



An Exploratory Study of Case Features of Thali: An Indigenous Pakistani Language

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Abstract- The paper aims to identify, generate and regenerate the case system in Thali, an undescribed, undocumented and unexplored variety of Punjabi. Thali is spoken in the vast expanse of Thal located between Jhelum and Sindh rivers from north to south 190 miles, and a maximum breadth of 70 miles district Layyah of Punjab, Pakistan by 1,120,951 people. This study compares and contrasts Thali case system with that of the English case system. The data were collected from four native speakers of the Thali language. The structure formulated by Andrew Carnegie was used to ascertain evidence to evaluate the prevailing case marking models. It was analyzed that the grammar of the Thali language is mainly concerned with the word order, verb as a head case marking, and other morphological and syntactic constructions. The established and flexible word order in Thali is SOV with postpositions where nouns get their position by postpositions. On the contrary, English has the preposition with SVO word order. Morphological marking is also very common in all types of cases in Thali. On the contrary, case system in English is not only morphologically marked. In academia, to conceptualize these different linguistic structures become a challenging job for Thali learners. Finally, this paper finds out some pedagogical strategies in the domain of EFL for Thali learners to teach and learn the English case system as a foreign language.

Keywords: case, direct, vocative, ablative, oblique, locative/instrumental

I. INTRODUCTION

Thali belongs to the family of Lahnda group of languages which is used by 102 million speakers all over Pakistan and it is the most extensively spoken language in the Thal region. Thali is the native language of the people who live in Punjab, the region of Pakistan and India. Thali in Pakistan has been using the Perso-Arabic script from the ancient time of the Mughal realm. Thali is combined with indigenous languages like Jhatki, of the areas where Thali settlers have established themselves. The Thali language has borrowed greatly from Persian, Urdu, Sanskrit, Hindi, and English. A great many words taken from Saraiki and Punjabi are also contributing to the evolution of modern Thali.

The grammar of the Thali language is mainly concerned with the word order, verb as a head case marking, and other morphological and syntactic constructions. The established and flexible word order in Thali is SOV with postpositions where nouns get their position by postpositions. Thali like its sister language Punjabi, extricates two genders, two numbers, and five cases of direct, vocative, ablative, oblique, and locative/instrumental (Dosanjhp, 1976, p.86). The last two cases have fundamentally reduced usage now because they are merged under a larger umbrella of peripheral case markers. Among all these aspects, this study analyzes the case marking system of Thali language. Thali language has the rich morphology, which paves ground for studying its grammar in a better way. It also provides an insight to understand its case system. The status of noun within a sentence can be best determined by understanding the case system of language. The type of verb used is best elaborated by the position of a noun. Verb plays significant role as head of the sentence, even the dependency on case markers for clear status of a noun in a sentence. The argument structure fixes the semantic meaning determined by a verb and transitivity and valency of verb provides a way for a noun to be selected as its arguments.

Theoretical framework of Andrew Carnegie is used which will assist new researchers to discover evidence to estimate prevailing case marking organism and models. The case system of Thali can be compared with Urdu

and English languages with the established grammar system. Along with Urdu and English, Hindi language is also used for a clear representation of Thali language as Urdu and Hindi are also considered sisterlanguages. Case is a system of marking dependent nouns for the type of relationship they bear with their heads (Blake, 2004, p.18). According to Clackson (2007), Indo-European languages keep eight morphological cases. Modern languages have fewer cases because of the different word order and preposition convey information. The eight noun cases by Clackson (2007) include, Nominative, Accusative, Dative, Ablative, Genitive, Vocative, Locative and Instrumental. Subject and object of a verb can be marked by a case system. Languages diverge in cases that mark arguments, and lexical and syntactic conditions on specific cases. The syntactic projection of the arguments of a verb also diverges, as objects, subjects or oblique arguments. Verb assigns different argument structure to noun as subject object or oblique argument. Verb determines the noun to be at different places based on different features as gender and number agreement. Animate, and inanimate objects are carefully placed at subject or object argument. According to Kibort and Corbet, the case is one of the important morphosyntactic feature along with gender, person and number, as shown in the figure below:

