

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 General Background

All the civilized humans live with mutual collaboration in some societies. A society actually is a group of persons in general who live together in communities standing each other's little foibles. They are tied with bonds of many a factor there. Among those factors, language is the first and foremost one. It helps the human beings be the superior creatures among all other creatures. Language thus plays a vital role for the enhancement of human living. It is solely such a tool whereby a person succeeds in transferring his thinking, emotions, experiences and so forth. Moreover, it is common that each child is biologically capable of acquiring at least one language and is linguistically matured before he is five or six.

To use a language, on the one hand is a commonplace for all the human beings. But defining it, on the other hand is sometimes panic-stricken. It may demand professional expertise. In this regard, Sthapit has said that even the ten thousand best linguists of the world cannot describe a language perfectly (as cited in Sharma, 2007, p. 1). From the above assertion, it is clear that to endeavour to coin a flawless definition is not more than just like a wild goose chase. However, Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary (2000, p. 721) defines language as "the use by humans of a system of sounds and words to communicate". According to the definition, language is a system of sounds and words that humans use to communicate. Thus, language is primarily a means of human communication to transmit thought, emotions and experiences.

A large number of languages are spoken worldwide. Some of them have scripts while others do not. English is particularly a dominant language. It serves as a lingua franca internationally. In the context of Nepal, English is taught as a compulsory subject upto the bachelor level. It helps impart four language skills, like listening, speaking, reading and writing. In this context, Malla (1977, p. 12)

highlights the importance of English when he writes: "English is undoubtedly of vital importance for accelerating the modernization process in Nepal". Hence, it is inevitable for academic and communicative purpose.

1.1.1 The Linguistic Scenario of Nepal

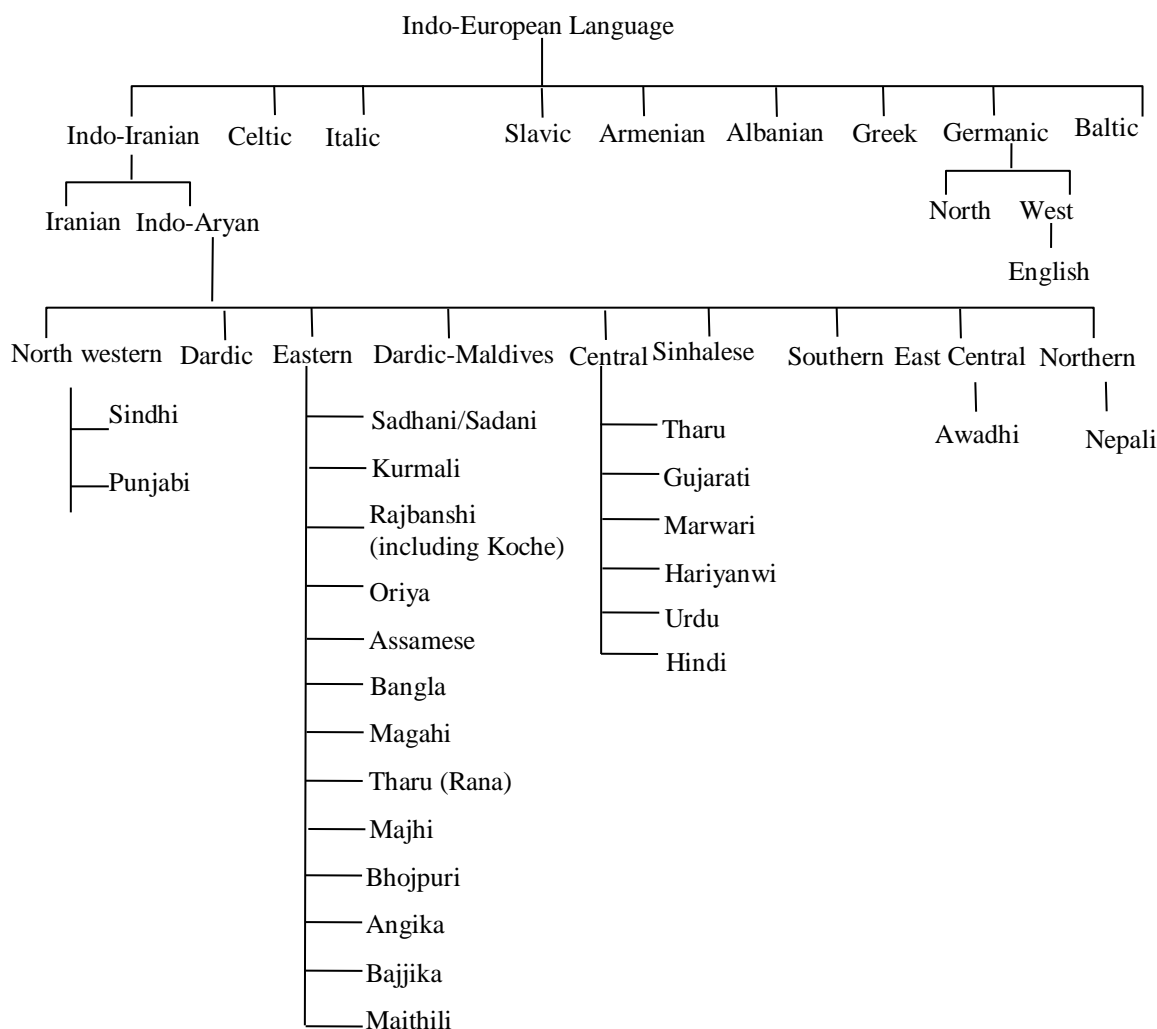
Nepal is a multiethnic, multilingual and multicultural nation. There is unity in diversity. In this regard, I would like to insert the assertions of Prithvi Narayan Shah the founder of modern Nepal that - (i) "It is with much travail that I have acquired this kingdom. It is a common garden for all castes. Let everyone realize this" - (ii) "My country is a garden in which four castes and thirty - six sub-castes blossom forth" (Upadhyaya and Rauniyar, 2007, p.127). From the above claims, we can draw the conclusion that the ethnic and religious diversity is coupled with the nation's linguistic plurality. According to the 2001 CBS, there are ninety-two identified languages which are spoken as mother tongue. In addition, a number of languages as 2001 CBS terms them 'unknown' languages need to be precisely identified and analyzed on the basis of field observation. The languages spoken in Nepal are broadly classified into four groups.

1.1.1.1 Indo European Family

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

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

Diagram 1 : Indo-European Languages



(Yadava, 2003, p. 145)

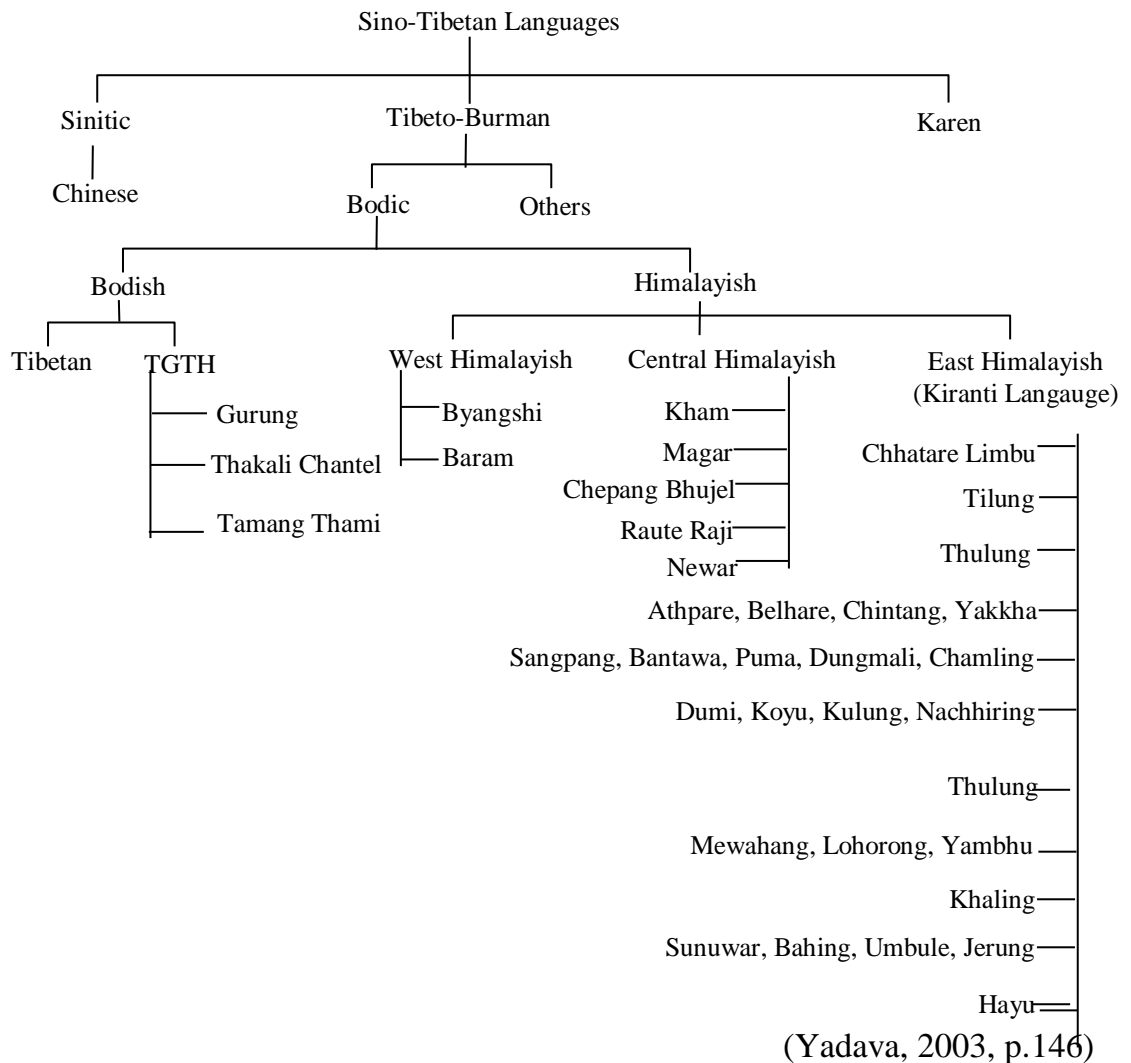
Some of the Indo-Aryan languages spoken in Nepal are yet to be sub-classified in the lack of their adequate description. These languages include Tharu, Bote, Kumal, Chureti and Danuwar.

