CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 General Background

Language is a system of communication, medium for thought, a vehicle for literary expression, a social institution, a matter for political controversy, a catalyst for nation building. Language is the greatest means of human civilization that sets them apart from the rest of other living-beings. It is such a means by which, we perform communication, thinking, group solidarity, interlinguistic conflict, nation building, control and creation and the absence of which no artistic academic and social activities can be thought of. It is defined as a voluntary vocal system of human communication, which is as essential for human beings as food, shelter and clothes. Language is a special capacity that distinguishes human beings from other creatures. "The system of human communications which consists of the structured arrangement of sounds (or their written representation) into larger units, e.g. morphemes, words, sentences, utterances" (Richards et al., 1999, p. 196).

There are many languages in the world that are used for communication but no one has decided yet the exact number of languages spoken in this universe. Some of them have been spoken as well as written and other exists only in spoken form. It is impossible to expect the existence of human civilization without language. Language is a social need that comes into existence after long process according to the necessity of human beings. Language is not only personal phenomenon but a social phenomenon as well because it is affected by person, social ethnicity and geographical boundaries.

Even in a small community their may be many languages. A single man can speak more than one language if his society is multilingual. Every normal human being

uses languages in his daily activities. Different members of the society co-operate and interact with each other. Social cultures, values, thoughts and conventions are preserved and inherited from generation to generation through language. A language lives so long as there are people who speak it and use it 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 is an international lingua-franca. It is becoming one of the most important and powerful languages in this modern age. It is spoken as native language in many countries of the world. The English language becoming more 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 UNO which is very in.) It is regarded as the world's most prestigious and important language.

> *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* (Wren, 1989, p. 202). *English is widely used as a second language and as a foreign language through the worlds. The number of speakers who have acquired English as a second language with native fluency is estimated to be between 350 and 400 million…* (Baugh et al., 2002, p. 6).

1.1.1 Linguistic Scenario of Nepal

Nepal is a fertile land from the linguistic point of view; Nepal has been one of the most engrossing areas of linguistic research. Even being small in size, more than ninety-three languages are spoken in Nepal Ethnologue (2005) has identified one hundred twenty six languages spoken in Nepal (CBS, Report 2001). However, most of these languages do not have their own scripts; they exist only in spoken form.

1.1.2 The Language Family

All the languages identified in Nepal are classified under the following four languages families. The languages enumerated in the 2001 census belong to the four language families, viz. Indo-European, Sino-Tibetan, Austro-Asiatic and Dravidian.
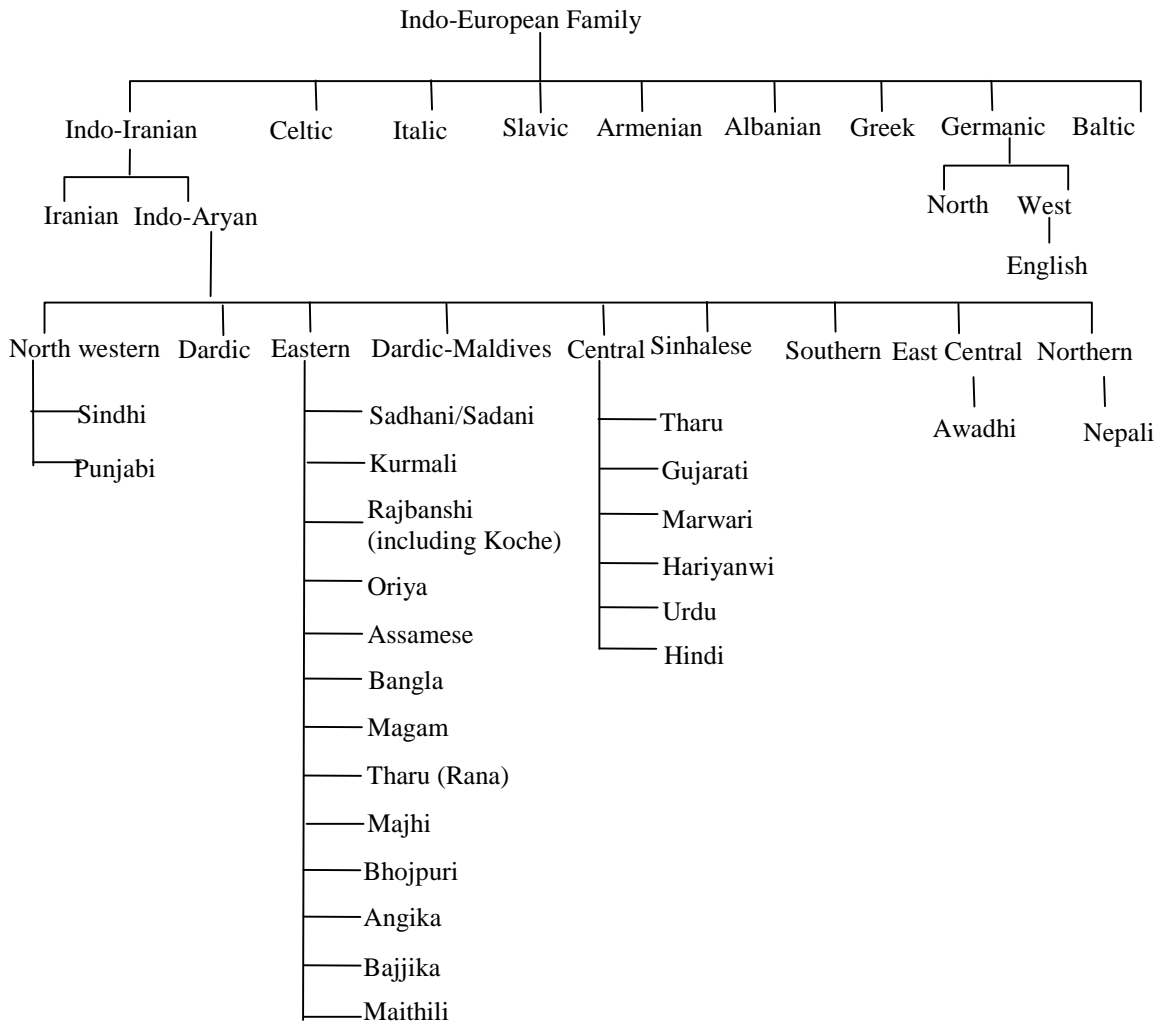
I. Indo-European Family

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

The Indo-Aryan languages spoken in Nepal can be genetically.

Subcategorized in the following diagram:

Diagram 1 : Indo-European Family

Indo-European Family

- Indo-Iranian
  - Iranian
  - Indo-Aryan
    - North western
      - Sindhi
      - Punjabi
    - Dardic
    - Eastern
      - Sadhani/Sadani
      - Kurmali
      - Rajbanshi (including Koche)
      - Oriya
      - Assamese
      - Bangla
      - Magam
      - Tharu (Rana)
      - Majhi
      - Bhojpuri
      - Angika
      - Bajjika
      - Maithili
    - Dardic-Maldives
    - Central
      - Tharu
      - Gujarati
      - Marwari
      - Hariyanwi
      - Urdu
      - Hindi
    - Sinhalese
    - Southern
    - East Central
      - Awadhi
    - Northern
      - Nepali
- Celtic
- Italic
- Slavic
- Armenian
- Albanian
- Greek
- Germanic
  - North
 - West
    - English
- Baltic

(Source: Yadav, 2003)

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

Another important group of Nepal's languages is the Tibeto-Burman group of Sino-Tibetan family. Though it is spoken by relatively lesser number of people than the Indo-European family, it consists of the largest number of languages, viz. about fifty seven languages.

The Sino-Tibetan languages spoken in Nepal can be sub-categorized as follows:
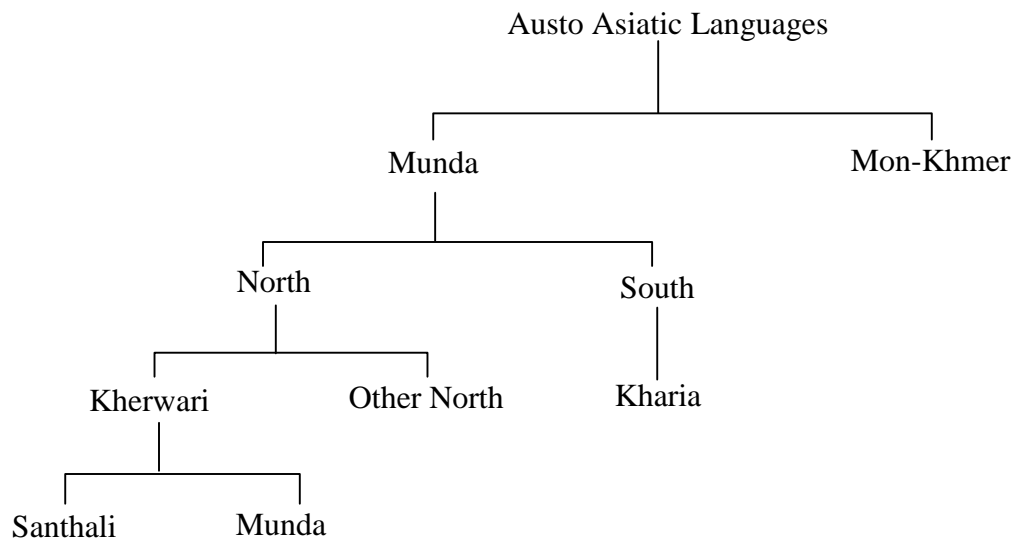
Diagram 2 : Sino-Tibetan Languages
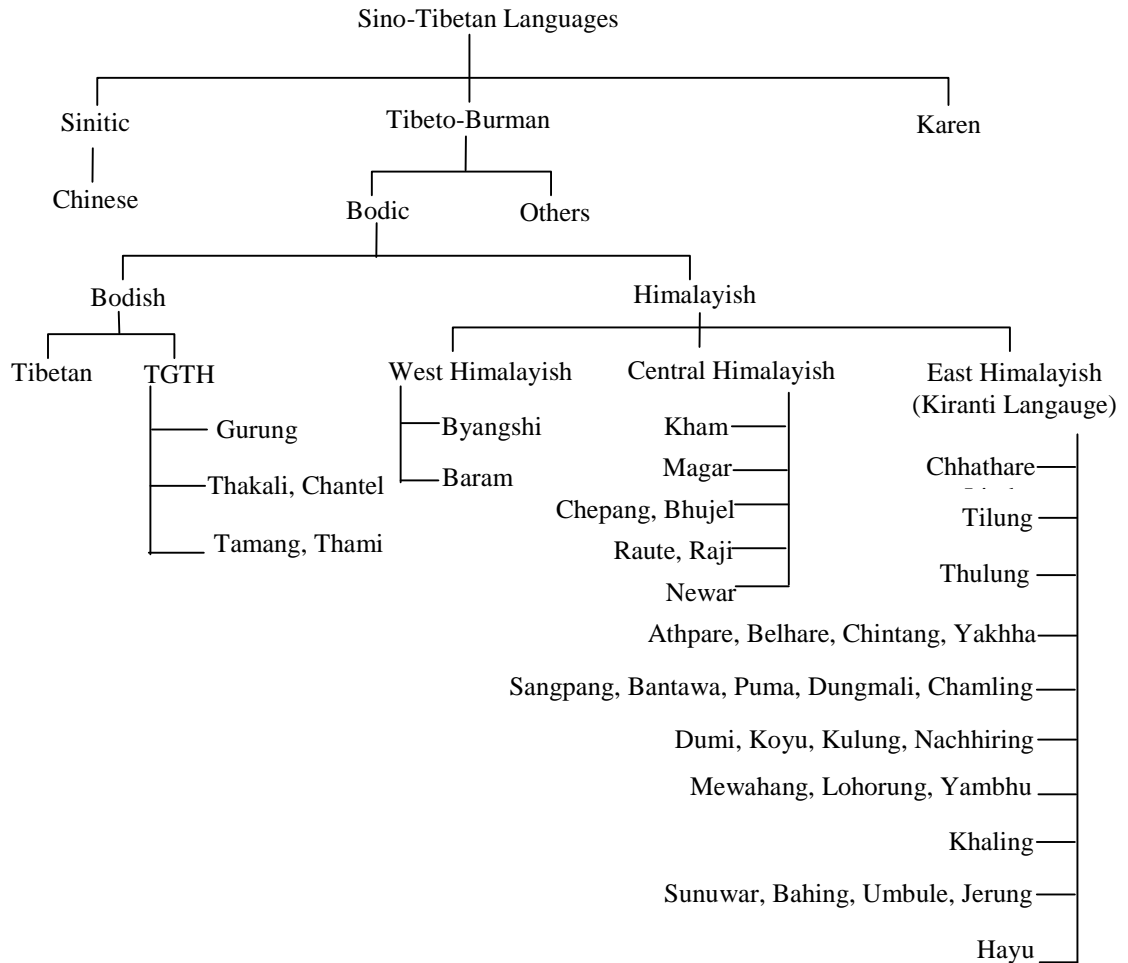
(Source: Yadav, 2003)

III. Austro-Asiatic Family

The Austic languages comprise Santhali of the northen 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 Santhali together into a single language called santhali.