Table 1
Morphosyntactic features (*Morphosyntactic features (Adapted from Kibort, 2010)*)

	participates in agreement	participates in government
gender	√	
number	√	
person	√	
case	√	√
definiteness	√?	
respect	√	

Case marking is an analysis of a complex phenomenon which is based on general principles related to syntax and morphology and has seemingly a link to cognitive systems. It clarifies that languages, developed on case systems take them to identify subjects and objects. The fact is established by consulting main body of research directed on argument structure that subject and object assortment is fundamentally determined by the thematic content related with the arguments of predicate (Jackendoff, 1972; Grimshaw, 1990). Which participants are assigned the role of agents and which are taken as patients? Since case is liable to mark such arguments, it shows a clear link between thematic content and marking the arrangements in case languages.

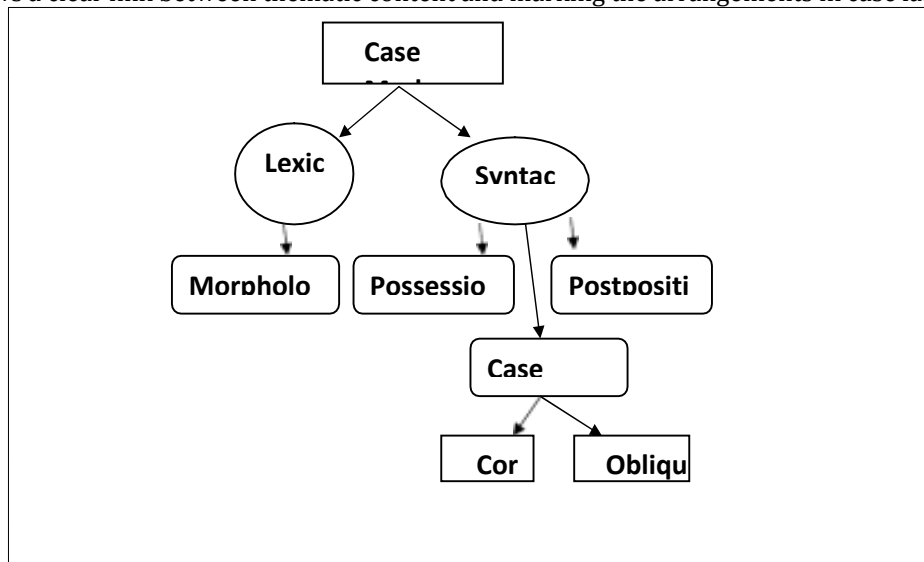


Fig 1: Case Markers in International Linguistics

The historical Indo-European languages consist of eight following cases: The nominative case, the accusative case, the dative case, the ablative case, the genitive case, the vocative case, the locative case, the instrumental case (Clackson, 2007) but Rizvi (2008, p.2) has elaborated more instrumental case system by relating it to case marker *seyin* Urdu, which are further explained in data analysis with specific reference to Thali. The range of the cases and distinction diverge from language to language. Case is found essentially on variations to the noun to designate the noun's part in the sentence.

Thali extricates two genders, two numbers, and five cases like its sister language Punjabi, direct, vocative, ablative, oblique, and locative/instrumental (Dosanjhp, 1976, p.86). Thali and Urdu, being sister languages possess a range of case markers to be compatible with their morphological requirements. The case marking system of Thali language is the focus of this study. The area of Computational linguistics is concerned with establishing rules in different languages for the development of soft wares. Thali language is one of the mainly used language of areas, Lyyah, Khoshab, Mianwanli, Bhakar of Pakistani province, Punjab. The focus of this study, however, is on the significant aspect of case markers and morphology in Thali language. Case marking system is required to establish proper footing for grammatical structure of Thali language. Being a flexible structure language, Thali needs to be studied with the markers assigning case and status of NPs. It is recognized that translation from one to other morphology is a tough contest that demands for profound linguistic analysis to be part of the translation procedure. English is taught as second language or foreign language, mostly through grammar translation method (Khurshid, 2014). This deep analysis of case markers in this study may help instructors to understand the learners' some of the confusions that arise from L1 interference. This study will develop the clear analysis of similarities and differences with other Lahnda group of languages. It will help to further facilitate language teachers with better approach of instruction by knowing the grammar of their own language.

