

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 General Background

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

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

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

The English language is one of the widely used ‘West-Germanic’ sub-branches of the Germanic branch of the ‘Indo-European’ family. It is becoming one of the most important and powerful languages in this modern age. It is spoken as native language in many countries of the world. It is one of the most powerful Lingua Franca which is becoming popular day by day because of international trade, business and modern technologies. It is one of the dominant languages of the world and also the language of UNO which is very important for the developing countries like Nepal.

1.1.1 The Languages in Nepal

Nepal is a fertile land from the linguistic point of view. Even being small in size, more than ninety three languages are spoken in Nepal (CBS Report 2001). Unfortunately, most of the languages do not have their own script; they exist only in spoken form.

1.1.2 The Language Family

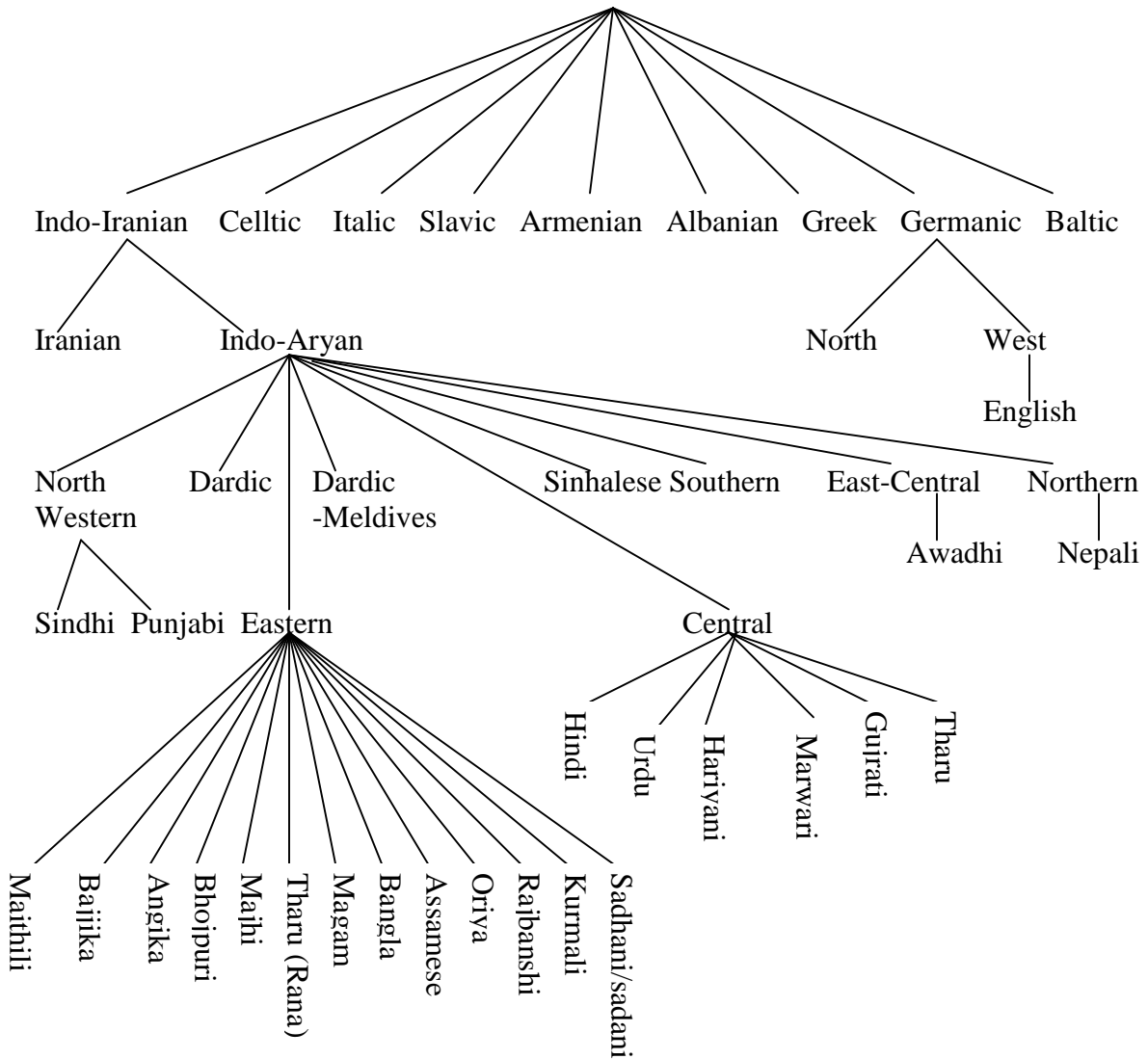
The languages enumerated in the 2001 census belong to the four language families, viz. Indo-European, Sino-Tibetan, Austro-Asiatic and Dravidian.

I. Indo-European Family

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

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

Diagram: 1 Indo-European Languages



[Source: Yadav (2003)]

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

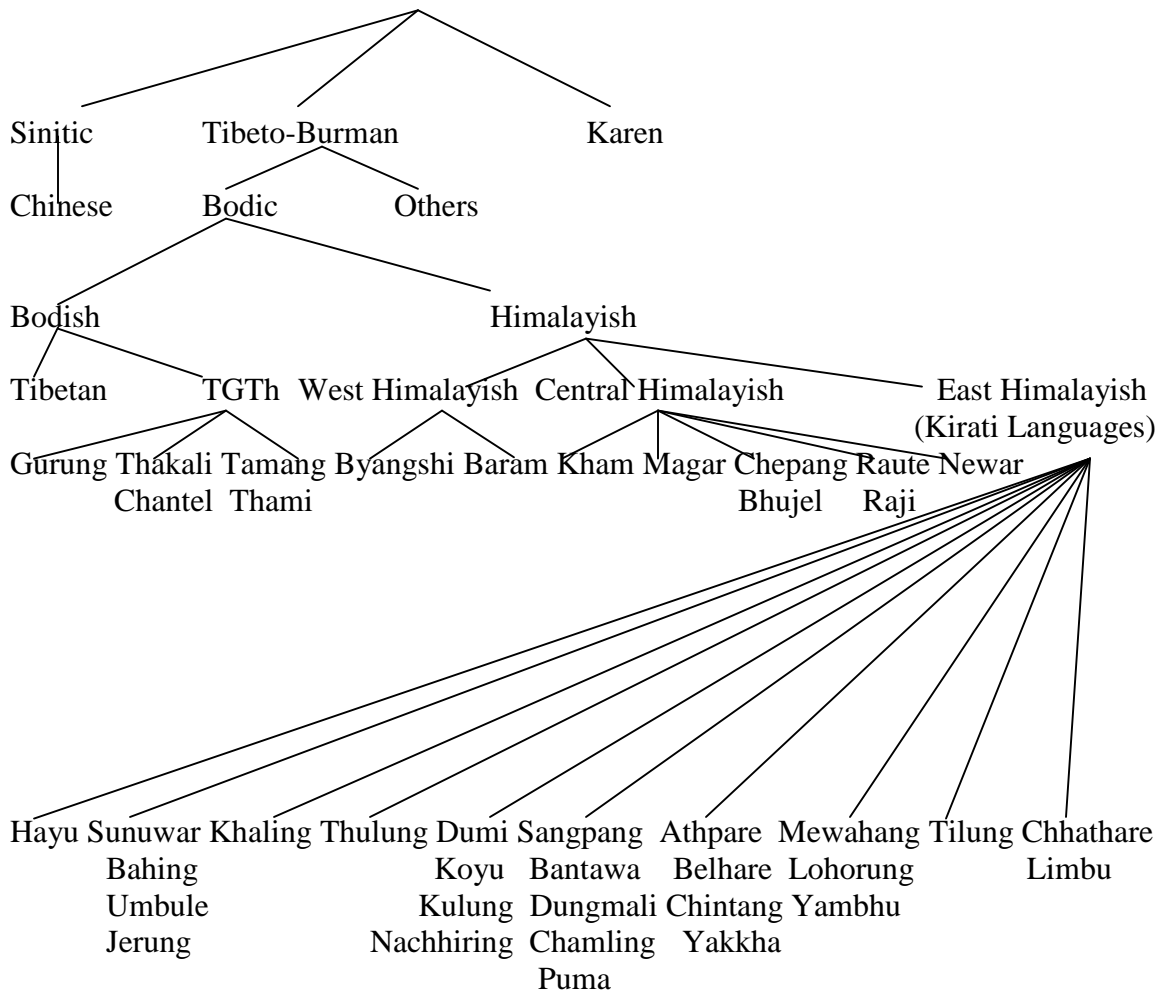
II. Sino-Tibetan Family

Another important group of Nepal's languages is the Tibeto-Burman group of Sino-Tibetan family. Though it is spoken by relatively lesser number of

people than the Indo-European family, it consists of the largest number of languages, viz. about 57 languages.

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

Diagram: 2 Sino-Tibetan Languages



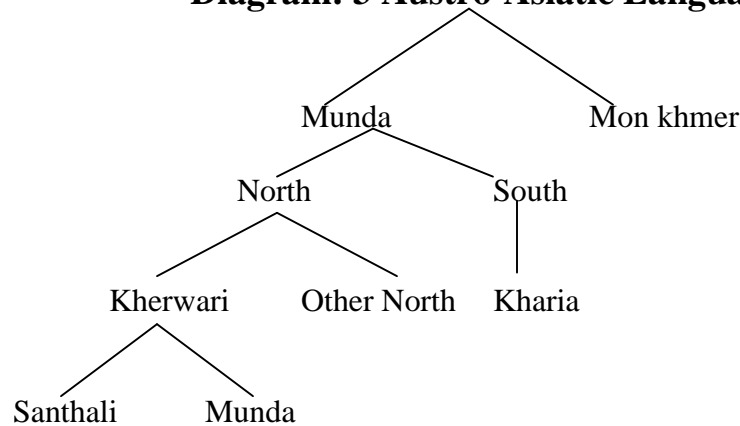
[Source: Yadav (2003)]

III. Austro-Asiatic Family

The Austic languages comprise Santhali of the northern Munda group and Khariya of the southern Munda group. It is to be noted that Satar has been

reported in all the censuses but Santhal has been wrongly reported as a separate language except in the 1952/54 census. The 2001 census lumps both Satar and Santhal together into a single language, called Santhali.

