Chapter 1

Introduction

1.0   Introduction

Majority of people residing in Nepal speak Nepali language. It has received the status of national language. It is the lingua-franca of Nepal and is able to bind all citizens of different ethnic groups and community in a single thread. It is the language of administration, education, politics, journalism, trade commerce and court etc. The Nepali language belongs to the 'Indic' sub branch of the 'Indo Iranian' branch of Indo-European family. Nepali is spoken not only in Nepal but also in different parts of India, Bhutan, Bangladesh, Hong Kong and other parts of the world.

The origin of almost all Nepali grammatical terms can be traced back to Sanskrit. The first grammar of the Nepali language was written by Aton (1820 A.D) titled 'A grammar of the Nepali language'. Many foreigners and Nepali scholars have involved in writing the grammar of Nepali language at different phases of the Nepali grammatical traditions. Many writers have collected a large number of grammatical terms. This proposed thesis is based on the previous theses related to the different aspects of the grammatical terms in the Nepali language, i.e. Nepal (2056), Aryal (2062) and Dhakal (2066). Nepali grammatical terms have been defined since long ago. The grammatical terms are defined deferently in different books and references.

A large number of grammatical terms are used in Nepali. The writers define and use the the grammatical terms either as mentioned in traditional references or may base their definitions in modern linguistic terms. These terms are, in fact, defined in different ways in different situations depending on the inclination of the authors and users. An attempt is made here to compare the definitions of the grammatical terms found in traditional books to the modern definitions of Crystal (2008 A.D.).

1.1 Statement of the problem

No attempt has been made to study and analyze the Nepali grammatical terms comparing them with the modern definitions. The differences between the traditional and modern definition of the grammatical terms have not been made. The present study is therefore is based on the following problems:

a) How are Nepali grammatical terms defined traditionally?

b) In what ways are the traditional definitions of Nepali grammatical terms similar and different from the modern linguistic definitions?

c) How can the evaluation of the traditional Nepali grammatical terms be made against modern linguistic definitions?

1.2 Objective of the study

The general objective of this thesis is to study the Nepali grammatical terms comparing them with the modern definitions. More specifically, the study aims:

a) To examine the traditional definitions of the Nepali grammatical terms,

b) To compare similarities and differences between traditional definitions of Nepali grammatical terms and modern linguistic definitions, and

c) To evaluate Nepali Grammatical terms against modern linguistic definitions.

1.3 Review of the literature

The writing of the Nepali grammar was first initiated by the foreign scholars. Some foreign scholars residing in India were studying the Indian languages also studied the Nepali language and started writing grammars of Nepali.   Aton's grammar of the Nepali language (1820 A.D.) is taken as the first grammar of Nepali language. The further study of Nepali language was carried out by a number of scholars, native and foreign. Initiation of writing Nepali grammar and publication by foreign scholars was accompanied by Birendra Keshari Arjyal from 1963 VS (Sundari Magazine) until today.

The development of writing Nepali grammar can be divided into three major periods. They are described in this section.

The initiation of writing Nepali grammar was taken by some foreign scholars such as J.A. Aton including other foreign writers. This can be taken as the first period from the beginning to 1963. This period may be regarded very important in the history of writing Nepali grammar because the some Nepali grammars were seen in this stage. A number of foreigners actively studied the Nepali language wrote their works during this period. Beames (1872 A.D.), Kellogg (1875 A. D), Wright (1877 A.D.), Hoernle, (1880 A.D.), and Turnbull (1887 A. D) are main foreign scholars who are well-known for their contributions in writing Nepali grammars during this period.

This period is equally important because scholars from Nepal were involved in writing Nepali grammar for the first time. Birendra Keshari Arjyal was the first Nepali scholar who devoted himself to writing Nepali grammar for the first time in 1963 in the magazine titled 'Sundari'. This period (1964 to 2013) can be taken as the second period. He studied the Nepali lexicon, affixation and syntax of Nepali grammar. Following Arjyal, 'Halanta Bahiskar Andolan' (1965) was initiated through the magazine named '*Madhawi*' in the leadership of Ram Mani Aadi. Some noted figures involved in this movement were Singh (1969), Pandit (1969), Dikchitacharya (1913 A.D), Sigdyal (1976), Pradhan (2000), Rana (2001), Sharma (2003), Huge (1947 A.D.).

The third period (2014 to until today) is mainly initiated by Panta (2014). He started a new trend in writing Nepali grammar. Panta (2014) claims, 'the study of the grammar is incomplete without the knowledge of linguistics' and he tried to bring Nepali grammar writing following some principles and procedures of linguistics. Following Panta, the trend of the study of Nepali Grammar was led by different linguistic models.

The first linguistic model study of Nepali grammar was initiated by a number of grammarians who were influenced by structuralism, i.e. Dahal (1974 A.D.), Sharma (1980 A.D.), Bandhu (1973A.D.). Southworth (1967), and Gautam (2053) were the scholars who wrote Nepali grammar in Trasformational Generative framework. Among the case grammarians were Adhikari (2053) and Gautam (2053). Shreebastav (1962 A.D.), Tiwari (2030) are notable for historical and comparative approach.

Among traditional grammarians Sharma (2016), Sharma (2017), Parajuli (2023), Bhattarai (2033), Bhattarai (2033) were actively involved in the study of Nepali grammar.

The time period taken by different grammatical trends can be divided into three different periods. Therefore, the beginning of Nepali grammar writing system from 1820 A.D. to the recent day has spent about 200 years. About 200 grammars have been published by different grammarians at different times.

The definitions of most of the Nepali grammatical terms are borrowed either from Sanskrit or English. Many authors have tried to collect and define Nepali grammatical terms. These definitions are not exact for a living language like Nepali and need to be defined linguistically. Some researchers have worked on the definition of the linguistic terms which are presented in the chronological order.

Bandhu (2052) is a basic technical terms. He has colleted some frequently used Nepali grammatical terms with their English translation. The work is again a collection of Nepali grammatical terms frequently used in linguistics.

Adhkari (2053) wrote a grammar entitled 'Nepali case grammar'. This work is like a list of 178 Nepali grammatical terms. However, this work lacks analysis in depth. This study contains a list of grammatical terms in alphabetical order with their English translation in the appendix.

Pokharel (2056) contains 537 Nepali grammatical terms in alphabetical order with their English translation as an appendix. The author mainly includes the grammatical terms used in this book. Pokharel (2056) has adopted new approaches while analyzing the Nepali grammar.

Nepal (2056) is a collection of 645 Nepali grammatical terms frequently used in the Nepali grammar. He has not only listed the grammatical terms but also the way they are defined in specific references. He has included the grammatical terms used by the Nepali grammarians from Birendra Keshari Arjyan (1945-1962) to Pushkar Samsher (2001). The collection includes all grammatical terms used by a number of scholars who wrote about Nepali grammar of this period.

Aryal (2062) is similar to Nepal (2056). However, the time period taken by the author is between (2004-2024). In this study, he has collected 380 Nepali grammatical he has also and listed them with similar definitions and examples.

Dhakal's study (2065) includes the time period between (2024-2034). In this study, he has collected 151 Nepali grammatical terms frequently used in Nepali grammar and listed them with definitions and examples. They are included in alphabetical order as an appendix.

Although the grammatical terms used in Nepali grammatical tradition have been dealt with in these separate works, this study tries to investigate how the grammatical terms are defined in Crystal (2008A.D.) and in those references.

1.4   Research methodology

The data for this research is collected from the secondary sources. Some major sources of the data are Nepal (2056), Aryal (2062) and Dhakal (2066). Among the terms, the most frequently used grammatical terms have been chosen for the evaluation. In this way, a total of seventy two most frequently used grammatical terms have been selected, compared and evaluated.

The grammatical terms as defined in the earliest sources (in the Nepali language) have been taken for this study. For example, 'ablative' case was taken from Dikshitacharya because the term was defined in 1913 A.D. and was included in Nepal (2056). Although the same term has been defined by a number of other scholars in later stage, those definitions have not been included in this study. Similarly, 'lateral' was first defined by Pokhrel and Dahal (2027). Since this grammatical term had not been defined in the earlier references, this definition has been included in this study from Dhakal (2065).

These definitions have been translated into English from Nepali. This is followed by the definition of the same grammatical term by Crystal (2008). Thus, when the traditional definition and its modern counterpart have been presented, these terms have been compared and evaluated after each definition. All these grammatical terms have been presented in alphabetical order. The ways the traditional definitions are defined by traditional grammarians have been compared focusing on the similarities and differences.

1.5　　Significance of the Study

This study will be useful in the history of registers related to linguistics of the Nepali grammar. The detailed study of the Nepali grammatical terms has not been carried out yet. It is obvious that this study will be a helpful in the study of Nepali grammatical terms.

1.6　　Limitation of the Study

The data for this study has been collected from the following sources: Nepal (2056), Aryal (2062) and Dhakal (2066). This study is confined to the study of Nepali grammatical terms and comparison to the dictionary of Crystal (2008 A.D.). The definition which appears earliest sources is considered for this study.

1.7　　Organization of the Study

The organization of this thesis is as follows:
Chapter 1: Introduction
Chapter 2: Analysis of the terms
Chapter 3: Summary
References
Appendix
 A glossary of grammatical terms

Chapter 2

Evaluation of the grammatical terms

2.0 Outline

In this chapter, the grammatical terms are presented in alphabetical order. The English translations of the definitions of the selected grammatical terms have been given. This is followed by the definitions of the terms from Crystal (2008 A.D.). The grammatical terms presented are compared and evaluated at the end of each entry. A total of 72 words have been presented and evaluated in this chapter.

2.1 Evaluation of Grammatical Terms in alphabetical order

2.1.1 Ablative (अपादान)**:** According to Dikshitacharya (1913), "Ablative case is the source from where an object departs (separates)'. For example, 'ρυκ βατ1 πηαλ δζʰ ρδατσʰ℘ɜ (fruits fall from tree). In this example, the fruit is separated from the tree. This is the ablative case."

Similarly, Crystal (2008 A.D.) notes that it is a term "referring to the form taken by a noun phrase (often a single noun or pronoun), typically used in the expression of a range of locative or instrumental meanings is called an ablative case. English does not have an 'ablative case' as did Latin, but uses other means (the prepositions *with*, *from* and *by* in particular) to express these notions, e.g. He did it with his hands."

In traditional definition, the term 'ablative case' refers to the place from where something departs. This definition shows that source is the ablative case.

2.1.2 Affricate (स्पर्शोष्म)**:** According to Dikshitacharya (1913 A.D.), "In Nepali consonant system the phonemes that appear in between [k] to [m] are called affricates."

Affricate is a term in the classification of consonant sounds on the basis of their manner of articulation: it refers to a sound made when the air-pressure behind a complete closure in the vocal tract is gradually released; the initial release produces a plosive, but the separation

which follows is sufficiently slow to produce audible friction, and there is thus a Fricative element in the sound also. However, the duration of the friction is usually not as long as would be the case of an independent fricative sound. If it is very brief indeed, the term affricate is used; in some English dialects, such as Cockney, affricated plosives may be heard, such as [ts] and [dz], the auditory brevity of the friction element being indicated in the transcription by the small symbols. It is, then, the combination of plosion and friction which identifies an affricate (Crystal 2008 A.D.).

The traditional definition is not complete because the phonetic basis for defining the affricates is not given. The definition simply defines the 'affricate' sounds in terms of their distribution. On the other hand the phonetic basis of affricates is defined in detail in Crystal (2008). The modern definition is scientific and testable as it provides the definition to define the sounds in terms of manner of articulation.

2.1.3 Agentive (कर्ता कारक): According to Dikshiktacharya (1913 A.D.), "Agentive case refers the person (or supports) to whom (or which) the action is known. For example, child plays, child eats rice."

Agentive is used in grammatical description to refer to a form or construction whose typical function in a sentence is to specify the means whereby a particular action came about (the agent). In some languages, the term is used as one of the cases for nouns, along with accusative, etc. In English, the term has especial relevance with reference to the passive construction, where the agent may be expressed or unexpressed (agent less) (e.g. the man was bitten [by a snake]). In active constructions in English, the agent is usually the grammatical subject, but in some sentences a more complex statement of agentive function is required (Crystal 2008 A.D.).

Both of these definitions accept that the agentive is the instigator of an action denoted by the verb. Although the definition in traditional grammar is not sufficient, the meaning is illustrated through examples. Their definition differs in the sense that traditional writers explain only about the human subject to be an agent but the modern definition claims that the instigator of an action could also be the other forces than human. The modern definition also relates this term with various theories of grammar.

2.1.4 Alveolar (वर्त्स्य)**:** According to Pokhrel and Dhahal (2027), "Alveolars are those which touch the sides of the root of the tongue. [τσ], [τσʰ], [δζ], [δζʰ], [v], [λ], [ρ],ανδ [σ] are alveolar sounds."

Alveolar is a term used in the classification of consonant sounds on the basis of their place of articulation: it refers to a sound made by the blade of the tongue (or the tip and blade together) in contact against the alveolar ridge (or alveolus), which is the bony prominence immediately behind the upper teeth. A number of sounds are given an alveolar articulation in English – [t], [d], [l], [n], [s] and [z]. If the sound is articulated towards the back of the alveolar ridge, near where the palate begins, the term post-alveolar can be used. In English the r in red, trip, drill is articulated in post-alveolar position (Crystal 2008 A.D.).

The traditional definition does not specify exactly where the 'alveolar' sounds are articulated. They simply illustrate the sounds through examples from Nepali. They do not describe this on the basis of place of articulation. The modern definition, on the other hand, precisely defines where these sounds are articulated, i.e. alveolar ridge.

2.1.5 Antonym (विपरीतार्थक)**:** According to Pandey (2048), "Antonym is opposite of synonymy such as *ραμρο- ν℘ραμρο* (good-bad), *κηυσι-δυκηι* (happy-sad)."

Antonym is a term used in semantics as part of the study of oppositeness of meaning. Antonym is one of a set of sense relations recognized in some analyses of meaning, along with synonymy, hyponymy, incompatibility and others. In its most general sense, it refers collectively to all types of semantic oppositeness (antonyms), with various subdivisions then being made (Crystal 2008 A.D.).

Both the definitions agree that antonyms is a word or a phrase that is opposite with respect to a word. The modern definition gives broad meaning compared to the traditional Nepali definition. In addition to the 'opposite' meaning, it defines 'antonym' with various subdivisions (e.g. between graded antonyms, such as big-small, where there are degrees of difference, and ungraded antonyms, such as single-married, where there is an either/or contrast).

2.1.6 Approximant (अन्तःस्थ): According to Pradhan (1956), "[φ], [ρ], [λ], [ω] consonants are called approximants."

Approximant is a general term used by some phoneticians in the classification of speech sounds on the basis of their manner of articulation, and corresponding to what in other approaches would be called frictionless continuants, i.e. [w], [j], [r], [l] and all vowels. The term is based on the articulations involved, in that one articulator approaches another, but the degree of narrowing involved does not produce audible friction (Crystal 2008 A.D.).

Both definitions claim that the series of sounds, i.e. [φ], [ρ], [λ], [ω] are approximants. However, the way they define the sounds differ. For example, the traditional writer defines the 'approximant' simply by providing examples without providing phonetic details. On the other hand, the modern definition provides details emphasizing the articulation of sounds. In addition, modern definition also includes the sound [h] within approximants which is missing in traditional definitions.

2.1.7 Aspiration (महाप्राण): According to Dikshiktacharya (1913 A.D.), "Aspiration occurs in the second and fourth letter of alphabets."

[κ^η], [τσ^η], [τ18^η], [τ^η], [π^η], [γH],[δζ^η], [δ1^η], [δ^η], [βH], [σ] ανδ [η]."

On the similarly, Crystal (2008 A.D.) says,

Aspiration is a term in phonetics for the audible breath which may accompany a sound's articulation, as when certain types of plosive consonant are released. It is usually symbolized by a small raised [h] following the main symbol. In examples such as English pin [p^{h}in], the aspiration may be felt by holding the back of the hand close to the mouth while saying the word; aspect the contrast with bin, where there is no aspiration, is noticeable (Crystal 2008 A.D.).