1.1 The Cultural History of Thali

Thali language is mostly spoken in Layyah. It was the language of all people of Layyah before the creation of Pakistan but after the creation, people came from all over the India so Urdu and Punjabi are also spoken. Theeth (pure) Punjabi was spoken in the beginning but the new generation is more inclined towards Thali which can be pointed out as the combination of both Punjabi and Saraiki. The level of mutual intelligibility is very high because the native speakers of Thali can well understand other languages of Lahnda especially Saraiki, Punjabi and Hindko. The influence of Saraiki on Thali is very clear, which is an ancient language in the region from Rahim Yar Khan to Dera Ismael Khan. The ancient people here belong to some other far flung areas of Indo Pak, for example, Samra (سمرا), Samtia (سامتیه) came from Sindh, Lohanch (لوبانج), Gut (گٹ) from Delhi, Balochis from Balochistan, Jota (جوتا) people came from Kashmir and settled here. As time passed, these newcomers started speaking Thali which is considered the variety of Thali Saraiki (Shackle, 1982). According to my understanding, soon after two or three next generations, Thali will again be the language of almost 100% population.

Northern Seraiki has different names in different parts of the province Punjab. When Multan enjoyed the provincial status, the Sindh valley and in several other places of India, this language was called Multani but because there are Jaat people as well, so this language came to be known as Jatki later on. There are different viewpoints regarding the name of Thali language.

According to the critics, it was the civilized language of Sardars (chiefs), so people named it Seraiki or Serai due to respect. *Saro* means 'head' in Sindhi language. Apart from Southern Sindhi, it is also the language of sardars because in Sindhi language, Sarai means Sardar. In itself, Thali language is complete. It has its own rules and principles and grammar. The thing that makes it superior over other Indian languages is what Edward O' Brien (1914) said the expansive stock of vocabulary. In Multani language, there are number of Punjabi and Sindhi words. It has a larger stock of vocabulary. For agricultural terms, Multani language has its complete stock.

1.2. Geographical Origin of Thali

The dictionary meaning of *Thal* is dry land and the opposite of this is *jal*, 'water'. The word has been excessively used in literary books in different languages, published in India. According to Merani (2016) and Muzammil (2016) "The word *Thal* is not form the local perspective but was very popular word used by the contemporary poets and men of letters in "India". Akram Merani (2017) demarcated the boundaries of *Thal* region as he pointed out, 'on the one side of *Thal* is the river Sindh, on the other side river *Chinab* flows and river *Jehlam* but at Taremu head both river meet along the Thal desert with the length of 190 miles and 70 mile width which makes an irregular triangle. It consists of six districts of Punjab including Mianwali, Khoshab, Bhakhar, Jhang, Lyyah and Muzaffargarh but the biggest part of *Thalis* in the areas of Lyyah and

Bhakhar". The position of Thali dialect is indicated in the following ethnologue:

Thali dialect	
Native to	Pakistan
Language family	Indo-European <ul style="list-style-type: none">• Indo-Iranian<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Indo-Aryan<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Northwestern<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Punjabi<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Lahnda<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Saraiki<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Thali dialect
Language codes	
ISO 639-3	—
Glottolog	thal1241  ^[1]
 <p>The map shows the geographical location of the Thali dialect in Pakistan. A red dot labeled "Thali dialect" is placed in the northwestern part of the country, specifically in the region of FATA (Federal Territory of Islamabad) and the northern districts of Punjab. The rest of Pakistan is shaded in light yellow, and the surrounding regions are in grey.</p>	

Fig 2: Ethnologue of Thali Dialect

Thali derived its name from Thal desert 'a dry land' which is the antonym of jal 'water'. The name Thali or Thalochi is alternatively used by the native speakers living in Thal region. The vast expanse is located between the Jhelum and Sindh rivers near the Pothohar Plateau, with a total length from north to south 190 miles, and a maximum breadth of 70 miles and minimum breadth 20 miles which makes an irregular triangle. (Merani 2012). River Sindh and River Chinab on the one side of Thal, River Jhelum on the other side joins at Head Tremun. The Sindh Sagar Doab is the area between the Indus River and the Jhelum River. (Hussain 2012).