Diagram: 3 Austro-Asiatic Languages

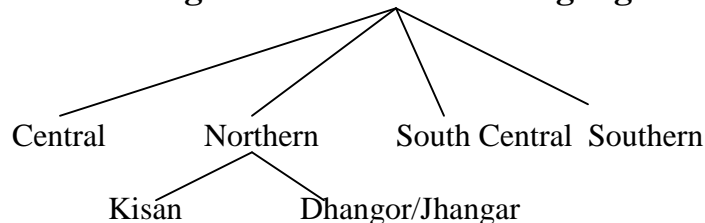


[Source: Yadav (2003)]

IV. Dravidian Family

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

Diagram: 4 Dravidian Languages



[Source: Yadav (2003)]

1.1.3 An Introduction to the Limbu Language

The Limbu language is one of the languages of the Tibeto- Burman family. According to CBS Report 2001, 3,33,633 Limbus speak this language. Limbus are called **Yakthumbas** in the Limbu language and the language they speak is called **Yakthung Pan**. The Limbu language has its own script which is called **Sirijunga script**.

The Limbus are the sensory agriculturalist people of the Mongoloid race dwelling in the hills of Koshi and Mechi Zones of eastern Nepal, parts of Sikkim to the west Tista and in Darjeeling district of India. They are one of the Kiranti groups. Traditionally, the Kiranti area is divided into three provinces: Wallo Kirant, Majha Kirant and Pallo Kirant. The original place of the Limbus is Pallo Kirant. Pallo Kirant includes Tehrathum, Dhankura, Sankhuwasabha, Taplejung, Panchthar, Ilam, Sunsari, the northern parts of Morang district, and Darjeeling and Sikkim of India. Nowadays, Limbus are residing in Morang, Sunsari, Jhapa, Kathmandu, Lalitpur and Bhaktapur districts of Nepal, Asam, Meghalaya, Nagaland and Manipur of India and even in Burma and Bhutan.

Different varieties of the Limbu are spoken in different district of eastern Nepal it has mainly four dialects which are given below.

I. Phedappe Dialect

Phedappe dialect is spoken throughout Tehrathum district and even Indo-Aryan living outside Tehrathum bazar, especially those of lower caste, speak some Limbu in addition to their native Nepali. The larger centre of population in the Phedappe speaking area of Limbuwan is Tehrathum (Van Driem, 1987:xxii). The term Phedappe is a Nepali adjectival form of

Phedap, the region where the Phedappe dialect is spoken and formerly the designation for all of present day Limbuwan.

II. Panchthare Dialect

Panchthare is literally the dialect of the Panchthar or ‘five clans’. It is spoken to the east of the Tamor River such as Yasok, Phidim, Chaubis Thum of Dhankuta, some parts of Ilam and different parts of India as mentioned above. This dialect is regarded as the standard dialect among the varieties of the Limbu language.

III. Chhathare Dialect

Chhathare is also literally the dialect of the Chhathar or ‘six clans’. It is spoken in parts of Dhankuta district away from the bazar and in parts of Tehrathum district fringing Dhankuta district such as Dangapa, Okhar Bote, etc.

IV. Taplejunge Dialect

Taplejunge (including the Tamarkhole, Yangrupe, and Mewakhole sub-dialects) is the dialect spoken to the north of Phedap along and especially north of the **Tamor River** in Taplejung district and beyond whereas the dialect boundary between phedappe and Panchthare is an abrupt transition as one crosses the Tamor between Tehrathum and Yasok.

1.1.4 The Importance of Contrastive Analysis on Language Teaching

Contrastive Analysis (CA) is defined as a scientific study of similarities and differences between two or more than two languages. Often the two

languages are source language and target language or L₁ and L₂.

Usually, the first language is known as native language or mother tongue or filter language and the 2nd one is target language or foreign language or other language.

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

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

Robert Lado, in 1957, wrote a book entitled 'Linguistics Across Culture'. He provided some assumptions of CA which have significant role in language teaching. Some of his assumptions can be mentioned as (a) individuals tend to transfer the forms and meanings and distribution of forms and meanings of their native language and culture to the foreign language and culture, both productively when attempting to speak the language and receptively when attempting to grasp and understand the language, (b) the comparison between languages lies the key to ease or difficulty in foreign language learning, and (c) the teacher who has made a comparison of the foreign language with the native language of the students will know better what the real learning problems are and can better provide for teaching them.

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

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

CA has its great importance in language teaching. It has mainly two functions. Firstly, it predicts the tentative errors to be committed by the L2 learners and secondly, it explains the sources and reasons of the L2 learners' errors. So a language teacher should have knowledge of CA to treat the learners psychologically and academically. James (1980) points out three pedagogical applications of CA. According to him, CA has application in **predicting** and **diagnosing** a proportion of the L2 errors committed by learners with a common L1, and in the design of **testing instruments** for such learners.

1.1.5 Case

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 stoic – a school of Greek philosophy gave a particular sense to this term. In Greek tradition Dionysius Thrax mentioned parts of speech as noun, verb, adjective, adverb in his grammar. He was also devoted to the study of case. He has described Case in terms of inflections of nouns. The same tradition was carried over in Latin.

Anderson (1977) discusses about 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 results in inconsistency. "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)"(Asher,1994:447). Other grammarians of the time recognized that some uses (at least) of some cases could not be reduced to the syntactic case, it is found, traditionally 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 stoics '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.

“Case was the most important inflectional category of the noun, as tense was the most inflectional category of the verb. It is significant that the term case (originally more or less synonymous with what was later called inflection) was restricted to one particular inflectional category. The reason for this would seem to be that most of the other categories –gender, number, tense, person, etc. - could be related to a principle of semantic classification” (Lyons, 1968:289). Traditional grammar proposed seven cases with their syntactic/semantic functions which are as follows:

Nominative -it marks the subject

Accusative -the object or transitive verb

Genitive -it expresses possession semantically

Dative -indirect object

Locative -adverb of place

Ablative - instruments

Vocative - expresses address semantically

Generally, case is defined in traditional grammars as the relation in which a noun stands to some other word, or change of form (if any) by which this relation is indicated-grammatical relation as 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*. (instrumental)
7. He fell down *from the tree*. (ablative)
8. He came *with his wife*. (Comitative)
9. *Ram!*. (vocative)

Noam Chomsky developed the concept of a Generative Grammar in late 1960s which 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 determined the semantic representation of that sentence. The view held by this theory was that everything needed for the semantic representation of a sentence was present 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 Chomskyian 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. He defines case "...the case notions comprise a set of universal, presumably innate concepts which identify certain types of judgments human beings are capable of making about the events that are going around them, judgment about such matters as who did it, who it happened to and what got changed" (Fillmore 1968:24).

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 refers 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 namely, Agentive, Instrumental, Dative, Factitive, Locative and Objective. In 1971, he extended the number up to eight namely Agentive, Instrumental, Patient/Objective, Experiencer, Source, Goal, Locative and Time. These cases were deep structure cases, described as being ‘underlying syntactic-semantic relationships’. They were to be distinguished from case forms, which comprise the means of expressing cases: inflections, prepositions, postpositions, word order etc. Thus, case is defined and discussed grammatically and semantically by various linguists. Blake (1994) mentions both grammatical and semantic cases in the following table:

grammatical	core	nominative accusative ergative
		genitive dative
semantic	local	locative ablative allative 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 system in English and Limbu languages.

1.1.6 Basic Concepts of Case Grammar

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

‘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 morphosyntactic form Fillmore refers to the different cases which stand in a certain relationship within a structure. Morphosyntactic forms give some functional and categorical information. The morphosyntactic forms differ from language to language. Different morphosyntactic forms that mark cases are inflections, 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	benefactive

III. Semantic Role

It is the dominant and recent developed concept of case grammar. It is the concept at meaning level. Fillmore has paid special attention to this concept and has called it as ‘case or case relationship.’ He has explained the whole case grammar as having a semantic role. “The sentence is its basic structure consisting of a verb and one or more noun phrases, each associated with the verb in a particular relationship” (Fillmore, 1968:21).

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

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

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

1.1.7 Case Marking System

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

a. Single argument

“Bob left.”

S V

b. Multi-argument

“Bob greeted Aileron.”

A V P

[Source: Payne (1997)]

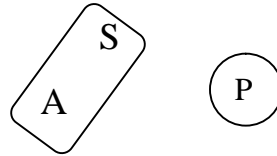
The S is defined as the only nominal argument of a single-argument clause sometimes this type of clause is referred to as an **intransitive** clause. The A is defined as the most AGENT- like argument of a multi-argument clause. Sometimes this type of clause is referred to as a **transitive** clause.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

The grammatical relation of **subject** can be defined as S together with A, while **direct object**, or simply ‘object’ can be defined as P alone. Some languages pay more attention to this grouping than do others. Payne (1997) has presented the various systems for grouping S, A, and P and the

morphosyntactic means languages employ to express these groupings. According to him, languages may treat S and A the same, and P differently. The following English examples illustrate this fact with pronominal case forms- one 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-2 aywan. “Juan goes”.

Juan-NOM goes

S

b. Juan-2 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

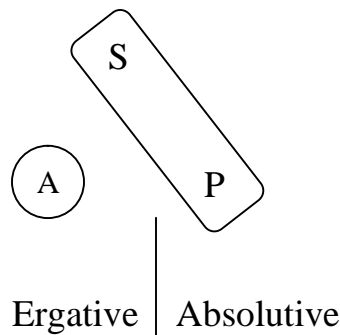
A roles, it is called the **nominative case**, while the case that marks only the P role is the **accusative case**.

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

- | | | |
|--------------|-----------|---------------------------------|
| a. Doris –aq | ayallruuq | “Doris traveled.” |
| Doris-ABS | traveled | |
| 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**.



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

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

And the fifth, neutral, would have the same form for all three primitives, but since this is tantamount to lack of case marking for these 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:

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

[Source: Whaley (1997)]

1.1.8 Cases in the English Language

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

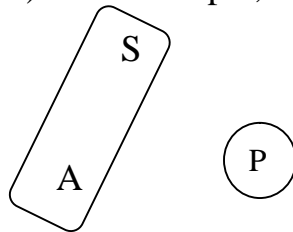
I. Nominative

Nominative is syntactic/grammatical case and it is the form taken by a noun phrase when it is subject of intransitive or transitive clauses. According to

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

a. **He** left.