The modern grammarians define aspiration as the strong burst of air that accompanies either the release or, in the case of pre-aspiration, the closure of some obstruents. The modern grammarians thus define the 'aspiration' in terms of its phonetic characteristics. On the other hand, the traditional definition is restricted within the distribution of the aspirated sounds, i.e. second and fourth letters. The traditional view is quite unclear about how the sound is produced or articulated.

2.1.8 Attributive (बहुव्रीहि): According to Acharya (1980), "The main phrase that is attributed by other sub phrases is known as attributive phrase, for example,

δυι τσʰ℘ν δζιυ δζ℘σκα δηοδζιψα γ℘ρβηινι (the women that has double body is pregnant)."

In grammatical description, attributive normally refers to the role of adjectives and nouns when they occur as modifiers of the head of a noun phrases. For example, red has attributive function in the red chair, as has Jane's in Jane's hat. The term contrasts with the predicative function of these words, as in the chair is red, the hat is Jane's. Some models of grammatical description have extended the use of this term to include such complement structures as he is my uncle, I called him a fool, and this usage can include the adjectival use above (Crystal 2008 A.D.).

The traditional writer mainly focuses on the sentences where one phrase attributes the sentence. In the modern definition, it explains that an attributive phrase is the modifier of a noun phrase. Therefore, the modern definition is close to existing grammatical theories.

2.1.9 Case (कारक): According to Acharya (1980 A.D, "The suffix that links verb and the case marker to each other are known as case."

A case is a grammatical category used in the analysis of word-classes (or their associated phrases) to identify the syntactic relationship between words in a sentence, through such contrasts as nominative, accusative, etc. Each form is analysed in terms of a specific range of meaning; e.g. nominative is primarily the case of the grammatical subject of the sentence, genitive refers to such notions as possession, origin, and so on. In languages which lack morphological variations of this kind, the term 'case', as traditionally used, does not apply (Crystal 2008 A.D.).

The traditional grammarian focuses on the relation of nouns and pronouns to verb. But Crystal (2008 A.D.) focuses on the analysis of word-classes to identify the syntactic relationship between words in a sentence. The traditional definition therefore seems narrower than modern one. Additionally, the traditional definition is not clear either.

2.1.10 Command sentence (आज्ञार्थक वाक्य)**:** According to Adhikari (2015), "The sentences which express command, request and order is known as a command sentence, e.g. φεηα αυ (come here) γυρυ λε βηανεκο μαν (Obey your teacher)."

Command sentence is a term used in the classification of sentence functions, and defined sometimes on grammatical and sometimes on semantic or sociolinguistic grounds. Syntactically a command is a sentence which typically has no subject, and where the verb is in the imperative mood, e.g. come here! Semantically it is primarily used to tell someone to do (or not do) something (Crystal 2008 A.D.).

Both of these definitions give emphasis on the functional aspect of the sentences. Crystal's (2008 A.D.) definition is broader as it provides details about command sentence. Crystal (2008 A.D.) also provides syntactic and sociolinguistic features characterized in this kind of sentence. He also explains the concept of command with other kinds of sentences, such as statement, question and exclamation. All these details can not be seen in the traditional definitions. The traditional definition simply explains the terms with the help of examples. As a whole, both of the definitions agree on the kind of meaning command gives.

2.1.11 Compound sentence **(**संयुक्त-वाक्य) **:** According to Pandey (1994), "A compound sentence is made up of two or more than two simple sentences."

A compound sentence (consisting of two or more main clauses); but other applications of the term exist, as in 'compound verbs' (e.g. come in), 'compound componential analysis tenses' (those consisting of an auxiliary + lexical verb), 'compound subjects/ objects', etc. (Crystal 2008 A.D.).

The traditional definition notes that a compound sentence is composed of at least two simple sentences. The modern definition states that a compound sentence is composed of at least two or more main clauses. In this sense, both of these definitions are identical. Crystal (2008 A.D.) also says that the term 'compound' is also used with other terms such as compound verbs, compound componential tense, compound sentence, compound preposition etc.

2.1.12 Complex sentence (मिश्र वाक्य):

According to Pandey (1994), "A complex sentence is made of a main clause and one or more than one dependent clauses. The person who acquires knowledge is called student, δζο ϖιδφα κλμαυτσηλ, υσλαι ςιδδηαρτηι βηλνιντσηλ (the person who acquires knowledge is called student)."

Complex sentence is a term which in its most general application describes a sentence consisting of more than one clause. In a somewhat narrower sense, it refers to a sentence consisting of a main clause and at least one subordinate clause, thus contrasting with such notions as compound sentence (Crystal 2008 A.D.).

Both of the definitions mentioned above are identical in the sense that they accept multiple fragments of sentences to form a compound sentence. Even the traditional definition is adequate to define the compound sentences. These two definitions are similar.

2.1.13 Conditional (सङ्केतार्थ):

According to Chapagai (2032), "A conditional is a term in which there is a repetition of two different verbs. In this structure, a verb is a means whereas the other acts as a possible action. In such contexts, the (main) action completes only if another action is done. For example, 'τ1απαι γλφε μλ βλσυλα' (I will stay if you go)."
A conditional is a term used in grammatical description to refer to clauses whose semantic role is the expression of hypotheses or conditions. In English, these are introduced by if, unless, and a few other conjunctions (e.g. If John asks, tell him). The traditional grammatical notion of 'conditional tense' (using would, should) is usually interpreted in terms of aspectual or modal verb forms in analysis of English, though this is morphologically expressed in many languages (e.g. French). Sometimes the term is used to refer to the entire two-part construction, consisting of protasis and apodosis (Crystal 2008 A.D.).

The traditional definition of the sentence is adequate to define this term although the examples in the definition are limited within the Nepali language. On the other hand; the modern definition extends the definition beyond the Nepali language and provides examples from other languages as well.
3.1.14 Conjunction (संयोजक): According to Tiwari (2030), "A conjunction is a word or particle which is used to connect phrases, clauses, or sentences like 'ρλ' (and), 'λνι' (next) τ1αρλ (but), ki (that), ρα (and) so on.

Conjunction is a term used in the grammatical classification of words to refer to an item or a process whose primary function is to connect words or other constructions. The conventional sub-classification of these 'connective' items distinguishes co-ordinating conjunctions (e.g. and, or, but) and subordinating conjunctions (e.g. because, when, unless) – also referred to as 'co-ordinators' and 'subordinators' respectively. Certain types of adverbial (those whose function is primarily connective) are also sometimes referred to as conjunctive, or simply as conjuncts, e.g. however, moreover, indeed (Crystal 2008 A.D.).

Both the traditional and modern grammarians, a conjunction is a part of speech that connects two words, phrases or clauses together. The definition can also be extended to idiomatic phrases that behave as a unit with the same function as a single-word conjunction.

2.1.15 Consonant (व्यञ्जन): According to Pandit (1969) "Consonants are articulated with the help of vowels."

Consonants can be defined in terms of both phonetics and phonology. Phonetically, they are sounds made by a closure or narrowing in the vocal tract so that the airflow is either completely blocked, or so restricted that audible friction is produced. In addition, a routine phonetic description of consonants would involve information about the mode of vibration of the vocal folds (see voicing), and it is often necessary to specify the duration of the sound, the airstream mechanism involved and the direction of airflow (egressive or ingressive). From a phonological point of view, consonants are those units which function at the margins of syllables, either singly or in clusters. Consonantal sounds may be defined either articulatorily or acoustically in this approach: they are produced with a major obstruction in the middle of the vocal tract, and have low acoustic energy. Non-consonantal sounds lack this obstruction, and have high acoustic energy. Consonants in the above phonological sense would be analysed as having the feature [+consonantal]: vowels would be [−consonantal] (Crystal 2008 A.D.).

The traditional author simply claims that consonants are a subset of the set of human speech sounds articulated with the help of vowels. The traditional definition does not provide other details related to the articulation of the consonant sounds. This definition fails to define the sounds on the basis of manner, places and voicing. On the other hand, modern definition by Crystal (2008 A.D.) provides all details related to the articulation of consonants.

2.1.16 Dental (दन्त्य): According to Dikshiktacharya (1913 A.D.), "The tip of the tongue touches the back part of teeth while articulating the consonants such as [τ1], [τ1$^{η]}$, [δ], [δ^η] and so on. Therefore, they are known as dental sounds."

A dental is a term in the phonetic classification of consonant sounds on the basis of their place of articulation: it refers to a sound made against the teeth, either by the tongue tip and rims or by the lip. 'Apico-dental' is a more explicit but less used description of the first possibility, 'apico-' being derived from apex, an alternative term for tongue tip; 'labio-dental' is a common description of the second. Usually the upper teeth are the ones involved, as in the [:], [>] and [<] of some English dialects, such as Irish English (this contrasts with the alveolar articulation of [d] and [t] in received pronunciation); but both upper and lower teeth may be in contact with the tongue during the articulation, as in the th- sounds of thin [θ] and this [Î]. In [θ] and [Î], moreover, the tip of the tongue is usually slightly between the teeth, in which cases the more precise term inter-dental can be used (Crystal 2008 A.D.).

The traditional definition is confined within the articulation of limited sounds of languages whereas the modern definition is applied to most of languages of the world. The modern difinition gives the details of other kind of sounds such as apico-dental and labio-dantal. This is lacking in the tranditional definition.

2.1.17 Derivation (व्युत्पन्न): According to Sigdhyal (2048) "Derivation refers to words which are formed from other words, for example ρΛσΛ -ρΛσιλο (juicy), ραδζκαδζ (regime) and so on."

Derivation is a term used in Morphology to refer to one of the two main categories or processes of word-formation (Derivational Morphology) the other being inflection (al); also sometimes called Derivatology. These terms also apply to the two types of affix involved in word-formation. Basically, the result of a derivational process is a new word (e.g. nation ⇒ national), whereas the result of an inflectional (or non-derivational) process is a different form of the same word (e.g. nations, nationals). The distinction is not totally clear-cut, however (e.g. how best to analyse -ly in English). Derivational affixes change the grammatical class of morphemes to which they are attached (as in suffixation, e.g. -tion is a noun-forming derivational suffix); they also usually occur closer to the root morpheme than do inflections, e.g. nation-al-ize + ing/-s/-d (Crystal 2008 A.D.).

Both of the definitions agree that the formation of a new word from the other words is a compound. Additionally, modern definition claims that the formation of new word is opposite to inflection.

2.1.18 Diphthong (द्विस्वर): According to Regmi (2025), "The combination of two simple vowels which is pronounced at once is known as a diphthong."

Diphthong is a term used in the phonetic classification of vowel sounds on the basis of their manner of articulation: it refers to a vowel where there is a single (perceptual) noticeable change in quality during a syllable, as in English beer, time, loud. Related terms are monothong, where no qualitative change is heard, and triphthong, where two such changes can be heard. Diphthongs, or 'gliding vowels', are usually classified into phonetic types, depending on which of the two elements is the more sonorous: 'falling' (or 'descending') diphthongs have the first element stressed, as in the English examples: 'rising' (or 'ascending') diphthongs have the second element stressed, as in a possible analysis of English cue [kiu]. Other classifications of diphthongal types exist, in terms of the extent of their movement (e.g. whether it is 'wide' or 'narrow') and their direction (whether the diphthong is 'centring' or not, i.e. ending with a central vowel) (Crystal 2008 A.D.).

Both the views agree that in a diphthong there is a transition from one vowel quality to another within a single syllable nucleus, as in the English word *buy* [bai]. The precise definition is not provided in the traditional definition. The fact that diphthongs are produced within the same syllable has not been stated in the traditional definition.

2.1.19 Feminine (स्त्रीलिङ्ग)**:** According to Acharya (1980 A.D.), "Feminine (gender) refers to females."

A feminine is a grammatical category used for the analysis of word-classes displaying such contrasts as masculine (m, masc, MASC), feminine (f, F, fem, FEM) and neuter (n, neut, NEUT), animate and inanimate, etc. Discussion of this concept in linguistics has generally focused upon the need to distinguish natural gender, where items refer to the sex of real-world entities, and grammatical gender, which has nothing to do with sex, but which has an

important role in signalling grammatical relationships between words in a sentence (Crystal 2008 A.D.).

The tradition writer says that a noun that denotes a female is said to be of feminine gender. Feminine refers to female qualities but the modern writer also refers it to animate and inanimate objects. It is so because the inanimate object is sometimes accepted as feminine gender which is known as grammatical gender.

2.1.20 Flap (ताडित): According to Pokhrel and Dahal (2027), "Flaps sounds are produced in which the tongue tip touches other organs of speech and produces the sounds. For example, [τ1], [τ1ŋ] [δ1], [δ1ŋ]are flaps in Nepali."

Flap is a term used in the phonetic classification of consonant sounds on the basis of their manner of articulation; it refers to any sound produced by a single rapid contact between two organs of articulation (excluding vocal fold vibration). The usual occurrence of this is in the production of types of r sound, as when in English very the r is produced by the tip of the tongue in a flapped articulation against the alveolar ridge (transcribed [U]). The main phonetic contrast is between this sound and the trill, where several vibrations are involved (Crystal 2008 A.D.).

The traditional writer says that there are some sounds that are known as flaps in Nepali consonant systems. While the modern writer claims that in flap sound an active articulator engages in a brief contact with a passive articulator. Although the IPA takes taps and flaps to be the same thing, some phonologists insist on distinguishing them. On this latter view, flaps are said to be retroflex, while taps are not.

2.1.21 Future (भविष्यत्): According to Pandit (2052), "The future or the action which will take place later is known as future."

Future is a tense form which refers to future time, as in French J'irai 'I'll go. English has no inflectional future tense, but has many ways of referring to future time, such as through the use of the modal verbs will/shall, future-time adverbials (tomorrow, next week), and such verbs as be about to. The will/shall forms are usually called 'future tenses' in traditional

grammar, but many linguists consider this to be misleading, as these forms express several other meanings than future time (such as timelessness in Stones will sink in water) (Crystal 2008 A.D.).

The traditional grammarian says that the future is the indefinite time period after the present. Crystal says that English has no inflectional future tense, but has many ways of referring to future time.

2.1.22 Gender (लिङ्ग): According to Dikshitaacharya (1913 A.D.), "Gender identifies whether a noun is male or female."

Gender is a grammatical category used for the analysis of word-classes displaying such contrasts as masculine (m, masc, MASC), feminine (f, F, fem, FEM) and neuter (n, neut, NEUT), animate and inanimate, etc. Discussion of this concept in linguistics has generally focused upon the need to distinguish natural gender, where items refer to the sex of real-world entities, and grammatical gender, which has nothing to do with sex, but which has an important role in signalling grammatical relationships between words in a sentence (Crystal 2008 A.D.).

The traditional writer says that gender is a set of characteristics that are seen to distinguish between male and female. Depending on the context, the discriminating characteristics vary from sex to social role to gender identity. Gender refers to the distinction between male and female individuals, especially men and women. In addition, the modern view also focuses on masculine, feminine and neuter as well as, animate and inanimate.

2.1.23 Honorific (आदरार्थी): According to Pandit (2051), "The words related to honorificity which indicates the plural (nouns) is called honorificity. For example, δεϖδλτ1τ1ʌ γʌφε (davdatta went), μιτ1 αυτσHʌν, (The religiously-bonded friend comes)."
Honorific is a term used in the grammatical analysis of some languages (e.g. Japanese) to refer to syntactic or morphological distinctions used to express levels of politeness or respect, especially in relation to the compared social status of the participants. The notion should not be identified with formality: honorific forms may also appear in non-formal contexts. Some

use is also made of the term with reference to functions other than the expression of respect, such as courtesy, politeness, etc. (Crystal 2008 A.D.).

According to the traditional definition, an honorific is a word or expression that conveys esteem or respect when used in addressing or referring to a person. Sometimes the term is used not quite correctly to refer to an honorary title. On the other hand, the modern definition expands the definition of the honorificity. It refers to the grammatical or morphological ways of encoding the relative social status of speakers. Typically honorifics are used for second and third persons.