Diagram 3 : Austro-Asiatic Languages

```
                        Austo Asiatic Languages
                                  |
              _____
             |                                        |
           Munda                                   Mon-Khmer
             |
      _____
     |                |
   North            South
     |                |
  _____        Kharia
 |         |
Kherwari  Other North
 |
_____
|        |
Santhali Munda
```

(Source: Yadav, 2003)

IV. Dravidian Family

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

Diagram 4 : Dravidian Languages

Dravidian Language

Central　　　　Northern　　　South-Central　　　　　　Southern

Kisan

Dhangar /Jhangar
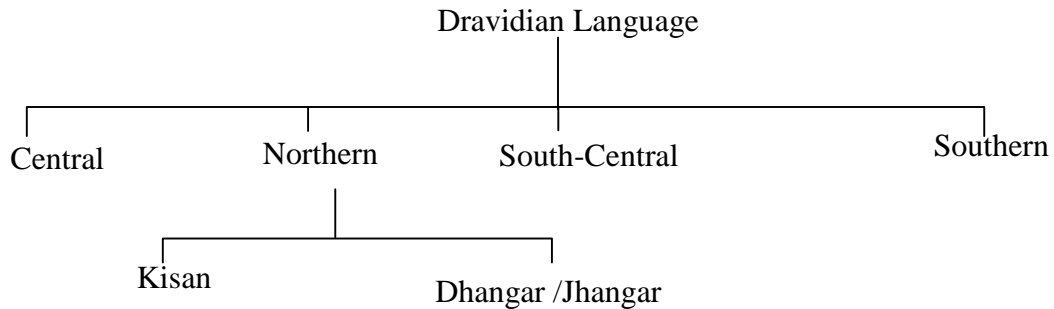
(Source: Yadav, 2003)

1.1.3 An Introduction to the Tamang Language

Some people believe that the Tamang language is a dialect of Tibetan languauge but Mazaudon (1993, p. 23) disagrees with this view and writes. According to him, Tamang is a language of the Tibeto-Burman language family belonging to the same branch as classical Tibetan, but it is not a descendant of classical Tibetan, it is not a Tibetan dialect. To use a family metaphor, Tamang is a grandnephew of classical Tibetan, not a grandchild. The Tamang people are one of the major aboriginal mongoloid groups of Nepal, belonging to the Tibeto-Burman language speaking community. They are one of the main languages speaking community. They possess specific modes of livelihood, unique culture, a distinct life style, social and cultural identities, they hold different perceptions about their societies, different notions of living and maintaining livelihood, different sets of ideas and methodologies associated with their customs and traditions.

The Langauge spoken by the Tamang people is called Tamang or Tamang Gyoi. In Tamang, Gyoi means speech or voice of Tamang. The Tamang language has its own classical written script, which is called Tamgyhig and Tamang community

has also accepted Devanagari script that is named Tamghig Devanagari script. Most of the Tamang publications are based in Devanagari script. The Tamang language has twenty four consonants and five vowels.

Though Tamang settlement is found across the country, the dense population of Tamang remains in the surrounding districts of the Kathmandu valley. Some authors maintain that the primary area for the Tamang is northwest of the Kathmandu valley. Tamang are widely distributed in mountain regions of Central Development Regions of Nepal and scattered all over the country and their dialectal variations have not been fully surveyed. It is well acknowledged that there are two regional varieties of Tamang language Eastern and Western. Trisuli River may be considered as the boundary line of theses regional varieties. These regional varieties differ phonologically, grammatically as well as lexically. Eastern variety has been recognized as the standard form in which a variety of literature and linguistic description including its phonology, grammar, and lexicography, and teaching materials are available in comparison to western variety (Lama, 2005, p. 16).

The Tamang language is one of the largest minority languages in Nepal. Tamang people are one of the major indigenous ethnic groups in Nepal. They are scattered all over the country. They are also found outside Nepal mainly in Darjeeling, Sikkim, Asam, Nagaland and Arunanchal Pradesh of North-East India and Bhutan, Mynmar and even in Tibet.

According to the census report 2001, the Tamang constitutes 5.64% of the country's population, records a total of 12,82,304 and fixes the number of active speakers 11,79,145 (5.19%) The dense population of Tamang in ten districts of central development region are mainly in Rasuwa (63.l75%), Makawanpur (47.34%), Nuwakot (38.52%), Sindhupalchowk (30.95%), Kabhrepalanchowk

(33.78%), Sindhuli (25.36%), Dhading (21.54%), Ramechap (20.56%), and Dolakaha (13.52%). They undoubtedly constitute the largest Tibeto-Burman language group in Nepal and fifth largest language spoken in the country as a mother tongue. The Tamang are found to have high degree i.e. 88.88%.

Table 1

Distribution of Tamang Population

SN	Districts	Total Population	Tamang Population	Percentage of Tamang population
01	Rasuwa	44,731	28,515	63.74
02	Makawanpur	3,92,604	1,85,874	47.34
03	Nuwakot	2,88,478	1,11,112	38.51
04	Sindhupalachowk	3,05,857	94,614	30.93
05	Kavrepalanchowk	3,85,672	1,30,261	33.77
06	Sindhuli	2,79,821	70,968	25.36
07	Dhading	3,38,658	72,476	21.40
08	Ramechhap	2,12,408	43,669	20.55
09	**Dolakha**	**2,04,229**	**27,619**	**13.52**
10	Lalitpur	3,37,785	40,059	11.85
11	Bhaktapur	2,23,461	14,728	6.53
12	Kathmandu	10,81,845	92,378	8.53
Total Population		40,97,549	9,12,273	22.26

(Source: CBS, 2001)

The Tamang people form a large ethnic group in Nepal. According to the Population Censuses of 2001, Tamang possesses the fifth position in Nepal.

Table 2

Ten Major Mother Tongues in Nepal

SN	Languages	Native speakers	Percentage
01	Nepali	11053255	48.98
02	Maithili	2797582	12.40
03	Bhojpuri	1717536	7.59
04	Tharu	1331546	5.90
05	**Tamang**	**1179145**	**5.22**
06	Newar	825458	3.66
07	Magar	770116	3.41
08	Abadhi	560744	2.48
09	Bantawa	371056	1.64
10	Gurung	338925	1.50

 (Source: CBS, 2001)

I. Dialects of the Tamang Language

The total Tamang population in Nepal is 5.64% and 5.19% employ Tamang
language in their daily activities. The present name of this language is derived
from the Tamang ethnicity which was first mentioned in 1205 A.D. Tamang is
known under several appellations such as 'Tamang Tam', Tamang Lengmo;
'Tamang kat', 'Tamang Kayi', 'Tamang Gyot', and 'Tamang Gyoyi within the
Tamang communities (Tamang, 2002, p. 6). These words 'Tamang Tam',
'Tamang Leregmo, 'Tamang Kat', 'Tamang Kayi', 'Tamang Gyot', and 'Tamang
Gyoyi' stand for 'Tamang Language'.

Tamang people are one of the major indigenous ethnic groups in Nepal pertaining
to the mongoloid sub-branch of Tibeto-Burman community. According to

Mcdonald (Yonjan, 2003, p. 3), the oldest historical record of the Tamang people appears to be the genealogical history of Ngari Gungthan kings by kah-tog rigdzin Tshe-dbang Nor-bu. Quoting the list of forts founded by king Bum-lde ingon who reigned from 1253 to 1280 AD. The term Tamang was banned to use for Tamang people as clan name for a long period until 1932 AD.

As the speakers spread over a wide geographical area, there appeared several dialects with corresponding variations in social and cultural practices. It is well acknowledged that there are two regional varieties of the Tamang language: eastern and western. The Trishuli River may be considered as the boundary line of these regional varieties. These varieties differ phonologically, grammatically as well as lexically.

i) Eastern Dialect

This dialect is spoken in eastern side of the Trishuli River in Sindhupalchok, Kabhre, Makawanpur, Ramechhap, Dolakha, and eastern parts of Nepal. It is also spoken in the North-Eastern region of India. This dialect has been regarded as the standard form in which a variety of literature and linguistic descriptions are produced.

ii) Western Dialect

This dialect is spoken in the western side of the Trishuli River mostly in Dhading, Nuwakot, Rasuwa and Gorkha districts. This dialect is regarded as less standarded variety in comparison with the eastern variety.

Claim from an ethnographic point of view is that "the Tamangs have generally been placed into three general groups defined largely by dialect similarities and

geography" (Frick et al., 1991, p. 4-5). The groups are western (toward Dhading districts, etc.), Central (encompassing the Kathmandu valley, and Eastern. The central variety is regarded as a bridge variety between western and eastern. While this interesting three-way division may be ethnographically revealing in some ways, the two ways distinction between western and eastern is more widely recognized, (Verenkamp, 1996, p. 9).

> *Eastern variety has been recognized as the standard form in which a variety of literature and linguistic description including its phonology, grammar, and lexicography, and teaching materials are available in comparison to western variety* (Lama, 2005, p. 16).

II. Sounds of the Tamang Language

The study of sound system falls under the field of phonetics and phonology. As phonetics and phonology is the most problematic area, most of the aspects of Tamang phonetics and phonology are not developed and identified yet. The following tables show the classification of the Tamang sounds:

i) Vowels

The inventory of ten vowel phonemes in Tamang has follows:

Table 3

Tamang Vowel Sounds

	Front	Central	Back
High	i/i:		u/u:
Mid	e/e:		o/o:
Low		a/a:	
Lip position	spread	neutral	rounded

(Source: Kansakar, 1999)

ii) Consonants

The inventory of thirty one consonant phonemes in Tamang can be presented as follows:

Table 4

Tamang Consonant Sounds

Place of the articulation	Bilabial		Apico-dental		Apico-Alveolar		Lamino-Alveolar		Palatal		Velar		Glotal	
Manner of the articulation	vl	vd	vl	vd	vl	vd	vl	vd	vl	vd	vl	vd	vl	vd
Stops	P Ph	b	t th	d	T TH	D					k kh	g		
Affricates							c ch	j						
Fricatives					s								h	
Nasal		m mh					n nh					h		
Lateral							l lh							
Trill							r rh							
Glide		w wh								y yh				

(Source: Kansakar, 1999)

1.1.4 The Importance of Contrastive Analysis

Contrastive Analysis (CA) is related to the comparison of languages. It is a linguistic enterprise aimed at producing inverted two valued typologies and founded on the assumption that languages can be compared. CA compares two or more languages in order to find out similarities and differences between two languages. CA is concerned with teaching rather than learning. It is founded on the

assumption that L2 learners tend to transfer the formal features of their L1 to L2. So, CA believes that greater the difficulty, the more instances of errors will occur.

