

**TRIBHUVAN UNIVERSITY**

**Prepositions in English and Postpositions in Nepali: A Comparative Study**

**A Thesis**

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Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences

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**Supervisor's Recommendation**

This is to certify that Mrs. Laxmi Sharma with T.U. Regd. No. 62-48-3212-2002 has prepared this thesis entitled “Prepositions in English and Postpositions in Nepali: A Comparative Study” under my supervision, following the format as specified by the Research Committee, Department of English, Prithvi Narayan Campus, Pokhara. I, therefore, forward it to the Research Committee for final evaluation.

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**Approval Sheet**

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## **Abstract**

The present study is an attempt to point out the similarities and differences between prepositions and postpositions, the grammatical categories of two cognate languages such as English and Nepali respectively. No linguist or grammarian has yet made a comparison between these two grammatical items, which was the gap found in the previous literature. It is mainly focused on finding out a solution to the question like whether there are any similarities or differences between prepositions and postpositions. It has been analyzed by using the contrastive method of analysis and concluded that these grammatical items have some similarities and differences.

## Abbreviations

ACC	=	Accusative
Erg	=	Ergative
F	=	Female
FUT	=	Future
HH	=	High Honorific
IMP	=	Imperative
INF	=	Infinitive
LOC	=	Located
MH	=	Middle Honorific
NH	=	Non Honorific
NPT	=	Non-Past
POSS	=	Possessive
PP	=	Postposition
PROG	=	Progressive
PT	=	Past
1P	=	First Person Plural
1S	=	First Person Singular
3P	=	Third Person Plural
3S	=	Third Person Singular
~	=	Nasalization

## Transcription

Vowels	
Nepali	English
c	a
cf	A
O	i
O{	ee
p	u
pm	oo
P	e
P]	Ai
cf]	o
cf}	au

Consonants					
Nepali	English	Nepali	English	Nepali	English
s	ka	v	kha	u	ga
3	gha	<sup>a</sup>	na	r	cha
5	chha	h	ja	em	jha
`	-	6	Ta	7	tha
8	Da	9	Dh	0f	na
t	ta	y	tha	b	da
w	dha	g	na	k	pa
km	pha	a	ba	e	bha
d	ma	o	ya	/	ra
n	la	j	wa	z	sha
if	sha	;	sa	x	ha
If	ksha	q	tra	l	gya

## Chapter 1

### The Context for Language Study

#### Language Issues and Aims

The present study attempts to analyze two grammatical categories of English and Nepali languages, namely prepositions in English and postpositions in Nepali. In both languages, these categories are the function words or grammatical categories. English and Nepali are both the descendants of the same ancestral languages. Therefore, they have some similarities between these cognate languages, and at the same time they have been practiced in different scripts, cultures, and with different modifications. They have also various differences. The main thrust of this study is to find out similarities and differences between English and Nepali languages in terms of these grammatical categories that are directly related to nouns.

The grammatical words in question are named as prepositions in English and postposition in Nepali. They are named so as they precede nouns in English and succeed nouns in Nepali, for example:

The book is on the table. (English)

*KitAb tebul mAthi chha.* (Nepali)

Book table PP be-NPT:3S

In the above example, 'on' is one of the examples of preposition in English. It is a preposition as it has come before the noun phrase 'the table' and in Nepali *mAthi* (up) has come after the noun *tebul* (table), thus, their nomenclature, as preposition and postposition.

During the literature review, many grammarians and linguists were found discussing prepositions and postpositions. No comparative study on these categories has yet been made; so this is a gap found through the literature review. This gap is the

problem of this research project. Therefore, this study gives an answer to the question: what are the similarities and differences between prepositions and postpositions regarding their forms and functions? The main objective of this study is to deal with the formal and functional aspects of prepositions and postpositions as accurately as possible to find out their similarities and differences.

As stated above, this study aims to carry out some comparative studies between Nepali and English languages. Unless one has a good knowledge of these similarities and differences, one cannot learn English accurately. Therefore, a good knowledge of different aspects of these two languages is essential.

Prepositions are one of the areas that cause confusion to the learners. The study, thus, chiefly concerns the preposition in English that counterpart postposition in Nepali. Focusing on the similarities and differences in the semantic and syntactic aspects, an attempt is made to identify similarities and differences between these two languages in prepositions and postpositions. On the basis of contrastive study, the types, structures and functions of the prepositions and postpositions have been discussed clearly with some examples that lead the study to definite conclusions.

A good logical hypothesis contributes to reach the conclusion of the project. This study is carried out with the hypothesis that there are a lot of semantic similarities between prepositions in English and postpositions in Nepali. At the same time, they have morphological and syntactic and even functional differences. A study of prepositions and postpositions is not a new subject matter of study, but its comparative analysis has been an untouched area. Thus, this is the significance of the present study. Moreover, it has opened up new avenues to encourage more researchers for further study in the related field.

Without a definite methodology, a research work cannot go ahead

systemically. For this purpose, a comparative approach of research is brought into operation for the analysis of the issues under discussion. As far as the sources of data are concerned, both primary and secondary data are used. Grammar books in both languages are taken as the primary sources and the discussion on different aspects of both grammars in different books, magazines, journals, newspapers, etc. have served as the secondary sources.

It is impossible to analyze and study all the aspects of prepositions in English and postpositions in Nepali. So the study has dealt with only the formal and functional aspects of prepositions and postpositions regarding their similarities and differences.

There is no method of measuring the advantages and disadvantages of English in comparison with other languages for foreign learners. The importance of English can be viewed from several perspectives. In Nepal, English is taught especially for the first purpose. It is through the English language that people around the world communicate with each other.

### **A History of English and Nepali Languages**

Language, a means of communicating ideas or feelings either in spoken or written form, that consists of the use of words in a structured and conventional way, is an important property of human beings. Human society and its civilization are closely related to language. Today, there are numerous varieties of languages found in the world in spoken or written interaction, depending on their geography or social status or tradition. People learn each other's languages and use them.

Both Nepali and English are different varieties though they are the descendants of the same Indo-European family, consisting of different varieties of languages. Talking about various language members of the Indo-European family and their similarities, A. C. Bough states:

The surviving languages show various degrees of similarity to one another, the similarity bearing a more or less direct relationship to their geographical distribution. They accordingly fall into nine principal groups: Indian, Iranian, American, Hellenic, Albanian, Italic, Baltic-Slavic, Teutonic and Celtic. These are the branches of Indo-European family tree. (23)

Bough focuses on the geographical distribution to see their similarities and differences. He clearly enlists nine different types of languages related to the Indo-European group.

Bough also talks about recent discoveries as he says, “Besides the nine principal branches described above, recent discoveries have added two new groups to the family: Hittite and Tocharian” (38). Linguists have discovered many similarities among the members of the Indo-European family. For example, Bough again remarks, “English brother corresponds to Dutch *broeder*, German *Bruder*, Greek *Pharter*, Sanskrit *bhrater* . . . We are led to the hypothesis that the languages of a large part of Europe and part of Asia were at one time identical” (19). Here, his focus is on the similarities among the members of Indo-European languages that have the widespread use all over the world. The date at which the root Indo-European language was spoken is difficult to assign accurately, but it is generally accepted that the Indo-European languages were spoken roughly between 3500 and 2000 BC.

Many linguists familiar with the Nepali language agree that Nepali is derived from Sanskrit, which is one of the members of the Indo-European family. Vedic Sanskrit is supposed to have been the first Indian (Aryan) language because four Vedas are written in Sanskrit. This language is found in certain other prose works, too. The history of Sanskrit has mentioned that, in the beginning, Sanskrit was

confined to religious writings only, but later its use was extended to various other writings outside the domain of religion. The use of Sanskrit was given a fixed literary form under the influence of Panini in the fourth century BC. This form of Sanskrit is known as classical Sanskrit, which is the medium of an extensive Indian literature. However, there were also other languages in use during that period. Bough puts it as:

Alongside of Sanskrit there existed a large number of local dialects in colloquial use, known as Prakrits. A number of these eventually attained literary form, one in particular, Pali, about the middle of the 6<sup>th</sup> century B.C. becoming the language of Buddhism from these various colloquial dialects have descended the present languages of India and Pakistan, spoken by some 350 million people. (24)

Here, the Nepali language is not only derived from Sanskrit but also highly influenced by a large number of local dialects. One of the descendants of these dialects is supposed to have been the 'Khas' language, which was the ancient form of the Nepali language.

Nepali is spoken in Nepal as the national language. It is not only the official language of Nepal but also the *lingua franca* of the Nepali people. Different dialects of Nepali are spoken in different places of Nepal and abroad. Because of the influence of the mother tongue, the dialects differ at syntactic as well as phonetic level depending on the socio-economic status of speakers. It is not possible to include all the varieties of Nepali language in this study; therefore, the standard variety of Nepali has been selected for this study.

It is clear that Sanskrit gave birth to Nepali. In the same way, another member of Indo-European family 'Teutonic' gave birth to the modern English. The language descended from Teutonic fall into three groups: East Teutonic, North Teutonic and

West Teutonic. Although English shares certain characteristics common to all the Teutonic languages, it particularly belongs to the low West Teutonic branch of the Indo-European family. West Teutonic is, thus, the main concern this study as it is a group to which the present English language belongs. English is the principal language of the UK, the US, Canada, Australia, New Zealand and many other countries; it is the most widely used second language in the world.

The English language first came to the South Asia through trade and was later introduced through Christian missionary schools, and its study was then encouraged by those Indian scholars who saw it as a means of gaining access to Western culture and science. Nowadays, English is regarded as the language of modernization and technological advancement. Most of the world's scientific and technical books and journals are written in English. It is commonly required for international trade and conferences, and is the official medium for communication at sea, on land and in the air. There are so many television and radio programmes in English conducted in many countries though English is their foreign language. When demonstrators wish to achieve the maximum international impact, they chant and display their slogans in English.

