

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 General Background

Language, being a voluntary vocal system of human communication, is one of the most important means of communication. It is a social phenomenon by which one can express one's ideas, thoughts, feelings, likes and dislikes. Human beings differ from all the species in this universe only because they possess a unique faculty of speech.

There are so many languages existing in the world. Some of them have been spoken as well as written and others exist only in spoken form. Language is a social need that comes into existence after long process according to the necessity of human beings. So, human beings create new languages, if they need them. Even in a small community there may be many languages. A single man can speak more than one language, if his society is multilingual. Languages change they change in courses of time. If they are out from the daily use, they disappear from the society.

Every normal human being uses language in his daily activities. Different members of the society co-operate and interact with each other. Social culture, values, thoughts, arts and conventions are preserved and inherited from generation to generation through language. A language lives along as there are people who speak it and see as their native tongue.

The English language is one of the widely used 'West Germanic' sub-branches of the Germanic branch of the 'Indo-European' family. It has become one of the most important and powerful languages in this modern age. It is spoken as native language in many countries of the world. It is one of the most powerful lingua franca which is becoming

popular day by day because of international trade, business and modern technologies. It is one of the dominant languages of the world and also the language of the UNO which is very important for the developing countries like Nepal.

1.1.1 The Languages in Nepal

Nepal is a small and beautiful landlocked country situated between two large countries namely, China and India. It is a rich country in terms of linguistic diversity. According to the population census Report 2001, there are 92 languages identified in Nepal. Out of them a very few languages have their own written scripts and other exist only in spoken form language survey.

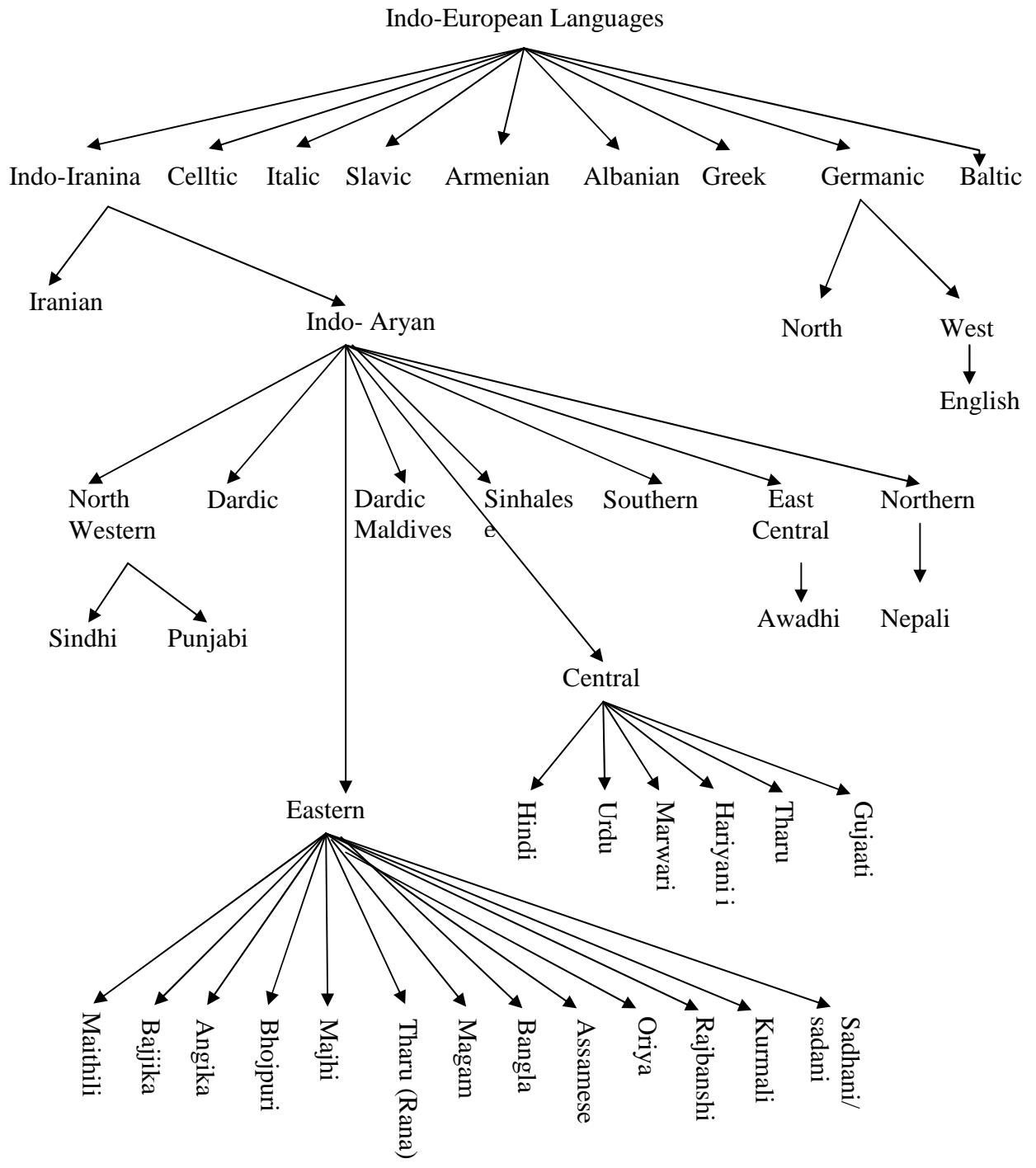
1.1.2 The Language Family

The languages enumerated in the 2001 census belong to the four language families, viz. Indo-European, Sino-Tibetan, Austro-Asiatic and Dravidian.

I. Indo- European Family

In Nepalese context, Indo-European family of language mainly comprises Indo-Aryan group of languages, which forms the largest group of languages in terms of speakers, viz. nearly 80 percent.

The Indo- Aryan languages spoken in Nepal can be genetically subcategorized in the following diagram:

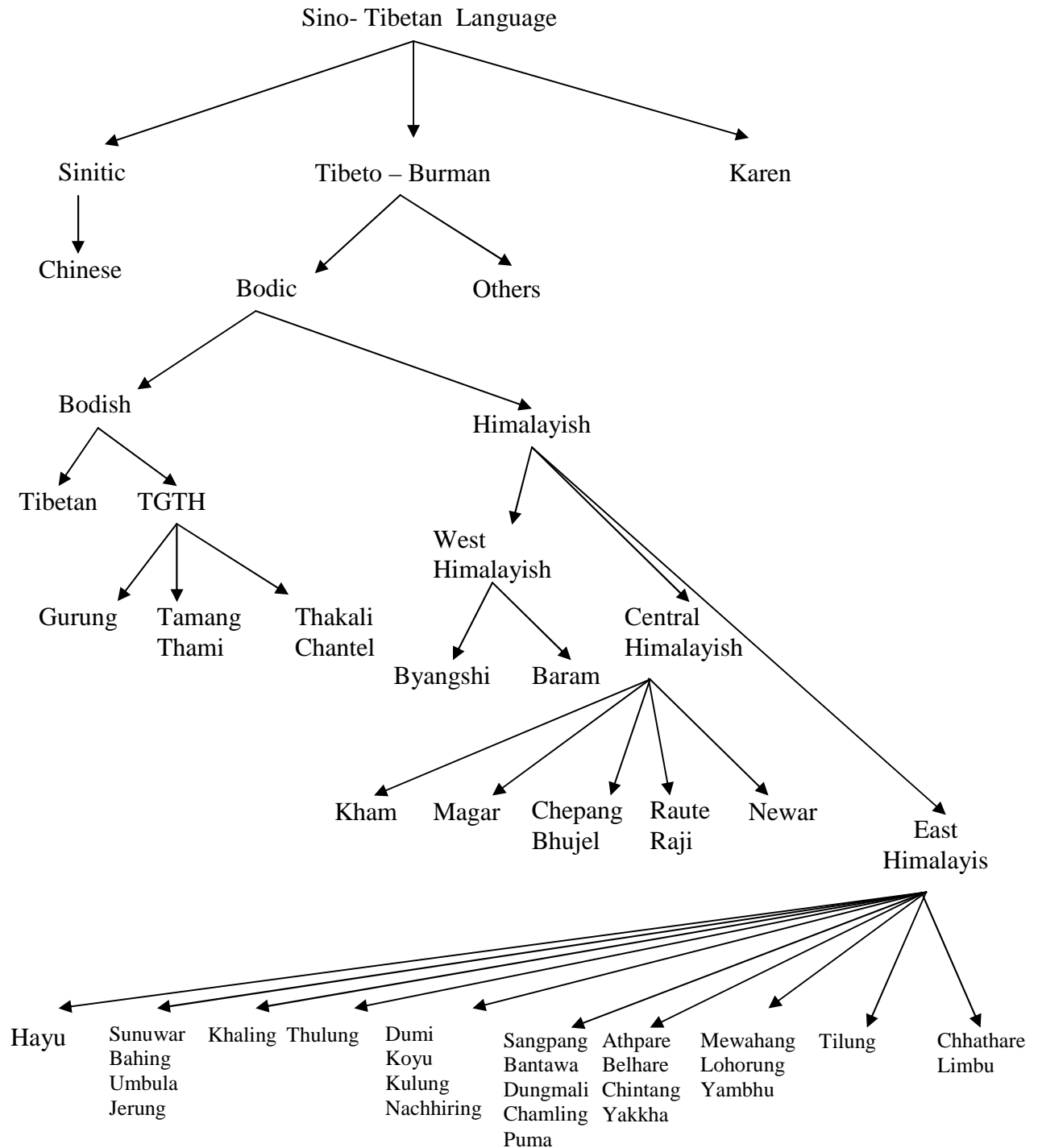


[Source: Yadava, 2003:145]

Some of the indo- Aryan languages spoken in Nepal are yet to be sub classified in the lack of their adequate description. These languages include Bote, Kumal, Churauti, and Danuwar.

II. Sino-Tibetan Family

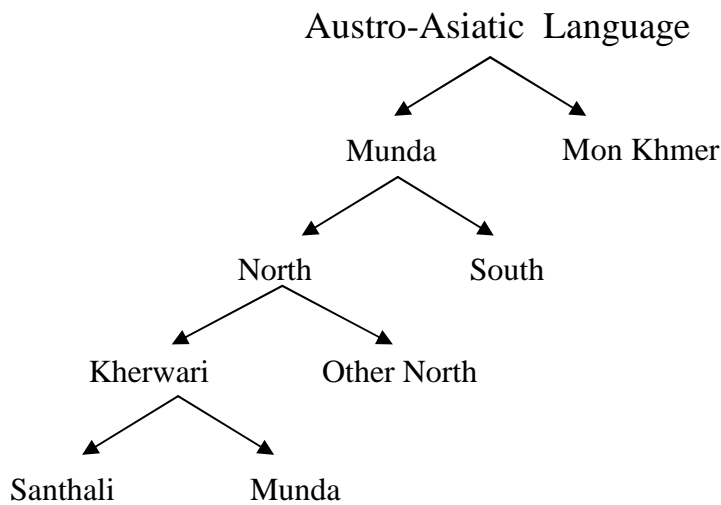
Author important group of Nepal's languages is the Tibeto-Burman group of Sino-Tibetan family. Though it is spoken by relatively a lesser number of people than the Indo European family, it consists of the largest number of languages, viz. about 57 languages. The Sino-Tibetan languages spoken in Nepal can be sub-categorized as follows:



[Source: Yadava, 2003:146]

III. Austro-Asiatic Family

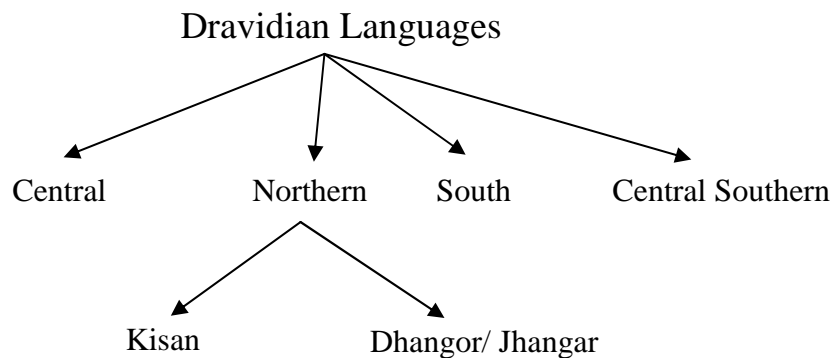
The Austic languages comprise Santhali of the northern Munda group and Khariya of the southern Munda group. It is to be noted that Satar has been reported in all the censuses but Santhal has been wrongly reported as a separate language except in the 1952/54 census. The 2001 census lumps both Satar and Santhal together into a single language, called Santhali,



[Source: Yadava, 2003:147]

IV. Dravidian Family

Dravidian language includes two languages spoken in Nepal. One of them is called Jhangar in the region east of the Koshi river but Dhangor in the region west of the Koshi river. It constitutes the north most part of Dravidian family of languages. Another Dravidian language is Kisan with 489 speakers settled in Jhapa district.



[Source: Yadava, 2003: 147]

Among the four language families mentioned above, the Tibeto-Burman language family includes a large number of languages spoken in Nepal. Languages of Nepal are also classified on the basis of script. They have been classified into four types:

a. Languages with Written Script

Nepali	Maithali	Awadi
Limbu	Bhojpuri	Hindu
Newari	Urdu	Bhote/Tibeta

b. Languages having Written Script in Emerging Condition

Sherpa	Magar	Kulung
Thankali	Thulung	Bantawa
Gurung	Chamling	Bhote/Tibeta
Rajbanshi	Khaling	Tamang

c. Languages without Written Script

Eastern Mewahang	Northern Lohorung	Raji
Western Mewahang	Southern Lohorung	Thami
Yakka	Jhagad	Bhote
Chhyantal	Kumal	Kham
Majhi	Byanshi	Danuwar
Chepong	Nachhiring	Marwadi
Yamphn	Darai	Dhimal
Lunba Yakka	Jirel	Kayate
Satar	H yolmo	Athpaharia
Sampang	Kaike	

d. Moribund Languages

Hayu	Polmacha	Dura
Dungmali	Kusunda	Baling
Raute	Chhintang	Koyu

Lambiching	Puma	Mugali
Jerung	Belhare	Chhukwa
Phanduwali	Chakwa	Chhulung
Tilung		

The data mentioned above clearly show that there are nine languages in Nepal which have their own written scripts, the written scripts of 12 languages are in emerging conditions, the other 29 languages have no written scripts and 19 languages are in the verge of extinction, i.e. Moribund languages. Similarly, linguists claim that any language which has at least 100,000 speakers can maintain its existence. Languages, having less than 100,000 speakers remain tolerable and languages spoken by fewer than 1,000 speakers are in the verge of extinction.

1.1.3 The Tharu Language

Nepal is a multiracial, multilingual, multireligious, multicultural and multiethnic nation. Nepal is small in area but very rich in terms of language, culture and religion. According to the Population Census Report 2001, there are only 92 identified languages spoken but linguists claim that there are more than 126 languages in Nepal. Many of them do not have their written script but are only used in daily communication.

In Nepal, more than hundred ethnic people live in different parts. Those indigenous people have their own language, religion and culture. Among them, the Tharus, indigenous people of Nepal, live from the east to the west, are highly populated ethnic group found in almost all the districts of Terai, the southern part of Nepal. The majority of Tharu speakers are found in Kailali, Kanchanpur, Dang, Banke, Bardia, Kapilbastu, Rupandehi, Nawal Parais, Chitwan, Bara, Parsa, Mahottari, Sarlahi, Sirha, Saptari, Udaypur, Sunsari, Morang, Jhapa, etc. A very few

Tharu speaking people live in the hill and even fewer of them live in the high mountains (CBS: 2001). They are classified as Kochila, Lampuchiya, Magohi, Chitwania, Dangoria and Rana. Most of the Kochila Tharus are living in Saptari, Siraha, Udayapur, Sunsari, Mahotari districts. Most of them are educated and advanced in comparison to other Tharu groups. Like other castes, the Tharus have also different sub-castes namely: Chaudhary, Singh, Mahato, Joshi, Gajraj, Kalyan, Biswash, Dahit, Gachhedar, Bachhar, Lekhi, Majhi, Hujdar, etc. They have their own language and culture.

