CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1   Introductory Remarks

Language is a means of communication among human beings. It is as old as human race. As far as verbal communication with distinct sound is concerned, it dates back to 6500 B.C. [Verma and Krishanaswami, 1994]. The term language, however, was developed later from the Latin word "lingua", meaning tongue. That's why, language is still called tongue. Language was begun to be used when human beings lived in small groups. When they came into contact, with other the language became complex. Now, there are over 3,000 languages (Worldbook Vol. 12). This figure does not include dialects. Some languages are spoken by many people (e.g. English, Chinese, Hindi, etc.) and some are spoken by a few people (e.g. Awadhi, Bajika, Maithili, etc.). On the other hand, some languages have global use (e.g. English, French, etc.) and some are used in the limited area (e.g. Chinese, Nepali, etc.) although they are spoken by a lot of people. Some languages are still growing (e.g. Nepali, Maithili, etc.); some languages have fully grown up (e.g. English) and some languages have already been dead (e.g. Sanskrit, Greek and Latin).

Language is common to all and only human beings. It is the most unique gift that sets them apart from the rest of living beings. It is the greatest accomplishment of human civilization. It is a means by which we can perform several things - communication, thinking, group solidarity, interlinguistic conflict, nation building, control, creation and so on. We cannot think of any social, academic, and artistic activities going on without language. It is the most significant asset of human life. The term "language' has been defined in several ways by various linguists. Let us look at some of its definitions.

"Language is a purely human and non-instinctive method of communicating ideas, emotions and desires by means of voluntarily produced symbol" (Sapir: *Language* (1921:8).

"A language is a system of arbitrary vocal symbols by means of which a social group co-operates". Block and Trager : *Outline of Linguistic Analysis* (1942:5).

"Language is a set (finite or infinite) of sentences, each finite in length and constructed out of a finite set of elements" Chomsky: *Syntactic Structures* (1957:13).

Since the present study is a comparative and contrastive study of English and Nepali languages in terms of conditional sentence formation, thinking it essential, I would like to present the introduction of both the languages, which are the matters of our concern, in brief as follows:

English is an international language which is a common lingua franca as well. English has played a crucial role in international communication of thoughts, ideas and sentiments. It is a lingua franca among the speakers of many languages of the world. English has been practised in almost all the parts of the world. It has become an important language to the people of developing countries like Nepal because they have to depend upon the developed countries for various purposes. It has become the part of the career of many people of the world. There are many opportunities to the people who have got mastery over this language.

English is spoken as a first, second and foreign language all over the world. It is generally acknowledged to be the world's most important language. As the world has shrunk because of the latest scientific discoveries and development in the field of

communication, the importance of English as an international language has increased all the more. English is the world's widely used language.

English doesn't have a long history in Nepal. It started to flourish only for the certain people from the time of Rana regime. It has been considered as an important language from the time of Rana rulers. Junga Bahadur Rana, the first Rana Prime Minister, introduced English in Nepal with the help of British teachers in 1910 B.S. The English language was started to be taught at Durbar High School at Thapathali in Kathmandu. In the early days, only the Rana students were allowed to get English education. But in 1948 B.S., it opened to the commoners as well. Now its significance has been realized deeply and it has been made the core subject in the school and campus curricula. As a result, many English medium schools and colleges have started to teach it. Millions of students have been educated in this. Considering this situation, it can be said that the English language has a very good scope in Nepal. In some faculties it has been made compulsory upto Bachelor's level. So, it is an appropriate international language for Nepal, and a vital tool for any student to become successful in national and international communication. In Nepal, we need the English language mainly for two purposes: as a language of international communication and as a language used for academic purposes.

