CHAPTER - ONE
INTRODUCTION

1.1   General Background

Language is commonly used by human beings as a means of communication. It is the unique gift that sets them apart from the rest of living beings. It facilitates human beings to express their experiences, thoughts, feelings, emotions, desires and ideas. Every normal human being uses language in his daily activities. Social cultures, values, thoughts and conventions are preserved and inherited from generation to generation through language. There are so many languages existing in the world. Some of them are spoken as well as written and other exist only in spoken form.

Chomsky (1957) defines language as "A set (finite on infinite) of sentences, each finite in length and constructed out of a finite set of elements" (p.13). Similarly, Sapir (1921) defines language as "A purely human and non-instinctive method of communicating ideas, emotions and desires by means of voluntarily produced symbols" (p.8). According to his definition, language is human specific and a means of communication by using voluntarily produced vocal symbols. Richards et al. (1999) define language as "The systems of human communication which consists of the structured arrangement of sounds for their written representation into larger units, e.g. morphemes, words, sentences, utterances" (p.196). This definition further clarifies that language is a channel of spoken or written form of symbols in terms of morphemes, words and sentences.

1.1.1 Importance of English

There is no clear figure for the number of languages spoken in the world today. A general estimation indicates that the figure lays around four thousand to five thousand languages. They have been used in different countries from time immemorial employing words either in spoken or written forms to communicate ideas to share feelings or to express emotions, desires and thoughts. Among all the languages in the world English is regarded as a global language. It is also true that English is the first language for most of the people of the Great Britain, the U.S.A., the Canada and the Australia. So, it is regarded as a prestigious language and thus, has become a subject to be studied in most of the countries in the world. Nowadays, one in every seven human being can speak English and a half of the world's books have been written in English.

English is used to serve different purposes, for example, to establish diplomatic relationship with most of the countries in the world. Besides this, it is the language used by some internationally recognized organizations like the United Nations (UN), the South Asian Association for Regional Co-operation (SAARC), in extending their mutual co-operation, financial support and education in the countries which are in need of their support. As for media, over 50% of the world's newspapers or scientific and technical periodicals or radio stations use English as a medium of communication. So, it is established as the most appropriate medium that plays a vital role in national and international communication. In this context, Sthapit & et al. (1994) say, "The importance of English in the present day world needn't be overemphasized. It is a principal language for international communication and gateway to the world body of knowledge". So, the English language has great importance in the Education system of Nepal.

1.1.2 Linguistic Scenario of Nepal

Nepal is multilingual, multicultural and multiethnic nation. It is the home of numerous languages and dialects. Though being small in size, Nepal is not a culturally and linguistically homogenous country. It is very fertile land for languages. Even today linguists are discovering new languages in some remote parts of the country and probably many more languages are still waiting to be discovered. According to population census (2001), there are more than 93 languages used in this small country. Among these languages, most of them do not have written scripts but they exist only in spoken form.

The languages and their innumerable dialects spoken in Nepal have genetic affiliation to four language families, namely Indo-Aryan (about 614 languages) Tibeto Burman (about 56 languages), Austro Asiatic (only 1 language) and Dravidian (1 language only). The language families found in Nepal can be grouped as follows:

(I) Indo-European

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, i.e. nearly 80 percent.

**Diagram 1: Indo-European Language**
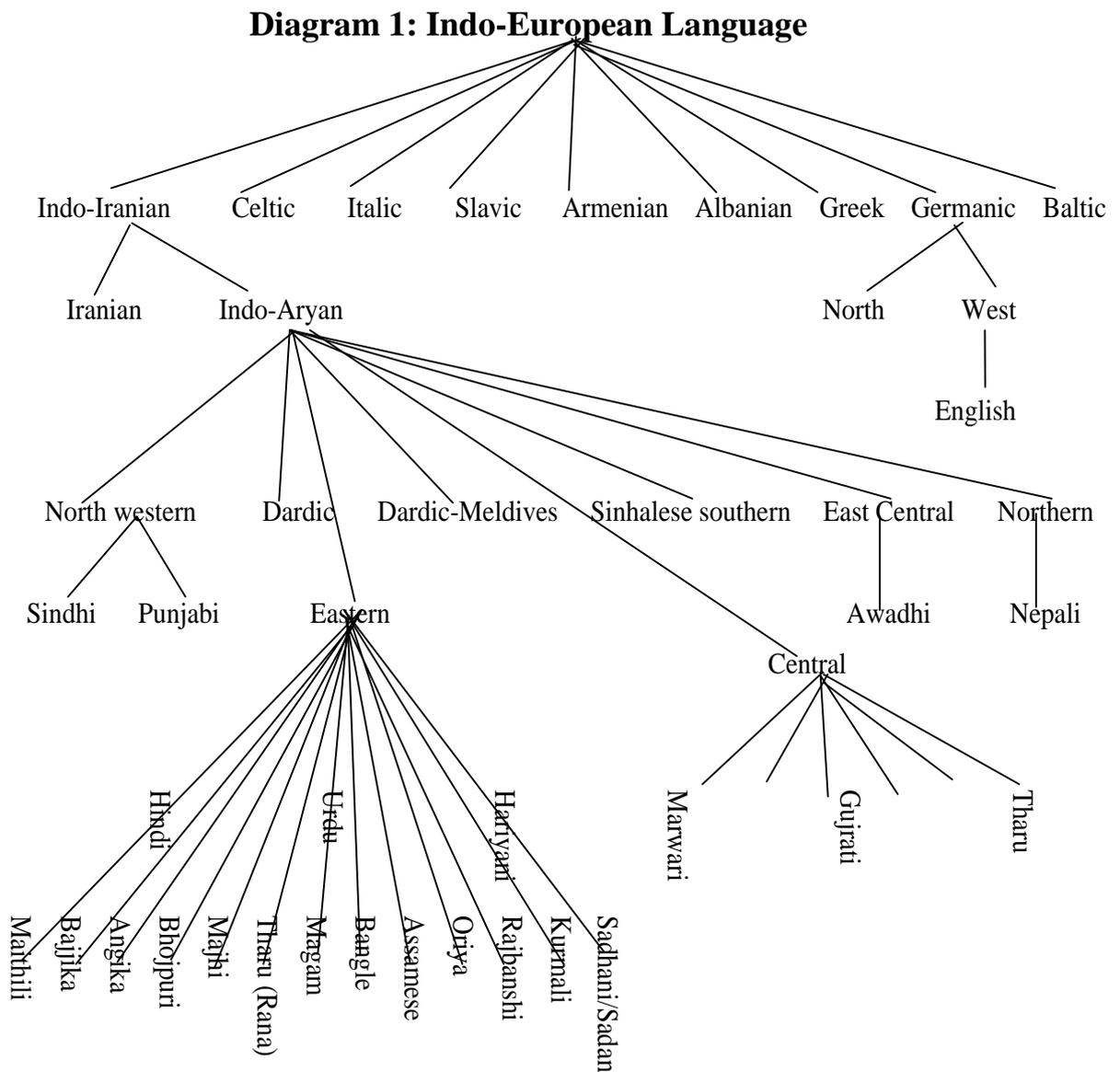
Source: Yadav (2003)

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 Tharu, Bote, Kumal, Churauti and Danuwar.

(II) Sino- Tibetan Family

Another important group of Nepal's language is the Tibeto-Burman groups of Sino-Tibetan family. Though it is spoken by relatively lesser number of people than the Indo-European family, it also consists of the largest group of   languages in terms of speakers.

The Sino-Tibetan languages spoken in Nepal can be sub-categorized as follows:

Diagram: 2 Sino-Tibetan Language
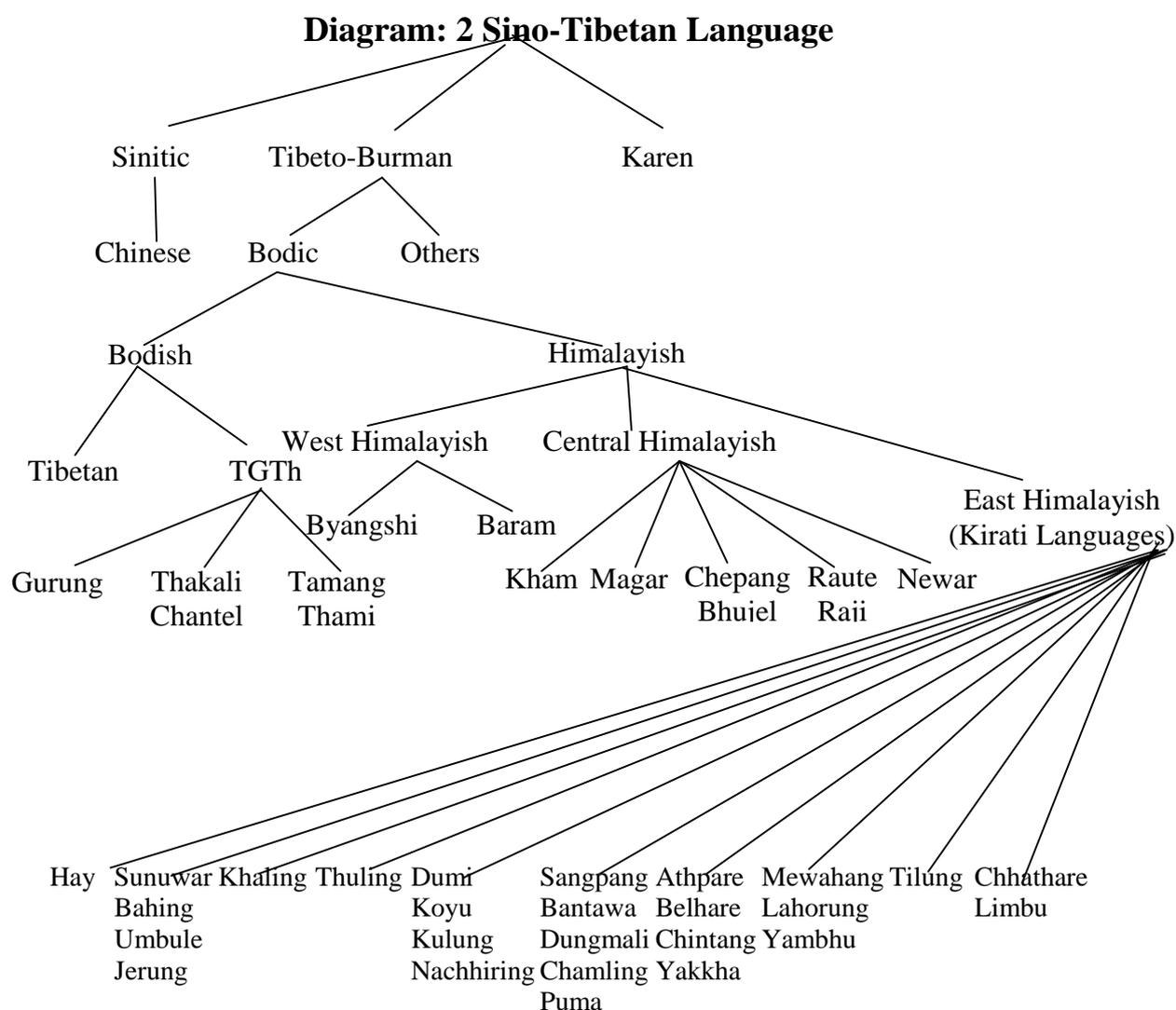
Source: Yadav (2003)