2.1.24 Interrogative (प्रश्नार्थक): According to Sigdhyal (2048), "Interrogative refers to the question occurring instead of a noun. For example: ko manis dzantshʌ? (Who will go?), jo kʌsto τοπι ho? (What sort of cap is this?)."

Interrogative is a term used in the grammatical classification of sentence types and usually seen in contrast to declarative sentences. It refers to verb forms or sentence/clause types typically used in the expression of questions, e.g. the inverted order of 'is he coming?' or the use of an interrogative word (or simply 'interrogative'), often sub-classified as interrogative adjectives (e.g. which), adverbs (e.g. why) and pronouns (e.g. who) (Crystal 2008 A.D.).

Both the traditional and modern writers agree that an interrogative word is a function word used for the item interrupted in an information statement. Interrogative words are sometimes called *wh*-words because most of English interrogative words start with *wh*-. The traditional definition simply cites examples of wh-question to illustrate the interrogative sentences whereas examples of yes-no questions are also included in the modern definition.

2.1.25 Instrumental (करण): According to Pandit (2051), "The instrument is needed when agent performs a work, such as *ram le wanle mare*, (Ram killed (it) with the arrow)."

Instrumental is used in languages which express grammatical relationships by means of inflections, this term refers to the form taken by a noun phrase (often a single noun or pronoun), when it expresses such a notion as 'by means of' (as in Russian). The term has a special status in case grammar, where it refers to the semantic case of the inanimate entity causally involved in a verb's action (e.g. the key, in the key opened the door or the door was

opened with a key), and is contrasted with agentive, dative, etc. The instrumental case ('the instrumental') is also used in some predicative constructions in Russian, such as with the future and past of 'to be', e.g. on budet studentom 'He will be a student. (Crystal 2008 A.D.).

In traditional view the instrumental is a case system that is needed when an agent performs any action with the help of any other instrument. On the contrary, in modern view the instrumental is taken opposite to agentive or dative case. The modern view also agrees that the instrumental case is a grammatical inflection indicated by the verb.

2.1.26 Intransitivity (अकर्मकता): According to Pradhan (1944), "The verb that doesn't take object is an intransitive verb, for example: τ1φο ρυντσH℘ (he weeps), δαδζ℘ι συτ1εκα τσH℘ν, (brother has slept)."

Intransitivity is a category used in the grammatical analysis of clause/ sentence constructions, with particular reference to the verb's relationship to dependent elements of structure. The main members of this category are transitive (tr, trans), referring to a verb which can take a direct object (as in He saw the dog), and intransitive (intr, intrans), where it cannot (as in *he arrived a ball). Many verbs can have both a transitive and an intransitive use (cf.We went a mile v. we went), and in some languages this distinction is marked morphologically. More complex relationships between a verb and the elements dependent upon it are usually classified separately (Crystal 2008 A.D.).

Both the traditional and modern writers agree that the intransitive verb does not need an object. However, modern writer classifies the term opposite to transitive and ditransitive. The number of noun phrases associated with a verb is known in linguistics as its valency, and so an intransitive verb is also called a univalent verb. Both of the definitions are identical in the sense that an intransitive verb lacks an object.

2.1.27 Labial/Bilabial (ओष्ठ्य): According to Pradhan (1956 A.D.), "Bilabial is the place of an utterance where [π], [πⁿ] [β], [βⁿ] [μ], [υ], [υ] are uttered."

Bilabial is a general term in the phonetic classification of speech sounds on the basis of their place of articulation: it refers to active use of one lip (as in labio-dental sounds, such as [f]) or

both lips (as in bilabial consonants, such as [b], or rounded vowels, such as [u]). In an empty sense, all oral sounds are labial, in that the airflow has to pass through the lips: the important qualification in the above definition is that the lips are actively involved. From a position of rest, there must be a marked movement to qualify as a labial sound ('a labial'), and it is lip-rounding which is the most common and noticeable feature. A term used in the phonetic classification of speech sounds on the basis of their place of articulation: it refers to a sound in which one lip is actively in contact with the teeth. Labial consonants are consonants in which one or both lips are the active articulator. This precludes linguolabials, in which the tip of the tongue reaches for the posterior side of the upper lip and which are considered coronals. The most common distribution between bilabials and labiodentals is the English one, in which the stops, [m], [p], and [b], are bilabial and the fricatives, [f], and [v], are labiodental (Crystal 2008 A.D.).

Traditional and modern writers agree that bilabial consonant is produced with the active articulator is the lower lip, which moves to the upper lip. They also focus on, all oral sounds are labial, in that the airflow passes through the lips. However the traditional definition simply gives the examples without giving characteristics of sounds.

2.1.28 Labio-dental (दन्त्योष्ठ्य): According to Dikchiktacharya (1913 A.D.), "The sound that is articulated when the upper teeth and lower lips are in contact is known as labiodental."

Labio-dental is used in the phonetic classification of speech sounds on the basis of their place of articulation: it refers to a sound in which one lip is actively in contact with the teeth. The usual mode of operation for a labio-dental sound ('a labio-dental') is for the lower lip to articulate with the upper teeth, as in [f] and [v]. The opposite effect, upper lip against lower teeth, is possible in theory, but not recognized in the usual phonetic classifications. The term is also applied to articulations where the lip approaches close to the teeth, but without actual contact, as in the sound [ä], which is a vowel-like sound midway between [w] and [v] (Crystal 2008 A.D.).

According to the traditional definition, consonant is produced with the lower lip as the active articulator which moves to the upper teeth, the passive articulator. The modern writer also agrees with the same view to same extent but in a rather wider sense. The traditional definition is similar to the modern definition to some extent in this regard.

2.1.29 Lateral (पार्श्विक): According to Pokhrel and Dahal (2027), "The lateral sound is produced when the tongue touches behind the upper teeth and alveolar ridge, and the tongue being curled backward letting the air pass through the both sides of the tongue is known as lateral. For example, in Nepali language 'l' phoneme is lateral."

Lateral is used in the phonetic classification of consonant sounds on the basis of their manner of articulation: it refers to any sound where the air escapes around one or both sides of a closure made in the mouth, as in the various types of l sound. Air released around only one side of the tongue produces unilateral sounds; around both sides bilateral sounds. Lateral sounds may be voiced, as in lady, pool, or voiceless, as in play, where the [l] has been devoiced due to the influence of the preceding voiceless consonant: [$]. An independent voiceless l sound occurs with Welsh ll, as in Llandudno, but here there is much accompanying friction, and the sound is best described as a 'lateral fricative' [l]. /t/ and /d/ followed by /l/ in English are often released laterally, the phenomenon of 'lateral plosion': the air escapes round the sides of the tongue, the closure between tongue and alveolar ridge remaining, as in bottle, cuddle. It is possible to say the final syllable of such words without moving the front of the tongue from its contact at all (Crystal 2008 A.D.).

Traditional and modern writers say that the lateral sound is pronounced with an occlusion made somewhere along the axis of the tongue, while air from the lungs escapes at one side or both sides of the tongue. Both of these definitions are similar to some extent.

2.1.30 Length (मात्रा): According to Dikshitacharya (1913 A.D.), "When the consonants are accompanied by the symbols such as **[ʌ], [ɑ], [ɪ],[ɪ˥], [ʊ], [ʊ˥],[ɛ], [ɞɪ5], [o], [ɞʊ5],** they refer to length."

Length is a term used in phonetics to refer to the physical duration of a sound or utterance, and in phonology to refer to the relative durations of sounds and syllables when these are linguistically contrastive; also referred to as quantity. Sometimes the term is restricted to phonological contexts, the phonetic dimension being referred to as 'duration'. Phonologically long and short values are conventionally recognized, for both vowels and consonants. Languages often have one degree of phonological length, and may have more than one (Crystal 2008 A.D.).

In both the definitions we can find the agreement that length is a suprasegmental feature of phonology and a physical realization of any sound duration in opposite to short sounds. The traditional definition is not very appropriate in this respect. The term is often used to describe the relative duration of a vowel or consonant. The traditional definition, however, is not precise to define the length.

2.1.31 Nasal (नासिक्य): According to Dikshitacharya (1913 A.D.), "The sounds that are produced through the nasal cavity such as [N], [ν], [μ] are called nasals."

Nasals are a term used in the phonetic classification of speech sounds on the basis of manner of articulation. It refers to sounds produced while the soft palate is lowered to allow an audible escape of air through the nose. Both consonants and vowels may be articulated in this way. Nasal consonants (sometimes represented as a class by N or nas) occur when there is a complete closure in the mouth, and all the air thus escapes through the nose. Examples in English are the final consonants of ram, ran, rang [ram, ran, rag], where the closures are in bilabial, alveolar and velar positions respectively (Crystal 2008 A.D.).

It is obvious that traditional writers are only confined to the description of the nasal sounds through the examples found in the Nepali language. The traditional definition does not talk about the production of other nasal sounds such as retroflex nasal. On the other hand, the modern definition is precise in this respect. The modern definition not only defines the nasal consonants but also nasalized vowels.

2.1.32 Negation (अकरण): According to Sigdyal (2028), "When the negative particle (or affix) is attached to the verb, it results in negation of verb."

Negation is a process or construction in grammatical and semantic analysis which typically expresses the contradiction of some or all of a sentence's meaning. In English grammar, it is expressed by the presence of the negative particle (neg, NEG) not or n't (the contracted negative); in lexis, there are several possible means, e.g. prefixes such as un-, non-, or words such as deny. Some languages use more than one particle in a single clause to express negation (as in French nepas). The use of more than one negative form in the same clause (as

in double negatives) is a characteristic of some English dialects, e.g. I'm not unhappy (which is a stylistically marked mode of assertion) and I've not done anything. (Crystal 2008 A.D.).

In the main view of traditional writer, negation is the suffix that attached to the verb root which results in the negative sense. But the modern viewers agree that 'negation is the process that turns an affirmative statement (I am the chicken) into its opposite denial (I am not the chicken) adding affixes to the main sentence, clause or phrase. The traditional definition does not talk about other aspects of negation except morphological negative.

2.1.33 Non Derivation (तत्सम): According to Pandit (2051), "The words that come from Sanskrit sources are known as borrowed words (tatsam), such as 'ισωορ' (god), γυρυ (teacher), 'ματ1α' (mother), πιτ1α (father)."

Non derivation is a term used in morphology to refer to one of the two main categories or processes of word-formation (derivational morphology), the other being inflection (al); also sometimes called Derivatology. These terms also apply to the two types of affix involved in word-formation. Basically, the result of a derivational process is a new word (e.g. nation, national), whereas the result of an inflectional (or non-derivational) process is a different form of the same word (e.g. nation, nations). The distinction is not totally clear-cut, however (e.g. how best to analyze -ly in English). Derivational affixes change the grammatical class of morphemes to which they are attached (as in suffixation, e.g. -tion is a noun-forming derivational suffix); they also usually occur closer to the root morpheme than do inflections, e.g. nation-al-ize + -ing/-s/-d (Crystal 2008 A.D.).

The traditional writer mainly focuses on the borrowing of words from other dominant languages. But the modern writer defines the term as one of the types of word formation process. The attachment of affixes to a root or stem which changes the word class is known as derivation and the attachment of affixes to a root or stem that does not have any change in the word class is known as inflection. In comparison to traditional writers, modern definition is broader.

2.1.34 Noun (नाम): According to Pandit (2051), "The name of the people, place, things, or animals is a noun."

In linguistic terms, then, nouns are items which display certain types of inflection (e.g. of case or number), have a specific distribution (e.g. they may follow prepositions but not, say,

modals), and perform a specific syntactic function (e.g. as subject or object of a sentence). Nouns are generally sub-classified into common and proper types, and analysed in terms of number, gender, case and countability. The constructions into which nouns most commonly enter, and of which they are the head word, are generally called noun phrases (NP) or nominal groups. The structure of a noun phrase consists minimally of the noun (or noun substitute, such as a pronoun); the constructions preceding and following the noun are often described under the headings of pre-modification and post-modification respectively. There are many derived notions, including complex NPs, heavy NPs and NP-movement (Crystal 2008 A.D.).

The traditional gramarian defines noun as a word used to name a person, animal, place, thing, and abstract idea. In addition to this, the modern definition adds that nouns should be analyzed in terms of inflection (number, gender, case, definiteness etc), distribution and its syntax. The modern definition is therefore broader than the traditional one.

2.1.35 Number (वचन)**:** According to Pandit (2051), **"**The word that refers quantity in number, for example: one son refers to one in number whereas two sons refer to two is number.**"**
A number is a grammatical category used for the analysis of word classes displaying such contrasts as singular (e.g. SG, sing), plural (pl, PL), dual (du) ('two'), trial ('three'), paucal ('few'), etc., as in English boy v. boys, he walks v. they walk. The contrasts generally correspond to the number of real world entities referred to, but linguistic discussion has drawn attention to the problems involved in proposing any such straightforward one-to-one correlation (Crystal 2008 A.D.).

The traditional grammarian says that number is a grammatical feature to differentiate words in terms of whether they refer to one or more than one in number. If a word refers to one, it is said to be a singular number. Thus noun in language like English and Nepali make a two-term contrast in number. Although they are similar to some extent, the traditional definition does not talk about the idea of dual number. The modern definition has also included the possibility of dual number.

2.1.36 Numeration (सङ्ख्यावाचक): According to Swar (1975), "Numeral is a term that indicates *half*, *quarter*, *on*e, *five*, *thousand* and so on."

Numeration is a term used in the minimalist programme, the set of items taken from the lexicon for the purpose of building a structural description. The computational system selects elements from the numeration and combines them into structures. Numeration defines a reference set. The most economical derivation is chosen over the others, but a derivation that results from one numeration does not compete against a derivation chosen from a different numeration. In more recent minimalist thinking, numeration has been replaced by the concept of lexical array (Crystal 2008 A.D.).

A numeral system is a writing system for expressing numbers that is a mathematical notation for representing numbers of a given set, using graphemes or symbols in a consistent manner.

2.1.37 Object (कर्म): According to Dikshitacharya (1913 A.D.), "The object is the one which is talked about or about which something is said. For example, $\tau\sigma\eta\text{ορο } \pi\alpha\delta\tau\sigma\eta\alpha$ 'paddats$^{\eta}$a', jeha ts$^{\eta}$oro udesje ho (In this sentence, (padts$^{\eta}$a) the son reads, son is the object)."

Object is a term used in the analysis of grammatical functions to refer to a major constituent of sentence or clause structure, traditionally associated with the 'receiver' or 'goal' of an action, as in *The cat bit the dog*. Traditional analysis distinguishes a direct versus an indirect object, to allow for sentences such as The teacher gave a letter to the girl/The teacher gave the girl a letter, which is marked in English by a contrast using prepositions and word-order, and in inflecting languages by different cases (typically, the object case being accusative, the indirect object case being dative). In generative grammar, the direct object is called simply 'object', and contrasted with indirect object. Some linguists talk about the 'object of a preposition' to refer to the noun phrase in around the corner. The term 'objective' has a special status in case grammar, where it refers to the semantically most neutral case, i.e. a noun whose role in the action is identified by the semantic interpretation of the verb itself. In government-binding theory, objective Case is assigned to any noun phrase governed by a transitive verb (Crystal 2008 A.D.).

In both the definitions, the viewers agree that the object is the complement of the sentence where the modern definition describes the object with greater details. The modern definition also adds that the object may be in the accusative case.

2.1.38 Objective case (कर्म कारक)**:**

According to Dikshitacharya (1913 A.D.), "The objective case is the one in which the effect of verb lies. For example, πιτα πυτραλαι παδ***η**αυτσηα (father teaches son), in this example the effect of verb lies on son. The son is therefore the object."

An objective case is a term in languages which express grammatical relationships by means of inflections, this term refers to the form taken by a noun phrase (often a single noun or pronoun) when it is the object of a verb. In Latin, for example, I see the man would be Video hominem and not *Video homo, and hominem would be referred to as being 'in the accusative case.' Linguists emphasize that it can be misleading to use such terms as 'accusative' in languages which do not inflect words in this way. A distinction is often made between accusative languages (where subjects and objects can be distinguished using morphological or abstract cases) and ergative languages; ergative verbs are sometimes called un-accusative verbs. In accounts which rely on an abstract notion of case, verbs which take objects are sometimes called accusative verbs (Crystal 2008 A.D.).