Nepali is that branch of the new Indo-Aryan languages, which is spoken in Nepal and is the cultural and literary language of the country since long. Its other names are 'Gorkhali, Parbatiya or Khaskura".The language passes under various names: Europeans call it Nepali or Naipali, i.e., the language of Nepal, but that of the Aryan ruler of the country. It is also called Gorkhali i.e., the langauge of the Gorkhas, owing to the fact that the Rajput rulers of Nepal came immediately from the town of the Gorkhas. Another name is Parbatiya or the language of the mountainers. Another

name, Pahati, also meaning 'mountaineers language' was given by Mr. Baines to the whole group of Aryan languages spoken in the lower Himalayas from Nepal to Chamba. (Grierson: *Linguistic Survey of India*, Vol. IX, pt. I).

The Nepali language, spoken as the mother tongue of 50.3 percent of the total population of the kingdom of Nepal (CBS, 1990), also recognized as the national language, has been described by various scholars as being the developed form of the old language Sinjali, which came into existence in Sinja in the 11th century. The contribution for the development of the Nepali language can be attributed to the role of Sinjali kings, who watered it, giving up their own Tibeto-Burman language (Pokharel, 1990). The role of various ethnic gorups such as Magars, Gurungs, Newars, Tamangs, Rais and Limbus in bringing up this language into the modern form can never be forgotten (Ibid.). Now Nepali has long been established as the medium of administration, education, mass media and public affairs. Besides, it is also spoken in the district of Darjeeling in West Bengal and in the state of Sikkim within India. A lage number of Nepali speaking population is distributed over many parts of Eastern India, Bhutan, Burma and Malaysia as well. Recently it has been included in the Eight schedule of the Indian constitution.

Like English, Nepali belongs to Indo-European family. But English belongs to Germanic sub-family whereas Nepali belongs to Indo-Aryan subfamily. The following tree diagram illustrates the position of Nepali in the Indo-Aryan Sub-Family.

INDO - ARYAN

Inner sub-branch   Mediate sub-branch   Outer sub-branch

Hill group   CENTRAL group   "Eastern Hindi"   Eastern group   Southern group   Northwest group

W C E
— Nepali
— Garhwali
— Kumauni

Punjabi   Gujarati   "W. Hindi"

Rajasthani   Bhili
W   E   NE   (Khandeshi)
— Malvi
— Nimadi

— Bangaru
— Hindustani
— Braj
— Bundeli

Awadhi
|
Bagheli
|
Chhattisgarhi

"Bihari"
— Bengali
— Oriya
Assames
Bhojpuri
Megahi
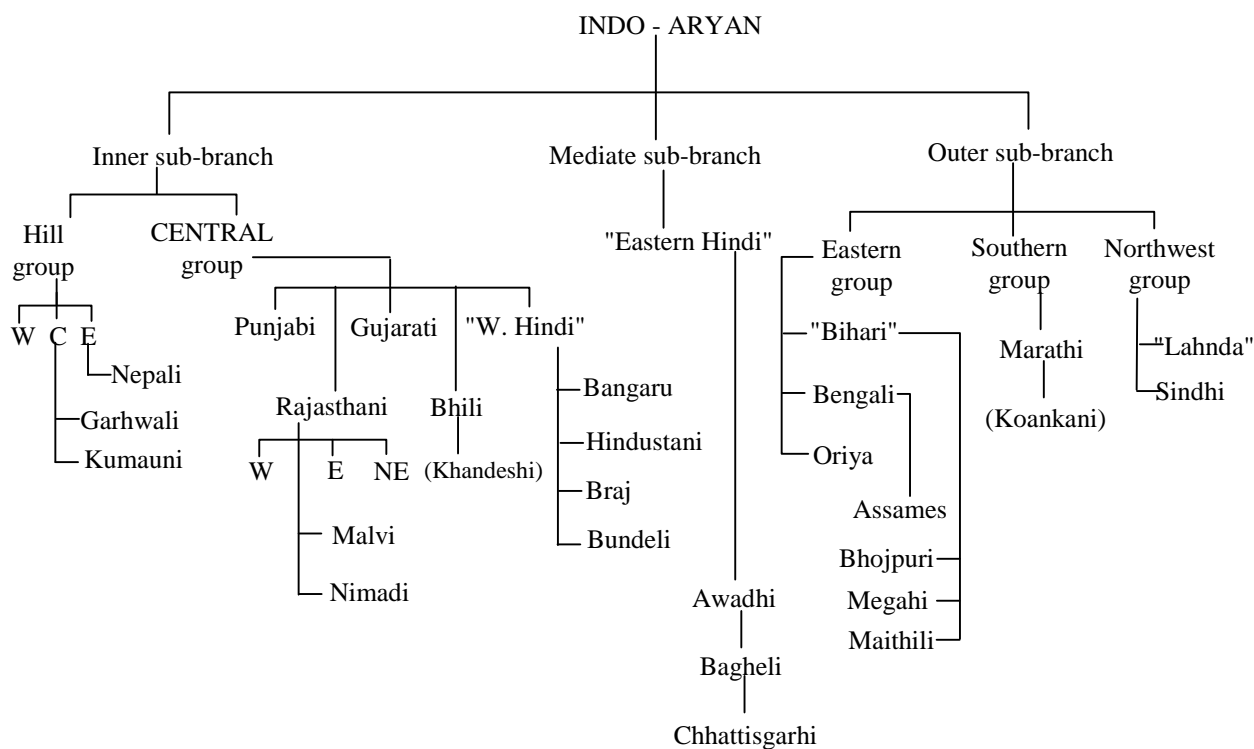Maithili