### **Past Observations on the Use of Prepositions and Postpositions**

Prepositions are important grammatical units as they have an important role to make any sort of text grammatically correct and meaningful. These are the words, which are responsible to create great confusions. Several grammarians and linguists have tried their best to describe them from different angles but the essence is that a preposition is a word usually placed before a noun or pronoun to show place time, cause, purpose, or means. Quirk et al. define prepositions as:

In the most general terms, a prepositions expresses a relation between

two entities one being that represented by the prepositional complement of the various types of relation of meaning those of place and time are the most prominent and easy to identify other relationship such as instrument and cause may also be recognized although it is difficult to describe prepositional meanings systematically in terms of such labels. Some prepositional uses may be best elucidated by seeing a preposition as related to clause. (155)

Generally, prepositions express a relation between two entities discussed, for example:

The man with the red beard.

In the above example, the preposition 'with' denotes the relationship between the red beard and the man.

Geoffery Leech and Jan Svartivik also talk about the prepositions. They define the term as "very frequent words like 'at', 'for' and by that are placed before a noun phrase (by his work) or sometimes before naming clause (by working hard) to form prepositional phrases" (356). The main thrust of Geoffery Leech and Jan Svartivik is that prepositions are the frequent words and normally placed before nominal clause or sometimes before noun phrase, for example,

Do you know anything more definite (about her)?

When Angel went to see him after the accident he was [in bed]

(with a drip feed).

In the above examples, the brackets enclose prepositional phrases. The phrases 'about her', 'in bed', and 'with a drip feed', are the prepositional phrases.

Sidney Greenbaum defines prepositions in a slightly different way:

Typically, prepositions function as the first constituent of a

prepositional phrase. The second constituent is the complement or object of the prepositional phrase. Thus, 'in a hurry' is a prepositional phrase in which 'in' is the preposition and 'hurry' is its complement, prepositions chiefly take as their complements noun phrases (1) nominal -ing participle clauses (2) and nominal wh-clauses (3). (159)

Greenbaum preferably talks about prepositional phrase rather than a preposition in isolation. According to him, the first element of the phrase is preposition and the second is its object or complement. For example:

And every single person without a computer background failed.

In this example 'without a computer' is a prepositional phrase in which 'without' is a preposition and a 'computer' is its complement. He also gives example of preposition and the nominal – ing participle clause:

That's a good way of trying to get to know each other.

In this example, 'of trying' is a nominal - ing participle clause and 'of' is a preposition and trying is a - ing participle clause or its complement.

He also believes that prepositions chiefly take wh – clauses as their complement. For example:

It is just a question 'of which' is the more efficient approach.

In this example 'of' is a preposition and the nominal clause 'which is the more efficient approach' is its complement. For Singh, "A preposition is a word usually placed before a noun or pronoun to show place, time, cause, purpose or means" (126).

He makes it clear with the following example:

Ram lives in Delhi.

Here, 'in' is a preposition because it is placed before the noun 'Delhi' which indicates the location where Ram lives.

In Nepali, Hari Baral, Hemang Raj Adhikari, D.P. Bhattarai, Mohan Raj Sharma, Devi Gautam and many others have made attempts to analyze and describe postpositions (*NAmayogi*). According to Krishna Hari Baral, “gflds zAb -gfd, ;j{gfd, ljz]if0f\_ sf k5fl8 k|fo hf]l8P/ k|of]u ul/g] zAbx?sf lardf ;DaGw uf:g] cJoo zAbnfO{ gfdof]uL elgG5 .” (“Postpositions (*NAmayogi*) are the indeclinable words that are often combined with the nominal words (noun, pronoun, adjectives) to show the relationship between or among the words in an utterance”; 30). Baral believes that postpositions are indeclinable words and are used to show various types of relations between the words discussed. For example:

*din- bhari ghar-ma suta.*

(“Sleep in the house throughout the day.”)

day - pp    house-loc    sleep-Imp

In this example, the postposition *bhari* (throughout) is placed after the noun (*din* = day) and shows the relationship between the noun *din* the verb *suta* (day and home).

Yet another definition is given by Bhattarai who states; “gflds kb -gfd, ;j{gfd, ljz]if0f\_ ;Fu hf]l8O{ cfpg] / s]lx cf`gf] :jtGq cy{ klg x'g] cJookbnfO{ gfdof]uL elgG5 . of] ljleGg ;Gbe{df k|o'Qm x'G5Æ (“Postpositions (*NAmayogi*) are the indeclinable words that are placed after the nominal words (noun, pronouns, adjectives) and some of which have their own meaning. They are used in different contents”; 52). The main focus of Bhattarai is that postpositions are placed after naming words and are indeclinable. For example:

*Ghar Najik Khola Chha*

(“There is a stream near the house.”)

House - pp            stream be-3s:NPT.

In this example, the postposition *najik* (near) comes after the noun *ghar* (house) and

shows the relationship between the *ghar* and *khola* (house and river).

Regarding postposition, Adhikari asserts, “*ljleGg cy{ ;DaGw hgfpgsf nflu gfd;Fu hf]l8O{ cfpg] zAbx?nfO{ gfdof]uL elgG5 . gfdof]uLx? j4 zAbju{ cGtu{t kb{5g\ . oLgn] ;fdfGotof gfd jf gfd:yflgs kb kbfnL;Fu cfO{ lqmofkb jf cGo gfls kb;Fu ljleGg cfyL{ ;DaGw bzf{p5g\}*” (“Postpositions (*NAmayogi*) are the words which are placed after nouns to show various meaning relations. They come under close word class. They generally come with nominal words and show the semantic relation with verbs or other nominal words”; 58). Adhikari elaborates the definition thus:

*KitAb darAj bhitra chh-a.*

(“The book is inside the cupboard.”)

book cupboard PP be-NPT:3S

In this example, the postposition *bhitra* (inside) comes after the noun *darAj* (cupboard) which shows the semantic relationship between *KitAb* and *darAj* (book and cupboard).

Postposition (*NAmayogi*) is a relative indeclinable word. It means it does not have any changes in forms. Sharma defines postpositions as: “*gfls zAb jf kb;d"xsf k5f8L hf]l8P/ cGo gfd, lqmof cflb;Fu ;DaGw u/fpg] zAbnfO{ gfdof]uL eG5g\}*” (“The word that occurs being attached with the nominal words or phrases and shows relation with other nouns, verbs etc is called postposition”; (87). For Sharma, postpositions are the words which normally appear being attached with the naming words and phrases and so various relationship with other verbs and nouns.

Thus, many attempts have been made by different grammarians and linguists to analyze the similarities and differences between prepositions in English and postpositions in Nepali. However, no one has reached an extensive comparative

discussion on semantic and syntactic aspects, dealing with their similarities and differences. Therefore, this study is intended to fill that gap.

### **Organization of the Study**

The study is organized into four chapters. The first chapter deals with the general background of the thesis. It also talks about the brief survey of the historical background of Nepali and English languages. Literature review is also included in the first chapter. The second chapter presents the theoretical background and defines the features of contrastive analysis. The third chapter discusses the types of prepositions and postpositions on the formal and functional basis. Functions of prepositions and postpositions are categorically presented with examples. At the end, the fourth chapter concludes the study.

## Chapter 2

### Contrastive Analysis at Work: Theory and Practice

#### Defining the Term

This study aims at finding out similarities and differences between two grammar items – prepositions and postpositions in English and Nepali respectively. As the focus is laid on the similarities and differences between the two, contrastive analysis can be the best tool of analysis. Therefore, in the following paragraphs, discussion is centered on this approach.

In simple terms, contrastive analysis is an approach of comparison of two languages that focuses on the similarities and differences between the languages when compared. This is a branch of applied linguistics that studies a pair of languages to identify their structural similarities and differences. It is a systematic comparison of specific linguistic characteristics of two or more languages. Historically, it has been used to establish language genealogies. It was used extensively in the field of second language acquisition from the 1950s to the early 1970s, as a method of explaining why some features of a target language were more difficult to acquire than others.

The publication of Robert Lado's *Linguistics Across Cultures* in 1957 marks the real beginning of modern applied contrastive linguistics. Contrastive analysis is defined as the method of analyzing the structures of any two languages with a view to estimating the differential aspects of their systems, irrespective of their genetic affinity or level of development. It also deals with cultural, gestural and paralinguistic fields. It is assumed that learning of second language is facilitated wherever there are similarities between diverse languages.

The contrastive linguistic study is only the predictive technique. This means that by looking at the structure of two or more linguistic systems one can predict the

difficulties the learner is likely to encounter. It does not necessarily mean that the first language habits alone are responsible for all the mistakes a learner makes in the second language. It is undertaken not necessarily for language teaching purposes alone. The approach may be useful in discovering language universal that studies problems in translation and language types.

The synchronic comparison of languages may be undertaken at any or all levels – phonological, morphological, syntactic, semantic, cultural, etc. If languages are compared, it is called ‘inter-lingual’, i.e., contrastive comparison. If two varieties of the same language are compared, it is ‘intra-lingual’ comparison.

Syllabus makers can make use of the description of languages and contrastive studies in grading the items to be taught from known to unknown, similar to dissimilar, general rules to exceptions, and universals to language specific items.

Contrastive analysis further states that a language learners’ first language will have a crucial influence on the learning of the second language. Obviously, errors made in the process of learning the second language will bear significant traces of interference from the first language. Moreover, the main focus of the contrastive analysis is on the points of differences between the concerned languages, which are pre-teaching activities. It is based on a psychological linguistic theory, so it is systematic and follows the principle of objectivity. In the same way, it is highly systematic and objective, and applies the holistic comparison with a due focus on the entire language system.

Contrastive analysis is an approach to the investigation of language carried on in certain areas of applied linguistics such as foreign language teaching and translation. In two languages, the points of structural difference are identified and those are then studied as areas of potential difficulty in the foreign language learning.

According to Van Els et al., the three broad objectives of contrastive analysis are:

- a) to provide insights into similarities and differences between languages;
- b) to explain and predicating problems in second language learning,
- c) to develop teaching materials for language teaching. (n.p.)

Els points out that the approach is especially applied in finding out the problems in the second language acquisition while comparing similarities and differences of the languages.