1.1.1.2 Sino-Tibetan Family

Another important group of Nepal's language 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, i.e. about 57 languages.

The Sino-Tibetan Languages spoken in Nepal can be subcategorized as follows:

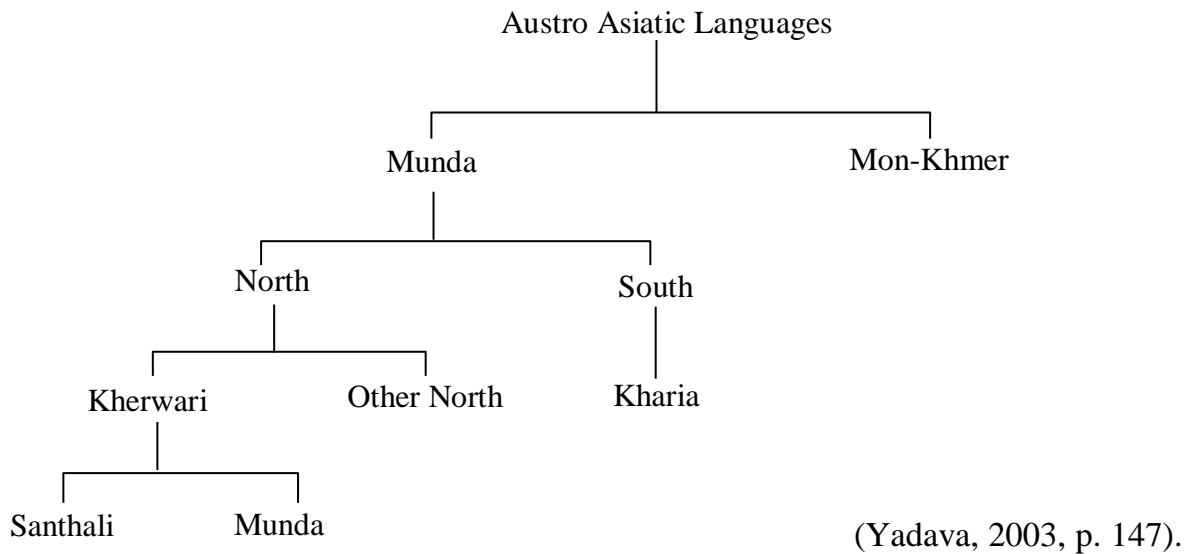
Diagram 2 : Sino-Tibetan Languages



1.1.1.3 Austro- Asiatic Family

The Austic languages comprise Santhali of the northern Munda group and Kharia of the southern Munda group. The genetic affiliation of the Austric language spoken in Nepal is shown in the following diagram :

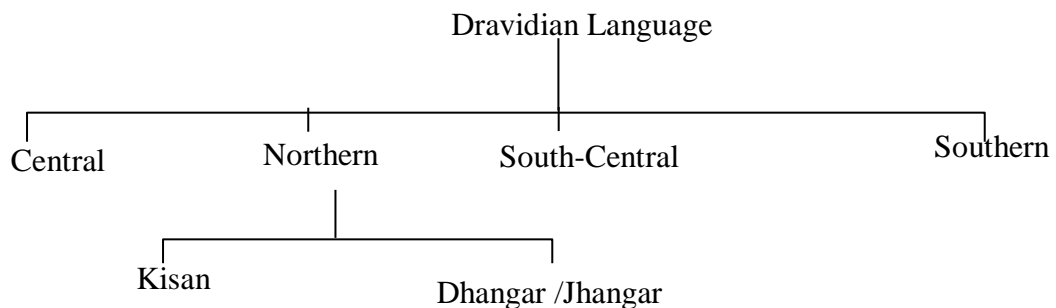
Diagram 3 : Austro Asiatic Languages



1.1.2.4 Dravidian Family

The Dravidian language family includes two languages spoken in Nepal. One of them is called Jhangar which is spoken in the region east of the Koshi river but Dhangar in the region west of the Koshi river. It can be shown with the following diagram:

Diagram : 4 Dravidian Languages



(Yadava, 2003, p. 147).

1.1.2 An Introduction to the Jhangar Language

Despite the small size, Nepal accommodates an amazing cultural diversity including ethnic and linguistic plurality. Grimes (1992) estimates that there exists about 125 languages and dialects of four different Genetic stocks - Indo-Aryan, Tibeto-Burman, Austro-Asiatic (Munda) and Dravidian (as cited in

Bhattarai, 2007, p.3). However, several of these languages/dialects are left with a marginal number of speakers and threatened with extinction. Jhangar undergoes the similar position.

In Dravidian language family, Jhangar is spoken by 4,832 (1952/54), 9,140 (1961) 15,175 (1999) and 28,615 (2001) people. They are found to be scattered all over the eastern terai of Nepal. It is mainly spoken in Sunsari district (CBS, 2001, p. 147). However, they are found to be spread over almost ten districts of the nation and mainly confined to five districts Jhapa, Morang, Sunsari, Siraha and Parsa.

Jhangar language has two names in Nepal. In the east of the Koshi river, it is named as Jhangar and in the west, Dhangar (CBS, 2001, p, 147). Still there are some people who call them by Jhangad either. But the Jhangar people prefer themselves to be called by 'Uranw'. They do not like the terms 'Jhangar', 'Dhangar' or 'Jhangad' as they think these terms look down on them. But the noteworthy fact is that they all write their surname as 'Uranw'. These variations in term do not employ any difference as dialects. Most Jhangar enjoy bilingualism. They understand and can respond to other languages.

1.1.3 Importance of Contrastive Analysis on Language Teaching

Contrastive analysis is defined as 'a systematic analysis of similarities and differences between languages'. In other words, contrastive analysis is the comparative study of the linguistic systems of two or more languages to find out the similarities and differences. Contrastive analysis was developed and practised in the late 1940s and 50s as an application of structural linguistics to language teaching and is based on the following assumptions:

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

'Contrastive analysis' (CA), which is also called 'contrastive linguistics', means a systematic comparison of the linguistic systems of two or more languages. (Asher, 1994, p. 737).

A Contrastive analysis describes the structural differences and similarities of two or more languages'. (Johnson and Johnson, 1999, p. 85).

Functions of Contrastive Analysis

There are mainly two functions of CA. It functions as:

- a. a predictive device
- b. an explanatory tool

a. A Predictive Device

The function of CA as a predicative device is to find out the areas of difficulty in learning certain languages for a particular group of learners. To predict the likely errors to be committed by a particular group of learners in learning a particular language is regarded as the primary function of contrastive analysis. The work has implications to language teaching /learning by:

- i. pointing the areas of difficulties in learning and errors in performance.
- ii. determining the areas which the learners have to learn with greater emphasis.
- iii. helping to design teaching/learning materials for those particular areas that need more attention.

b. An Explanatory Tool

The function of CA as an explanatory tool is to explain the sources of errors in one's performance. The source as explained by CA is the L1 interference. This is the secondary function of contrastive analysis.

CA is interested in the comparability of language. 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 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 their L2. So CA believes that the greater the difficulty, the more instances of errors will occur. CA has applications in predicting and diagnosing a proportion of the L2 errors committed by learners with a common L1. It compares learner's two languages, viz. their mother tongue and target language; finds out similarities and differences and then predicts the areas of ease and difficulty. The basic assumption of CA is that the learner transfers the system of his native language (L1) to the foreign language (L2) he is learning. In CA, the description of the learner's native language is put side by side with the description of the foreign language. Such a comparison would be helpful in pointing out the areas of difficulties in learning and errors in performance, determining and specifying the area which the learners have to learn with greater emphasis and helping to design teaching learning materials for those particular areas that need more attention. So, CA is really important from pedagogical point of view and its importance in teaching cannot be exaggerated.

1.1.4 Case

Case is a relative concept. It indicates the role relationship of noun phrases with the verb in a sentence. OALD defines case as "the form of a noun, an adjective or a pronoun in some languages that shows its relationship to another word." Thus, case is the relationship of different NPs, adjectives and pronouns with the verb in a sentence. For example,

- a. Ram broke the window.
- b. The window was broken with a hammer by Ram.

In (a), the NPs 'Ram' and 'the window' have agentive and objective roles respectively. Similarly, the same window in (b) even though it comes to the position of subject does not cause much difference in meaning. Here the NP, 'a hammer' has instrumental relationship with the verb.

In the Greek period, Dionysus Thrax uses the concept of case. Chomsky in 1965 comes with his 'Standard Theory' of Transformational Generative Grammar in his book *Aspects of the Theory of Syntax* (1965). This theory emphasizes only on the grammatical categories such as NP, VP and grammatical functions such as subject, object as tools for analyzing sentence structures. The standard theory assumes the notion of deep structure characterized by grammatical categories and grammatical functions. But this theory fails to capture the semanticity the NPs adhere to the verb. If we analyze the aforementioned sentences in (a) and (b), the NPs Ram in (a) and the window in (b) function as the subjects of the predicate 'broke'. But the same window in (a) functions as an object. Here only the categories are shifted but not the notion inherent in them. That is why, the notion of deep structure was vehemently criticized as it fails to maintain consistency or regularity about sentences. Even though the categorical and functional characteristics of the deep structure vary, the meaning aspects or semantic relations or roles always remain intact. Thus, the deep structure of a sentence is characterized by a verb and a series of semantic roles or cases. Such kind of relational channel or model of grammar is called case grammar. It is a model of generative grammar that Charles Fillmore developed in the late 1960s.

In case grammar, the verb plays a vital role. And as a central constituent of a sentence, it shares a number of semantic relationships with various noun phrases. These relationships are called cases. The traditional grammar regarded case as morphosyntactic variations in noun but for Fillmore, case is a set of concepts which identifies types of judgements which animate beings are capable of making about the events going on around them. They would judge who did something, whom it happened to, what got changed, where it happened.