Marathi
(Koankani)

"Lahnda"
— Sindhi

Figure 1 : NIA Sub classification according to Grierson (LSI) : tree-diagram.

Nepali has much in common with other members of the Indo-Aryan family viz. Hindi, Gujarati, Rajasthani, Malawi, Nimadi, Kumauni and Garhwali. It has become flexible enough to borrow words from other languages like Hindi, Urdu, Awadhi and even English as well, and has piled up thousand of books in the language. It has increased its importance both from pedagogical and linguistic perspectives.

Nepali is related with English both genetically and through contact. In Nepalese context, the chief media for instruction are English and Nepali, as a result of which we find much similarity between these two languages. On the other hand, Nepali speaking people are interested to learn English as a second language for which a good knowledge is a must. As the historical categorization is not able to describe the structural similarities and dissimilarities between the two languages, this study

attempts to describe the languages in question from structural point of view with respect to their conditional sentence patterns /formations.

1.2 Importance of Grammar

Grammar is a description of the structure of language and the way in which linguistic units such as words and phrases are combined to produce sentence in a language (Richard et al. 1985). It is "the rules in language for changing the forms of words and combining them into sentence" Oxford Advanced Learning Dictioanry (1995), Funk and Wagnall's New Standard Dictionary of English (1960) also defines grammar as "the science that treats the principles that govern the corrct use of language in either oral or written form. It means grammar manipulates language in speech and writing correctly.

The role of grammar in language can not be devalued. Grammar is a theory of language that can be applied to individual language. The English grammar describes the form, function and meaning. Since grammar is meant for improving language, it is the most important part of language.

1.3 Statement of Problems

Languages have their own way of expressing factual implications or hypothetical situations and their consequences. They use a variety of conditional constructions and verb forms to form conditional sentences. Conditional sentence formation differs from one language to another. The problem of the study is to explore the similarity and distinction between English and Nepali language in terms of conditional sentence formation. The present study aims at answering the following questions:

i.   Is the pattern of Nepali conditional sentence formation equivalent to the English one ?

ii.   Does the difference in conditional sentence pattern of both languages bring meaning difference ?

1.4   Objectives of the Study

The major objective of this study is to shed light on the conditional sentence formation in Nepali and English. The followings are the main objectives formulated for this study:

i.   To analyze the conditional sentences of English language.

ii.   To analyze the conditional sentences of Nepali language.

iii.   To compare and contrast English and Nepali conditional sentence formation.