### **Some Assumptions**

There are some fundamental assumptions on which contrastive analysis is based. Lado talks about how the non-native speakers try to transfer the meanings and forms of their native language to the target language, and to follow styles and cultural aspects of those who use the target language:

Individuals tend to transfer the forms and the meanings and the distribution of forms and meanings of their native language and culture to the foreign language and culture - both productively and when attempting to speak the language and to act in the culture and receptively when attempting to grasp and understand the language and culture as practiced by natives. (n.p.)

It is clear that Lado's main interest is in creating pedagogical materials, many of which are based on the assumption of contrastive analysis.

Some of Lado's assumptions for the comparative study include the following (qtd. in M. Gass and L. Selinker 176):

- a) Contrastive analysis is based on a theory of language that views language as a habit; thus, second language learning involves the establishment of a new set of habit.

- b) The native language is the major source of error in the production and comprehension of the second language.
- c) Errors in the second language production and comprehension can be explained by examining the differences between the native language and the second language.
- d) The greater the differences between the first and second language, the more errors will occur.
- e) It is important not only for the second language learner to focus on the differences because the similarities will transfer.
- f) Difficulty and ease of learning are related respectively to the differences and similarities between the first and second languages.

From the above discussion, it has become clear that the theoretical foundation of contrastive analysis is based on the propositions of behaviorist school of psychology and structural linguistics.

Whiteman, however, believes that contrastive analysis involves four different procedures. The first of them is description. In it, the linguist uses the tools of formal grammar, and explicitly describes the two languages. Second, a selection of language includes certain forms, linguistic items, rules, and structures – for contrast for every possible facet of two languages. He further admits that the selection process reflects the conscious and unconscious assumption of the investigator or researcher. In the comparison between native and foreign languages, selection paves the way to ease a difficulty in foreign language learning. For him, the third procedure is the contrast itself, the mapping of one linguistic system on to the other and a specification of the relationship of one system, resting on the validity of one's points of reference. Finally, he says that one formulates the prediction of error of difficulty on the basis of the first three procedures (193-96). According to Whiteman contrastive analysis is the

technique that deals with description, selection, contrast and prediction.

The comparative study of language is concerned with comparing two or more different languages in terms of similarities and differences. It not only traces the evolution of concerned languages, but it also establishes relationship between the two languages, which are genetically related. So the first and second hypothesis of Whiteman has been applied for the systematic analysis of languages, which is known as the inter-lingual comparison.

Contrastive analysis is now the subject of controversy among the scholars who do not believe in its effectiveness. Some linguists claim that it is a basis for programme design and classroom procedure. Lado, for example, asserts that the systematic comparison of languages along with the cultural background in which the languages are used eases the process of language learning:

The plan of the book rests on the assumption that we can predict and describe the patterns that will cause difficulty in learning, and those that will not cause difficulty, by comparing systematically the language and the culture of the students. In our view, the preparation of up - to - date pedagogical and experimental materials must be based on this kind of comparison. (qtd. in Anwar 1)

It is obvious that to make the difficulty of the learners easy and to be sure about those matters, which are not difficult to them, a comparative study can be very beneficial.

The comparative study can surely pave the effective way of learning. It is said that teaching methods rest on a careful scientific analysis of the contrast between the learner's language and the target language. Likewise, it is by itself inadequate as a basis for the total language teaching. Whiteman and Jackson have the following two agreements: (40)

- a) Contrastive analysis... is inadequate, theoretically and practically, to predict the interference problems of a language learners;
- b) Interference of native – to – target language transfer, plays such a small role in language learning performance that no contrastive analysis, no matter how conceived, could correlate highly with performance data, at least on the level of syntax.

From these two agreements by Whiteman and Jackson, it is clear that contrastive study is not enough to clear the doubts and obstacles of non-native learners in the process of learning.

The scholars who reject contrastive analysis on the basis of its inability to predict errors have not explained why it cannot predict errors. The only piece of evidence given by them is that their analysis could not correlate with performance. But these scholars were biased in the first place as the tests they designed were made primarily to predict errors. Such an approach has many shortcomings as it expects the performance of the students to be in terms of their previous native language habits that the students will be unable to unlearn or modify their verbal behavior.

The Contrastive analysis compares the native language and the target language to find out the points of transfer. This approach has two assumptions behind it: one psychological and the other linguistic.

The psychological assumption is that the native language habits are transferred into the target language. Transfer may be positive or negative. Positive transfer occurs if the same form functions similarly in two languages. Interference (or negative transfer) occurs because the native language forms cannot be used in the target language and as a result causes restructuring in the system of the target language.

The other assumption behind the contrastive theory is the linguistic one, which

says that the grammatical rules that work for one language can work for another. This assumption is wrong in the following ways:

- a) It believes that what is true of one language may be true of another.
- b) It also tells that facts of any language for learning purpose cannot be ascertained only through the study of linguistics.

Though there is a tendency toward establishing the theory of universal grammar, it can be believed that Ferguson is right when he opines:

Every language presents a unique structure which must be analyzed on its own terms. This principle makes explicit the linguist's conviction that within the framework of the universal characteristics of human language there is such an enormous amount of variation among languages that an elegant and convincing characterization of any particular language may be inadequate or misleading if applied to another. (141)

Regarding Ferguson's definition, every language of the world has its own structures and should be analyzed and discussed in its own terms. When it is compared with another language, it would be very inadequate and would not be so worthy and can be misleading. So every language of the world should be analyzed in its own background and terms.

### **Contrastive Analysis as an Approach**

Universal linguistics has not been well-established. Probably a new language to be discovered may upset the present conclusion of the theory of universal grammar. It is a well-known fact that vocal tract and the linguistic innate capacity of all people have basically the same form, but language does not depend on these alone. It is also conditioned by the culture of the society in which it is used.

The second mistake of the linguistic approach is that the facts of any language, for learning purposes, cannot be ascertained only through the study of linguistics. Linguistics needs language teaching as much as, if not more than language teaching, it needs linguistics.

It is well known that Edward Sapir arrived at the psychological reality of the phoneme in a learning situation. He believes:

The theory of phonology has a great deal to benefit from the adaption of foreign forms into the native language. This is, again, a learning situation so, It has been clear that a theory of contrastive analysis should not be limited only by linguistic facts and predictions of difficulty based solely on a limited set of utterances divorced from other components of the grammar are wrong. It is highly doubtful that a theory of interference can be built that is based on separate components and that does not properly locate each single element within the totality of language design. (qtd. in Anwar 10)

It is true that as a reliable material to language instruction, contrastive analysis offers a very sketchy framework within which some aspects of the learner's task may be considered. By itself, it cannot be a basis of determining the linguistic structures to be offered in a language program. Even if interference is predictable from the native language, the difference between the target language and the foreign language can be analyzed. There will be no substitute for teaching the foreign language as an entity (qtd. in Anwar 12). For Anwar, contrastive analysis alone cannot be a basis in the determination of the linguistic structures to be in the language programme and interference from the native language is also there.

It is assumed that even the use of one linguistic theory of analysis cannot show

the difference between two languages. The reason is that a theory of grammar that is built on the basis of native language acquisition may not be sound good when it comes to a situation of foreign language learning. It is clear that the difference in the foreign language learning ability is not in terms of differences in innate ability, but in terms of the way of learning competence is applied.

The cues employed by the learner may be organized in relation to the nature of the target language, its relation to the native language (or other language known to the learner), and from the content of the messages or linguistic material under consideration. All of which determine the possibility of making messages and the situation of method by which the foreign language is taught. In the field of first language acquisition it is seen necessary to operate with the basic concepts of a functional type; the learner learns his native language in a situation of use, and the structure he builds up reflects the functions that he internalizes.

The structures underlying the utterances of the learner and their purposes the learner is using language for can be understood. But in foreign language learning, it can be started at the other end. The learner can be given certain linguistic forms in the hope that he or she will use them correctly. Although language derives from a number of innate creative forces that humans have and which remain in constant operation throughout their life, these forces are used in a functional context. Generally, people use language as a purposeful activity and this is what makes language accessible to the speaker learning a foreign language but the classroom situation is not that “meaningful”. So, contrastive analysis cannot be so effective if it deals with two languages whose structures and use are not equally meaningful to the learner (qtd. in Anwar 13-14). Here, Anwar strongly states that contrastive analysis is not so productive if it deals with two languages having quite different structures and use, and

proves meaningless to the learner.

The aim of any contrastive study should not be limited to the points of difference between the native language and the target language. These points of difference may cause interference. Any mastery of the points of difference does not guarantee correct performance on the part of the learner. Any contrastive study should relate interference from the native language and interference from the target language. Two types of interference may be due to the difference in rules or to the application of the same rule but with different constraints. Some of these constraints, in terms of structural grammar, may be phonologically or morphologically conditioned without relating interference from the native language and target language, a learning process cannot be very effective and fruitful (qtd. in Anwar 15-16). Anwar opines that any contrastive analysis should relate interference from the native language and interference from the target language. He believes that two types of interference are there because of the difference in the rules and to the application of the same rule but with different constraint.

## Chapter 3

### Prepositions and Postpositions of English and Nepali

The nomenclature “preposition” in English and “postposition” in Nepali is quite suggestive. It is suggestive in the sense that prepositions are used before nouns and postpositions after nouns as “pre” means “before” and “post” means “after”. These grammatical categories are slightly confusing elements in both languages. The following sections contain possible detailed discussion on their classification, syntactic and semantic similarities and differences with examples.

Prepositions are the words usually placed before nouns or pronouns to show place, time, cause, purpose, or means. In general, grammatically recognized prepositions in English are ‘at’, ‘in’, ‘on’, ‘into’, etc. In Nepali, there are uncountable postpositions. Unlike prepositions, they are the suffix like terms and come immediately after the main word termed as nouns. Some of the postpositions are: *nera* (near), *mAthi* (up), *bhitrA* (inside), *bahirA* (outside), *samma* (upto/until), *bATa* (off/from), *najik* (near), *aAwA* (in addition to/apart from), etc.

In English, such linguistic items come before nominal words and are known as prepositions, but in Nepali these are said to be postpositions as they come immediately after the nouns. Similar examples of the use of these terms can be given from the following utterances:

He sat on the chair.

