

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 General Background

Language is a means of communication. It is a social phenomenon by means of which one can express one's ideas, thoughts, feelings, emotions, likes, dislikes, anger, etc. That is why it can be claimed that language has made us different from other living beings. Therefore, if there is no language there is no difference between human beings and other species in the universe. The history, literature, culture, achievements of human being are transmitted from one generation to another, from past to the present, through the medium of language. Lannenbergl (1967, p. 2) says, "Language is 'species-specific' and 'species-uniform ' possession of man". No species other than human beings have been endowed with language. Animals cannot acquire language because of its complex structures and their physical inadequacies. It is completely different from animal communication.

Generally, language is defined as a voluntary vocal system of human communication. It is defined by various linguists in various ways. To Richards et al. (1985, p. 153), "Language is the system of human communication by means of structured arrangement of sounds to form larger units" In Chomsky's (1957, p. 13) words, "A language is set of sentences, each finite in length and constructed out of a finite set of elements." Similarly, Wardhaugh (1986, p. 3) says, "Language is a system of arbitrary vocal symbols used for human communication." Similarly, Hull (1968, p. 158) says, "Language is the institution whereby human communicates and interacts with each other by means of habitually used oral auditory arbitrary symbols". Crystal (2003) says, "Language is concrete act of speaking, writing or signing in a given situation"(p. 255).

When we compare and elaborate these definitions, we find that no one can give an exact, comprehensive and satisfactory definition of language. It is, so far as we know, the unique gift to human beings. Every normal human being uses language in his/her daily activities. A man can speak more than one language if his society is multilingual. There are so many languages existing in the world. Language is a universal medium which makes people understand messages and keeps them closer. Language has personal and social views because it is affected by person, society, ethnicity and geographical boundaries. A language exists until there are people who speak it as a native language.

1.1.1 The English Language and its Importance

English is the most prestigious lingua franca in the world. It has already been accepted as the global language. It is regarded as the main international language. It is becoming one of the most important and powerful languages in this modern age. It is one of the dominant languages of the world and also the language of the UNO. It is emerging and becoming popular day by day because of international trades, business, and modern technologies. According to the American Heritage Dictionary, English is the language of Indo-European family. "It belongs to the West Germanic sub-branch of the Germanic branch. It is spoken by about 300 million people in the world as a native language and second or foreign language" (Yule, 1996 p. 214). Now it is regarded as an indispensable vehicle of the transmission of the modern civilization across the countries. It is the English language through which vast stores of knowledge, advanced technology, scientific advancement are explored and inferred. It is the medium of world relationship, world instruction and tremendous progress. Wren (1989, p. 202) says,

The vast expansion of English culture and commercial influence in many parts of the world, together with the more recent dominance of

the material civilization of the United States of America has suggested to many that English might well become the international auxiliary language of the world.

Crystal (1988) states, "English is the mother tongue of more than 300 million people in the universe. Similarly, 3000 million people use English as a second language and merely 100 million people speak English as a foreign language." The above explanation clearly shows the importance of the English language for the developing countries in the present time. Countries that have English as the national language are far more ahead in trade, business and modern technologies. Most of the important books of the world are written in English. So, it is very important for the developing nations like Nepal to know English to develop themselves.

1.1.2 The Languages of Nepal

Nepal is a landlocked country. It is a home for complete cultural diversity and linguistic plurality. Nepal is multilingual, multicultural, multiracial and multireligious country. It is multilingual in the sense that different languages are spoken from Mechi to Mahakali zones. According to the population census 2001, there are more than ninety three languages spoken in Nepal. Some languages have not been discovered yet and they are still hidden. The Ethnologue Report for Nepal 2009 records 126 languages. Among them, most of the languages have not their own written scripts. They exist only in spoken form. Nepali is the national language of Nepal and it is used in administration, education, mass media, public affairs, etc. It is also used as a lingua franca throughout the country and has large number of speakers. It is also spoken in India, Bhutan and Burma. It is spoken by about more than three million people outside Nepal. It is officially used in some parts of India. It is taught as a compulsory subject in the schools of Darjeeling. It

is used as the language of administration in Sikkim. In Sikkim, nearly 93 percent of the total population speaks the Nepali language. It is equally used in education, broadcasting, etc. In Bhutan, the Nepali language is used in the governmental administration, telecasting and broadcasting. In the case of our country, the Nepali language is used in administration, sports, mass media etc. It is used as the medium of instruction for the primary school children.

All the languages identified in Nepal are classified under the following four families:

1.1.2.1 Indo-Aryan Family

The following languages are spoken in Nepal under this family

Angika	Hindi	Nepali
Awadhi	Jumli	Palpa
Bagheli	Kayort	Rajbansi
Bengali	Kumauni	Sonha
Bhojpuri	Kumhali	Tharu-chitwana
Bote-Majhi	Kurmukar	Tharu-Dangaura
Darai	Maithali	Tharu-Kathoriya
Dhanwar	Majhi	Tharu-Kochila
Marwari	Musasa	Tharu-Rana

Source: Ethnologue Report for Nepal, 2009

1.1.2.2 Tibeto-Burman

The following languages are spoken in Nepal under this family:

Athpariya	Khaling	Puma
Bahing	Kham, Shashi	Raji
Bantawa	Koi	Raute
Baraumu	Kulung	Rawat
Belhariya	Kyerung	Saam
Bodo	Lambichhong	Sampang
Bujhal	Lepcha	Seke
Byangsi	Lhomi	Sherpa
Canling	Kham Ghale	Sunwar
Chyantyal	Limbu	Tamang, Eastern
Chaudangsi	Lingkhim	Tamang, Eastern, Gorkha
Chepang	Lorong, Northern	Tamang North Western
Chhintange	Lorong, Southern	Tamang South Western
Chhulung	Lowa	Tamang Western
Chukwa	Lumba, Yakkha	Thakali
Darmiya	Magar, Eastern	Thangmi
Dhimal	Magar, Western	Thudam
Dolpo	Manangha	Thulung
Dumr	Meohang Eastern	Tibetan
Dungmali	Meohang Western	Tichurong
Dzongkha	Mugon	Tilung
Ghale, Kutang	Naoda	Tomyang
Ghale, Northern	Nahiering	Tseku
Ghale, Southern	Narphu	Tsum
Gurung Eastern	Newari	Walungge
Gurung Western	Nubri	Wambule
Halambu Sherpa	Parbat, Eastern	Wayu
Humla	Parbat, Western	Yakha
Jerung	Phangduwli	Yamphe
Jirel	Pongyong	Yamphu
Kagate	Kaike	

Source: Ethnologue Report for Nepal, 2009

1.1.2.3 Dravidian Family

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

1.1.2.4 Austro-Asiatic

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

Including all, there are 126 languages. But only 123 languages are used as the means of communication. Three languages: Dura, Kusunda and Waling have already been extincted. All these dead languages also come under the giant family, i.e. Tibeto Burman family.

1.1.3 Dialect

The use of language varies according to place, time, group of people, topics of subject matter and situation. The variation in the use of language according to place, time, and people is called dialect. Dialects are simply linguistic varieties which are distinguishable in vocabulary, grammar and pronunciation. Wardhaugh (1998, p. 10) classifies dialects into two types viz. regional and social dialect. According to him regional dialects are language varieties which are different in terms of pronunciation, choice and forms of words and in syntax. Similarly, he says that social dialects are used to describe differences in speech associated with various social groups and classes. Crystal (2003, p. 136) says, "Dialect is a regionally or socially distinctive variety of language identified by a particular set of words and grammatical structures". In fact, dialect is a non-standard variety of languages. Dialect is the form of a language used in a part of country or by a class of people with grammar, words and pronunciation that might be different from other forms of the same languages. It is such a variety language that tells

something about or identifies the speaker or the user of the language. Therefore, it is said that a dialect betrays the personality of the speaker of the language.

1.1.4 The Doteli Dialect of the Nepali Language

There is no any concrete demarcation line to differentiate a dialect from a language. To be dialect or language is the matter of politics and cultural power. This is relative concept. Dialects are dialects not because of linguistic reasons but because of political or cultural reasons. The Doteli dialect is one of the dialects among different western dialects of Nepali i.e. Bajhangi, Baitadi, Doteli, Bajurali, Soradi, Acchami and Darjula (Ethnologue Report for Nepal, 2009) which is spoken in western part of Nepal.