The traditional writer defines objective case as the effect of the verb on the word in a sentence. On the other hand, the modern writers also pay attention to grammatical relationships shown by means of inflections.

2.1.39 Palate (तालु): According to Pradhan (2056), "The sounds [ι], [ι], [τσ], [τσ***η**], [δζ***η**], [δζH],[v],[σ] are articulated in the palate. Therefore, they are known as palatal sounds."

Palate is the arched bony structure which forms the roof of the mouth, and which is much used for the articulation of speech sounds. The delimitation and classification of the palatal area has not been without controversy, as is shown by the several different classificatory systems for describing the types of Phonological condition known as cleft lip and palate. In one such system, the whole of the upper oral area (including lips and alveolum) is referred to as palatal, on the grounds that this constituted a single embryological process. In phonetics, a much more restricted sense is used: here, the term applies to the whole area from behind the alveolar ridge to the uvula. It is divided into two parts: the hard palate, which is the immobile

bony area immediately behind the alveolar ridge, and the soft palate or 'velum', which is the mobile fleshy continuation of this, culminating in the uvula. Only sounds articulated in the area of the hard palate are called 'palatal' sounds; soft-palate sounds are either velar or uvular (Crystal 2008 A.D.).

The traditional writer only gives emphasis on the production of the sounds without mentioning the mechanism of the sound production but the modern definition defines the term by detailed articularoty features. We can therefore presume that palatal sounds are those in which the active articulator is the front of the tongue and the passive articulator is the hard palate.

2.1.40 Particle (निपात)**:** According to Parajuli (2023), "The participles are used in proverbs but have no particular meanings are called particles, such as,

νι, κ^η℘ι, τ℘, πο, ρε, κφαρε etc."

Participle is used in grammatical description to refer to an invariable item with grammatical function, especially one which does not readily fit into a standard classification of parts of speech. In English, for example, the marker of the infinitive, to, is often called a particle because, despite its surface similarity to a preposition, it really has nothing in common with it. Likewise, the unique characteristics of not have prompted some to label it a 'negative particle', and the units in phrasal verbs are often called verbal particles (Crystal 2008 A.D.).

Both writers agree that particle is used in grammatical description to refer to an invariable item with grammatical function, especially one which does not readily fit into a standard classification of parts of speech. However, the traditional definition is very restricted. In fact, particles are not only used in proverbs but in other discourse contexts as well. Thus the definition of this term differences in modern and traditional definitions.

2.1.41 Participle (कृदन्त)**:**

According to Pandit (2051), "Participles are the derived words formed by combining the the suffixes with the stems such as particle, such as, βηαν+ αι=bhanai (say), γαρ+αυνυ=garaunu (do) etc. The words that are made from root by adding _νυ,_νε, _N, _τηο, _φεκο, _φερ, _ε suffix, like verb adjective are called participle."

Particle is a traditional grammatical term referring to a word derived from a verb and used as an adjective, as in a *laughing face*. The name comes from the way such a word 'participates' in the characteristics of both verb and adjective. It is thus distinct from the traditional notion of gerund, where a word derived from a verb is used as a noun, as in smoking is forbidden. In linguistics the term is generally restricted to the non-finite forms of verbs other than the infinitive, viz. present and past, as in I am going and I have walked respectively, but, even here, there is a strong tendency to avoid the use of the traditional labels 'present' and 'past' participles, with their Latinate associations of time (inapplicable, for example, in a passive sentence like I shall be kicked, where the participle can hardly be 'past'), and to use instead a neutral set of terms, such as -ing forms or -ED/-EN forms (Crystal 2008 A.D.).

In traditional and modern view participle is the term to refer to the form of verbs which may serve as other functions. In general, the gerund and past participle form in English and Nepali are known as participles.

2.1.42 Passive (कर्म वाच्य):

According to Nepal (2050), "Passive voice has the patient as subject. For example: μʌ βατ11ʌ δζηυτ1ο κυρα βολιδʌινα **(the false matter is don't speak),**

υσβατ1ʌ πρ℘σν℘ κο υτ1℘ρ λεκηιδ℘ιν℘ **(the answer is not written by me)."**

Passive is used in the grammatical analysis of voice, referring to a sentence, clause or verb form where the grammatical subject is typically the recipient or 'goal' of the action denoted by the verb, e.g. the letter was written by a doctor. It is contrasted with active, and sometimes with other forms, e.g. 'middle' (as in Greek). A full linguistic statement of the constraints affecting these relationships is a complex matter. In English, for example, there are active sentences that do not have passive counterparts (e.g. the boy fell, they have a car), passive sentences which have an unclear active counterpart (e.g. the house was sold), and so on. In addition, there is the problem that the central type of passive construction (using the verb to be, e.g. She was pushed) is closely related to other types of construction (cf. She got pushed, She was interested), and a boundary line is sometimes difficult to establish (Crystal 2008 A.D.).

Both the above definitions agree that passive is the counterpart of active voice where the agent of the verb is demoted and object is promoted to subject position. Therefore, passive voice is a process of transformation of the transitive active sentences where the function of the subject is neutralized.

2.1.43 Past (भूत)**:** According to Pandit (2051), "If the action refers to the previous event, it is the past tense."

Past is known as historic in grammar, a past-tense form of a verb, used in some languages to refer to a completed action; also sometimes called the past definite. In French, for example, it is used in the written language as part of past narrative description as well as in the reporting of completed past events: Hier, Marie seleva et sort it 'Yesterday, Marie got up and went out' (Crystal 2008 A.D.).

Both the traditional and modern writers claim that the past tense refers to the past actions that happened at a specific time in the past. The simple past form of the verb is formed by adding *-ed* onto the end of a regular verb but, irregular verb forms have to be learned in english.

2.1.44 Person (पुरुष)**:** According to Pandit (2051), "The attachment of first, second and third person to the verb according to voice is known as person."

Person is a category used in grammatical description to indicate the number and nature of the participants in a situation. The contrasts are deictic, i.e. refer directly to features of the situation of utterance. Distinctions of person are usually marked in the verb and/or in the associated pronouns (personal pronouns). Usually a three-way contrast is found: first person, in which speakers refer to themselves, or to a group usually including themselves (e.g. I, we); second person, in which speakers typically refer to the person they are addressing (e.g. you); and third person, in which other people, animals, things, etc. are referred to (e.g. he, she, it, and they). Other formal distinctions may be made in languages, such as 'inclusive' v. 'exclusive' we (e.g. speaker, hearer and others v. speaker and others, but not hearer); formal (or 'honorific') v. informal (or 'intimate'), e.g. French vous v. tu; male v. female; definite v. Indefinite (cf. one in English); and so on. There are also several stylistically restricted uses, as in the 'royal' and authorial uses of we. Other word-classes than personal pronouns may show person distinction, as with the reflexive and possessive pronouns in English (myself, etc., my,

etc.). Verb constructions which lack person contrast, usually appearing in the third person, are called impersonal (Crystal 2008 A.D.).

The definitions suggest that the person is a category in grammar to tell us about the nature of the participants. In particular, it determines the choice of pronouns as participants in situations which has three distinct forms, namely the first, second and third person. In some languages the distinction can further be found, such as dual, exclusive and inclusive which is not mentioned in traditional definitions.

2.1.45 Phoneme (वर्ण): According to Pradhan (1956 A.D.) "The letters [℘], [α], [κ], [κ^η]etc. are called phonemes."

Phoneme is the minimal unit in the sound system of a language. The notion of the phoneme allowed linguists to group together sets of phonetically similar phones as variants, or 'members', of the same underlying unit. The phones were said to be realizations of the phonemes, and the variants were referred to as allophones of the phonemes (see allo-). Each language can be shown to operate with a relatively small number of phonemes; some languages have as few as fifteen phonemes; others as many as eighty. An analysis in these terms will display a language's phonemic inventory/structure/system. No two languages have the same phonemic system. Sounds are considered to be members of the same phoneme if they are phonetically similar, and do not occur in the same environment (i.e. they are in complementary distribution) – or, if they do, the substitution of one sound for the other does not cause a change in meaning (i.e. they are in free variation). A sound is considered 'phonemic', on the other hand, if its substitution in a word does cause a change in meaning. In a phonemic transcription, only the phonemes are given symbols (compared with phonetic transcriptions, where different degrees of allophonic detail are introduced, depending on one's purpose). Phonemic symbols are written between oblique brackets, compared with square brackets used for phonetic transcriptions; e.g. the phoneme /d/ has the allophones [d] (Crystal 2008 A.D.).

In traditional view the term phoneme is defined on the basis of the sound system of a language. But the modern definition claims it to be the minimal sound unit in a language. Therefore, it is common to find a phoneme defined as a kind of sound, a distinctive sound in a specific language.

2.1.46 Phrase (पदावली)**:**

According to Sigdhyal (2048), **"**Phrases are composed of two or more than two words combined together and give a single meaning of a noun, adjective, particle. For example: τ1ηυλα ϖιδδϖανκο λεκηοτ1 γ℘ηιρο ηυντση℘ (the written articles of renowned writers are vast), δ1ηακακο π℘τ1υκι βαδεκι στρι δεκκηι (a woman dressed with traditional Nepali costume named dhakako patuki appeared)."

Phrase is a term used in grammatical analysis to refer to a single element of structure typically containing more than one word, and lacking the subject–predicate structure typical of clauses); abbreviated as P in such combinations as NP (= noun phrase), PP (= prepositional phrase), etc. A distinction is drawn between lexical phrases, such as NP and VP, which are built around lexical heads, and functional phrases, such as IP and CP, which are built around functional heads and which are not required to contain lexical material (Crystal 2008 A.D.).

Both the traditional and modern definitions accept that a phrase is a group of words functioning as a single unit in the syntax of a sentence. A complex phrase consists of several words, whereas a simple phrase consists of only one word. This terminology is especially often used with noun phrases, verb phrases, adpositional phrase etc. In comparison to traditional grammar modern grammars define the term more broadly and classifies it different phrase types.

2.1.47 Place of articulation (उच्चारण स्थान)**:** According to Pradhan (1944 A.D.), "Since all phonemes have, the particular places in oral cavity where active articulator touches and produces the sounds are known as places of articulation."

Place is a term where the point in the oral cavity at which a sound is articulated. For consonants, the main places of articulation are labial, coronal and dorsal. One of the main parameters used in the phonetic classification of speech sounds, referring to where in the vocal apparatus a sound is produced. It is usual to represent this parameter horizontally, though as a result this dimension does omit some of the variations which can only be identified transversely, e.g. whether one or both sides of the tongue is involved in an articulation. The conventionally recognized places or points of articulation for consonants correspond to main anatomical divisions, viz. labial; Labio-dental, dental, alveolar, palatal,

velar, uvular, pharyngeal, glottal, but other places relative to these are also recognized, such as post-alveolar and retroflex (Crystal 2008 A.D.).

From the above two definitions, the place of articulation refers to the point in the vocal tract where the air flow is modified to produce different sounds. In producing consonants these points can be found at the lips, within the oral cavity, in the pharynx, and at the glottis. A particular organ of speech involved in the production of a sound is called an articulator. There are two types of articulators: active and passive. Active articulators are the movable organs of speech, such as lips, tongue and lower jaw. Passive articulators are those vocal organs which cannot move, such as the roof of the mouth, the upper teeth. The sounds are named after the place where the active organs touch is in contact with such as labial, dental, alveolar, palatal etc. Both the definitions refer to the places of articulation whereas the modern definition provides more details about this.

2.1.48 Plosive (स्पर्शी)**:** According to Dahal and Pokhrel (2027), "A total of 25 phonemes from *k* to *m* are plosives."

Plosive is used in the phonetic classification of consonant sounds on the basis of their manner of articulation: it refers to a sound made when a complete closure in the vocal tract is suddenly released; the air pressure which had built up behind the closure rushes out with an explosive sound, hence the term. Examples in English are [p, b, t, d, k, i]. Plosive is the term used to refer to the outwards movement of air upon release. Plosive consonants are one type of stop consonant. It is also possible, using a different airstream mechanism than the one which produces an outwards flow of lung air, to produce plosives (implosives) where the air upon release moves inwards (Crystal 2008 A.D.).

A total of 16 consonants are plosives according to the definition. They are produced as velar, palatal etc. The traditional definition defines the term only through examples. The modern definition states that the extent to which airflow is obstructed in the production of a sound is plosive. Three degrees of stricture are often recognised. Sounds produced this way are called stops or plosives. Examples are the [p] in open, the [t] in butter and the [k] in bucket.

2.1.49 Plural (बहुवचन)**:** According to Acharya (1980 A.D.), "The plural words refer to the plurality or multiplicity of words."

Plural is a grammatical category used for the analysis of word classes displaying such contrasts as singular (sg, SG, sing), plural (pl, PL), dual (du) ('two'), trial ('three'), paucal ('few'), etc., as in English boy v. boys, he walks v. they walk. The contrasts generally correspond to the number of real world entities referred to, but linguistic discussion has drawn attention to the problems involved in proposing any such straightforward one-to-one correlation. A noun, for example, may 'look' singular, but refer to a multiplicity of entities (e.g. the committee are agreed; see collective), and nouns which 'look' plural may refer to a single entity (e.g. billiards). There are in addition several analytical difficulties in relating the notion of number to that of countability (to explain the absence of such forms as *a butter) (Crystal 2008 A.D.).

The traditional writer says that plural is a concept of quantity representing a value of more-than-one. Typically applied to nouns, a plural word or marker is used to distinguish a value other than the default quantity of a noun, which is typically one. Plurality is a linguistic universal, represented variously among the languages as a separate word, an affix, or by other morphological indications such as stress or implicit markers/context. In the English language, singular and plural are the only usual grammatical numbers, with minor dual exceptions (both', 'twice', 'either', etc.).The traditional definition simply refers to plural words but not plural suffix.

2.1.50 Polysemy (अनेकार्थी)**:** According to Pandey (2048), "If several words exist to refer to the same meaning or more than two words convey identical meaning, they are polysemous. For example, λβερ-βερ (late), ωιλλμβλ-λβελα (late)."

Polysemy is used in semantic analysis to refer to a lexical item which has a range of different meanings, e.g. plain 'clear', 'unadorned', 'obvious' ; also called polysemia; opposed to monosemy (or univocality). A large proportion of a language's vocabulary is polysemic (or polysemous). The theoretical problem for the linguist is how to distinguish polysemy (one form – several meanings) from homonymy (two lexical items which happen to have the same phonological form). Several criteria have been suggested, such as etymology (the antecedents of homonymous items would be formally distinct) and the closeness of the relationship between the meanings in question (the meanings of homonymous items would be further apart, or unrelated – cf. the related sense of plain above with the homonyms plane 'carpenter's tool' and plane 'aeroplane'). But all such criteria involve analytic problems, and

the distinction between polysemy and homonymy thus remains a source of theoretical discussion in linguistics (Crystal 2008 A.D.).

Both of these definitions refer to the fact that a polysemy is a word or phrase with multiple, related meanings. A word is judged to be polysemous if the word has two senses. Since the vague concept of relatedness is the test for polysemy, judgments of polysemy can be very difficult to make.

2.1.51 Positive (करण): According to Chapagain (2032), "The sentences or words with positive meaning and the positive action of verb are known as positive sentences."

Positive is used in grammatical description to refer to a type of sentence or verb which has no marker of negation, i.e. it is expressing an assertion. The positive or affirmative 'pole' of this contrast is opposed to negative, and the grammatical system involved is often referred to under the heading of polarity. The unmarked term in the three-way grammatical description of adjectives and adverbs into degrees, specifying the extent of their application. The positive or 'absolute' degree implies no comparative quality, and contrasts with such terms as comparative and superlative. In English, the adjective with no formal modification is used as the positive form, and this is generally the case in languages (Crystal 2008 A.D.).

Both of these definitions are identical in the sense that the term positive means the positive marking of a verb in a sentence or that gives every time positive sense. The modern definition further clarifies this by stating that the term 'positive' may be constrasted with negative. But in accordance to modern view the positive sentence has no marking of negation which can be contrasted to negative sentence.