There are many types of case. The following set is considered typical: nominative, accusative, genitive, instrumental, dative, comitative, ablative, vocative, source, goal and locative (Yadav, 2004, p. 238). So the researcher is interested to find out similar and different characteristics of the case system in English and Jhangar.

1.1.5 Basic Concepts of Case Grammar

The concept of case is nothing new in grammar. Traditional grammarians have been discussing it for ages, especially 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 marker at the end of that noun. Discussing case means presenting rules of morphosyntactic variations and listing the exceptions to those rules.

Case grammar was first proposed as one of the arguments in favour of Generative semantics, but it is best understood as a version of an analysis in terms of predicates and participants in which the emphasis is largely upon the functions of the participants. Case notions actually are a set of universal, presumably innate concepts which proceed to define them in semantic terms.

There are three basic concepts of case grammar. They are:

- a. Syntactic Function
- b. Morphosyntactic Form
- c. Semantic Role

a. Syntactic Function

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

Let us observe the following sentences:

- i. Rohini won the trophy.
- ii. The trophy was won by Rohini.

iii. The dog slept.

In the above sentence, 'Rohini', 'the trophy' and 'the dog' have subjective function. But the same subject 'Rohini' functions as an adjunct in the second sentence and 'the trophy' functions as an object in the first sentence. By this, it is clear that the notion syntactic function in case grammar is traditional. It does not care semantic aspects and assigns roles as categories are shifted.

b. 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 phrase with the verb. By morphosyntactic form, Fillmore refers to the different cases which stand in a certain relationship within a structure. Morphosyntactic forms give some functional and categorical information. They differ from one language to another. Different morphosyntactic forms that mark cases are inflections prepositions, postpositions, word order, intonation, affixation, suppletion (irregular change as in go, went, gone) etc. A language may have one or more such morphosyntactic forms which show the case relation. In languages like Greek, Latin and Sanskrit, a special class of affixation functions as the case marker. This type of specific class does not exist in English. So, mainly two morphosyntactic forms - word order and preposition reveal the case relation in English. The common prepositions used for different cases are as follows:

Morphosyntactic Forms	Cases
by	agent
with, by	instrument
from	source
to, into, until, towards	goal
in, at, on	locative
to, for	benefactive

There are some other morphosyntactic forms that function as prepositional phrases. They are given below :

- | | | |
|------|--------------------|----------------------------|
| i. | on the roof | - locative case marker |
| ii. | towards the jungle | - directional case marker |
| iii. | on Sunday | - time case marker |
| iv. | in a haphazard way | - manner case marker |
| v. | by a bus | - instrumental case marker |
| vi. | by her father | - agentive case marker |

Word order shows the cases like agentive, experiencer and patient. For example,

- i. Aastha beats Biswas. (agentive)
- ii. Biswas beats Aastha (Patient)
- iii. Ekraj feels recovered. (experiencer)

c. Semantic Role

Semantic role is a recently developed concept of case grammar. It has more dominating position in case grammar than the previous two concepts. This is a meaning level concept. Fillmore has described his 'Case Grammar' from the viewpoint of semantic role what he calls 'case or case relationship'. He has explained the whole case grammar as having a semantic role. "The sentence is its basic structure consisting of a verb and one or more noun phrases, each associated with the verb in a particular relationship" (Fillmore, 1968, p. 1). In an underlying structure, there is one verb and one or more NPs, each having a particular semantic relationship with the action or state represented by the verb. This is related with semantic role. Thus, it seems that the case relations are semantically identified though distributionally distinctive.

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

- i. John broke the window.
- ii. A hammer broke the window.
- iii. John broke the window with a hammer.

iv. The window broke.

'John' in both the sentences (i and iii) has an agentive role; 'the window' in all sentences has an 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 represented by the verb of that sentence.

1.1.6 Case making System

In order to define grammatical relations adequately, 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

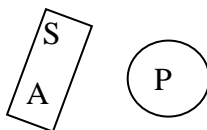
"Sita slept."
S V

b. Multi-argument

"Sita helped Ram".
A V P

The S is defined as the only nominal argument of a single-argument clause. Sometime 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 prototypical agents are treated. Usually there is one argument in every verbal clause that exhibits this property. P is the 'most patient-like' argument of a multi-argument clause. Again, if none of the arguments is very much like a patient, then the argument that is treated like a prototypical patient is considered to be the P.

The grammatical relation of subject can be defined as S together with A while direct object, or simply 'object' can be defined as P alone. Some languages pay more attention to this grouping than do others. There are various systems for grouping S,A and P and the morphosyntactic means languages employed to express these groupings. But languages may treat S and A the same, and P differently. The following English examples illustrate this fact with pronominal case forms-one form 'she' is used for the third person singular feminine pronoun in both the S and A roles. A different form 'her' is used for the third person singular feminine pronoun in the P role:

- a. She slept.
- b. She called her.
- 

Similarly, the following examples clarify this system in morphological case making on free noun phrases. In the following examples, the same case marker, 'ϕ (zero)' occurs on noun phrases in both the S and A roles. Another case marker, 'to' occurs on noun phrases in the P role.

- a. Sita goes
 NOM V
 S
- b. Sita spoke to me
 NOM V ACC
 A P

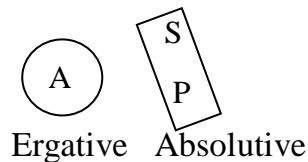
This system is often referred to as 'nominative- accusative' system. In other words, the nominative - accusative system groups S and A (nominative) together against P (accusative). If any morphological case marks both S and A roles, it is called the nominative case, while the case that marks only the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

We can find the following examples in Yupik Eskimo for grouping S, A and P.

- a. Doris - aq ayallruuq "Doris travelled."
 Doris -ABS travelled.
 S
- b. Tom-am Doris - aq cingallrua "Tom greeted Doris".
 Tom-ERG Doris-ABS greeted.
 A P

Payne, (1997, as cited in Limbu, 2007, p. 19).

In the above 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 is called the 'Ergative case'. Similarly, if any morphological case that marks both S and P, it can be termed as the 'Absolutive case'.



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 types, tripartite, would have distinct cases for each of the three primitives. The fourth type would group A and P together against S. And the fifth, neutral, would have the same form for all three primitives, but since this type is rare, it is not directly relevant to our considerations.

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

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

Whaley (1997, as cited in Limbu, 2007, p. 20)

1.1.7 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 Fillmore (1968), Quirk et al. (1985), Comrie (1989), Blake (1994) and Huddleston (1996). Each of them are explained below:

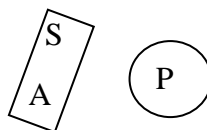
i. Nominative

Nominative is syntactic/grammatical case and it is the form taken by a noun phrase when it is subject of intransitive or transitive clauses. According to Huddleston (1996, p. 98),

Nominative and accusative are definable at the general level as distinct cases associated respectively with the subject of a finite clause and with the direct object : if the NPs in subject and direct object function characteristically have, ..., distinct case inflection or analytical markers we call these cases nominative and accusative respectively. The English 'I' and 'me' series of forms clearly satisfy these definitions, ...

For example,

- a. He felt.
- b. 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 treated differently as 'him'.

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

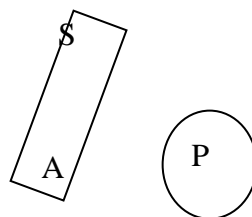
The nominative marks the subject of grammatical relation encoding several roles such as agent, experiencer, patient, etc. For example,

- a. The boy broke the window. (agent)
NOM ACC
- b. Tom felt happy. (experiencer)
NOM
- c. The snowflake melted. (patient)
NOM

ii. Accusative

Accusative is also a syntactic/grammatical case. It refers to the form taken by a noun phrase when it is the object of a verb. According to Blake (1994, p. 134), "The accusative is the case that encodes the direct object of a verb." From the definitions given by Comrie (1989), and Huddleston (1996) quoted in section 1.1.7. (i), it is clear that accusative case is treated differently than nominative case in English. For example,

- a. I laughed.
NOM
- b. I love him.
NOM ACC



The core semantic function of the accusative case is to express the role of 'patient'. For example, 'the window' and 'the milk' is the following examples function as patient.

a. He broke the window.

NOM ACC

b. A cat drank the milk.

NOM ACC

iii. Instrumental

Fillmore in his own words defined instrumental case as;

"The case of the inanimate force or object causally involved in the action or state identified by the verb" (Fillmore 1968, p. 24).

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

From these definitions we came to know that, instrument is the case of something used inanimately to perform an action. The force or object is used as a weapon or means to carry out the action or state identified by the verb. For example, 'with a spade', 'the sun', 'by hand', 'the wind' and 'with a knife' in the following examples function as instrumental cases.

a. He dug the hole with a spade.

b. The sun dried the clothes.

c. John beat me by hand.

d. The wind broke the window.

e. I cut my finger with a knife.

iv. Genitive (possessive)

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

a. It is Harry's pencil.

- b. The hood of the car was dented.
- b. The head lights of the bus are damaged.
- e. The cow's tail is cut.

In the above examples, 'Harry', 'the car', 'the bus' and 'the cow' show the case of possession of 'pencil', 'the hood', 'the head lights' and 'tail' respectively.

English uses possessive pronouns to express the possessive relationship. For example, 'her' and 'have' in the following examples show the possession of 'book'.

- a. This is Sheila's book → This is her book. (determinative)
- b. This book is Sheila's → This book is hers. (independent/pronominal)

v. Comitative

The 'comitative' usually marks the animate (typically human) which is conceived of as accompanying the participation of some more centrally involved participant in a predication. 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, 'with' in 'with his master', 'with his wife' and 'with Yule' in the following examples indicates a comitative case marker.

- a. The dog is with his master.
- b. He is coming with his wife.
- c. George sang with Yule.

vi. Locative

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

- a. The vase is on/under/near the table.
- b. Chicago is windy.

- c. It is windy in Chicago.
- d. A cat is behind me.
- e. The dog ran towards the house.
- f. The table is in front of me.