Before the unification of Nepal, Doti regime was the regime of special importance. In the middle age, in the time of Baise and Chaubise Rajya, different regional dialects were separated and Doteli also appeared as a one of the dialects and became different from the standard Nepali language. At that time, it was called the 'Malla Language' whereas the 'Sinja Language' in Sinja Puri. It got the status of the Royal Language during the Malla regime.

According to Chataut (2058), "Doteli dialect is considered as the oldest form of Nepali as it is closer to the area of Sinjali dialect of Nepali" (p.25). Sinjali is the language of Karnali zone which is considered as the birth place of Nepali. The study of language expert namely Bal Krishna Pokhrel tells us that the Nepali language has five dialectic variations: *Purbeli, Majhali Orpaschima, Majhpaschima and Parpaschima* (2055). The Doteli dialect comes under Majhpaschima. This dialect has different vocabularies, grammatical structures and pronunciation which are 50 percent similar to the Nepali language. Moreover, this dialect is directly influenced by the Parparpaschima and Singali didlects as well as the Kumauni language spoken in the Uttaranchal State of India. A dictionary of Doteli dialect namely 'Doteli Vrihat Sabdakosh' has been prepaed by R.D. Chataut in 2057 B.S.

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 verb in a sentence. Almost all the grammatical terms have their origin in Greek and Latin grammars. So is the case of the term 'case'. Among different traditional schools of philosophy and logic, the Stoics, a school of Greek philosophy gave a particular sense to this term. In Greek tradition, Dionysius Thrax mentioned parts of speech as noun, verb, adjective, adverb in his grammar. He was also devoted to the study of case. He described case in terms of inflections of nouns (Asher, 1994 p. 447).

Anderson (1977) says that the term case was traditionally employed to refer both to certain inflection categories that are added to nouns and to the set of syntactic and or semantic distinctions carried by the forms of category (as cited in Adhikari, 2001, p. 7).

The case is a grammatical category, associated primarily with nouns and pronouns, which registers the syntactic relations between words in a sentence. In inflectional languages, nouns have a range of variant forms with suffixes marking the various cases, as in Latin *mensa* ('table', nominative), *mensam* (accusative) and *mensae* (genitive). The cases have important grammatical functions: the nominative typically identifies a word that is the subject of a sentence; the accusative marks the object; while the genitive marks the possessor of something. Some languages have many case forms: Finish, for example, has fifteen (The Cambridge Encyclopedia, 1990, p. 223).

The above definitions define case only as syntactic relations among words in a sentence which seems defective. There should also be semantic roles in deep structure level.

From the traditional grammarian's point of view, case is the relation in which a noun stands to some other words, or the change of the form by which this relation is indicated. Different morphosyntactic forms that mark cases are inflections, prepositions, postpositions, word order, intonation affixation, suppletion, etc.

Traditional grammarians proposed the following cases:

1. Nominative: It marks the subject
Ram saw Sita.
2. Accusative: The object of transitive verb.
He hit *the dog*.
3. Genitive: It expresses possession semantically
Ram's book.
4. Dative: Indirect object (Receiver)
Ram gave a book to *Sita*.
5. Locative: Adverb of place
He was standing *on the table*.
6. Instrument: He cut it *with a knife*.
7. Vocative: Express address semantically
Ram ! You Come here.
8. Comitative: Accompaniment
He came with *his wife*.
9. Ablative: Removal / Source
He fell down *from the tree*.

Some grammarians use all nine, some eight (without the comitative), and some five (without the comitative, ablative, locative and instrument). But there are only two cases left in modern English: a common case, where the noun has no ending at all, and the genitive. The genitive is formed by adding an '-s' to the singular form of the noun. In writing, this appears with a preceding apostrophe: the dog's food. With most plural forms, an '-s' ending is already present. So, the written form just adds a following sign (-s') : the dogs' food (Crystal, 1995, p. 202).

During 1960, although Chomsky (1965) brought a revolution in the area of grammar, he has limited his analysis upto only syntactic level in terms of surface and deep structure. So, Fillmore, an American linguist, made an endeavor to rectify deficiencies of Chomsky a model of grammar and later on he emerged with case grammar, the grammar based on semantic relation of NPs with verbs in sentences. Fillmore (1968, p. 24) defines case as:

... the case notions comprise a set of universal, presumably innate concepts which identify certain types of judgements human beings are capable for 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 relationship (underlying syntactic-semantic relationship) which may or may not manifest itself in the form of morphosyntactic markers on the surface.

Fillmore (1968/71 p. 24-25) lists the following cases:

1. Agentive

It is the doer or instigator of an action denoted by the predicate. e.g.

John opened the door.

The door was opened *by John*.

2. Dative

Dative is the case of the animate being affected by the state or action identified by the verb. e.g.

John believed that *he* would win.

She gave *the cat* a dish of milk.

3. Factitive

Factitive case is 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. e.g.

The carpenter made *a table*.

The dynamo produces *heat*.

4. Instrumental

Instrumental case is the case of the inanimate force or object causally involved in the action or state identified by the verb. e.g.

The boy opened the door *with the key*.

The boy used *the key* to open the door.

5. Locative

Locative is the case which identifies the location or spatial orientation of the state or action identified by the verb. e.g.

Chicago is windy.

It is windy *in Chicago*.

6. Objective

Objective case is the semantically most neutral case, the case of anything representable by noun whose role in the action or state identified by the verb is identified by the semantic interpretation of the verb itself. e.g.

Joseph opened *the door*.

The door opened.

7. Benefactive

The noun or noun phrase that refers to the person or animal who benefits or is meant to benefit from the action of the verb is in the benefactive case e. g.

He called *me* a taxi.

She cooked *her husband* a good meal.

8. Comitative

Comitative case indicates the notion of togetherness and the preposition operating as the marker of this case means 'and'. e.g.

He is coming *with his wife*.

He and *his wife* are coming.

9. Time

It refers to the temporal orientation of the predicate in a sentence, e.g.

He made a new house *last year*.

World Health Organization was established *on 7th April, 1947*.

10. Source

Source refers to the case of place from which something moves, e.g.

I came from Dhankuta.

11. Goal

Goal refers to the case of place to which something moves, e.g.

Harry went *to school*.

Mrs Sharma arrived *at the store* to buy cosmetics.

Aarts (1997) has discussed cases in terms of thematic roles. His opinion is that each argument carries at most thematic role. He advocates that linguists do not agree how many they are. However, the following thematic roles are widely accepted: agent, patients, theme, experiences, goal, benefactive, source, instrument, locative.

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

Morphological forms	Case
By	agent
of, to	patient
with, by	instrument
to, for	benefactive
from	source
to, into, until, towards	goal
in, at, on, near, around, beyond	locative

1.1.6 Cases in the Nepali Language

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

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

Cases	Symbols	Case ending
karta (Agent)	le, bata	prathama (1st)
karma (Patient)	kana, lai	dwitiya (2nd)
karan (Instrument)	le, द्वारा	tritiya (3rd)
sampradan (Dative)	lai, लागि	chaturthi (4th)
apadan (Ablative)	dekhi, bata	panchami (5th)
sambandha (Gentitive)	ko, ka, ki, ro, ra ri, no, na, ni	sasthi (6th)
adhikaran (Locative)	ma, mathi	saptami (7th)
sambodhan (Vocative)	hae, oo, yae	sambodhan

The above table shows that traditional Nepali cases have clear case markers. In Nepali, case markers are those postposition, which are attached with the nominals and show different case relations associated with the verb in a sentence.

Adhikari (1995), a linguist of the Nepali language, in his book entitled 'Nepali Karak Vyakarna', a latest and comprehensive work in the Nepali case grammar, has proposed the following fourteen cases in the Nepali language:

1. Abhikarta (Agentive)

Abhikaryako bhumika line sahablhagilai abhikarta bhaninchha. Yasma kriyaka karayako soichchaya purbak niyamakatto tatha nispadakatto nihit hunchha (p. 47).

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

For example,

Ramle methai khaya.

Ram ate sweet.