(III) Austro-Asiatic Family

The Asiatic languages comprise Santhali of the Northern Munda group and Kathariya of the southern Munda group. It is to be noted The Satar has been reported in all the censuses but Santhal has been wrongly reported as a separate language except in the 1952/51 census. The 2001 census has lumped both Satar and Santhal together into a single language, called Santhali.

Diagram 3: Austro-Asiatic Languages

```
                        Austro-Asiatic
                       /              \
                  Munda              Mon Khmer
                 /     \
              North     South
             /    \          \
       Kherwari   Other North   Katharia
       /    \
 Santhali    Munda
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[Source: Yadav (2003)]

6
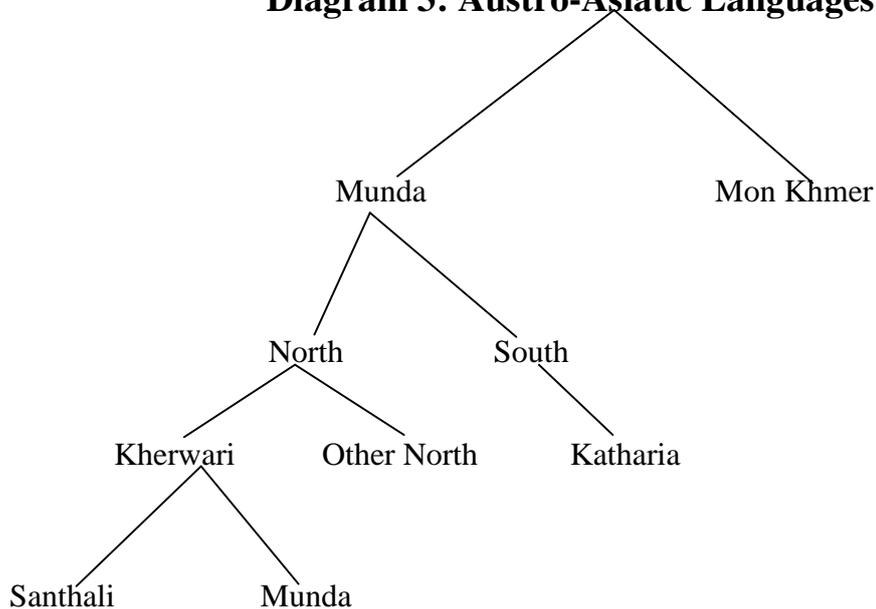
(IV) Dravidian Family

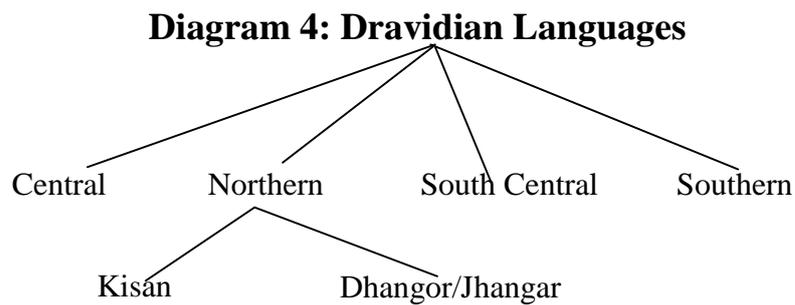Dravidian language includes the two languages spoken in Nepal. One of them is called Jhangar in the east region of the Koshi river but Dhangar in the region of west of the Koshi river. It constitutes the north most part of Dravidian family of languages. Another Dravidian language is Kisan with 489 speakers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

Diagram 4: Dravidian Languages

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                              /|\
                            /  |  \  \
                          /    |    \    \
                        /      |      \      \
                  Central   Northern  South Central   Southern
                            /    \
                          /        \
                        /            \
                    Kisán        Dhangor/Jhangar
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[Source: Yadav (2003)]

1.1.3 An Introduction to the Tharu People, the Tharu Language and the Tharu Dialects

1.1.3.1 The Tharu People

The Tharu people are main and the largest indigenous ethnic people of the Terai and inner Terai who have been living in east to west part of Nepal. The term 'Tharu' refers both to the tribe and the language they speak. According to 2001 census data of CBS report, Tharu people are more than 1.5 million in Nepal. Tharus have been questioning the credibility of the census report 2001 and claiming that there are more than 1.5 million Tharus in Nepal. Traditionally, they are following the occupation of farming in the field and sell their corn to the local market; however, they are not only based on the occupation of farming because it can not fulfill their basic needs. So, they have adopted other occupations.

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Some of them are found to be involved in government offices, factories, teaching, business and so on. Most of them are illiterate. The Tharu people have been able to preserve their indigenous culture and linguistic identity despite the influence of their activities in various fields.

1.1.3.2 The Tharu Language

Nepal is a rich country in terms of linguistic diversity. More than 93 languages have been identified in CBS report (2002) of Nepal. Tharu is one of the Indo-Aryan languages spoken almost in every district of Terai region. According to the census report (2001), Tharu is the fourth largest language having 1533879 speakers of the total population. The majority of the Tharu speakers are found in Dang, Banke, Bardia, Kailali, Kanchanpur, Chitwan, Nawalparasi, Saptari, Udayapur, Morang and Sunsari districts. The Tharu language varies from place to place (regional dialect), from society to society (sociolect) and person to person (idiolect) as well.

Grierson (1901) mentions:

> The Tharu language is classified as Indo-European, Indo-Iranian, Indo-Aryan, Central Zone, Western and Eastern Hindu Branch. He lists six varieties of Tharu. Some consider them as distinct languages and have classified all but one of these varieties is in the Eastern zone of Indo-Aryan. It is also affected by the geographical boundaries and adjustments with other language users. So, detailed and effective studies about Tharu languages have not been done yet. Many scholars have said that Tharus have not actual language script of their own. They say that Tharu speech variety has greatly been influenced by larger better known Indian languages found nearby, such as; Hindi, Bhojpuri, Maithili, Awadhi and now it is

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the mixture of them. Everywhere the Tharus speak more or less correctly the language of Aryan races with whom they are immediately in contact (p.14).

However, the claims and the statements about the Tharu language made by different scholars and researches might be the great issue of debate and discussion. The Tharu people say that they have their own written script of their language and literature. Similarly, the census report defined the Tharus as an identified language. Almost all literate Tharu speakers in Nepal strongly support that they have their own language script. "Hurdunghwa" song in Dashain Festival (which is written in Nepali paper with bomboo stick) is the strong proof of Tharu's own language because it has its own written script but this script is not in use nowadays. Similarly, the language of "Sakhiya Naach", "Mungrahawa Naach", "Jhumra naach", "Daph", "Maghauta" and other varieties of the Tharu special songs and dances strengthen the ownership of their own language and reflect their culture.

1.1.3.3 The Tharu Dialects

Broadly, Tharus are divided into two groups on the basis of region i.e. eastern (Purbeli) and western (Paschimeli). There is a variation in their language too. The Tharu language is a vernacular language which has been categorized according to their region. Generally, it has different varieties spoken in different regions. Some of them are listed below:

I. Morangiya Dialect

This dialect is mainly spoken in Morang, Jhapa, and Sunsari districts.

II. Saptariya Dialect

Saptariya dialect is slightly different from Morangiya dialect. It is mainly spoken in Saptari, Siraha, Udayapur, and Sunsari districts.

III. Barajiliya Dialect

This is the dialect spoken in Bara, Parsa, Sarlahi, and Mahottari districts. It is spoken by the largest population of the purbeli (eastern) Tharus.

IV. Chitawaniya Dialect

This dialect is mainly spoken in Chitawan district and it also has the influence in Nawalparasi and Rupandehi districts.

V. Dangoria Dialect

This dialect is mainly spoken by the Tharus of Dang but it is also spoken in other districts like Kapilvastu, Rupandehi, Bardia, Banke, Surkhet, Kailali and Kanchanpur.

VII. Deukhuriya Dialect

This dialect is mainly spoken in Deukhury valley of dang district. There are more than 20 VDCs in Deukhury valley and almost 75% people belong to the Tharu language. It has a little influence of the dangoriya dialect but they are different dialects.

VIII. Kathariya Dialect

This dialect is spoken by the Tharu people of Kailali district. There are altogether 8 Tharu dialects spoken in western and eastern region of Nepal. Among those dialects, the researcher has selected the Deaukhuriya Dialect to conduct her research.

1.1.4 An Introduction to Case

Almost all the grammatical terms have their origin in Greek and Latin grammars. So, is the case of the term "Case". Among different traditional schools of philosophy and logic, the Stoics - a school of Greek philosophy gave a particular sense to this term. In Greek tradition, Dionysius Thrax mentioned parts of speech as noun, verb, adjective, adverb in his grammar. He was also devoted to the study of case. He described Case in terms of inflections of nouns. The same tradition was carried over in Latin.

Anderson, (1977) discusses case and case relations in detail 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.

In traditional grammar, the case forms are categorized sometimes on the basis of their syntactic function and at other times on the basis of their semantic function. It shows inconsistency in results. Asher (1994) says, "The dominant theory of the function or content of case..., proposes that at least some cases are syntactic, and reflect grammatical relations (such as subject, object" (p. 447). Other grammarians of the time recognized that some uses (at least) of some cases could not be reduced the syntactic case. Traditionally, it represents the fundamental dimension in terms of which the forms of nouns may be classified or declined. This classification underlies the traditional declensional paradigms whereby the expression of the morphosyntactic categories appropriate to the noun or adjective is displayed. For the stoic 'noun' included 'substantive'

(noun' in the modern sense) and 'adjective', largely on the basis of their shared morphology in Greek. It is generally agreed too that case is typically expressed as suffixation to a noun stem of a single morpheme but the nature of the relations of nouns in the sentences whether semantic or syntactic has remained controversial.

Lyons (1968), 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 which 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 (p. 289). Traditional grammar proposed seven cases with their syntactic/semantic functions which are as follows:

Nominative -it marks the subject

Accusative -it marks the object or transitive verb

Genitive   -it expresses the possession semantically

Dative   -it marks to the indirect object

Locative   -it marks the adverb of place

Ablative   -it marks the instruments

Vocative   - it expresses the address semantically