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 (1989:111) 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

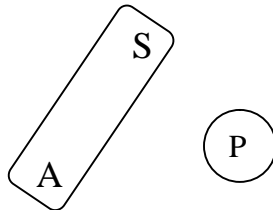
Accusative is also a syntactic/grammatical case, it refers to the form taken by a noun phrase when it is the object of a verb. According to Blake (1994:134), “The accusative is the case that encodes the direct object or a verb.” From the definitions given by Huddleston (1996), Payne (1997), and Comrie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

a. He broke **the window**. (patient)

NOM ACC

b. A cat drank **the milk**. (patient)

NOM ACC

III. Instrumental

Fillmore in his own words defined instrumental case as;

“The case of the inanimate force or object causally involved in the action or state identified by the verb” (Fillmore 1968:24).

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

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

For example,

- 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: 290). For example,

- a. It is **Harry's pencil**.
- b. **The hood of the car** was dented.
- c. **The head lights of the bus** are damaged.
- d. **The cow's tail** is cut.

English uses possessive pronouns to express the possessive relationship.

For example,

- 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, 1994:198). For example,

- 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, 1968:25). According to Blake (1994:69), 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**.

VII. Ablative (source)

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

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

- a. 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**.

VIII. Dative

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

- a. She gave **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**.

IX. Vocative

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

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

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

- a. **J HN**, DìNner’s ready.
- b. And **THAT**, my **FRIENDS**, concludes my **SPÈECH**.
- c. My **BÀCK** is aching, **DÓCtor**. (ibid)

1.2 Review of the Related Literature

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

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

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

Bhattarai (2001) carried out a research on ‘Case in English and Nepali: A Comparative Study.’ His objectives were to find out the similarities and differences between the Nepali and English case systems and to identify morphological and syntactic features of the case of both the English and Nepali languages. Some of his findings are:

- a) The same case marker can occur with various cases in both languages,
- b) If there is only one case in a sentence, it automatically becomes the subject in both languages,
- c) The verbs appear at the beginning of the proposition section of the sentence in English but it appears at the end in Nepali.

Adhikari (2001) carried out a research on ‘Case Realizations in English and Nepali: A Comparative Study.’ His study concentrated on the similarities and differences in case realization between English and Nepali languages. Some of his research findings are:

- a) English is a ‘nominative-accusative’ kind of language whereas Nepali is an ‘ergative-absolutive’ type of language.
- b) Case marker occurs before the noun in English but it occurs after the noun in Nepali.
- c) The same case marker can occur with various cases in both the languages.

Karn (2004) has carried out a research on “A Comparative Study of Cases in Maithili and English.’ His objectives were to identify and analyze case in Maithili, and to compare Maithili case with English ones. His main finding was that the Maithili language has nominative, accusative, instrumental, dative, ablative, genitive and locative cases.

Phyak (2004) has done research work on ‘English and Limbu Pronominals: A Linguistic Comparative Study.’ His study concentrated on determining Limbu pronominals in relation to English and finding similarities and differences between Limbu and English pronominals. Some of his findings are as follows:

- a) Limbu and English pronominal systems are different.
- b) The Limbu language has more number of pronouns and has more complex pronominal system than English.
- c) The Limbu language has inclusive and exclusive pronominal system which is not found in English.

Tumbapo (2005) has carried out research on ‘Verbal Affixation in Limbu and English: A Comparative Study.’ His study focused on finding of Limbu verb affixes that are attached to verb and on pointing out similar and

different verbal affixes in relation to English verbal affixes. His some findings are as follows:

- a) Panthare dialect of Limbu has person marker prefixes, infixes, and suffixes, whereas English has only person marker suffix and it marks the third person singular.
- b) Panthare dialect of Limbu has tense marker suffixes in greater number than those of English.
- c) Limbu has infixation system, whereas English lacks this system.

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

1.3. Objectives of the Study

This study had the following objectives:

- a. To identify and describe cases in Limbu.
- b. To find out similarities and differences between the Limbu and English cases.
- c. To suggest some pedagogical implications.

1.4 Significance of the Study

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

- i. This research will be invaluable for the department of English Education itself since no research has been conducted yet on ‘Case in English and Limbu.’
- ii. The study will be beneficial for language teacher who are teaching the Limbu and English languages and students who are learning Limbu and English as second languages. This study will be significant for the researcher, text book writer, course designers, etc.
- iii. The researcher hopes this study will have global significance in language teaching and linguistics.

1.5 Definition of the Specific Terms

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

S: The single argument of one place predicate.

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

CHAPTER TWO

METHODOLOGY

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

2.1 Sources of Data

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

2.1.1 Primary Source

The native speakers of the Limbu language of Bhogateni and Letang VDCs of Morang district were the primary source from whom the researcher collected the required data for the research.

2.1.2 Secondary Source

The English ‘cases’ were totally taken from the secondary sources. The secondary sources of the data were different books, journals, theses, etc. e.g. Fillmore (1968), Weidert and Subba (1985), Van Driem (1987), Blake (1994), Payne (1997), and Whaley (1997).

2.2 Population of the Study

The population of the study were the forty native speakers of Bhogateni and Letang VDCs of Morang district.

2.3 Sampling Procedure

Two VDCs where Limbus reside were selected through judgemental sampling. From Bhogateni VDC 20 (10 male and 10 female) and from Letang VDC 20 (10 male and 10 female) sample of age group between 15-65 years were selected through the snowball sampling procedure and they were interviewed using prepared interview schedule.

2.4 Research Tool

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

2.5 Process of the Data Collection

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

- i. The researcher prepared required interview schedule, visited the selected VDCs and established a good relation with the Limbu native speakers.
- ii. He interviewed the Limbu native speakers according to the prepared interview schedule.
- iii. After collecting the data through interview schedule, the researcher participated in daily conversation with the Limbu native speakers for one and half week which helped the researcher to verify the data.
- iv. The answers given by the Limbu native speakers were recorded using the Roman Transliteration of Devanagari Script (Appendix-III).

2.6 Limitations of the Study

- i. The present study is limited to Limbu speakers of Bhogateni and Letang VDCs of Morang district.
- ii. The total study population is limited to forty native speakers of the Limbu language.
- iii. The study is based on the 'Panchthare' dialect of the Limbu language.
- iv. The study is limited to these cases: nominative, accusative, ergative, absolutive, dative, genitive, comitative, locative, instrumental, ablative and vocative.
- v. Cases, which are only related to nouns and pronouns, are studied.
- vi. The work is descriptive in nature.
- vii. Only simple past and present tense sentences having different cases were compared and analyzed.

CHAPTER THREE

ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION

This chapter deals with the analysis and interpretation of the data. The data has been analyzed descriptively with the help of table and illustrations. After the analysis of the data, the similarities and differences between Limbu and English cases are mentioned with illustrations. Hence, this chapter consists two parts: Identification and Analysis of Cases in the Limbu language and Similarities and Differences between the Limbu and English Cases.

3.1 Identification and Analysis of Cases in the Limbu Language

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

3.1.1 Absolute Case

Absolute is a term used in grammatical description of languages, which has an ergative system. This system has a formal parallel between the object of a transitive verb and the subject of an intransitive one, and these are referred to as absolute cases. For example,

1. khy b -lle **miyanŭb** -C n ttu

‘dog-ERG cat-ABS chased’

“ A dog chased a cat.”

2. lun -re him-bhos n< **pit**-C c l psu

‘Luna-ERG house-LOC cow-ABS grazed’

“Luna grazed a cow below the house.”

3. w ?-re **asekp** -C seru
‘hen-ERG snake-ABS killed’
“ A hen killed a snake.”

In sentences given above in (1), (2), (3) ‘n ttu’, ‘c l psu’ and ‘seru’ are all transitive verbs and ‘miyan<b ’, ‘pit’ and ‘asekp ’ are objects which are unmarked. These unmarked objects can occur in the subject position without any change in intransitive verbs. For example,

4. **miyan**ŭb -C ke-eγ n< cin<sin<
‘cat-ABS 2sg-LOC hid’
“A cat hid behind you”

5. **asekp** - C sy
‘snake-ABS died’
“A snake died.”

6. **pit**-C th n<-2 sy
‘cow-ABS shed-LOC died’
“A cow died in the shed.”

Absolutive case is unmarked when it is indefinite (1,2,3,4,5, and 6) and marked by ‘-in’ when it is definite. For example,

7. luna-re him-bhos n< **pitt-in** c l psu
‘Luna-ERG house-LOC cow-Def.ABS grazed’
“Luna grazed the cow below the house”.

8. -mm -re ku-sendub - lle **si?** -in seru
‘my-mother-ERG 3sg-nail-INS louse-Def.ABS killed’
“My mother killed the louse with her nail.”

9. ke-detth-o **si? -in** w
 ‘2sg-cloth-LOC louse-Def.ABS is’
 “The louse is on your cloth.”

10. hari-re **p nŭw m den-in** nisu
 ‘ Hari-ERG playground-Def.ABS saw’
 “Hari saw the playground.”

After /s/, the form of the definite absolutive case ending is realized as [-en].

For example,

11. pitt-ille **xh s-en** ca
 ‘cow-ERG grass- Def.ABS ate’
 “The cow ate the grass.”

12. **h s-en** w -in-nu w
 ‘duck-Def.ABS hen- Def.ABS-COM is’
 “ The duck is with the hen.”

After the vowel sounds, the definite absolutive ending is realized as [-n]. For example,

13. khy b -ille **miyanŭb -n** n ttu
 ‘dog-ERG cat-Def.ABS chased’
 “The dog chased the cat.”

14. w -ille **asekp -n** seru
 ‘hen-ERG snake-Def.ABS killed’
 “The hen killed the snake.”

15. **asekp -n** sy
 ‘snake-Def.ABS died’
 “The snake died.”

After the plural suffix /-h ?/,the definite absolutive case ending is zero. For example,

16. **tareb -h** P -C ke-himm-o meips
 ‘guest-pl Def.ABS 2sg-house-LOC slept’
 “The guests slept in your house.”

17. hunchi? **tet-h** P -C t rechu
 ‘they(dl) cloth-pl-Def.ABS brought’
 “They brought the clothes.”

Personal pronouns are not marked for the definite absolutive case. For example,

18. n⟨γ ? **hun**P-C hiptun⟨
 ‘I he-Def.ABS beat’
 “I beat him.”

19. **hune**P -C yukn -o ips
 ‘he-Def.ABS bed-LOC slept’
 “He slept in the bed.”

20. nchi? **henh** P -C n techu
 ‘we(dl) they(pl)-Def.ABS chased’
 “We chased them.”

[See Appendix III]

3.1.2 Ergative Case

Ergative is the case of nouns in ergative languages that would generally be the subjects of transitive verbs in the translation equivalents of nominative-

accusative languages such as English. And it is equivalent to semantic role agent. Limbu ergative suffixes are **-lle/-le/-l,-ille/-il**, and **-re/-r**.