According to the Population Census Report 2001, the Tharu language is the 4th largest language on the basis of their number and ethnicity in Nepal, as it is used by 13,31,546 people from Mechi to Mahakali. Though, there are 15,33,879 Tharu people and the Tharu language is spoken by 5.86 percentage Nepalese of the total population as their mother tongue.

Tharu is an Indo-Aryan language written in Devangari script. Though, it has a long history, it does not have its own script. Language is a personal and social phenomenon. It varies from place to place, from society to society and even from person to person. Not a single language is spoken exactly in the same way from one part of country to the other. It is full of regional dialects and socialects. This is also true in case of the Tharu language. Because of geographical barriers, there is variation in the Tharu language, which is named geographically as Morangia, Saptaria, Baragilia, Chitwania, Dangoria, and Rana dialects.

Morangia Dialect: The Tharu language spoken by Lampuchia Tharus is Morangia Dialect. It is spoken in Morang, Jhapa and Sunsari districts.

Saptaria Dialect: The Tharu language spoken by Kochila Tharus is called Saptaria Dialect. This dialect is spoken in Saptari, Siraha, Udayapur, Mahottari and Sunsari districts.

Baragilia Dialect: The Tharu language spoken in Bara, Parsa and Rauthat is Baragilia Dialect.

Chitwania Dialect: It is spoken in Chitwan and Nawalparasi Districts.

Dangoria Dialect: It is spoken in Dang, Banke, Bardia, etc. districts.

Rana Dialect: It is spoken in Kailali and Kanchanpur districts.

1.1.4 Importance of Contrastive Analysis on Languages Teaching

Contrastive analysis (CA) is defined as a scientific study of similarities and differences between languages. It is a branch of applied linguistics, which compares languages to find out the similarities and differences between or among them and to predict the areas of difficulty in learning. The first language (L_1) is known as mother tongue or native language and second language (L_2) is known as foreign language or target language. CA came into existence during the late 1940s and 50's and highly popularized during the 60's and its popularity declined during the 70's. The development of CA for foreign language teaching can be traced back to the American linguist Fries (1945) who made the first clarion call for it.

In his work 'Teaching and Learning English as a Foreign Language', Fries (1945:259) quoted that "the most effective materials are those that are based upon a scientific description of the language to be learned, carefully compared with a parallel description of the native language of the learner."

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

- (a) Individuals tend to transfer the forms and meanings and distribution of forms and meanings of their native language and

culture to the foreign language and culture both productively when attempting to speak language ... and respectively when attempting to grasp and understand the language.

- (b) In the comparison between native and foreign languages lies the key to ease or difficult in foreign language learning.
- (c) The teacher who has made a comparison of the foreign language with the native language of the students will know better what the real learning problems are and can better provide for teaching them. (Lado, 1957: 2-3)

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

The most important thing to remember by a language teacher is basic assumption behind CA. Lado's (1957) first assumption states that when we come in contact with an L₂, our knowledge of L₁ comes on the way: while leaning an L₂, some features are easier to learn and some are difficult because of the transfer of the old knowledge. If old knowledge is similar to the new knowledge there is positive transfer, who facilitates in learning an L₂ but if old knowledge is different from the new knowledge, there is negative transfer, which interferes in learning an L₂. In short, the more similarities between the two languages, the easier to learning and

the more differences between the two languages, the more difficult to learn. We can say that greater the similarities greater the ease, and greater the ease lesser the chances of errors and greater the differences, greater the difficulty and greater the difficulty, greater the chances of errors. CA has its significant contribution to the L₂ teaching. It provides sound conceptual insights about the language, a teacher teaches. It helps the teacher to diagnose the level of difficulty and causes of the errors that learners commit.

1.1.5 Historical Background of the Case System

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

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

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

- I. Nominative: It marks the subject
- II. Accusative: The object of the transitive verb
- III. Genitive: It expresses possession semantically
- IV. Dative: Indirect object

- V. Locative: Adverb of place
- VI. Ablative: Source
- VII. Vocative: Expresses address semantically

During 1960s, although Chomsky (1965) brought a revolution in the area of grammar, he has limited his analysis up to only in terms of surface and deep structure syntactic level. So, Fillmore, an American linguist, began to rectify deficiencies of Chomskyan modes of grammar. Case, for Fillmore (1968), is universal type of 'underlying syntactic-semantic relationship' which may or may not manifest itself in the form of morphosyntactic markers on the surface. He defines case "... the case notions comprise a set of universal, presumably innate concepts which identify certain types of judgments human beings are capable of making about the events that are going around them, judgment about such matters as who did it, who it happened to and what got changed" (Fillmore, 1968:24).

Fillmore (1968) in his seminal paper entitled "The case for case" has proposed the following six cases: *agentive*, *dative*, *instrumental*, *objective*, *locative* and *factitive*. In 1971, Fillmore again came up with eight cases: *agent*, *source*, *experience*, *goal*, *instrument*, *location*, *patient/object* and *time*. These cases were deep structure cases, describing as being 'underlying syntactic-semantic relationships'. They were to be distinguished from case forms, which comprise the means of expressing cases: inflections, prepositions, postpositions, word order, etc.

Anderson (1977) says that the term 'case' was traditionally employed to refer both to certain inflectional categories that are added to nouns and to the set of syntactic and/or semantic distinctions carried by the forms of that category. These can be distinguished as 'case forms and case relations or case functions' respectively. But the case relations are not found well defined in the traditional grammars. Thus, case is defined and discussed grammatically and semantically by various linguists. Blake

(1994) mentions both grammatical and semantic cases in the following table:

Table No. 1

grammatical	core	nominative
		accusative
		ergative
Semantic	local	genitive
		dative
		locative
		ablative
Semantic	local	allative
		perlative
		instrumental
		comitative
		etc.

(Blake, 1994: 35)

Although the concept case is universal, the case markers are language specific. So, the researcher is interested to find out the similarities and different characteristics of case system in English and the Tharu languages.

1.1.6 Basic Concepts of Case Grammar

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

the end of the noun. Discussing the case means presenting the rules of morphosyntactic variations and listing the exceptions to the rules.

Fillmore has defined cases as the semantic roles which noun phrases have with respect to their verbs. There are three basic concepts of case grammar and they are: syntactic function, morphosyntactic form, and semantic role.

I. Syntactic Function

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

1. Radha hit Rita.
2. Rita was hit by Radha.
3. The window broke.

‘Radha’, ‘Rita’ and ‘window’ have the subjective function; ‘Rita’ in the first sentence has objective function. ‘Radha’ in the second sentence has adverbial function.

II. Morphosyntactic form

Morphosyntactic form is a word level concept. The morphosyntactic forms in case grammar refer to prepositions, inflections or postpositions and case endings that show particular relationship of related noun or noun phrases with the verb. By morphosyntactic form, Fillmore refers to the different cases which stand in a certain relationship within a structure. Morphosyntactic forms give some functional and categorical information. The morphosyntactic forms differ from language to language. Different morphosyntactic forms that mark cases are

inflections, affixations, suppletion, prepositions, postpositions, word orders, intonations, etc. A language may have one or more than one such morphosyntactic forms which show the case relation. Mainly two morphosyntactic forms - word order and preposition reveal the case relation in English. The following prepositions are taken from the examples given by Fillmore (1968), Quirk et al. (1985) and Blake (1994) for corresponding cases.