Generally, case is defined in traditional grammars as the relation on which a noun stands to some other words or change of form (if any) by which this relation is indicated-grammatical relation as well as the change of form. In general, traditional grammarians use the following cases:

1) **Ram** saw Sita. (nominative)

2) He hit the *dog*. (accusative or objective)

3) Ram gave a book to *Sita*. (dative)

4) *Ram's* book. (genitive or possessive)

5) He was standing *on the table*. (locative)

6) He cut it *with a knife*. (ablative)

7) He came *with his wife*. (comitative)

8) You know *Ram* the world is very bad. (vocative)

Noam Chomsky developed the concept of Generative Grammar in late 1960s which was radically departed from the structuralism and behaviorism of the previous decades. Chomsky's standard theory, i.e. his theory of transformational grammar as presented in his 'Aspects of the Theory of Syntax' (1965), propounded the notion of a deep structure underlying the surface structure of every sentence. The deep structure of a sentence was conceptualized as the underlying network of syntactic relationships, which determine the semantic representation of that sentence. The view held by this theory was that everything needed for the semantic representation of a sentence, which was presented in the deep structure of that sentence.

Although Chomsky (1965) brought revolution in the area of grammar, he has limited his analysis up to syntactic level. So, Fillmore (1968), an American linguist, began to rectify deficiencies of Chomskyen model of grammar. Case, for Fillmore, is universal type of 'underlying syntactic semantic relationship', which may or may not manifest itself in the form of morphosyntactic markers on the surface.

Fillmore (1968) defines:

...the case notions comprise a set of universal, presumably innate

concepts which identify certain types of judgments .Human beings are capable of making about the events that are going around them, judgments about such matters as who did it, who it happened to and what got changed (p. 24).

From this definition of case by Fillmore, it can be pointed out that the notion 'case' is a universal property that is prevalent in all the languages of the world. It marks to the judgments of the relationship of the participants in the action or events. Fillmore (1968), in his seminal article 'The Case for Case' in a book entitled 'Universals in Linguistic Theory' edited by E. Bach and R. T. Harms, discussed mainly six cases. They are named as 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-orders, 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:

grammatical	core	Nominative
		Accusative
		Ergative
		Genitive
		Dative
	local	locative
		Ablative

	Allative
semantic	Perlative
	Instrumental
	Comitative etc.

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 systems in English and the Tharu languages.

1.1.4.1 Basic Concepts of Case Grammar

The concept of case is not new in grammar. Traditional grammarians have been discussing it for centuries, particularly in the case of synthetic languages like Latin, Greek and Sanskrit. In the books of traditional grammar, cases are morphosyntactically identified, whether a noun has been used in the nominative, accusative or genitive case or in any other case is ascertained on the basis of the morphosyntactic markers at the end of the noun. Discussing the case means presenting the rules 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. There are three basic concepts of case grammar and they are: Syntactic function, Morphosyntactic form, and Semantic role.

I. Syntactic Function

The concept of syntactic function is the traditional notion related to case Grammar. Syntactic function is the sentence level function. Syntactic

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

1. John hit Harry.
2. Harry was hit by John.
3. The window was broken.

'John', 'Harry' and 'window' have the subject function; 'Harry' in first sentence has object function. 'John' in second sentence has adverbial function.

II. Morphosyntactic Form

Morphosyntactic 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 morphosynctactic form Fillmore marks to the different cases, which stand in a certain relationship within a structure. Morphosyntactic forms give some functional informations. The morphosyntactic forms differ from language to language. Different morphosyntactic forms that mark cases are inflections, prepositions, postpositions, word order, intonation, affixation, suppletion (irregular change as in write, wrote, written) etc. A language may have one or more than one such morphosyntactic forms which show the case relation. Mainly two morphosyntactic forms - word order and preposition reveal the case relation in English. The following prepositions are taken from

the examples given by Fillmore (1968), Quirk et al. (1985) and Blake (1994) for corresponding cases.

Morphosyntactic forms	Case
by	agent
with, by	instrument
from	source/ablative
to, into, until, towards	goal
in, at, on	location
to	dative
for	benefacative

III. Semantic Role

It is the dominant and recent developed concept of case grammar. It is the concept at meaning level. Fillmore 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. (Fillmore, 1968), "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." (p. 21)

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

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

"John" in both the sentences (1 and 3) has **agentive** role; 'the window' in all sentences has **object** 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.

1.1.4.2 Case Marking System

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

a. Single argument

"Bob   left."

S   V

b. Multi-argument

"Bob   greeted   Aileron."

A   V   P

[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 are no arguments than that is a very good AGENT, the A is the argument that is treated morphosyntactically in the same manner as prototypical AGENT is 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 systems for grouping **S, A**, and **P** and the morphocsyntactic means languages employ to express these groupings. According to him, languages may treat **S** and **A** as the same, and P differently. The following English examples illustrate this fact with pronominal case forms- one form, **he,** is used for third person singular masculine pronouns in both the **S** and **A** roles. **A** different form, him, is used for third person masculine singular pronouns in the P role:

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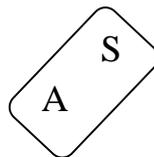
b. He hit him.
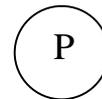
Similarly, he has given another example of the Quechuan languages, quoted from (Weber 1989), that manifest this system in morphological case marking on free noun phrases. In the following examples the same case marker, o (zero), occurs on noun phrases in both the **S** and **A** roles. Another case marker,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

Hu nuco Quechua

a. Juan-ø   aywan.   "Juan goes".
   Juan-NOM   goes
   S

b. Juan-ø   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 case,** while the case that marks only the P role is the **Accusative case.**

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

a. Doris-aq   ayallruuq   "Doris traveled."

    Doris-ABS   travelled.

        S

b. Tom-am   Dorih-aq   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** of a transitive clause. If any morphological case marks **A** alone it can be called the **Ergative Case.** Similarly, any morphological case that marks both **S** and **P** can be termed the **Absolutive Case**.

          Ergative   Absolutive
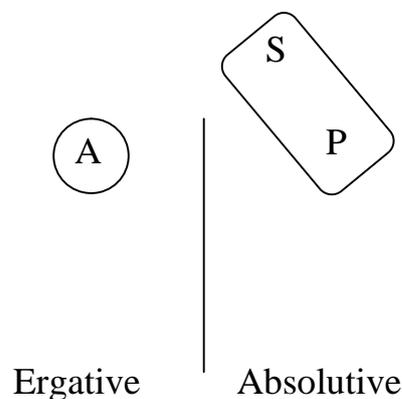
This system is known as an **ergative-absolutive** system. In other words,

the ergative-absolutive system groups S and P (absolutive) together against A (ergative).

The third possible type, tripartite, would have distinct cases for each of the three primitives. The fourth type would group A and P together and against S.

And the fifth type, neutral, would be the same form for all three primitives, but since this is tantamount to lack of case marking for these relations, it is not directly relevant our considerations.

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

The possible grouping of S, A, and p is given below:

Grouping	label	frequency
[A, S] [P]	Nominative -accusative	common
[A] [S, P]	Ergative-absolute	common
[A] [S] [p]	Tripartite	Very rare
[S] [A, P]	Accusative focus	Unattested
[A, S, P]	Neutral	Unattested
	[Source: Whaley (1997)]	

1.1.4.3 Cases in English by Fillmore

Fillmore (1971) produced a list of eight cases, which was organized hierarchically. They are agent, experiencer, instrument, object, source, goal, location, time and later he produced some other cases like

possessor, commitative and benefactive. Each of them is described below:

1. Agent

Agent is a case, which marks to an entity that performs an action. In Fillmore's phrase, "it is the instigator of an action or event". Agent must be an animate being which performs an action by means of its own energy. For example,

> I. **I** speak English.
> II. **The boy** played.
> III. **Mohan** hit Hari.

2. Experiencer

It is the case of an entity inwardly or psychologically affected by action or state expressed by the verb. In other words, it is an entity that experiences or undergoes the effect of an action: with genuine psychological event or mental state of verb. For example,