/-lle/,/-le/,and /-l/ are the indefinite ergative case markers in Limbu. The first one /-lle/ is the basic form and the others are reduced variants which occur in normal or fast tempo speech. For example,

21. **khy b -lle/-l** miyan<b n ttu
 ‘dog-Indef.ERG cat n chased’
 “A dog chased a cat.”

22. **pit-le** γh s ca
 ‘cow-Indef.ERG grass ate’
 “A cow ate grass.”

23. **man -lle/-l** n<γ ? y n< pir n<
 ‘man-Indef.ERG I money gave’
 “A man gave me money.”

/-ille/ and /-il/ are the definite ergative case markers./-ille/ is the basic form and /-il/ is its reduced variant. For example,

24. **pitt-i-lle** γh s-en ca
 ‘cow-Def.ERG grass-Def.ABS ate’
 “The cow ate the grass.”

25. **khy b -i-lle** miy b -n n ttu
 ‘dog-Def.ERG cat-Def.ABS chased’
 “The dog chased the cat.”

26. **h nû-i-lle /-il** n<γ ? ut n<
 ‘king- Def.ERG I called’
 “The king called me.”

After final /?/, indefinite /-lle/ is realized as [-re], as distinct from the definite ergative form /-ille/. /-re/ is the basic form and /-r/ is its reduced variant. For example,

27. **w P-re/-r** asekp seru,
 ‘hen-Indef.ERG snake killed’
 “A hen killed a snake.”

28. **w P-i-llle/-i-l** asekp -n seru
 ‘hen-Def. ERG snake-Def. ABS killed’
 “The hen killed the snake.”

After expressed or unexpressed plural marker /-h ?/, /-re/ with its reduced variant /-r/ is used as definite ergative case marker. For example,

29. **tareb -h P-re/-r** -himm-o thi-n medhun<u
 ‘guest-pl-Def. ERG 1sg-house-LOC beer-ABS drank’
 “The guests drank beer in my house.”

30. **khy b -h P-re/-r** miyan<b -n men tu
 ‘dog-pl-Def. ERG cat-ABS chased’
 “The dogs chased the cat.”

31. **man -re** lun<-h ?-re asekp -n meseru
 ‘man-Def.ERG stone-pl-INS snake- ABS killed’
 “The men killed the snake with stones.”

32. **khy b -re** miyan<b -n men tu
 ‘dog-Def.ERG cat-ABS chased.’
 “The dogs chased the cat.”

In sentences given above in (29) and (30) plural marker suffix is expressed but in sentences (31) and (32) plural marker suffix is not expressed.

The demonstratives ‘**hen**’ (that), ‘**kan**’ (this) and interrogatives ‘**the**’ (what) and ‘**h P**’ (who) have the ergative forms ‘**helle/henle**,’ ‘**kalle/kanle**,’ ‘**thelle/thenle**’ and ‘**haPlle/h Pl**’ respectively. For example,

33. **helle/henle** c bi-lle l mdhepp -n handu
 ‘that (person) key-INS door-ABS opened’
 “That (person) opened door with the key.”

34. **kalle/kanle** l mm-o y n<-in khosu
 ‘this (person) way-LOC money-ABS found’
 “This (person) found money on the way.”

35. **thelle/thel** w dhin-in heru be?
 ‘what egg-ABS broke Que?’
 “What broke the egg?”

36. **h Plle/h Pl** khy b -n seru be?
 ‘who dog-ABS killed Que?’
 “ Who killed the dog?”

Only the third person plural pronoun takes the ergative case marker suffix /-**re**/. For example,

37. **henh P-re** nchi? mn techi
 ‘they (pl) - ERG we (dl incl) chased’
 “They (pl) chased us.”

38. **henh P-re** pan<w m den mejoyu
 ‘they (pl) -ERG playground made’
 “They (pl) made a playground.”

39. **nchixyaP** mbe-n cechiyy
 ‘we (dl excl) mango-ABS ate’
 “We (dl excl) ate the mango.”

40. **nûg** P hune? hiptun<<

‘I he beat’

‘I beat him.’

[See Appendix-III]

In sentences given above in (37) and (38) ‘henh ?’ is third person plural pronoun which is marked with /-re/, but in sentences (39) and (40) ‘nchiγy ?’ and ‘n<γ ?’ are second person exclusive dual and first person singular which are unmarked.

Personal nouns and kinship terms with vowel endings are marked with ergative case suffix /-re/. For example,

41. **lun -re** him-bhos n< pitt-in c l psu

‘Luna-ERG house-LOC cow-ABS grazed’

‘Luna grazed the cow below the house.’

42. **hari-re** pan<w m den-in nisu

‘Hari-ERG playground-ABS saw’

‘Hari saw the playground.’

43. **num -re** pitt-ille ku-mi-n temsu

‘Numa-ERG cow-GEN 3sg -tail-ABS caught’

‘Numa caught the cow’s tail.’

44. **-mm -re** si?-in seru

‘1sg-mother-ERG louse-ABS killed’

‘My mother killed the louse.’

3.1.3 Instrumental Case

Instrumental is the case of something which is used inanimately as a means or weapon of agent that is helpful to perform an action or is the case of

inanimate force or object causally involved in the action or state identified by the verb. In the Limbu language, the form of the instrumental is identical to that of ergative. Hence, **-lle/-le/-l,-ill/-il** and **-re/-r** are instrumental case markers. For example,

45. n<γ ? hune? **latthi-lle** hiptun<

‘I he stick -INS beat’

‘‘I beat him with a stick.’’

46. hune? γ ? **hukk-ille** hipt n<

‘he I hand - INS beat’

‘‘He beat me by hand.’’

47. a-mm -re **ku-sendub -lle** si?-in seru

‘1sg- mother-ERG 2sg -nail-INS louse-ABS killed’

‘‘My mother killed the louse with her nail.’’

48. **mi-lle** -hukk-in o?ru

‘fire-INS 1sg-hand-ABS burnt’

‘‘The fire burnt my hand.’’

49. n **m-ille** tett-in her

‘sun-INS cloth-ABS dried’

‘‘The sun dried the cloth.’’

50. n< mukh n<-ille **phej P-ille** mend kk-in seru

‘Ngamukhang-ERG khukuri-INS goat-ABS killed’

‘‘Ngamukhang killed the goat with khukuri.’’

51. man -re **lunû-h P-re** asekp -n meseru

‘men-ERG stone-pl-INS snake-ABS killed’

‘‘The men killed the snake with the stones.’’

3.1.4 Genitive (possessive) Case

The genitive case typically expresses a possessive relationship or it is the case of possession. In the Limbu language, formally it is identical to the ergative suffix as described in 3.1.2.

52. **nû mukh nû-ille** ku-hukk-in
 ‘Ngamukhang-GEN 3sg-hand -ABS’
 ‘‘Ngamukhang’s hand’’

53. **pitt-il** ku-mi
 ‘cow-GEN 3sg-tail’
 ‘‘The cow’s tail’’

Nouns in the genitive case are generally followed by a noun with the third person possessive prefix/**ku-**/for singular and /**hunchi-**/for plural and dual. For example,

54. r m-il **ku-det**
 ‘Ram-GEN 3sg-cloth’
 ‘‘Ram’s cloth’’

55. lun -re **ku-s pl**
 ‘Luna-GEN 3sg-book’
 ‘‘Luna’s book’’

56. pit-ha?-re **hunchi-mi**
 ‘cow-pl-GEN 3pl-tail’
 ‘‘The cows’ tail’’

57. lun nu hari-re **hunchi-him**
 ‘Luna and Hari-GEN 3dl-house’
 ‘‘Luna and Hari’s house.’’

Absolutivized genitive takes the genitive case marker *-llen,-len,-ren* with ‘possessor’, but ‘possessed’ noun occurs without any possessive prefix. For example,

58. **r m-le-n** him yamb cok

‘Ram-GEN-ABS house big is’

“Ram’s house is big.”

59. **sab -lle-n** mi kemb cok

‘monkey-GEN-ABS tail long is’

“The monkey’s tail is long.”

60. **lun -re-n** s pl

‘Luna-GEN-ABS book’

“Luna’s book”

The possessive pronouns, with pronominal function, have separate independent genitive forms except third person plural. These pronominal forms end in a suffix *-in/* which behaves like the absolute ending in nouns. The third person plural pronoun takes absolutivized genitive case marker *-ren/*. For example,

61. kan n kc -n **nûx P-in** lo

‘this pen-ABS I-GEN is’

“This pen is mine.”

62. kan n kc -n **huneP-in** lo

‘this pen-ABS he -GEN is’

“This pen is hers.”

63. kan n kc -n **niP-in** lo

‘this pen-ABS we-GEN is’

“This pen is ours.”

64. kan n kc -n **henh** P-**ren** lo

‘this pen-ABS they (pl)-GEN is’

“This pen is theirs.”

[See Appendix III]

Limbu possessive pronouns, with determinative function, are given in the following table:

Table No: 1

Limbu Possessive Pronouns with Determinative Function

Number	Person	Possessive prefixes
Singular	1	-
	2	ke-
	3	ku-
Dual	1 incl	nchi-
	1 excl	nchiyy -/ nchiye-
	2	hinch-
	3	hunch-
Plural	1 incl	ni-
	1 excl	niyy -/ niye-
	2	hini-
	3	henh ?r-/hunch-

For example,

65. -him

‘1sg-house’

“My house”

66. **ke-him**
 ‘2sg-house’
 “Your house”
67. **ni-him**
 ‘1 pl incl-house’
 “Our house”
68. **hini-s pl**
 ‘2pl-book’
 “Your book”
69. **henh Pr-s pl**
 ‘3pl-book’
 “Their book”

[See Appendix III]

3.1.5 Comitative Case

The comitative is a case form taken by a noun when it expresses the meaning of ‘along with’, or ‘accompanied by.’ It is marked by the suffix /-**nu**/ in the Limbu language. For example,

70. n⟨γ ? **huneP-nu** er n⟨
 ‘I he-COM laughed’
 “I laughed with him.”
71. **henh ?-re nchi? khy b -nu mn techi**
 ‘they (pl)-ERG we (dl incl) dog-COM chased’
 “They chased us with a dog.”

72. r m **ku-khy b -n-nu** sin<bun<-siγ n< yun<sin<

‘Ram 3sg-dog-ABS-COM tree-LOC sat’

‘Ram with his dog sat under the tree.’