Morphosyntactic Forms	Case
By	agent
With, by	instrument
From	source/ablative
To, into, until, towards	goal
In, at, on	locative
To	dative
For	benefactive

III. Semantic Role

Semantic role is the meaning level concept. The semantic role in case grammar is a dominant and recently developed concept. Fillmore (1968) has described his case grammar from the point of view of semantic role what he calls 'case or case relationship'. He has explained the whole case grammar as having a semantic role. "The sentence is its basic structure consisting of a verb and one or more noun phrases, each associated with the verb in a particular relationship." (Fillmore, 1968:21)

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

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

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

1.1.7 Case Marking System

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

a. Single argument

"Bob	left"
S	V

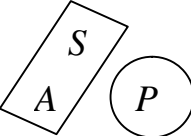
b. Multi-argument

"Bob	greeted	Aileron"	
A	V	P	(Payne, 1997)

The S is defined as the only nominal argument of a single-argument clause sometimes this type of clause referred to as an intransitive clause. The A is defined as the most AGENTS like argument of a multi-argument clause. Sometimes this type of clause is referred to as a transitive clause. If there is no argument that is a very good AGENT, the A is the argument that is treated morphosyntactically in the same manner as prototypical AGENTS are treated. Usually there is one argument in every verbal clause that exhibits this property. P is the "most PATIENT-like" argument of a multi-argument clause. Again, if none of the arguments is very much like a PATIENT, then the argument that is treated like a prototypical PATIENT is considered to be the P.

The grammatical relation of **subject** can be defined as S together with A while **direct object** or simply **object** can be defined as P alone. Some languages pay more attention to this grouping than do others.

Payne (1997:134) has presented the various systems for grouping S, A and P and the morphosyntactic means languages employ to express these grouping. According to him, languages may treat S and A the same, and P differently. The following English examples illustrate this fact with pronominal case forms - one form, **She**, is used for third person singular feminine pronouns in both the S and A role. A different form, **her**, is used for third person feminine singular pronouns in the P role:

- a. She left
- b. She hit her
- 

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

Hu nuco Quechua

- a. Juan – Ø aywan. "Juan goes".

Juan – NOM goes
S

- b. Juan – Ø Pedro - ta maquan. "Juan hits Pedro".

Juan – NOM Pedro- ACC hits
A P (Payne, 1997)

This system is often referred to as **nominative accusative** system. In other words, the nominative accusative system groups S and A (nominative) together against P (accusative). If any morphological case marks both S and A roles, it is called the **nominative case**, while the case that marks only the P role is the **accusative case**.

The following examples from Yupik Eskimo illustrate another system for grouping S, A and P.

a. Doris - aq ayllrung "Doris traveled"

Doris - ABS traveled

S

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

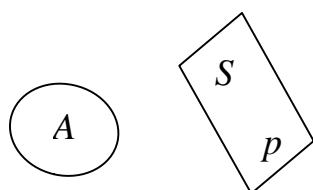
TOM- ERG Doris - ABS greeted

A

P

(Payne, 1997)

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



Ergative / absolutive

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

The third possible type, tripartite, would have distinct cases for each of the three primitives. The fourth type would group A and P together as against S. And the fifth, neutral, would have the same form for all three primitives, but since this is tantamount to lack of case marking for these relations, it is not directly relevant our considerations.

All the logically possible ways in which languages could conceivably group S, A, and P in terms of case marking on noun phrases or agreement on verbs are listed below along with a general indication of how commonly they arise in the languages of the world.

Possible grouping of S, A and P.

Groping	Label	Frequency
[A,S] [P]	Nominative – Accusative	Common
[A] [S,P]	Ergative- absolutive	Common
[A] [S] [P]	Tripartite	Very rare
[S] [A, P]	Accusative focus	Unattested
[A,S,P]	Neutral	Unattested

(Whaley, 1997)

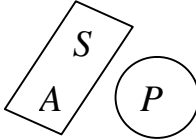
1.1.8 Cases in the English Language

The English case which are going to be discussed: *nominative*, *accusative*, *instrumental*, *genitive*, *comitative*, *locative*, *ablative*, *dative* and *vocative* are based on the ones discussed by Lyons (1968), Fillmore (1968) Anderson (1977), Quirk et al. (1985), Comrie (1989), Blake (1994), Huddleston (1996), Payne (1997), Aarts (1997), etc. Each of them is explained as follows:

I. Nominative

Nominative is syntactic/ grammatical case and it is the form taken by a noun phrase when it is subject of intransitive or transitive clauses. According to Huddleston (1996: 98), “Nominative and accusative are definable at the general level as distinct cases associated respectively with the subject of a finite clause and with the direct object: if the NPs in subject and direct object function characteristically have ... distinct case inflection or analytical markers. We call these cases nominative and accusative respectively. The English ‘I’ and ‘me’ series of forms clearly satisfy these definitions ...”. Payne (1997:134) say that “if any morphological case marks both S (single argument of intransitive predicate) and A (agent argument of transitive verb) roles, it is called the nominative case, while the case that marks only the P (patient argument of two place transitive verb) role is accusative case”. For example,

c. **He** left

d. He hit **him**  (Payne, 1997:134)

Here, subject of intransitive verb ‘left’ and subject of transitive verb ‘hit’ are treated in the same way as ‘he’ but object of transitive verb is treated differently as ‘him’ . Similarly, Comrie (1989:111) says that “In English one case is used to encode S and A - a case of this kind is called nominative; and another case is used encode P-a case of this kind is called accusative”. The nominative marks the subject of grammatical relation encoding several roles such as agent, experience patient etc. For example,

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

NOM ACC

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

NOM

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

NOM

II Accusative

Accusative is also a syntactic/grammatical case, it refers to the form taken by a noun phrase when it is the object of a verb. According to Blake (1994:134), "The accusative is the case that encodes the direct object or a verb." From the definition given by Payne (1997), Huddleston (1996), and Comrie (1989) quoted in section 1.1.8 (I), it is clear that accusative case is treated differently than nominative case in English. For examples,

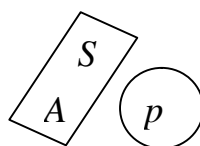
a. **I** laughed

NOM

b. I love **him**

NOM

ACC



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

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

III. Instrumental

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

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

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

- a) We dug the field **with a spade**.
- b) Sita write a letter **with a pen**.
- c) **The wind** broke the window
- d) She cut her fingers **with a knife**
- e) John beat me **by hand**
- f) They go to school **on foot**.
- g) I wash utensils **by hand**.
- h) John opened the door **with a key**.

IV) Dative

Fillmore defined the term 'dative' as "The case of the animate being affected by the state or action identified by the verb." (Fillmore, 1968: 24)

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

- a) She gave **me** a book.
- b) She gave a book **to me**
- c) I gave **my wife** a gift.
- d) My father told **us** an interesting story.
- e) Servant brings a cup of tea for **me**.
- f) He bought a sari for **his mother**.
- g) Marry sold the car to **Jennie**.
- h) She gave **the cat** a disk of milk.

V. Comitative

Thakur defined the term 'comitative' as; "This case indicates the notion of togetherness and the preposition operating as the markers of this case means 'and'." (Thakur, 1998:197)

The 'comitative' usually marks the animate (typically human) which is conceived of as accompanying the participation of some more centrally involved participant in a predication.

According to Blake (1994: 198), "A case expressing with whom an entity is located is usually used of animates". For example,

- a) The dog is **with his master**.
- b) She is coming **with her husband**.
- c) George sang **with yule**.
- d) He chased a tiger **with guns**.
- e) **A mother with her baby** has just crossed the river.
- f) We take every breakfast **with eggs**.
- g) The fire burns **with a huge flame**.
- h) **She and her husband** are coming.

VI. Genitive

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

- a) **Monkey's tail** is long.
- b) That is **elephant's tail**.
- c) This house **belongs to me**
- d) **The window of this room** is too long.
- e) It is **John's book**.
- f) **The ox's tail** is cut.
- g) **The head light of the car** was damaged.
- h) **The hood of the van** was dented.

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

- a. This is **Rohan's bag** This is his bag (determinative function)
- b. This bag is **Rohan's** This is his bag (Independent / pronominal)

VII. Ablative (Source)

"The case that expresses the role of source ..." (Blake, 1994:196).