*u kursi-mA bas-yo*

He chair-pp sit- 3:PT:s

Here, ‘on’ is equivalent to *m’*. The preposition ‘on’ has its position pre to the noun chair while *mA* has been placed immediately after the noun *kursi* (chair). So, it is known as a postposition in Nepali.

The difficulty with the English native speakers in understanding Nepali lies in the confusion of the word *mA* because *mA* indicates inside also. It is 'on' or 'upon' which indicates the position of the person with the chair. In order to make the native speakers of English understand the exact meaning of *mA* in the above example. A Nepali speaker should use *mAthi* (up) instead of *mA*. It is, therefore, a problem of the concept with the native speakers of English to understand postpositions in Nepali.

### **Prepositions in English: Classifications**

A preposition is a word usually placed before a noun or a pronoun to show place, time, cause, purpose, or means of actions in relation with their nouns. It is used to make any sort of assertion grammatically sound and meaningful. There are mainly two kinds of prepositions on the basis of structure. They are simple prepositions and complex or compound prepositions.

#### **Simple Prepositions**

Most of the common English prepositions such as 'at', 'in', 'for', etc. are simple as they consist of one word. They are very simple in functions and structures. There are many simple prepositions in English grammar. They function differently according to the context they are used. Some of them are very common but some are rarely used in different texts. Among them, 'for,' 'after,' 'before,' 'above,' 'in,' 'outside,' 'up,' 'at,' etc. are most prominent and widely used, for example,

Look at me.

Here, 'at' is a simple preposition as it is only one word and has a very small role in this sentence and structurally also it is very simple. One more example of simple preposition is shown below:

The book is on the table.

Here, 'on' is a simple preposition and is used before the noun 'table' to keep close

relationship between the book and the table. The following table lists some other simple prepositions of English grammar.

Table No. 1

## List of Simple Prepositions

abroad	amidst	behind	for
above	amongst	below	from
about	among	beneath	in
across	around	besides	like
after	as	beside	minus
against	between	near	notwithstanding
along	at	beyond	except / excepting
amid	but	off	by
despite	on/upon	down	opposite
during	out / outside	save	over
since	past	than	per
through	throughout	with	till / until
toward(s)	up	without	versus
before	via	inside	considering
concerning	within	to	bar / barring
following	of	worth	including
round	times	pending	under / underneath

Source: Sinha, R.P. (126-127) *Current English Grammar and Usage with*

*Composition*. New York: Oxford UP, 2003.

The prepositions listed above are the most common and prominent simple prepositions as they are very simple in structure and function.

Some prepositions are called compound or complex because they are the combined form of two or more simple prepositions. They are complicated in functions and structures. They express different meanings in particular constructions. Most of them are formed with the combination of adverbs and prepositions, verb and preposition, adjectives and prepositions and by combining with simple prepositions such as ‘away from’, ‘owing to’, etc. Here, ‘away’ is the adverb and ‘from’ is the simple prepositions. When these two are combined, a complex preposition ‘away from’ is formed. Most usual and important of them are listed below:

Table No. 2

List of Compound Prepositions

as to	but for
onto	by means of
according to	by reason of
along with	by way of
away from	by virtue of
because of	in the light of
with regard to	an for
out of	in front of
due to / owing to / owe to	for the sake of

Source: Sinha, R.P. (126-127) *Current English Grammar and Usage with Composition*. New York: Oxford UP, 2003.

The prepositions listed above are the most common simple prepositions of English

grammar.

### Prepositions in English: Types and Functions

Prepositions are grammatical items, which have a remarkable capacity for expressing a variety of meanings when they are accompanied by nouns. They express different relationships like place, time, cause, reason, possession, etc. Among them, those of place and time are the most prominent and easy to identify. Grammarians do not have the same opinions about the classification of prepositions. Mainly those of time and place are discussed in details by many grammarians. On the basis of meaning and relationship, there are nine types of prepositions. These prepositions can be schematized briefly as follow:

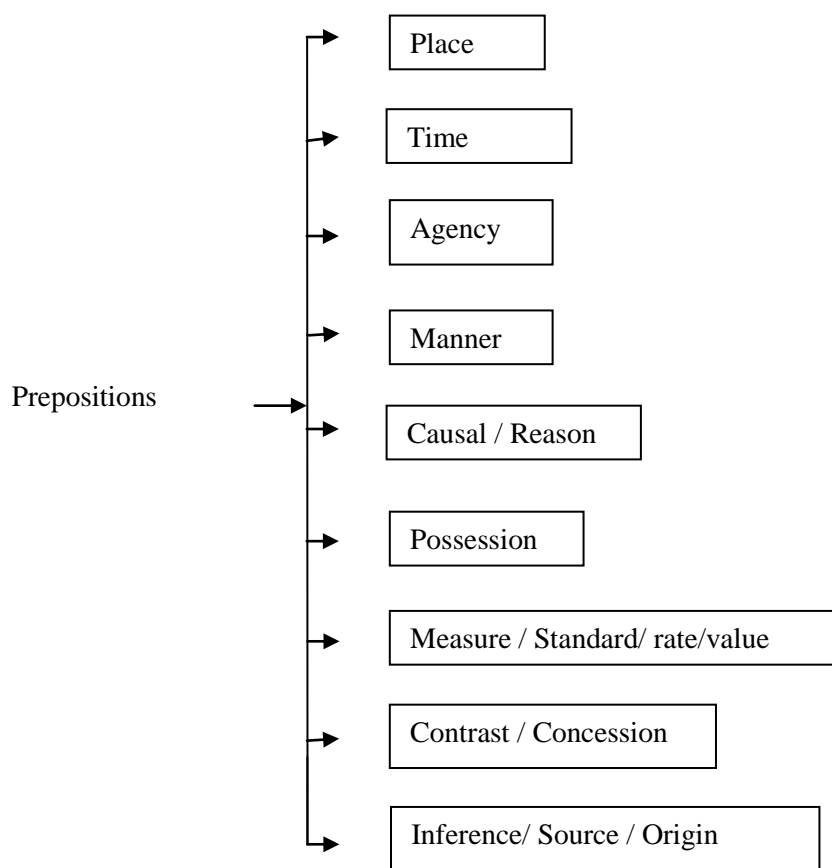


Fig. 3. Source: Wren, P.C. and Martin, (110) H. *High School English Grammar and Composition*. New Delhi: S. Chand & Company Limited, 2008.

Wren and Martin talk about nine different types of prepositions as shown in the figure above.

Such prepositions which are used to indicate place in relation to the dimensional, directional and relational properties whether subjectively or objectively conceived are called prepositions of place. Prepositions like ‘against’, ‘across’, ‘at’, ‘on’, ‘off’, etc. are some of them. For example,

Our hotel is on that road.

Here, the preposition ‘on’ shows the location of the noun hotel. More examples are given in the table below:

Table No. 3

List of Prepositions Denoting Spatial Relations

about	on, at	between	round
against	Among	before	across
by	Beside	behind	to
over	Into	near	through
within	Upon	up	under

Source: Wren, P.C. and Martin, (110) H. *High School English Grammar and*

*Composition*. New Delhi: S. Chand & Company Limited, 2008.

The prepositions listed above are the preposition of place. They denote different spatial relations.

Prepositions usually placed before a noun or a pronoun to show the temporal relationship between two entities is the preposition of time. Prepositions like ‘in,’ ‘by,’ ‘since,’ ‘through,’ ‘till,’ etc. The sentence given below has used the preposition of time:

Submit your work by three o’clock.

Here, the time preposition ‘by’ indicates the time the work should be submitted and shows the relationship between them. The following table gives more examples of time prepositions:

Table No. 4

## List of Time Prepositions

after	before	behind	by	during
within	Till	through	for	from
with	Until	throughout	since	into
on	under	at	in	

Source: Wren, P.C. and Martin, (110) H. *High School English Grammar and*

*Composition*. New Delhi: S. Chand & Company Limited, 2008.

Prepositions that are usually used before a noun or a pronoun to show agency or instrumentality are called prepositions of agency. Some of them are ‘by,’ ‘through,’ ‘with,’ etc. The sentence below has used this kind of preposition.

Cut the cake with the knife.

In this example, the preposition of agency ‘with’ keeps a close relationship with two nouns ‘cake’ and ‘knife’. Prepositions like ‘by,’ ‘at’ and ‘through’ are more examples of this type

Prepositions, which reveal the manner of how something is done or show the way of actions are called prepositions of manner. They seem just like prepositions of agency. Some of them are ‘with,’ ‘by,’ etc. One of them ‘with’ is used in the following sentence.

They won the war with ease.

Here, the preposition ‘with’ tells how they won the war. So, it is a preposition of manner.

Prepositions that express either the material cause or psychological motive of happening something are called prepositions of cause or reason. Prepositions like 'of,' 'from,' 'through,' 'for,' 'with,' etc. are some of them. The following sentence uses the preposition of cause.

Ram died of fever.

In this example, the preposition 'of' is placed before a noun 'fever' which clearly gives the reason of Ram's death.

The words which are placed before nouns or pronouns to show the possessive relationship are called prepositions of possession. Prepositions like 'of,' 'by,' 'with,' etc. are the most reliable of them, for example,

The girl with blue eyes is deaf.

Here, the preposition 'with' is the possessive preposition as it tells that the girl has blue eyes. It also keeps a close relationship with the two entities discussed in the example.

Prepositions which, express relationship of measurement, standard, rate, value, etc. of two elements are called prepositions of measurement, standard, or rate.

Prepositions like 'by' and, 'at' are some of them. They are very few. The following sentence has used it.

Carpet is sold by the meter.

Here, 'by' is the preposition of measurement as it indicates the measurement of carpet.

Prepositions which, are contrastive in nature or are used to compare two things are called prepositions of contrast or measurement. Prepositions like 'for,' 'with,' 'after,' 'in spite of,' etc. are some of them. The following sentence has used this kind of preposition.

After every effort he failed.

Here, ‘after’ is a contrastive preposition as it compares effort and failure.