Hari Ramdwara pitiyo

Hari was beaten by Ram.

2. Parwartya (Affected)

Parwartanko bhumika line athawa karyabata rupakar tatha sthithima asar wa antar darsauni sahabhagilai parwartya maninchha (p. 71).

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

For example,

Harile kurchi bhachyo

Hari broke the chair.

Usle *bana* masyo
He destroyed the Jungle.

3. Parinami (Resultative)

Parinamanko bhumika line wa kriyaka karyabata partifalit hune sababhagilai parinami maninchha (p. 77).

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

For example,

Bimalale *sweater* buni
Bimala knitted sweater.
Harile *photo* khichyo.
Hari took photo.

4. Nirapakchya (Neutral)

Appravawanko bhumika line sahabhagi nirapakchya maninchha. Yesto sahabhagi karyadwara apravabit tatha aparibartit bhayapani ukta karyako bisaya banne hunchha (p. 85).

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

For example,

Usle *birami* kuryo
He looked after the patient.
Ramle *din* bitayo
Ram spent the day.

5. Aanubhawak (Experiencer)

Manasik kriya wa annubhawansanga sambaddha awastha wa karyako bhoktalai aanubhawak manichha (p. 88).

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

For example,

Harile hisab Jango

Hari understood maths.

Shyamle himal dekhyo

Shyam saw mountain.

6. Aanuprapak (Recipient)

Aanuprapanko bhumikaline athawa bhautik sharirik prakriyaka asharprati grahansil aebam abhimukh chatandharmi karak aanuprapak maninchha (p. 91).

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

For example,

Harile shyamlai kutyo

Hari bit shyam.

Babule choralai hakaryo

Father reproached to son.

7. Sattatmak (Essive)

Karyako abchalan najanaune tatha aanugaman janaune sahabhagilai yahan sattatmak maniyakochha. Yasto sahabhagita abasthitik kriyama wakta bhayako painchha (p. 102).

It is the case which indicates stativeness of existence identified by the verb. The stativeness is expressed through stative verb used in a sentence. For example,

Hari biddwan ho

Hari is an intellectual fellow.

Yo Pustak ho

This is a book.

8. Adhikaran (Locative)

Kriyadwara abhihit aarthaka karayako esthanic aebam kalik adhar wa abhimukhatalai adhikaran bhaninchha (p. 108).

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

For example,

Hari *khatma* basyo

Hari sat on the couch.

Shyam *sahartira* dulyo

Shyam walked towards city.

9. Karan (Instrument)

Abhikarta was annubhabakko sahakari bhai aaune sahabhagilai yahan karan maniyako chha (p. 116).

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

For example,

Motorle balaklai kichyo

Motor runover to the child.

Usle *dahine kanle* aawaj sunchha

He didn't listen any sound with right ear.

10. Hetu (cause)

Karayako paridhiya shakti wa udasin karan bhai aaune sahabhagilai hetu maniyako chh. (p. 124).

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

For example,

Hawale batti nivyo.

The air went out the lamp.

Chisale kutta suniyo

Feet were swelled by cold.

11. Apadan (Ablative)

Karyako bighatan/bichhadan wa aarambha bindu janaune sahabhagilai yahan apadan maniyako chha (p. 132).

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

For example,

Dokabatta suntala khasyo

Orange fell down from basket.

Charo *rukhabata* udyo

Bird flew from tree.

12. Lavak (Benefactive)

Kunai satwaktwara lavanwithune sahabhagilai yahan lavak maniyako chha (p. 189).

The case of animate beings that are benefited in some ways from the action identified by the verb.

For example,

Sitale *bhailai* sweater bunin

Sita knitted sweater to brother.

Bimalle *shyamlai* kalam diyo

Bimal gave a pen to Shyam.

13. Paryojaniya (Purposive)

Karyako paryojan wa nimittartha janaune sahabhagi paryojaniya maninchh
(p.146).

The case of something that indicates the purpose of an activity.

For example,

Usle *fohorlai* khalto khanyo

He dug the pit for wastage.

U *paisalai* gharghar dulyo

He visited for money house to house.

14. Saharthak (Comitative)

Eautai karyama saman bhayaka eakbhanda badhi namikpadharuko sahatmak
samlagnatalai yahan saharthak maniyako chha (p. 150).

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

For example,

Hari *shyamsang* daudanchha

Hari runs with shyam.

Usle dudhsanga bhat khayo

He ate rice with milk.

Adhikari (1995) has classified above mentioned cases into two categories namely. central (nuclear, i.e. 1-7) and peripheral (non-nuclear, i.e. 8-14); central cases mean the cases which are determined on the basis of the functional characteristics of the verb. And peripheral cases are those, which are not directly associated with the functional characteristics of the verb but they take part as peripheral participants for the action in some way identified by the verb.

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

1.1.7 Need and Importance of Contrastive Analysis

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

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

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

system or the grammatical system". Thus, CA can be used for comparing any levels of the two languages.

As given in Richards et al. (1985), CA hypothesis is based on the following assumptions.

- i. The main difficulties in learning a new language are caused by interference from the first language.
- ii. These differences can be predicted.
- iii. CA helps in designing teaching materials for the particular areas of interference.

Contrastive analysis is one important in the field of language teaching and learning, though its scope has been declined after 1970s. In this field, CA serves two functions, (i) to predict the possible errors of L₂ learners and (ii) to explain the sources and reasons of those errors. CA helps a teacher to find the areas of differences difficulties while teaching an L₂. Likely, a teacher can find the sources and reasons of errors in the performance of the students. A teacher having the knowledge of CA can treat his/her students psychologically and academically. Therefore, the findings of CA would be useful for course designers, teachers, examiners and students. This is why CA is important from pedagogical view point.

1.2 Review of the Related Literature

Research is carried out on the foundation of the previous study. The previous study proves to be guidelines for the later ones. There are still many topics or problems which need to be studied. The related literature review can be presented as below:

Fillmore (1968) studied the case and produced his seminal paper entitled "The Case for Case'. He has proposed six main cases in English and defined them as semantic roles associated with deep structure level. It is that concept which is

determined from the relation between nouns or noun phrases with the verb used in the sentence. Similarly, Blake (1994), on his book entitled 'Case', has discussed the case from all the aspects viz. morphosyntactic, syntactic and semantic. He has dealt both cases dealt by traditional grammarians and modern semanticists like Fillmore, Anderson, etc. He has also mentioned the problems in describing case systems.

Some of the research works carried out on the case under the Department of English education are discussed as below:

Bhattarai (2001) carried out a research on 'Case in English and Nepali: A Comparative Study'. His main objectives were to find out the similarities and differences between the Nepali and English case systems and to identify morphological and syntactic features of the case of both English and Nepali languages. His findings are: that the same case marker can occur with various cases in both languages, If there is only one case in a sentence, it automatically becomes the subject in both languages and the verb appears at the beginning of the preposition section of the sentence in English but it appears at the end in Nepali. Similarly, Adhikari (2001) carried out a research on 'Case Realization in English and Nepali: A Comparative Study'. His study concentrated on the similarities and differences in case realizations between these languages. The result shows that: English is a 'nominative-accusative' kind of language whereas Nepali is an ergative -absolute type of language the same case marker can occur with various cases in both languages.

Karn (2004) has carried out a research on 'A Comparative Study of Cases in Maithili and English'. The main purpose of this research was to identify and analyze case in Mathili and to compare Maithili cases with English cases. The researcher found out that the Mailhili language had: nominative, accusative, instrumental, dative, ablative, genitive and locative cases. Likewise, Rosyara

(2007) carried out a research work entitled "Pronominals in English and Doteli Dialect of Nepali." She had found that: The Doteli dialect has more number of pronouns than English, There is the existence of honorific and non-honorific pronouns for the second and third person personal, reflective and possessive pronouns in doteli, which is not found in English. English has more indefinite pronouns than Doteli. Demonstrative pronouns of both the languages are similar because both of them have equal number of pronouns for far, near and singular, plural. English has the same form of relative and interrogative, pronouns but Doteli has different forms of interrogative and relative pronouns.