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

- a. Merry bought the car **from Dave**.
- b. We leased the apartment **form Mr. William**.
- c. The program continued **from midday to night**.
- d. A mango fell down **from tree**.
- e. We get hit **from the hitter**.
- f. Children learn good behaviors **from the parents**.
- g. Maya is coming **from market**.

VII. Locative

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

- a. **Chicago** is windy.
- b. It is windy **in Chicago**.
- c. Sanjha is **at home**.
- d. The coffee is **on the table**.
- e. A pigeon was kept **in the cage**.
- f. The cat ran **towards the house**.
- g. Somebody was there **under the tall tree**.
- h. A dog hides **behind you**.

IX. Vocative

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

"A vocative is an optional element, usually a noun phrase, denoting the one or more persons to whom the sentence is addressed" (Quirk et al., 1985:773).

English does not make use of the vocative case inflectionally, but expresses the notion using an optional noun phrase, in certain positions, and usually with a distinctive intonation. For example,

- a. ROHAN, DINner's ready.
- b. My BACK is aching, DOCTOR. (ibid)
- c. And THAT, my FRIENDS, concludes my SPEECH.

1.2 Review of the Related Literature

There are several comparative research works carried out to study several grammatical aspects on different languages such as Nepali,

Maithli, Tharu, Gurung, Newar, Magar, Rai, Limbu, etc. Up to now, two research works on English and Nepali cases, one research work on English and Maithili cases one research work on - English and Magar cases, and one research work on English and Limbu cases have been carried out. The related literatures to the present study are as follows:

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

Blake (1994), on his book entitled ‘case’, has discussed the case from all aspects, viz. morphosyntactic, syntactic, and semantic. He has dealt with both cases proposed by traditional grammarians and modern semanticists like Fillmore, Anderson, etc. He has, also, mentioned the problems in describing case system.

Bhattraï (2001) carried out a research on “Case is English and Nepali: A Comparative Study.” The main objectives of this study were to find out similarities and differences between the Nepali and English case systems and to identify morphological and syntactic features of the case of both English and the Nepali languages. He collected data using secondary sources. He found that the verb in Nepali inflects according to sex and honorific grade but English does not have this system; and

Mahato Tharu (2001) carried out a research on “A Comparative Study of the Subject-Verb Agreement in English and the Tharu languages.” The main objectives of the study were to identify the subject-verb agreement system of the Tharu language and to compare the same with that of the English. He collected date from primary source. He found that in English, the second and third person pronouns don't change for honorific forms whereas they do in the Tharu language. Similarly, the

Tharu verbs are marked for formal and informal forms, which is not found in English verb.

Karna (2004) carried out research entitled “A Comparative Study of Cases in Maithili and English.” The major objectives of his study were to identify and analyze cases of Maithili and to find out the similarities and differences between English and the Maithili languages. He collected data from 100 students from two school of Sirha district. He found that seven cases are in Maithili and the common cases identified in both the languages are nominative, instrumental, ablative, genitive, locative and dative.

Khanal (2004) carried out a research on “A Comparative Study on the Forms of Address of Tharu and the English Languages.” The main objective of the study is to find out the forms of address used in the Tharu and English languages. He collected data from the primary of sources of Morang district. He found that Tharu has several forms of address but English lacks such concepts. Most of the kinship terms can be used in addressing people in Tharu, but only a few kinship terms can be used as address from in English.

Limbu (2007) carried out a research on “Case in English and Limbu: A Comparative Study.” The main objectives of the study were to determine cases in the Limbu language and to find out the similarities and differences between Limbu and that of the English language. He found that the Limbu personal pronouns except third person plural have different genitive case marker that those of other nouns, and the Limbu language uses different vocative case markers for singular and non-singular nouns.

Thapa (2007) carried out research on, “Case in English and Magar: A Comparative Study.” The major objectives of the study were to determine cases in the Magar language and to pinpoint the similarities and differences between the English and Magar case system. He collected

data from forty-eight Magar native speaker of Banke district. He found that the Magar is a tripartite type of language which treats arguments S, A and P differently.

Chaudhary (2008) carried out a research on “Verbal Affixation in English and Tharu: A Comparative Study.” The main objectives of this study were to compare and contrast verbal affixation in English and Tharu and to list the rules of verbal affixation in the Tharu language. He collected data from primary sources having 90 native speaker of Tharu including illiterate, literate and educated. He found that Saptaria dialect of Tharu has more number of verbal affixation in comparison to English and they are more complex than those of English.

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

1.3 Objectives of the Study

This study has the following objectives:

- i. To list and describe cases in the Tharu language.
- ii. To compare and contrast the case systems between the English and Tharu languages.
- iii. To provide some pedagogical implications.

1.4 Significance of the Study

Each work has its own significance. This study has the following significance:

- i. This research will be invaluable for the Department of English Language Education itself since no research has been conducted yet on ‘Cases in the English and Tharu languages’.

- ii. This study will be basically helpful for the future researchers who are interested to conduct the intensive study either on case system in any language or on any topic in the Tharu language.
- iii. This study will be beneficial to the language teachers; Tharu community, language experts, linguists, syllabus designers, textbook writers, etc.

1.5 Definitions of the Specific Terms

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

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

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

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

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

Clitic: A term used in grammar to refer to a form which resembles a word, but which cannot stand on its own as a normal utterance, being phonologically dependent upon a neighbouring word in a construction.

Definite: An entirely that is specific and which the speaker assumes can be identified by the hearer is referred to as definite.

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

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

Ergative-absolute: A case system in which **S** and **P** are marked in the same way, but differently from **A**.

Exclusive: With reference to pronouns, term used to refer to first-person role where the addressee is not included along with the speaker, e.g. exclusive, we - 'me and others but not you'.

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

Inclusive: With reference to pronoun, inclusive is used to refer to a first-person role whereas the speaker and addressee are both included, e.g. we - 'me and you', or 'me and others and you'.

Indefinite: An entity which is not specific and which the speaker assumes cannot be identified by the hearer is referred to as indefinite.

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

Morphosyntactic Form: Morphosyntactic form is the form that marks the case. Preposition and syntactic position in English are the morphosyntactic forms.

Nominal: A term used for a category that contains noun, pronoun, and noun phrase.

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

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

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

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

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

CHAPTER TWO

METHODOLOGY

The researcher utilized the following methodologies:

2.1 Sources of Data

The researcher utilized both primary and secondary sources of data.

2.1.1 Primary Sources

The primary sources of data for the study were the 30 Tharu native speakers from two districts viz. Saptari and Siraha of Eastern Development Region from whom the researcher collected the required data.

2.1.2 Secondary Sources

The English 'cases' were totally taken from the secondary sources. The secondary sources of the data were different books, journals, theses, etc. e.g. Fillmore (1968), Lyons (1968), Anderson (1977), Quirk et al. (1985), Blake (1994), Huddleston (1996), Payne (1997), Aarts (1997), Whaley (1997), etc.

2.2 Sample Population and Sampling Procedure

The sample population of this study was 30 Tharu native speakers from two districts viz. Saptari and Siraha of Eastern Development Region of Nepal. Fifteen informants, age group of 15 above, were taken from each district. The sample population was divided into three groups viz. illiterate, literate and educated having 10 informants in each group using stratified random sampling procedure. Those who were unable to read

and write were considered as illiterate and those who had academic qualification under SLC were regarded as literate. Similarly, the study population with academic qualifications above SLC were taken as educated.

2.3 Tools for Data Collection

The researcher made use of structured interview schedule for both the literate and illiterate informants and the questionnaire for the educated ones as the research tools to collect the required data for this study. The interview schedule and questionnaire were checked by Mrs. Sanjha Chaudhary, a native speaker of the Tharu language who is also an Assistant Lecturer of Govardan Campus Fatepur, Saptari.