CA is defined as a scientific study of similarities and differences between two or more than two languages. Often the two languages are source and target language or L1 and L2. Thus, the first language is known as native language or mother tongue or filter language and second one is the target language or foreign language or other language.

CA is a branch of applied linguistics, which came into existence during the late 1950's. It became very popular during the 60's. The basic assumption of CA is that while the learner is learning a second language, s/he will tend to use her/his first language structure in her/his learning and where structure in her/his target language differ from her/his native language, s/he will commit an error. It is based on the following assumptions:

i)   The main difficulties in learning a new language are caused by interference from the first language.
ii) The difficulties can be predicted by contrastive analysis.
iii) Teaching materials can make use of contrastive analysis to reduce the effects of interference.

CA approach in language teaching was first advocated by Fries and Lado. In 1945, Fries published a book entitled "Teaching and Learning English as a Foreign Language". In 1957, Robert Lado wrote a book entitled "Linguistics Across Culture" which disseminated the work initiated by Fries. Lado provided three underlying assumptions of CA, which have significant role in language teaching, (i) 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 productivity when attempting to speak the language and receptively when attempting to grasp and understand the language, (ii) the comparison between languages lies the key to ease or difficulty in foreign language learning, and (iii) 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.

Similarly, it is also assumed that (i) the past learning may facilitate present leaning if L1 and L2 are similar and ii) the past learning may hinder present learning if L1 and L2 are different.

In short, the more similarities between the two languages the more easier to learn and the more differences between the two languages the more difficulties to learn. We can say that the greater the similarities greater the ease and greater the ease lesser the chances of error and greater the difference greater the difficulty and greater the difficulty greater the chances of errors.

Thus, the greater the differences between languages, the greater the difficulties in learning and greater will be the incidences of erroneous performance. This is the implication of CA. Sthapit (1978b), in his article in "Education Quarterly" writes the roles of CA in L2 teaching as- when we start learning as L2 our mind is no longer clean state. Our knowledge of L1, as it were, stiffened our linguistically flexible mind. The linguistic habits of L1, deeply rooted in our mental and verbal activities, do not allow us to learn freely the new linguistic habits of L2. That is to say that the interferences of habits of L1 is a key factor that accounts for the difficulties in learning an L2. In other words, L1 interference stands as a main obstacle on our way to L2 learning. Learning an L2 is, therefore, essentially learning to overcome this obstacle. So any attempts to teach an L2 should be

preceded by an explanation of the nature of possible influence of L1-behaviour on L2-behaviour. This is precisely what CA does.

In language teaching, CA has great importance mainly with two functions. The primary function is to predict the tentative errors to be committed by the L2 learners whereas the secondary functions are to explain the sources and reasons of the L2 learners' errors. Therefore, a language teacher should have knowledge of CA to treat the learners psychologically and academically. Unless a teacher knows the resources and types of the errors that learners commit s/he can impart knowledge to the learners. Such a comparison would be helpful in pointing the areas of difficulties in learning and errors in performances, determining and specifying the areas, which the learners have to learn with greater emphasis, and helping to design teaching/learning materials for those particular areas that need more attention. The finding of CA would be useful for course designers, teachers, testing experts and learners. Therefore, CA is important from pedagogical point of view and its importance in teaching cannot be exaggerated. James (1980) 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.

1.1.5 Case

Among different traditional schools of philosophy and logic, the stoic-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 has described case in terms of inflections of nouns. The same tradition was carried over in Latin.

Anderson (1977) discusses case and case relations in details in this study on case. According to him, 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 semantic distinctions carried by the forms of that category. These can be differentiated as case forms and case relations or case functions respectively.

The word 'Case' is derived from the Latin word 'Casus' means 'falling' or 'deviation'. Among many were 'stoics' who gave to the word 'case' the more particular sense that it has since its birth in grammatical terminology.

"Case was the most important inflectional category of the noun, as tense was the most inflectional category of the verb. It is significant that the term case (originally more or less synonymous with what was later called 'inflection') was restricted to one particular inflectional category. The reason for this would seem to be that most of the other categories- gender, number, tense, person, etc- could be related to a principle of semantic classification" (Lyons, 1971, p. 289). And according to him, traditional grammar proposed seven cases with their syntactic functions which are as follow:

    Nominative - it marks the subject

    Accusative - the object of transitive verb

    Genitive - it expresses possession semantically

    Dative - indirect object

    Locative - adverb of place

    Ablative - instruments

    Vocative - expresses address semantically

Generally case is defined in traditional grammars as the relation in which a noun stands to some other word, or change of form (if any) by which this relation is indicated grammatical relation as wall as the change to form.

In general, traditional grammarians use the following cases:

    i. Slobin saw Slobica. (nominative)

    ii. She hit the cat. (accusative or objective)

    iii. Sanu gave a pen to Slovica. (dative)

    iv. Slovica's book. (genitive or possessive)

    v. He was standing on the bench. (locative)

    vi. She cut it with a sickle. (instrumental)

    vii. She fell down form a ladder. (ablative)

    viii. He came with his sister. (comitative)

    ix. Slovica ! (vocative)

Fillmore (1968), in his seminal article. 'The Case for Case' in a book entitled 'Universals in Linguistic Theory' edited by E. Bach and R.J. Harms, discussed mainly six cases namely, Agentive, Instrumental, Dative, Factitive, Locative and objective. In 1971, he extended the number up to eight namely Agentive, Instrumental, Patient/objective, Experiencer, Source, Goal, Locative and Time. These cases were deep structure cases, described 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. 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 5

Grammatical and Semantic Case

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

(Source: Blake, 1994)

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

1.1.6 Basic Concepts of Case Grammar

The concept of case is nothing new in grammar. Traditional grammarians have been discussing it for centuries, particularly in the case of synthetic languages like Latin, Greek and Sanskrit. In books of traditional grammar cases are morphosyntactically identified, whether a noun has been used in the nominative, accusative or genitive case or in any other case is ascertained on the basis of the morphosyntactic marker at the end of the noun. Discussing the case means

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

Fillmore has defined cases as the semantic roles which noun phrases have with respect to their verbs. And according to him, there are three basis concepts of case grammar and they are (I) syntactic function, (II) morphological form, and (III) semantic role.

I) Syntactic Function

Syntactic function is the traditional notion related to case grammar. It is the function, which is related with sentence level. It is the function of NP according to its position in the structure of a sentences. Objective (under-goes of the action that may come at the middle or at the end of sentence, complement (that is needed to complete the sentence) and Agentive (that comes after by in passive construction) are the examples of syntactic functions. In the sentences:

    i. Michael hit Jony.
    ii. Jony was hit by Michael.
    iii. The window broke.

In the above sentences 'Michael', 'Jony and 'the window' have the subjective function, but 'Jony' is the first sentence has objective function and 'Michael' in the second sentence has agentive function. 'The window' is the third sentence has objective function.

II) Morphological Form

Morphological form is a word level concept. The morphosyntactic forms in case grammar refer to prepositions or inflections, postpositions and case endings that

show particular relationship of related noun or noun phrases with the verb. by morphosyntatic 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 morposyntactic forms differ from language to language. Different monphosyntactic forms that mark cases are inflections, prepositions, postpositions, word order, intonation, affixation, suppletion (irregular change as in write, wrote, written/go, went, gone) 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	**Cases**
By	agent
With, by	instrument
From	source/ablative
To, into, until, towards	goal
In, at, on	location
To	dative
For	benefactive

III) Semantic Role

It is the dominant and recent developed concept of case grammar. It is the concept at meaning level. Fillmore has paid special attention to this concept and has called it as '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, p. 21).

Fillmore has explained his Case Grammar as the semantic role with the help of the following examples:

 i. John broke the window.

 ii. A hammar broke the window.

 iii. John broke the window with a hammer.

 iv. The window broke.

In the above sentence 'John' 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 presupposes two prototypical clause types:

 i. Single argument

  "Bob   left"

   S   V
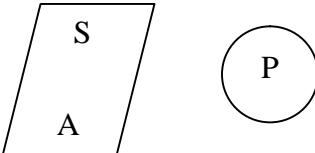
 ii. Multi-argument

  "Bob   greeted Aileron"

   A   V   P

 (Source: Payne, 1997)

The S is defined as the only nominal argument of a single - argument clause sometimes this type of clause is referred to as an intransitive clause. The A is defined as the most AGENT like argument of a multi-argument clause. Sometimes this type of clause is referred to as a transitive clause. If there is no argument that is a very good AGENT, the A is the argument that is treated morphosyntactically in the same manner as platotypical 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) has presented the various system for grouping S, A, and P and the marphosyntactic means languages employ to express these groupings. According to him, languages may treat S and A the same, and P differently. The following English examples illustrate this fact with pronominal case forms - one from, he, is used for third person singular masculine pronouns in both the S and A roles. A different form, him, is used for third person masculine singular pronouns in the P role:

i. He left.

ii. He hit him.

S
A

P

Similarly, he has given another example of the Quechuan languages, quoted from (Weber, 1989), that manifest this system in morphological case marking on free noun phrases. In the following examples the same case marker, 0 (zero), occurs on

noun phrases in both the S and A roles. Another case marker, -ta, occurs on noun phrases in the P role:

Hu nuco Quechua

   i. Juan - ∅   aywan   "Juan goes."

       Juan- NOM   goes

   ii. Juan- ∅   Pedro-ta   maqan   "Juan hits Pedro."

       Juan - NOM   Pedro-ACC   hits

       A   P

   (Source: 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, 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.

   Doris - aq   ayallrung   "Doris traveled."

   Doris - ABS   traveled

     S

   Tom-am   Dorih-ag   cingallrua   "Tom greeted Doris."

   Tom-ERG   Doris-ABS   greeted

     A   P

   (Source: 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 alone it can be called the Ergative case. Similarly, any morphological case that marks both S and P can be termed the case.

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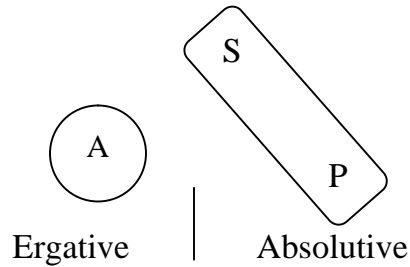
This system is known as an ergative - absolutive system. In other words, the ergative-absolutive, system groups S and P (absolutive) together against A (ergative).

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 relation, 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/concord on verbs are listed below along with a general indication of how commonly they arise in the languages of the world:

Possible grouping of S, A, and P.

| Grouping	Label	Frequency
[A, S] [O]	Nominative-accusative	Common
[A] [S, P]	Ergative-absolutive	Common
[A] [S] [P]	Tripartite	Very rare
[S] [A, P]	Accusative focus	Unattested
[A, S, P]	Neutral	Unattested

(Source: Whaley, 1997)

1.1.8 Cases in the English Language

The English cases which are going to be discussed nominative, accusative, instrumental, genitive (possessive), comitative, locative, ablative, dative and vocative, are based on the ones discussed by Lyons (1968), Fillmore (1968) Quirk et al. (1985), Comrie (1989), Blake (1994), Huddleston (1996) and Payne (1997). Each of them are explained in some detail below.