In the same way, Jora (2007) has carried out a research entitled "Passivization in English and Doteli: A Comparative Study." He has found that: in Doteli, the structure root verb + i (PM) is used to passivise the active sentence. The grammatical functions as subject and object are not changed in Doteli but they are changed in the English language. The active forms are passivized inflectionally in Doteli but they are passivized phrasally in English. In Doteli transitive and intransitive verbs can be passivized but in English only transitive verbs can be passivized. 'na' and 'ya' in Doteli are the equivalent markers with 'being' and 'been' in English.

So far no comparative study has been carried out to find out the similarities and differences between English, Nepali and Doteli. Therefore, I became interested to identify and describe case in Doteli and to find out similarities and differences between case systems of Doteli and the English language.

1.3 Objectives of the Study

This study had the following objectives.

- i. To find out the cases in Doteli.
- ii. To find out similarities and differences between Doteli, Nepali and English cases.
- iii. To suggest some pedagogical implications.

1.4 Significance of the Study

This study will be valuable work for the department itself in the sense that no research has been carried out yet on the topic of case in Doteli, Nepali and English. The proposed study will provide wider knowledge about Doteli case system. Since case marker is language specific, it will be duly helpful for the students, teachers, textbook writers, syllabus designers and methodologists. It will be beneficial for those people who are directly or indirectly involved in teaching learning activities.

CHAPTER TWO

METHODOLOGY

This research followed the following methodology to achieve the objectives.

2.1 Sources of Data

The study made use of both primary and secondary sources of data equally.

2.1.1 Primary Sources of Data

The native speakers of the Doteli Dialect from Jogbuda and Shirsha VDCs of Dadeldhura district were the primary source from whom I collected the required data for the research.

2.1.2 Secondary Sources of Data

The secondary sources were different articles, related grammar, various books, journals, magazines, internet, theses and other related materials to the topic. For example, Fillmore (1968), Aarts (1997), Adhikari (1995), Bhattarai (2001), Karn (2004), Chaudhary (2005), Tharu (2001), Jora (2007) and Rosyara (2007).

2.2 Sampling and Sampling Procedure

The total sample of the study consisted of eighty native speakers of Doteli dialect. I took forty literate (male and female) respondents from each VDC by using Judgmental sampling procedure .

2.3 Research Tools

A set of questionnaire was used as a research tool for the data collection. English sentences were used as the reference for data collection and to facilitate understanding, corresponding Nepali sentences were also used (see appendix II).

2.4 Process of Data Collection

To collect the primary data, the following procedure was adopted:

- i. I went to the field and built rapport with concerned people.
- ii. Then, I explained to the respondents about the purpose of the study and significance of the study.
- iii. Then, I administered the prepared questionnaire to elicit the required data.
- iv. For the data of Nepali and English cases, I used only secondary sources.

2.5 Limitations of the Study

The study had the following limitations

- a. The study was confined to Doteli speakers of Jogbuda and Shirsh VDCs of Dadeldhura District.
- b. Eighty native speakers of Doteli dialect were selected.
- c. This study focused on the comparison and contrast between Doteli, Nepali and English cases.
- d. The study was limited especially to agentive, instrumental, dative, factitive, comitative, ablative/source, goal, locative, objective, benefactive based on Fillmore (1968, 1971) and others.
- e. Nepali cases were taken from Adhikari (1995).
- f. The work was descriptive in nature.

CHAPTER THREE

ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION OF DATA

As this chapter is the body of the thesis, it deals with analysis and interpretation of the data. The data obtained from the informants have been analyzed and interpreted descriptively with the help of simple statistical tools like tables and illustrations. The data have been analyzed and English, Nepali and Doteli case systems have been compared using illustration. Therefore, this chapter consists of two sections; identification and analysis of case in the Doteli dialect and similarities and differences between English, Nepali and Doteli case systems.

3.1 Identification and Analysis of Cases in the Doteli Dialect

The data regarding the case system in the Doteli dialect have been analyzed and interpreted in terms of the following cases:

- Agentive case
- Dative case
- Factitive case
- Instrumental case
- Locative case
- Objective case
- Benefictine case
- Comitative case
- Source/Abloative case
- Goals case

3.1.1 Agentive Case

Agentive case refers to the case of any animate being that performs some action by means of its own energy or volition.

In the Doteli dialect, it has been found that agentive case is marked by the case markers *le*, *dwara*, *bati*, *bata*, *badhei*, *batehai*, *batahai*, *puta* and sometimes marked by zero (Φ) case marker also. For, example,

Prem - le delo ugadyo.

Prem - AGN door opened.

Prem opened the door.

Prem-dwara/bati/batahai/batehai/bata delo ugadiyo.

Prem-AGN door opened.

The door was opened *by prem*.

Kukur - Φ bhukyo.

Dog - AGN barked.

The dog barked.

Sarkar - le sukumbasilai jagga bādyo.

Governemnt - AGN landless land distributed.

Government distributed the land to landless.

Hamun- Φ hāsyauñ.

We - AGN laughed.

We laughed.

3.1.2 Dative Case

Dative is also the case of animate being. It is affected by the state or action identified by the verb. Sometimes, this case is also considered as the case of indirect object (IO) in a sentence.

In the Doteli dialect, dative case is marked by the case markers - *lai*, *lakha*, *lekhi*, *lekhai*, *lyakhilai* and sometimes by *zero* case marker. For example,

Tanle *billa - lai* ek thalo dudh dinchhein.

She cat - *DAT* a dish milk give.

She gives *the cat* a dish of milk.

Uile *mu-lai* kita diyo.

He me - *DAT* book gave.

He gave me a book.

Tanle tinari *bainiki-lakha/lai/lekha/lekhai/lyakhilai* ek kalam kinyo.

She her sister - *DAT* a pen bonght.

She bought a pen *for her sister*.

Uile ek kitab *mu-lai* diy.

He book me-*DAT* gave

He gave a book *to me*.

Jankya Φ bajjardekhi trasyo.

Janak - *DAT* lightening frightened.

Janak was frightend of lightening.

3.1.3 Factitive Case

Factitive is the case of inanimate things which is created or carried out by the action identified by the verb. It is the result of an action or state which is understood as the part of the meaning of the verb. In the Doteli dialect, factitive case is marked by some case markers or postpositions such as *ma, mani, mai, lai* and sometimes by the *zero* case marker. For example,

Prem *chitra - ma/mai/lai* ranga launchha.

Prem picture - *FAC* paints.

Pram paints *picture*.

Sangramle *ghar-Φ* banāyo.

Sangram house - *FAC* built.

Sangram built *the house*.

Uile *jangal - Φ* nas aran chha.

He forest - *FAC* destroys.

He destroys *the forest*.

Gopalle *aalu - lai* baphayo.

Gopal potato - *FAC* boiled.

Gopal boiled *the potatoes*.

3.1.4 Instrumental Case

Instrumental case refers to something which is used inanimately as a means of agent with the help of which the agent performs an action. In other words, it is the case of inanimate object causally involved in the action identified by the verb.

The instrumental case in the Doteli dialect is always marked by the case marker - 'le'. For example,

Uile dulalai *kodala - le* khanyo.

He hole spade - *INS* dug.

He dug the hole *with a spade*.

Sācho -le delo ugadyo.

Key-*INS* door opened.

The key opened the door.

Muile *Chakku-le* meri anla kate.

I knife - *INS* my finger cut.

I cut my finger *with a knife*.

Megha - le bali nas paryo.

Rain - *INS* crops destroyed.

The rain destroyed the crops.

Ritale *pencile - le patar lekho.*

Rita pencil - *INS* letter wrote.

Rita wrote a letter *with a pencil.*

3.1.5 Locative Case

Locative case is the case which identifies or denotes the location or spatial orientation of the state or action identified by the verb. Locative case refers to the area in which the action identified by the verb is carried out. Therefore, there is inseparable relationship between the location and the action carried out in it.

The locative case markers identified in the Doteli dialect are the postpositions such as- *ma, mai, ain, aini* and *tira* and sometimes it is realized by the *zero* case marker. For example,

U disyana - mai/ma/ain/aini siyo.

He bed - *LOC* slept.

He slept *in the bed.*

Bishnule uiko chasma table - ma/mai rakhyo.

Bishnu his glass table - *LOC* put.