> I. **I** love you.
> II. **The girl** is feared.
> III. **He** felt hot.

3. Instrumental

Instrumental is the case of something which is used inanimately as a means 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. For example,

> I. **The Fire** burnt m hand.

II. They cut the thread **with a razor blade.**

III. **The wind** opened the door.

4. Object

It marks to an entity, which undergoes or is affected by the action or event. This is the semantically most natural case. Fillmore calls it wastebasket case. For example,

I. He cut **the tree**.

II. Ram gave a book **to me**.

III. Roshan donated his property **to the school**.

5. Source

It marks to the place from which something moves as a result of the activity expressed by the predicate. In other words, we can say that the entity that signifies the 'separation' and the starting point of the action identified by the verb is said to be source. For example,

I. I came **from Dang**.

II. He earned money **from his job**.

III. I bought mangoes **from the shop**.

6. Goal

It marks to the place to which something moves or it is also known as destination later stage, end point of the period, and result of an action. For example,

I. He threw a ball **to pitar**.

II. They elected **their leader**.

III. The seed **become plant**.

7. Location

The case, which denotes the location or spatial orientation of the state or action identified by the verb, is called locative case. It expresses the basic relationship between the location and the object involved on 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. For example,

I. It is cold **in Kathmandu**.

II. The table is **next to the door**.

III. The cat sat **in front of me**.

8. Time

It marks to the temporal orientation of the predicate. For example,

I. I was born on **13th Feb. 1985**.

II. Ram worked in a company **for 3 years**.

III. Kathmandu will be polluted **after 10 years**.

9. Possessor

The possessor is the case, which marks to the entity having something. The sense of possession may be physical, mental or legal. The possessor is expressed differently in different languages. In English, it is expressed by "belong to" or "on his possession". For example,

I. This car belongs **to me**.

II. He has much land **in his possession**.

III. That is **Ram's** book.

10. Commitative

It is the case of an entity-expressing accompaniment. For example,

> I. I went market **with him**.
> II. They **with their dog** sat under the tree.
> III. We hit the snake **by stone.**

11. Benefactive

It is the case of an entity benefiting from the action or event denoted by the predicate. For example,

> I. I have a gift **for the baby**.
> II. I bought new shoes **for my brother**.
> III. Ram made a cup of coffee **for him**.

1.2 Review of the Related Literature

There are several comparative research works carried out on different languages such as Nepali, Limbu, Rai, Gurung, Tharu and Newari in the Department of English Education but only five research works have been carried out regarding the case system. The related literatures to the present studies are as follows:

Fillmore (1968) studied cases and produced his seminal paper entitled "The cases for case". He proposed six main and some other cases in English and defined them as semantic roles associated with deep structure level. It is the concept, which is determined from the relation between nouns or noun phrases with the verb used in the sentence. Similarly, Bhattarai (2001) carried out a research on 'Case in English and Nepali: A Comparative study'. The main objective of the study was to find out the

similarities and differences between Nepali and English case systems. The study showed that the verb appears at the beginning of the prepositions section of the sentence in English but it appears at the end of Nepali.

Adhikari (2001) made an attempt to analyze the "Case realization in English and Nepali". This study concentrated on the similarities and differences in case realization between these languages. He came to the conclusion that English is a nominative-accusative kind of language whereas Nepali is an ergative - obsolutive type of language. Likewise, Karn (2004) carried out a research on "A comparative study of cases in Maithili and English". The study was carried out to find out and analyze cases in Maithili. The finding of this study showed that the Maithili language has nominative, accusative, instrumental, dative, ablative, genitive and locative cases.

Limbu (2007) made an analysis on case in English and Limbu: A comparative study. This study was concentrated on determining case in the Limbu language. The finding showed that the Limbu is an ergative-obsolutive type of language and this language uses different vocative case markers for singular and non-singular nouns. Similarly, Thapa (2007) made an attempt to analyze the cases in English and Magar. The main purpose of the study was to find out the similarities and differences between the English and Magar languages. The finding of this research was that the Magar language does not make definite- indefinite, male-female, exclusive-inclusive, distinction but it makes honorific distinction with pronominal.

The above-mentioned studies are related to case systems on different languages but up to now, no comparative study has been conducted to

find out the similarities and differences between English and the Tharu language case systems following Fillmorian case. Therefore, the present researcher identifies and describes cases in the Tharu language and compares case systems between the English and Tharu language.

1.3 Objectives of the Study

The objectives of the research were as follows:

a. to identify and describe cases in the Tharu language.
b. to find out similarities and differences between the Tharu and English cases.
c. to suggest some pedagogical implications.

1.4 Significance of the Study

This research will be valuable work for the Department of English Education itself since no research has been conducted yet on case in 'English and Tharu'. It will also be significant to the prospective future researchers on the Tharu language, linguists, teachers, students, text book writers, course designers and to the people interested in this field and mainly it will help the teachers to teach cases of both languages. This work can be helpful for the course designers to design the course of both languages and it can be proved as a milestone in the field of grammar of the Tharu language because up to now, no research has been carried out on case system of the Tharu language.

CHAPTER - TWO
METHODOLOGY

The researcher adopted the following methodology to conduct this research.

2.1   Sources of Data

The study was based on both primary and secondary sources of data.

2.1.1 Primary Sources of Data

The native speakers of the Tharu language of Chailahi VDC of Deukhuri Valley in Dang district were the primary sources from whom the researcher collected the required data for the research.

2.1.2 Secondary Sources of Data

The English 'cases' were totally taken from the secondary sources. The secondary sources of the data were different books, journals, theses and internet. For example, Fillmore (1968, 1971), Anderson (1977), Blake (1994), Huddleston (1996), Pyane (1997), Whaley (1997) etc….

2.2   Population of the Study

The total population of the study was all the Tharu native speakers of Chailahi VDC in Deukhuri valley of Dang district.

2.3   Sampling Procedure

The sample population from Chailahi VDC was selected using judgemental non-random sampling procedure. The sample population belonged to the age group between 20 - 60 years of age.

The total sample consists of 80 people. All population belonged to literate group only.

2.4   Research Tool

The main tool for the data collection was elicited by using a set of questionnaire .The questionnaire was prepared to draw information on case system of Tharu from the Tharu native speakers.

2.5   Process of Data Collection

The researcher visited the Chailahi VDC of Deukhuri valley in Dang district to meet the native speakers of Tharu. Particularly she visited two higher secondary schools to have a personal contact with the Tharu literate informants where most of the teachers were Tharu .Then; she built a good rapport with them. She told her purpose and distributed the questionnaire to them. The researcher also uses snowball sampling procedure for the data collection. With the help of those Tharu teachers, she was able to contact and distribute the questionnaires to other literate Tharu native speakers. After the questionnaire were duly filled, she collected them to analyze and interpret. In order to collect the secondary data, the researcher went through the relevant materials such as textbook of different writers and other related literature so as to get some theoretical knowledge and skill to carry out the research work.

2.6 Limitations of the Study

  i.   The study was limited to Tharu speakers of Chailahi VDC in Deukhuri Valley of Dang district.

  ii. The total study population was limited to eighty native speakers of Tharu.

  iii. The study was conducted following Fillmorian case.

  iv. The research was descriptive in nature.

  v.   Only questionnaire was used as a research tool.

  vi. The questionnaire was based on only on the simple present, simple past and simple future tense.

CHAPTER - THREE
ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION

This chapter deals with the analysis and interpretation of the data obtained from the selected informants by the researcher in her research field. The data was analyzed descriptively with the help of tables and illustrations. After the analysis of the data, the similarities and differences between the Tharu and English cases are mentioned with illustrations. This chapter consists of two parts:

⟩ Identification and analysis of case in the Tharu language.

⟩ Similarities and differences between the Tharu and English cases.

3.1   Identification and Analysis of Cases in the Tharu Language

The cases which are identified in the Tharu languages are as follows:

3.1.1 Agentive Case

Agent is a case, which marks to an entity that performs an action. It must be an animate being. In Fillmorian words, "it is the doer or instigator of an action denoted by the predicate". In the Tharu language, Agentive case is marked by the suffix- **ya, wa** and some time zero marker also.

1)   **hamrin-he**   m dehal.

He- **AGN** us mango gave.

He gave mangoes to us.

2) **Pulish-wa** corw   he birwa khawake muwail.

Polish- **AGN** thief poision killed.

Polish killed the thief   by poision.

3) **gai-ya** ghãs kha l.

   Cow- **AGN** grass ate.

   The cow ate the grass.

4) **mai** morik daisange sutl .

   I- **AGN** my mother slept.

   I slept with my mother.

5) **Hamre** g ri cal ithi.

   We- **AGN** car drive.

   We drive a car.

6)   pathri-me sutal.

   He-**AGN** bed slept.

   He slept on bed.

3.1.2 Experiencer Case

It is the case of an entity inwardly or psychologically affected by the action or state expressed by the verb. In the Tharu language, it is expressed by zero case markers.

1) **Waine** jar m n lã.

   They - **EXP** cold felt.

   They felt cold.

2)   lawandi darail.

   The girl- **EXP** feared.

   The girl was feared.

3) **sit r wan-he** ghrin kaith .

   Sita- **EXP** Rawan hates.

   Sita hates Rawan.

4) **ramwa** maj m nlas.

Ram - **EXP** happy felt.

Ram felt happy.

5) **mai** kit b maj m nl .

I - **EXP** book interesting.

This book is interesting to **me**.

6) **mai** tuhin-**he** maiy kaith .

I- **EXP** you love.

I love you.

3.1.3 Instrumental Case

It 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 Tharu language, the instrumental case is marked by the suffixes **se, le**. For example,

1) Ram **cakk -se** tin k tal.

Ram knife- **INS** vegetable cut.

Ram cut vegetables **with the knife**.

2) hamre **Kunj -se** daw r kholl .

We key-**INS** door opened.

We opened the door **with the key**.

3) ektho **tector-se** khet jotl .

A tractor - **INS** plough the field.

A tractor ploughs the field.

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4) **gi- se** mor k h th jaral.

   Fire -**INS** my hand burnt.

   The fire burnt my hand.

5) mai **Kodr -se** khetw Korl .

   I spade-**INS** field dug.

   I dug the field with spade.

6) tu **h tho-le** tathiy dhoilo.

   You hand-**INS** dishes washed.

   You washed the dishes by hand.

7) manaiya **Pathar-se** sãp m ral.

   The man stone-**INS** snake killed.

   The man killed the snake **with the stone**.

3.1.4 Object Case

It is a case referring to an entity, which undergoes or it is affected by the action or event. In the Tharu language, objective case is marked by the suffixes- **he, sange, lak** etc…

1) mai **uhi-he** pitn .

   I him-**OBJ** hit.

   I hit **him**.

2) kukr **sãpw -he** muw il.

   Dog snake- **OBJ** Killed.

   The dog killed **the snake**.

3) Min **rames-he** bal il .

   Mina Ramesh- **OBJ** called.

   Mina called to **Ramesh**.

4) mai **morik b buk-lak** guriy lel .

I my sister- **OBJ** doll bought.

I bought a doll for **my sister**.

5) mai   **pan d ik-sange** sutl .

I **my mother - OBJ** Slept.

I slept with **my mother**.

3.1.5 Source Case

The source case refers to 'separation of an entity (animate or inanimate) with the starting point of action identified by the verb'. It is the case of an entity, which is itself a starting point of something in a phrase or sentence. In the Tharu language, source case is marked by the suffix-**se** For example,

1) mai **d n-se** il .

I dang - **SOU** came.

I came **from Dang**.

2) mai **kis nw k than-se** m nanl .

I farmer-**SOU** mangoes bought.

I bought mangoes **from farmer**.

3) **pan nokari**-**se** pais kam ithã.

He his job - **SOU** money earned.

He earned money **from his job**.

4) larkan **d i, b b n**- **se** maj b n sikthã.

Children parents- **SOU** well behave learned.

Children learnt well behave **from parents**.

5) hamre **varyanman**-**se** g rl .

We ladder -**SOU** fell off.

We fell off **from the ladder**.

6) resam-mai he **pokhra-se** ektho c th path il.

Resam me pokhara-**SOU** a letter sent.

Resam sent me a letter **from Pokhara**.

7) hamre **binaya**-**Se** s m n p il .

We Binaya-**SOU** parcel got.

We got parcel **from Binaya**.

3.1.6 Goal Case

It marks to the place to which something moves or it is also known as destination, later stage, end point of time period, end result of an action. In the Tharu language, Goal is marked by the suffixes - '**ke, he, wor and lak.**

1) waine **wain-ke** net rojl .

They their leader - **GOA** elected.

They elected **their leader**.

2) K mpas **b swabidy laya-ke** rupme bik s hu l.

Campus University-**GOA** as developed.

Campus developed **as University**.

3) **pitar**- **he** gen fekal.

He Pitar-**GOA** ball threw.

He threw a ball **to pitar**.

4) hamre **Pokhrak-lak** tickets leli.

We Pokhara-**GOA** ticket bought.

We bought tickets **for Pokhara**.

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5) Um wokar **goh -he** tasb r path il .

Uma her friend- **GOA** photo sent.

Uma sent a photo **to her friend**.

6) Ram **gharek-wor** daural.

Ram home-**GOA** ran.

Ram ran **towards the home**.

7) biy ektho biruw hu l.

The seed plant-**GOA** became.

The seed became **plant**.

3.1.7 Locative Case

The case, which denotes the location or spatial orientation of the state or action identified by the verb, is called locative case. In the Tharu language, locative case is marked by the case marker suffixes-**me, ge, p che, upar, t re, wor, lagge**. For example,

1) mai **baks -me** pais dhail .

I box- **LOC** money put.

I put money **in the box**.

2) **ãgan - me** n cl .

She yard - **LOC** danced.

She danced **in the yard**.

3) r m, wokar kukrak- sange **rukhwak- t re** baithal.

Ram his dog tree- **LOC** sat.

Ram sat with his dog **under the tree**.

4) Corw **jangal k-wor** daural.

Thief forest- **LOC** ran.

The thief ran **towards the jungle**.

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5) ektho murg **gharek-pᴐche** baᴛ.

   A hen home- **LOC** is.

   A hen is **behind the house**.

6) hamᴐr **skul kᴐ-ᴐge** mandᴛr baᴛ.

   Our school-**LOC** temple is.

   There is a temple **in front of school**.

7) **gharek-upar** chilgᴛrᴐ ᴛral.

   Home-**LOC** aeroplane flew.

   The aeroplane flew **above the house**.

3.1.8 Time Case

It is the case, which marks to the temporal orientation of the predicate. In the Tharu language, time case is marked by the suffixes **- me, pᴐche, ᴐge.** For example,

1) mai 13[th] Feb. **1985- me** Janmalᴐ.

   I 13[th] Feb. 1985- **TIM** born.

   I was born **on 13[th] Feb. 1985**.

2) kᴐthmᴐndᴐ das **baras- pᴐche** phᴐhar huᴛ.

   Kathmandu 10 years- **TIM** polluted.

   Kathmandu will be polluted **after 10 years**.

3) wokar bahiniyᴐ **2062 B.S.- me** daswᴐ pᴐs kailis.

   Her sister 2062 B.S- **TIM** 10class passed.

   Her sister passed 10class **in 2062 B.S**.

4) ᴛ 2050 **bhadau-me** Kᴐthmᴐndu choral.

   He 2050 bhadra- **TIM** Kathmandu left.

   He left Kathmandu **on Bhadra 2050**.

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5) mai **2065 B.S.- ge** amer k gail .

I 2065 B.S. **TIM**. America go.

I will go to America **on 2065 B.S.**

6) mai asa Indi j im.

I coming year-**TIM**/ India go.

I will go India **coming year.**

3.1.9 Possessor Case

It is the case, which marks to the entity having something. The sense of possession may be physical, mental or legal. In the Tharu language, possessor is marked by suffixes- **wak, ik.** For example,

1) **wokar-ik** b b halh l sk l j ith.

His father - **POSS** fast school went.

His father went to school fast.

2) **mor-ik** kukr m wal.

My-**POSS** dog died.

My dog died.

3) **kitab-ik** khol l l b .

Book's cover red is.

Book's cover is red.

4) ghar **mohan-w k** ho.

This house Mohan's –**POSS** is.

This house is **Mohan's**.

5) mai **john-w k** b b he dekhl .

I john - **POSS** father saw.

I saw **John's father.**

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Table no. 1

Tharu personal pronouns with their possessive function

Number	Person	Possessive case	
Singular	1	morik	
	2	mai/mor k	Non-honorific
		tor/tor k	Non-honorific
	3	wokar	Non-honorific
		wok r k	Honorific
Plural	1	Ham r	
	2	Tuh r	
	3.	wainke	

1) mor k ghar

   1. sg. house.

   My house.

2) ham r m star maj par ithã.

   2. pl. teacher well taught.

   Our teacher taught well.

3) torik kukr muwal (Non-honorific).

   2. sg. Dog died.

   Your dog died.

4) tuh r kapr sugghur b (Honorific).

   2. sg. Clothes nice are.

   Your clothes are nice.

5) wokar k b b amerika-se ilã. (Honorific).

   3. Sg. Father America - **SOU** came.

   His father came from America.

6) wokar bᴂbᴂroil. (Non-honorific)

   3. Sg. Sister wept.

   His sister wept.

7) waine wainke kam seklã.

   They **3.Pl** work finished.

   They finished **their work**.

8) ghar mor k ho.

   That **1.Sg** home myis.

   That is my home.