73. nchi? henh ? **timmak-nu** n techu

‘we (dl incl) they (pl) gun-COM chased’

‘We chased them with gun.’

3.1.6 Locative Case

The case which denotes the location or spatial orientation of the state or action identified by the verb is called locative case. It expresses the basic relationship between the location and the object involved with it. It holds the attitude of being oriented, depending upon, consisting of or inseparable relationship between the object and the location or spatial orientation of the action or state identified by the verb. In the Limbu language, locative case is marked by the case marker suffixes **-o**, **-lekkh nû/-lePbj nû/-leps nû,-canûdh nû/-janûdh nû,-thunûdh nû/-dhunûdh nû,-siχ nû/-sit nû,-phos nû/-bhos n,û-eχ nû**, and **-taχ nû**. For example,

74. hune? **yukn P-o** ips

‘he bed-LOC slept’

‘He slept on the bed.’

75. ni? **lakkhumm-o** l kh

‘we (pl incl) yard-LOC danced’

‘we danced at the yard.’

76. niyy ? **nis mhim-m** pan<waiye
 ‘we (pl excl) school-LOC played’
 “we played in the school.”
77. hini? s pl -n **sukw P-o** keyetum
 ‘you (pl) book-ABS bag-LOC put’
 “You put the book into the bag.”
78. lun -re **him-bhos n<** pitt-in c l psu
 ‘Luna-ERG house-LOC cow -ABS grazed’
 “Luna grazed the cow below the house.”
79. henh ?-re **-him-janûdhan<** pan<w den mejogu
 ‘they (pl)-ERG 1sg-house-LOC playground made’
 “They made a playground above my house.”
80. r m-le **ku-him-bes n<** nis mhim ne
 ‘Ram-GEN 1sg-house-LOC school is’
 “There is a school by Ram’s home.”
81. miyan<b **ke-ex n<** cin<sin<
 ‘cat you-LOC hid’
 “A cat hid behind you.”
82. miyan<b -n **-daʁ n<** yun<sin<
 ‘cat-ABS I- LOC sat’
 “The cat sat in front of me.”
83. hini? **him-lekkh nû** kelokti
 ‘you (pl) home-LOC ran’
 “You ran towards the home.”

3.1.7 Ablative Case

The entity that signifies the ‘separation’ and the starting point of the action identified by the verb is said to be ‘ablative case.’ In the Limbu language, ablative case is marked by the suffix **-nu/-l m**. For example,

84. hunchi? **k thm ndu-nu** tyesi

‘they (dl) kathmandu-ABL came’

“They came from kathmandu.”

85. hunchi? **k thm du-l m** tyesi

‘they (dl) kathmandu-ABL came’

“They came from kathmandu.”

86. mbe **sinûbunû-l m** makthy

‘mango tree-ABL fell down’

“A mango fell down from tree.”

Sometimes, locative suffix **/-o/** and ablative suffix **/-nu/** or **/-l m/** are combined to specify the location. For example,

87. kamal r m-ille **ku-himmo-nu/-l m** pher

‘kamal Ram-GEN 2sg-LOC-ABS came’

“Kamal came from Ram’s house.”

88. nchiyy ? **thare^p-o-nu/-l m** ken<echiyy

‘we (dl excl) ladder-LOC-ABL fell down’

“We fell down from the ladder.”

3.1.8 Dative Case

The dative case typically expresses an ‘indirect object’ relationship. It is

given special status in case grammar, where it refers to the case or animate being affected by the verb's state or action. It is equivalent to semantic role 'recipient.'

In the Limbu language, dative case (i.e. indirect object) is marked in the same way as absolutive case is marked in 3.1.1. For example,

89. n⟨γ ? **man** - C s pl -2 pirun⟨

‘I man-DAT book-ABS gave’

“I gave a book to a man.”

90. yum -re cait-2 **tenû**-C h ktu

‘Yuma-ERG photo-ABS friend-DAT sent’

“Yuma sent a photo to a friend.”

91. misek-il **mir k-in** n kc -2 piru

‘Misek-ERG Mirak-def.DAT pen-ABS gave’

“Misek gave Mirak pen.”

92. nγ ? s pl -n **man -n** pirun⟨

‘I book -Def.ABS man-Def.DAT gave’

“I gave the book to the man.”

Here the datives (i.e. indirect objects) of (89) and (90) are unmarked when they are indefinite as absolutive cases, but the datives of (91) and (92) are marked by **/-in/** and **/-n/** as the definite absolutive cases. Dative case is also marked by the same case markers following the same case marking rules as absolutive case.

3.1.9 Vocative Case

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

93. **yum -e!**

‘grandmother-VOC’

“Grandmother!”

94. **tenúb()-e ! ka?n phere**

‘friend-VOC! Here come’

“Friend! Come here.”

For non-singular noun, /-se/ is used as vocative case marker. For example,

95. **tenúb()-se!** yun<iro

‘friend-non-singular.VOC sit’

“Friends! Lets sit.”

For the terms ‘ mb ’ (father) and ‘ mm ’ (mother), the special vocative marker /-o/ exists alongside regular vocative case marker /-e/. For example,

96. **mb -e!/ mb -o!**

‘father-VOC/father-VOC’

“Father!/ Father!”

97. **mm -e!/ mm -o!**

‘mother-VOC/mother-VOC’

“Mother!/Mother!”

3.2 Similarities and Differences between the Limbu and English Cases

3.2.1 Ergative and Nominative

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

Limbu

a. **khy b -lle** miy n<b n ttu (sub)

‘dog-ERG cat chased’

“A dog chased a cat.”

b. **h nû-ille** n<γ ? utt n< (sub)

‘king-ERG I called’

“The king called me.”

English

a. **John** killed a snake. (sub)

NOM ACC

b. **Harry** hit me. (sub)

NOM ACC

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

Limbu

a. **w P-ille** asekp -n seru (subject of TV)

‘hen-ERG snake-ABS killed’

“The hen killed the snake”

b. **asekp -n** sy (subject of IV)

‘snake-ABS died’

“The snake died.”

English

a. **Tom** hit the man. (sub of TV)

NOM ACC

b. **Tom** laughed. (sub of IV)

NOM

Limbu ergative case is marked by the case suffixes **-ille/-il**, **-lle/-le/-l**, and **-re/-r** whereas English does not have such case suffixes (i.e. zero marked) but marks by word order. In English, subject occurs before the verb in declarative clauses and after the operator in Yes-No interrogative clauses.

For example,

Limbu

a. **h nû-ille/-il** n<γ ? utt n<

‘king-ERG I called’

“The king called me.”

b. **pit-le** gh s ca

‘cow-ERG grass ate’

“A cow ate grass.”

c. **a-mm -re/r** si?-in seru

‘1sg-mother-ERG louse-ABS killed’

“My mother killed the louse.”

English

a. **Everybody** [sub] has left [v] for the day.

NOM

b. Has [op] **anybody** [sub] left for the day?

NOM

But, c.*ate **John** mango

V NOM ACC

d.* came **Tom** yesterday

V NOM

Indefinite-definite distinction is found in ergative case marking in Limbu, **-lle/-le**, for indefinite and **-ille/-il** for definite, but such distinction is not found in nominative case marking in English since both indefinite and definite nominative occur in the same position. However, English uses articles for indefinite and definite. For example,

Limbu

a. **pit-le** γh s ca

‘cow-Indef.ERG grass ate’

“A cow ate grass.”

b. **pitt-ille** γh s-en ca

‘cow-Def.ERG grass-ABS ate’

“The cow ate the grass.”

English

a. **A cat** killed the rat.

NOM ACC

b. **The cat** died.

NOM

Definite ergative case marker **-re/-r** is used after expressed or unexpressed plural marker /h ?/, after vowel ending personal nouns and some kinship terms but English nominative does not have separate case marker for such things. For example,

Limbu

a. **khy b -h** P-**re/-r** miyan<b -n men ttu

‘dog-pl-ERG cat-ABS chased’

“The dogs chased the rat.”

b. **man -re/-r** asekp -n meseru

‘man-ERG snake-ABS killed’

“The men killed the snake.”

c. **lun -re/-r** pitt-in c l psu

‘Luna-ERG cow-ABS grazed’

“Luna grazed the cow.”

d. **-mm -re** si?-in seru

‘1sg-mother-ERG louse-ABS killed’

“My mother killed the louse.”

English

a. **The cows** ate the grass

NOM ACC

b. **The cow** ate the grass.

NOM ACC

c. **Harry** hit Tom

NOM ACC

d. **Father** helped me.

NOM ACC

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

Limbu

a. **nùx** P-C hune? hiptun<

‘I-ERG he beat’

“ I beat him.”

b. **nchi**xy P-C mbe-n cechiyy

‘we (dl excl)-ERG mango-ABS ate’

“We ate the mango”

c. **henh** P-re nchi? mn techi

‘they (pl)-ERG we (dl incl) chased’

“They chased us.”

English

a. **He** came yesterday.

NOM

b. **They** played the guitar.

NOM ACC

3.2.2 Absolute and Accusative

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

Limbu

a. khy b -lle **miyanûb** -C n ttu (obj of TV)

‘dog-ERG cat-ABS chased’

“A dog chased a cat.”

b. w ?-ille **asekp -n** seru (obj of TV)

‘hen-ERG snake-ABS killed’

“The hen killed the snake.”

[See Appendix III]

English

a. John hit **Tom.** (obj of TV)

NOM ACC

b. Harry broke **the window.** (obj of TV)

NOM ACC

Limbu absolutive case refers not only to the direct object of transitive verb as English accusative does but also the subject of intransitive verb. For example,

Limbu

a. w ?-ille **asekp -n** seru (obj of TV)

‘hen-ERG snake-ABS killed’

“The hen killed the snake.”

b. **asekp -n** sy (sub of IV)

‘snake-ABS died’

“The snake died.”

c. suman-ille **n nû-in** sussu (obj of TV)

‘Suman-ERG snow-ABS touched’

“Suman touched the snow.”

d. **n nû-in** yond (sub of IV)

‘snow-ABS melted’

“The snow melted.”

English

a. He broke **the chair.** (obj of TV)

NOM ACC

b. She beat **him**. (obj of TV)

NOM ACC

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

a. pit-le xh s-C ca

‘cow-ERG grass-Indef.ABS ate’

“A cow ate grass.”

b. pitt-ille xh s-en ca

‘cow-ERG grass-Def.ABS ate’

“The cow ate the grass.”

c. lun -re pitt-in c l psu

‘Luna-ERG cow-Def.ABS grazed’

“Luna grazed the cow.”

d. w ?-ille asekp -n seru

‘hen-ERG snake-Def.ABS killed’

“The hen killed the snake.”