Bishnu put his glass *on the table.*

Hamun khala-ma/mai nāchyaũ.

We yard - *LOC* danced.

We danced *at the yard.*

Hamunle *skula mai* khelyaũ.

We school - *LOC* played.

We played *at the school*.

3.1.6 Objective Case

It is the case referring to an entity which neither performs an action nor is the instrument to perform an action but undergoes or it is affected by the action or event done by the agent.

In the Doteli dialect, objective case is not marked by any case marker. It is always denoted by the zero case marker. For example,

Keshavle *delo* - Φ ugadyo.

Keshav door - *OBJ* opened.

Keshav opened *the door*.

Hamunle *aam*- Φ khayaũ.

We mango - *OBJ* ate.

We ate *mango*.

Jasbirele *carpet* - Φ mailayo.

Jasbir carpet - *OBJ* dusted.

Jasbir dusted *the carpet*.

Hiun- Φ galyo.

Snow - *OBJ* melted.

Snow melted.

3.1.7 Benefactive Case

Benefactive is a case of an entity benefitting from the action or event denoted by the predicate. It is the case of animate entity that is benefitted in some ways by the action carried out by the action identified by the verb.

The benefactive case markers identified in the Doteli dialect are - *lai*, *lakha*, *lagi*, *lekha*, *lekhi*, *khilai*, *niyuti*, *nimti* and sometimes it is denoted by the zero case marker. For example,

Uile *mukhi-lakha/lai/lekha/lekhi* tempo bolayo.

He me - *BEN* taxi called.

He called *me* a taxi.

Tinle tinara baikanaki - *lakha/lagi* niko khana pakain.

She her husband - *BEN* good meal cooked.

She cooked good meal for *her husband*.

Sitale bhai-*lai/khilai* banel bunin.

Sita her brother - *BEN* sweater neated.

Sita neated *her brother* a sweater.

Danctar *uiki* - *lakha/niyuti/nimti* ayo.

Doctor him - *BEN* came.

Doctor came *for him*.

Rameshle Bimala-*lai jutla* heryo.

Ramesh Bimala - *BEN* shoes selected.

Ramesh selected *Bimala* shoes.

3.1.8 Comitative Case

Simply, comitative is the case of an entity expressing accompaniment. It indicates equal participation or the notion of togetherness to carry out the state or action identified by the verb.

Comitative case in the Doteli dialect is marked by the case markers such as - *sita*, *sitai*, *lai*, *dagada*, *dagadai*, *sanga* and *sangai*. For example,

U *swaini* - *sitai/sangai* aunna chha.

He his wife - *COM* coming.

He is coming *with his wife*.

U-lai uiki *swaini-lai* aunna chhan.

He and his wife- *COM* coming.

He is coming *with his wife*.

Tinule kukur - *sitai /sangai/dagadai* hamunlai khedyo.

They with a dog-*COM* us chased.

They chased us *with the dog*.

Ramle Sita-*sita/sitai* gayo.

Ram Sita - *COM* sang.

Ram sang *with Sita*.

3.1.9 Source/Ablative Case

The source refers to the case of the place from which something moves. Therefore, the source/ablative case refers to separation of an entity, whether animate or inanimate, with the starting point of the action identified by the verb. It is the case of an entity which itself is a starting point of something in a phrase or sentence.

In the Doteli dialect, source case is marked by the case markers such as - *badhei*, *batihai*, *batahai*, *bata*, *bati* and *dekhi*. For example,

Mu *bajar-badhei/bata/batahai/bati* aya.

I market - *SOU* came.

I came *from market*.

Muile yī *suntala kisan - bata/bati* kine.

I oranges farmer - *SOU* bought.

I bought these oranges *from farmer*.

Tinu *ghar-bata/dekhi* hinde.

They home - *SOU* walked.

They walked *from home*.

Hamun *dudha - bata/bati* dahi banaunau.

We milk - *SOU* curd make.

We make curd *from milk*.

3.1.10 Goal Case

The direction to which something moves is the goal and it is the end point of a movement or motion. Therefore, it refers to the place to which something moves. It is also known as destination, later stage, end point of time period, end result of an action, etc.

In the Doteli dialect, goal case is marked by the case markers such as - *mai*, *ma*, *tira*, *samma*, *sammako*, *sammo* and sometimes it is also marked by the zero case marker. For example,

Gita *sarngar kinnaki bajar-ma/mai/tira* pugi.

Gita cosmetic buy market - *GOA* arrived.

Gita arrived *at the market* to buy cosmetics.

Tam jangal - *tira* gaya.
You jungle - *GOA* went.
You went *towards the jungle*.

Hamun *Hongkon-Sammako* /*sammo* udan linchhaũ.
We Hong Kong-*GOA* flight take.
We take a flight *to Hong Kong*.

Hari *skul* - Φ gayo.
Hari school - *GOA* went.
Hari went *to school*.

3.2 Similarities and Differences Between English, Nepali and Doteli Case System

On the basis of the identification and analysis of the Doteli case system, the similarities and differences between and English, Nepali and Doteli case systems have been presented in this section with illustrations. To compare the case systems, the data for English case system have been abstracted from Fillmore (1968 and 1971) and for Nepali case system from Adhikari (1995).

3.2.1 Agentive Case

Both the languages, English and Nepali and the Doteli dialect have the agentive case. In Nepali, agentive case is known as 'Abhikarta'. Though all of them have agentive case, they remarkably differ in case marking system. They differ in terms of the presence and absence of case marking and types of case marking terms. The English language does not have any case marking terms to represent agentive case but it is marked by word order. In the Nepali language, agentive case is denoted by the case markers such as *-le*, *dawara* and *bata* and sometimes by zero case marker. On the other hand, the Doteli dialect contains the agentive case markers

such as *le*, *dwara*, *badhei*, *bati*, *batehai*, *batahai*, *bata*, *puta* and sometimes it is denoted by zero case marker. In Nepali and Doteli, case markers are also known as post-positions since they are placed after nouns. Therefore, the Doteli dialect has been found to be richer than Nepali and English regarding agentive case. This phenomenon can be illustrated as follows:

English: *Prem* opened the door.

Nepali: *Prem-le* dhoka kholyo.

Doteli: *Prem-le* delo ugadyo.

English: The door was opened by *prem*.

Nepali: *Prem - dwara* dhoka kholiyo.

Doteli: *Prem -dwara/bati/bata/batahai/batehai* delo ugadiyo.

English: *Dog* barked.

Nepali: *Kikur-Φ* bhukyo.

Doteli: *Kukur-Φ* bhukyo.

English: *Government* distributed the land to landless.

Nepali: *Sarkar-le* sukumbasilai jukka bitaran garyo.

Doteli: *Sarkar-le* sukumbasilai jukka bādyo.

English: *We* laughed.

Nepali: *Hami-Φ* hāsyau.

Doteli: *Hamun-Φ* hāsyau.

Agentive case in Nepali and Doteli is denoted by the case markers - *le*, *bata*, and *dwara* but Doteli takes other different terms also to refer to the same term 'dwara' in Nepali. For example,

English: The door was opened by prem.

Nepali: *Prem - dwara dhoka* kholiyo.

Doteli: *Prem-dwara/bata/bati/badhei/batahai/batehai* delo ugadiyo.

In English, Nepali and Doteli an organization is taken as a doer of an action. Therefore, an organization can be considered to be in agentive case. For example,

English: *Government* distributed the land to landless.

Nepali: *Sarkar-le sukum* basilai jugga bitaran garyo.

Doteli: *Sarkar-le sukumbasilai jagga* būdyo.

3.2.2 Dative Case

English, Nepali and Doteli have dative case. In the Nepali language, dative case is called 'Anubhawak'. In English, it is marked by prepositions 'to' and 'for' and word order. In Nepali, it is marked by the case markers '*le*' and '*lai*'. Whereas in Doteli, it is denoted by the case markers or post positions such as *-lai, lakha, lekhi, lekhai, lyakhilai* and sometimes by zero case marker. From the comparison, it is clarified that Doteli is the richest of all as it contains the case marking terms in larger number. For example,

English: She gives *the cat* a dish of milk.

Nepali: Tinile *biralo-lai* ek thal dudh dinchhin.