Prepositions that keep a close relationship with naming words and express the source or origin are called prepositions of source or origin. Preposition like ‘to,’ ‘from,’ ‘of,’ etc. are some of them. For example, in the sentence below the preposition ‘from’ is used.

Light comes from the sun.

Here, ‘from’ is the preposition of origin because it tells that the source of the light is the sun. That means that the light is originated in the sun. Another example of the preposition of source is given in the following sentence.

I hesitate to trust him.

Here, ‘to’ is the preposition of an origin or source.

### Postpositions in Nepali: Classifications

Like other linguistic items, postpositions are also categorized in two ways: on the basis of their form, and on the basis of functions. On the formal basis, postpositions are classified into two categories: simple and complex or compound.

These postpositions can be schematized briefly as follows:

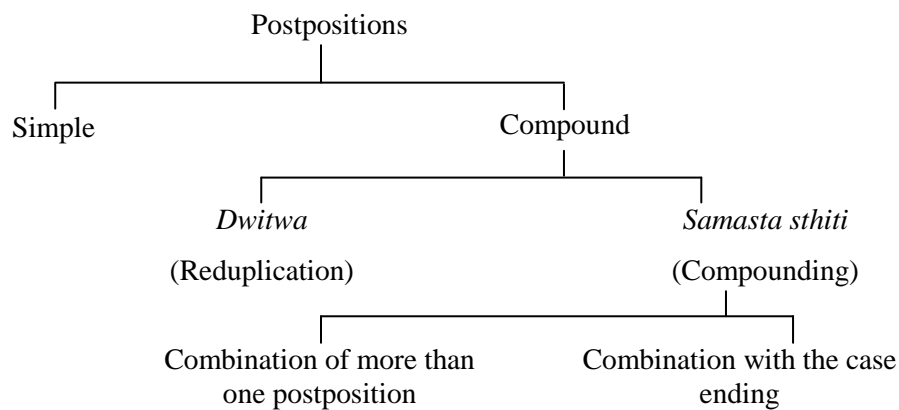


Fig. 1. Source: Adhikari Hemangraj (65) *SamaSamayik Nepali Byakarn* 5<sup>th</sup> ed.

Kathmandu: Vidhyarti Pustak Bhandar, 2066 B.S.

The simple postpositions consist of only one word. So, they are called simple postpositions. They are very simple in function and form. Postpositions like *Bhitra* (inside), *bAhira* (outside), *mAthi* (up), *muni* (below), *bhari* (whole), etc. are some of them. The following table presents the simple postpositions:

Table 5

## List of Simple Postpositions

Postpositions ( <i>Naamyogi</i> )	Equivalent meaning in English
dfly ( <i>mAthi</i> )	on, above, over, up
d'lg ( <i>muni</i> )	under, beneath, below
;Dd ( <i>samma</i> )	upto, until
eI/ ( <i>bhari</i> )	Throughout, allover
glhs ( <i>najik</i> )	Near, close
It/ ( <i>tira</i> )	towards, to, toward
leq ( <i>bhitra</i> )	in, inside, into
eP/ ( <i>bhayera</i> )	by, via, past
af6 ( <i>bAta</i> )	off, from
aLr ( <i>bich</i> )	among, between
kfl/ ( <i>pAri</i> )	across
;fy ( <i>sAth</i> )	along, with

Source: Adhikari Hemangraj (65) *SamaSamayik Nepali Byakarn* 5<sup>th</sup> ed. Kathmandu:

Vidhyarti Pustak Bhandar, 2066 B.S.

These are the combined form of two or more simple postpositions. They are formed in different ways like reduplication, compounding and some other ways. Prepositions like *sAthsAthai*, (*alongwith*), *sAngsangi* (along with), *wAripAri* (across),

*bahiratirabAta* (from outside), etc. are some of them.

The process of repeating the same element and forming a new word is called reduplication. When a simple postposition is repeated, with slight modification, a complex postposition is formed such as *sAthsAthai* (along with). Here, *sAthsAthAi* is formed by repeating the simple postposition *sAth* (with/along). In the process of reduplication, the sound /aI/ is added after the combination and which is called modification.

Table 6

List of Compound or Complex Postpositions

Reduplicated Postpositions	Equivalent Meaning in English
;fy;fy} ( <i>sAthsAthi</i> )	along with, with
;Fu;Fu} ( <i>sangsangi</i> )	Along with
5]p5fp ( <i>cheuchAu</i> )	by, beside
cf;kf; ( <i>AspAs</i> )	nearby beside
cfdg];fdg] ( <i>AmanesAmne</i> )	opposite

Source: Adhikari Hemangraj (65)*SamaSamayik Nepali Byakarn* 5<sup>th</sup> ed. Kathmandu:

Vidhyarti Pustak Bhandar, 2066 B.S.

Two postpositions *AspAs* (nearby) and *AmnesAmne* (opposite) do not have exact reduplication as in the former example. The sound /a:/ has been replaced by /pa:/ and in the latter /a:/ has been replaced by /sa:/. But the two elements give similar type of meaning. So, reduplication is not the process of only repeating similar sound combination but also the combination of similar meaning as well. For example, in *AspAs*, there are two elements *As* and *pAs*. Both these elements have semantic similarity, that both refer to the meaning equivalent to ‘beside’ or ‘by’.

Compounding (*Samastasthiti*) refers to the process of combining two different

postpositions to form a new postposition. These two elements are usually opposites in meaning with the harmony in internal rhyming like *wAripAri* (across). Here, *waripar* is formed with the combination of two simple postpositions *wAri* and *pAri*. *wAripari* is a compound postposition. Functionally, *wAri* refers to the one side of a river or stream or lake where the speaker is, but *pAri* is the other side, thus, opposite in meaning. Here, *wAr* indicates the location close to the speaker and *pAri* the location far from the speaker.

Table 7

## List of Compound Postpositions

Compound Postpositions	Equivalent Meaning in English
jfl/kfl/ ( <i>wAripAri</i> )	across, on both sides
jl/kl/ ( <i>wAripAri</i> )	around
j/k/ ( <i>warapara</i> )	around
jf/kf/ ( <i>wArpAr</i> )	across
leqaflx/ ( <i>Bhitra bAhira</i> )	in and out/inside and outside
bfofFafofF ( <i>dAyAn- bAnyAn</i> )	left and right

Source: Adhikari Hemangraj (65) *SamaSamayik Nepali Byakarn* 5<sup>th</sup> ed. Kathmandu:

Vidhyarti Pustak Bhandar, 2066 B.S.

Sometimes two or more simple postpositions are combined together and a compound postposition is formed, but this process is different from reduplication and compounding, especially in matters of semantic unity such as *bhitrapattisamma* (to the inside). Here three postpositions *bhitra* (inside), *patti* (towards) and *samma* (till) are combined together to form *bhitrapattisamma* (to the inside), a compound postposition.

Sometimes the combination is of the postpositions only, but in some cases *bhibhakti* (case ending) can also be combined together. For instance:

*Mero bhAi bAhira-tira bAta A-yo.*

(“My brother came home from outside.”)

My brother outside - pp from come - PT: 3s.

Here, two postpositions *bAhira* (outside) and *tira* (towards) are combined with case ending (*bhibhakti*) *bAta* (from) and a complex postposition *bAhiratirAbAta* (from outside) is formed.

Two simple postpositions are further combined with case ending. Such process often takes place with coordination in the formation of compound or complex postpositions. Following table lists some compound postpositions.

Table 8

List of the Postpositions through the Process of Coordination

Compound Postpositions	Equivalent Meaning in English
aflx/lt/ ( <i>bahiratira</i> )	outside
d'lgt/ ( <i>munitira</i> )	below, under
sxF;Dd ( <i>kahansamma</i> )	to where

Source: Adhikari Hemangraj (65) *SamaSamayik Nepali Byakarn* 5<sup>th</sup> ed. Kathmandu:

Vidhyarti Pustak Bhandar, 2066 B.S.

Postpositions listed above are compound postpositions as they formed through the process of coordination.

Table 9

List of compound postposition with case ending

Postpositions	Equivalent Meaning in English
leqkI§;Dd ( <i>bhitrapattisamma</i> )	to the inside
d'lgt/b]lv ( <i>munitiradekhi</i> )	from below
dflylNt/;Ddsf]nflu ( <i>Mathiltirasammakolai</i> )	to the upper part

Source: Adhikari Hemangraj (65) *SamaSamayik Nepali Byakarn* 5<sup>th</sup> ed. Kathmandu:

Vidhyarti Pustak Bhandar, 2066 B.S.

Here, *bAhiratirabaata* (from outside), *bhitrapattisamma* (to the inside), *munitiradekhi*

(from below), etc. are compound postpositions with case ending.

### Postpositions in Nepali: Types and Functions

On the functional ground, the Nepali postpositions are categories as spatial, temporal, causal, durational, relational, exchangeable and quantitative. They express various meanings according to the context about some ideas or events being discussed. In this sort of classification, there are as many as nine types of postpositions, which can be schematized briefly as follow:

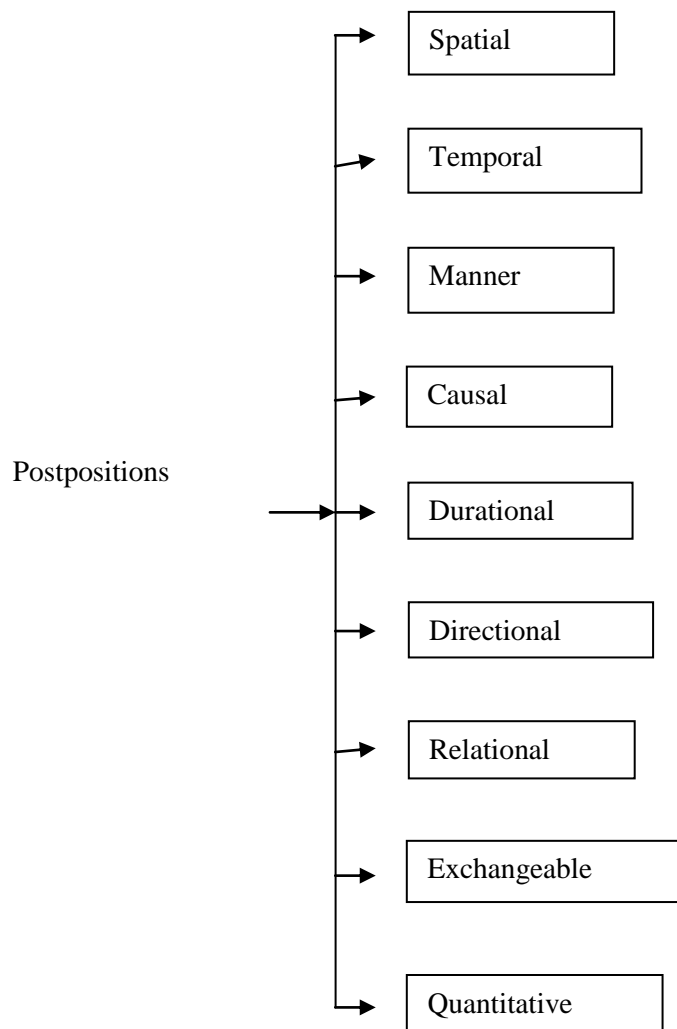


Fig. 2. Source: Sharma, Mohan Raj (67) *Sabdarachana Ra Varnavinyas*.

