far as the number of the cases is concerned, it is not fixed. 'One case' can be classified into several branches and several cases can be included within one on the basis of their nature of roles in the action or process. Therefore, the number of cases is so flexible that it may be, five, ten, fifteen, twenty or more. Since case is universal concept, whatever the language is, the number of cases is/should not be equal. It does not sound plausible if someone says that Maithili has seven cases whereas English has only thirteen and Hindi has twelve.
- 9) 'Case Grammar' in the present researcher's opinion is the best way of sentence analysis rather than other grammars. It is attractive in many ways.

V. Some Pedagogical Implications of the Study

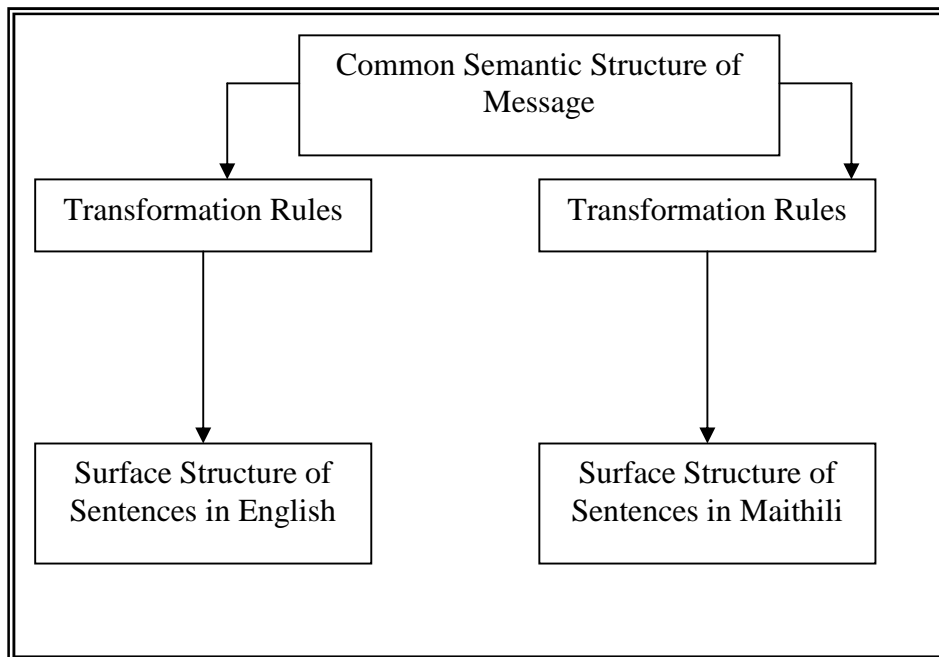
Case Grammar is a grammar of transformational kind. From the point of view of teaching, however, this sort of transformational grammar holds out prospects of great interest. But "the relevance of case grammar to language teaching has not yet been fully explored (Allen and Corder, 1978)." Language teaching normally starts after the learner has already achieved a command of the formation rules or code of this mother tongue.' In doing so he has acquired an 'implicit' knowledge of the nature of human languages. The learner already knows something of what he needs to know before he comes to the classroom. Obviously we need only teach him what he does not yet know of what he needs to know.

Corder discusses about the goal of language teaching. He states that "the object or goal of language teaching is to develop in the learner the knowledge and skills which enable him to play certain roles in another language community, to turn him to performer in the target language, to give him a communicative competence. The language teacher does not teach language, he teaches a particular realization or manifestation of human languages. It is his task to teach a new code. It can be achieved through its use-the formation and speaking rules of the target language (1973)". It is mentioned above that in teaching this new code the relevance or implication of Case Grammar has not yet been fully explored. The present researcher has now felt difficulty to establish or explore the pedagogical implications of Case Grammar. But on the basis of findings, the researcher would like to suggest the following pedagogical implication of the study.

When we teach or learn a second language we are concerned with expressing meanings. Since the rules of constructing message are indeed universal to all languages. Then the learners do not have to learn those rules they already know them.

What the teachers have to teach and the learners have to acquire is a partially new set of transformational rules which relate the known deep structure of the messages to the unknown structure of the targeted language. That is to say, the Maithili learners of English and the English learners of Maithili as well as English and Maithili teachers do not have to learn and teach respectively the rules of languages which are universal and should teach and learn a partially new set of transformational rules which help the learner learn the target language. The comparison of case marking in English and Maithili shows the two sets of different or partially different transformation rules.

Figure



There are two types of meaning in the utterances of the speaker – 'prepositional' meaning and 'situational' meaning. Optional transformations enable us to distinguish between these two types of meaning. 'Propositional' meaning which is concerned with the logical relationship of words to each other and 'situational' meaning which reflects the speaker's ability to emphasize one part of the proposition rather than another, thus expressing his attitude to the propositional content of the

utterances. So the teachers teaching English as a second language (L₂) and the teachers teaching Maithili as a second language (L₂) can describe the relationship 'propositional and situational' meaning in terms of transformational model of grammar in which the propositional meaning of a sentence is equivalent to its deep structure. The deep structures that converted into a surface structure by transformation which reorders structural items (Allen and Corder, 1978).