Doteli: Tanle *billa-lai* ek thalo dudh dinchhein.

English: He gave *me* a book.

Nepali: Usle *ma-lai* kitab diyo.

Doteli: Uile *mu-lai* kitab diyo.

English: She bought a pen *for her sister*.

Nepali: Tinle tinki *baini - lai* euta kalam kinin.

Doteli: Tanle tinari *bainiki-lakha/lai/lekha/lekhai/lyakilai* ek kalam kinyo.

English: *Janak* was frightened of lightening.

Nepali: *Janak* chatyang dekhi darayo.

Doteli: *Jankya* - Φ bajjar dekhi trasyo.

From the above examples, it is also clarified that Doteli contains different terms to be used optionally to refer to the same term 'lai' in Nepali.

3.2.3 Factitive Case

The semantic case 'factitive' has been found in English, Nepali and Doteli.

Factitive case in English is called 'Parinami' in the Nepali language. Factitive case in the English and Nepali languages is always marked by zero case marker, i.e. no prepositions and postpositions are used in English and Nepali to represent factitive case. Far from this, in the Doteli dialect, factitive case is realized by the case markers such as - *ma*, *mai*, *lai* and also by zero case marker. Therefore, Doteli dialect is richer than English and Nepali in terms of the presence of the case markers. For example,

English: Prem paints *pictures*.

Nepali: Premle *tasbir* rangāchha.

Doteli: Prem *chitra* - *ma/mai/lai* ranga launchh.

English: Sangram built *the house*.

Nepali: Sungramle *ghar* banayo.

Doteli: Sangram le *ghar* banayo.

English: He destroys *the forest*.

Nepali: Usle *jangal* maschha.

Doteli: Uile *jangal* nas gaddochha.

English: Gopal boiled *the potato*.

Nepali: Gopalle *aalu* usinyo.

Doteli: Gopalle *aalu* baphayo.

3.2.4 Instrumental Case

English, Nepali and Doteli possess the instrumental case. Instrumental case is called 'Karan' in the Nepali language. In all the languages/dialect, instrumental case is taken as the case of something which is used inanimately as a means to perform an action identified by the verb. For example,

English: He dug the hole *with a spade*.

Nepali: Usle pwallai *kodalo-le* khanyo.

Doteli: Uile dula lai *kodala-le* khanyo.

English: Rita wrote a letter *with a pencil*.

Nepali: Ritale *pencil-le* patra lekho.

Doteli: Ritale *pencil-le* chithi lekhi.

In the Nepali language and the Doteli dialect, instrumental case is denoted by the case marker '*le*'. Except this, Nepali contains other case markers - *bata* and *dwara* to represent instrumental case. In the English language. It is marked by the prepositions - with and by. For example,

English: I cut my fingure *with a knife*.

Nepali: Maile *chakku-le* mero aũla kate.

Doteli: Muile *chakku-le* mero aũla kate.

English: Rita wrote a letter *with a pencil*.

Nepali: Ritale *pencil-le* patra lekhi.

Doteli: Ritale *pencil-le* patra lekhi.

In English, Nepali and Doteli, natural force is also regarded as instrument. Therefore, natural force can be considered to be in instrumental case. For example,

English: *The rain* destroyed the crops.

Nepali: *Barsale* bali sakhap paryo.

Doteli: *Meghale* bali nas paryo.

English: Earthquake killed the people.

Nepali: *Bhukample* manis maryo.

Doteli: *Bhuisala-le* mans maryo.

In English, Nepali and Doteli instrumental case can function as the subject of a sentence if there is no other argument in the sentence. For example,

English: The key opened the door.

Nepali: *Sãcho-le* dhoka kholyo.

Doteli: *Sãcho-le* delo ugadyo.

English: *The rain* destroyed the crops.

Nepali: *Barsa-le* bali sakhap paryo.

Doteli: *Megha-le* bali nas paryo.

3.2.5 Locative Case

Both the languages, English and Nepali and the Doteli dialect have the semantic case 'locative'. In Nepali, locative case is known as 'Adhikaran'. In English, locative case is marked by the prepositions - *in, on, at, under, over, above*, etc. In Nepali, it is denoted by the case markers, - *ma, mathi, bhitra, tira, wari-pari, bahira, patti, nera*, etc. On the other hand, the Doteli dialect takes the case markers *ma, mai, ain, aini, tira*, etc. It is also denoted by zero case marker. Therefore, all of them have complex case marking system regarding locative case. For example,

English: He slept *in the bed*.

Nepali: U. *ochhyan - ma* sutyo.

Doteli: U *disyan-ma/mai/aini/ain* siyo.

English: Bishnu put his glass *on the table*.

Nepali: Bishnule usko chasma table- *ma/mathi* rakhyo.

Doteli: Bishnule uiko chasma table *-ma/mai* rakhyo.

English: We danced *at the yard*.

Nepali: Hami *agan -ma* nāchyaũ.

Doteli: Hamun *khala-mai* nāchyaũ.

English: We played *at the school*.

Nepali: Hamile *skul-ma* kheleu.

Doteli: Hamunle *skula -mai* kheleu.

3.2.6 Objective Case

Objective case has been found in English, Nepali and Doteli. In Nepali, objective case is known as 'Parwartya'. In both the languages, English and Nepali, objective case is marked by zero case marker and not different, it is realized by zero case marker in the Doteli dialect. However, English treats objective case by the prepositions- 'to' and 'for' and the word order also. Fore xample,

English: Keshar opened *the door*.

Nepali: Keshavle *dhoka-Φ* kholyo.

Doteli: Keshavle *delo-Φ* ugadyo.

English: We ate *mango*.

Nepali: Hamile *ãp-Φ* khayaũ.

Doteli: Hamunle *aam - Φ* khauaũ.

English: Jasbir dusted *the carpet*.

Nepali: Jasbirle *carpet-Φ* phohor garyo.

Doteli: Jashirele *carpet - Φ* mailayo.

3.2.7 Benefactive Case

Benefactive case has been found in both the languages English and Nepali and the Doteli dialect. In the Nepali language, benefactive case is known as '*Lavak*'. Often, English benefactive case is denoted by the word '*for*' and the indirect object (IO). However, it also can function as the subject of a sentence. In Nepali, benefactive case is marked by the case markers such as - *lai*, *kalagi* and *konimti* whereas many case markers - *lai*, *lakha*, *lagi*, *lekha*, *lekhi*, *khilai*, *niyuti* and *nimti* have been found in the Doteli dialect. Hence, to compare the three, Doteli has been found to be richer than English and Nepali regarding benefactive case as it contains many terms. For example,

English: He called *me a taxi*.

Nepali: Usle *mera-lagi* taxi bolayo.

Doteli: Uile *mukhi-lakhi/lai/lakha* temo bolayo.

English: Doctor came *for him*.

Nepali: Dactor *us-kalagi* aayo.

Doteli: Dactor *uiki-lakha/nimti* aayo.

English: Ramesh selected *Bimala shoes*.

Nepali: Rmeshle *Bimala-lai* jutta rojyo.

Doteli: Ramesh le *Bimala - lai* jhtta heryo.

English: Sita neated *her brother* a sweater.

Nepali: Sitale *bhai-lai* sweater bunin.

Doteli: Sitale *bhai-lai/khilai* banel bunin.

There have been found many terms in the Doteli dialect to refer to the same term '*lagi*' in Nepali. For example,

English: He called *me* a taxi.

Nepali: Usle mera-*lagi* taxi bolayo.

Doteli: Usle mukhi - *lakhi/lai/lakha/lagi/lekh/lekhi/niyuti/nimti* tempo
bolayo.

English: Doctor came *for him*.

Nepali: Dactor *us-kalagi* aayo.

Doteli: Dantor uiki- *lakha/lagi/lakhi/niyanti/nimit* aayo.

3.2.8 Comitative case

English, Nepali and Doteli all have the 'comitative' case. In the Nepali language, comitative case is named as 'Saharthak'. In the English language, comitative case is marked by the preposition '*with*' and by the case markers - *sanga, sita, sathai* and *sahit* in Nepali. The Doteli dialect possesses the case markers - *sita, sitai, lai, dagada, dagadai, sanga* and *sangai* to denote comitative case. Therefore, Doteli is the richest of all regarding comitative case markers as it contains various markers. For example,

English: He is coming *with his wife*.