Kathmandu: Kathmandu Book Centre, 2058 B.S.

According to Sharma, there are nine types of postpositions like spatial, temporal, etc. and have remarkable capacity for expressing various sorts of meanings and relationships in different situation according to their nature.

Postpositions that keep the close relationship with the naming words and are used to indicate a location are called spatial postpositions. Postpositions like *mAthi* (up), *muni* (below), *pAri* (across), etc. are some of the spatial postpositions, for example,

*rAm - le kalam tebal- mAthi rakh-yo.*

(“Ram put the pen on the table.”)

Ram-Erg pen table – PP put- PT:3s

Here, *MATHi* is a spatial postposition as it indicates where the noun *kalam* is kept. In the example given above, the postposition *mAthi* (on) shows the location of the *kalam* (pen) and it is equivalent to the preposition ‘on’ in English. The following table shows some of the spatial postpositions.

Table No. 10

#### List of Spatial Postpositions

Postpositions	Equivalent Meaning in English
dfly ( <i>mAthi</i> )	up, above, on, over, up
tn ( <i>tala</i> )	under, beneath, below, down
leq ( <i>bhitra</i> )	in, inside, within
aflx/ ( <i>bAhira</i> )	out, outside
d'lg ( <i>muni</i> )	below, under, beneth

Source: Sharma, Mohan Raj (67) *Sabdarachana Ra Varnavinyas*. Kathmandu:

Kathmandu Book Centre, 2058 B.S.

Besides postpositions listed above there are many other spatial postpositions.

According to Bhattarai, postpositions like *pAri* (across), *paTTi* (towards), *tArfa* (towards), *agAdi* (before), *pachhAdi* (after), *tak* (till), *samma* (till), *chheuma* (near), etc. are also the spatial postposition (52). The following example can be given here for more elaboration:

*Mero ghar – pachhAdi euTa mandir chha.*

(“There is a temple behind my house.”)

My house PP one temple be – NPT:3S.

In the example given above, *pachhAdi* (behind) is the spatial postposition as it is placed after the noun *ghar* (house), and tells the location of a temple.

Postpositions that keep the close relationship with nouns and also have their own special meanings and they denote the time of occurrence of events are called temporal postpositions. There are many postpositions of time. They are the most important and prominent. They are widely used in day to day conversation. They have very important role in a text as they denote the time of occurrence of events. Postpositions like *pahile* (before), *purba* (prior to), *paschAt* (after) and *uprAnt* (then after), *pachhAdi* (after), *aagAdi* (before) are some examples of temporal postpositions. Here is another example,

*Mero pacchi timro pAlo ho.*

(“Your turn is after mine.”)

My PP your turn be NPT: 3S

Here, the temporal postposition *pachhi* (after) is used to show the relation between two noun phrases *mero* (mine) and *timro* (your). Some of the temporal postpositions are listed below:

Table No. 11

## List of Temporal Postpositions

Postpositions	Equivalent Meaning in English
k"j{ ( <i>purba</i> )	before/ prior to
kZrft ( <i>paschat</i> )	after
kl5 ( <i>pachhi</i> )	after
pk/fGt ( <i>upranta</i> )	then after
klxn] ( <i>pahile</i> )	before

Source: Sharma, Mohan Raj (67) *Sabdarachana Ra Varnavinyas*. Kathmandu:

Kathmandu Book Centre, 2058 B.S.

Postpositions listed above are not only the temporal postpositions in Nepali grammar.

There are many others, too. Bhattarai lists *pakha* (towards), *sAth* (along), *tAka* (till), etc. as temporal postposition (52).

Postpositions, which have intimate relation with the naming words and are used to describe how the things are done are called postpositions of manner, for example,

*rAm-le Adesh- anusAr kAm gar- chha.*

(“Ram works according to instructions.”)

Ram-Erg order - pp wrok do - NPT: 3s

Here, *Anushar* (according) is the postposition of manner because it tells how *Ram* does the work. It also has the close relationship with the noun *aadesh* (instruction).

More examples are given in the following table:

Table No. 12

## List of Postpositions of Manner

Postpositions of Manner	Equivalent Meaning in English
cg';f/ ( <i>anusAr</i> )	According to
adf]lhd ( <i>bamojim</i> )	accordance with
dfkm{t ( <i>mkarphat</i> )	through
;dfg ( <i>saman</i> )	equal to
eGbf ( <i>bhandā</i> )	than
h:t} ( <i>jasti</i> )	like, as

Source: Sharma, Mohan Raj (67) *Sabdarachana Ra Varnavinyas*. Kathmandu:

Kathmandu Book Centre, 2058 B.S.

Postpositions listed above are the postpositions of manner as they expressed the way how something or somebody does the work.

Causal postpositions, as their name suggests, explain the cause or reason of action related to some nominal words. Such postpositions explain 'for/to whom' or 'for/to what' something is done, for example,

*pAnch hAjar Kharcha bha-yo.*

("Five thousand rupees was spent for Shyam.")

Shyam -pp five thousand expenditure be - PT:3s

Here, *kA lAgi* (for) is the causal postposition as it clearly tells for what the money was spent. In English translation, there is not any addition and modification between 'for' and 'Shyam'. The preposition follows the usual rule, but in Nepali the case ending *ko* (ergative) appears between the noun Shyam and the postposition *lAgi* (for). The following table shows more examples of casual postpositions:

Table No. 13

## List of Causal Postpositions

Postpositions	Equivalent Meaning in English
nflu ( <i>lAgi</i> )	in order to, for
lgldt ( <i>nimti</i> )	for the sake of
sf/of ( <i>kAran</i> )	because of
vflt/ ( <i>khAtir</i> )	for
lgldQ ( <i>nimitta</i> )	for the sake of

Source: Sharma, Mohan Raj (67) *SabdarachanA Ra Varnavinyas*. Kathmandu:

Kathmandu Book Centre, 2058 B.S.

Postpositions listed above are the most common casual postpositions. They denote the cause or reason of actions related to the naming words.

Postpositions which have an inseparable relationship with nouns and are used to show the directions which their name itself indicates are called directional postpositions. They tell more about the direction of something that is discussed. Prepositions like *patti* (towards), *tarfa* (towards), *Aspas* (around), *sAmunne* (opposite) etc. are some of directional postpositions, for example,

*Sita mero koThA-tira herna tha-li.*

(“She began to look towards my room.”)

Sita my room-pp look begin-pt 3sF:NH

Here, *tira* is the directional postposition as it tells the direction where Sita is looking at. Here, *tira* is equivalent to ‘towards’, the English preposition. The following examples given in the table are some other directional postpositions:

Table No. 14

## List of Directional Postpositions

Directional Postpositions	Equivalent Meaning in English
It/ ( <i>tira</i> )	To/towards
;fd'Gg] ( <i>sAmunne</i> )	opposite
tkm{ ( <i>tarfa</i> )	towards
k§L ( <i>patti</i> )	towards
cf;kf; ( <i>AspAs</i> )	around

Source: Sharma, Mohan Raj (67) *SabdarachanA Ra Varnavinyas*. Kathmandu:

Kathmandu Book Centre, 2058 B.S.

Postpositions listed above in the table are directional postpositions as they reveal different directions.

Durational postpositions are used to indicate the exact time duration of some events, keeping a close contact with the nominal words (noun, pronoun, or adjective).

Postpositions like *samma* (till), *mAtra* (only), *kewal* (only), etc. are some of them.

Here is one example:

*reetA bholi-samma bas-chhe.*

("Rita will stay till tomorrow.")

*Rita tomorrow-pp stay-NPT:3S:F:NH*

Here, the postposition *samma* (till) shows the duration of time, which is equivalent to English preposition 'till'. There are few durational postpositions in Nepali grammar. Almost all of them function in a similar way. The following table shows some of the durational postpositions:

Table No. 15

## List of Durational Postpositions

Durational Postpositions	Equivalent Meaning in English
;Dd ( <i>samma</i> )	till, to
ko{Gt ( <i>parayanta</i> )	till / until
dfq ( <i>mAtra</i> )	only
s]jn ( <i>kewal</i> )	only

Source: Sharma, Mohan Raj (67) *Sabdarachana Ra Varnavinyas*. Kathmandu:

Kathmandu Book Centre, 2058 B.S.

Here, the postpositions listed above are durational postpositions as their name also suggest the duration of some events.

Postpositions that are used to show some relational meaning between or among nouns are called relational postpositions. These postpositions show the relationship between two or more nouns, for example,

*medhAvi shAlin-sanga Padh-chhe.*

(“Medhavi studies with Shalin.”)

Medhavi Shalin-pp read-NPT:3S:F:NH

Here, *sanga* (with) is a relational postposition because it shows the relationship between two nouns Medhavi and Shalin. More examples are *sita* (with), *sahit* (along with, including), *samet* (along with, including), etc.