2.4 Process of Data Collection

The researcher first developed two types of research tools: a structured interview schedule for the illiterate and literate informants and questionnaire for the educated informants under the guidance of his research supervisor. He went to the selected districts of Eastern Development Region. He individually met the informants and established a close rapport with them. He told them the purpose and relevance of conducting the study. He also told them that their responses would help the researcher to complete the study. Then he conducted oral interview with the illiterate and literate respondents on the basis of predetermined structured interview and recorded their responses in the interview schedule. Likewise, he handed the questionnaire to the selected educated informants and asked them to write their own responses themselves. At last, he thanked them for their invaluable help for spending their time for returning the questionnaires.

2.5 Limitations of the Study

The study was limited in the following ways:

- i. The sample population of this study was limited only to the 30 Tharu language native speakers of two districts, viz. Siraha and Saptary of Eastern Development Region and they were confined only to 3 groups viz illiterate, literate and educated having 10 informants in each group above 15 years of age.
- ii. The study is based on the 'Saptaria Dialect' of the Tharu language.
- iii. The study is limited to these cases: *nominative, accusative, instrumental, dative, genitive, comitative, ablative, locative and vocative*.
- iv. Only simple present and past sentences having different cases were compared and analyzed.

CHAPTER THREE

ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION

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

3.1 Identification and Analysis of Cases in the Tharu Language

The cases which are listed in the Tharu language are given as follows:

3.1.1 Nominative Case

Nominative cases in Tharu are indicated by the absence of any case marker. The noun in nominative case performs the grammatical function of a subject. For example,

- a. hati ∅ b h ut p idh h i-ch i
 elephant NOM very big be- PRES-3sg

‘The elephant is very big.’

- b. bh gwan ∅ ch i
 god NOM be-PRES- 3sg

‘God is/exists.’

It may also be used as the subject of transitive or intransitive sentence where the subject is also an agent. For example,

- c. Rohan ∅ kitab parh i-ch i (Transitive)
 rohan NOM book read-PRES-3sg

‘Rohan reads the book.’

- d. malik Ø d ur l-kai (intransitive)
 master NOM run-PT-3sg
 ‘The master ran.’
- e. u Ø d ud i- ch i
 she NOM run- PRES- 3 sg
 ‘She runs.’
- f. h me Ø ciththi likh i- ciy i
 i NOM letter write- PRES-1sg
 ‘I write a letter.’
- g. S njha Ø bhat p kail- k i
 sanjha NOM rice cook- PT- 3 sg
 ‘Sanjha cooked rice.’

3.1.2 Accusative-dative Case

The accusative-dative case in Tharu is marked by the clitic ‘-ke’. However, its use is not obligatory. The noun phrase in accusative-dative case generally performs the grammatical function of object direct or indirect.

I. Direct object

- a. h m sita- ke dekh l-y i
 i sita-ACC-DAT see-PT-1sg
 ‘I saw sita.’

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

- b. raja j n k j n kpur s h r b sail-k i
 king janak janakpur town establish-PT-3sg
 ‘King Janak established the town of Janakpur.’

II. Indirect Object

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

- a. nok r gai-ke ghas khiyal- k i.
 servant cow-ACC-DAT grass feed-PT-3sg
 ‘The servant fed the cow grass.’
- b. ram h ri-ke kitap del- k i
 ram Hari-ACC-DAT book give-PT-3sg
 ‘Ram gave Hari a book.’
- c. mohan ekta ch ura-ke pit l-k i
 mohan a boy-ACC-DAT beat-PT-3sg
 Mohan beat a boy.

3.1.3 Instrumental Case

The instrumental case in Tharu is marked by the use of clitics ‘-se’, ‘-bate’, etc.

- a. tō k l m-se ciththi likh-lihi
 you pen-INS letter write-PT-2sg
 ‘You wrote a letter with a pen.’
- b. m iya c ku-se aam soh l-k i
 mother knife-INS mango peel-PT-3sg
 ‘The mother peeled the mango with a knife.’
- c. nok r bak ri-ke ghuri-se banh l-k i
 servant goat-ACC-DAT rope-INS tie-3sg
 ‘The servant tied the goat with a rope.’
- d. u lathi-bate mar l-k i
 he stick-INS beat-PT-3sg
 ‘He beat with stick.’

- e. ram h th uri-se n riy r phor l-k i
 ram hammer-INS coconut crack-PT-3H
 ‘Ram cracked a coconut with a hammer.’

3.1.4 Genitive Case

Genitive case in Tharu is marked by the postposition ‘-ke’. The noun phrase in the genitive case basically performs an adjectival function and qualifies the noun to which it bears the case relations. The genitive case marker conveys the following semantic notions:

- a. Sanju-ke beta (Kinship relation)
 sanju-GEN son
 ‘Sanju’s son.’
- b. Baniya-ke dokan (Ownership/ possession)
 shopkeeper-GEN shop
 ‘Shopkeeper’s shop.’
- c. gach-ke thair (part- whole relation)
 tree-GEN branch
 ‘Branch of tree.’
- d. bhanubh kt -ke r may n
 bhanubhakta-GEN ramayan
 ‘Bhanubhakta’s Ramayan.’

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

Tharu

h m ror-ke gh r
 /sg/pl/inc/exc/
 ‘Our house.’

English

Our campus.

/sg/pl/inc/exc/

In English, second person possessive pronoun ‘your’ does not have singular-plural, male-female and honorific-non-honorific distinction. But in the Tharu language, second person possessive pronoun has honorific-non-honorific, singular-plural distinction. For example,

	English	Tharu
a.	your house	y h i-ke gh r (sg) - Honorific toh re-gh r (sg) – Non-honorific
b.	your house	y h i-s b-ke gh r (pl) – Honorific toh re-s b-ke-gh r (sg) – Non-honorific

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

In the Tharu language, second and third possessive pronouns do not make male-female distinction but it makes honorific-non-honorific distinction.

	English	Tharu
	his her	ok r – Non-honorific
	his her	ok re – Honorific

**Table No. 2: Tharu Personal Pronouns with their Possessive
Case Function**

Person		Number				
		Case	Singular		Plural	
			Tharu	English	Tharu	English
1 st		Subjective	h m	i	h m r ur-ke	we
			h m r	i	h m r -s b-ke	we
		Objective	h m r	me	h m r -s b-ke	us
2 nd	Honorific	Subjective	p ne	you	p ne-s b	your
		Objective	p ne-ke	you	p ne-s b-ke	your
	Non-honorific	Subjective	tō, tōhe, tora, toh r	you	tō-s b, tōhe-s b, tora- s b, toh r-s b-ke	your
		Objective	tora	you	tora-s b	your
3 rd	Masculine & Feminine	Subjective	u, okra	he, she	u-s b, okra-s b	they
		Objective	ok ra	him, her	ok ra-s b	them
	Neuter	Subjective	i	it	i-s b	they
		Objective	×	it	×	them

3.1.5 Comitative Case

The comitative is a case form taken by a noun when it expresses the meaning of 'along with', or 'accompanied by'. It is marked in Tharu by the use of the clitics ‘-s ge’ and ‘-j re’. For example,

- a. ch ura-s ge chouri el i
 boy-COM girl come- PT 3sg
 ‘The girl came with the boy.’
- b. u p n sathi-j re el i
 he his friend-COM come-PT-3sg
 ‘He came with his friend.’
- c. u p n m h tair-j re b jar gel i
 she her mother-COM market go-PT-3sg
 ‘She went to market with her mother.’

- d. ram shyam-s ge ces khel i-ch i
 ram shyam-COM chess play-PRES-3sg
 ‘Ram plays chess with Shyam.’
- e. radha dudh-j re bhat khai-ch i
 radha milk-COM rice eat-PRES-3sg
 ‘Radha eats rice with milk.’

3.1.6 Ablative Case

The entity that signifies the ‘separation’ and the starting point of the action identified by the verb is said to be ‘ablative case’. In the Tharu language, ablative case is marked by the use of clitics ‘-se’, ‘-dis/disa-se’. For examples,

- a. nita iskul-disa-se aibr h l-ch i
 nita school-ABL come-PRES-PROG-3sg
 ‘Nita is coming from school.’
- b. gachi-se ekta aam kh s-l i
 tree-ABL a mango falldown-PT-3sg
 ‘A mango fell down from the tree.’
- c. krishn gh r-se aibr h l-ch i
 krishna house-ABL come-PRES-PROG-3sg
 ‘Krishna is coming from the house.’
- d. okr ur-ke kathmandu-se yel i
 they kathmandu-ABL come-PT-3pl
 ‘They came from Kathmandu.’
- e. m nju moh n-ke gh r-se ye-l i.
 manju mohan-ABL house-ABL come-PT-3sg
 ‘Manju came from Mohan’s house.’