2.1.52 Predicate (विधेय): According to Dikshitacharya (1913 A.D.), "The word which states something about the subject is the predicate."

Predicate is a term used in the analysis of grammatical functions, to refer to a major constituent of sentence structure, traditionally associated with a two-part analysis in which all obligatory constituents other than the subject are considered together. For example, Sue walked, Sue kicked the ball, Sue went on holiday would all be seen as Subject (Sue) + Predicate constructions. These sentences would also be labelled predicative in a classification

of exocentric constructions. A more detailed level, in syntax, distinctions are sometimes made between predicative and non-predicative functions of words; e.g. the adjective in the house is big is predicative, whereas in the big house it is attributive. However, terminology varies a great deal here, depending on the model of description used. The term predicator (P) has also been suggested by some theorists to refer to the verbal element in Subject–Verb–Object constructions, viz. Subject– Predicator–Object, on the grounds that this avoids using 'verb' in both a functional and a formal sense (cf. 'a subject may have a noun as its exponent' with the undesirability of 'a verb may have a verb as its exponent').

A predicate is one of the two main parts of a sentence, the other being the subject in traditional definition. In modern grammar, a predicate is the term which is obligatory constituent in a sentence which is divided into one place, two place predicate etc. The modern definition adds some more information than the traditional one.

2.1.53 Prefix (उपसर्ग)**:** According to Acharya (1980) 'The affixes that are prefixed to the words are prefixes."

Prefix is a term used in morphology referring to an affix which is added initially to a root or stem. The process of pre-fixation (or prefixing) is common in English, for forming new lexical items (e.g. para-, mini-, un-), but English does not inflect words using prefixes. Languages which do inflect in this way include German (e.g. the ge- of perfective forms), Greek, and many American Indian languages (e.g. the Athapaskan family) (Crystal 2008 A.D.).

In traditional definition prefix is a term which is attached to the words to mean its own meaning. But in modern definition the term prefix is defined as affixes used in the process of word formation which is prefixed to any word. Both of these definitions are identical in this sense.

2.1.54 Preposition (नामयोगी): According to Acharya (1980 A.D.) "The words which are connected to one phrase and show the relation to other words are known as prepositions."

Preposition is a term used in the grammatical classification of words, referring to the set of items which typically precede noun phrases (often single nouns or pronouns), to form a single

constituent of structure. The resulting prepositional phrase (PP) (or prepositional group) can then be described in terms of distribution (e.g. their use following a noun, as in the man in the corner) or semantically (e.g. the expression of possession, direction, place). Prepositional sequences of the type illustrated by in accordance with are often called complex prepositions. A postposition is a particle, similar in function to a preposition, which is placed after a noun phrase, as in Japanese. Many linguists subscribe to a broader view of prepositions. To form a prepositional phrase, prepositions can combine with not only an NP but also a PP (e.g. since before breakfast), a clause (e.g. since they finished their breakfast) or nothing (e.g. I haven't seen him since). In this account, it is possible to talk of 'transitive' and 'intransitive' prepositions (Crystal 2008 A.D.).

In grammar, a preposition is a part of speech which cannot be attached in any words like affixes. For example, in the sentence "The cat sleeps on the sofa", the word "on" is a preposition, introducing the prepositional phrase "on the sofa". In English, the most used prepositions are "of", "to", "in", "for", "with" and "on".

2.1.55 Retroflex (मूर्धन्य): According to Dikshitacharya (1913 A.D.), "Retroflex sounds (sound add) [ρ1], [τ], [τᵑ] [δ], [δᵑ], [ν] ανδ [π] are produced in the front part of hard."

Retroflex is used in the phonetic classification of consonant sounds on the basis of their place of articulation: it refers to a sound made when the tip of the tongue is curled back in the direction of the front part of the hard palate – in other words, just behind the alveolar ridge. The degree of retroflexion varies considerably between sounds and dialects. The quality of r sounds traditionally associated with American English, and with many rural British English dialects (especially in the South West), illustrates one main group of retroflex sounds, and this quality may also be heard on any vowels preceding a retroflexed r (the vowel is said to be 'r-coloured' or 'rhotacized'), as the tongue may begin to move to a retroflex position while the vowel is still being articulated. Other common retroflex consonants are the retroflexed correlates of [t] and [d] – [!] and [≥] – heard in many Indian languages, such as Hindi, and also in the English spoken by native-speakers of such languages. [n], [l], [s] and [z] may also be retroflexed (Crystal 2008 A.D.).

The traditional definition simply tries to define the word by means of examples. On the other hand, the modern definition gives full details of retroflex sounds. A speech sound is said to be retroflex when the tip/blade of the tongue is curled back and the underside of the tip/blade forms a constriction with the passive articulator, usually the alveolar ridge. Retroflex consonants are common in both the Dravidian language Tamil and some other Indo-European languages of India.

2.1.56 Root (धातु):

According to Pandit (2051) "The key word (for example) where the suffixes are attached based on the adjectival meaning which functions as the verb is known as root, for example, γ℘ρνυ (to do), κηανυ (to eat) λινυ (to take) in the aforementioned example, the words except 'νυ'are called roots."

Root is a term often used in linguistics (and traditionally used in historical linguistics) as part of a classification of the kinds of element operating within the structure of a word. A root is the base form of a word which cannot be further analysed without total loss of identity. Putting this in another way, it is that part of the word left when all the affixes are removed. In the word meaningfulness, for example, removing -ing, -ful and -ness leaves the root mean. Roots (sometimes referred to as 'radicals') may be classified in several different ways. They may be 'free' morphemes, such as mean (i.e. they can stand alone as a word), or they may be 'bound' morphemes, such as -ceive (e.g. receive, conceive, deceive). From another point of view, roots are sometimes classified as 'simple' (i.e. compositionally unanalysable in terms of morphemes) or 'complex'/'compound' (i.e. certain combinations of simple root forms, as in blackbird, careful, etc.), though for the latter the term stem is commonly used. From a semantic point of view, the root generally carries the main component of meaning in a word. From a historical viewpoint, the root is the earliest form of a word, though this information is not relevant to a synchronic analysis (and may not always coincide with the results of it) (Crystal 2008 A.D.).

Both the definitions focus the term from the field of morphology, designating the part of a word which remains once all affixes have been removed. The traditional definition is narrower in the sense that it tries to define the term only through examples.

2.1.57 Sandhi (सन्धि):

According to Pandit (2051) "In Sanskrit, the word of either same word class or different word classes combine together and in such a combination the phonemes may delete or change. Such kind of process is called sandhi, for example, π℘ρ℘μ + ατμα (soul). κ℘βι +ινδρ℘ = κ℘βινδρ℘ (poet)."

Sandhi is a term taken from Sanskrit, meaning 'putting together', from sam ('together') and dhi, ('put'). The term was first used by the ancient Indian grammarians. Sandhi processes are processes which operate across morphological and syntactic boundaries. External sandhi processes operate across word boundaries (Crystal 2008 A.D.).

The above two definitions agree that sandhi means joining and putting together of two different words. Sandhi itself is not a type of alternation but because of sandhi, there can be various alternations.

2.1.58 Second Person: According to Pandit (2051), "If there are pronouns t℘® (you), τ1ιμι they are called the second persons."

Second person is a category used in grammatical description to indicate the number and nature of the participants in a situation. The contrasts are deictic, i.e. refer directly to features of the situation of utterance. Distinctions of person are usually marked in the verb and/or in the associated pronouns (personal pronouns). Usually a three-way contrast is found: first person, in which speakers refer to themselves, or to a group usually including themselves (e.g. I, we); second person, in which speakers typically refer to the person they are addressing (e.g. you); and third person, in which other people, animals, things, etc. are referred to (e.g. he, she, it, and they). Other formal distinctions maybe made in languages, such as 'inclusive' v. 'exclusive' we (e.g. speaker, hearer and others v. speaker and others, but not hearer); formal (or 'honorific') v. informal (or 'intimate') (Crystal 2008 A.D.).

The second person indicates the addressee to whom the speaker is addressing. The traditional definition merely defines the terms by using the examples. On the other hand, the modern definition gives several possibilities from a number of languages from the world.

2.1.59 Sentence (वाक्य)**:**

According to Pandit (2051), "A sentences is the combination of different words systematically with the proper agreement among them to give certain meaning. For example, τσ^ηανδρ℘μακο υδ℘φελε σ℘β℘ι λαι αν℘νδ℘ διλαυτση℘ (Raise of moon is delightful for all). vidhya dj℘sto kehi tshain℘ (There is nothing as important as education)."

The largest structural unit in terms of which the grammar of a language is organized is called a sentence. Linguistic discussion of the sentence has focused on problems of identification, classification and generation. Identifying sentences is relatively straightforward in the written language, but is oft n problematic in speech, where intonation and pause may give uncertain clues as to whether a sentence boundary exists. Most analysts agree on the need to recognize a functional classification of sentences into statement, question, command and exclamatory types. There is also widespread recognition (albeit with varying terminology) of a formal classification into declarative, interrogative, imperative and explanative types. Most analyses also recognize some such classification of 'sentence patterns' into simple v. complex or compound types, i.e. consisting of one subject–predicate unit, as opposed to more than one. Whether one calls this subject–predicate unit a clause or a 'simple' sentence, or uses some other term depends on one's model of analysis – but something analogous to this unit emerges in all theories, e.g. NP + VP, actor–action–goal, Subject–Verb–Object. Likewise, the number of formal sentence types recognized, and how they are best defined, has been and remains controversial (Crystal 2008 A.D.).

The traditional grammarian defines sentence as a combination of different word classes to form a complete meaning. On the other hand, the modern definition defines a sentence as a larger structural unit, the combination of syntactic components in a systematic way to give complete meaning. Therefore, it is a term often used in its ordinary, everyday sense to denote a syntactic unit consisting of a subject and a predicate, as in the unit 'John went to the pub' where 'John' is the subject and 'went to the pub' is the predicate. It has been used more technically in the literature on generative linguistics, where a distinction has sometimes been drawn between the sentence as a unit of competence and the utterance as a unit of performance.

2.1.60 Short (ह्रस्व)**:** According to Pandit (2051), "The vowel with a short utterance (with short length) is called a short vowel."

Short is used in phonetics to refer to the physical duration of a sound or utterance, and in phonology to refer to the relative durations of sounds and syllables when these are linguistically contrastive; also referred to as quantity. Sometimes the term is restricted to phonological contexts, the phonetic dimension being referred to as 'duration'. Phonologically long and short values are conventionally recognized, for both vowels and consonants. Languages often have one degree of phonological length, and may have more than one. Long vowels (transcribed with the diacritic [p]) occur in Arabic and Finnish, long consonants (or double consonants) in Italian and Luganda. A further contrast of length (over-long or extra-long) is also sometimes encountered with vowels. In English, the so-called distinction between long and short vowels (as in beat/bit) is not strictly a contrast in length, as quality variations are always involved (Crystal 2008 A.D.).

The sounds which take shorter physical duration are referred to as short sounds by both of these definitions. The term 'duration' is not used in the traditional definition. It is also one of the supra-segmental features of phonology which applies mostly on vowel sounds and rarely on consonants.

2.1.61 Syllable (अक्षर)**:** According to Swar (1975), "The pronunciation of the written symbols is called syllable. Syllable may refer to the symbols themselves."

Syllable is a unit of pronunciation typically larger than a single sound and smaller than a word. A word may be pronounced 'syllable at a time', as in ne-ver-the-less, and a good dictionary will indicate where these syllabic divisions occur in writing, thus providing information about how a word may be hyphenated. The notion of syllable, in short, is very real to native-speakers, and is often used in a quasi-technical sense in everyday conversation (e.g. shall I put it in words of one syllable?). Syllabification is the term which refers to the division of a word into syllables; resyllabification refers to a reanalysis which alters the location of syllable boundaries. A word containing a single syllable is called a monosyllable; if it contains more than one, the term polysyllable is used (or monosyllabic word/polysyllabic word respectively). Providing a precise definition of the syllable is not an easy task, and there

are several theories in both phonetics and phonology which have tried to clarify matters. From a phonetic viewpoint, attempts have been made to define the syllables of a language on the basis of the articulatory effort needed in order to produce them (Crystal 2008 A.D.).

The above mentioned definitions agree that a syllable is a unit of phonological organisation whose central component is a nucleus, which is normally a vowel and may be preceded or followed by consonants. The most basic kind of syllable is the CV (Consonant-Vowel) syllable (e.g. [ba]). The traditional definition is not very precise when it defines syllables.

2.1.62 Synonymy (पर्यायिता): According to Pandey (1994), "Synonyms are different words with identical meanings, and one is synonymous of the other words, such as τσηιτ1ο-τσαδαι (fast), δηιλο-ϖιστ1αρ℘ι (slow)."

Synonym is a term used in semantics to refer to a major type of sense relation between lexical items: lexical items which have the same meanings are synonyms. For two items to be synonyms, it does not mean that they should be identical in meaning, i.e. interchangeable in all contexts, and with identical connotations – this unlikely possibility is sometimes referred to as total synonymy. Synonymy can be said to occur if items are close enough in their meaning to allow a choice to be made between them in some contexts, without there being any difference for the meaning of the sentence as a whole (Crystal 2008 A.D.).

According to the traditional grammarian, words that have similar meaning are said to be synonymous, and the state of being similar is called synonymy. The modern definition provides a number of further classifications of the term. For example, the modern definition defines synonym as a lexical item defined semantically where a number of different words bear similar or identical meaning. The terms is said to be opposite to antonym based on sense relation.

2.1.63 Tense (काल): According to Pandit (2051), "Tense is the indication of three distinct aspect of time, i.e. now, before, and after."

Tense is a category used in the grammatical description of verbs (along with aspect and mood), referring primarily to the way the grammar marks the time at which the action denoted by the verb took place. In linguistics, the relationship between tense and time has been the subject of much study, and it is now plain that there is no easily state able

relationship between the two. Tense forms (i.e. variations in the morphological form of the verb) can be used to signal meanings other than temporal ones. Alternative terminology (e.g. 'past' v. 'non-past', 'future' v. 'non-future', 'now' v. 'remote') will often be needed. In later government-binding theory, the term tense phrase (TP) is used for what was earlier called an inflection phrase (IP), referring to a verb and its inflectional elements (Crystal 2008 A.D.).

Both traditional and modern writers refer to the form of verb which shows action in different time applying different temporal perspectives. The traditional definition has some limitations. The traditional grammars accept that there are three tenses. This definition does not go beyond this time frame. On the other hand, the modern definitions accept several categories of tenses, such as future versus non-future, now versus remote and so on.

2.1.64 Third person (तृतीय पुरुष)**:** According to Pandit (2051), "The pronouns except I, ωε, ψου (singular), ψου (plural) etc are known as third person."
Third person is a category used in grammatical description to indicate the number and nature of the participants in a situation. The contrasts are peripheral deictic, i.e. refer directly to features of the situation of utterance. Usually a three-way contrast is found: first person, in which speakers refer to themselves, or to a group usually including themselves (e.g. I, we); second person, in which speakers typically refer to the person they are addressing (e.g. you); and third person, in which other people, animals, things, etc. are referred to (e.g. he, she, it, and they). Other formal distinctions may be made in languages, such as 'inclusive' v. 'exclusive' we (e.g. speaker, hearer and others v. speaker and others, but not hearer); formal (or 'honorific') v. informal (or 'intimate') (Crystal 2008 A.D.).

In the above two definitions there is a common agreement about the term that third person pronoun is a term referred to the personal pronouns he, she, it, they etc. in a situation. The term can further be distinguished from different forms of pronouns which indicate number and nature of participants in a situation.