I) Nominative Case

Nominative is syntactic/grammatical case and it is the form taken by a noun phrase when it is subject of intransitive or transitive clauses. "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, ..." (Huddleston, 1996, p. 98). "If any morphological case marks both S (Single arguments of intransitive predicate) and A (agent argument of transitive

verb) roles, it is called the nominative case, while the case that marks only the P (patient argument of two-place transitive verb) role is the accusative case" (Payne, 1997, p. 137). For example,

i. He left.

ii. He hit him.
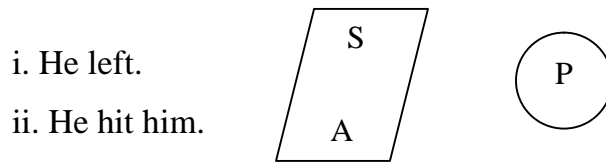
Here, subject of intransitive verb 'left' and subject of transitive verb 'hit' are treated in the same way as 'he' but object of transitive verb is threaded differently as 'him'.

Similarly, "In English one case is used to encode S and A - a case of this kind is called nominative; and another case is used to encode P- a case of this kind is called accusative" (Comrie, 1989, p. 111).

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

i. The girl broke the table. (agent)

   NOM   ACC

ii. Marry felt happy. (experiencer)

   NOM

iii. The snowflake melted. (patient)

    NOM

II) Accusative Case

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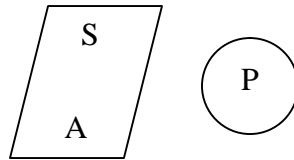
Huddleston (1996), Payne (1997), and Comrie (1989), it is clear that accusative case is treated differently than nominative case in English. For example,

i. I laughed.
  NOM

ii. I hate him.
   NOM ACC

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

i.   She broke the table. (patient)
    NOM   ACC

ii. A dog drank the water. (patient)
    NOM   ACC

III) Instrumental Case

Instrumental is "the means by which an activity or change of state is carried out" (Black, 1994, p. 69). "The case of the inanimate force or object causally involved in the action or state identified by the verb" (Fillmore, 1968, p. 24). The 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 or state identified by the verb. For example,

i.   He ate rice with a spoon.

ii. The sun dried the clothes.

iii. Harry beat me by stick.

iv. The stone broke the mirror.

v. I cut my foot with an axe.

IV) Genitive Case

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

    i.   It is Slovica's book.

    ii. The hood of the bus was dented.

    iii. The back lights of the van are damaged.

    iv. The pig's tail is cut.

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

    i.   This is Sanu's book→ This is her book. (determinative)

    ii. This book is Sanu's → This book is hers. (independent/pronominal)

V) Comitative Case

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

    i.   The dog is with his master.

    ii. She is coming with her husband.

    iii. Uday sang with Manita.

VI) Locative Case

The term locative as, "The case which identifies the location or spatial orientation of the state or action identified by the verb" (Fillmore, 168, p. 25). It is "the position of an entity" (Blake, 1994, p. 69). For example,

i.   The mobile is on/under/near the bench.
ii. Bhedetar is windy.
iii. It is mindy in Bhedetar.
iv. A dog is behind me.
v.   The cow ran towards the house.
vi. The chair is in front of me.

VII) Ablative Case

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

i.   Sanju bought the car from Dane.
ii. We leased the apartment from Mr. John.
iii. The class lasted from afternoon to evening.
iv. A mango fell down from the tree.

VIII) Dative Case

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

i. He gave the cat a dish of milk.

ii. She gave me a pencil.

iii. She gave a pencil to me.

iv. He bought a copy for her sister.

v. Sony sold the bicycle to Sapana.

IX) Vocative Case

Vocative is the case form taken by noun phrase when it is used in the function of address. "The vocative is used as a form of address". (Blake, 1994, p. 9). "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, p.773). English does not make use of the vocative case inflectionally, but expresses the notion using an optional noun phrase, in certain positions, and usually with a distinctive intonation. For example,

i. JOHN, DINner's ready.

ii. And THAT, my FRIENDS, concludes my SPEECH.

iii. My BACK is aching, DOCtor. (ibid)

1.2 Review of Related Literature

Up to now different researches have been carried out on comparative study of English and Tamang languages. Two researches on English and Nepali cases, one research on English and Maithili cases, and one research on English and Limbu cases have been carried out. The related literatures to the present study are as follows:

Bhattarai (2001) carried out a research on entitled 'Case in English and Nepali: A Comparative Study.' His objectives were to find out the similarities and

differences between Nepali and English case systems and to identify morphological and syntactic features of the case of both the English and Nepali languages. Some of his findings are:

i)   The same case marker can occur with various cases in both languages,

ii) If there is only one case in a sentence, it automatically becomes the subject in both languages,

iii) The verbs appear at the beginning of the proposition section of the sentence in English but it appears at the end in Nepali.

Adhikari (2001) has done research work on 'Case Realization in English and Nepali: A Comparative Study.' His study concentrations on their similarities and differences in case realizations between these languages. His some research findings were: English is a nominatives-accusative king of language whereas Nepali was an eragative-absolutive' types of language, case marker occurs before the noun in English but it occurred after the noun in Nepali, and the same case marker can occur with various cases in both languages.

Karn (2004) performed a research work entitled 'A Comparative Study of Cases in Maithili and English.' His objectives were to identify and analyze case in Maithili, and to compare Maithili case with English ones. His finding was that Maithili language has nominative, accusative, instrumental, dative, ablative, genitive and locative cases.

Limbu (2007) has carried out a research on 'Case in English and Limbu: A Comparative Study.' His main objectives were to identify and describe cases in Limbu and to find out similarities and differences between Limbu and English cases. His finding was that cases identified in the Limbu language and similarities and differences between the Limbu and English languages.

Yonjan (2003) accomplished a research on entitled "Tamang Nominal Morphology." His study shows that the nouns, pronouns, adjectives, classifiers and numerals are the nominal in Tamang. Each of them has a separate morphological construction. And also Noun stems are of four types, viz. Simple, Complex, Compound and Derived. According to him, there is no grammatical gender in Tamang. And also about case, there are seven case relations set up in Tamang viz. direct, ergative dative, genitive, locative, instrumental and associative. He has also found that on the basis of their semantic functions, Tamang adjectives can be classified as qualitative, indicatives, and demonstrative adjectives. Structurally Tamang adjectives are simple, derived and reduplicative.

Lama (2005) has carried out a research on entitled "English and Tamang Pronominals: A Comparative Study." His study was based on the comparison and contrast of the pronominal system of two languages. The descriptive analysis of the data comparing with corresponding areas found that unlike in English, Tamang has not only greater number of pronouns, but the pronominal system more complex as well. He also found that Tamang personal and possessive pronouns are categorized under three numbers: singular, dual and plural. This shows the distinction between inclusive and exclusive references in the first person, dual and plural numbers in the Tamang language.

Tamang (2007) performed a research work entitled "The Forms of Address of Tamang and English: A Comparative Study." The study tried to find out the forms of address used in Tamang and English languages and to compare the common equivalents in Tamang. Tamang language has several forms of address but English language lacks such concepts. The study showed that English has less number of kinship terms in comparison to Tamang.

Thus, no comparative study has been carried out to find out the similarities and differences between Tamang and English case systems. So, the researcher is interested to identify and describe cases in Tamang, and to find out similarities and differences between case systems of the Tamang and English languages.

1.3 Objectives of the Study

The present study had the following objectives:
  i) To identify and describe cases in Tamang
  ii) To find out similarities and differences between the Tamang and English cases
  iii) To list some pedagogical implications

1.4 Significance of the Study

Being a new research work on the Tamang language at the Faculty of Education, Department of English language, this research will be invaluable for the Department itself since no research has been conducted yet on 'Cases in Tamang and English'. The study will be fruitful to all the language students, language teachers, textbook writers, syllabus designers and the researchers who are interested in sociolinguistic aspect of the Tamang and English languages.

The study also will be significant for all the people who are directly and indirectly involved in Tamang and English language teaching in particular and all the other languages in general and prospective researchers who are eager to know the cases in the Tamang and English languages.

1.5 Definition of the Specific Terms

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

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

Absolutive: A grammatical relation that subsumes S and P where 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.

Accusative-language: A language in which morphosyntactic rules identify A with S opposing SA (the subject) to P (the object).

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

Case Marker: Case marker refers to preposition, postposition, and case ending.

Definitive: An entity 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.

Dual: A grammatical category that refers to the number 'two' with reference to pronoun in all persons.

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-absolutive: 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 addresses 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 where 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 can not be identifies by the hearer is referred to as indefinite.

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

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

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

Participant/argument: Participant/argument in this study refers to the NP that participates in the action or process in a sentence. Each participant is said to have a certain type of case relationship with the verbal element of the sentence.

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

S: The single argument of the place predicate.

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

CHAPTER TWO
METHODOLOGY

This chapter deals with the methodology adopted in the study. The study was conducted as follows:

2.1 Sources of Data

To carry out this research work, both the primary and secondary sources of data were used. The sources are as follows:

2.1.1 Primary Sources

The native speakers of the Tamang language of Gairimudi and Mirge VDCs of Dolakha district were the primary sources from where the researcher collected the required data for the research.

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, magazines, research reports, theses, internet and others. For example, Fillmore (1968), Blake (1994), Payne (1997), Poudel (1997), Whaley (1997), Lama (2059), and Yonjan (2003).

2.2 Sampling Procedure

The sample of the study was selected through judgmental sampling. From Gairimudi VDC forty (twenty male and twenty female) and from Mirge VDC forty (twenty male and twenty female) sampling of different age groups were selected through the snow ball sampling procedure.

2.3 Tools for Data Collection

The structured interview schedule (Appendix-II) was the main tool for data collection. A set of interview questions were prepared to draw the information on the case system of the Tamang language from the Tamang native speakers. English sentences were used as the reference for data collection and to facilitate them with corresponding Nepali sentences were also used.

2.4 Process of the Data Collection

The researcher followed the following procedures to collect the data for this research work:

i. The researcher prepared required interview schedule, visited the selected VDCs and established a good relation with the Tamang native speakers.

ii. He interviewed the Tamang native speakers according to the prepared interview schedule.

iii. After collecting the data through interview schedule, the researcher participated in daily conversation with the Tamang native speakers for one and half week which helped the researcher to verify the data.

iv. The answers given by the Tamang native speakers were recorded using the Roman Transliteration of Devanagari Script (Appendix-III).

2.5 Limitation of the Study

i. The study was limited to Tamang speakers of Gairimudi and Mirge VDCs of Dolakha district.

ii. The total study population was limited to eighty native speakers of the Tamang language.

iii. The study was based on the eastern dialect of the Tamang language.

iv. The study was limited to these cases: nominative, accusative, ergative, absolutive, dative, genitive, comitative, locative, instrumental, ablative and vocative.

v. The work was descriptive in nature.

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 tables and illustrations. After the analysis of the data, the similarities and differences between Tamang and English cases are mentioned with examples. Thus, this chapter consists of two parts: Identification and Analysis of Cases in the Tamang Language and Similarities and Differences between the Tamang and English cases.

3.1 Identification and Analysis of Cases in the Tamang Language

The cases which are identified in Tamang language are given as follows:

3.1.1 Ergative Case

Ergative is the case of nouns in ergative languages that would generally be the subjects of transitive verbs in the translation equivalents of nominative-accusative languages such as English. It is equivalent to semantic role agent. Tamang language has two ergative markers **-i** and **-Se.** Ergative case is possible when the NP (N/Pro + ERG) is subject to the transitive verb in the simple past tense and in perfect aspects, and subject to the modal verb, 'tola' (be: M). For example,

    i.   Dorze-se w^{h}ai go-zi

        'Dorje-ERG song sing-Pt'

        "Dorje sang a song."

    ii.   Puk^{h}ri-se   ida zi-la

        'Snake-ERG you -DAT bite-NPt'

        "A snake will bite you."

iii. Pasa -se kan ca-ba mu-ba

'Pasang - ERG rice eat-PERF be NML'

"Pasang had eaten rice."

iv. puk^{h}r-i k^{h}a-la

'Snake-ERG come - NPT.'