3.1.7 Locative Case

The case which denotes the location or spatial orientation of the state or action identified by the verb is called locative case. It expresses the basic relationship between the location and the object involved with it. In the Tharu language, locative case marker is ‘-me’. For example,

- a. cir i gachi-me ch i
 bird tree-LOC be-PRES-3sg
 ‘Bird is in the tree.’
- b. h me bhagwan-me biswas-k r ichi-y i
 i god-LOC believe-PRES-1sg
 ‘I believe in God.’
- c. c ur bora-me ch i
 rice sack-LOC be-PRES-3sg
 ‘Rice is in the sack.’
- d. Suga pijra-me ch i
 parrot cage-LOC be-PRES-3sg
 ‘The parrot is in the cage.’
- e. u bhyas kitap p chas rup iy-me kin l-k i
 he practice book fifty rupees-LOC buy-PT-3sg
 ‘He bought a practice book for fifty rupees.’

3.1.8 Vocative Case

Vocative is a case form taken by a noun when it is used in the form of address. In Tharu, ‘-gai’, ‘-hei’ are a vocative case markers. For example,

- a. dadi-g i
 grand mother-VOC
 ‘Grandmother!’

- b. hei-bhagwan
VOC-god
'God!'
- c. babu-g i babu-g i
father-VOC father-VOC
'Father! Father!'
- d. m ya-g i m iya-g i
mother-VOC mother-VOC
'Mother! Mother!'
- e. dada-g i
brother-VOC
'Brother!'

3.2 Similarities and Differences between the Tharu and English Cases

3.2.1 Nominative Case

Nominative case is found in both the Tharu and English languages. In both the languages, nominative case is zero marked. For example:

I. Tharu

- a. h m r m iya-Ø khir pakai-c i
my mother-NOM rice pudding cook-PRES-3sg
'My mother cooks rice pudding.'
- b. tōhe-Ø ek ta cithi likhai-cihi
you-NOM a letter write-PRES-2sg
'You write a letter.'
- c. ram gh nti b jail-k i
ram bell ring-PT-3sg
'Ram rang a bell.'

- d. syam ek ta kitap p r h l-k i
shyam a book read-PRES-3sg
'Shyam reads a book.'
- e. jhatbihair kebar khoil-d lk i
wind door open-PT-3sg
'The wind opened the door.'

II. English

- a. **The bank** gave the loan
- b. **The sun** melted the snow flake
- c. **I** hit the boy
- d. **John** opened the door
- e. **The horse** galloped.

3.2.2 Accusative-dative Case

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

In Tharu, it is marked by the use of clitic '-ke', '-lel' and '-lagi'.

For example,

I. Tharu

- a. nokar-ke j r lagal-ch i
servant-ACC-DAT fever suffer-PRES-3sg
'The servant suffers from fever.'
- b. ram h m r-lel ek k p ciya lab l-k i
ram me-ACC-DAT a cup tea bring-PT-3sg
'Ram brought a cup of tea for me.'
- c. tōhe p n sathi-ke ek ta up har delhi
you your friend-ACC-DAT a gift give-PT-2sg
'You gave a gift to your friend.'

- d. ek ta lok h mra kirtipur-ke pera puch l-k i
 a man me kiritpur-ACC-DAT way ask-PT-3sg
 ‘A man asked me the way to Kirtipur.’
- e. gai p n b cha-ke dudh piyai-ch i
 cow her calf-ACC-DAT milk feed-PRES-3sg
 ‘A cow feeds her milk to the calf.’

II. English

- He gave **me** a book.
- He gave a book to **me**.
- John believed that **he** would win.
- We persuaded **John** that he would win.
- It was apparent to john that **he** would win.

3.2.3 Instrumental Case

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

I. Tharu

- a. tōhe k l m-se likh i-ci
 you pen-INS write-PRES-2sg
 ‘You write with a pen.’
- b. u hat -se mar i-ch i
 he hand-INS beat-PRES-3sg
 ‘He beats with hand.’
- c. h me p n u gri ek ta c ku-se kat l-y i.
 i my finger a knife-INS cut-PT-1sg
 ‘I cut my finger with a knife.’
- d. b rsa bails b-ke bigairdel-k i
 rain crops-INS destroy-PT-3Sg
 ‘The rain destroyed the crops.’

- e. kati tyre-ke p mc r k irdel-k i
 nail tyre-INS puncture-PT-3sg
 ‘The nail punctured the tyre.’

II. English

- a. **The rock** hit the tree
 b. Jack is down **with flu**.
 c. The police killed a thief **with poison**
 d. **The hammer** hit the nail
 e. **His arrival in the dawn** surprised me.

3.2.4 Genitive Case

Both the Tharu and English languages have the case, ‘genitive’ but they differ in case makers. In Tharu, it is marked by case marker ‘-ke’. On the other hand, English uses apostrophe ‘s’ preceded by nominal and preposition ‘of’ followed by nominal for genitive case markers. For example,

I. Tharu

- a. ram-ke babu bh tbh tiya-se kh is-gel i
 ram-GEN father bike-DAT fall-PT-3sg
 ‘Ram’s father fell off from the bike.’
- b. kitap-ke g ta lal ch i
 book-GEN cover red be-PRES-3sg
 ‘The book’s cover is red.’
- c. sanu-ke babu phis-gel i.
 sanu-GEN father office-PT-3sg
 ‘Sanu’s father went to office.’
- d. h ri-ke kar bigr l-ch i.
 hari-GEN car damage- PRES- 3sg
 ‘Hari’s car is damaged.’

- e. mira-ke kitap h ra-gel i
 mira-GEN book lose-PT-3sg
 ‘Mira’s book lost.’

II. English

- a. It is **John's bag**.
 b. **The glasses of the car** are damaged.
 c. This book is **mine**.
 d. **That pen** is theirs.
 e. This hat is **ours**.

3.2.5 Comitative Case

Both the Tharu and English languages have semantic case ‘comitative’. In Tharu, comitative case is marked by the case markers - ‘s ge’ and ‘j re’. For example,

I. Tharu

- a. choura-s ge chouri el i
 boy-COM girl come- PT- 3sg
 ‘The girl came with the boy.’
- b. u p n sathi-j re yel i
 he his friend-COM come-PT-3sg
 ‘He came with his friend.’
- c. u m iya-j re b jar gel i
 she mother-COM market go-PT-3sg
 ‘She went to market with her mother.’
- d. rohan p n m iya-s ge b ith l-ch i
 rohan his mother-COM sit-PT-3sg
 ‘Rohan sat with his mother.’
- e. kuta p n malik-s ge ch i
 dog his master-COM be-PRES-3sg
 ‘The dog is with his master.’

II. English

- a. He came **with his wife**.
- b. Rama went to school **with his brothers**.
- c. He chewed stone **with rice**.
- d. The stone rolled down along **with wood**.
- e. Mr. Hasimoto spoke **with Mr. Tanaka**.

3.2.6 Ablative Case

Ablative case is found in both the Tharu and English languages. In Tharu, it is marked by ‘-se’ whereas in English, ablative case is marked by preposition ‘from’. There is no distinction whether ablative is animate or inanimate. For example,

I. Tharu

- a. s njha iskul-se yel i
sanjha school-ABL come-PT- 3sg
‘Sanjha came from school.’
- b. gachi-se ek ta aam kh s-l i
tree-ABL a mango fall down-PT-3sg
‘A mango fell down from tree.’
- c. krishn gh r-se ab i-ch i
krishna house-ABL come-PRES-PROG-3sg
‘Krishna is coming from the house.’
- d. nbari-se kitap kh s-l i
cupboard-ABL book fall down-PT-3sg
‘The book fell down from the cupboard.’
- e. h me ratanapark-se gh r-disa lag l i.
i ratnapark-ABL home-LOC go-PT-1sg
‘I went towards the room from Ratnapark.’