English

a. Tom tore **the letter**.

NOM ACC

b. I gave **a pen** to John.

NOM ACC

The Limbu language does not have ergative-absolutive inflectional distinction for personal pronouns, except third person plural for ergative, but

English has a nominative-accusative distinction with personal pronouns. For example,

Limbu

- a. an<γ ? **hune**P hiptun<
‘I -ERG he-ABS beat’
“I beat him.”
- b. **hune**P n<γ ? hipt n<
‘he-ERG I-ABS beat’
“He beat me.”
- c. **henh** P-re pan<w m den mejoyu
‘they (pl)-ERG playground made’
“They made a playground.”

[See Appendix III]

English

- a. He hit **me**.
NOM ACC
- b. **I** hit him.
NOM ACC

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

Table No: 2

Limbu Personal Pronouns and their Case Function.

Number	Person	Ergative	Absolutive
Singular	1	n$\langle \gamma \rangle ? , \gamma ?$	n$\langle \gamma \rangle ? , \gamma ?$
	2	hene?	hene?
	3	hune?, hane?	hune?, hane?
Dual	1 incl	nchi?	nchi?
	1 excl	nchi $\gamma\gamma$?, nchi γe ?, nchy ?	nchi $\gamma\gamma$?, nchi γe ?, nchy ?
	2	hinchi?	hinchi?
	3	hunchi?	hunchi?
Plural	1 incl	ni?	ni?
	1excl	ni $\gamma\gamma$?, ni γe ?, n$\langle \gamma \gamma \rangle ?$	ni $\gamma\gamma$?, ni γe ?, n$\langle \gamma \gamma \rangle ?$
	2	hini?	hini?
	3	henh ?, hen$\langle \gamma h \rangle ?$	henh ?, hen$\langle \gamma h \rangle ?$

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

Table No: 3

English Personal Pronouns and their Case Function.

	1st person		2nd person		3rd person		
	sg	pl	sg	pl	sg	pl	
						masc	fem neut
Nominative	I	we		you	he	she	they
Accusative	me	us			him	her	them

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

Limbu

a. w ?-ille **asekp -n** seru (patient)

‘hen-ERG snake-ABS killed’

“The hen killed the snake.”

b. misek-il mir k-in **n kc -C** piru (patient)

‘Misek-ERG Mirak-DAT pen-ABS gave’

“Misek gave Mirak a pen.”

English

a. He broke **the window.** (patient)

NOM ACC

b. A cat drank **the milk.** (patient)

NOM ACC

Limbu makes distinction in case marking between singular and plural definite absolutive cases but such distinction is not found in English

accusative case marking since it uses the same position for both singular and plural accusatives. For example,

a. w ?-ille **asekp -n** seru (sg)

‘hen-ERG snake- Def.ABS killed’

“The hen killed the snake.”

b. pitt-ille **xh s-en** ca

‘cow-ERG grass-Def.ABS ate’

“The cow ate the grass.”

c. **tareb -h** P-C ke-himm-o meips (pl)

‘guest- pl-Def.ABS 2sg-house-LOC slept’

“The guests slept in your house”

d. hunchi? **tet-h** P-C t rechu (pl)

‘they(dl) cloth-pl-Def.ABS brought’

“They brought the cloths.”

English

a. John hit **Tom**. (sg)

NOM ACC

b. He chased **them**.(pl)

NOM ACC

3.2.3 Instrumental

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

Limbu

a. c **bi-lle** 1 mdhepp- n handu

‘key-INS door-ABS opened’

“The key opened the door.”

English

a. **The key** opened the door.

INS ACC

In both the Limbu and English, natural force is also regarded as instrument.

For example,

Limbu

a. **n m-ille** tett-in her

‘sun-INS cloth-ABS dried’

“The sun dried the clothes.”

b. **mi-lle** -hukk-in o?ru

‘fire-INS 1sg-hand-ABS burnt’

“The fire burnt my hand.”

English

a. **The wind** opened the window.

The Limbu instrumental case markers are identical to ergative case markers which are **-ille/-il**, **-lle/-le**, and **-re/-r**. English uses prepositions ‘with’ and ‘by’ as instrumental case markers. For example,

Limbu

a. ny ? hune? **latthi-lle** hiptun<

‘I he stick-INS beat’

“I beat him with a stick.”

b. hune? γ ? **hukk-ille** hipt n<

‘he I hand-INS beat’

“He beat me by hand.”

c. man -re **lunû-h** P-re asekp -n mesmeru

‘man-ERG stone-pl-INS snake-ABS killed’

“The men killed the snake with stones.”

English

a. I cut my finger **with a knife**.

b. John beat me **by hand**.

3.2.4 Genitive (possessive)

Both the Limbu and English languages have notion of genitive case but they have different case markers. Limbu genitive case markers are identical to ergative case markers and in addition they are followed by a noun with third person possessive prefix /**ku-**/for singular and /**hunchi-**/ for dual and plural, on the other hand, English uses apostrophe ‘s’ and preposition ‘of’ as genitive case markers with nouns. For example,

Limbu

a. **pitt-il/-il ku-mi**

‘cow-GEN 3sg-tail’

“The cow’s tail”

b. **lun -re/-r ku-s pl**

‘Luna-GEN 3sg-book’

“Luna’s book”

c. **lun nu hari-re hunchi-him**

‘Luna and Hari-GEN 2dl-house’

“Luna and Hari’s house”

English

- a. It is **Harry's pencil**.
- b. **The headlights of the car** are damaged.

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

Limbu

- a. **-him** (determinative function)
 - '1sg-house'
 - "My house"
- b. **ke-him** (determinative function)
 - 2sg-house'
 - "Your house"
- c. **ku-s pl**
 - '3sg-book'
 - "His/her book"
- d. kan n kc -n nX P-**in** lo (pronominal function)
 - 'this pen-ABS I-GEN is'
 - "This pen is mine."
- e. kan n kc -n **hune**P-**in** lo (pronominal function)
 - 'this pen-ABS he/she-GEN is'
 - "This pen is his/hers."

[See Appendix III]

English

- a. **my** pen (determinative function)
- b. **your** book (, ,)
- c. This book is **mine**. (pronominal function)

d. That pen is **theirs**. („ „)

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

(Possessive pronouns with determinative function)

Limbu

a. **nchi-him**

‘1dl incl-house’

“Our house.”

b. **nchixy -him**

‘1dl excl-house’

“Our house”

c. **ni-s pl**

‘1pl incl-book’

“Our book”

d. **nigy -s pl**

‘1pl excl-book’

“Our book”

English

a. “**Our** pen”

dl/pl, incl/excl

(Possessive pronouns with pronominal function)

Limbu

a. kan n kc -n **nchiP-in** lo

‘this pen-ABS 1dl incl-GEN is’

“This pen is ours.”

b. kan nakc -n **nchixy P-in** lo

‘this pen-ABS 1 dl excl-GEN is’

“This pen is ours.”

c. kan n kc -n **niP-in** lo

‘this pen-ABS 1 pl excl-GEN is’

“This pen is our.”

d. kan n kc -n **nixy P-in** lo

‘this pen-ABS 1 pl excl-GEN is’

“This pen is ours.”

English

a. This hat is **ours**.

1 dl/pl, incl/excl

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

English (determinative) Limbu

(male) **his** book

ku-s pl

him/her

(female) **her** book

male/female

English (pronominal)

Limbu

(male) **his**

huneP-in

male/female

(female) **hers**

3.2.5 Comitative

Both the Limbu and English languages have semantic case ‘comitative.’ In Limbu comitative case is marked by suffix/**-nu**/ whereas, in English, it is marked by preposition ‘with’. For example,

Limbu

a. nɣ ? **huneP-nu** er n<

‘I he-COM laughed’

“I laughed with him.”

b. henh ?-re nchi? **khy b -nu** mn techi

‘they (pl)-ERG we (dl incl) dog-COM chased’

“They chased us with a dog.”

English

a. The dog is **with his master**.

b. George sang **with Yule**.

3.2.6. Locative

Both the Limbu and English languages have the semantic case ‘locative’. They are different only because of their distinct case marking system. Limbu locative case markers are **-o,-lekkh nû/-lePbj nû/-leps nû,-canûdh nû/-janûdh nû,-thunûdh nû/-dhunûdh nû,-siX nû/-sit nû,-phos nû/-bhos n,û-ex n<**, and **taX nû**, etc. and English locative case markers are ‘in’, ‘on’, ‘at’, ‘over’, ‘under’, ‘above’, ‘behind’, ‘in front of’, etc. For example,

Limbu

- a. hune? **yukn** P-**o** ips
'he bed-LOC slept'
"He slept on the bed."
- b. ni? **lakkumm-o** l kh
'we (pl) yard-LOC danced'
"We danced at the yard."
- c. lun -re **him-bhos** n< pitt-in c l psu
'Luna-ERG house-LOC cow-ABS grazed'
"Luna grazed the cow below the house."
- d. r m-ille **ku-him-bes** nû nis mhim ne
'Ram-GEN 3sg-house-LOC school is'
"There is a school by Ram's house."

[See Appendix III]

English

- a. The vase is **on/under/near the table**.
- b. The dog ran **towards the house**.
- c. The dog is **at the door**.
- d. The students are **in the classroom**.

3.2.7 Ablative

Both the Limbu and English languages have the semantic case ‘ablative.’ They differ only their case marking system. In Limbu, it is marked by suffix ‘-**nu/l m**’ and in English it is marked by proposition ‘from’. For example,

Limbu

a. hunchi? **k thm ndu-nu/-l m** tyesi

‘they (dl) kathmandu-ABL came’

“They came from kathmandu.”

b. mbe **sinūbunū-nu/-l m** makthy

‘mango tree-ABL fell down’

“A mango fell down from the tree.”

English

a. Sherry bought the case **from Dave**.

b. We leased the apartment **from Mr. Bains**.

c. An apple fell down **from the tree**.

In Limbu, locative suffix ‘-**o**’ and ablative suffix ‘-**nu/-l m**’ are combined to specify the location but such combination is not available in English. For example,

Limbu

a. kamal r m-ille **ku-himm-o-nu** pehr

‘Kamal Ram-GEN 3sg-house-LOC-ABL came’

“Kamal came from Ram’s house.”

b. nchiy ? **thare^P -o-nu** ken⟨echiyy

‘we (dl excl) ladder-LOC-ABL fell down’

“We fell down from the ladder.”