"A Snake will come."

v. do -se t^{h}e-ni-da sat-la

'Tree-ERG S/he -pl - DAT Kill-NPt.'

"A tree will kill them."

(Source: Poudel, 2006)

3.1.2 Instrumental Case

Instrumental is the case of something which is used inanimately as a means or weapon of agent that is helpful to perform an action or is the case of inanimate force or object causally involved in the action or state identified by the verb. In the Tamang language, the case clitic-se is affixed to the inanimate nouns or pronouns to mark instrumental case. For example,

i. t^{h}e-se camca-se kan ca-ba-mu-la.

'He spoon-INS rice eat-be-NPt.'

"He eats rice with a spoon."

ii. a mad^h umalla g^{h}jam bas-ri k^{h}a-zi

'I bus-INS Mahumalla come-PT.'

"I came from Madhumalla by bus."

iii. m^{h}e Kat^{h}i-se sat-ci

'Stick-INS Cow kill-pt.'

"A cow was killed with a stick."

iv. cu tʰela h se-se tʰa-zi

'Sickle-INSit cut-pt.'

"He cut it with a sickle."

3.1.3 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 basis relationship between the location and the object involved with it. It holds the attitude of being oriented, depending upon, consisting of or inseparable relationship between the object and the location or spatial orientation of the action or state identified by the verb. In the Tamang language, locative case is marked by the case marker suffixes -ri, -la, -zasa , -kemsa , -nʰa , -gu , -tʰori, -diri, -pʰirgjap, -lisa /liccʰa, - asa /-naccʰa and -ker/wʰna. For example,

i. cʰiri cu-ri mu-la.

'Chhiring this -LOC be -NPT.'

"Chhiring is here."

ii. cʰiri namsa -ri mu-ta.

'Chhiring village-LOC be-NPT.'

"Chhiring is in the village."

iii. buri , dʰim-ri -ti-u.

'Sister - VOC home-LOC NEG-Stay-IMP.'

"Sister, don't stay at home."

iv. tagi tʰobo-ri mu-la.

'Head-LOC Cap be -NPt.'

"A cap is on the head."

v. m^{h}e d^{h}o -diri mu-la

'Cow tree-LOC be-NPT.'

"A cow is under a tree."

vi. ai d^{h}im zasa   k^{h}a-zi.

'You home-LOC come Pt.'

"You come to this side of the house."

vii. ai d^{h}im   acc^{h}a mu-ba.

'You home-LOC be-NML.'

"You were in front of the house."

viii. brabo d^{h}o   thori mu-la.

'boy tree-LOC be-NPt.'

"A boy is on the tree."

3.1.4 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 Tamang language, the ablative case -gjam denotes the starting point of a movement or the point in time after which something takes place. For example,

i.   a tandi-gjam- k^{h}a-zi

'I Tandi - ABL come-Pt.'

"I came from Tandi."

ii.   mad^{h}umalla - gjam bas-ri k^{h}a-zi

'I madhumalla - ABL bus-LOC come-Pt.'

"I came from Madhumalla by bus."

45

iii. tʰe bʰrja gjam tai-zi

'The ladder - ABL fell down.'

"She fell down from the ladder."

iv.   a mirge-gjam bas-ri kʰa-zi

'I Mirge - ABL bus-LOC come - Pt.'

"I came from Mirge by bus."

3.1.5 Dative Case

The dative case typically expresses an "indirect object" relationship. It is given special status in case grammar, where it refers to the case or animate being affected by the verb's state or action. It is equivalent to semantic role 'recipient'. In the Tamang language the case -da is affixed to the recipient of the principal object of an intransitive verb and marks dative case. For example,

i.   a-i lakpa-da cʰjoi pin-zi

'I-ERG Lakpa-DAT book give -Pt.'

"I gave Lakpa a book."

ii. duppa -se lakpa-da p pin-zi

Duppa-ERG Lakpa-DAT mango give - Pt.'

"Duppa gave a mango to Lakpa."

iii. sonam-se sapana-da kwan pin-zi.

'Sonam-ERG Sapana-DAT cloth gave.'

"Sonam gave Sampana a cloth."

iv. pasa -se rʰo-da jaba pin-zi.

'Pasang-ERG maney - ABS friend-DAT sent'.

"Pasang sent money to a friend."

3.1.6 Agentive Case

In the Tamang language the agentive case -gjam is affixed to noun or pronoun to refer to an agent to perform the work. For example,

   i.   Pema-gjam gjat lasi mu-la.

         'Pema-AGE work be - PERF be - NPt'.

         'The work has been done by Pema."

  ii.   dukpa-gjam sat-pa gjat la-zi.

         'Dukpa-AGE kill-NML work be - Pt.'

         "Dukpa performed the work of killing."

 iii.   ram-gjam rawan-da sat-ci.

         'Ram -AGE kill-NML be-Pt.'

         "Ram was killed by Rawan."

3.1.7 Comitative Case

The comitative is a case form taken by a noun when it expresses the meaning of 'along with', or 'accompanied by'. The comitative case -t^{h}en occurs in free variation with -pre, when this clitic is affixed to animate noun, it gives the meaning 'in company with'. Inanimate noun with comitative case means "mixed up with". For example,

   i.   narb^{h}u cu-ri   a-t^{h}en kla -ba mu-la

         'Narbhu I-COM this - LOC play - be - NPt.'

         "Narbhu plays here with me."

  ii.   a - i kan-t^{h}en k^{h}u ca-zi.

         'I - ERG rice-COM curry eat-Pt.'

         "I ate rice with curry."

In (i)   a-tʰen is animate comitative meaning 'in company with me' whereas kan-tʰen (ii) is inanimate comitative meaning 'curry mixed up with'.

    iii.   a cjon-tʰen ni-zi.

       'I brother-COM go-Pt.'

       "I went to (my) brother."

    iv. pema-tʰen zjaba mu-la.

       'Pema-COM money be -NPt'

       "Pema has money."

3.1.8 Vocative Case

Vocative is a case form taken by a noun when it is used in the form of address. In Tamang, -zugu, -a, and -e are vocative case marker. For example,

    i.   rʰo-zugu ni-ge

       'Friend-VOC ! go IMP.'

       "Friends ! lets go."

    ii.   kʰe ! curi kʰau

       'Grandfather-VOC ! come IMP.'

       "Grandfather ! come here."

    iii.   ma ! kan cu

       'Mother-VOC ! eat IMP.'

       "Mother ! eat rice."

    iv.   ba! tʰda lobo

       'Father -VOC ! teach IMP.'

       "Father ! teach him."

3.1.9 Genitive Case

The genitive case typically expresses a possessive relationship or it is the case of possession. In the Tamang language, formally it is identical to the ergative suffix as described in 3.1.1. For example,

    i.   Slovika-la m^{h}e mlak^{h}a-i mu-la

        'Slovica - GEN cow black - NML be - NPt'

        "Sovica's cow is back."

    ii. dorze-la k^{h}ui zja-ba mu-la

        'Dorje-GEN wife good - NML be - NPt.'

        "Dorje's wife is good."

    iii.   a-la kal m bi-ma dolma-la kalam zja-ba mu-la

        'I -GEN pen than Dolma - GEN pen good - NML be - NPt.'

        "Dolma's pen is better than my pen."

Tamang possessive pronouns, with determinative function are given in the following table.

Table 6

Tamang Possessive Pronouns

Number	Person	Possessive Prefixes
Singular	1. incl	j^ha -ni
	1. excl	a-ni
	1.	-
	2.	ra -
	3.	t^he-
Plural	1. incl	j^h -ni gade-
	1. excl	a-ni gade-
	1.	j^ha -ni-
	2.	ra -ni-
	3.	t^he-ni-

For example,

iv.   a-la d^him

'I sg- house'

"My house"

v.   i-la d^him

'2 sg- house'

"your house"

vi. jha -ni- la d^him

'I Pl incl-house'

"Our house"

vii. ra - la c^{h}joi

'2 pl - book'

"Your book"

viii. t^{h}e - ni-la c^{h}joi

'3 pl-book'

"There book"

(See Appendix III).

3.2 Similarities and Differences Between the Tamang and English Case

The cases which are similar and different in the Tamang and English language are given as follows:

3.2.1 Ergative and Nominative Cases

Ergative case of Tamang and nominative case for transitive verb of English are similar since both of them refer to the grammatical relation 'subject' of transitive verb. For example,

Tamang

i. dorze-se w^{h}ai go-zi (sub)

'Dorze-ERG song sang.'

"Dorge sang a song."

ii. puk^{h}ri- se   ida zi-la. (sub)

'Snake-ERG I you bite.'

"A snake will bite you."

(Source: Poudel, 2006)

English

    i.   Rahul killed a snake. (sub.)

       NOM   ACC

    ii. Milton hit me. (sub.)

       NOM   ACC

English nominative case refers not only to the subject of transitive verb but also the subject of intransitive verb but Tamang 'ergative case refers only to the subject of transitive verb. For example,

Tamang

    i.   Pasa -se kan ca-ba mu-ba.

       'Pasang -ERG rice eat - PERF be NML.'

       "Pasang has eaten rice."

    ii. Puk^h-ri k^{h}a-la

       'Snake-ERG come-NPt.'

       "A snake will come."

       (Source: Poudel, 2006)

English

    i.   John hit the women. (Sub of TV)

       NOM   ACC

    ii. John laughed. (Sub of IV)

       NOM

Tamang ergative case is marked by the case suffixes -se, - zi, -ba, and -la whereas English does not have such case suffixes (i.e. zero marked) but marks by word order. In English, subject occurs before the verb in declarative clauses and after the operator in Yes- No interrogative clauses. For example,

Tamang

i. bʰagawan-se jʰa -da zjaʰa la-gai

   'God - ERG we save.'

   'God save us."

ii. 'duppa - se   p pin - zi

   'Duppa - ERG mango gave'

   "Duppa gave a mango."

iii. jʰa - se pemba - da netpa - la ta- na la-zi.

   'We - ERG laugh - ABS made.'

   "We made Pemba laugh."

English

i. Everybody [Sub] has left [V] for the day.

   NOM

ii. Has [op] anybody [by] left for the day?

      NOM

But,

   iii. * gave Milton mango

        V   NOM   ACC

   iv. * made   John   yesterday

        V   NOM

Indefinite - definite distinction is found in ergative case marking in Tamang, -ba/-la for indefinite and -se/-zi for definite, but such distinction is not found in nominative case marking in English since both indefinite and definite nominative occur in the same position. English uses articles for indefinite and definite. For example,

Tamang

   i.   mʰe kadi- se sat - ci

        'Cow - Indef. ERG stick killed.'

        'A cow has killed with a stick.'

   ii. mʰe ni - da dadi-gat - sat sat-ci.

        'Cow-Def ERG stick - ABS killed'

        "The cow has killed the stock."

English

   i.   A Cat killed the rat.

        NOM   ACC

   ii. The cat died.

        NOM

Definite ergative case marker -ba/-la is used after expressed or unexpresed plural marker -ni after vowel ending personal nouns and some kinship terms but English nominative does not have separate case marker for such things. For example,

   i.   jʰa - se pemba-da netpa - la tana la-zi

        'We - Pl. ERG Pemba - ABS made'

        "We made Pemba laugh."

   ii. dorze - se wʰai - gade go - zi.

        'Dorje-ERC song-ABS sang'

        "Dorje sang the song."

   iii. ram-se rawan - da sat-cui,

        'Ram - ERG- raman - ABS caused.'