Nepali: U *srimati* - *sanga* audaichha.

Doteli: U *swaini* - *sita/sang* aunna chha.

English: Ram sang *with Sita*.

Nepali: Ramle *Sita* - *sanga* gayo.

Doteli: Ramale *Sita* - *sita/sitai* gayo.

English: They chased us *with a dog*.

Nepali: Tiniharule *kukur-sanga* hamilai lakhete.

Doteli: Tinule kukur - *sitai /dagadai* hamunlai khede.

Some terms in English and Nepali can be represented by various terms in Doteli in the same context optionally. For example,

English: He is coming *with his wife*.

Nepali: U srimati - *sangai* audaichha.

Doteli: U *swaini-sita/sitai/sanga/sangai/dagada/dagadai* aunna chha.

English: They chased us *with a dog*.

Nepali: Tiniharule *kukur-sanga* hamilai lakhete.

Doteli: Tinule *kukur-sanga/sita/sangai/sitai/dagada* hamunlai khedyo.

3.2.9 Ablativ/Source Case

English, Nepali and Doteli have the semantic case called 'ablative'. In Nepali, source case is called 'Apadan'. The preposition '*from*' is the source case marker in English. Two case marker postpositions '*bata*' and '*dekhi*' are used in Nepali. Similar to Nepali case markers and some other case markers found in Doteli are - *bata, dekhi, badhei, batihai, batahai* and *bati*. While comparing the source case system in English, Nepali and Doteli; Nepali is richer than English and Doteli is the richest of all.

For example,

English: I came *from market*.

Nepali: Ma *bajar -bata/dekhi* aaya.

Doteli: Mu *bajar - badhei/batihai/batahai/bata* aaya.

English: Where do you come *from* ?

Nepali: Timi *kahā bata/dekhi* aauchhau ?

Doteli: Tu kã - *badhei/batahai* aaunchhai ?

English: Rohit walked *from the base camp* to his village.

Nepali: Rohit *basecamp - dekhi* gharasamma hindyo.

Doteli: Rohit *basecamp - dekhi/badhei/batahai* gharasamma hityo.

In English, Nepali and Doteli, some case markers are used, i.e. there is no distinction whether the source is animate being or inanimate thing. For example,

English: We make curd *from milk*.

Nepali: Hami *dudh - bata* dahi banaũchhaũ.

Doteli: Hamun *dudh - bata* dahi banaunanu.

English: I bought these oranges *from farmer*.

Nepali: Maile yĩ *suntala kisan-bata* kine.

Doteli: Muile yĩn *suntala kisan-bata* kine.

3.2.10 Goal Case

Both the languages; English and Nepali and the Doteli dialect have the semantic case 'goal'. In English goal case is marked by the prepositions - *to, at, towards*, etc. In Nepali, it is realized by the case markers such as - *ma, tira samma, sammako*, etc. In the Doteli dialect, goal case is realized by the case markers - *ma, mai, tira, samma, ko*. Sometimes, it is also realized by zero case marker in Nepali and Doteli. For example,

English: Gita arrived *at the market* to buy goods.

Nepali: Gita saman kinna *bajar - ma* pugun.

Doteli: Gita saman kinnaki *bajar -ma/mai* pugun.

English: You went *towards the jungle*.

Nepali: Timi *langal - tira* gayau.

Doteli: Tam *jangal - tira* gaya.

English: We take a flight *to Hong Kong*.

Nepali: Hami *Hong Kong* - *sammako* udan linchhaũ.

Doteli: Hamun *Hong Kong* - *Sammako/sammo* udan linchhaũ.

English: Hari Went *to school*.

Nepali: Hari *skul*- Φ gayo.

Doteli: Hari *Skul* - Φ gayo.

We can now show the above discussed case and case markers of English, Nepali and Doteli with the help of table below.

Table No. 1
Cases in English, Nepali and Doteli

Cases		Case Markers		
English	Nepali	English	Nepali	Doteli
Agentive	Abhikarta	zero (Φ)	le, dwara, bata	le, dwara, bati, bata, badhei, batahai, bathei, batehaiputa, zero (Φ)
Dative	Anubhawak	to and for	le and lai	lai, lakha, lekhi, lekhai, lyakhilai, zero (Φ)
Factitive	Parinami	zero (Φ)	zero (Φ)	ma, mani, mai, lai, zero (Φ)
Instrumental	Karan	with and by	le, bata, dwara	le
Locative	Adhikaran	in, on, at, under, over, above, etc.	ma, mathi, tira, bhitra, wari-pari, bahira, patti, nera, etc.	ma, mai, ain, aini, tira, etc. and zero (Φ)
Objective	Parwartya	to, for and zero (Φ)	zero (Φ)	zero (Φ)
Benefactive	Lavak	for	lai, kalagi, konimti	lai, lekha, lakha, lagi, lekhi, khilai, niyuti, nimti, zero (Φ)
Comitative	Saharthak	with	Sanga, sita, sathai, sahit	sita, sitai, lai, dagada, dagadai, sanga, sangai
Ablative	Apadan	from	Bata and dekhi	bata, dekhi, badhei, batihai, batahai, batai
Goal		to, at, towards, etc.	ma, tira, samma, sammako, etc.	ma, mai, tira, samma, sammo, sammako, etc.

CHAPTER FOUR

FINDINGS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This chapter includes the findings derived from the analysis and interpretation of data and recommendations based on the finding.

4.1 Findings

On the basis of analysis and interpretation of the collected data and comparison between English, Nepali and Doteli case system, the major findings of this research can be presented as follows:

4.1.1 Case System Identified in the Doteli Dialect

Case system identified in the Doteli Dialect is as follows:

- i. The cases identified in the Doteli Dialect are: agentive, dative, factitive, instrumental, locative, objective, benefactive, comitative, ablative/source and goal.
- ii. The case markers which are found in the Doteli dialect to realize different cases are as follows:

Table No. 2
Cases Markers in Doteli

Case	Case markers
English	Doteli
Agentive	le, द्वारा, बति, бата, badhei, batahai, bathei, puta, zero (Φ)
Dative	lai, lakha, lekhi, lekhai, lyakhilai, zero (Φ)
Factitive	ma, mani, mai, lai, zero (Φ)
Instrumental	le
Locative	ma, mai, ain, aini, tira, etc. and zero (Φ)
Objective	zero (Φ)
Benefactive	lai, lekha, lakha, lagi, lekhi, khilai, niyuti, nimti, zero (Φ)
Comitative	sita, sitai, lai, dagada, dagadai, sanga, sangai
Ablative	bata, dekhi, badhei, batihai, batahai, batai
Goal	ma, mai, tira, samma, sammo, sammako, etc.

- iii. The main case markers in the Doteli dialect are the post-positions which are known as 'Bibhakti' in Nepali.
- iv. Natural force is also taken as an instrument in the Doteli dialect.
- v. Both animate beings and inanimate things are treated as source in the Doteli dialect.
- vi. Six cases i.e. agentive, dative, factitive, locative, objective and benefactive cases are also realized by the zero case marker but other cases are not marked by it.
- vii. Instrumental case and objective case have only one case marker 'le' and 'zero' respectively.
- viii. Some case markers such as *ma, mai, tira, bata, dekhi*, etc. are over used to denote different cases.
- ix. A verb also plays central role to determine cases in the Doteli dialect.

4.1.2 Similarities Between English, Nepali and Doteli Case Systems

- i. There have been found some common cases in English, Nepali and Doteli which are: agentive, dative, factitive, instrumental, locative, objective, benefactive, comitatives, ablative and goal.
- ii. The same case marker can occur with two or more cases in English, Nepali and Doteli.
- iii. If there are not more than one case in a sentence, the existing case functions as the subject of the sentence automatically in English, Nepali and Doteli.
- iv. A verb plays a central role to determine cases in English, Nepali and Doteli.
- v. Objective and factitive case take zero case marker in English, Nepali and Doteli.
- vi. Natural force is also taken as an instrument in English, Nepali and Doteli.
- vii. Both animate beings and inanimate things are treated as source in English, Nepali and Doteli.