English

- a. * Tom came **at from Harry's house**.
- b. * John brought the book **on from Jenie**.

3.2.8 Dative

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

- a. n<γ ? **man -C s pl -C** pirun<
 'I man-DAT book-ABS gave'
 "I gave man a book."
- b. n<γ ? **s pl -n man -n** pirun<
 'I book-Def.ABS man-Def.DAT gave'
 "I gave the book to the man."

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

- a. She gave **the cat** a dish of milk.
 NOM DAT ACC
- b. He sent a letter **to his friend**.
 NOM ACC DAT
- c. she bought a pen **for her sister**.
 NOM ACC DAT
- d.* He sent **a letter his friend**.

3.2.9 Vocative

Limbu makes use of the vocative case inflectionally, suffix ‘-e’ for singular, ‘se’ for non-singular, and ‘-o’ for the terms ‘ mb ’ (father), ‘ mm ’ (mother), etc. For example,

a. **yum -e !**

‘grandmother-VOC’

“Grandmother!”

b. **tenûb() –e !**

‘friend-VOC!’

“Friend!”

c. **tenûb() se!**

‘friends-VOC’

“Friends!”

d. **mm -e! or mm -o !**

‘mother-VOC mother-VOC!’

“Mother !” “Mother !”

e. **mb -e! or mb -o!**

‘father-VOC’ ‘father-VOC’

“Father !” “Father !”

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

a. **J HN**, **DÌNner**'s ready.

VOC

b. And **THÀT**, my **FRIÉND**S, concludes my **SPÈE**CH.

VOC

c. My **BÀ**CK is aching, **DÓ**Ctor.

VOC

CHAPTER FOUR

FINDINGS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

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

4.1 Findings

The major findings of this research are as follows:

4.1.1 Cases Identified in the Limbu Language

- i. The cases which are identified in the Limbu Language are: ergative, absolutive instrumental, genitive, comitative, locative, ablative, dative, and vocative.
- ii. The Limbu language makes definite-indefinite and singular-plural distinction in case marking in ergative and absolutive cases.
- iii. The suffixes are the main case markers in Limbu.
- iv. The Limbu ergative, instrumental and genitive cases are marked by the same case markers.
- v. The Limbu absolutive and dative cases are marked in the same way.
- vi. The Limbu personal pronouns, except third person plural, have different genitive case marker than those of other nouns.
- vii. The Limbu is an ergative-absolutive type of language.

4.1.2 Similarities between the Limbu and English Cases

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

- ii. The Limbu ergative case and English nominative case for transitive verb are similar since both of them refer to the grammatical relation i.e. ‘subject’ of transitive verb.
- iii. The Limbu absolutive case for transitive verb and English accusative case are similar since both of them refer to the grammatical relation i.e. ‘direct object’ of transitive verb.
- iv. The same case marker can occur with various cases on both the languages.
- v. If there is only one case in a sentence, it automatically becomes the subject in both the languages.
- vi. The verb plays a central role in determining cases in both the languages.
- vii. There is no difference in the language used by male and female in the Limbu, so it is not a sexist language as English.
- viii. Some cases can occur without main verb in a sentence in both the languages.
- ix. Both the Limbu and English languages have possessive pronouns with determinative and pronominal functions.

4.1.3 Differences between the Limbu and English Cases

- i. Although the cases instrumental, genitive, comitative, locative, ablative, dative, and vocative are common to both languages, they are marked differently.
- ii. Although the Limbu ergative and English nominative cases are similar but they are not the same. The Limbu ergative case refers only to the subject of transitive verb but English nominative case refers to the subject of both transitive and intransitive verbs.

- iii. Although Limbu absolutive and English accusative cases are also similar but they are not the same. The Limbu absolutive case refers to the object of transitive verb and subject of intransitive verb but English accusative case refers only to the object of transitive verb.
- iv. The Limbu is an ergative-absolutive type of language whereas English is a nominative-accusative type of language.
- v. The Limbu language makes singular-plural definite distinction in case marking in ergative and absolutive cases but English does not make such distinction in nominative and accusative case marking.
- vi. The Limbu language does not make ergative-absolutive distinction in case marking for personal pronouns, except third person plural pronoun, but English makes nominative-accusative distinction for personal pronouns.
- vii. In the Limbu language, nominals encode two types of case marking: zero-marking and suffix, whereas English nominals encode three types of case marking: zero-marking, preposition, and word order.
- viii. Dative and absolutive cases are marked in the same way in Limbu but in English dative and accusative cases are marked differently.
- ix. Constituent order is significant in English but it is not so significant in Limbu.
- x. The Limbu personal and possessive pronouns are categorized under three numbers: singular, dual, and plural but the English has only two numbers: singular and plural.
- xi. In the Limbu language, there is the existence of inclusive and exclusive personal and possessive pronouns for first person dual and plural but such existence is not found in English.

- xii. There is no male-female distinction for third person singular personal and possessive pronouns in Limbu but English has distinct forms for male and female personal and possessive pronouns.
- xiii. The Limbu language uses different vocative case markers for singular and non-singular nouns but English uses the same case marking for both singular and non-singular nouns.
- xiv. Locative and ablative case suffixes can be combined to specify the location in the Limbu but in English that is not possible.
- xv. Case marker occurs after the noun in Limbu but it occurs before the noun in English.
- xvi. The objective pronoun can occur in the subjective position in Limbu since it has no ergative-absolutive distinction for personal pronoun except third person plural whereas English objective (accusative) pronoun can not occur in the subject (nominative) position since it has nominative accusative distinction for personal pronouns.
- xvii. It is mentioned earlier that the case markers are suffixes in Limbu and prepositions in English. This is what is observed as the main difference between case marking in Limbu and English. The case suffixes and prepositions in both the languages are given below:

Limbu

- 1. Ergative : -lle,-le,-ille,-il,-l,-re,-r
- 2. Absolutive : -2,-in,-en,-n
- 3 Instrumental : -lle,-le,-ille,-il,-l,-re,-r

- 4. Genitive : -lle,-le,-ille,-il,-l,-re,-r
-in
-illen,-llen,-len,-ren

- 5. Comitative : -nu
- 6. Locative :-o,-lekkh n</-le?bj n</-lepsan<,can<dh n</-jan<dh n<,-
thun<dh n</-dhun<dh n<,-siγ n</-sit n<,-phos n</-
bhos n<,-eγ n<,-taγ n<
- 7. Ablative :-nu,-l m,-onu,-ol m
- 8. Dative :-2,-in,-en,-n
- 9. Vocative :-e,-o, se

English

- 1. Nominative : -2
- 2. Accusative : -2
- 3. Instrumental : with, by
- 4. Genitive : -'s, of
- 5. Comitative : with
- 6. Locative : on, in, at, over, under, above, below, towards, to,
behind, in front of, by, next to, etc.
- 7. Ablative : from
- 8. Dative : to, for
- 9. Vocative : -2

4.2 Recommendations and Pedagogical Implications

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

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

- i. English has clear nominative-accusative distinction regarding personal pronouns but Limbu uses the same pronoun for both ergative and absolutive cases, except third person plural one for ergative case. So, the Limbu native speakers should be made aware of this fact by giving enough examples of the English nominative and accusative pronouns.
- ii. The Limbu 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 Limbu native speakers should emphasize this difference and teach them by providing sufficient exercises while teaching case marking system.
- iii. 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 reversed. But the Limbu does not have such restriction except in some cases. So, the teacher teaching English as a foreign or second language to the Limbu 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.
- iv. English marks dative and accusative cases differently but the Limbu marks dative and absolutive cases in the same way. So, the Limbu native speakers who are learning English as second or foreign language are to be made clear that how English marks them differently.
- v. English has male-female distinction on third person singular personal and possessive pronouns but the Limbu lacks it. So, Limbu native speakers who are learning English as second or foreign language may commit error. Hence, Limbu native speakers should be made aware of this fact.

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

- i. The Limbu is ergative-absolutive type of language so it treats subject of transitive verb in one way but subject of intransitive verb and object of transitive verb in other way whereas English is nominative-accusative type of language so it treats subject of both transitive and intransitive verbs in one way but object of transitive verb in other way. By highlighting this difference English students' consciousness can be raised in teaching Limbu case system. Research is important for language teachers who are teaching Limbu as a second language.
- ii. The Limbu language marks singular definite ergative in one way but marks plural definite on other way. Similarly, it marks singular definite absolutive in one way but marks plural definite absolutive on other way whereas such different marking for definite singular nominative and plural definite nominative, and singular definite accusative and plural definite accusative is not found in English. So, the language teachers teaching Limbu should be aware of this fact.
- iii. The Limbu language has singular, dual, and plural personal and possessive pronouns. Similarly, it has inclusive and exclusive personal and possessive pronoun for first person dual and plural pronouns whereas English has only singular and plural, but it has no inclusive and exclusive pronouns. So, the teacher teaching Limbu as second language should be conscious of this fact.

- iv. The Limbu language can combine more than one case markers together but such combination is not available in English. So, the teachers teaching Limbu should be conscious about this matter.
- v. The Limbu language uses different vocative case markers for singular and non-singular but English uses the same vocative case marker for both singular and non-singular nouns. So, the language teachers teaching Limbu should be aware of this fact.
- vi. The Limbu case marking system is different and complicated than that of English. So, this research is significant for language teachers who are teaching Limbu to English native speakers.

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

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Appendix-I

ROMAN TRANSLITERATION OF DEVANAGARI SCRIPT

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

Nepali Alphabet	Roman Transliteration	Nepali Alphabet	Roman Transliteration
अ	a	ञ्	ñ
आ		ट्	t□
इ	i	ठ्	t□h
ई		ड्	d□
उ	u	ढ्	d□h
ऊ		ण्	
ऋ	r□	त्	t
ए	e	थ्	th
ऐ	ai	द्	d
ओ	o	ध्	dh
औ	au	न्	n
अँ	am,anM	प्	p
अं	ã	फ्	ph
:	h□	ब्	b
क्	k	भ्	bh
ख्	kh	म्	m
ग्	g	य्	y
घ्	gh	र्	r
ङ्	nM	ल्	l
च्	c	व्	w/v
छ्	ch	श्	s□
ज्	j	ष्	s
झ	jh	ह्	h

Note: (a) In this study, ‘n<<’ and ‘γ’ are used instead of Turner’s ‘nM’ and ‘g’ for Nepali ‘ङ्’ and ‘ग्’ respectively.