The word Thali is the combination of two words "Punj" (five) and "Aabi" (water) ascribed as land of five rivers. Punjab is the representation of geographical estimate of people using Thali language as their mother language (Bhatia, 2013, p.25). It is measured as one of the most extensively used languages of the world. Recounting the Origin of Thali, it is projected as constituent of Indo-Aryan family sprang from Indo-European Class. According to linguists, footprints of Thali language can be traced as historical language and can be located with many historic Indo-Aryan languages (Grierson, 1917, Masica, 1993). Since that time, Thali has gone through various stages of expansion and modification.

After the advent of Islam in this region in India, the speakers of this language got diverged positions and provided a different prospect to the growth of this language. After the existence of Pakistan this gap enlarged and due to varying cultural preferences and religious affiliations, Thali developed within three main communities. Thali mainly developed in the hands of Meerani rulers especially, Ghazi Khan who made efforts to develop the areas of Thal till occupation of British rule in 1880. After the birth of Pakistan, an organization *Thal Development Authority* was established for the rehabilitation of the people of Thal. Thali reached the modern status of being the most extensively used language in the areas of Thal like Lyyah, Bhakar, Mianwali and Khoshab. (Bailey, 1904, p.2).

1.3 Development of Thali Literature

Thali Language has been used to transmit directions and moralize its message since 14th century (Thind, 2014). In different eras, different people and sects used it according to their own preference, but mainly it's the language of the local residents used for their social and religious matters. In the beginning, it was used as pure Punjabi but with the passage of time new dialectical changes took place among the speakers. Saraiki is considered the very ancient form of modern Thali (Grierson 1918). Beside different outsiders like Smara, Samtia, Lobanch and Baloach communities, they have produced bulk of literature using Thali as their medium. Classical literature consists of the fragments the written work by Hazrat Baha-ul-Haq Zikria, Hazra Aynait Shah Bukhari and Hazrat Lal Hussain Karaor were great Sufis, legendary poets who contributed for Thali literary tradition. Medieval age starting from 16th century contributed a great deal in the evolution of Thali language. That era came under the patronage of Mughal Emperors and called Mughal period as well. Sikhs and Muslims mutually contributed for the growth of literature and hence this is the ripened epoch for Thali literature.

After the arrival of Britain in India, Thali literary figures also took a turn like Victorian writers by working on new genre of literature. Novels and short stories along with poetry grasped the attention of Thali writers in colonial era and reached modern times. Modern Thali has become amalgamation of different languages like Punjabi, Saraiki and Hindku. Thali language has been a source to write folk, religious, and political text but Thali does not have its own linguistic text only Perso-Arabic script has been used as language writing system. Now, modern literature has come out of the limitations of being used only for religious scripts. The western and modern linguistic waves, especially English, influenced this language and its literature (Gul, 2018).

1.4 Purpose of the Study

This study aims to present Thali in comparison with English with the profound exploration of the case marking structure. It provides convenience to locate the range of disparity in case marking in both languages. For argument charting, it offers a comprehensive investigation regarding the semantic case marking. It determines the specific case markers with usage to highlight the similarities and dissimilarities in Thali and English. This study provides a footing to find an instructive study of the perceived asymmetrical case marking system in both languages. The case marking system of Thali will pave grounds for scrutinizing its other constructions of grammatical structure.