According to Gautam, *sahit* (along with), *antargat* (under), *sathai* (along , with) are also the relational postpositions (139). The following is one example,

*u Afno jholA sahIt gAyab bha-yo.*

(“He disappeared with his bag.”)

He own bag PP disappear be-PT:3SNH

Here, *sahit* (with) is the relational postposition as it establishes a close relationship with two nouns *jhola* (bag), and *U*(he) and the verb 'disappeared'.

Postpositions that are used to show the exchange between/among nouns or to indicate the replacement of one noun by another are categorized as exchangeable postpositions, for example,

*dipendra sukrit-ko ThAun~ma ga-yo.*

(“Dipendra went in place of Sukrit.”)

Dipendra Sukrit-Poss pp go-PT:3S:NH

Here, *thAunmA* (in place of) is an exchangeable postposition as it shows the exchangeable relationship between ‘Dipendra’ and ‘Sukrit’. When translating it into English, the simple postposition *thAunmA* is equivalent to the English preposition ‘in place of’ which is not simple but the compound one. *ThAunmA*(in place of) also indicates a place but it is not the postposition of place because of its function to indicate the replacement. In the example discussed above, the place of ‘Sukrit’ is replaced by ‘Dipendra’. Some other exchangeable postpositions are *saTTA* (instead of), *badala* (in exchange), *bApat* (on account of), etc.

These postpositions provide alternatives or rarity with the nouns. With these postpositions at least two nominal words stand in juxtapositions, for example,

*binitA kheti bAhek sano nokari pani gar-chhe.*

(“Binita does small job in addition to agriculture.”)

Binita farming pp small job also do-NPT: 3S:F:NH

Here, the rare postposition, *bAhek* (in addition to), gives extra information about the sources of her income. Besides farming, ‘Binita’ has to do a small job for her living. It is clearly indicated by the rare postposition *bAhek* (in addition to). The table below shows more examples of rare postpositions.

Table No. 16

## List of Rare Postpositions

Postpositions	Equivalent Meaning in English
lagf ( <i>binA</i> )	Without
afx]s ( <i>bAhek</i> )	barring, except, besides, without, apart from
l;jfo ( <i>siwAya</i> )	except, apart from
cnjf ( <i>alawA</i> )	in addition to, apart from, moreover
clt/LQm ( <i>atirikta</i> )	in addition to

Source: Sharma, Mohan Raj (67) *SabdarachanA Ra Varnavinyas*. Kathmandu:

Kathmandu Book Centre, 2058 B.S.

Sharma lists only fewer examples of rare postpositions as shown in the table above.

Gautam lists *rahit* (without) and *begar* (except) as rare postpositions.

The quantity and the extension of area or time are indicated by the use of these postpositions. These Nepali postpositions translated mostly into adjectives in English such as (*bhari* = full). However, the corresponding translation has been used throughout this work. Here is one example,

*gAgri-bhari pAni chha.*

(“The jar is full of water.”)

Jar- pp water be: NPT: 3S

In this example, *bhari* is the postposition of quantity as it indicates the amount of water in *gagri* (jar). Postpositions like *bhari* (full), *bhar* (whole), *jati* (as much as), etc. are some of them. The following table shows some of the quantitative postpositions:

Table No. 17

## List of Quantitative Postpositions

Postpositions	Equivalent Meaning in English
e/L ( <i>bhari</i> )	full of
e/ ( <i>bhar</i> )	whole
hlt ( <i>jati</i> )	as much as

Source: Sharma, Mohan Raj (67) *SabdarachanA Ra Varnavinyas*. Kathmandu:

Kathmandu Book Centre, 2058 B.S.

Nepali grammarians do not have the same type of classifications of postpositions.

Sharma does not list *bAre* (about), *prati* (towards/to), *upar* (upon), *mAthi* (up), etc. as *vishayabAchak* (subjective postpositions). But Gautam counts them as subjective postpositions.

### Prepositions and Postpositions: Similarities

Both Nepali and English are different languages though they are cognate ones that descended from the same Indo-European language family and consisted of different varieties of languages. They are diverse in many aspects, but they have some similarities, too. This section presents a comparative study of English and Nepali, identifying similarities and differences in the structures and functions of prepositions in English and postpositions in Nepali. For the comparison of these cognate languages, some examples are studied and compared thoroughly. The comparison deals with syntactic and semantic aspects.

There are some similarities between prepositions and postpositions of English and Nepali which are analyzed in the following paragraphs.

In the Nepali language, the same word can be used as an adverb or a postposition. But when it is an adverb it is written separately and when it functions as

a postposition, it is attached with the noun, for example,

*ma mAthi ga-era A-en.*

(“I went up and came.”)

I up go-PF come-PT:1S

*ma ghara- mAthi ga-e~n.*

(“I went above the house.”)

I house- PP go-PT:1S

Here, in the first example, *mAthi* (up) is an adverb as it refers to a place independently and is an independent word. So it is written separately. But in the second example *ghara-mAthi*, the particle *mAthi* refers to the location of the noun so it is a postposition and is combined with the noun.

In English too, such instances of using the same word as an adverb or a postposition can be found in the following examples,

I had seen him before. (Time adverb)

He is standing before me. (Preposition)

In English, like verbs, adjectives take an appropriate preposition after them like:

‘amazed at’, ‘aware of’, ‘based on’, etc. The following example can be given for more clarification,

Angel is absorbed in her work.

*engel Afno kAm mA tallin chh-an.*

Angel own work-PP engaged be-NPT:3S:MH

In Nepali too, adjectives in some cases take the appropriate postposition. In its Nepali translation, *bhibhakti* (case ending), *mA* (upon) functions as a postposition.

In Nepali grammar, an adjective is also used as a postposition, for example,

*yo us-ko atirikta kAm h-o.*

(“This is his additional work.”)

This he-poss additional work be-PT : 3S

*yes atirikta U vyApAr pani gar-chha.*

(“He does business in addition to this.”)

This in addition to the business also do NPT : 3S

In the first example, the word *atirikta* (additional) functions as a noun as it is an independent noun, but as a postposition in the second one because, in the second example, *atirikta* (additional) is related to ‘yes’.

In English grammar, also the same word can be used as an adjective or a preposition, for example,

Memory of past happiness is often painful.

*atit- ka khusi- ko smaran prAya dardanAk hun-chha.*

Past-poss happiness-poss memory often pain be NPT: 3S

In this example, the word ‘past’ is an adjective as it qualifies the noun 'happiness', but in the example below, the word ‘past’ functions as a preposition:

I go to school past a temple.

In the Nepali language, postpositions are not only used with nouns or with the words that take place of nouns but also they are written together with adverbs such as in the following example:

*timi bholi- samma parkh-a.*

(“You wait till tomorrow.”)

you tomorrow-PP wait-IMP

Here, the postposition *samma* (till) is written together with the adverb of time *bholi* (tomorrow). In the English translation also, the preposition ‘till’ has come just before the adverb ‘tomorrow’, so this is a similarity in this sense.

In both languages, prepositions and postpositions do the function of case indicators, as in the following example,

*mai-le bhAi - kAnimti lugA kin-ě.*

(“I bought clothes for brother.”)

I – ERG brother – PP clothes buy – PT:1S

In this Nepali example, the postposition *kAnimti* (for) has been used as the postposition in its form but functionally it works as a case indicator and is equivalent to *lAi* (for). The postposition *lai* is a case indicator.

In English, there are similar cases. As in the following example,

I broke the pot with a hammer.

In this example, the role played by the hammer in case grammar is the instrument. To show the role of the instrument ‘with’ has been used as the case indicator, a preposition and postposition may take two or more nouns as their objects:

I spoke to Reena, Bina and Saibna.

*ma reenA, binA ra sabinA-sanga bol-ě.*

I Reena, Bina and Sabina-PP speak-PT:1s.

In the example above, ‘to’ and its equivalent *sanga* are prepositions and postpositions respectively. It is clearly seen that both function items have taken more than two objects Reena, Bina and Sabina.

In Nepali, sometimes a noun is also used as a postposition as shown in the example,

*gAun-ko bich yahi – ho.*

(“This is the centre of the village.”)

village POSS centre this be PT:3s

*Rita Sadak-bich ubhi-eki chha.*

("Rita has been standing in the middle of the road.")

Rita road - centre stand-PF:F be-NPT:3s

Here, in the first example, the word *bich* (middle) is used as a noun as it is an independent word and is written separately. But in the second example, the particle *bich* is just a clitic and has been attached with the preceding noun *Sadak* (road), it is, therefore, a postposition.

In English too, some prepositions can be used as nouns, for example,

I saw them getting ready for the off (state of a race)

In this example, the word 'off' is used as a noun. Postpositions and prepositions are both closed groups/grammatical categories and are listed under the parts of speech.

### **Prepositions and Postpositions: Differences**

In English grammar, some prepositions like 'after,' 'before,' 'till,' etc. are used as conjunctions, as in the following example,

He had finished his work before we reached there.

In the example given above, the preposition 'before' is used to join two clauses: 'He had finished his work' and 'we reached there.' But in the Nepali language, postpositions do not function as conjunctions. It can be a point of difficulty to the learners or non-native speakers.

In English, an adverbial particle functions like a preposition with the complement omitted but in Nepali it is not the case, for example,

We stopped the bus and got off (i.e., off the bus)

*hAmi-le bas rok-eu~ ra jhar-en~.*

We-ERG bus stop-PT: 1SP and dismount-PT:1SP

Here, in the English example, 'off' is an adverbial particle, but it functions as a preposition. But in its Nepali translation, there is no corresponding indicator of it.

This situation may lead the learners to the point of confusion. In the example above, in English, the particle ‘off’ is retained even if its noun has been omitted, but in Nepali, the particle is absent.

In English, prepositions can be placed after the main verb in questions and passive sentences, but the positions of postpositions do not change, for example,

What is this book for? Or for what is this book?