        "Ram caused Rawan's death."

English

i. The goats ate the grass.

    NOM   ACC

ii. The goat ate the grass.

    NOM   ACC

iii. John hit Harry

    NOM   ACC

iv. God saved us.

    NOM   ACC

As English nominative case, Tamang personal pronouns are not marked by any case marked except third person plural pronoun. For example,

Tamang

i.   a t^he - da - $\varnothing$ manpar- tama-la

    'I - ERG she like.'

    "I like her."

ii. j^ha - se - $\varnothing$ gol kl   - zi

    'We (dl excl) - ERG goal - ABS played.'

    "We played the ball."

iii. t^he - ni - se j_ha   - da gap - ci

    'They (pl) - ERG we (dl incl) followed.'

    "They followed us."

English

i. She came yesterday.

    NOM

ii. They ate the mango.

    NOM ACC

3.2.2 Instrumental Case

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

Tamang

    i.   cabi-se mrap t^{h}o   - zi.

        'Key - INS. door - ABS opened.'

        "The key opened the door."

English

    i.   The key opened the door.

        INS   ACC

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

Tamang

    i.   dini-se kwan-gade k^{h}ar-zi

        'Sun-INS cloth-ABS dried.'

        "The sun dried the clothes."

    ii. me-se   a-la ja kro-zi

        'Fire - INS 1 sg- hand-ABS burnt.'

        "The fire burnt my hand."

English

    i.   The stone broke the glass.

The Tamang instrumental case markers are identical to ergative case markers which are -se, -zi, -ba, and -la. English uses prepositions 'with' and 'by' as instrumental case markers. For example,

Tamang

i. tʰe-se   a-da swa-se krap-ci

'He - I - teeth-INS bite.'

"He bite me with a teeth."

ii.   ai-se tʰe-da ljakpa-se pin - zi.

'I - he - foot - INS beat.'

"I beat him by foot."

iii. mʰj - gat - se tar   - da ja-gat-se cu -zi

'man - ERG hand - Pl - INS - Fish - Catched.'

"The men catched the fish with hand."

English

i.   I cut my nail with nail cutter.

ii. Milton bite me by teeth.

3.2.3 Locative Case

The Tamang and English langauges have the semantic case 'locative'. They are different only because of their distinct case marking system. Tamang locative case markers are -n, -la, -zasa , -kemsa , -nʰa , -gun, -tʰori, -diri, -kemsa , -pʰirg-jap, -lisa /-liccʰa, , - a sa /- accʰa, and -ker/wʰana etc. and English locative case markers are 'here' 'in/within', between/middle', 'up/over', 'down/below/under,' 'at this side', 'ascross/heyond', 'outside', behind/after', in front of/before', and near, etc. For example,

Tamang

i.   cʰiri   nam sa-ri mu-la.

'Chhiring village - LOC be - NPt.'

"Chhiring is in the village."

ii. tagi tʰobo-ri mu-la.

'Cap head - LOC be - NPt.'

"A Cap is on the head."

iii. mʰe dʰo - diri mu-la

'Cow tree-LOC be- NPt.'

"A cow is under a tree."

iv. soni dʰimla pʰirgap mu-la.

'Soni home-LOC be NPt.'

"Soni is outside of the home."

English

i.   The book is on/under/near the table.

ii. The cat ran towards the house.

iii. The rate is at the window.

iv. The teachers are in the office.

3.2.4 Ablative Case

The Tamang and English language have the semantic case 'ablative'. They differ only is their case marking system. In Tamang, it is marked by suffixes - gjam, - hense and in English it is marked by proposition, 'from'. For example,

Tamang

i.   a tandi-gjam kʰa-zi.

'I tandi - ABL came.'

"I came from Tandi."

ii. tʰe bʰrja   gjam tai - zi.

'She ladder - ABL fall down.'

"She fell down from the ladder."

iii. jʰa   madʰumalla - hense bas-ri kʰa-zi.

'We Madhumalla - ABL bus - LOC came.'

"We came from Madhumalla by bus."

English

i.   Slovica bought the pen from Sanu.

ii.   He leased the apartment from Tom.

iii. An orange fell down from the tree.

In Tamang, locative suffixed '-o' and ablative suffix '-gjam/-hense are combined to specify the location but such combination is not available in English. For example,

i.   Bikram came from Bikas's house.

'bikram bikas-la dʰim-∅ -gjam kʰa-zi'.

"Bikarm Bikas - GEN 3 sg - house-LOC-ABL Came'

"Bikram came from Bikas's house."

ii.   jʰa   dʰo -∅ -gjam tai - zi.

'We (dl excl) tree - LOC - ABL fell down.'

"We fell down from the tree."

English

i.   *John came at from Jerry's house.

ii.   * William brought the pencil on from David.

3.2.5 Dative Case

The Tamang dative case is identical to the Tamang absolutive case in terms of case marking. For example,

i.   ai lakpa - da cʰjoi pin - zi.

'I lakpa - DAt book - ABS gave.'

"I gave lakpa a book."

ii. duppa - se lakpa - da p pin-zi

'Duppa mango-Def. ABS Lakpa - Def. DAT gave.'

"Duppa gave a mango to Lakpa."

But English treats accusative and dative case differently. Dative is marked by preposition. 'to' and 'for' and 'by' accusative if there is no use of those prepositions in the sentence. For example,

i. He took the cat a dish of milk.
   NOM   DAT   ACC

ii. She sent a letter to her friend.
    NOM   ACC   DAT

iii. He bought a pencil for his brother.
     NOM   ACC   DAT

iv. She sent a letter her friend.
               ACC   DAT

3.2.6 Vocative Case

Tamang makes use of the vocative case inflectionally, suffix -e, for singular, -zugu for non-singular, and '-a' for the terms ' ma' (mother), ' ba' (father) etc. For example,

i. k^h - e !
     'Grandfather - VOC !'
     "Grandfather !"

ii. r^ho !
     'Friend - VOC !'
     "Friend !"

60

iii. rʰo - zugu !

'Friends - VOC !'

"Friends !"

iv. ma !

'Mother - VOC !'

"Mother !"

v. ba !

'Father - VOC !'

'Father !"

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

i. TOM, DINner's ready.

VOC

ii. And THAT, my FRIENDS, concludes my SPEECH.

VOC

iii. My BACK is aching, DOCtor

VOC.

3.2.7 Accusative Case

Transitive verb of Tamang and accusative case of English are similar since both of them refer to the direct object of transitive verb. For example,

Tamang

   i.   a-i pemba - da - ɸ jot - ci (Obj. of TV)

        'I - EFT Pemba - DAT laugh - Pt'.

        "I made pemba laugh."

  ii. P^{h}uk^{h}ri - se tar a - da sat-ci. (obj. of TV)

        'Snake - ERG - fish - ABS killed.'

        "The snake killed the fish."

English

   i. Marry hit Harry. (Obj. of TV)

      NOM   ACC

  ii. Tom broke the door (obj. of TV)

      NOM   ACC

Indefinite - definite distinction in case marking is found in Tamang absolutive case whereas indefinite absolutive is zero-marked and definite absolutive is marked by -da, -dugu and -n but English accusative case is inflectionally zero marked but it uses indefinite and definite articles. For example,

Tamang

   i. m^{h}e - se g^h s - ∅ ca - zi

      'Cow-ERG grass - Indef. ABS ate.'

      "A cow ate grass."

  ii. m^{h}e - gade - se g^{h}as - dugu ca-zi.

      'Cow - ERG grass - Def. ABS ate.'

      "The cow ate the grass."

iii. Pʰu kʰri - se tar a - da sat-ci.

'Snake - ERG fish - Def. ABS killed.'

"The snake killed the fish."

English

i.   John tore the book.

NOM   ACC

ii. I gave a book to Harry.

NOM   ACC

The Tamang language does not have ergative - absolutive inflectional distinction for personal pronouns. Except third person plural for ergative, but English has a nominative - accusative distinction with personal pronouns. For examples,

Tamang

i.   ai tʰe-da to-zi.

'I - ERG he- ABS beat.'

"I beat him."

ii. tʰe - se   a - da to - zi.

he - ERG I - ABS beat.'

"He beat me."

English

i.   He hit me.

NOM ACC

ii. I hit me.

NOM ACC

The following table shows that the Tamang does not have ergative-absolutive inflectional distinction in personal pronouns.

Table 7

Tamang Personal Pronouns and their Case Function

Number	Person	Ergative	Absolutive
Sigular	1	a	a
	2	ra	ra
	3	t^{h}e	t^{h}e
Plural	1 incl	j^{h}a - ni, ra -ni, t^{h}e-ni	j^{h}a - ni, ra -ni, t^{h}e-ni
	1excl	a-ni, i-ni, cu-ni	a-ni, ai-ni, cu-ni
	2	t^{h}e-ni	t^{h}e-ni
	3	t^{h}e-ni-gade	t^{h}e-ni-gade

The following table shows the clear distinction between English nominative and accusative pronouns.

Table 8

English Personal Pronouns and their Case Function

	1st person		2nd person		3rd person	
	Sg	Pl	Sg	Pl	Sg	Pl
					masc fem nent	
Nominative	I	we			he, she, they	
			you			
Accusative	me	us			him, her, them	

The core semantic function of the absolutive and accusative cases is to express the role of 'patient'. For example,

Tamang

i. p^{h}uk^{h}ri - se tar a - da sat-ci (patient)

'Snake - ERG fish - ABS killed.'

"The snake killed the fish."

ii. sonam-se sapana-da c^{h}joi - $\varnothing$ pin-zi (patient)

'Sonam - ERG Sapana -DAT book-ABS gave.'

"Sonam gave Sampana a book."

English

i. She broke the door. (patient)

NOM   ACC

ii. A rat drank the milk. (patient)

NOM   ACC

In the Tamang language makes distinction in case marking between singular and plural definite absolutive cases but such distinction is not found in English accusative case marking since it uses the same position for both singular and plural accusative. For example,

Tamang

i. P^{h}uk^{h}ri - se tar a - da sat - ci.

'Snake - ERG fish Def. ABS killed.'

"The snake killed the fish."

ii. m^{h}e - gade - se g^{h}as - dugu ca-zi.

'Cow - ERG grass - Def. ABS ate.'

"The cow ate the grass."

iii. mʰi - gade - ai-la-∅ dʰim-ri tʰan - ba. (pl.)

'Men - pl - Def. ABS 2ng - house - LOC put.'

"The men put in your house."

iv. tʰe gade - se kwan - φ ba - zi. (pl.)

'They (dl) cloth - Pl. Def. ABS brought.'

"They brought the cloths."

English

i.   Marry hit Harry. (sg.)

NOM   ACC

ii. He followed them. (pl.)

NOM   ACC

3.2.8 Genitive Case

Both the Tamang and English langauges have the notion of genitive case but they have different case markers. Tamang genitive case markers are identical to ergative case markers and in addition they are followed by a noun with third person possessive prefix /la -/ for singular and /gade-/ and plural, English uses apostrophe 's' and preposition 'of' as genitive case markers with nouns. For example,

Tamang

i.   slovika-la mʰe mtakʰai mu-la.

'Slovika - GEN 3sg - cow.'

"Slorika's Cow is black."

66

ii. dorze - la kʰui.

'Dorge - GEN 3sg - wife.'

"Dorje's wife"

iii. ram tʰen sita - la dʰim

'Ram and Sita - GEN 2dl - house.'

"Ram and Sita's house."

English

i. It is Marry's book.

ii. The backlights of the car are damaged.

Both the Tamang and English languages have possessive pronouns with both functions: determinative and pronominal. For example,

Tamang

i. a-la dʰim. (determinative function)

'1sg - house.'