1.6 Cases in English Grammar

Nineteenth century has given rise to the concept of case and adposition (Hjelmslev, 1935, p. 84). Various case

theories recognize six main cases which are recognized: nominative, vocative, accusative, genitive, dative, and ablative. Each case performs a number of functions. Fundamentally these cases are marked to perform some basic functions, as nominative encodes subject and marks noun in relation to its predicate (Markman, 1999, p. 847). Accusative demarks direct object, genitive is used to mark the complement of a verb, dative functions to mark indirect object of the verb. Ablative case has the capacity to merge three cases or work at three situations as locative, instrumental, or source. All these arguments are elaborated through following example of English language.

1. *The soldier gave the guest a gun with his own hands.*

The argument before verb is subject argument performing action; direct object is object argument and indirect object is assigned dative case and noun in prepositional phrase is not required argument but it marks instrumental case. Some languages have the grammatical patterns in which it is not necessary that case is marked on noun or pronoun only but it can be assigned to other classes as adjectives or adverbs also. Vocative case appears to call or address someone. It has a different behavior from other cases because vocative is not dependent of a verb or any head, rather it exists outside of heads effect. Vocative is used individually. Basically it is inserted parenthetically outside a syntactic construction. Vocative is not considered a case in some languages but addition of final suffix makes it realized as case marker, which is marked structurally (mentioned in detail in analysis section)

1.7 Objectives of Study

The objectives of the study are:

- To explore the organization of appropriate case markers inThali,
- To discover fundamental structure of case marking in Thalilanguage,
- To study the relationship between verb and complements and verb and adjuncts.

1.8 Research Questions

Following questions are addressed in the present study:

Q.1. What is case marking system in Thalilanguage?

Q.2. What is the probable range of case markers in Thalilanguage?

Q.3. How do these cases work individually in Thalilanguage?

II. RESEARCHPROCEDURE

This is a data base: empirical research based on qualitative research approach. The focus of the study was to describe the features of the language as they appear in daily use so qualitative approach was apt. A qualitative investigation is intended to provide an initial explanatory work. The opinions established by present study are built on a corpus of Thali language taken from the population consisting the native speakers of Thali from three tehsils (district divisions) i-e. *Layyah city, Chobara and ChowkAzam* of Layyah district. The analysis has been selected from a corpus of data extracted from the recordings of the study sample, 30 Thali speakers belonging to different social, regional and educational background were selected purposively.

Data generated for the current study constituting the corpus included structured and unstructured interviews (36) along with focus group discussions (FGDs). These are the tools/ instruments for collecting data. For language description, a good corpus that must be dialectally uniform, natural, varied, complete, repetitious and interesting is required (Samarin, 1967). The 4 RAs (research assistants) participated in the data collection procedure. A list of questions (narration, description, discussions, and folk stories) was prepared. The technique of elicitation was also used to fill gaps in data collection. For instance, special care was taken to confirm and clarify meanings of certain words, pronunciation of different lexemes and some grammatical structures.

2.1 Data Collection

A researcher of a study on language needs a knowledgeable and well informed mother tongue speaker for assistance during data collection process if that particular language is not mother tongue of the researcher (Zivenge 2009). For data collection the participants from different sections of society were selected.

Model sentences are arbitrarily used from different sources for additional evaluation.

The Thali spoken corpus was transcribed into Roman alphabet. At next level cases are labeled with relevant case markers which are taken from concerned frame work established for the study. The framework devised

by

2.2 Significance of Study

The current study can make a considerable linguistic resource about case markers as grammatical aspects in Thali. It is also an exponent of the claim that no other study has yet been conducted on documentation of Thali case markers by the contemporary linguists. It provides a list of similarities and differences of Thali with English. It can also be helpful for different other domains like translation studies and computational linguistics, for conducting projects on grammatical aspects of Thali. It can also be helpful in establishing linguistic software for indigenous languages like Thali. Furthermore, by documenting Thali in international case system, this study can include Thali in international linguistics.

2.3 Delimitations of Study

The results of this study must be considered cautiously and must not be measured as universal. The languages used in world have marked differences and cannot be analyzed with the present outcome. It is delimited to the assessment of case marking system of concerned language. Moreover, the data which assists as the proof for the appraisal of case marking system is taken from particular book and abides practical restrictions.