2.1.65 Transitivity (सकर्मकता)**:** According to Pradhan (1944), "The verb which needs an object is called transitive verb, for example, μ℘ γρ℘ντη℘ π℘δτσηυ (i read book), τ1ψο παισα κ℘μαυτση℘ (he earns money)."
Transitivity is a category used in the grammatical analysis of clause sentence constructions, with particular reference to the verb's relationship to dependent elements of structure. The

main members of this category are transitive (TR, Trans), referring to a verb which can take a direct object (as in he saw the dog), and intransitive (intr, intrans), where it cannot (as in *he arrived a ball). Many verbs can have both a transitive and an intransitive use (cf. we went a mile v. we went), and in some languages this distinction is marked morphologically. More complex relationships between a verb and the elements dependent upon it are usually classified separately. For example, verbs which take two objects are sometimes called ditransitive (as opposed to monotransitive), as in she gave me a pencil. There are also several uses of verbs which are marginal to one or other of these categories, as in pseudo-intransitive constructions (e.g. the eggs are selling well, where an agent is assumed – 'someone is selling the eggs' – unlike normal intransitive constructions, which do not have an agent transform: we went, but not *someone went us). Some grammarians also talk about (in) transitive prepositions. For example, with is a transitive preposition, as it must always be accompanied by a noun phrase complement (object), and along can be transitive or intransitive: cf. She arrived with a dog v. *She arrived with and She was walking along the river v. She was walking along (Crystal 2008 A.D.).

The traditional definition stats say that an intransitive verb is a verb that is associated with only one noun or noun phrase. The traditional definition provides the basic meaning of transitivity. On the other hand, the modern definition defines different aspects of transitivity. For example, the same verb may be used as transitive and intransitive verbs.

2.1.66 Trill (कम्पित): According to Dahal and Pokhrel (2027), "The sounds which are produced with the vibration of the tongue are trill. The sound [r] is a trill in Nepali."

Trill is a term in the phonetic classification of consonant sounds on the basis of their manner of articulation: also known as a trilled consonant, or a roll, 'trill' refers to any sound made by the rapid tapping of one organ of articulation against another. (Vocal-fold vibration is not included in such a definition.) Several accents of English use the trilled r, as in Welsh and Scots. French and German are examples of languages which have a uvular trill. The trill may also be accompanied by audible friction, and would then be called a 'fricative trill'. Bilabial trills are also possible, as when one makes a 'freezing' noise, brrr [B], or imitates a car engine (Crystal 2008 A.D.).

From the above definitions, trill is a sound made with a rapid series of closures and openings, as in the alveolar trill [r], where the blade of the tongue closes against the alveolar ridge, then opens, then closes again and so on, in quick succession. Trills can be made at two other points of articulation.

2.1.67 Velar (कण्ठ्य): According to Pradhan (1956 A.D.), "The vowel sound ʌ, a and consonant sounds /[κ], [κⁿ], [γ], [γⁿ], [N], [η] ασ well a visarga are produced from velar, so they are called velar sounds."

Velar is a term used in the phonetic classification of consonant sounds on the basis of their place of articulation: it refers to a sound made by the back of the tongue against the soft palate, or velum (the 'veil' of the palate). Examples in English are [k] and [ì], and the -ng sound [º] as in sing. If the velum is raised to shut off the nasal tract, a velic closure has been made. Velar sounds are different from velaric sounds. The term 'velaric' refers to a quite different mode of speech production: instead of using an airstream mechanism involving the lungs, velaric sounds use air generated by a closure in velar position. The back of the tongue is raised against the velum, and articulations are made further forward by the lips or front parts of the tongue. These sounds are usually called clicks, and have a distinctive role in some languages, such as Zulu. In English, they may be heard in the 'tut tut' sound, and in a few other contexts. Velarization is a general term referring to any secondary articulation involving a movement of the back part of the tongue towards the velum. The term is usually applied to consonants other than velar consonants; it can be used with reference to vowels, but such variations in vowel articulation are usually described in different terms ('centralized', 'retracted', etc.) (Crystal 2008 A.D.).

Both of the definitions conclude that velars are consonants articulated with the back part of the tongue (the dorsum) against the soft palate, the back part of the roof of the mouth, known also as the velum). Since the velar region of the roof of the mouth is relatively extensive and the movements of the dorsum are not very precise, velars easily undergo assimilation, shifting their articulation back or front depending on the quality of adjacent vowels.

2.1.68 Verb (क्रिया): According to Pandit (2051), "A verb is to happen or to do something."

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Verb is used in the grammatical classification of words. The formal definition of a verb refers to an element which can display morphological contrasts of tense, aspect, voice, mood, person and number. Functionally, it is the element which, singly or in combination with other verbs (i.e. as a 'verb phrase') is used as the minimal predicate of a sentence, co-occurring with a subject, e.g. she/wrote. If the predicate contains other elements (e.g. object, complement, adverbial), then it is the verb which more than any other is the unit which influences the choice and extent of these elements; e.g. the verb put takes both an object and a locative adverbial, as in he put the book on the table. In many grammatical theories, accordingly, the verb is considered the most important element in sentence structure (Crystal 2008 A.D.).

The above definitions claim that the verb is perhaps the most important part of the sentence. A verb or compound verb asserts something about the subject of the sentence and express actions, events, or states of being. The verb or compound verb is the critical element of the predicate of a sentence. The traditional definition simply states that a verb refers that something will take place.

2.1.69 Voiced (घोष): According to Pokhrel and Dahal (2027), "The consonant sounds that are produced with the vibration of the vocal cord are known as voiced sounds. The sounds in Nepali [γ], [γⁿ], [δζ], [δ], [ρ], [β], [δζⁿ] [δ], [δⁿ],[β], [βⁿ],[φ], [ω] are voiced sounds".

Voiced is a fundamental term used in the phonetic classification of speech sounds, referring to the auditory result of the vibration of the vocal folds; also called voicing. Sounds produced while the vocal folds are vibrating are voiced sounds, e.g. [b, z, a, i]; those produced with no such vibration are voiceless or unvoiced, e.g. [p, s, h]. A sound which is normally voiced, but which in a particular phonetic environment is produced with less voice than elsewhere, vocal lips or with no voice at all, is said to be devoiced (symbolized by a small circle beneath the symbol) examples are the reduced voicing on voiced plosives in a word-final position as in bib, bed [b}s], [be!]. This contrast is considered to be of primary significance in phonological analysis, and is used as a main parameter of classification both in phonemic and distinctive feature theories of phonology (Crystal 2008 A.D.).

A term for speech sounds which are produced with voicing. Many phonologists have pointed out that the voiced/voiceless dichotomy alone is insufficient to distinguish between the full

ranges of laryngeal contrasts in human languages. Both of the definitions are similar to some extent.

2.1.70 Voiceless (अघोष): According to Pokhrel and Dahal (2027), "Consonant sounds that are produced without the vibration of the vocal cord are known as voiceless sounds, such as [κʰ], [τση] [τʰ1], [τʰ], [πʰ] [τσ], [τ1], [τ], [π], [σ] and so on."

Voiceless is a fundamental term used in the phonetic classification of speech sounds, referring to the auditory result of the vibration of the vocal folds; also called voicing. Sounds produced while the vocal folds are vibrating are voiced sounds, e.g. [b, z, a, i]; those produced with no such vibration are voiceless or unvoiced, e.g. [p, s, h]. A sound which is normally voiced, but which in a particular phonetic environment is produced with less voice than elsewhere, or with no voice at all, is said to be devoiced (symbolized by a small circle beneath the symbol) examples are the reduced voicing on voiced plosives in a word-final position as in bib, bed [b}s], [be!]. This contrast is considered to be of primary significance in phonological analysis, and is used as a main parameter of classification both in phonemic and distinctive feature theories of phonology (Crystal 2008 A.D.).

From the above two definitions, the term voiceless can be described as the pronunciation of sounds when the larynx does not vibrate. Phonologically, this is a type of phonation, which contrasts with other states of the larynx, but some object that the word "phonation" implies voicing, and that voicelessness is the lack of phonation.

2.1.71 Vowel (स्वर): According to Acharya (1980 A.D.), "The words which can stand alone or pronounced without help of any other sounds are known as vowel sounds. For example: [ʌ], [ɛ], [ɑ], [ɪ], [ʊ] and so on."

One of the two general categories used for the classification of speech sounds, the other being consonant is called vowel. Vowels can be defined in terms of both phonetics and phonology. Phonetically, they are sounds articulated without a complete closure in the mouth or a degree of narrowing which would produce audible friction; the air escapes evenly over the centre of the tongue. If air escapes solely through the mouth, the vowels are said to be oral; if some air

is simultaneously released through the nose, the vowels are nasal. In addition to this, in a phonetic classification of vowels, reference would generally be made to two variables, the first of which is easily describable, the second much less so: (a) the position of the lips – whether rounded, spread, or neutral; (b) the part of the tongue raised, and the height to which it moves. Relatively slight movements of the tongue produce quite distinct auditory differences in vowel (or vocalic) quality. Because it is very difficult to see or feel these movements, classification of vowels is usually carried out using acoustic or auditory criteria, supplemented by details of lip position. In establishing the vowel system of a language, several further dimensions of classification may be used. One criterion is in terms of the duration of the vowel (whether relatively 'long' or 'short' vowels are used). Another is whether, during an articulation, there is any detectable change in quality. If the quality of a vowel stays unchanged, the term pure vowel, or monophthong, is used. If there is an evident change in quality, one talks instead of a gliding vowel. If two auditory elements are involved, the vowel glide is referred to as a diphthong. In the distinctive feature theory of phonology, the term vocalic is used as the main feature in the analysis of vowel sounds. Yet another way of classifying vowels is in terms of the amount of muscular tension required to produce them: vowels articulated in extreme positions are more 'tense' than those articulated nearer the centre of the mouth, which are 'lax': cf. seat Vs sit, flute Vs foot (Crystal 2008 A.D.).

In traditional and modern view the term vowels is one of the two general categories used for the classification of speech sounds, the other being consonant. Phonetically, they are sounds articulated without a complete closure in the mouth or a degree of narrowing which would produce audible friction; the air escapes evenly over the centre of the tongue. If air escapes solely through the mouth, the vowels are said to be oral; if some air is simultaneously released through the nose, the vowels are nasal.

2.1.72 word (शब्द)**:** According to Dikshiktacharya (1913 A.D.), "The audible units of sounds are words."

Word is a unit of expression which has universal intuitive recognition by native-speakers, in both spoken and written language. However, there are several difficulties in arriving at a consistent use of the term in relation to other categories of linguistic description, and in the comparison of languages of different structural types. These problems relate mainly to word

identification and definition. They include, for example, decisions over word boundaries (e.g. is a unit such as washing machine two words, or is it one, to be written washing-machine?), as well as decisions over status (e.g. is the a word in the same sense as is chair?). Regular definitions of words as 'units of meaning', or 'ideas' are of no help, because of the vagueness of such notions as 'idea' (Crystal 2008 A.D.).

A word is the smallest free form in contrast to a morpheme, which is the smallest unit of meaning. A word may consist of only one morpheme, but a single morpheme may not be able to exist as a free form. The traditional definition is not very clear.

Chapter 3
Summary and conclusion

A number of different grammatical terms from different sources, namely Nepal (2056), Aryal (2062) and Dhakal (2065) are taken for evaluation. These grammatical terms are considered representatives as they are used frequently in Nepali grammatical tradition. English translations of these grammatical terms were made from the original texts. These definitions are assumed authentic as they occurred for the first time in Nepali.

After the presentation of the traditional definition of collected grammatical terms, the modern linguistic definition of Crystal (2008 A.D.) has been given for each grammatical term. The same process is repeated throughout the thesis. The following conclusion is drawn after the evaluation of grammatical terms:

1. The traditional definitions are often defined through examples from rather than actual description of the terms. A large number of definitions in traditional Nepali grammar are found in this category. Several phonological terms are defined in this way. For example, Pradhan (1956) notes that $[\varphi]$, $[\rho]$, $[\lambda]$, $[\omega]$ consonants are called approximants. He merely lists the approximants rather than defining them. We find similar way of defining the terms in Dikshiktacharya (1913 A.D.). He notes, "Aspirate is the second and fourth letter of alphabets, i.e. $[\kappa^{\eta}]$, $[\tau\sigma^{\eta}]$, $[\tau 18^{\eta}]$, $[\tau^{\eta}]$, $[\pi^{\eta}]$. Several phonological terms are presened in this manner in several traditional grammar. Some further examples in this category include the definition of 'Second person', 'Third person', 'Palatal sounds' and son on.

2. A large number of definitions in traditional grammar are not adequate to describe and define the terms. A few cases have been cited here for examples. Dikshiktacharya (1913 A.D.) notes that the audible units of sounds are words. The meaning of word is not clear in this definition when we compare the definition with that of Crystal (2008) who say that the word is a unit of expression. We find similar case while defining the term feminine. Acharya (1980 A.D.) notes that feminine (gender) refers to females but does not explain

how the grammatical feminine gender is reflected in grammar. Such definitions include the definitions of name, consonant and syllable.

3. Despite the shortcomings in some definitions, there are some traditional definitions which are identical to that of modern definitions. For example, Pokhrel and Dahal (2027) mention that the consonant sounds that are produced with the vibration of the vocal cord are known as voiced sounds, e.g. [γ], [γⁿ], [δζ], [δ], [ρ], [β], etc. The definition has mentioned the features of aspiration in this example. Similarly, a large number of definitions are able to describe the phonological and grammatical features of the language. The definition of compound sentence, vowel, instrumental, ablative may be listed in this category.

4. The definitions of grammatical terms are heavily relied on the grammatical features of the Nepali language. For example, Pandit (2051) says "Tense is the indication of three distinct aspect of time, i.e. now, before, and after." This definition is not precise as it does not accept the possibility of more than three-way distinction of tense contrast. For example, Payne (1997:233-238) mention that there are several categories of tenses. Similar case is found while defining the term 'second person'. According to Pandit (2051) "If there are pronouns t℘® (you), τ1ιμι they are called the second persons." This definition excludes the possibilities of other pronouns such as the distinction between exclusive and inclusive pronouns found in some languages. Some further definitions which are defined based only on Nepali pronons are 'third person pronouns' and so on.

5. Modern definitions of grammatical terms illustrated with examples from the language of the world. On the other hand, such cases are hardly found in traditional definitions.

6. Some definitions differ greatly from modern concept. For example particle is defined as "The particles are used in proverbs but have no particular meanings, such as νι, κⁿ℘ι, τ℘, πο, ρε, κφαρε etc.". This definition is not exact as it is defined in modern references.