In the above examples, 'on/under/near the table', 'Chicago', 'in Chicago', 'behind me', 'towards the house', and 'in front of me' indicate locative cases.

vii. Ablative (source)

The case that expresses "the role of source, ..." (Blake, 1994, p. 196) is an ablative case. Fillmore calls this case as 'source'. This semantic role is mostly associated with the verbs of motion, transform and time. Fillmore defines this case as "the place from which something, ... the starting points, ... the earlier state, ... the start of time period. " This definition entails that this case marks the origin or starting point of an action. For example,

- a. Sherry bought the car from Dave.
- b. We leased the apartment from Mr. Bains.
- c. The programme lasted from morning to evening.
- d. An apple fell down from the tree.

'From' in the above examples is an ablative case marker which marks the sources 'Dave', 'Mr. Bains', 'morning to evening' and 'the tree'.

viii. Dative

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

- a. She gave the cat a dish of milk.
- b. He gave me a book.
- c. He gave a book to me.
- d. She bought a pen for her sister.
- e. Sam sold the car to Jennie.

In the above examples, 'the cat', 'me', 'to me', 'for her sister' and 'to Jennie' respectively encode the entities targeted by the action of 'giving' in the first three sentences and 'buying' and 'selling' in the fourth and the last respectively.

ix. Vocative

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

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

- a. JÖHN, DÏNner's ready.
- b. And THAT, my FRÍENDS, concludes my SPÈECH.
- c. My BÀCK is aching, DÓCtor. (ibid)

1.2 Review of Related Literature

Many research works have been carried out on linguistic comparative study among different languages spoken in Nepal such as Nepali, Maithili, Bhojpuri, Rai, Limbu, Gurung and others in the Department of English Education, T.U. But there are not many researches done on such a unique and endangered Jhangar language spoken mainly in the eastern part of Nepal. So, the related literature to the study is presented below.

The first comparative study in the Department of English Education is Giri (1982) who has carried out research on "English and Nepali Kinship Terms: A Comparative Linguistic Study". Her main objectives were to list Nepali and English kinship terms and compare and contrast these terms of both languages. She drew a conclusion that more kinship terms are available in Nepali than in English in the sense that most of the kinship relations are addressed by name in English while in Nepali they are addressed by kinship terms.

Similarly, Bhattarai (2001) conducted research entitled "Case in English and Nepali: A Comparative Study." His main objectives were to list, compare and contrast different types of cases in English and Nepali. He concluded that the same case marker can occur with various cases in both languages, the verb appears at the beginning of the proposition section of the sentence in English but it appears at the end in Nepali.

In the very year, Adhikari (2001) conducted research on the similar topic of "Case Realization in English and Nepali: A Comparative Study". Also, his main objectives were alike Bhattarai (2001)'s. There are similar findings. In addition, Adhikari mentions that English is a 'nominative-accusative' kind of language but Nepali an 'ergative-absolutive'.

Three years later, Karn (2004) conducted research on "A Comparative Study of Cases in Maithili and English." His main objectives were to identify and analyze cases in Maithili and to compare these cases with English ones. His main finding was Maithili language has nominative, accusative, instrumental, dative, ablative, genitive and locative cases.

Similarly, in the field of case study, Limbu (2007) carried out research work entitled "Case in English and Limbu : A Comparative Study". His main objectives were to identify and describe cases in Limbu and compare and contrast these cases with English ones. His main findings were (a) Limbu is an ergative-absolute type of language whereas English a nominative accusative. (b) English nominals have more number of case marking than Limbu. (c) Most cases are common in both the Limbu and English languages.

In the field of the Jhangar language, Mr. Suren Sapkota and Mr. Gopal Bhattarai have conducted their research works. Sapkota (2007) carried out research on 'A Sketch Grammar of Jhangar'. He tried to analyze the whole grammatical system of the Jhangar language. As the present researcher is concerned with only the case system, Sapkota was found to have concluded that Jhangar had less number of cases than English and they were more complex than the English ones.

Likewise, Bhattarai (2007) conducted his research entitled 'Pronominals in English and Jhangar'. His main objectives were to identify and analyze Jhangar pronominals and compare and contrast these pronominals with English pronominals. His main findings were (a) Jhangar has more number of pronouns than English. (b) The Jhangar pronominal system is rather complex than the English pronominal system.

Having gone through the above literature, what conclusion can be drawn is that- English is a nominative - accusative type of language whereas Nepali and Limbu, an ergative - absolute type . Most cases are common in different languages.

The Jhangar cases are less in number but more complex than the English ones. Similarly, the Jhangar pronominals are more in number and also more complex in nature than the English ones. However, the present study is different from other research works. This research work focuses on the case system in the Jhangar language which no one has conducted in the Department of English Education, T.U. And the facts presented in this research are completely original.

1.3 Objectives of the Study

The research work had the following objectives:

- i. To list different types of cases in the Jhangar language.
- ii. To compare and contrast the English and Jhangar cases.
- iii. To suggest some pedagogical implications of the study.

1.4 Significance of the Study

This research work has the following significance:

There is no research work done on such a rare and endangered language, Jhangar in case of the term 'case'. So the present work will be invaluable for both the Department of English Education and all the Jhangar language speakers. This work will be equally significant for further research workers, language teachers, experts, textbook writers, syllabus designers, and others related to the English and Jhangar language. It will not be any the less important for developing a grammar in the Jhangar language.

CHAPTER TWO METHODOLOGY

This researcher adopted the following methodology.

2.1 Sources of Data

The researcher used both the primary and secondary sources of data.

2.1.1 Primary Sources

The source of primary data was the native speakers of the Jhangar language of three VDCs of Sunsari district. The three VDCs are Singiya, Mahendranagar and Prakashpur.

2.1.2 Secondary Sources

For secondary data, the researcher went through different books, articles, journals, magazines, theses of different scholars of related languages. The researcher basically consulted Chomsky (1965), Fillmore (1968a), Quirk et al. (1985), Comrie (1989) and Blake (1994) in general.

2.2 Sample Population

The total population of the study consisted of the native speakers of the Jhangar language residing in three VDCs of Sunsari district. They are Singiya, Mahendranagar and Prakashpur. But as this present researcher was time bound, he could not take into account the total population. So, he sampled the 60 native speakers for his ease. The following table shows the informants of the study.

Table 1
Population of the Study

VDCs	Mahendranager		Prakashpur		Singiya	
	Literate	Illiterate	Literate	Illiterate	Literate	Illiterate
Number of the Population	10	10	10	10	10	10
Total	20		20		20	

2.3 Sampling Procedure

The total sample population comprised of 60 Jhangar native speakers who were selected exploiting the stratified random sampling procedure, particularly the disproportionate type. The population was divided into two groups, i.e. literate and illiterate. Those who were able to read and write were considered as literate and those who were not able to read and write were considered as illiterate. Each VDC consisted of 20 native speakers consisting of equal number of literate and illiterate speakers. Furthermore, each stratum, i.e. literate and illiterate consisted of equal number of speakers from both sexes. The researcher selected both literate and illiterate informants to find out the difference, if any, in their responses. But there were not so vivid differences in their responses. However, some younger informants were found to have mixed Nepali, Hindi and Maithili languages with their native language, Jhangar. So, the researcher felt the work more challenging and interesting to conclude, either.

2.4 Tools for Data Collection

The structured interview schedule (Appendix - III) was employed as a research tool for collecting the data. A set of sixty questions was included in the interview schedule and circulated to thirty literate native speakers of Jhangar, ten each from each village to elicit information on the case system. Both English and Nepali sentences were the means for reference of collecting data. The same questions were also the means for interviewing with other thirty illiterate native speakers of the Jhangar language, ten each from each village.

2.5 Process of Data Collection

After preparing the interview schedule, the researcher visited Singiya, Mahendranagar and Prakashpur VDCs of Sunsari district and met the native speakers of Jhangar there. He then tried to built a good rapport with them and took oral interviews with thirty illiterate speakers using the interview schedule. He recorded this interview on a tape recorder. He also issued the sixty questions

to other thirty literate Jhangar. The researcher kept records of the responses revealed by them using Roman transliteration of Devanagari Script.

2.6 Limitations of the Study

The study was limited as follows:

- i. The study was constricted within sixty native speakers of the Jhangar language of three VDCs of Sunsari district.
- ii. The study was limited to these cases: nominative, accusative, dative, genitive, instrumental, locative, ablative, allative, comitative and vocative.
- iii. The study was descriptive in nature.
- iv. Only simple past, simple present and present continuous tense sentences with different cases were compared and analyzed.
- v. The study was further delimited to the analysis of the responses obtained from the respondents only.

CHAPTER THREE

PRESENTATION, ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION OF DATA

This chapter deals with the analysis and interpretation of the collected data. They have been analyzed and interpreted by means of simple statistical tools like tables and illustrations. The similarities and differences between the English and Jhangar cases have been shown with the help of illustrations.

3.1 Identification and Analysis of Case in the Jhangar Language

The followings are the cases identified in the Jhangar language.

3.1.1 Nominative Case

It is a form taken by a noun phrase when it is a subject of transitive or intransitive clause. It is always an unmarked form. For example,

1. /en-φ aḏi - sḏŋge bitʃkan/
I-NOM she - COM play - PT-1sg
I played with her.
2. /aḏ-φ goleṭa - lḏke o:ɾ a-φ piti/
She-NOM catapult-INS bird - ACC kill-F-PRES-3sg
She kills a bird with a catapult.
3. /as-φ tʃit^{hi}-tḏrtu eŋgan mixjas/
he-NOM letter-INS I-ACC call-M-PT-3sg
He called me by mail.
Note : /en+an= eŋgan/ (for detail, look at 3.1.4)
4. /as -φ gaɾi - lḏke kuḏḏalḏgḏas/
he-NOM bus-INS travel - be - M - PRES - 3sg
He is travelling by a bus.
5. /ramḏs - φ hḏris - in loalḏgḏas/

ram-NOM hari-ACC beat be M-PRES - 3sg

Ram is beating Hari.