3.2   Similarities and Differences between the Tharu and English Cases

3.2.1 Agentive Case

Both the Tharu and English languages have the case 'agentive' but they differ in case markers. In the Tharu language it is marked by suffix- **wa, ya** and sometimes Ø marker preceded by nominals. On the other hand, English does not have such suffixes in active sentence but they are marked by word order.

Tharu

1) **pulis-w** corw -he birw dehal.

   Polish- **AGN** thief poison gave.

   The polish gave poison to thief.

2) **wokar bahini-ya** das p s kail s.

   His sister -**AGN** 10class passed.

   His sister passed ten classes.

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3) **sap- wa** mektur-he kh il.

    Snake- **AGN** frog ate.

    The snake ate the frog.

English

    The cow slept.

    I hit her.

    You have called the polish.

3.2.2 Experiencer Case

In both the Tharu and English languages, most of the time the case experiencer is marked by the verb of a sentence. In the Tharu language, there is not any case marker for it but in English sometimes it is marked by preposition '**to**'.

Tharu

1) gop l man marle b .

    Gopal-**EXP** sad is.

    Gopal is sad.

2) lawandi dar il.

    The girl-**EXP** feared.

    The girl was feared.

3) mai tuh nhe maiy kaith .

    I-**EXP** you love.

    I love you.

English

    The performance was enthralled **to me**.

    This story is interesting **to me**.

    They love music.

3.2.3 Instrumental Case

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

Tharu

ektho **kunj -le** c b khulal.
A key-**INS** door opened.
A key opened the door.

English

A key opened the door
INS   ACC

II)   In both Tharu and English, natural force is also regarded as
        instrument. For example,

Tharu

1)   ladiya-g u-he bag il.
      River-**INS** village flooded.
      River flooded the village.

2)   **gi -se** morik h th jaral.
      Fire -**INS** my hand burnt.
      The fire burnt my hand.

English

The sun dried the clothes.
The wind opened the window.

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III) The Tharu instrumental case marker -se is identical with that of source case marker but English uses prepositions **'with'** and **'by'** as instrumental case markers. For example,

1) mai **kodr -se** khetw   korl .

I spade-**INS** field dug.

I dug the field with spade.

2) waine **nohkatn -se** noh katlã.

They nailcutter-**INS** nail cut.

They cut the nail by nail- cutter.

3) U manaiy **patthar-se** ektho sãpaw   maral.

The man stone-INS a snake killed.

The man killed a snake with a stone.

English

you washed utensils **by hand**.

They have killed mad dog **with gun**.

I reached Kathmandu **by bus**.

3.2.4 Objective Case

The Tharu objective case is identical to the direct object of transitive verb. In the Tharu language, it is marked by suffix**-he, lak.**

1)   **pitar-he** gen fekal.

He pitar-**OBJ** ball threw.

He threw a ball to Pitar.

2) rames **mai-he** ektho c th path il.

Ramesh me-**OBJ** a letter sent.

Ramesh sent a letter to me.

3) mai mor k b **b buk- lak** gur y lel .

I my sister- **OBJ** doll bought.

I bought a doll to my sister.

4) tu **Sita-he** maiy kaitho.

You Sita- **OBJ** loved.

You loved Sita.

5) waine **kukrin-he** rakhedlã.

They dogs- **OBJ**. Chased.

They chased to the dogs.

But English treats objective case by the preposition 'to' and 'for' and by word order also.

English

He sent a letter **to his friend**.
She bought a pen **for her sister**.
The cow feeds her milk **to the calf**.

3.2.5 Source Case

Both the Tharu and English languages have the semantic case 'source' but they differ only in their case marking system. In Tharu, it is marked by suffixes **'se, he'** whereas in English it is marked by the preposition **from**. For example,

1) mai m **kisan-wak than-se** nanl .

I mangoes Farmer-**SOU** brought.

I brought mangoes **from farmer**.

2) U   pan **nokari-se** pais   kam ithã.

He his job-**SOU** money earned.

He earned money **from his job**.

3) rames mai-he **pokhara-se** c th path il

Ramesh me pokhara-**SOU** a letter sent.

Ramesh sent me a letter **from Pokhara**.

English

An apple fell off **from the tree.**

Children learn good behavior **from parents**.

They came **from Kathmandu**.

3.2.6 Goal Case

Both languages, Tharu and English have the semantic case 'goal'. In Tharu, the case goal is marked by suffixes- **ke, he** and rarely **lak** marked for both animate and inanimate goal. For example,

1) hamre **Pokhr k-lak** tikat lel .

We pokhara-**GOA** ticket took.

We took a ticket for Pokhara.

2) ky mpas **b swab dy laya-ke** rupme bik s huil.

Campus University-**GOA** developed.

Campus developed as University.

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

Arina goes back **to Pokhara**.

They have gone **toward the jungle**.

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He threw the ball **to Pitar**.

3.2.7 Locative Case

Both the Tharu and English languages have the semantic case locative. They are different only because of their distinct case marking system. Tharu locative case markers are- **me, t re, upar, wor, ge, p che, lagge,** and English locative case markers are **'in', 'on', 'at', over, above, behind, infront of** etc. For example,

1) **k thm ndu-me** j r b .
   Kathmandu-**LOC** cold is.
   It is cold **in Kathmandu**.

2) mai **baks -me** pais dhail .
   I box-**LOC**. money kept.
   I kept money **in the box.**

3) kukr **ghar-p che** b .
   Dog house-**LOC** is.
   The dog is **behind the house.**

4) Cuh **khatiy k-wor** daural.
   The rat bed-**LOC** ran.
   The rat ran **towards the bed.**

English

Hari played **in** the playground.
The dog is **at** door.
The pond is **in front of** the house.
The bird is flying **over** the cloud

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3.2.8 Time Case

Both the Tharu and English languages have the case 'time'. They differ only in their case marking system. In the Tharu language, it is marked by suffixes- **me, ge, p che** etc. whereas in English, time case is marked by prepositions- **on, since, for, before, after** etc…

1) mai **13th feb. 1985- me** janmal .

    I 13th Feb. 1985- **TIM** born.

    I was born **on 13th Feb. 1985**.

2) K thm nd **das baras-p che** phuhar hu .

    Kathmandu 10 years- **TIM** polluted.

    Kathmandu will be polluted **after 10 years.**

3) wokar b bu **2062 B.S. - ge** bhoj kail.

    His sister 2062 B.S. **TIM** married.

    His sister has married **before 2062 B. S.**

English

I was born **on 1965**.

He is working in UN **for 5 years**.

They left Kathmandu **before buying the car**.

3.2.9 Possessor Case

Both the English and Tharu languages have the case possessors. They differ only in their case marking system.

I) In the Tharu language, it is marked by suffixes- **wak, ik** preceded by nominals. On the other hand, English uses apostrophe 's'

preceded by nominals and preposition 'of' followed by nominals for possessor case markers.

Tharu

1) mor k kukr muwal.

   My- **POSS** dog died.

   My dog died.

2) **kitab-ik** khol l l b .

   Book -**POSS** cover red is.

   Book's cover is red.

3) ghar mohanw k ho.

   This house Mohan-**POSS** is.

   This house is **Mohan's**.

English

1. The **cow's tail** is long.

2. It is the fifth floor **of building**.

3. This house **belongs to me**.

II) Both the Tharu and English languages have possessive pronouns with both functions: determinative and pronominal.

Tharu

1) mor k - ghar. (Determinative function)

   '1. sg. - House'

   My house.

2) tor kɐ bistɐrɐ. (Determinative function)

   '2. sg. - Bed'

   your bed.

3) wokar- kodrɐ.

   '3. sg. - spade'

   His/her spade.

4) ghar morik ho. (pronominal function)

   This house **1.sg.- POSS** is.

   This house is mine.

5) wainke motar ho. (Pronominal Function)

   This their-**POSS** car is.

   This car is theirs.

English

   a) **My** book. (Determinative function)
   b) **Your** motorbike. (Determinative function)
   c) This mobile is **mine.** (Pronominal function)
   d) That pen is **their's.** (Pronominal function)

III) In English, second person possessive pronoun 'your' does not have singular - plural, male - female and honorific- non-honorific distinction. But in the Tharu language, second person possessive pronoun has honorific/ non- honorific distinction.

English	Tharu

English   Tharu

Your book ——————————— tor kʌtʌb (Non-honorific)

                        \
                         tuhʌr kʌkitʌb (Honorific)

IV) In English 3rd person singular possessive pronouns are used differently for male (his) and female (her) but there is not honorific - non honorific distinction. But in the Tharu language, third person singular possessive pronouns do not take male-female distinction but it makes honorific/ non-honorific distinction.

English   Tharu

his ——————————
                         ——wokar (Non-Honorific)
Her——————————

His ——————————
                         —— wokʌrik (Honorific)
Her——————————

3.3 The Tharu Language as Pro-drop Language

The Pro-drop language refers to the Null subject language. It is a term used in G.B. theory for a parameter used which determines whether the subject of a clause can be suppressed. Pro - drop language have a rich system of verb agreement and free inversion of subject and verb. The Tharu language can be meaningful in spite of lacking the subject. So, we can say that it is as a pro-drop language. For example,

1)   mʌkhʌib .

Ø mangos eat.

We eat mangoes.

2) Sk 1 j ith.