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APPENDIX

A glossary of grammatical terms

अंगुली निर्देशक   Finger indicator

अंश चिन्ह Hyphen

अंशबोधक Fractional

अकरण   Negative

अकरण प्रत्यय Negative suffix

अकरण वाक्य Negative sentence

अकर्मक कर्ता Intransitive subject

अकर्मक क्रिया Intransitive verb

अक्षर   Syllable

अक्षरात्मक syllabic

अक्षरान्त्य Syllable-final

अग्र ध्वनि Front-sound

अग्र भाग Front-part

अङ्ग   Organ

अङ्ग वाक्य Organ sentence

अचल अपादान fixed ablative

अच्   Vowel

अजन्त Vowel final

अजन्त कर्मवाच्य   Vowel final passive voice

अजन्त विशेषण Vowel final adjective

अज्ञात अपूर्ण भूत   Unknown imperfect past

अज्ञात पूर्ण भूत   Unknown perfect past

अज्ञात भूतकाल   Unknown past tense

अतिमान बोधक   High grade honorific

अधिकता बोधक Excessive

अधिकरण   Locative

अधिकरण-कारक   Locative case

अधीन वाक्य   subordinate sentence

अधीन वाक्यांस   Dependent clause

अध्याहार   Restoration

अनाक्षरिक   Non syllabic

अनतवरत गति Continuous motion

अननुनासिक oral

अनाक्षरिक धातु- syllabic root

अनित्य समास   Optional compounding

अनिश्चय क्रिया Uncertainty verb

अनिश्चयबोधक विशेषण Indefinite adjective

अनिश्चयवाचक विशेषण Indefinite adjective

अनिश्चयवाचक सर्वनाम Indefinite pronoun

अनिश्चयार्थ   Dubitative

अनिश्चित-संख्याबोधक Indefinite quantity

अनुकरण चिन्ह Onomatopoeia sign

अनुकरण वाचक Onomatopoeic

अनुकरणात्मक क्रियाविशेषण Onomatopoeic adverb

अनुकरणवाचक क्रियाविशेषण Onomatopoeic adverb

अनुकरण शब्द Onomatopoeia

अनुक्त वर्ण Demoted phoneme

अनुक्रमणिका Index

अनुज्ञा वाक्य Imperative sentence

अनुदात्त Falling tone

अनुनासिक Nasal

अनुनासिक वर्ण Nasal phoneme

अनुमति Permission

अनुमतिबोधक Permissive

अनुमान Estimation

अनुस्वार Nasal archiphoneme

अनेक वचन Nonsingular

अनेकार्थी Polysemy

अनेकार्थक Equivocal

अनेकार्थक धातु Equivocal

word root

अनेकार्थी Polysemy

अनेकार्थी शब्द Non- singular word

अन्त:स्वर Rhyme vowel

अन्य पुरुष Third person

अन्य पुरुषवाचक सर्वनाम Third Person pronoun

अन्वय Agreement

अन्य वचन Other number

अपश्रुति Ablaut

अपत्यवाचक Filial

अपभ्रम Hallucination

अपरिष्कृत रुप Non purified form

अपादान Ablative

अपादान-कारक Ablative case

अपूर्ण आदेशक Directive

अपूर्ण-क्रिया Incomplete verb

अपूर्ण क्रियापद Incomplete verb

अपूर्ण चिन्ह Incomplete sign

अपूर्ण द्विस्वर Incomplete diphthong

अपूर्ण भविष्यत् Future imperfect

अपूर्ण भूत Past imperfect

अपूर्ण भूतकाल Past imperfect tense

अपूर्ण भूतकालिक Past imperfect

अपूर्ण वर्तमान Present Imperfect

अपूर्ण वर्तमानकाल   Present imperfect tense

अपूर्ण विध्यर्थ Imperfect imperative

अपूर्ण विराम   Incomplete juncture

अपूर्ण संकेतार्थ Imperfect conditional

अपूर्ण संभावनार्थ Imperfect probabilitative

अप्रधान   Subordinate

अप्रधान क्रिया Auxiliary verb

अर्थ Meaning

अर्थानुवाद Indirect speech

अर्ध दीर्घ   Semi-long

अर्ध मात्रा Extra short

अर्ध मात्रिक Extra Short

अर्ध विराम Semi Colon

अर्ध व्यञ्जन Semi- consonant

अर्ध स्वर Semi Vowel

अर्ध स्वरीभूत Semi Vowelised

अलोपी समास Non-disappearing compound

अल्पप्राण Nonaspirated

अल्पविराम Comma

अवकासवोधक   Junctural

अवतरण चिन्ह   Quotation marks

अवस्था State

अवरुध्द गति   Restrained

अवशेष Residue

अवान्तर क्रिया   Non finite verb

अविकारी शब्द Undeclinable

अवीचीन तन्द्रव   Recent derivative

अव्यय   Non- declinable

अव्यय भेद Indeclinable distinction

अव्यय वाक्य   Adverbial clause

अव्यय साधित   Particle incorporated

अव्यय साधित धातु Particle incorporated root

अव्ययी भाव Adverbial

अव्ययी भाव समास Adverbial compound

अशुध्दि   Impure

असमापिका क्रिया   Non finite verb

असत्य समास   Untrue compound

असमस्वर सन्धि Unequal vowel sandhi

असिध्दि संकेतार्थ Imperfective conditional

अस्पष्ट पुनरुक्त Unclear repeated

आकांक्षा   Aspiration

आकारान्त a-final

आकृति   Shape

आश्रित   Dependent

आश्रित नाम उपवाक्य Dependent noun clause

आश्रित वाक्य Dependent clause

आख्यात Predicate

आख्यात प्रत्यय predicate suffix

आख्यात प्रत्यय पद Predicate suffix stem

आख्यात विभक्ति Verbal postposition

आज्ञा   Command

आज्ञार्थक वाक्य Command sentence

आज्ञासूचक Imperative

आगन्तुक शब्द loan word

आगम Insertion

आगमयुक्त रूप Insertion form

आत्मबोधक Reflexive

आत्मबोधक सर्वनाम Reflexive pronoun

आदर Honor

आदरार्थी Honorific

आदरवाचक सर्वनाम Honorific Pronoun

आदरार्थी अनेकवचन Honorific non singular

आदिस्वर Initial vowel

आधार पूरक Basic complement

आधिक्य Excess

आन्तरिक करण Internal positive

आदेशक command

आभ्यान्तर प्रयत्न Intrabuccal effort

आरम्भ बोधक   Inceptive

आरोप विशेषण Charge adjective

आलङ्कारिक क्रम   metaphoric order

आवृत्तिबोधक   Frequentative

आवृत्तिबोधक क्रियाविशेषण Frequentative adverb

आसन्न Perfect

आसन्न भूतकाल Perfect past tense

आसन्न भूतकालिक perfect past tense

इकार 'i'

इकारान्त 'I'final

इच्छाबोधक Optative sentence

इच्छार्थक वाक्य Optative clause

इच्छा-वाक्य Optative sentense

इच्छा सूचक Optative

इषत्स्पृष्ट Half- closed

उकार 'u'

उकार अनुनासिक nasal 'u'

उकारान्त 'u'final

उखान Proverb

उच्चारण Articulation

उच्चारण स्थान	Place of articulation

उक्त कर्ता	Mentioned agent

उत्तम पुरुष	First Person

उत्तमपुरुष सर्वनाम	First Person Pronoun

उत्तरकालिक क्रिया	Infinitive verb

उत्पादक	Illative

उद्गार वाक्य	Exclamatory sentence

उद्गार वाचक	Exclamatory

उद्गार चिह्न	Exclamatory mark

उदात्त	High tone

उध्दरण	Quotation

उद्देश भविष्यत्	Prospective future

उद्देश्य	Subject

उद्देश्य वर्तमान	Attributive present

उद्देश्य-विशेषण	Subject-adjective

उद्देश्य विस्तार	Subject Extent

उद्देश्य विध्यर्थ	Subject imperative

उद्देश्य सम्भावनार्थ	Subject optative

उपपद विशेषण	Specific adjective

उपपद समास	Specific compound

उपभाषा	Dialect

उपमान पद	Resemblance

उपमान विशेषण Metaphorical adjectives

उपमेय Compared

उपसर्ग Prefix

उपस्थित सूचक Present indicator

उभय लिंग Common gender

उभयान्वयी Conjunctional

उर Heart/breast

उष्म Fricative

उष्म वर्ण Fricative sound

एक मात्रिक स्वर Single length vowel

एकवचन Singular

एकार्थबोधक वाक्य Univocal sentence

एलिप्सिस Ellipsis

ऐजन चिह्न Ditto marks

ओष्ठ्य वर्ण   Labial phoneme

ओष्ठस्थानी Labial

कचचिन्ह Underscore

कण्ठ्य   Velar

कण्ठ्य तालव्य Palatal velar

कण्ठ्योष्ठ्य Labiovelar

कण्ठ्य वर्ण Velar phoneme

कठोर संयोग Hard cluster

कथित भाषा Spoken language

कथ्य भाषा Spoken language

कम्पित Trill

करण Instrumental

करण कारक Instrumental case

करण पत्यय Instrumental suffix

करण द्वितीय पुरुष Instrumental second person

करण वाक्य Instrumental sentence

करणवाचक Instrumental

करणवाचक कृदन्त Instrumental participle

कर्ता Agent

कर्ता कारक Agent case

कर्तृपद Agent phrase

कर्तृप्रधान Active

कर्तृप्रधान सकर्मक क्रिया Active transitive verb

कर्तृवाचक Active

कर्तृवाच्य Active voice

कर्म Object

कर्म कारक Objective case

कर्म धारय Object apical

कर्म पूर्ति Object supplement

कर्म प्रधान Passive

कर्म प्रधान सकर्मक क्रिया Passive transitive verb

कर्म प्रवचनीय Exclamation

कर्म वाचक Objective

कर्म वाच्य Passive voice

कर्म वाचक प्रत्यय Passive suffix

कल्नासो uvula

कारक case

कारक विभक्ति Case marker

कारणबोधक Protasis

कारणबोधक-अव्यय Protasis indeclinable

काल Tense

काल वाचक Temporal

कालबोधक क्रियान्वयी Temporal adverb

कालवाचक क्रियाविशेषण Temporal adverb

कर्त्ऽ Doer

कृत् प्रत्यय primary affix

कृदन्त Participle

कृदन्त क्रिया Participle verb

कृदन्त नाम Participle noun

कृदन्त शब्द Participle word

कोटेसन Quotation

कोमल संयोग Soft sequential

कोमल स्वर Soft vowel

कोष्ठ चिह्न Bracket

क्रम बोधक Ordinal

क्रमबोधक अव्यय Ordinal particle

क्रिया Verb

क्रियाका अङ्ग Verbal component

क्रियापद Verb (finite)