"My house."

ii. i - la dʰim (determinative function)

'2 sg - house'

"Your house."

iii. tʰe-la cʰgoi.

'3 sg - book.'

"His/her book."

iv. izu kalam   ala (pronominal function)

'This pen - ABS I - GEN is.'

"This pen is mine."

v. izu kalam tʰe-la (Pronominal function)

'This pen - ABS he/she - GEN is'

"This pen is his/hers."

English

i.   My pen (determinative function)

ii. Your book. (determinative function)

iii. This book is mine. (pronominal function)

iv. That pen is theirs. (pronominal function)

There is the existence of inclusive and exclusive possessive pronouns, with both determinative and pronominal function, in plural first person, in the Tamang language but such inclusive and exclusive possessive pronouns are not found in English. For example,

Tamang

i.   jʰa -ni-la dʰim.

'I dl incl - house.'

"our house."

ii.   a - ni - la dʰim.

'I dl excl - house.'

"Our house."

iii. jʰa   - ni - la gʰjat

'1 pl incl-work.'

"Our work."

iv.   a - ni - la gʰjat.

'1 pl excl - work.'

"Our work."

(Source: Poudel, 2006)

English

    i. Our pencil.

       dl/pl, incl/excl

       (Possessive pronouns with pronominal function)

Tamang

    i. iza c^{h}joi j^{h}a   - ni - gade - la

       'this book - ABS T dl incl - GENA is.'

       "This book is ours."

    ii. iza c^{h}j-i   a-ni- gade - la

       'this book - ABS J dl excl-GEN is.'

       "This book is ours."

    iii. iza c^{h}joi   a-ni - la.

       'This book - ABS 1 pl excl - GEN is'

       "This book is our."

       (Source: Poudel, 2006)

English

    i. This hat is ours.

       1 dl/pl, incl/excl

English third person singular possessive pronoun determinative and pronominal are used distinctly for male and female but such distinction is not found in Tamang. For example,

	English	(determinative)	Tamang
(male)	his pen		tʰe-la
(female)	her pen		him/her
			male/female

	English	(pronominal)	Tamang
(male)	his		tʰe - ni - gade
(female)	her		male/female

3.2.9 Comitative Case

Both the Tamang and English languages have semantic cases 'comitative'. In Tamang comitative case is marked by suffix /-tʰen/ whereas, in English, it is marked by preposition 'with'. For example,

Tamang

    i.   tʰe   a -tʰen kla -zi

       'She I - COM played.'

       "She played with me."

    ii. tʰe-ni - se tawar - tʰen jʰa   - da gap - ci.

       'They (pl) - ERG we (dl incl) Cat - COM followed'

       "They followed us with a cat."

English

    i.   The cat is with his master.

    ii. John played with Jakobson.

CHAPTER FOUR
FINDINGS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This chapter has been organized into two parts-findings and recommendations. After analyzing and interpreting the data, some findings are drawn. On the basis of the findings research, some recommendations are made.

4.1 Findings

The major findings of this research are as follows:

4.1.1 Cases Identifies in the Tamang Language

i. The cases which are identified in the Tamang language are: ergative, instrumental, genitive, agentive, comitative, locative, ablative, dative and vocative.

ii. The Tamang language makes definite-indefinite and singular-plural distinction in case marking in ergative case.

iii. The suffixes are the main case markers in Tamang.

iv. The Tamang ergative, and instrumental cases are marked by the same case markers.

v. The Tamang personal pronouns, except third person plural, have different genitive marker than those of other nouns.

vi. Tamang is an ergative-absolutive type of language.

4.1.2 Similarities between the Tamang and English Cases

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

ii. The Tamang ergative case and English nominative case for transitive verb are similar since both of them refer to the grammatical relation i.e. 'direct object' of transitive verb.

iii. The same case marker can occur with various cases in both the languages.

iv. The verb plays a central role in determining cases in both the languages.

v. Both the Tamang and English languages have possessive pronouns with determinative and pronominal functions.

vi. There is no difference in the language used by male and female in Tamang, so it is not a sexist language as English.

vii. If there is only one case in a sentence, it automatically becomes the subject in both the languages.

viii. Some cases can occur without main verb in a sentence in both the languages.

ix. The same personal and possessive pronouns are categorized under two numbers: singular and plural in both the languages.

4.1.3 Differences between the Tamang and English Cases

i. Although the cases instrumental, locative, comitative, genitive, ablative, dative, and vocative are common in both languages, they are marked differently.

ii. Tamang is an ergative-absolutive types of language whereas English is a nominative-accusative types of language.

iii. The Tamang language does not make ergative-absolutive distinction in case marking for personal pronouns, except third person plural pronoun, but English makes nominative-accusative distinction for personal pronouns.

iv. The Tamang language makes singular -plural definite distinction in case marking in ergative and absolutive cases but English does not make such distinction in nominative and accusative case marking.

v. Although the Tamang ergative and English nominative cases are similar but they are not the same. The Tamang ergative case refers only to the subject of transitive verb but English nominative case refers to the subject of both transitive and intransitive verbs.

vi. In the Tamang language, nominal encodes two types of case markings: zero-marking and suffix, whereas English nominal encodes three types of case marking: zero-marking, preposition, and word order.

vii. Constituent order is significant in English but it is not so significant in Tamang.

viii. Locative and ablative case suffixes can be combined to specify the location in the Tamang but in English that is not possible.

ix. There is no male-female distinction for third person singular personal and possessive pronouns in Tamang but English has distinct forms for male and female personal and possessive pronouns.

x. The objective pronoun can occur in the subjective position in Tamang since it has no ergative -absolutive distinction for personal pronoun except third person plural whereas English objective (accusative) pronoun can not occur in the subject (nominative) position since it has nominative accusative distinction for personal pronouns.

xi. Tamang uses different vocative case markers for singular and non-singular nouns but English uses the same case marking for both singular and non-singular nouns.

xii. Case marker occurs after the noun in Tamang but it occurs before the noun in English.

xiii. It is mentioned earlier that the case markers are suffixes in Tamang and prepositions in English. This is what is observed as the main difference between case marking in Tamang and English. The case suffixes and prepositions in both the languages are given below:

Tamang

1. Ergative: -i, -se
2. Instrumental : -se
3. Genitive : -1a, -gade
4. Comitative : -t^{h}en
5. Locative : -ri, -la, -zasa , -kemsa , -n^{h}a , -gu , -t^{h}ori, -diri, -kem sa , -p^{h}irgjap, -lisa /-licc^{h}a, - asa /- acc^{h}a, ker/-w^{h}ana
6. Agentive : -gjam
7. Ablative : -gjam, -hense
8. Dative : -da
9. Vocative : -zugu, -a, -e

English

1. Nominative : -∅
2. Accusative : -∅
3. Instrumental : with, by
4. Genitive : -'s, of
5. Comitative : with
6. Locative : in/within, here, between/middle, up/over, down/below/under, 'at this side,' across/beyond, outside, behind/after, in front of/before, near,

7. Ablative : from
8. Dative : to, for
9. Vocative : $\varnothing$

4.2 Recommendations

On the basis of the findings listed above the researcher recommends the following points for pedagogical implications.

i. The Tamang cases are marked by suffixes but English cases are marked by prepositions and word order. So, the teacher who is teaching English as a second language to the Tamang native speakers should emphasize this difference and teach them by providing sufficient exercises while teaching case marking system.

ii. The verb in the Tamang language inflects according to sex and honorific grade but in English this is not found. The teacher who is teaching English to the English students learning Tamang, as a second language, should give special emphasis on these concepts.

iii. There is a special restriction and word order in English. If we change the order of the constituents in a sentence randomly, the meaning may be reversed. But the Tamang does not have such restriction except in some cases. So, the teacher teaching English as a foreign or second language to the Tamang native speakers should pay more attention while teaching constituent order. S/he should give the concept of restriction and word order in English and make the learners careful to prevent the mother tongue interference.

iv. English has male -female distinction on third person singular personal and possessive pronouns but the Tamang lacks it. So, Tamang native speakers

who are learning English as second or foreign language may commit errors. Tamang native speakers should be made aware of this fact.

v. English has clear nominative -accusative distinction regarding personal pronouns but Tamang uses the same pronoun for both ergative and absolute cases, except third person plural one for ergative case. So, the Tamang native speakers should be made aware of this fact by giving enough examples of the English nominative and accusative pronouns.

vi. English marks dative and accusative cases differently but the Tamang marks dative and absolutive cases in the same way. So, the Tamang native speakers who learn English as a second or foreign language are to be made clear as to how English marks them differently.

vii. Tamang is ergative-absolutive type of language so it treats subject of transitive verb in one way but subject of intransitive verb and object of transitive verb in other way whereas English is nominative-accusative type of language so it treats subject of both transitive and intransitive verbs in one way but object of transitive verb in other way. By highlighting this difference English students' consciousness can be raised in teaching Tamang case system. Research is important for language teachers who are teaching Tamang as a second language.

viii. The Tamang case marking system is different and complicated than that of English. So, its research is significant for language teachers who are teaching Tamang to English native speakers.

ix. The Tamang language has singular and plural personal and possessive pronouns. Similarly, it has inclusive and exclusive personal and possessive pronouns for first person and plural pronouns whereas English has only singular and plural, but it has no inclusive and exclusive pronouns. So, the

teacher teaching Tamang as a second language should be conscious of this fact.

x. The Tamang language uses different vocative case markers for singular and non-singular but English uses the same vocative case marker for both singular and non-singular nouns. So, the language teachers teaching Tamang should be aware of this fact.

xi. The Tamang language marks singular definite ergative in one way but marks plural definite on other way. Similarly, it marks singular definite absolutive in one way but marks plural definite absolutive on other way whereas such different marking for definite singular nominative and plural definite nominative, and singular definite accusative and plural definite accusative is not found in English. So, the language teachers teaching Tamang should be aware of this fact.

xii. The Tamang language can combine more than one case marker together but such combination is not available in English. So, the teachers teaching Tamang should be conscious about this matter.

At last, the researcher hopes this work will provide detailed information about the Tamang and English case systems and it will help to the teacher to teach cases of both languages. This work also will be helpful for the course designers to design the courses of both languages. Tamang case marking system is different from English. And case system, itself, is very complex area in grammar since many aspects should be taken care of while dealing with case system in a language such as tense aspect, animacy, agreement, word order, definiteness, etc. This research has dealt only with the simple past and simple present tenses, animacy, word order, and definiteness. So, the researcher hopes that further researches will be carried out on other aspects of the Tamang language.

References

Adhikari, H. L. (2001). *Case Realization in English and Nepali: A Comparative Study.* An Unpublished M. Ed. Thesis T.U., Kirtipur.

Anderson, J. M. (1977). '*On Case Grammar: Prolegomena to a Theory of Grammatical Relations.* Croom Helm: Humanities Press.

Best, J. W. & Kahn, J. V. (2004). *Research in Education.* New Jersey: Prentice Hall.

Bhattarai, A. (2001). Writing a Research Proposal. Journal of *NELTA*, 6, 1.

Bhattarai, G. R. & Bhattarai, A. (2000). *Grammar Theory and Practice.* Kathmandu: T.U. Books Centre, Kirtipur.

Bhattarai, L. P. (2001). *Case in English and Nepali: A Comparative Study.* An Unpublished M. Ed. Thesis T.U., Kirtipur.

Blake, B. J. (1994). *Case*. Cambridge: Syndicate.

CBS. (2002). *Population Census (2001).* Kathmandu: HMG/CBS.

Chalise, K. P. (1999). *Morpho-syntax of Tamang Verbs*. An Unpublished M. A. Thesis, Central Department of Linguistics. T.U., Kathmandu.