In the sentences given above in (1) and (4), /bitʃkan/ and /kuddalɔgdas/ are intransitive verbs. Similarly, /piti/, mixjas/ and /loalɔgdas/ in sentences (2), (3) and (5) respectively are the transitive verbs of the objects /o:ɾ a/, /eŋgan/ and /hɔris/. And it is also clear that Jhangar does not have any markers to encode its nominative case.

However, the suffix /-s/ in the subject /ramɔs/ and object /hɔris/ in the sentence (5) has not been identified yet. They are not existed in writing. In addition, another suffix /-d/ is attached only to the subjects which are feminine and neuter. /-s/ is attached only to the male subjects. For example,

/sɔlmaɔ-φ t̪ɔŋhaj alla- sɔŋge hotʃtʃaki kudɔdi/
salma-NOM she - GEN dog-COM walk-be-F-PRES-3sg
Salma is walking with her dog.

3.1.2 Accusative Case

It refers to the form taken by a noun phrase when it is the object of a verb. In other words, an accusative case encodes the direct object of a verb. It is highly inflected according to the environment. It comes because of the morphosyntactic condition of the case. For example,

1. /aɔ-hi t̪ɔŋɔadɔs-φ ɔŋgredʒi - φ pɔɾtadɔs/
she-GEN brother-NOM english-ACC teach-M-PRES-3sg
Her brother teaches English.
2. /Silema-φ/ sinema-φ ɔlar/ irulogar - φ iltʃjas/
movie-NOM spectators -ACC thrill-PT
The movie thrilled the spectators.
3. /abɾar ɔditorijɔm ɔɾpa-nu karjakrɔm - φ bjɔwɔst̪ʰa nɔndʒar/
they-NOM auditorium hall-LOC programme-ACC arrange-PT
They arranged the programme on the auditorium hall.

4. /as-ϕ d^har-∂n ∂lg^hem k∂tjas/
he -NOM river-ACC easily cross - M - PT - 3sg
He crossed the river easily.
5. /p^hul∂nḁebid̥-ϕ t̥ḁḅg∂haj orox - l∂ke pen-∂n piti/
fulandevi-NOM she-GEN nail-INS louse-ACC kill-F-PRES-3sg
Fulandevi kills a louse with her nail.
6. /nin-ϕ ∂lla - hi xol-an k^h∂nd∂k∂i/
you-NOM that dog-GEN tail-ACC cut-PT
You cut that dog's tail.
7. /gaid̥-ϕ bat^h -an/ lir-an l∂t̥^hal∂gi/
cow-NOM calf-ACC kick-be PRES - 3sg
The cow is kicking its calf.

By analyzing the aforementioned sentences, accusative cases in the Jhangar language are realized differently according to their environment, for example, in the sentences (1), (2) and (3) by /ϕ/case marker, in the sentences (4) and (5) by /-∂n/, and in rest by /-an/.

3.1.3 Dative Case

It refers to the form taken by an NP which expresses grammatical relationship by means of inflections. It denotes the recipient of the object of the verb and gives the meaning of 'to' or 'for'. For example,

1. /rad₃∂s - ϕ paj∂l - ge onta g^h∂ri - ϕ t̥fit̥f̥jas/
raj-NOM payal - DAT a watch - ACC give - M - PT - 3sg
Raj gave a watch to Payal.
2. /paj∂l∂ḁ-ϕ rad₃∂s-ge ∂lik^hija - ϕ t̥fit̥f̥jad̥/
payal-NOM raj-DAT smile - ACC give F-PT - 3sg
Payal gave Raj a smile.
3. /ila-ϕ t̥ḁḅg∂haj t̥ḁḅg∂ḁa-ge/x∂ḁ-hi-ge horliks - ϕ k∂m∂id̥/
ila-NOM she-GEN nail-INS louse-ACC kill-F-PRES-3sg
Fulandevi kills a louse with her nail.

ila-NOM she - GEN baby - DAT/baby GEN- DAT horliks - ACC
 prepare-F-PRES-3sg
 Ila prepares Horlicks for her baby.

By analyzing the above sentences, it is clear that /-ge/ is used to refer to the dative case marker. The dative case indicates an indirect object relationship.

3.1.4 Genitive (Possessive) Case

The genitive case expresses the close connection of whatever the preceding noun indicates. It is the case of possession. For example,

1. /aḍ-hi tḥḥadḥs - ḥ ḥḥredḥi - ḥ pḥḥadḥs/
 she-GEN brother - NOM english - ACC teach - M-PRES-3sg
 Her brother teaches English.
2. /as-ḥ somḥs - hi kot^ha - ḥi bḥḥrtḥas/
 he-NOM som-GEN room - ABL come - M - PT - 3sg
 He came from Som's room.
3. /a ḥḥpa aḍ-i-hi hike/
 that house she-GEN be - PRES
 That house is hers.
4. /siḥa-hi xḥnnḥ-guḥ^hi-ḥ puxḥkirḥi/
 sita -GEN eye-pl-NOM swell-be-PRES-PAR -3pl
 Sita's eyes are swollen.
5. /nistḥlḥs-hi ḥḥpa-hedḥe/gḥnda-nu ḥxḥda rḥi/
 nischal-GEN house-LOC stadium be - PRES-3sg
 There is a stadium by Nischal's house.
6. /aḍ-ḥ eḥḥḥaj (en+haj) eḥḥa hike/
 she-NOM I-GEN daughter be PRES
 She is my daughter.

7. /aḍ-ϕ eṅhaj/eṅhajḍum hike/
she-NOM I-GEN be - PRES
She is mine.
8. /səlmad-ϕ t̪əṅhaj əlla-səṅge hotʃfaki kuḍḍi/
salma-NOM she-GEN dog-COM walk-be-F-PRES-3sg
Salma is waking with her dog.
9. /nəbinas-ϕ t̪əṅhaj berxa - səṅge mənkiǰã ukijas/
nabin-NOM he-GEN cat -COM tree -LOC sit-M-PT-3sg
Nabin sat under the tree with his cat.
10. /bid₃eswəṛəṣ-ϕ t̪əṅhaj səṅges-d₃əbore kaḍḍəṣ/
bijeshwar-NOM he-GEN fellows-COM go - M - PRES-3sg
Bijeshwor goes with his fellows.

The aforementioned sentences and their analyses explicitly assert that the possessive case form /-hi/ (examples, 1, 2, 3, 4 and 5) is suffixed to the nouns to mark the genitive case in the Jhangar language. Similarly, /-haj/ (examples 6, 7, 8, 9 and 10) is suffixed to different types of pronouns to refer to the genitive case in Jhangar. Furthermore, there is a unique blend of /-haj/ with masculine /as/ and feminine /aḍ/ or /nin/ making /t̪əṅhaj/ to refer to both the genders. Sometimes /-gə/ is inserted in the middle making /t̪əṅgəhaj/, /eṅgəhaj/ which encode both pronominal and determinative functions. But /-ḍum/ fixed at the end as in /eṅhajḍum/ encodes only the pronominal function.

In the Jhangar language, we can also notice some sorts of proximal and distal, and inclusive and exclusive plural pronominal divisions. However, we are not much concerned with pronominals but with cases, those aspects are not valued here.

Jhangar possessive pronouns with their determinative and pronominal functions are given in the following tables:

Table No. 1
English Possessive Pronouns with both Determinative and
Pronominal Functions

Subclass	Person	Number	
		Singular	Plural
Dependent	1st Person	my	our
	2nd Person	your	
	3rd Person	masculine: his Feminine: her neuter: its	their
	1st Person	mine	ours
Independent	2nd Person	yours	
	3rd Person	Masculine: his Feminine: hers neuter: - its	theirs

Aarts and Aarts (1986, p. 52).

Table No. 2

Jhangar Possessive Pronouns with both Determinative and
Pronominal Functions

Subclass	Person	Number			
		Singular		Plural	
				Incl	Excl
Dependent	1st Person	eŋ-haj/eŋgɔ̄-haj		nəm-haj	ɔ̄m-haj
	2nd Person	niŋ-haj/niŋgɔ̄-haj (not frequent)		nim-haj	
	3rd Person	Mas		Prox	Dist
		Prox	Dist	ibdɔ̄r-hi	abdɔ̄r-hi
		is-hi	as-hi		
		Fem			
		Prox	Dist		
		iɖ̄-hi	aɖ̄-hi		
		Neu			
		Prox	Dist		
iɖ̄-hi	aɖ̄-hi				
Independent	1st Person	eŋ-haj/eŋhajɖ̄um		nəm-haj (ɖ̄um)	ɔ̄m-haj (ɖ̄um)
	2nd Person	niŋ-haj/niŋhajɖ̄um		nim-hajɖ̄um	
	3rd Person	Mas		Prox	Dist
		Prox	Dist	ibdɔ̄r-hi/ ibdɔ̄r- hiɖ̄um	abdɔ̄r- hi/ abdɔ̄r- hiɖ̄um
		isi-hi	asi-hi		
		t̄ɔ̄ŋhaj(ɖ̄um)/t̄ɔ̄ŋgɔ̄-haj(ɖ̄um)			
		Fem			
		Prox	Dist		
		iɖ̄i-hi	aɖ̄i-hi		
		t̄ɔ̄ŋhaj(ɖ̄um)/t̄ɔ̄ŋgɔ̄-haj(ɖ̄um)			
Neu					
Prox	Dist				
iɖ̄i-hi	aɖ̄i-hi				

3.1.5 Instrumental Case

The instrumental case refers to the morphosyntactic categorization which expresses grammatical relationship by means of inflections to refer to the form taken by an NP to express such a notion as 'by means of'. This case is inanimate that triggers something to happen. For example,

1. /aḍ goleṭa - lḍke o:ṭ a piti/
she-NOM catapult-INS bird-ACC kill -F-PRES-3sg
She kills a bird with a catapult.
2. /as gaṛi-lḍke kuddalḍgḍas/
he-NOM bus-INS travel-be-M-PRES-3sg
He is travelling by a bus.
3. /as tṣit^hi-tṣṛṭu/-b^harnu eṅgan mixjas/
he-NOM letter-INS I-ACC call-M-PT-3sg
He called me by mail.
4. /p^hulḍndeḍiḍ tḍḥaj orox-lḍke penḍn piti/
fulandevi-NOM she-GEN nail-INS louse-ACC kill-F-PRES-3sg
Fulandevi kills the louse with her nail.
5. /ḍipḍkḍs kḍnto - lḍke kagḍt k^hḍndḍḍs/
dipak -NOM scissors - INS paper - ACC cut - M -PRES-3sg
Dipak cuts the paper with a pair of scissors.