III. METHOD

3.1 Case Markers in Thali

Case is a system of marking dependent nouns for the type of relationship they bear with their heads (Blake, 2004, p.18). There are several linguistic traits similar with other Lahnda group of languages like case system of Thali. It also provides the range of disparity in case marking in Thali. Thali and Punjabi languages look similar and possess a range of case markers to be compatible with its morphological requirements.

Table 2 for Case Markers in Thali

Cases	Thali Markers	Urdu Markers
Nominative	--	--
Ergative	Ne	Ne
Accusative	<i>kū</i>	Ko
Dative	<i>kū</i>	Ko
Instrumental	<i>naal</i>	Se
Ablative	<i>onh</i>	Se
Locative	<i>tey</i> <i>vich</i>	Mein, par
Vocative	<i>ya , yo, iyo</i>	O
Genitive	<i>da , di, dey</i>	Ka, ki, kay

3.2 Direct/ Nominative Case

In Thali the direct case (nominative case) marks the grammatical subject of intransitive verbs, the subject of non-perfective tenses of transitive and ditransitive verbs, and most non-human, non-specific direct objects. The examples of noun in direct /nominative case is used for three relations; agent (subject), patient (object) of transitive verb and argument of intransitive verb as shown in the following examples:

- 2a. *raziatukarpakaindihey*
razia.NOMmeal.OBLcook.PRS.IPFV.F.Sg be.PRS.3.Sg
Razia cooks meal.
- 2b. *ohnraziakūsadhiahey*
he/she.NOMrazia.OBJ.Nto.POST call.PST.IPFV.M.3.Sg be.PRS.3.Sg
He called Razia.
- 3c. *raziaethainparhdihey*
razia.NOM here.ADV.PI study.PRS.IPFV.F.Sg be.PRS.3.Sg
Razia studies here.

In above example 33a, Razia is used as agent or subject of transitive verb. In example 33b, it is at object position as patient (object) of transitive verb *sadhia*, 'called'. In example 33c, it functions as argument of intransitive verb *parhdi*, 'studies'.

3.3 Oblique Case

Thali, like Punjabi, only marked masculines (Class1) show a distinct oblique case form in the singular. With feminine and unmarked masculine, the singular oblique case has a zero ending; its underlying obliqueness becomes apparent when such a noun appears in construction with a marked adjective; for example /vaḍḍe (SG.M.OBL) kār (SG.M.OBL) vitʃ/ 'in the big house'. For this reason, all nouns and pronouns that are followed by a postposition are considered here to be in the oblique case either overt or covert. Plural oblique case is marked on all nouns. All postpositions follow nouns or pronouns in the oblique case; however, the converse is not true; not all oblique nouns and pronouns are followed by a postposition.

Oblique case is the objective case, it is used when a noun is the object of the verb or postposition in a sentence generally, and noun is followed by a postposition as shown below:

- 3a. *mein scooter chaldahaan*
I.NOM. motorbike.OBLdrive.PRS.IPFV.M.Sg be.PRS.M.1.Sg
I know how to drive motorbike.
- 3b. *scooter di keematchalihazarhey*
Motorbike.OBLof.POSTprice.NOM forty thousand. CAR be.PRS.3.Sg
The price of motorbike is forty thousand rupees.

In above example, *scooter*, 'motorbike' in both examples is in oblique case. It is used as object of the verb *chalenda*, 'drive' in example 34a, while, it is used as object of postposition *di* 'of' in example 34b.

3.5 Ablative

Aside from the three cases regularly formed for all nouns (direct, oblique, and vocative), the ablative occurs most frequently in Thali. The ablative case ending occurs only with singular nouns (including infinitives), which generally refer to places, times, events, or conditions. It is formed by suffixing the ablative case ending /ũ/ to the oblique singular but /ō/ in Punjabi, e.g. /pāsā/ 'side, direction (dir)' → /pāse/ 'side (obl)' → /pāseō ~ paseũ / 'from the side (abl)'.