II. English

- a. He took out his bike **from the garage**.
- b. Marry came at home **from Tom's house**.
- c. Ram has borrowed a big amount of money from **Dr. Rohan**.
- d. We got the parcel **from Radha**.
- e. We get heat **from sun**.

3.2.7 Locative Case

Both the Tharu and English languages have the semantic case, locative. They differ only their case marking system. In Tharu, it is marked by the case marker ‘-me’, ‘-dis/disa-me’ and English locative case markers are ‘in’, ‘on’, ‘at’, ‘over’, ‘under’, ‘above’, ‘behind’, etc.

I. Tharu

- a. h m yi kam ek h p ta-me k r -l i
i this work a week-LOC finish-PT-1sg.
‘I finished this work in a week.’
- b. cir i gachi-me ch i
bird tree-LOC be-PRES-3sg
‘Bird is in the tree.’
- c. h m r ur-ke bh gwan-me biswas k r i-ci.
we-ACC-DAT god-LOC believe-PRES-1pl
‘We believe in God.’
- d. ram gh r-me ch i.
ram home-LOC be-PRES-3sg
‘Ram is at home.’
- e. s njha iskul-disa-se aib-r h l-ch i
sanjha school-LOC come-PRES-PROG-3sg
‘Sanjha is coming towards school.’

II. English

- a. A thief ran **towards the river**.
- b. We live **in village**
- c. There is a book **on the table**.
- d. The students are **in the classroom**.
- e. **Chicago** is windy.

3.2.8 Vocative Case

Vocative case is found in both the Tharu and English languages. In Tharu it is marked by the suffixes ‘-gai’ and ‘-hei’ whereas in English, it is a case form taken by a noun when it is used in the form of address. For example,

I. Tharu

- a. dadi-g i
 grand mother-VOC
 ‘Grandmother!’
- b. g i-dada
 VOC-brother
 ‘Brother!’
- c. i kishor ta abu
 VOC-kishor here come
 ‘Kishor! come here.’
- d. m iya-g i babu k te gel u
 mother-VOC father where go-PT-3sg
 ‘Mother! Where did father go?’
- e. hei-bhagwan hei bhagwan h m ra m d t k ru
 VOC-god VOC-god me help
 ‘God! God! Help me.’

II. English

- a. J HN, D\Nners's ready
VOC
- b. And THÁT, my FRIENDS, concludes my SPEECH
VOC
- c. My BÁCK is aching, DOctor
VOC
- d. MOM, I am HUNGRY
VOC
- e. FATHER, fifty RUPEEs please
VOC

CHAPTER FOUR

FINDINGS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This chapter is classified into two parts - findings and recommendations. After analyzing and interpreting the data, some findings are carried out. On the basis of the research, some recommendations and pedagogical implications are also discussed.

4.1 Findings

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

4.1.1 Cases in the Tharu Language

- i. The cases which are listed in the Tharu language are: *nominative, accusative-dative, instrumental, genitive, comitative, ablative, locative* and *vocative*.
- ii. The suffixes are the main case markers in Tharu.
- iii. The Tharu language does not make definite-indefinite, male-female, exclusive-inclusive pronoun distinction but it makes honorific-non honorific distinction with pronominal.
- iv. The verb does not play a central role to determine cases in the Tharu language.
- v. The Tharu accusative-dative and genitive cases are marked by the same case marker ‘-ke’.
- vi. The Tharu instrumental and ablative cases are marked in the same way.

4.1.2 Similarities between the Tharu and English Cases

- i. The common cases found in the Tharu and English languages are: *nominative, dative, instrumental, genitive, comitative, ablative, locative* and *vocative*.

- ii. If there is only one case in a sentence, it automatically becomes the subject in both the languages.
- iii. Both the Tharu and English languages do not make exclusive-inclusive distinction.
- iv. The same case marker can be used for various cases on both the languages. For example, ‘-se’ is used for instrumental and ablative in Tharu and ‘with’ is used for instrumental and comitative in English.
- v. In both the languages, nominative case is zero- marked.
- vi. There is no difference in the language used by male and female in the Tharu, so it is not a sexist languages as English.
- vii. In both the languages, nominal encode three types of case marking: zero marking, preposition and word order.
- viii. Some cases can occur without main verb in sentence in both the languages.

4.1.3 Differences between the Tharu and English Cases

- i. Although the cases nominative, accusative, instrumental, dative, genitive, comitative, ablative, locative and vocative are common to both languages, they are marked differently.
- ii. The Tharu language makes honorific-non honorific distinction with pronominals whereas the English language makes definite-indefinite distinction.
- iii. The Tharu language does not make male-female distinction whereas the English language does with pronominals.
- iv. In the Tharu language, accusative-dative and genitive cases are marked by the same case marker ‘-ke’ but they are marked differently in English.

- v. Instrumental and ablative cases are marked by the same case marker ‘-se’ in the Tharu language whereas they are marked differently in English.
- vi. Case marker occurs after nouns in Tharu but in occurs before nouns in English.
- vii. The objective pronoun can occur in the subject position either by constituent order or subject deletion in the Tharu language but it is not found in English.
- viii. It is mentioned earlier that case markers are ‘clitics’ in Tharu and ‘prepositions’ in English. This is the basic difference observed between case marking in Tharu and English. The case, clitics and prepositions in both the languages are given below:

Tharu

a. Nominative	Ø
b. Accusative-dative	ke
c. Instrumental	se
d. Genitive	ke
e. Comitative	s ge, j re
f. Ablative	se
g. locative	me
h. vocative	g i, i, hei

English

a. Nominative	Ø
b. Accusative	Ø
c. Instrumental	with, by
d. Dative	to, for
e. Genitive	’s, of
f. Comitative	with
g. Ablative	from

speakers who can commit errors changing randomly the constituent order.

- vi. The Tharu language uses clitic as case markers which precede the nouns but English uses prepositions as case markers which follow the nouns. This fact is necessary to be known by the language learners.
- vii. In the Tharu language, nominative case does not take any case markers whereas nominative and accusative cases do not take any case markers in English. So, Learners should be made aware of this fact.
- viii. Without linguistic knowledge of a language, one can not teach the language. This study gives linguistic knowledge to a teacher who intends teaching the Tharu or English language.
- ix. The Tharu case marking system is different and complicated than that of English. So, this research work is important for language teachers, text book writers, syllabus designers, etc.

Finally, the researcher hopes this work will provide detailed information about the Tharu and English case systems as it helps the teacher to teach cases of both languages. This research work can be proved as a milestone in the field of grammar of the Tharu language since no research has been carried out yet on ' case system '. Language teachers, linguists, text book writers, syllabus designers and the Tharu community may take more benefits from this research work.

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

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APPENDIX

ROMAN TRANSLITERATION OF DEVANAGARI SCRIPT

Based on Turner's (1931). Nepali Alphabet and Diacritic Marks.

Nepali Alphabet	Roman Trasliteration	Nepali Alphabet	Roman Transliteration	Nepali Alphabet	Roman Trasliteration
अ	a	क	k	द	d
आ		ख	kh	ध	dh
इ	i	ग	g	न	n
ई		घ	gh	प	p
उ	u	ङ		फ	ph
ऊ		च	c	ब	b
ए	e	छ	ch	भ	bh
ऐ	ai	ज	j	म	m
ओ	o	झ	jh	य	y
औ	au/ou	ञ		र	r
अँ	am/ a	ट		ल	l
अं	ā	ठ	t	व	w/v
::		ड		श	
		ढ	d	ष	
		ण		स्	s
		त्	t	ह	h
		थ	th		

Note : The traditional letters क्ष, त्र र ञ treated as conjunct letter, eg.

क्ष= ks, ksh, kch; त्र = tr, and ञ = gn, gy