   Ø School went.

   He went school.

3) Corw -**he** rakhedlã.

   Ø thief- **OBJ** chased.

   They chased the thief.

4) Pulishan - **he** bal ilo.

   Ø polish-**OBJ** called.

   You called the polish.

5) Bhoj-**me** naclã.

   Ø weeding - **LOC** danced.

   They danced in weeding.

So, in the Tharu language, verb plays a vital role to determine the subject of the sentence. Mainly in the case of personal pronouns, the whole sentence can be meaningful in spite of lacking the subject.

CHAPTER - FOUR
FINDINGS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This chapter presents the findings derived from the analysis and interpretation of the data. On the basis of findings, some recommendations and pedagogical implications are also made.

4.1   Findings

The major findings of this research are as follows:

4.1.1 Cases Identified in the Tharu Language

i.   The cases, which are identified in the Tharu language are: agentive, experiencer, instrumental, objective, source, goal, locative, time and possessor.

ii.   The Tharu case makers are given below:-

Case	Case Makers
1) Agentive -	wa, ya, Ø
2) Experiencer -	Ø
3) Instrumental -	se, le
4) Object -	he, lak
5) Source -	se
6) Goal -	ke, he, wor, lak
7) Locative -	me, p che, ge, t re lagge, upar, wor……..etc
8) Time -	me, ge, p che
9) Possessor -	w k, k

iii.   The Tharu language is also as a pro-drop language.

iv.   The suffixes are the main case markers in the Tharu language.

v. The Tharu language does not make male-female distinction but it makes honorific- non honorific distinction with pronominal.

vi. The experiencer case uses zero markers in the Tharu language. The Tharu instrumental and source case are marked by the same case marker- **'se'**

vii. Tharu language is always in s-v-o order.

4.1.2 Comparison Between the Tharu and English languages

The comparison is presented in terms of both similarities and differences.

4.1.2.1 Similarities Between Tharu and English Cases

1) The common cases found in the Tharu and English languages are: agentive, experiencer, instrumental, object, location, source, goal, time, and possessor.

2) The same case markers can occur with various cases on both the languages.

3) If there is only one case in a sentence it automatically becomes subject in both languages.

4) Both the Tharu and English languages have categorized personal pronouns under two numbers: singular and plural.

5) The verb plays a central role to determine cases in both the languages especially in the case of experiencer.

6) The **experiencer** in the Tharu language and **agentive** in English language uses zero marker in active sentences.

4.1.3 Differences between the Tharu and English Cases

1) Although the cases agentive, instrumental, source, goal, locative, objective, time, possessor are common to both languages, they have different case markers.

2) English is an s-v-o word order in language whereas Tharu has s-o-v word order.

3) English employs prepositions for case marking system. On the other hand, Tharu makes use of suffixes and word order for the vary purpose.

4) Tharu is regarded as pro-drop language but English is not.

5) The Tharu language makes honorific- non-honorific distinctions with pronominal whereas the English language makes definite - indefinite distinction.

6) The Tharu language doesn't make male-female distinction with pronominal whereas English does.

7) In the Tharu language, the case object and goal, similarly the same case markers mark the case instrumental and source -**he** and -**se** respectively. But they are marked differently in English.

8) In the Tharu language, nominal encode two types of case marking. (Zero marking and suffixes) whereas English nominals encode three types of case marking.(zero, prepositions, and word order).

9) Constituent order is most significant in English but it is not so significant in Tharu.

10) The Tharu language is an Eragative - obsolutive type of language whereas arguments S and P are treated as same and A differently but English is a nominative- accusative type of language where arguments S and A are treated as the same and P differently on the other hand.

11) It is mentioned earlier that the case markers are suffixes in Tharu and 'preposition' and 'word order' in English. This is the basic difference observed between case marking in Tharu and English. The case suffixes and prepositions in both the languages are given below.

Tharu

    a) Agentive - wa, ya, Ø

        eg. gai-**y** sutal.

    b) Experiencer - Ø

        eg. mai tuhin **maiya** kaith .

    c) Instrumental - se, le

        mai **kunji-se** dawar kholth .

    d) Object - he, lak

        eg. m rg **sapwa-he** m wail.

    e) Source – se

        mai **d n-se** il .

    f) Goal - ke, he,wor, lak

        pitar-he gen fekal

    g) Locative - me, p che, ge, t re lagge, upar, wor,… etc.

        Kathmandu-me j r b .

    h) Time- me- ge, p che

        Kathmandu das **baras-p che** ph har huin b .

    i) Possessor- w k, k

ram-wak ghar ho.

English

   i.   Agentive – Ø

       e.g. **The cow** is eating grass.

   ii.   Experiencer - Ø , to

       e.g. I **love** you.

       This book is interesting **to** me.

   iii.   Instrumental - with, by

       e.g. I opened the door **with** the key.

   iv.   Object - to, for

       e.g. I brought a gift **for** her.

   v.   Source - from

       e.g. I came **from** Dang.

   vi.   Goal - to, at

       e.g. He threw a ball **to** Peter.

   vii.   Location - in, on, at, over, above, under, below, towards, to, behind, in front of by, next to etc.

       e.g. It's cold **in** Kathmandu.

   viii.   Time - in, on, at, since, for

       e.g. Kathmandu will be polluted **after** 10 years.

   ix.   Possessor -'s', 'of'

       e.g. That is Ram**'s** house.

4.2   Recommendations

The researcher has presented the following recommendations on the basis of above-mentioned findings:

1) This research is a comparative study between two languages, Tharu and English. A comparative study always helps the language teacher either of English or Tharu to identify difficult area of language teaching so the language teacher should pay attention to this fact.

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

3) The Tharu 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 Tharu native speakers should emphasize this difference and teach them by providing sufficient exercises while teaching case marking system.

4) Tharu is also known as pro-drop language whereas English is not. So, the concerned bodies should be vigilant while dealing with such an implicit concept in the Tharu.

5) The Tharu language does not make male-female distinction in the third person sigular personal pronouns but English does. So, the language teacher should be aware of that fact.

6) There is a distinct use of pronominals for the second person and third person singular pronouns in terms of honorific and non-

honorific category but the English language lacks it. Therefore, it is prime concern in language teaching.

7) In the Tharu language, instrumental and source cases are marked by the same case marker-**se** whereas they are marked differently in English. This difference may create confusion among the language teachers and learners. So, it should be taken carefully.

8) In the Tharu language experiencer case does not take any case marker (zero markers) whereas agentive case does not take any case marker in English. So, language teacher should be aware of that fact.

9) Without linguistic knowledge of a language, one can not teach the language. This study gives linguistic knowledge to the teacher who intends teaching the Tharu of English language.

Tharu case marking system is different from that of English case marking system and 'case' itself is very complex area in grammar since many aspects should be taken care of while dealing case systems in language such as tense, word order, aspect, agreement, definiteness, honorific, number, gender etc. This research has dealt only tense, aspect, word order, definiteness, honorific, gender, number etc. So, the researcher hopes that further researches will be carried out on case in the Tharu language concerning all other aspects and case types too.

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APPENDIX - I

ROMAN TRANSLATION OF DEVANAGIRI SCRIPT

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

ऋ	A	क्	k	द्	d
ऋा		ख्	Kh	ध्	dh
इ	I	ग्	G	न्	n
ई		घ्	Gh	प्	p
ए	U	ङ्	N	फ्	ph
ऍ		च्	C	ब्	b
ए	E	छ्	Ch	भ्	bh
ऐ	Ai	ज्	J	म्	m
ओ	O	झ्	Jh	य्	y
औ	au/ou	ञ्	n	र्	r
अं	an, am	ट्	T	ल्	l
ऋ	A	ठ्	Th	व्	w/v
ः	ḥ	ड्	D	श्	
ँ	~	ढ्	Dh	ष्	s
		ण्	N	स्	s
		त्	T	ह्	h
		थ्	Th		

Note: The traditional letters क्ष, त्र and ज्ञ are treated as conjunct letter, e.g. क्ष = KS, Khs, kch; त्र = tr, and ज्ञ = gn gy.

APPENDIX II

DEVANAGARI ALPHABETS USED FOR THARU PHONEMES (OR SOUND UNITS) AND THEIR EQUIVALENT ROMAN TRANSLATION

Vowels

a. Simple Vowels			b. Breathy vowels		
1.	अ	A	1	अ	a
2.	ॠा		2	आ	a
3.	ई		3	ई	l
4.	ए		4	ऊ	
5.	ए	E	5	ए	e
6.	ऐ	Ai	6	ओ	O
7.	ओ	O			
8.	औं	Au			

Consonants

S.N.	Devanagari	Roman equivalent	S.N.	Devanagari	Roman equivalent	S.N.	Devanagari	Roman equivalent
1	क	K	11	ठ	Th	21	र	R
2	ख	Kh	12	ड	D	22	ल	L
3	ग	G	13	ढ	Dh	23	व	W
4	घ	Gh	14	ꞥ	N	24	स	S
5	ङ	N	15	ꞇ	P	25	ह	H
6	च	C	16	ꞹ	Ph			
7	छ	Ch	17	ꞿ	B			
8	ज	J	18	ꞵ	Bh			
9	झ	Jh	19	ꞧ	M			
10	ट	T	20	इ	Y			

B. Breathy Consonants

26. ङ n   27. न n   28. म m   29. य y   30. र r 31. ल l 32. व W

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APPENDIX III
QUESTIONNAIRE