4.1.3 Differences Between English, Nepali and Doteli Case System

- i. English, Nepali and Doteli differ in case markers. In English, cases are marked by prepositions and word order but in Nepali and Doteli cases are realized by postpositions or 'bibhakti'.
- ii. The verbs in Nepali and Doteli inflect according to gender but this does not happen in English.
- iii. It has been found the honorific and non-honorific distinction in Nepali and Doteli and the verbs inflect according to honorability. But this phenomenon does not exist in English as English is honorifically a neutral language.
- iv. English applies S-V-O word order for making sentences but Nepali and Doteli apply S-O-V word order which affect in case marking.
- vi. Case markers precede the noun in English whereas they follow the noun in Nepali and Doteli.
- vi. Regarding factitive case, in English and Nepali, it is realized by zero case marker but in Doteli it is marked by other case markers also.
- vii. Objective case in Nepali and Doteli is realized only by zero case marker but in English it is marked by some prepositions also.
- viii. Instrumental case in Doteli is realized only by 'le' but in English and Nepali, it is marked by many case markers.
- ix. Doteli has the complex case marking system due to the presence of exceeding number of case markers rather than in Nepali and English.

4.2 Recommendations

The following recommendations have been made on the basis of the above findings.

- i. Ten types of cases are found to be common in English, Nepali and Doteli. Despite this fact, there are differences in case marking in Nepali, English and Doteli. Therefore, the teachers who are involved in teaching should

consider this fact while teaching English and Nepali cases to the students of the Doteli dialect.

- ii. In Nepali and Doteli, the verbs inflect according to gender and honorifics but in English this phenomenon does not exist. Thus, the teachers teaching English to the Nepali and Doteli dialect speaking students should pay special attention.
- iii. The English language deserves the preposition system which precede noun and function as case markers. But Nepali and Doteli contain postposition systems which follow the noun and function as case markers. Therefore, the teacher teaching English, Nepali and Doteli should teach prepositions and postpositions with various illustrations using appropriate materials.
- iv. The Doteli case marking system is a bit complex than that of Nepali and English. So, the educating personnel should pay proper attention while teaching case system in English, Nepali and Doteli.
- v. Natural force can be taken as an instrument and animate and inanimate things can be treated as source in English, Nepali and Doteli. So, this similarity should be considered properly while teaching those cases.
- vi. Some case markers can be used to denote two or more cases in English, Nepali and Doteli. The teacher should make a list of them and clarify about the use of them properly with examples.
- vii. If there is only one case in a sentence, the existing case becomes the subject of the sentence in English, Nepali and Doteli. Hence, the teachers should consider this fact which will make the students to understand better.
- viii. Verbs play central role to determine cases in English, Nepali and Doteli. This similarity is a point of special attention.

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Appedix III
Questionnaire

This questionnaire has been prepared to draw data for the research work entitled "Case in English, Nepali and Doteli." This research is being carried out under the guidance of **Mrs. Hima Rawal**, Department of English language, Faculty of Education T.U. Kirtipur, Kathmandu. I hope that your co-operation in giving authentic and reliable information will be a great contribution to this research work.

Ram Bahadur Bhandari

Name:

How do you say the following sentences in Doteli dialect?

tnsf jfSox?nfO{ 8f]6]nLdf s;/L elgG5 .

Agentive

1. Prem opened the door. k[dn] 9f]sf vf]Nof] .

=====

=====

2. The door was opened by Prem. k[daf/f 9f]sf vf]lnof] .

=====

=====

3. Dog barked. s's'/ e'Sof] .

=====

=====

4. Government distributed the land to landless. ;/sf/n] ;'s'Daf;LnfO{ hUuf ljt/Of u¥of] .

=====

=====

5. We laughed. xfdL xf:of}+ .

=====

=====

Dative

6. She gives the cat a dish of milk. Itlgn] lj/fnf]nfO{ Ps yfn b'w lbG5] .

=====
=====
7. Janak was frightened from lightning. hgs r6of^a b]lv 8/fof] .
=====

=====
=====
8. He gave me a book. p.;n] dnfO{ lsf lbof] .
=====

=====
=====
9. He gave a book to me. p;n] Pp6f lsf dnfO{ lbof] .
=====

=====
=====
10. She bought a pen for her sister. lsgLn] lsgL jlxgLsf] nflu Pp6f snd
lsgL .
=====

Factitive

11. Sangram built the house. ;+u|fdn] 3/ jgfof] .

=====

=====

12. Prem paints the picture. k|]dn] t:jL/ /+ufp5 .

=====

=====

13. He destroys the forest. p;n] h+un df:5 .

=====

=====

14. Gopal boiled the potato. uf]kfnn] cfn' pl;Gof] .

=====

=====

15. They made him the leader. ltgLx?n] p;nfO{ cu'jf agfP .

=====

=====

Instrumental

16. He dug the hole with a spade. p;n] KjFnnfO{ sf]bfnLn] vGof] .

=====

=====

17. The key opened the door. ;fFrf]n] 9f]sf vf]Nof] .

=====

=====

18. The rain destroyed the corps. jiff{n] jfnL ;vfk kf¥of] .

19. I cut my finger with a knife. d}n] rSs'n] d]/f] cf}nf sf6] .

20. Rita wrote a letter with a pencil. /Ltfn] k]G;Lnn] lr7L n]vL .

Locative

21. Bishnu puts his glass on the table. lji0f'n] p;sf] r:df 6]j'ndf /fV5 .

22. He slept in the bed. p cf]5\ofgdf ;'Tof] .

23. We danced at the yard. xfdL cfugdf gfRof}+ .

24. We played in the school. xfdL :s'ndf v]Nof} .

25. Kathmandu is beautiful city. sf7df08f} /d0fLo zx/ xf] .

Objective

26. Kesab opened the door. s]zjn] 9f]sf vf]Nof] .

=====

27. The door opened. 9f]sf v'Nof] .

=====

28. We ate the mango. xfdLn] cfFk vfof}+ .

=====

29. Jasbir dusted the carpet. h;l]n] sfk]{6 kmf]x/ u%of] .

=====

30. The snow melted. lxp]m klUnof] .

=====

Benefactive

31. He called me a taxi. p;n] d]/f] nflu 6ofS;L afnfof] .

-

=====

32. She looked her husband a good meal. ltgn] ltgsf] >Ldfgsf] nflu /fd|f] vfgf vf]lhg\ .

=====

=====

33. Ramesh selected Bimal shoes. /d]zn] ljdnnfO{ h'Qf /f]Hof] .

=====

=====

34. Sita neated her brother a sweater. ;Ltfn] efO{nfO{ ;jL6/ j'lgg\ .

=====

=====

35. Doctor came for him. 8S6/ p;sf nflu cfof] .

=====

=====

Comitative

36. He is coming with his wife. p >LdtL ;+u} cfpb} 5 .

=====

=====

37. He and his wife are coming . p / p;sL >LdtL cfpb}5g\ .

=====

=====

38. They chased us with a dog. tLgLx?n] s's'/ ;+u} xfdLnfO{ nv]6] .

=====

=====

39. Gopal is speaking with Sita. uf]kfn l;tf;+u s'/f ub}{5g\ .

=====

=====

40. Padam sang with Rosani. kbdn] /f]hgL ;+u ufof] .

=====
=====
Source

41. They came from Dhangadi. ItgLx? wgu8L b]lv cfP .

=====
=====
42. Where do you come from. ltdL sxfF b]lv cfp5f}+ <

=====
=====
43. Rohit walked from the base camp to his village. /f]lxt j]; SofDk b]lv
3;/Dd lx8\of] .

=====
=====
44. Janak has been working hard labour from his childhood. hgs jfNosfn b]lv
g} s8f kl/>d ub}{ cfO/x]sf] 5 .

=====
=====
Goal

45. Gita arrived at the market to buy goods. uLtf ;fdfg lsGg ahf/df k'lug\ .

=====
=====
46. Hari went to school. x/L ljBfno uof] .

47. You went towards the jungle. ltdL h+unit/ uof}+ .

=====

=====

48. We take a flight to Hongkong. xfdL] x^as^a ;Ddsf] p8fg lnG5f} .

=====

=====