By analyzing the above sentences, it is clear that /-lḍke/ is used to refer to instrumental case in the Jhangar language. However, /-tṣṛṭu/ and /-b^harnu/ are also used sometimes to denote the instrumental case.

3.1.6 Locative Case

It is the case of location or spatial orientation of the state or action identified by the verb. Generally, it expresses the basic relationship between the location and the object related to it. For example,

1. /tʰəpəɾ - məijā berxa rəi/
roof-LOC cat be - PRES -3sg
There is a cat on the roof.
2. /tərai/məðhes-nu gəɾmi/gumar rəi/
terai-LOC hot be - PRES - 3sg
It is hot in Terai.
3. /məkra(d) bʰiṭa -nu/dəɾəŋga- maijā ərgaləgi(d)/
spider-NOM wall-LOC climb-be - PRES-3sg
The spider is climbing on the wall.
4. /gunda-r/gunda-gutʰir ɛŋgəha/əŋgəha/emhaj əɾpa-nu lutʃar/
vandal-Pl I-GEN house-LOC break -PT
The vandals broke in my house.
5. /nəbinas tʰəhaj berxa - səŋge mənkijā (mən-məijā) ukijas/
nabin-NOM as-GEN cat-COM tree-LOC sit-M-PT
Nabin with his cat sat under the tree.
6. /nistʃələs-hi əɾpa- heðde/gənda-nu əxəda rəi/
nischal-GEN house-LOC stadium be-PRES-3sg
There is a stadium by Nischal's house.
7. /nim xexel-nu ukkar/
you-NOM floor-LOC sit - PT
You sat on the floor.
8. /ad dʰola-nu tʃəklet-guttʰi uijad/
ad dʰola-nu tʃəklet-guttʰi uijad/

she-NOM bag-LOC chocolate - Pl put - F-PT-3sg

She put the chocolates into the bag.

9. /lbɽar bəɖd₃ar - nu d₃^holan ebsar/

these(persons)-NOM market - LOC bag - ACC lose - PT - 3pl

These (Persons) lost the bag in the market.

After having analyzed of the above sentences, I have drawn the conclusion that the locative case marker suffixes vary with the altitude of the object being oriented, depending upon and consisting of or inseparable from the relationship between the object and the location or spatial orientation of the action or state identified by the verb. Hence, various locative case markers such as /-məijã/, /-nu/, /-heɖde/ etc are found in the Jhangar language.

3.1.7 Ablative Case

This case denotes the place from which an action starts. In other words, an ablative case signifies "separation" or "disintegration" and the starting point of the action identified by the verbs. For example,

1. /as soməɖs-hi kot^ha -ɽi bəɖrtʃas/

he-NOM som-GEN room-ABL come - M - PT - 3sg

He came from Som's room.

2. /as mən - ɽi k^həɽras/

he-NOM tree-ABL fall down-M-PT-3sg

He fell down from the tree.

3. /himal-ɽi bəɖrəp/hem/hiu pəg^h lara/piɖ^hlara/

mountain-ABL show melt-PT

The snow melted from the mountain.

4. /buɖ^hɖəɖs lumbini-ɽi bəɖraləgɖas/

buddha-NOM lumbini-ABL come-be-M-PRES-3sg

Buddha is coming from Lumbini.

5. /en nōtuwa ḍṛpa-ti ḍṛpa-t̃ḍra b^hoŋkan/
I-NOM theatre - ABL home - ALL run-PT - 1sg
I ran home from the theatre.

From the above analysis, it is clear that /-ti/ is suffixed to the source words to mark ablative case in Jhangar.

3.1.8 Allative Case

An allative case captures the meaning of motion 'to' or 'towards' a place. The case suffix /-t̃ḍra/ has been used to provide the relationship between the object places or entities where the action takes place. For example,

1. /en nōtuwa ḍṛpa - ti ḍṛpa - t̃ḍra b^hoŋkan/
I-NOM theatre - ABL home-ALL run - PT - 1sg
I ran home from the theatre.
2. /abṛar d₃ḍŋgla - t̃ḍra kalalḍgnar/
they-NOM jungle - ALL go-be - PRES-3pl
They are going towards the jungle.

3.1.9 Comitative Case

This case indicates the noun which expresses the meaning of 'along with' or 'accompanied by'. It is marked by the suffix /-sḍŋge/. For example,

1. /en aḍi - sḍŋge bitʃkan/
I-NOM she - COM play-PT - 1sg
I played with her.
2. /bid₃eswḍrḍs t̃ḍŋhaj sḍŋge-r-sḍŋge/-d₃ḍbore kaḍas/
bijeshwor-NOM he-GEN fellow-PI-COM go-M-PRES-3sg
Bijeshwor goes with his fellows.

3. /sɒlmad̩ t̩ɒŋhaj̩ ɒlla-sɒŋge hotʃfaki kud̩di/
 salma-NOM she - GEN dog - COM walk - be - F - PRES -3sg
 Slama is walking with her dog.

However, /-d̩ɒbore/ in example (2) is also used sometimes to refer to comitative case.

3.2 Similarities and Differences Between the Cases in the Jhangar and English Languages

3.2.1 Nominative Case

Both the Jhangar and English nominative cases do not have any case markers to encode nominative case. However, the suffixes /-s/ and /-d̩/ are attached to the Jhangar masculine and feminine nominative cases respectively. For example,

1. /as-ɸ tʃiʰi - t̩ɒr̩tu ɛŋgan mixjas/
 he-NOM letter - INS I-ACC call - M - PT - 3sg
 He called me by mail.
2. /ramɒ̩s - ɸ hɒris - in loalɒgd̩as/
 ram-NOM hari-ACC beat - be - M - PRES - 3sg
 Ram is beating Hari.
3. /ekrad̩ɒ̩s - ɸ bes mɒnd̩ɒ̩s/
 ekraj - NOM good feel - M - PRES-3sg
 Ekraj feels good. (=Ekraj feels recovered.)
4. /aɒ̩-ɸ goleta - lɒke o:ɾ̩ a piti/
 she - NOM catapult - INS bird - ACC kill -F-PRES-3sg
 She kills a bird with a catapult.
5. /salmad̩-ɸ t̩ɒŋhaj̩ ɒlla - sɒŋge hotʃfaki kud̩di/
 salma-NOM she - GEN dog-COM walk - be - F - PRES-3sg
 Salma is walking with her dog.

From the above examples, it is clear that suffix /-s/ is tagged on the masculine case forms (examples 1, 2 ad 3) and /-d̪/ on feminine (examples 4 and 5). These have created problems to linguists working on the Jhangar language. This has remained only the difference between English and Jhangar nominative cases since former has no such confusing suffixes. For example,

- i. Ram laughed.
NOM V

- ii. Sita is reading a book.
NOM V ACC

3.2.2 Accusative Case

Like the English language, the Jhangar language also possesses accusative case. The only difference between them is their case markers. The former does not have any case marker but the latter has two. For example,

English

- a. A dog chased a rat.
NOM ACC

- b. Ram is beating Hari
NOM ACC

- c. Ram gave a watch to Payal.
NOM ACC

Jhangar

- a. /as - ϕ en γ an (en+an) tʃit^hi - t̪artu mixjas/
he-NOM I-ACC letter- INS call-M-PT-3sg
He called me by mail.
- b. /berxa - ϕ osgan kuɖbalɔgi/
cat-NOM rat-ACC chase - be - M - PRES - 3sg
A cat is chasing a rat.

From these examples, we can find that /-an/ is used to refer to the accusative case marker in the Jhangar language.

- c. /ad γ -hi t̪ɔŋd̪ad̪ɔs - ϕ ɔŋgred₃i - ϕ pɔt̪ɔt̪ad̪ɔs/
she-GEN brother - NOM English - ACC teach - M - PRES-3sg
Her brother teaches English.
- d. /adɾar - ϕ ɔd̪itorid̪m arpa - nu karjɔkrɔm- ϕ bjɔwɔst̪^ha nɔnd₃ar/
they-NOM auditorium hall - LOC programme - ACC arrange - PT
They arranged the programme on the anditorium hall.

From (c) and (d), like in the English language, / ϕ / is used to mark accusative in the Jhangar language.

- e. /as - ϕ d̪^har-ɔn ɔlg^hem kɔtjas/
you-NOM river-ACC easily cross - PT
You crossed the river easily.
- f. /d₃^hjal - hi sis-ɔn ne xutja/
window - GEN pane - ACC who - NOM break - PT
Who broke the window pane ?

These two examples assert that another form of case marker /-ɔn/ is used to mark accusative case in Jhangar.

Hence, both the English and Jhangar languages have similar marker /ϕ/ to mark accusative case whereas the Jhangar language has two more markers /-an/ and /-ɔn/ as well. But English has no accusative case markers.

3.2.3 Dative Case

Both the Jhangar and English languages have the semantic case 'dative'. They differ only in their case marking system. In Jhangar, it is marked by suffix /-ge/ and in English, it is marked by 'to' and 'for'. For example,

Jhangar

- a. /rad₃ɔs - ϕ pajɔl - ge onta ɡ^hɔri - ϕ tʃitʃtʃas (cicas)/
raj-NOM payal - DAT a watch - ACC give - M - PT - 3sg
Raj gave a watch to Payal.
- b. /aɖ-ϕ en-ge (eŋge) kiɖap - ϕ tʃitʃtʃaɖ (cicaɖ)/
she-NOM I-DAT book - ACC give F-PT - 3sg
She gave a book to me.
- c. /ila - ϕ t̪ɔŋhaj t̪ɔŋgɔɖa - ge horliks - ϕ kɔmɔid̪/
ila-NOM she - GEN baby - DAT horlicks - ACC prepare - F - PRES-3sg
Ila prepares Horlicks for her baby.