In English the roles and relations of the constituents in a sentence are expressed by word order and prepositions whereas in Maithili, they are expressed by postpositions. Prepositions occur before the noun and postposition occur after the noun. While teaching roles and relations of the constituents in sentences the teachers of the languages should focus on these particular language items and teach in a way that the learners can easily grasp the roles and relations of the constituents of deep structure and can associate the equivalent meaning in both the languages.

In Maithili the verbs get inflected according to sex and honorific grade but English does not have such system. The English and Maithili teachers teaching English and Maithili respectively as a second language should focus on these language items give the learners this concept so that they could understand the system of these two languages easily.

English is an SVO patterned language whereas Maithili is SOV patterned languages. In English the verb appears just after the 'actor' in the initial position whereas it appears finally in Maithili. This sort of surface structural position of verb in these two languages possess difficulty for the learners. Though the deep structure of both the languages is same, the surface realization are different. The teachers of both the languages should concentrate well on this concept while teaching so that the L₂ learners can easily understand sentence pattern of both the languages.

English has article system which Maithili lacks. The articles in English function as determiner. In Maithili demonstrative pronoun which agree with noun in number function as determiner. The teacher who teaches English as a foreign language to the Maithili learners should give the concept of article system clearly associating with the function of demonstrative pronoun as determiners in Maithili. In the same way the teacher who teaches Maithili as L₂ to the native English speakers, should teach demonstrative pronoun comparing them with English article system and their agreement with the nouns in meaningful situation.

Constituent order is very significant in English. There is special restriction in constituent order in English. If we change the order of the constituent in a sentence randomly, the meaning may be reversed. But Maithili doesn't have such restriction except some cases. The teacher teaching English as a foreign language to the Maithili learners should pay attention while teaching constituent order. He/she should give the concept of restriction in word order in English and make the learners careful to prevent the mother tongue interference.

Maithili is a pro-drop language, which English is not, i.e. pronoun in the subject position in Maithili language can be dropped but it cannot be dropped in English. So, it may create problem in the learning of case. So both English and Maithili learners should pay attention towards this matter. Unlike English case system, Maithili case system makes use of clitics as inflectional markers for some cases namely accusative, dative, instrumental, source and locative. Therefore, extra attention has to be paid while teaching these cases.

VII. Conclusion

The present research has incorporated the major findings regarding similarities and differences between English and Maithili case system. In both the language case is marked differently with the help of different case marker.

In English case system, nominative case is zero marked which is also similar in Maithili. Accusative case in Maithili is marked by –ke if head is animate, but use no case marker if head is inanimate but accusative case in English is marked by word order. In English case system, possessive case indicates ownership which is also found in Maithili. In English, it is marked with apostrophe ('s), belongs to, in Maithili, case marker –ak is used if NP ends in consonant sound, and –k is used if NP ends in a vowel sound. Case marker comes as a post modifier both in English and Maithili. Locative, Dative and Instrumental express same semantic notion. Case markers such as (me/per) for Locative, (ke) for and (sa) for Instrumental are used. There are similarities in both Maithili and English case system in terms of semantic notion.

One of the differences that lie in English and Maithili case is that the way the cases are realized. Maithili makes use of zero marking, use of clitics and postposition whereas English employs word order and preposition. Another noteworthy point is constituent order. There is special restriction in constituent order in English. Meaning may be reversed if we change the order of the constituent in a sentence whereas there is no restriction except few cases. Articles like a, an, the are the determiners that exists before the head word, but article does not exist in Maithili.

We find many similarities and differences, so we cannot claim universality or commonality between English and Maithili language. One cannot claim to know English and its syntactically driven rules when he or she is Maithili speaker. Similarly, English speaker cannot know the internal structure and linguistic

habituation until he or she tries deliberately to learn that language. Target language has difference though have many resemblances. There is possibility of intervention of speaker's mother tongue in target language. It is this intervention which makes Maithili speaker using English language differently than that of English native speaker.

For English speaker, Maithili is a secondary language, whereas for Maithili speaker, English is secondary language. They cannot acquire each other's language easily as there is much gap between them in terms of rules and pronunciation as well as its relevance to their cultural significance. Though there are similarities in semantic pattern, it is not quite easy for Maithili speaker to learn English language. It needs great labour and devotion for Maithili speaker to learn English language and English speaker to learn Maithili language.

Maithili learners of English only tend to goof around English case. They are influenced by the pull of the mother-tongue. The error is caused because of the influence of the mother-tongue.

This study is preliminary attempt to show similarities and differences between case system in English and Maithili. Still it needs further research concentrating on other area of grammar to test validity of the findings of the present research. Although this research is very small and limited and has not covered the area what is needed, it will certainly, as I hope, be helpful for further works in the Maithili and English language.

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