This questionnaire has been prepared to get information for the research work entitled **Case in English and Tharu:** A comparative study which is being carried out under the guidance of **Mrs. Hima Rawal,** Teaching Assitant, Department of English Education, TU, Kirtipur. The researcher hopes that your co-operation will be a great contribution to this research work.

Thank you

Rama Nepal

Name:

VDC:

Sex:

Age:

How do you say the following sentences in Tharu?

1. I hit her. (मैले उनलाई पिटेँ)

2. I slept with my mother. (म मेरो आमासँग सुतेँ)

3. You have called the Police. (तिमीले पुलिसलाई बोलाएका छौ)

4. The cow slept. (गाई सुत्यों)

5. The Cow grazed the grass. (गाईले घाँस खायो)

6. We drive a car. (हामीहरु गाडी चलाउछ्यौँ)

7. He gave us some mangoes. (उसले हामीहरुलाई केही आँपहरु दियो)

8. He slept in the bed. (उ ओच्छ्यानमा सुत्यो)

9. We went (हामी गयौँ)

10. They chased the dog. (तिनीहरुले कुकुरलाई लखेटे)

11. We fell down from the ladder. (हामीहरु भ्याङडबाट लड्यौं)

12. I love you. (म तिमीलाई माया गर्छु)

13. They felt cold. (तिनीहरुले जाडो महशुश गरे)

14. The girl feared. (त्यो केटी डराई)

15. Sita hates Rawan. (सीता रावणलाई घृणा गर्छिन्)

16. Gopal is sad. (गोपाल उदास छ)

17. Tom felt happy. (टमले खुशी महशुश गन्यो)

18. Ram cut vegetables with the knife. (रामले चक्कुले तरकारी काट्यो)

19. We open the door with the key. (हामीले साँचोले ढोका खोल्यौं ।

20. I went to campus on foot. (म खुट्टाले हिंडेर क्याम्पस गएँ)

21. You washed the dishes by hand. (तिमीले हातले थालहरु धोयौ)

22. They cut nail with the nail cutter (तिनीहरुले नेलकटरले नङ काटे)

23. I dug the field with a spade. (मैले कोदालीले खेत खनेँ)

24. They have killed a mad dog with a gun. (उनीहरुले बन्दुकले एउटा पागल कुकुर मारेका छन्)

25. The man killed the snake with the stone. (त्यो मान्छेले ढुंगाले सर्प मान्यो)

26. Ram with his dog sat under the tree. (राम उसको कुकुरसँग रुखमुनी बस्यो)

27. The police killed a thief with poison. (पुलिसले चोरलाई विष दिएर मान्यो)

28. He cut the tree. (उसले रुख काट्यो)

29. The snake died. (सर्प मन्यो)

30. The hen killed the snake. (कुखुराले सर्प मान्यो)

31. The cow ate the grass. (गाईले घाँस खायो)

32. The fire burnt my hand. (आगोले मेरो हात पोल्यो)

33. We eat mango. (हामी आँप खान्छौं)

34. They played in the school. (तिनीहरु विद्यालयमा खेल्छन्)

35. I bought a book. (मैले एउटा किताव किने)

36. The boy took the ball. (त्यो केटाले बल लियो)

37. Mahesh works hard. (महेश मेहनती छ)

38. The boy broke the window. (केटाले भ्याल फुटायो)

39. Meena called Ramesh. (मिनाले रमेशलाई बोलाइन)

40. I came from Dang. (म दाङबाट आएँ)

41. They came from Kathmandu. (तिनीहरु काठमाडौं आए)

42. I brought these mangoes from farmer. (मैले यी आँपहरु किसानकहाँबाट ल्याएँ)

43. Resham sent me a letter from Poklhara. (रेशमले पोखराबाट मलाई एउटा चिट्ठी पठायो)

44. He earns money from his job. (उहाँले आफ्नो नाकेरीबाट पैसा कमाउनु हुन्छ)

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

46. We got the parcel from the Binaya. (हामीले बिनयबाट समान पायौं)

47. I have just arrived from Nepalgunj. (म भखरै नेपालगंजबाट आएको छु)

48. He went to school, (उ विद्यालय गयो)

49. I go to Dang. (म दाङ जान्छु)

50. They elected their leader. (तिनीहरुले तिनीहरुको नेता छाने)

51. He threw the ball to peter. (उसले पिटरलाई बल फाल्यो)

52. The campus developed as University. (क्याम्पस विश्वविद्यालयको रुपमा विकसित भयो)

53. The seed became a plant. (विऊ एउटा विरुवा भयो)

54. It is cold in Kathmandu. (काठमाडौंमा जाडो छ)

55. I am at home. (म घरमा छु)

56. We sat in the room. (हामी कोठामा बस्यौं)

57. Put your shoes under the table. (तिम्रो जुत्ता टेबलमुनी राख)

58. They play in ground. (तिनीहरु मैदानमा खेल्छन्)

59. I kept the money in the box. (मैले बाकसमा पैसा राखें)

60. He crossed the river easily. (उसले नदी सजिलैसँग पार गर्‍यो)

61. We arranged out picnic in Pokhara. (हामीले हाम्रो बनभोज पोखरामा खायौं

62. The father is at home. (बुवा घरमा हुनुहुन्छ)

63. She danced in the yard. (उनी आगनमा नाचिन्)

64. The dog is at the door. (कुकुर ढोकामा छ)

65. Hari plays in the playground. (हरि खेल मैदानमा खेल्छ)

66. I was born on 13th Feb. 1985. (म 13th Feb. 1985 मा जन्मे)

67. He left Kathmandu on Bhadra of 2050 (उसले भदौ २०५० मा काठमाडौं छोड्यो)

68. Kathmandu will be polluted after 10 years. (काठमाडौं १० वर्षपछि दुषित हुनेछ)

69. His sister passed the SLC in 2062 B.S. (उसको बहिनीले वि.सं २०६२ सालमा एस.एल.सी. पास गरिन्)

70. I will go America on 2066 B.S.? (म वि.सं. २०६६ मा अमेरीका जाने छु)

71. We eat mango (हमी) आँप खान्छौं

72. They danced in weeding. (तिनीहरु) विवाहमा नाचे

73. He goes school. (ऊ) स्कूल जान्छ ।

74. They chased the thief (तिनीहरुले) चोरलाई लखटे ।

75. You called the polish. (तिमीले) पूलीसलाई बोलायौ ।

QUESTIONNAIRE

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

Thank you

Rama Nepal

Name:

VDC:

Sex:

Age:

How do you say the following sentences in Tharu?

76. I hit her. (मैले उनलाई पिटें)

....

77. I slept with my mother. (म मेरो आमासँग सुतेँ)

....

78. You have called the Police. (तिमीले पुलिसलाई बोलाएका छौ)

....

79. The cow slept. (गाई सुत्यों)

....

80. The Cow grazed the grass. (गाईले घाँस खायो)

....

81. We drive a car. (हामीहरु गाडी चलाउछौँ)

   ....

82. He gave us some mangoes. (उसले हामीहरुलाई केही आँपहरु दियो)

   ....

83. He slept in the bed. (उ ओच्छ्यानमा सुत्यो)

   ....

84. We went (हामी गयौँ)

   ....

85. They chased the dog. (तिनीहरुले कुकुरलाई लखेटे)

   ....

86. We fell down from the ladder. (हामीहरु भ्याङडबाट लड्यौँ)

   ....

87. I love you. (म तिमीलाई माया गर्छु)

   ....

88. They felt cold. (तिनीहरुले जाडो महशुश गरे)

   ....

89. The girl feared. (त्यो केटी डराई)

   ....

90. Sita hates Rawan. (सीता रावणलाई घृणा गर्छीन्)

   ....

91. Gopal is sad. (गोपाल उदास छ)

   ....

92. Tom felt happy. (टमले खुशी महशुश गऱ्यो)

   ....

93. Ram cut vegetables with the knife. (रामले चक्कुले तरकारी काट्यो)

   ....

94. We open the door with the key. (हामीले साँचोले ढोका खोल्यौं ।

   ....

95. I went to campus on foot. (म खुट्टाले हिँडेर क्याम्पस गएँ)

....

96. You washed the dishes by hand. (तिमीले हातले थालहरु धोयौ)

....

97. They cut nail with the nail cutter (तिनीहरुले नेलकटरले नङ काटे)

....

98. I dug the field with a spade. (मैले कोदालीले खेत खनेँ)

....

99. They have killed a mad dog with a gun. (उनीहरुले बन्दुकले एउटा पागल कुकुर मारेका छन्)

....

100. The man killed the snake with the stone. (त्यो मान्छेले ढुंगाले सर्प मार्‍यो)

....

101. Ram with his dog sat under the tree. (राम उसको कुकुरसँग रुखमुनी बस्यो)

....

102. The police killed a thief with poison. (पुलिसले चोरलाई विष दिएर मार्‍यो)

....

103. He cut the tree. (उसले रुख काट्यो)

....

104. The snake died. (सर्प मर्‍यो)

....

105. The hen killed the snake. (कुखुराले सर्प मार्‍यो)

....

106. The cow ate the grass. (गाईले घाँस खायो)

....

107. The fire burnt my hand. (आगोले मेरो हात पोल्यो)

....

108. We eat mango. (हामी आँप खान्छौं)

....

109. They played in the school. (तिनीहरु विद्यालयमा खेल्छन्)

....

110. I bought a book. (मैले एउटा किताव किने)

....

111. The boy took the ball. (त्यो केटाले बल लियो)

....

112. Mahesh works hard. (महेश मेहनती छ)

....

113. The boy broke the window. (केटाले झ्याल फुटायो)

....

114. Meena called Ramesh. (मिनाले रमेशलाई बोलाइन)

....

115. I came from Dang. (म दाङबाट आएँ)

....

116. They came from Kathmandu. (तिनीहरु काठमाडौं आए)

....

117. I brought these mangoes from farmer. (मैले यी आँपहरु किसानकहाँबाट ल्याएँ)

....

118. Resham sent me a letter from Poklhara. (रेशमले पोखराबाट मलाई एउटा चिट्ठी पठायो)

....

119. He earns money from his job. (उहाँले आफ्नो नाकेरीबाट पैसा कमाउनु हुन्छ)

....

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

....

121. We got the parcel from the Binaya. (हामीले बिनयबाट समान पायौं)

....

122. I have just arrived from Nepalgunj. (म भखरै नेपालगंजबाट आएको छु)

....

123. He went to school, (उ विद्यालय गयो)

....

124. I go to Dang. (म दाङ जान्छु)

....

125. They elected their leader. (तिनीहरुले तिनीहरुको नेता छाने)

....

126. He threw the ball to peter. (उसले पिटरलाई बल फाल्यो)

....

127. The campus developed as University. (क्याम्पस विश्वविद्यालयको रुपमा विकसित भयो)

....

128. The seed became a plant. (विऊ एउटा विरुवा भयो)

....

129. It is cold in Kathmandu. (काठमाडौंमा जाडो छ)

....

130. I am at home. (म घरमा छु)

....

131. We sat in the room. (हामी कोठामा बस्यौं)

....

132. Put your shoes under the table. (तिम्रो जुत्ता टेबलमुनी राख)

....

133. They play in ground. (तिनीहरु मैदानमा खेल्छन्)

....

134. I kept the money in the box. (मैले बाकसमा पैसा राखें)

....

135. He crossed the river easily. (उसले नदी सजिलैसँग पार गर्‍यो)

....

136. We arranged out picnic in Pokhara. (हामीले हाम्रो बनभोज पोखरामा खायौं

....

137. The father is at home. (बुवा घरमा हुनुहुन्छ)

....

138. She danced in the yard. (उनी आगनमा नाचिन्)

....

139. The dog is at the door. (कुकुर ढोकामा छ)

....

140. Hari plays in the playground. (हरि खेल मैदानमा खेल्छ)

....

141. I was born on 13th Feb. 1985. (म 13th Feb. 1985 मा जन्मे)

....

142. He left Kathmandu on Bhadra of 2050 (उसले भदौ २०५० मा काठमाडौं छोड्यो)

....

143. Kathmandu will be polluted after 10 years. (काठमाडौं १० वर्षपछि दुषित हुनेछ)

....

144. His sister passed the SLC in 2062 B.S. (उसको बहिनीले वि.सं २०६२ सालमा एस.एल.सी. पास गरिन्)

....

145. I will go America on 2066 B.S.? (म वि.सं. २०६६ मा अमेरीका जाने छु)

....

146. We eat mango (हमी) आँप खान्छौं

    ....

147. They danced in weeding. (तिनीहरु) विवाहमा नाचे

    ....

148. He goes school. (ऊ) स्कूल जान्छ ।

    ....

149. They chased the thief (तिनीहरुले) चोरलाई लखटे ।

    ....

150. You called the polish (तिमीले) पूलीसलाई बोलायौ ।

    ....

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