English

- a. She gave a book to me.
NOM DAT
- b. He bought a sari for me.
NOM DAT

But when a place of dative case and accusative case is changed in English, the case does not have any specific marker. However, in Jhangar, it does not have any effect. For example,

English

- a. He sent Ram a letter.
NOM DAT
- b. She gave her friend a gift.
NOM DAT

Jhangar

- a. /pajɔlad-ϕ rad₃ɔs - ge ɔlik^hija-ϕ tʃitʃfad/
payal - NOM raj - DAT smile - ACC give - F-PT -3sg
Payal gave Raj a smile.

In Jhangar, genitive suffix /-hi/ and dative suffix /-ge/ are combined to specify the possession of dative case. But such a combination is not available in English. For example,

- /ila-ϕ tɔŋhaj xɔd₃-hi-ge horliks - ϕ kɔmɔid/
ila-NOM she - GEN baby - GEN - DAT horliks - ACC prepare - F -
PRES-3sg
Ila prepares Horlicks for her baby.

3.2.4 Genitive (Possessive) Case

Genitive case is also the common case in both the English and Jhangar languages. However, they have different case markers. For example, English uses apostrophe 's' and preposition 'of' as genitive case markers whereas Jhangar uses /-hi/ and /-haj/. Let us observe the following example,

English

- a. Ram's house
- b. The key of the door.

Jhangar

- a. /ramɔs - hi ɔɾpa/
ram-GEN house
Ram's house.

- b. /t̪ɔŋ - haj ɔlla/
she/he -GEN dog.
Her/his dog.

- c. as-hi ɔjo/
he-GEN mother
His mother

- d. /aɖ-hi ind̪ɔ/
she-GEN fish
Her fish

But the Jhangar case marker /-haj/ is suffixed to both the Jhangar 3rd person singular male pronoun /as/ and female pronoun /aɖ/ and becomes /t̪ɔŋhaj/ to refer to both which is equivalent to English determiners 'his' and 'her' respectively. And this determiner is used only in the middle position unlike the English determiners. For example,

English

- a. Her brother works in office.
- b. She has borrowed his book.

Jhangar

- a. /silad̪ t̪ɔ̪haj-haj g^hɔ̪ri xutjad̪/
sila - NOM She - GEN watch - ACC break - F-PT-3sg
Sila broke her watch.
- b. /ad̪ - hi g^hɔ̪ri xutja/
She-GEN watch - NOW break - PT
Her watch broke.
- c. /ekrad̪₃ɔ̪s t̪ɔ̪haj sɔ̪ngesin mixjas/
ekraj-NOM he - GEN friend - ACC call - M-PT-3sg
Ekraj called his friend.
- d. /sitad̪ ad̪-hi ɔ̪joge mɔ̪ndi t̪it̪fad̪/
sita - NOM she - GEN mother - DAT rice - ACC give - F - PT -3sg
Sita gave rice to her mother.

From the aforementioned examples, it is clear that the Jhangar determiner /t̪ɔ̪haj/ is used in the mid position. But other determiners /ashi/ and /ad̪hi/ (equivalent to /t̪ɔ̪haj/) can be used in any position.

Both the English and Jhangar languages have possessive pronouns with both determinative and pronominal functions. For examples,

English

- a. My car (determinative function)
- b. Your shoes (determinative function)
- c. This car is mine. (Pronominal function)
- d. That school is yours. (Pronominal function)

Jhangar

- a. /aḏ-hi tʃit^{hi}/ (determinative function)
she - GEN letter
Her letter
- b. /t̪əŋ-haj kəl̪əm/ (determinative function)
she/he -GEN pen
Her/His pen.
- c. /aḏ əɽpa aḏi-hi hike/ (pronominal function)
that house -NOM she - GEN be - PRES - 3sg
That house is hers.
- d. /aḏ eŋhajḏum hike/ (pronominal function)
she-NOM I-GEN be - PRES - 3sg
She is mine.
- e. /iḏ kitab eŋhaj hike/ (pronominal function)
this book - NOM I-GEN be - PRES -3sg
This book is mine.
- f. /i kəl̪əm niŋhaj (ḏum) hike/ (pronominal function)
this pen-NOM you - GEN be - PRES - 3sg
This pen is yours.

Similarly, just as in English, there are possessive pronouns 'his' and 'its' common for both determinative and pronominal functions. Jhangar also has similar possessive pronouns /eŋhaj/, /niŋhaj/, nimhaj/, nəmhaj/, əmhaj/, /ibdərhi/ and /abdərhi/ for both determinative and pronominal functions. But /asihi/ and aḏihi/ and, those possessive pronouns tagged /-ḏum/ always have pronominal functions. However, such pronouns tagged /-ḏum/ are not frequent. For example,

- a. /iḏ əɽpa eŋhaj/eŋhajḏum hike/

this house-NOM I -GEN be - PRES - 3sg

This house is mine.

b. /aḍ p^holten niḥhaj/niḥhajḍum hike/

that pen - NOM you -GEN be - PRES - 3sg

That pen is yours.

We can find the existence of singular and plural second person possessive pronouns in the Jhangar language but no such existence is found in the English language. For example,

Jhangar

a. /aḍ niḥhaj kəl̩l̩m d₃^holanu uijaḍ/ (singular)

she-NOM you -GEN pen-ACC bag - LOC put - F - PT - 3sg

She put your pen in the bag.

b. /abd̩r̩ kəl̩l̩mgutt^hi niḥhaj hike/ (plural)

those pen - pl - NOM you - GEN be - PRES-3pl

Those pens are yours.

English

a. This house is yours. (both sg and pl)

b. Your pens are here. (both sg and pl)

There is also the existence of inclusive and exclusive first person plural possessive pronouns in the Jhangar language but such inclusive and exclusive possessive pronouns do not exist in the English language. For example,

a. /aḍ n̩mhaj iskul hike/ (INCL)

That is our school.

b. /aḍ ðmhaj iskul hike/ (EXCL)

That is our school.

There is one more difference between the English and Jhangar 3rd person plural possessive cases in terms of their proximity. In other words, we can find /ibd̪rhi/ to refer to proximal pronoun and /abd̪rhi/ to refer to distal but no such difference is found in English. For example,

Jhangar → a. /aḍ ibd̪rhi ḍṛpa hike / (PROX)

English → That is their house.

Jhangar → b. /aḍ abd̪rhi ḍṛpa hike/ (DIST)

English → That is their house.

3.2.5 Instrumental Case

Jhangar uses /-l̪ke/, /-t̪ṛṭu/ and /-b^harnu/ to refer to instrument cases. However, the first one is more in use. Similarly, English uses prepositions 'with' and 'by' as instrumental case markers. For example,

Jhangar

a. /aḍ goleṭa - l̪ke/ guli-t̪ṛṭu o: ṛa piti/

she - NOM catapult-INS bird - ACC kill - F- PRES-3sg

She kills a bird with a catapult.

b. /dip̪k̪s̪ k̪nto - l̪ke kag̪ṭ̪ k^h̪nd̪ḍ̪s̪/

dipak - NOM scissors - INS paper - ACC cut - M - PRES -3sg

Dipak cuts the paper with a pair of scissors.

- c. /ad tʃitʰi - t̪ɔ̃rt̪u/tʃitʰi - bʰarnu ɛŋɡan mixjas/
 he-NOM letter - INS I-ACC call - M - PT - 3sg
 He called me by mail.
- d. /as ɡɔ̃ɽi - lɔ̃ke kuɖɖalɔ̃ɡɖas/
 he-NOM bus - INS travel-be - M - PRES - 3sg
 He is travelling by a bus.

English

- a. He beat me with a stick.
 b. He went to office by a bus.

Instrumental case in English can occur as the subject of a sentence but the Jhangar instrumental case has not been found in such use. For example,

- a. The password opened the computer.
 b. The rain soaked my clothes.

3.2.6 Locative Case

Both the English and Jhangar languages have the semantic case 'locative'. They differ only in their case marking system and position. Jhangar locative case markers are /-mɔ̃ijã/, /-nu/, /-hedɖe/ and English locative case makers are 'in', 'on', 'at', 'over', 'under', 'above', 'behind' in front of' etc. In addition to this, Jhangar case markers are post-positional while the English are pre-positional. For example,

Jhangar

- a. /tʃʰɔ̃pɔ̃r - mɔ̃ijã berxa rɔ̃i/
 roof-LOC cat be - PRES - 3sg
 These is a cat on the roof.

- b. /t̪ɔrai-nu/mɔd̪hes - nu- gɔrmi/gumar rɔi/
terai-LOC hot be-PRES-3sg
It is hot in terai.
- c. /mɔkra(d̪) b̪h̪ɪta- nu/d̪r̪ɔŋga - mɔijã ɔrgalɔgi(d̪)/
spider - NOM wall - LOC climb be - PRES - 3sg
The spider is climbing on the wall.
- d. /nistʃɔlɔs-hi ɔrpa-hed̪de/ɔrpa-nu ɔxɔda rɔi/
nischal - GEN house - LOC stadium be-PRES-3sg
There is a stadium by Nischal's house.

English

- a. The book is on the table.
- b. There is a pond near my house.
- c. They came here by a bus.

3.2.7 Ablative Case

Both English and Jhangar have the semantic case 'ablative'. They differ only in their case marking system. In Jhangar, it is marked by suffix /-t̪i/ and in English it is marked by preposition 'from'. For example,

Jhangar

- a. /himal-t̪i hem pid̪h̪lara/
himal-ABL snow melt-PT
The snow melted from the mountain.
- b. /as somɔs-hi kot̪ha - t̪i bɔrtʃas/
he-NOM som -GEN room - ABL come - M - PT - 3sg
He came from Som's room.
- c. /as mɔn-t̪i k̪h̪ɔtras/
he-NOM tree-ABL fall down - M-PT-3sg

He fell down from the tree.

- d. /bud^hd̪s lumbini-t̪i b̪ral̪g̪das/
buddha - NOM lumbini-ABL come be -M-PRES-3sg
Buddha is coming from Lumbini.

English

- a. The book fell down from the table.
b. She came from Ilam.
c. Rohit bought the pen from Niru's.