The most basic concrete meaning of the ablative is direction or motion away from (SOURCE), which develops into abstract meaning of displacement, change of condition, involuntary causation, or comparison; for example, /æstōvād(d)/ 'more than this'. With animates, ablative relations are usually indicated with postpositions, which themselves can take the ablative ending.

- /kin/, /kol/, /kinũ//kolũ/ → (while /kolō/ is used in the Punjabi adjoining areas) 'from (a person)'
/əndər/ 'in, inside' → /əndərō/ 'from inside' e.g.
- 4a. *eh paṇi bottle de androonniklahey.*
this.DEMwater.N bottle GEN in. POST come.IPFV.PST be.PRS.3.Sg
This water came out of bottle
- /ich/, /vitʃ/ (while vitʃ is also commonly used in Punjabi and Thali) in, at /vitʃō/ 'from inside; among'
- 4b. *eh keeraehnkachrevichoonnikliahayi.*
this. DEM wormN.Sg- DIR this.DEMmelon.N.Sgin.POST come. IPFV.PST PP-M.SG
This worm came out of this melon.

The distinction in meaning between the form of a postposition or adverb with or without the ablative ending is sometimes minimal, as with /picchō / ‘afterwards, later, from behind’ /kadhən/and /kidhō/ ‘when?’ With plurals, postpositional expressions are always employed, as in example 4c

4c *Chavehrenchohrā kolū vadhkamkeetahayi*
chehr-īchōhr- ā kolōnvadhkammkīta-e
 Girls-PL.DIR boy-PL.OBL than more work do.PP-SG.M
 ‘The girls did more work than the boys.’

4d *budh- ā chohr- ā kolōnvadhkammkīta-hayi*
 oldmen -PL.DIR boy-PL.OBL than more work do.PP-SG.M
 The oldmen did more work than the boys.

The ablative infinitive appears in constructions like those in the following examples one from Thali and one from Punjabi.

4e *ghareeb da jughavas-n-ūrehgia -hayi*
 Poor (M) GEN house flourish V OBL-ABL stop go.PP-M.SG
 The poor man’s house stopped flourishing.

In *ablative case*, nouns are mostly used with postpositions and only in singular forms shown below:

4f. *baluthtoun(tō) dhathahayi*
 child.NOM. camel.N.ABLfall.PST.IPFV.M.Sg be.PST.M.3.Sg
 Child fell from camel.

In above example, 35a.*uthtoun (tō)*, ‘from camel’ is formed from *uthtoun* is ablative case.

3.6 Locative Case

The locative case is no longer fully productive in Thali, only a few nouns having distinct locative forms. Some high frequency nouns with original (older) locative singular forms are /hasptal-e/ ‘to-at hospital’, /than-e/ ‘to-at Police station’/jugh-e/ ‘to-at house’and /maseet-e/ ‘in the mosque’

However, the locative is still somewhat productive in the Panjabi, since the locative ending also occurs with some unmarked masculine nouns, e.g /bazāre/ ‘in, to the bazaar’ some feminine nouns, e.g. /shubrat-e/ ‘in the night of Shub-raat’and even the English loanword ‘school’ in /skul-e/ ‘at,to school.’

5a *O harvell-e sāvray (sāvr-e) nivenda.*
 He -VOC every time OBL in-laws-OBL not go-IP.SG.M
 He does not go to in-laws every time.

The locative plural is formed by suffixing /-ī/ or /-ē/ to the stem ; with vowel-final stems the final vowels merge with the ending in Thali , usually /-ī/ appears with feminine and /-ē/ with masculine, but this is not necessarily the case with other languages of Lahnda group like Panjabi, Hindko and Shahpuri, etc. A small number of nouns have both ablative singular and locative plural forms.