Comrie, B. (1989). *Language Universals and Linguistic Typology*. England: Basil Blackwell Ltd.

Fillmore, C. J. (1968). *The Case for Case*. In E. Bach & Harris, R. T. (eds). Universals of Linguistic Theory. New York: Holt, Richard and Winston. p. 1-88.

Grierson, G. A. (1909). *Linguistic Survey of India, 3, 1*. India: Superintendent of Government Printing Press.

Huddleston, R. (1996). *English Grammar: An Outline*. Cambridge: CUP.

James, C. (1980). *Contrastive Analysis*. London: Longman.

Karn, S. K. (2004). *A Comparative Study of Cases in Maithili and English.* An Unpublished M. Ed. Thesis T.U., Kirtipur.

Kumar, R. (2007). *Research Methodology.* London: Sage Publication.

Lama, K. S. (2005). *English and Tamang Pronominal: A Comparative Study.* An Unpublished M. Ed. Thesis T.U., Kirtipur.

Levin, B. (1993*). English verbs classes and alternations preliminary In*vestigation. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.

Limbu, B. K. (2007). *Case in English and Limbu: A Comparative Study.* An Unpublished M. Ed. Thesis T.U., Kirtipur.

Lucy, J. A. (1992). *Grammatic Categories and Cognition*. London: Longman.

Lyons, J. (1995). *Linguistic Semantics*. Cambridge: CUP.

Mazaudan, M. (1993). *Writing Tamang. A Brief Note on Alphabetization, Spelling and Transcription in Tamang*. Syomhendo 14:15-26. Kathmandu: Tamang Language and Literary Council.

Moktan, P. R. (1999). *A Study of Tamang Tense and Aspect.* An Unpublished M. A. Thesis, Central Department of English. T.U., Kathmandu.

Payne, T. E. (1997). Describing Morphosyntax: A Guide for Field Linguistics. Cambridge: CUP.

Poudel, K. P. (2006). *Dhankute Tamang Grammar.* LINCOM GmbH.

Quirk, R. et al. (1985). *A Comprehensive Grammar of the English Language*. New York: Longman.

Sthapit, S. K. (1978b). 'The Role of Contrastive Analysis in Second Language Teaching'. *Education Quarterly*. Vol. xxiii. Institute of Education: Tribhuvan University. p. 37-40.

Tamang, A. (2052 B.S.). *Introduction to Tamang Alphabet and Writing System*. Kathmandu: Nepal Tamang Ghedung.

Tamang, J. B. (2007). *The Forms of Address of Tamang and English: A Comparative Study.* An Unpublished M. Ed. Thesis T.U., Kirtipur.

Thokar, R. (2007). *A Sociolinguistic Study of Tamang*. An Unpublished Ph. D. Thesis. Embassy of India, Kathmandu.

Turner, R. L. (1931). *A Comparative and Etymological Dictionary of the Nepali Language.* London: Rutledge and Kegan Paul Ltd.

Varenkamp, B. K. (1996). *Tamang Tam.* A Socio-Linguistic Study Eastern Tamang Dialects (in Nepal). Kathmandu: Centre for Nepal and Asian Studies.

Whaley, L. J. (1997). *Introduction to Typology: The Unity and Diversity of Language.* London: SAGE Publications.

Yadav, Y. P. (2004). *Theories of Grammar*: Kathmandu: Students Books Publishers and Distributors.

Yonjan, A. (1992). *Tamang Vyakaran Prarup*. Kathmandu: Sangrila Publication.

Yonjan, A. (1997). *Tamang Shabdakosh.* Kathmandu: Nepal Tamang Gumba Sewa Kendra.

Yonjan, A. (1997). *Tamang Vyakaran.* Kathmandu: Royal Nepal Academy.

Yonjan, A. (2003). *Tamang Nominal Morphology*. An Unpublished M.A. Thesis. Central Department of Linguistics. T.U., Kathmandu.

Appendix-I

Roman Transliteration of Devanagari Script

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

Nepali Alphabet	Roman Transliteration	Nepali Alphabet	Roman Transliteration
अ	a	ट	ṭ
आ		ठ	ṭh
इ	i	ड	ḍ
ई		ढ	ḍh
उ	u	ण	n
ऊ		त	t
ऋ	ṛ	थ	th
ए	e	द	d
ऐ	ai	ध	dh
ओ	o	न	n
औ	au	प	p
अँ	am, aṅ	फ	ph
अं	ã	ब	b
:	ḥ	भ	bh
क्	k	म्	m
ख्	kh	य्	y
ग्	g	र्	r
घ्	gh	ल्	l
ङ्	ṅ	व्	w/v
च्	c	श्	
छ्	ch	ष्	ṣ
ज्	j	स्	s
झ्	jh	ह्	h
ञ्	ñ		

Note: (i) In this study, 'n̊' and '*g*' are used instead of Turner's 'ṅ' and 'g' for

Nepali 'ङ' and 'ग' respectively.

(ii) The symbol '?' is used for the glottal stop sound which is not mentioned

by Turner (1931).

82

Appendix-II

Interview Schedule

This interview questionnaire has been prepared to draw information for the research work entitled '*Cases in English and Tamang*' which is being carried out under the guidance of **Dr. Bal Mukunda Bhandari**, Central Department of English Language Education, Faculty of Education, T.U. Kirtipur. The researcher hopes that your co-operation will be a great contribution to this research work. Thank you.

<div align="right">

Researcher

Labha Bikram Bamjan

</div>

Name (optional): …………………………………….……………….

VDC: …………………..

Sex: …………………….   **Age: …………………….**

How do you say the following sentences in Tamang?

1) Dorje sang a song. (दोर्जेले (एउटा) गीत गायो ।)

    ……………………………………

2) A snake will bite you. (सर्पले तिमीलाई टोक्नेछ ।)

    …………………………………………………………..

3) Pasang had eaten rice. (पासाङ्ले खाना खाएको थियो ।)

    ………………………………………………………

4) He eats rice with a spoon. (उसले चम्चाले भात खान्छ ।)

    ……………………………………….………….

5) You killed a man. (तिमीले एउटा मान्छे मार्यौ ।)

    ……………………………………………………

6) You killed the good man. (तिमीले राम्रो मान्छे मार्यौं।)

   ……………………………………………………………………

7) I gave Lakpa a book. (मैले लाक्पालाई किताव दिएँ ।)

   ……………………………………………………………………

8) Dolma's pen is better than my pen. (मेरो कलमभन्दा डोल्माको कलम राम्रो छ ।)

   ……………………………………………………………………

9) I go home. (म घर जान्छु।)

   ……………………………………………………………

10) I go there. (म त्यहाँ जान्छु।)

   ……………………………………………………

11) Chhiring is in the village. (छिरिङ गाउँमा छ।)

   ……………………………………………………………

12) Chhiring is here. (छिरिङ यहाँ छ।)

   ……………………………………………………

13) Sister, don't stay at home. (बहिनी, घरमा नवस् ।)

   ………………………………………………………..

14) Mother, I will eat rice. (आमा, म भात खानेछु।)

   ………………………………………………………..

15) The work has been done by Pema. (पेमाद्वारा काम गरिएको छ ।)

   ……………………………………………………………

16) I came from Tandi. (म टाँडीबाट आएँ ।)

   ……………………………………………………

17) Narbhu plays here with me. (यहाँ नर्भु मसंग खेल्छ ।)

   ………………………………………………………..

18) You worked up to one o'clock. (तिमीले एक बजेसम्म काम गर्‍यौं ।)

…………………………………………………………………………

19) I will work for father. (म बुवाको लागि काम गर्नेछु ।)

……………………………………………………………

20) We made Pemba laugh. (हामीले पेम्बालाई हाँस्ने बनायौं ।)

…………………………………………………………………………..

21) She carried Dolma. (उनीले डोल्मालाई बोक्यो ।)

……………………………………………………………

22) Slovica's cow is black. (स्लोभिकाको गाई कालो छ ।)

…………………………………………………………..

23) Sanu went to Pathari. (सानु पथरी गइन् ।)

…………………………………………………..

24) A cap is on the head. (टाउकोमा टोपी छ ।)

…………………………………………………

25) Ram caused Rawan's death. (रामले रावणलाई मार्‍यो ।)

…………………………………………………………………..

26) I came from Madhumalla by bus. (म मधुमल्लाबाट वसमा आएँ ।)

………………………………………………………………………

27) I went to (my) brother. (म भाइकोमा गएँ ।)

……………………………………………………….

28) We went up to Kathmandu. (हामी काठमाण्डौंसम्म गयौं ।)

………………………………………………………………………

29) Sonam is singing a song. (सोनाम गीत गाइरहेको छ ।)

…………………………………………………………………

30) There is a snake in the house. (यो घरभित्र (एउटा) सर्प छ।)

    ……………………………………………………………….

31) Sapana will come within two days. (सपना दुई दिनभित्र आउनेछिन्।)

    ………………………………………………………………

32) Go into the home. (घरभित्र जानु।)

    …………………………………………….

33) You were between two trees. (तिमीहरु दुई रुखको वीचमा थियौं।)

    ………………………………………………………………

34) Paru was on the hill. (पारु पहाडमा थियो।)

    ………………………………………………….

35) Sanju climbed up the hill. (सन्जुले पहाडमा चढ्यो।)

    ……………………………………………………………..

36) A cow is under a tree. (गाई रुखमुनी छ।)

    ………………………………………………………

37) A snake will come. (सर्प आउनेछ।)

    …………………………………………..

38) A tree will kill them. (तिनीहरुलाई रुखले मार्नेछ।)

    …………………………………………………………

39) You work at this side of river. (तिमी नदीको किनारमा काम गर।)

    ………………………………………………………………

40) I was beyond the hill. (म पहाडमा थिएँ।)

    …………………………………………..

41) Soni is out side of the home. (सोनी घर वाहिर छिन्।)

    ………………………………………………………………

42) God save us. (भगवानले हाम्रो कल्याण गरुन ।)

…………………………………………..

43) He writes the letter. (उसले चिठ्ठी लेख्यो ।)

…………………………………………

44) Duppa gave a mango to Lakpa. (डुप्पाले लाक्पालाई आँप दियो ।)

…………………………………………………………………………

45) Gopal was sitting on the table. (गोपाल टेबुलमा बसीरहेको थियो ।)

…………………………………………………………………

46) He cut it with a sickle. (यो उसको हसियाले काट्यो ।)

………………………………………………

47) She fell down from a ladder. (उनी भ्याङबाट खसिन ।)

………………………………………………

48) Phurba went in front of home. (फूर्वा घरको पछ्छाडि गयो ।)

……………………………………………………

49) I live at about Kathmandu. (म काठमाण्डौं नजिक बस्छु ।)

……………………………………………………

50) He was behind home. (ऊ घर पछ्छाडि थियो ।)

………………………………………..

51) A boy came up to the tree. (केटा रुखसम्म आयो ।)

……………………………………………

52) A cow has killed with a stick. (लाठीद्वारा गाई मारियो ।)

………………………………………………

53) Dorje's wife is good. (दोर्जेको श्रीमति असल छिन् ।)

……………………………………………

54) Pema has money. (पेमासँग पैसा छ ।)

   …………………………………………..

55) Chyngba has no anger. (च्याइ्वा रिसाहा छैन् ।)

   ………………………………………………….

56) Dukpa performed the work of killing. (डुक्पाले मार्ने काम गऱ्यो ।)

   …………………………………………..

57) She is good. (उनी असल छिन् ।)

   ………………………………..

58) Friends! Lets go. (साथी! हो, जाऔं ।)

   ………………………………..

59) Grandfather! (हजुरवुवा!)

   …………………………..

60) Mother! (आमा!)

   …………………

61) Father! (वुवा!)

   …………………