क्रियापद-प्रकरण Verb phrase

क्रियायोगी Adverb

क्रियार्थ संज्ञा Gerund

क्रिया वाक्य Verbal sentence

क्रियावाचक Verbal

क्रियाविशेषण Adverb

क्रियाविशेषण वाक्य Adverbial sentence

क्रियाविशेषण वाक्यांश Adverbial clause

क्रियाविशेषण विशेषण Adverbial adjective

क्रिया योगी Adverb

क्रियासंयुक्त-क्रिया Vector

क्षुद्रतावाची Unimportant

क्षेत्रीय भाषा Regional language

श्रेणीवाचक क्रियाविशेषण Hierarchical adverb

खण्ड वाक्य Partial sentence

गणनावोधक Numerical

गति Motion

गुण बोधक Qualitative

गुणबोधक विशेषण Qualitative adjective

गुणवाचक Qualitative

गुणवाचक क्रियाविशेषण Qualitative adverb

गुणवाचक विशेषण Qualitative adjective

गुण सन्धि Quality sandhi

गुरु long

गोर्खा भाषा Gorkha language

गौण कर्म Indirect object

गौण क्रिया Subsidiary verb

गौण विशेषण Qualitative adjective

ग्रामीण शब्द Rural word

घोक्रो Throat

घोष Voice

चतुर्थी विभक्ति Dative postposition

चन्द्रविन्दु Nasalization

चल अपादान Variable ablative

चिन्ह Sign

च्युति-सूचक Deprived

जटिल वाक्य Complex sentence

जातिवाचक Common

जातिवाचक नाम   Common noun

जातिवाचक संज्ञा Common noun

जिह्वामूलीय Velar fricative

ज्ञात अपूर्ण Known imperfective

ज्ञात-अपूर्ण-भूत Known Imperfect past

ज्ञात-उद्देश-भूत   Known prospective past

ज्ञात-पूर्ण Known perfect

ज्ञात-पूर्ण-भूत   Known past perfect

ज्ञात सामान्य Known simple

ज्ञात सामान्य-भूत Known simple past

टिप्पणी चिन्ह Remark sign

टीका चिन्ह Indicator sign

ठूलो छेका Square bracket

ठेट शब्द Genuine/pure word

तात्कालिक वर्तमान Instantaneous present

तत्पुरुषसमास Non derive

तत्सम शब्द Sanskrit borrowed word

तत्पुरुष शब्द Non derived word

तद्धित   Secondary derivative

तद्धित प्रत्यय Secondary derivative suffix

तद्धितान्त Secondary derivative

तद्धितान्त शब्द Secondary derivative word

तद्भव Historical derivative

त वर्ग 't'class

ताडित Flap

तात्पर्य Intention

तात्कालिक वर्तमानकाल Immediate present tense

तद्धितान्त Secondary derivative

तद्धितान्त बोधक Secondary derivative

तालव्य वर्ण Palatal phoneme

तालु Palatal

तालुस्थानी Palatal

तिङ् विभक्ति   Verbal postposition

तिर्यक् कारक   oblique case

तुलना Compare

तुल्यताबोधक विशेषण Attributive pronoun

तुल्ययोगी बहुब्रिही Attributive compound

तोड चिन्ह Punctuation

तृतीय तत्पुरुष Third determinative

तृतीय पुरुष वाचक Third person signifier

तृतीय पुरुष समास Third Determinative compound

तृतीय पुरुष सर्वनाम Third person Pronoun

तृतीय पुरुष वाचक   Third person signifier

तृतीय पुरुषवाचक सर्वनाम Third person pronoun

तृतीय विभक्ति Instrumental case marker

तृप्ति सूचक Gratification sign

त्रिकर्मक Tri-transitive

त्रुटि चिन्ह Error sign

दन्त्य ध्वनि Dental sound

दन्त्य वर्ण Dental consonant

दन्त स्थान Dental

दन्त्योष्ठय Labiodental

दन्त्योष्ठय वर्ण Labiodental consonant

दन्तोष्ठय Labiodental

दर्शक Demonstrative

दर्शक विशेषण Demonstrative adjective

दर्शक सर्वनाम Demonstrative Pronoun

दर्शकवाचक सर्वनाम Demonstrative pronoun

दाहिने Right

दीर्घ Long

देवनागरी Devanagari

देवनागरी लिपि Devanagari script

देवाक्षर Devanagari

दृष्टान्तबोधक Illustrative

द्रव्यवाचक Material

द्रव्य वाचक नाम   Material noun

द्रव्य वाचक संज्ञा   Material noun

द्वन्द्व   Copulative

द्वन्द्व समास Copulative Compound

द्विकर्मक   Di-transitive

द्विकर्मक क्रिया   Di-transitive verb

द्विगु समास   Numeral Compound

द्वितीय पुरुष   Second Person

द्वितीय तत्पुरुष   Second Determinative

द्वितीयपुरुष वाचक   Second person

द्वितीय पुरुषवाचक सर्वनाम   Second person pronoun

द्वितीया विभक्ति   Objective case marker

द्वित्व   Reduplication

द्विमात्रिक स्वर   Diphthongs vowel

द्विरुक्त   Reduplication

द्विरुक्त शब्द   Reduplicated word

द्विवचन   dual number

धर्का चिन्ह   Dash

धर्मबोधक   Virtual

धातु   Root

धातु नाम   Gerundive

धातु साधित   Root derive/verbal

धातु साधित अव्यय Root verbal particle

धातु साधित धातु Verbal root

धातु साधित-नाम Verbal noun

धातु साधित- विशेषण Verbal adjective

धातु साधित-शब्द Verbal word

ध्वनि Phone/sound

नकारान्त 'n' final

नञ् तत्पुरुष Negative ccompound

नपुंसक लिङ्ग Neuter gender

नाम Noun

नाम धातु Noun root

नामयोगी Postposition

नाम वाक्य Noun clause

नाम-साधित Noun denominal

नाम-साधित धातु Noun denominal root

नाम स्थानिक Substitute of noun

नामान्वयी-विशेषण Attribute adjective

नामिक विभक्ति Nominal postposition

नासिका स्थानी Nasal

निजवाचक सर्वनाम Reflexive pronoun

नित्य –समास Obligatory compound

निपात Particle

निरनुनासिक   Non-nasalized

निरपेक्ष योजक   Coordinative

निरपेक्षयोजक अव्यय   Coordinative particle

निरपेक्ष योजक संयोजक   Coordinative conjunction

निरपेक्ष संयोजक   Coordinative conjunction

निरर्थक शब्द   Nonsense word

निर्देशन वाक्य   Declarative sentence

निर्देशन चिन्ह   Directive sign

निश्चय बोधक सर्वनाम   Definitive pronoun

निश्चयवाचक विशेषण   Definitive adjective

निश्चयवाचक सर्वनाम   Definitive pronoun

निश्चयवोधक   Definitive

निश्चित संख्याबोधक   Definite numeral

निषेधादि वाचक   Negation marker

निषेधादिवाचक क्रिया-विशेषण   Negation adverb

नेपाली   Nepali

नेपाली भाषा   Nepali language

नेपाली व्याकरण   Nepali grammar

न्यूनताबोधक   Diminutive

पञ्चम वर्ण   Nasal sound

पञ्चमी विभक्ति   Ablative case marker

पद   Word

पद निर्देशक Director word

पद परिचय   Word introduction

पद विचार Etylomology

पद योग Word joining

पद वियोग word separation

पद व्याकरण   Word grammar

पदार्थवाचक नाम   Material noun

परवाक्य   Quotation

परतन्त्रबोधक   Dependent

परार्थताबोधक   Benefactive

परिमाणबोधक   Quantitative

परिमाणबोधक विशेषण   Quantitative adjective

परिमाणवाचक क्रियाविशेषण   Quantitative adverb

परिमेय   Uncountable

परोक्ष रुप   Distance form

परोक्षरुप विधिक्रिया   Optative form

पर्यायवाची शब्द   Synonym

पवर्ग 'p' class

पाणिनी व्याकरण paninian grammar

पाद विराम(,)   Comma

पारिभाषिक संज्ञा Definitional noun

पीडासूचक   Pain indicater

पुलिङ्ग Masculine

पूरक Complement

पुरुष Person

पुरुषवाचक सर्वनाम Personal pronoun

पूर्णकालिकक्रिया Conjunctive verb

पूर्ण-क्रिया Complete verb

पूर्ण प्रत्यय Complete suffix

पूर्ण भविष्यत् Future perfect

पूर्ण भूत Past perfect

पूर्ण भूतकालिक Past perfect

पूर्ण वर्तमान Present perfect

पूर्ण-वर्तमान काल Present perfect tense

पूर्ण-विध्यर्थक Perfect imperative

पूर्णविराम Full stop

पूर्ण-संकेतार्थ Perfect conditional

पूर्ण-संभावनार्थ Perfect probabilitative

प्रकारार्थी Varietative

प्रकृतिभाव-सन्धि Adjunction

प्रातिपदिक Stem

प्रत्यक्ष-रुप Direct form

प्रत्यय Suffix

प्रत्येक बोधक Distributive

प्रथम पुरुष First person

प्रथम पुरुषवाचक सर्वनाम   First person pronoun

प्रथमा विभक्ति Nominative case

प्रधान उपवाक्य   Main clause

प्रधान पद Main word

प्रधान वाक्यांश   Main clause

प्रयोजक कर्ता   Causative root

प्रयोजक धातु   Causative root

प्रश्न चिन्ह Question mark

प्रश्न बोधक सर्वनाम Interrogative pronoun

प्रश्नवाचक क्रियाविशेषण   Interrogative adverb

प्रश्नवाचक चिन्ह   Interrogative sign

प्रश्नवाचक सर्वनाम Interrogative pronoun

प्रश्न सूचक चिन्ह   Interrogative mark

प्रश्नार्थक Interrogative

प्रश्नार्थक सर्वनाम Interrogative pronoun

प्राकृत   Natural

प्रान्तीय बोली Regional dialect

प्रेरणार्थक Causative

प्रेरक कर्ता Causative agent

प्रेरणा-कर्तृ Causative agent

प्रेरणा-कर्म Causative object

प्रेरणार्थक Causative

प्रेरणार्थक क्रिया Causative verb

प्लुत Extra long

फल Result

बहुवचन Plural

बहुवीहि Compound

बाहखरी Alphabet

बाराक्षरी Alphabet

भविष्यत् Future

भविष्यत्काल Future tense

भविष्यत् सूचक Future Indicator

भावबोधक वाक्य abstract sentence

भाववाचक Abstract

भाववाचक नाम Abstract noun

भाववाच्य Impersonal passive voice

भाषा Language

भाषा विज्ञान Linguistics

भाषा शास्त्र Philology

भूतकाल Past tense

भेदक Separative

भेद्य Noun

मध्यम पुरुष Second person

मध्यम पुरुष वाचक सर्वनाम Second person pronoun

महाप्राण Aspirated

महा सर्वनाम Prnoun of indefinite Reference

मात्रा Length

मात्रा संयोग Length coordination

मानबोधक Honorific

मानबोधक सर्वनाम Honorific pronoun

माने Meaning

मिलित क्रिया Compound verb

मिश्र Complex

मिश्र वाक्य Complex sentence

मिश्रित वाक्य Embedded sentence

मुखे ओडार Oral cavity

मुख्य उपवाक्य Main clause

मुख्य कर्म Main object

मुख्य-क्रिया Main verb

मूर्धन्य वर्ण Retroflex phoneme

मूर्धन्य व्यञ्जन Retroflex consonant

मूर्धस्थानी Retroflex

मूल धातु Main root

मूल शब्द Main word

मौखिक भाषा Oral language

यथार्थ स्वर Real sound

योगरुढ Non composition

योगरुढी Non composition

योग्यता virtue/ quality

योग्यता वाचक Qualitative

यौगिक Compositional

यौगिक Compound

यौगिक शब्द Compositional word

रीति Manner

रीतिवाचक क्रियाविशषण Manner adverb

रुढ Traditional

रुढ पद Non compositional word

रुढ यौगिक Non compositional compound

रुढ शब्द Non compositional word

रुप Form

रुपक कर्मधारय Formal Object apical

रुपान्तर Transformation

रुपावली Paradigm

रेखाविशेष विन्यास Linear arrangement

रेफ चिन्ह Rhotic sign

रेफान्त संयोग Rhoticity

लक्षण sign

लक्ष्यअर्थ Connotative meaning

लय tone

लिखित Written

लिखित भाषा Written language

लिङ्ग Gender

लिपि Script

लोप Deletion

लोप चिन्ह Deletion sign

वचन Number

वचन प्रत्यय Number suffix

वर्ग Class

वर्ण Phoneme

वर्णमाला Phonemic inventory

वर्णरुप शब्द Phonemic word

वर्णवाचक Phonic

वर्णविचार Phonology

वर्ण विभाग Orthography

वर्णात्मक शब्द Descriptive word

वर्तमान Present

वर्तमान काल Present Tense

वलाघात Stress

वहुवचन Plural

वहुव्रीहि समास Attributive compound

वाक्य Sentence

वाक्य-अन्वय Analysis

वाक्पध्दति Language system

वाक्य परिवर्तन Sentence change

वाक्यविचार Syntax

वाक्य वियोजन Sentence destructive

वाक्य विराम Juncture

वाक्य विश्लेषण Sentence analysis

वाक्य व्याकरण Sentence grammar

वाक्य संकोचन Sentence contraction

वाक्य संयोजन Sentence adjunction

वाक्यांश Clause

वाग् अवयव Vocal organs

वाचक reciting

वाच्य Voice

वाच्य अर्थ Lexical meaning

वाच्य परिवर्तन Voice change

वाह्य करण External instrument

वाह्य प्रयत्न manner of articulation

विकल्पबोधक अव्यय   optional in declinable

विकारी शब्द   Declinable word

विग्रह Paraphrase

विचारबोधक Tentative

विच्छेद elimination

विधानार्थ agreement

विधि conduct

विधि-क्रिया Imperative verb

विधेय Predicate

विधेय विशेषण Predicative adjective

विधेय विस्तार Predicate extension

विध्यर्थ Imperative mood

विध्यर्थ क्रिया Imperative verb

विपक्षवोधक अव्यय opposite particle

विपरीतार्थक शब्द Antonym

विभक्ति Postposition

विभक्ति प्रत्यय Case suffix

विभक्तिसूचक Case indicator

विभागवाचक विशेषण Distributive adjective

विभाजक Distinctive

विराम विन्यास Coda arrangement

विशेष उध्दरण special extract

विशेष उध्दरण सूचक special extract indicator

विशेष नाम special noun

विशेषक Modifier

विशेषण Adjective

विशेषण उपवाक्य Adjective clause

विशेषण-वाक्य Adjective sentence

विशेषण वाक्यांस Adjective phrase

विशेषण-साधित Adjective-derived

विशेषण-साधित धातु Adjective-derived root

विशेष्य Noun

विसर्ग Visarga

विसर्ग-सन्धि Visarga sandhi

विस्तार extent

विस्तारार्थक extensive

विस्मयादिबोधक Interjection

विस्मयादिबोधक अव्यय Interjection particle

विस्मयार्थक Interjection

वीप्सा Reduplication

वृति Mood

वृति सन्धि Mood sandhi

देवनागरी लिपि Devnagari script

वैकल्पिक Alternative

वैयाकरण क्रम grammatical order

व्यक्तिवाचक Proper

व्यक्तिवाचक नाम Proper noun

व्यक्तिवाचक विशेषण Proper adjective

व्यञ्जन Consonant

व्यञ्जन वर्ण Consonant phoneme

व्यञ्जन संयोग Consonant cluster

व्यञ्जन-सन्धि Consonant sandhi

व्यय Declination

व्यकरण Grammar

व्यापक जातिवाचक Superordinate common terms

व्यापार Movement/Action

व्युत्पन्न-शब्द Derivative

शक्ति Power

शक्तिबोधक Capabilitative

शक्ति विभाग Power department

शब्द Word

शब्द-अव्यय Word particle

शब्द भण्डार Vocabulary

शब्दयोगी अव्यय Grammatical particle

शब्द रुपावली Word paradigm

शब्द लिपि Word script

शब्द विचार Etymology

शब्द विभक्ति word postposition

शब्द विभाग Etymology

शब्द संक्षेप Word summary

शब्द संग्रह Word collection

शब्द शास्त्र Etymology

शब्दानुवाद Literal translation

शिथिल संयोग loose cluster

शिरविन्दु Notation

शुद्धि pure

शेष Remainder

षष्ठी Possessive

षष्ठी तत्पुरुष Possessive non-derive

षष्ठी विभक्ति Possessive case

संकुचन contraction

संकुचित वाक्य contracted sentence

संकेत चिन्ह Signal sign

संकेत वाचक विशेषण Conditional adjective

संख्या Number

संख्यानुक्रम वाचक Numeral

संख्याबोधक विशेषण Numeral adjective

संख्याविशेषण Numeral Adjective

संख्या वृत्तिवाचक Numeral

संख्येय Countable

संज्ञा Noun

संज्ञा प्रतिनिधि Noun representative

संज्ञा भेद Noun separate

संज्ञा-वाक्यांश Noun Clause

संज्ञावाचक Noun/Numeral

संदिग्ध भूतकाल Probabilitative past

संदिग्द वर्तमानकाल Probabitative present

संप्रदान dative

संप्रदान कारक Dative case

संबंधप्रतियोगी Possessed

संवेगसूचक Motional indicator

संबोधन Address

संभावना भविष्यत्काल Possible future tense

संभावना Possible

संभावनार्थ Possibilitative mood

संम्भाव्य भविष्यत् Possible future

संयुक्त Compound

संयुक्त अक्षर Conjunct consonant

संयुक्त क्रिया Compound verb

संयुक्त-वर्ण Compound

संयुक्त-वाक्य Compound sentence

संयुक्त-व्यञ्जन Consonant cluster

संयुक्ताक्षर Syllable cluster

संयोग   Cluster

संयोजन Conjunction

संयोजक अव्यय   Conjunction

संवृत Ffrequency

संवर्ण   Allophone

संवेग सूचक Emotional indicator

संवर्ण दीर्घ सन्धि   Allophonic long sandi

संश्लिष्ट वाक्य Compound sentence

सकर्मक   Transitive

सकर्मक-कर्तृ(कर्ता) Transitive subject

सकर्मक क्रिया Transitive verb

सकारी भवन Sigmaticism

सङ्केतार्थ Conditional

सङ्केतार्थक विशेषण Conditional adjective

सङ्ख्याबोधक   Numeral

सङ्ख्याबोधक विशेषण Numeral adjective

सन्दिग्ध भूतकालिक Probabilitative past

सन्दिग्ध वर्तमानकालिक   Probabilitative present

सन्धि Sandhi

सप्तमी विभक्ति Locative case

समस्त शब्द   Compound word

समानसूचक equal indicator

समानाधिकरण Adpositional

समापिका क्रिया Finite word

समाप्तिबोधक   Completive

समास Compounding

समुच्चय बोधक अव्यय Coordinating conjunction

समोच्चरित शब्द Coordinating word

समुच्चायक   Copulative

समुदायवाचक   Collective

समुदायवाचक संज्ञा   Collective noun

समूहवाचक नाम   Collective noun

सम्प्रदान   Dative

सम्प्रदान कारक Dative case

सम्बन्ध Genitive

सम्बन्ध-कारक   Genitive case

सम्बन्ध-विभक्ति Genitive case

सम्बन्ध-बोधक   Possessive

सम्बन्धबोधक अव्यय Possessive indeclinable

सम्बन्धबोधक सर्वनाम Genitive pronoun

सम्बन्धवाचक अव्यय   Relative particle

सम्बन्धवाचक क्रियाविशेषण Possessive adverb

सम्बन्धवाचक सर्वनाम   Relative pronoun

सम्बन्धानुयोग Relative noun

सम्बन्ध-विशेषण Relative adjective

सम्बन्ध-सर्वनाम Relative pronoun

सम्बन्धी Relative

सम्बोधन   Vocative

सम्बोधन-कारक   Vocative case

सम्बोधन-विभक्ति   Vocative postposition

सम्बोधन सूचक vocative indicate

सम्भावना Probability

सम्भावना भविष्यत् Future probabilitative

सम्भावना भविष्यत काल Future conditional tense

सम्भावनार्थ Probabilitative

सरल Simple

सरल-क्रियापद   Simple verb

सरल वाक्य   Simple sentence

सर्ग Affix

सर्वनाम   Pronoun

सर्वनामिक विशेषण Pronominal adjective

सर्वनामसाधित Pronoun derived

सहायक क्रिया Auxiliary verb

साङ्केतिक रुप Signifier form

सातत्यबोध Progressive

साधित-धातु Derived root

साधित मूल धातु Derived main root

साधित-शब्द Derivative

सानु छेका Parenthesis

सानुनासिक Nasalized

सापेक्ष योजक Sub Ordinative conjunction

सापेक्ष विराम(:) Sub ordinative colon

सापेक्ष संयोजक Sub ordinative

सापेक्ष संयोजक अव्यय Sub ordinative particle

सामान्य क्रिया Simple verb

सामान्य नाम Common noun

सामान्य नियम Simple rule

सामान्य भविष्यत् Simple future

सामान्य भविष्यत काल Simple future tense

सामान्य भूत Simple past

सामान्य भूतकाल Simple past tense

सामान्य भूतकालिक Simple past tense

सामान्य रुप General form

सामान्य लिङ्ग Common Gender

सामान्य वर्तमान Simple present

सामान्य वर्तमान काल Simple present tense

सामान्य वर्तमानकालिक Simple present tense

सामान्य विध्यर्थ Simple imperative

सामान्य-शब्द परिचय General word introduction

सामान्य संकेतार्थ General conditional

सामान्य संभावनार्थ General potential

सामान्यार्थ Declarative mood

सामान्यार्थ वाक्य Declarative sentence

सामासिक Compounding

सार्थक शब्द Meaningful word

सार्वनामिक Pronominal

सार्वनामिक विशेषण Pronominal adjective

सिद्ध–शब्द Head word

सिद्ध मूलधातु Head main root

स्त्रीत्वबोधक प्रत्यय Feminine suffix

स्त्रीप्रत्यय Feminine suffix

स्त्रीलिङ्गी क्रिया Feminine verb

स्त्रीलिङ्ग Feminine gender

स्थान Place

स्थान पूरक Place complement

स्थानवाचक क्रिया-विशेषण Locational adverb

स्थितिवोध Existential

स्पर्श Plosive/stop

स्पर्श वर्ण Plosive phoneme

स्वतन्त्र Independent

स्वतन्त्र करण Independent instrument

स्वतन्त्र कर्ता Independent agent

स्वतन्त्र-क्रिया Independent verb

स्वपद self word

स्वर Vowel

स्वर चिम्टि Vocal cord

स्वर प्रसारण Vowel spreading

स्वर-सन्धि Vowel sandhi

स्वराघात Accent

स्वरुप Pattern

स्वरुप अवस्था Pattern situation

स्वादि-सन्धि Nominal sandhi

स्वीकारबोधी शब्द Agreemental word

हलन्त Consonant final

हलन्त धातु Consonant final root

हलन्त नपुंसक लिङ्गी Consonant final neuter gender

हलन्त पुलिङ्गी Consonant final masculine

हलन्त स्त्रीलिङ्गी Consonant final feminine

हल् Consonant

हल् उच्चारित Consonantal