3.7 Instrumental case

The fifth common case in Thali is *instrumental case* that shows a noun is the instrument or a mean to perform some action. ‘*naal*’ is used, in Thali, to mark inanimate nouns as instruments used to perform some action. Inflectional morpheme /in/ with base form of noun, is used to form instrumental case in Thali.The plural forms of Thali nouns identify this case as shown in the examples below:

6a *main churinaalkachrikappi*
 1P.Sg.Nom knife.Sg.F-instrumental melon.Sg.M.Nomcut.Sg.Perf
 I cut melon with knife.

6b. *alichabinaalgaddi da darkholay*
 ali.Sg.M. key.Sg.F-Inst car’s door.M.Sg.Possessiveopen.Sg.M.Perf
 Ali opened the door of the car with key.

6c. *ohn hath-in datrinappiwenda aye.*
 He.NOM with hands.INSuckle.Ncarry.
 He is going with suckle.

6d. *ohnapne hath-in mehman nu chahditti*
 He.NOMown.GEN with hands. INS guest tea. N give.PST
 He gave tea to the guest with his own hands.

ohnapne pare-in football nu thodmaria.

In above example 37a & b, describes the use of instrumental case assigner *naal* whichmarks the tool or aid to perform the action and knife and key are marked as instruments to cut the melon and to open the door. Possessive noun phrase, *gaddi da bohais* marked withmarker *da*. The opening tool of the subject is *Chabi*(key)

and the position of *Chabi*(key) and knife are explained by *Naal*. On the other hand, examples 37c & 37d show the inflectional morpheme /in/, *hath-in*, ‘with hands’ and with base form of noun, are used to form instrumental case. The use of postposition *withis* indicated implicitly which can be traced by the sound patterns articulated by the native speakers. The implicit use of postposition with nouns also performs activities related with time constraints. In this connection, some examples can be shared as nouns *ratin*, ‘at night, *shamin*, ‘in the evening’ and *fajarin*, ‘at Fajar (prayer)’ etc.

3.8 Vocative Case

The vocative case marks a person, animal, or personified inanimate entity directly addressed. Although vocatives are constructible for all nouns, only those for animates are generally produced. Vocative endings follow the oblique form. They are presented for Thali. Thali has also *vocative case*, along with above mentioned cases. This indicates addressee in both singular and plural forms. In singular vocative cases, inflectional morphemes /e/ is added when the addressee is female and /a/ when the addressee is male, while morpheme /o/ is added in plural vocative cases respectively as shown in the following examples from routine conversation:

7a. *chardho-e gal surndh*
cook.VOC.Sg.Ftalk.Nlisten.IMP

Listen to me, Cook!

7b. *chardho-eobhajecharḍoh*
Cooks.VOC.Pl curries.Ncook.IMP
Cooks! Cook curries.

In above examples, 38a & 38b, indicate singular and plural vocative cases by adding the inflectional morphemes, /e/ and /o/. In example 38a. *chardho-e* indicates of vocative of singular noun because it ends in inflectional morpheme /e/. While example 38b, shows vocative of plural noun because it ends in inflectional morpheme /o/. In Thali culture, this structure is used to address others but some relation word is used to address others. It is common practice to address strangers and relatives without any difference and discrimination.

IV. CONCLUSION

The study reveals that a great deal of inter-dependency between morphological and syntactic structures of Thali. In fact morphological structures of words are simply syntactic derivations. Different levels of grammar tangle one another for the general objective of communication and this is evident from the analysis of collected data in this study. This study has analyzed the grammatical structure of Thali language, its case system. Thali language has a distinct case marking system. It cannot be studied with the rules applied for other languages as English because its rules and structure is quite different. Thali has vast morphology and has room for a strong case marking system. Structure of Thali language can be studied through its word order, inflectional changes and case markers. The following table indicates the main cases of Thali language.

Case	Singular	Plural
Direct	<i>mā</i>	<i>mā-vā</i>
Oblique	<i>māo</i>	<i>mā-vā</i>
Ablative	<i>mā-ū</i>	<i>postpositional</i>
Vocative	<i>mā</i>	<i>mā-ō</i>

Table 4.30: Thali /ā/-final feminine noun, /mā/ ‘mother’ (Class IV)

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