(b) The symbol ‘?’ is used for the glottal stop sound which is not mentioned by Turner (1931).

Appendix-II

Interview Schedule

This interview questionnaire has been prepared to draw information for the research work entitled **Case in English and Limbu: A Comparative Study** which is being carried out under the guidance of **Dr. Anjana Bhattarai**, central Department of English Language Education, Faculty of Education, T.U., Kirtipur. The researcher hopes that your co-operation will be a great contribution to this research work.

Thank you.

Birendra Kumar Limbu
Tribhuvan University

Name (opt):

VDC:

Sex:

Age:

How do you say the following sentences in Limbu?

1. I called them (pl). मैले तिनीहरुलाई (बहु.) बोलाएँ ।
2. I laughed with him. म ऊसँग हाँसे ।
3. I beat him with a stick. मैले उस्लाई लठ्ठीले कुटेँ ।
4. He slept in the bed. ऊ ओछ्यानमा सुत्यो ।
5. He beat me by hand. उस्ले मलाई हातले कुट्यो ।
6. We (dl.incl.) laughed. हामी (द्वि.समा.) हास्यौँ ।
7. We (dl.incl.) chased them (pl.) with gun. हामीले (द्वि. समा.) तिनीहरुलाई (बहु) बन्दुकसँग लखेट्यौँ ।
8. They (pl.) went towards the stream. तिनीहरु (बहु.) खोलातिर गए ।

9. They (pl.) chased us (dl.incl.) with a dog. तिनीहरूले (वहु.) हामीलाई (द्वि.समा.) कुकुरसँग लेखेटे ।
10. We (dl. excl.) fell down from the ladder. हामीहरू (द्वि. असमा.) भन्दाडबाट लड्यौं ।
11. We (dl.excl.) ate the mango. हामीले (द्वि. असमा.) आँप खायौं ।
12. We (pl.incl.) danced at the yard. हामी (वहु. समा.) आँगनमा नाच्यौं ।
13. We (pl.incl.) helped them (dl.). हामीले (वहु. समा.) तिनीहरूलाई (द्वि.) सघायौं ।
14. We (pl.excl.) played in the school. हामी (वहु. असमा.) विद्यालयमा खेल्यौं ।
15. We (pl.excl.) ate meat. हामीले (वहु.असमा.) मासु खायौं ।
16. You (sg.) went towards the jungle. तिमि जंगलतिर गयौं ।
17. You (sg.) cut down tree in the jungle. तिमिले जंगलमा रुख ढाल्यौं ।
18. You (dl.) sat on the floor. तिमिहरू (द्वि.) भूँईमा बस्यौं ।
19. You (dl.) gave Hangma a pen. तिमिहरूले (द्वि.) हाङ्मालाई कलम दियौं ।
20. You (pl.) ran towards the home. तिमिहरू (वहु.) घरतिर दगुच्यौं ।
21. You (pl.) put the book into the bag. तिमिहरूले (वहु.) किताव भोलामा हाल्यौं ।
22. They (dl.) came from Kathmandu. तिनीहरू (द्वि.) काठमाण्डौदेखि आए ।
23. They (dl.) brought the clothes. उनीहरूले (द्वि.) कपडाहरू ल्याए ।
24. The hen kills a snake. कुखुराले सर्प मार्छ ।
25. A hen killed a snake. (एउटा) कुखुराले (एउटा) सर्प मार्यो ।
26. The hen killed the snake. कुखुराले सर्प मार्यो ।
27. A snake died. (एउटा) सर्प मार्यो ।
28. The snake died. सर्प मार्यो ।
29. The duck is with the hen. हाँस कुखुरासँग छ ।
30. The louse is on your cloth. तिम्रो कपडामा जुम्रा छ ।
31. My mother killed the louse with her nail. मेरो आमाले नडले जुम्रा मार्नु भयो ।
32. Who killed the dog? कस्ले कुकुर मार्यो ?

33. What broke the egg? केले अण्डा फुटायो ?
34. This (person) found the money on the way. यसले बाटोमा पैसा भेट्यो ।
35. That (person) opened the door with the key. तसले चाबीले ढोका खोल्थो ।
36. These (persons) lost money in the market. यिनीहरूले बजारमा पैसा हराए ।
37. The fire burnt my hand. आगोले मेरो हात पोल्थो ।
38. The fire burns. आगोले पोल्छ ।
39. The sun dried the cloth. घामले लुगा सुक्यो ।
40. The key opened the door. चाबीले ढोका खोल्थो ।
41. The men killed the snake with the stones. मान्छेहरूले ढुङ्गा (हरु) ले सर्प मारे ।
42. A dog chased a cat. (एउटा) कुकुरले (एउटा) बिरालो लखेट्यो ।
43. The dog chased the cat. कुकुरले बिरालो लखेट्यो ।
44. The dogs chased the cat. कुकुरहरूले बिरालो लखेटे ।
45. The men killed the goat. मान्छेहरूले बाख्रा मारे ।
46. A mango fell down from the tree. आँप रुखबाट झर्न्यो ।
47. A cat hid behind you. (एउटा) बिरालो तिम्रो पछाडि लुक्यो ।
48. The cat sat in front of me. बिरालो मेरो अगाडि बस्यो ।
49. I gave a man money. मैले (एउटा) मान्छेलाई पैसा दिएँ ।
50. A man gave me money. (एउटा) मान्छेले मलाई पैसा दियो ।
51. I gave a book to a man. मैले (एउटा) मान्छेलाई (एउटा) किताव दिएँ ।
52. Yuma sent a photo to a friend. युमाले (एउटा) फोटो (एउटा) साथीलाई पठाइन् ।
53. He gave a book to a boy. उसले (एउटा) किताव (एउटा) साथीलाई दियो ।
54. He gave the book to the man. उसले किताव केटोलाई दियो ।
55. My right eye doesn't see well. मेरो दाहिने आँखाले राम्ररी देख्दैन ।
56. A cow ate grass. (एउटा) गाईले घास खायो ।
57. The cow ate the grass. गाईले घास खायो ।
58. Luna grazed the cow below the house. लुनाले घरमुनी गाई चराइन् ।

59. A cow died in the shed. (एउटा) गाई खोल्मामा मर्‍यो ।
60. The cow died in the shed. गाई खोल्मामा मर्‍यो ।
61. They (pl.) made a playground above my house. तिनीहरूले (बहु) मेरो घरमाथि खेल मैदान बनाए ।
62. Hari saw the playground. हरिले खेल मैदान देख्यो ।
63. The king called me. राजाले मलाई बोलाउनु भयो ।
64. Ngamukhang killed the goat with Khukuri. डामुकहाङले खुकुरीले बाखा मार्‍यो ।
65. Ngamukhang's hand is trembling. डामुकहाङको हात काँप्न थालेको छ ।
66. The guests drank the millet beer in my house. पाहुनाहरूले मेरो घरमा जाँड खाए ।
67. The guests slept in your house. पाहुनाहरू तिम्रो घरमा सुते ।
68. The millet beer is sweet. जाँड गुलियो छ ।
69. Numa caught the cow's tail. नुमाले गाईको पुच्छर समात्न ।
70. Kamal came from Ram's house. कमल रामको घरदेखि आयो ।
71. Whose pen is this? यो कलम कसको हो ?
72. This pen is mine. यो कलम मेरो हो ।
73. This pen is ours (dl.incl.) यो कलम हाम्रो (द्वि. समा.) हो ।
74. This pen is ours (dl.excl.) यो कलम हाम्रो (द्वि. असमा.) हो ।
75. This pen is ours (pl.incl.) यो कलम हाम्रो (बहु. समा.) हो ।
76. This pen is ours (pl.excl.) यो कलम हाम्रो (बहु. असमा.) हो ।
77. This pen is yours (sg.) यो कलम तिम्रो हो ।
78. This pen is yours (dl.) यो कलम तिमिहरूको (द्वि.) हो ।
79. This pen is yours (pl.) यो कलम तिमिहरूको (बहु.) हो ।
80. This pen is his/hers (sg.) यो कलम उस्को/उनीको हो ।
81. This pen is theirs (dl.) यो कलम तिनीहरूको (द्वि.) हो ।
82. This pen is theirs (pl.) यो कलम तिनीहरूको (बहु.) हो ।

83. Ram's cloth रामको कपडा
84. Luna's book लुनाको किताव
85. Cow's tail गाईको पुच्छर
86. Luna and Hari's house लुना र हरिको घर
87. The monkey's tail is long. बादरको पुच्छर लामो छ ।
88. My house मेरो घर
89. Our (dl.incl.) house हाम्रो (द्वि.समा.) घर
90. Our (dl.excl.) house हाम्रो (द्वि.असमा.) घर
91. Our (pl.incl.) book हाम्रो (बहु.समा.) किताव
92. Our (pl.excl.) book हाम्रो (बहु.असमा.) किताव
93. Your house तिम्रो घर
94. Your (dl.) book तिमिहरूको (द्वि.) किताव
95. Your (pl.) book तिमिहरूको (बहु.) किताव
96. His/her book उसको/उनको किताव
97. Their (dl.) book तिनीहरूको (द्वि.) किताव
98. Their (pl.) book तिनीहरूको (बहु.) किताव
99. Ram with his dog sat under the tree. राम उसको कुकुरसँग रुखमुनि बस्यो ।
100. The dog is at the door. कुकुर ढोकामा छ ।
101. There was a snake over his head. उसको टाउको माथि सर्प थियो ।
102. There is a school by Ram's house. रामको घर छेउमा स्कुल छ ।
103. Misesk gave a pen to Mirak. मिसेकले मिराकलाई कलम दियो ।
104. Misesk gave Mirak a pen. मिसेकले मिराकलाई कलम दियो ।
105. Sita felt cold. सीतालाई जाडो भयो ।
106. The snow melted. हिउँ पग्लियो ।
107. Suman touched the snow. सुमनले हिउँ छोयो ।

108. Rita cooked her husband a delicious meal. रीताले उस्को श्रीमानलाई मिठो खानेकुरा पकाइदिइन् ।
109. The boy hit the girl. केटोले केटीलाई हिर्कायो ।
110. Grandmother ! बोजु !
111. Friend ! come here. साथी ! यता आउनुहोस् ।
112. Friends ! Lets sit. साथी हो ! बसौं ।
113. Mother ! आमा !
114. Father ! बुबा !