*Yo kitAb kekA lAgi ho?*

This book ERG:PP - what

In this example, the preposition ‘for’ can be placed before the ‘wh’- element or question element at the end of the question, but in the Nepali translation of it, the postposition *lAgi* (for) is in the middle and always follows the question elements such as *ke* (what), *ko* (who), *kasko* (whose), etc. In English questions, the preposition changes its position but it does not happen with postposition in Nepali. It can create confusion to the learners and speakers regarding their position.

But, in passive sentences, the preposition is placed after the main verb, for example,

We spoke to Ganesh. (Active)

Ganesh was spoken to. (Passive)

ma Ganesh sanga bol-ẽ (*Kartri bAchya*)

ma dwArA Ganesh sanga boli-y-o. (*Karma bAchya*)

Here, in the first example, the preposition ‘to’ is placed at the end of the sentence while changing active voice into passive. But in the second example, postposition *sanga* (with) does not move to the end of the sentence while changing *kartri bAchya* (active voice) into *karma bAchya* (passive voice). It has come together with the noun ‘Ganesh’. The non-native speaker will make the mistake in translation by putting

*sanga* (with) at last, which does not follow grammatical rule of the language.

In English relative clauses, a preposition may have two positions: either before *wh* – element or after the verb. But in the Nepali translation, the postposition does not change its position. For example, two sentences are given below:

The man with whom I live is my uncle.

Or,

The man who I live with is my uncle.

In the first example, the preposition ‘with’ has been placed before the relative pronoun ‘whom’ but in the second example, the preposition has been placed after the verb ‘live’. Both the sentences are grammatically correct, but they are different in formality. The first one is formal and the second informal. The Nepali translation of the sentences is:

*tyo keto, jo sanga ma bas-chhu mero bhai ho*

that boy who with I live - NPT:1s my brother be-NPT:3s

Or,

*tyo keto mero bhai ho jo sanga ma bas-chhu*

that boy my brother be-NPT:3s who with I live - NPT:1s

In both of these Nepali sentences, the postposition has attached with the relative pronoun *jo*. In exclamations, a preposition is placed at the end of the sentences.

When attempts have been made to compare prepositions in English and postpositions in Nepali, a lot of difficult and confusing situations can arise, especially in translation because of contrastive transfer. Most of the postpositions literally translate into English prepositions. But there are cases that cause great problems, as in the following example,

He writes in ink.

*u masi-le lekh-chha*

He ink- PP write-NPT:3S

Here, ‘in’ is not equivalent to *le*. The sentence can be translated in Nepali as *u masi-le lekh-chha*. In the normal use, the literal sense ‘in’ means *bhitra*, but it cannot be said or written *u masi-bhitra lekh-chha* (He writes inside the ink.). It can be a greater point of difficulty to the speakers or learners.

In the same way, other countless problems can be seen with this transfer error.

The following sentence can be taken as an example,

rAm le sitA sanga vibAha gar-yo.

(“Ram married with Sita.”) (Literal translation)

Ram – ERG Sita – PP marriage do – PT:3S

The English translation in the above example is wrong because of the use of ‘with’. Most of the Nepali speakers translate the sentence in this way. But the correct translation is ‘Ram married Sita.’ This type of opposition, such as the presence and absence of preposition or postposition can be problematic in teaching learning process. But in passive it can be used like this: ‘Sita was married to Ram.’

In the English language, normally a preposition is not placed before adverbs of time and frequency, but in the Nepali language a postposition can be placed before adverbs of time and frequency. Here is one example,

She goes for a swim every morning.

*u paudi khel-nakAlAgi harek bihan jAn-chhe.*

she swim play-pp every morning go-NPT:3S.

Here, in the English example, there is no preposition placed before ‘every morning’ which is an adverb of frequency. But in its Nepali translation the postposition *lAgi* or *kAlAgi* (for) is placed before the adverb of frequency *harek bihAn* (every morning).

In English, a preposition is required before an indirect object when it is moved after the direct object, but in its corresponding translation in Nepali, the postposition is not required with the indirect object whether it precedes or follows the direct object.

The example below clarifies this statement,

I gave my brother a pen.

I gave a pen to my bother.

In the example above, 'my brother' is the indirect object and 'a pen' is the direct object. In the first example, the indirect object precedes the direct and there is no preposition, but in the second preposition, 'to' is inserted as it is placed after the direct object. Its translation in Nepali looks like this:

maile mero bhAi- lAi euTA kalam di- ē

I - ERG my brother-ACC one pen give-PT:1S

Or,

mai-le euTa kalam mero bhAi-lAi di- ē

I-ERG one pen my brother-ERG give-PT:3S

These examples in Nepali show that the position of the object can be changed, but there is no use of postposition.

Sometimes the translation process between English and Nepali may cause a big problem while using prepositions and postpositions. In English, a preposition cannot be used before a noun when it is used as adverb of direction, but in the Nepali language, a postposition is placed right after the noun as below,

My house faces east.

*mero ghar purva-paTTi/tira fark-eko chh-a.*

my house east-PP face- PF be-NPT:3S.

Here, in the first example above, there is no preposition placed before the noun 'east'

as it is an adverb of direction. But in its Nepali translation, the postposition *paTTi* or *tira* (towards) is placed right after the noun *purba* (east)

In the English language, prepositions always take a gerund if a verb directly follows them. But in Nepali, there is no use of postposition. The verb is used in infinitive form, ending in - *na*, but it is not the case in Nepali. Verbs have no relationship with postpositions. The following example shows this,

She is fond of playing tennis.

*uni Tennis khel-na shaukhin chha-n.*

she tennis play-INF fond be-NPT:3S:MH

Here, in this example, a gerund form of the verb, such as, 'playing' is used after the preposition "of" as a preposition takes gerund. But in Nepali, there is no use of postposition but the verb takes the infinitive form. It is just used with the noun phrase to show various relationships.

In the English language, certain verbs are used with some specific prepositions like 'abide by', 'aim at', etc. Here is one example,

She aims at getting first division.

*us-le partham shreni pA-u-ne u-de-shya rAkh-chhe.*

She first division get-INF aim- keep-NPT: 3S

But in Nepali, the verb - postposition combination is not seen in the normal use. But in some cases, the infinitival form of verb or verbal noun may take postpositions. The following example can be taken,

*hikmat-le paisA kamAu-nakAlAgi koriya ga-yo*

Hikmat-Erg money earn-INF-PP Korea go-PT: 3s

Hikmat went to Korea to earn money

In English, the same word can be used as a verb and a preposition. The following

example can be considered for discussion about this,

Save money for your marriage. (Verb)

All students save Ganesh were present. (Preposition)

In the first example, the word 'save' functions as a verb but in the second example it is used as a preposition as it is placed before the noun 'Ganesh' and keeps a close relation between all students and Ganesh. But it is not the case in Nepali. Such cases can hardly be found in Nepali. *kriyA* (verb) cannot function as a postposition.

In English, a preposition is placed before the place of destination that somebody is planning to go. But in Nepali, it is not the case, as in the example below,

I go to Kathmandu.

Here, the preposition 'to' is placed before the name of place 'Kathmandu'. This sentence can be translated in Nepali as,

*ma kathmandu janchhu.*

("I go to Kathmandu.")

i Kathmandu be-NPT:3s

Here, in the Nepali translation, there is no use of postposition. In this case, even without a postposition, the meaning of the sentence is clear.

## Chapter 4

### Conclusions and Findings

Prepositions in English and postpositions in Nepali have their special types of functions and structures. The present study has found out some similarities and some differences in their structure and function types.

Through the analysis and processing of various data, the hypothesis has been met as many similarities and differences between prepositions and postpositions have been found. The study has created a new horizon for the learners and has paved a way for further research in this area. It will be very significant to those people who have the earnest desire to do a comparative research in English and Nepali. It has tried to unfold semantic and syntactic aspects on surface level. In addition, research endeavors are highly encouraged in this particular area. It is hoped that it will benefit both native and non-native learners.

In the process of analysis, it also found that the Nepali language has borrowed many ideas from English in functions, structures and many other areas. Some of the similarities and differences in prepositions and postpositions are listed as follow:

This study has found some similarities in the use of prepositions and postpositions:

- a) Both prepositions and postpositions are used with nouns, pronouns and adjectives. They are function words.
- b) On the basis of meaning, prepositions and postpositions have common types like spatial, causal, durational, temporal, directional, manner, etc.
- c) Of the various types of relational meaning in both languages, those of place and time are the most prominent and easy to identify.
- d) Some prepositions like 'at', 'in', and 'on' are used as location and time. Similarly,

some postpositions like *bhitra* (inside), *tira* (towards), *bAhira* (outside), *mAthi* (up), *aghi* (before), *pachhi* (after), and *mA* (on) are used both as *sthanik* (place) and *kalik* (time) postpositions.

- e) Structurally, prepositions and postpositions are of two types, simple and compound. In some situations, both change their place.
- f) Prepositions and postpositions can be used with adverbs in both languages.
- g) Prepositions and postpositions may take two or more nouns as their objects.
- h) In special cases, both postpositions and prepositions change their positions: prepositions after nouns (what is this book for?), and postpositions before nouns (*u binA paisA bazAr ga - yo*) (“He went to market without money”).

The study has met some differences which include the following:

- a) There are positional differences. Prepositions except in some special cases are placed before nouns while postpositions are mainly placed after nouns.
- b) In the English language, compound prepositions do not have further classifications, but in the Nepali language compound postpositions are of three types and perform their functions according to their types.
- c) In the Nepali language, postpositions do not occur at the end of the sentence, but it is possible in English.
- d) In the English grammar, prepositions in some situations function as conjunctions, but Nepali postpositions are never used as conjunctions.
- e) In the Nepali language, in some cases, postpositions are replaced by *bhibhakti* (case ending) but in English no word can substitute a preposition.
- f) In English, the same word can be used as a verb and a preposition. But it is not the case in Nepali. Such cases can hardly be found in Nepali. *kriyA* (verb) cannot function as a preposition.

In this study, it has been difficult in translating Nepali into English and English into Nepali due to the very distinct characteristics of prepositions and postpositions. Now, in spite of many similarities and some differences, there might be many other problems. Thus, more research works are needed in this area of study.

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