3.2.8 Allative case

The semantic case 'allative' is encoded with the suffix /-t̪ra/ in the Jhangar language whereas in English, it is with 'to' or 'towards' etc. for example,

Jhangar

- a. /en n̪tuwa ɔ̪ɽpa-t̪i ɔ̪ɽpa-t̪ra b^hoŋkan/
I-NOM theatre - ABL house - ALL run-M-PT-1sg
I ran to house from the theatre.
- b. /ibdar d₃ɔ̪ŋgla-t̪ra kalal̪gnar/
they -NOM jungle - ALL go - be - PRES-3pl
They are going towards the jungle.

English

- a. He is coming to my house.
b. We went towards the winners.

3.2.9 Comitative Case

Both English and Jhangar have the semantic case 'comitative'. Jhangar uses the suffix /-səŋge/ while English uses the preposition 'with' both giving the meaning 'along with' or 'accompanied by' etc. For example,

Jhangar

- a. /en aɖi - səŋge bitʃkan/
I-NOM she - COM play - PT-1sg
I played with her.
- b. /səlmɑɖ tʃəŋhaj əlla - səŋge hoʃtʃaki kuɖɖi/
salma-NOM she-GEN dog-COM walk - be - F - PRES-3sg
Salma is walking with her dog.
- c. /bidʒeswəɾəs tʃəŋhaj səŋge-r-səŋge kaɖas/
bijeshwor - NOM he - GEN fellow - PL - COM go-M-PRES-3sg
Bijeshwor goes with his fellows.

English

- a. I went with my parents.
- b. The army came with wounds.

CHAPTER FOUR

FINDINGS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This chapter deals with findings and recommendations. Some findings have been listed after having analysis and interpretation of the data. And some recommendations have also been made accordingly.

4.1 Findings

The following findings have been made in course of the research.

4.1.1 The Cases Identified in the Jhangar Language

- i. Jhangar has comparatively less number of cases which are: nominative, accusative, dative, genitive, instrumental, locative, ablative, allative and comitative.
- ii. The Jhangar and English case markers are as follows:

Cases	Jhangar	English
a. Nominative	ϕ	ϕ
b. Accusative	/-ɔn/, /-an/	ϕ
c. Dative	/-ge/	to, for
d. Genitive	/-hi/, /-haj/	's, of
e. Instrumental	/-lɔke/, /-t̪ɔrt̪u/, /-b ^h arnu/	with, by
f. Locative	/mɔijã/, /-nu/, /-hedde/	in, at, on, over, under, above, near
g. Ablative	/-ti/	from
h. Allative	/-t̪ɔra/	to, towards
i. Comitative	/-sɔŋge/	with

4.1.2 Similarities Between the English and Jhangar Cases

- i. The common cases found in the English and Jhangar languages are: nominative, accusative, dative, genitive, instrumental, locative, ablative, allative and comitative. It indicates that all the Jhangar cases are identical to the English ones.

- ii. Both the English and Jhangar languages do not have any nominative case markers.
- iii. Jhangar accusative case markers are distinctly two. Otherwise, zero marking encodes the accusative case in both the languages.
- iv. Most of the Jhangar and two of the English possessive pronouns have both determinative and pronominal functions. Similarly, most of the Jhangar possessive pronouns as determinative function can appear in any position in a sentence like the English possessive pronouns.
- v. Both English and Jhangar have the existence of singular /plural I person and III person possessive pronouns.
- vi. Both the English and Jhangar ablative cases have only one case marker each.
- vii. If there is only one case in a sentence, it automatically becomes the subject in both languages.
- viii. The verb plays a central role in determining cases in both languages.
- ix. Both English and Jhangar are gender bias languages since both differ in the language used by male and female.

4.1.3 Differences Between the English and Jhangar Cases

- i. English has comparatively more number of cases than Jhangar.
- ii. Although all the Jhangar cases are identical to the English cases, they have their own (case) markers and are marked differently, i.e., all the Jhangar case markers are suffixes unlike those of English. English has prepositional case markers.
- iii. Both the English and Jhangar languages do not have any nominative case markers. However, English nominals encode three types of case marking: zero marking, preposition and word order, but in Jhangar, not only nominals but all cases are post-positional cases and are all suffixes. They have nothing to do with word order either. Similarly, the Jhangar language has the suffixes /-s/ and /-d̪/ usually attached to its masculine and feminine as well as neuter nominative cases respectively.

- iv. Although English and Jhangar share the same accusative case marker 'ϕ', the latter has two more distinct markers /-∂n/ and /-an/.
- v. The shift in the position of dative and accusative cases matters most in case of the English dative case markers. However, it does not exert any influence on the Jhangar dative case marker. Similarly, Jhangar has a unique combination of genitive suffix /-hi/ and dative suffix /-ge/ to specify the possession of the dative case. But such a combination is not available in English.
- vi. The genitive case of the Jhangar language is more complex than that of English. Jhangar has many forms of genitive case.
- vii. Although English and Jhangar have separate third person masculine and feminine possessive pronouns with determinative function, Jhangar also has a single possessive pronoun to refer to both determinative and pronominal functions. And this very possessive pronoun appears only in the mid-position of a sentence unlike others of both the English and Jhangar cases.
- viii. Jhangar uses the same case marker to refer to both the third person singular feminine and neuter possessive cases while English uses different ones.
- ix. English has only two third person singular masculine and neuter possessive pronouns 'his' and 'its' respectively common for both determinative and pronominal functions while Jhangar has almost all. However, the Jhangar possessive pronouns tagged /-ḍum/ are less in use, they always encode pronominal functions only.
- x. The Jhangar language has separate case markers to encode singular and plural second person possessive pronouns but no such markers are there in the English language. It also has inclusive and exclusive first person plural possessive pronouns but the English language does not have such possessive pronouns.
- xi. Both the English and the Jhangar third person plural possessive cases differ from each other in terms of their proximity. Jhangar uses /ibd̂rhi/

to refer to 'nearness' and /abd̄rhi/ to refer to 'distance'. But English uses the same term 'their' to refer to both 'nearness' and 'distance'.

- xii. English instrumental and comitative case markers are identical to each other but Jhangar does not have any case markers identical to any cases.
- xiii. English instrumental case can occur as the subject of a sentence but Jhangar cannot.
- xiv. Jhangar has a few number of locative case markers in comparison to English.
- xv. Jhangar uses only one marker to encode allative case but English has some options.

4.2 Recommendations

Since each language is unique in itself, the researcher does hope that this endeavour of his is certainly of great moment to cater for the case system of English and Jhangar despite the fact that 'to err is human'. Hence, grounding on his findings, the researcher recommends the following points for pedagogical implications.

4.2.1 Recommendations for the Language Teachers Teaching English to Jhangar Native Speakers

- i. English has more number of cases than Jhangar. So, this fact should be highlighted while teaching English case system to the Jhangar native speakers.
- ii. The Jhangar cases are marked by suffixes but the English cases are marked by prepositions and word order. So, the teacher who is teaching English as a second language to the Jhangar native speakers should emphasize this difference and teach them by providing sufficient exercises on the case marking system.
- 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 Jhangar does not have such restriction except in some

cases. So, the researcher teaching English as a foreign or second language to the Jhangar native speakers should pay more attention while teaching constituent order. He should give the concept of restriction on word order in English and make the learners careful to present the mother tongue interference.

- iv. The English cases have various case markers common in them, but not a single marker is found common in the Jhangar cases. So, this fact should be highlighted by giving some examples to clarify the Jhangar native speakers while teaching the English case system.
- v. English instrumental cases can function as subjects but Jhangar ones cannot. Hence, this fact should be highlighted while teaching.

4.2.2 Recommendations for the Language Teachers Teaching Jhangar to the English Native Speakers

- i. Although English has more number of cases than Jhangar, the latter was found to have more complex case system than the former one. So, the complexity of the Jhangar case system should be considered immensely while teaching the Jhangar case system to the English native speakers.
- ii. All the Jhangar cases are identical to the English cases, however, they differ lies in their marking system. So, this fact should be highlighted while teaching the Jhangar case system to the English native speakers.
- iv. However the English and Jhangar nominal cases are marked by zero, the latter has some confusing suffixes /-s/ and /-d̪/. These are not any case markers in fact. So, this point should be noted while teaching.
- v. English nominative cases are marked by word order, however, Jhangar nominative cases can appear in broken order, too. Similarly, there is a unique combination of the Jhangar genitive suffix and dative suffix which lacks in English. So, these facts should be highlighted while teaching.
- vi. The genitive case in Jhangar is rather complex as it has many dissimilarities to the English one in many respects. So, while teaching

Jhangar to the English native speakers, the following facts should be highlighted:

- a. Jhangar has a single possessive pronoun to refer to the third person masculine and feminine possessive pronouns with both determinative and pronominal functions. Moreover, this pronoun /t̪ɔ̃haj/ occurs only in the mid position which is not exercised in English. So, this aspect should be taken into consideration while teaching the Jhangar case system.
- b. Jhangar uses the same case marker to encode both third person singular feminine and neuter possessive cases while English uses different. So, this point should also be considered.
- c. Most of the Jhangar possessive pronouns have both determinative and pronominal functions while English has only two. So, this fact should be clarified while teaching.
- d. Jhangar has separate case markers to encode singular and plural second person possessive pronouns and it has also the concept of inclusive and exclusive first person plural possessive pronouns, both of which lack in English. So, this fact should be emphasized better while teaching.
- e. Jhangar third person plural possessive cases have the concept of proximal and distal differences which English lacks. So, this fact should be highlighted.

Finally, the researcher again does hope that this research work is detailed information about the Jhangar case system in particular and the English case system in general which is also the primary objective of the research work. But the researcher does not claim that his present work is flawless, for nothing in the universe is absolute. In course of changes in time and for language to be up-to-date, the Jhangar language, too, was found to have incorporated many terms from many languages. So, certainly, there are shortcomings. On the one hand, the case itself is a very complex notion, on the other hand, the research has dealt only with three tenses viz., simple past, simple present and present continuous and, animacy, word order and definiteness. So, the researcher expects further

researches on case system in the Jhangar language to incorporate all other aspects.

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