2.5   Review of Related Language (Literature)

Many grammarians and scholar have researched on various topics of grammar in the Nepali language, but it seems that none of them have paid considerable attention towards the exploration of the conditional sentence formation in the Nepali language. They have discussed very briefly about the conditional sentence formation in the Nepali language which does not make things quite clear. Jayraj Acharya, a renowned grammarian, has written a grammar of Nepali language in English language named "A descriptive Grammar of Nepali and an Analyzed corpus", in which he deals with the conditional sentence formation in the Nepali language. He fails to deal with the present topic of the study in his another grammar named "Traditional grammars: English and Nepali - A study". Many Nepali grammarians have been unable to clarify the conditional sentence formation in the Nepali language. But there are some other Nepali grammarians who have, less or more, been successful to deal with the present topic. Some of them are Hemangraj Adhikari, Somnath Sharma and Hemraj Pandey who have tried to clarify the conditional sentence formation in the Nepali language but even their works are not sufficient to understand the present topic of the study.

That's why, the researcher intends to explore and research on the present topic in detail in this study.

Michael Swan, in his book "Practical English Usage", very categorically deals with the conditional sentence formation in the English language by dividing the conditional sentences into three types: first conditional, e.g. If we play tennis, I'll win; second conditional, e.g. If we played tennis, I would win., and third conditional, e.g. If we had played tennis, I would have won. He also deals with several other issues related with the conditional sentence formation under various topics in his above mentioned book. "A University Grammar of English", by Randolph Quirk and Sidney Greenbaum also clarifies the issues related with the conditional sentence formation in the English language. Marianne Celce-Murcia and Dianne Larsen Freeman, in their book "The Grammar Book", also deal with many issues related with the conditional sentence formation in the English language in a very clear-cut way.

1.6   Research Methodology

This study is mainly textual. Since the topic of the study is taken from the field of grammar, different grammars by renowned grammarians, both in English and Nepali languages, are taken as the source of materials. Besides, the suggestions and guidelines of the respected lecturers and professors are also inspirited. The method of the study is "Comparison and contrast" to analyze the formation of the conditional sentences in both Nepali and English.

1.7   Significance of the Study

This study is significant because it well help the new researcher and general readers to explore the pattern of the conditional sentence formation in both English and Nepali languages. The study will be helpful for both Nepali and English language

speakers to find and understand the different patterns and structures of the conditional sentence formation.

1.8   Limitation of the study

The present study is not intended to cover all the aspects of grammar in both English and Nepali languages. Rather it will focus mainly on the conditional sentence formation and will base on some standard contemporary Nepali and English grammars.

1.9   Organization of the study

Chapter 1 :   Introduction

Chapter 2 :   Conditional Sentences in English

Chapter 3 :   Conditional Sentences in Nepali

Chapter 4 :   Comparison and contrast of the conditional sentence formation in English and Nepal language.

Chapter 5 :   Summary and Conclusion

CHAPTER TWO

CONDITIONAL SENTENCES IN ENGLISH

2.1   Introduction

In grammar, conditional sentences are sentences discussing factual implications or hypothetical situations and their consequences. Languages use a variety of conditional constructions and verb forms to form these kinds of sentences. In a conditional sentence, there are two parts, (i) the condition or the antecedent = the protasis, and (2) the result = the apodosis. In general, I will refer to them simply as "P" and "Q", as the logician's tradition of representing material implication as "P" implies "Q". Most of the examples we consider will be of the form "if P, Q", but actually there are numerous ways of expressing the meanings that get expressed in English conditional sentences. Here are some examples:

i.   If it rains [condition], (then) the picnic will be concelled [result].

ii.   <u>If you come closer,</u>   <u>you will be able to see the parade</u>.
              ↓   ↓
           "if P"   "Q"
        (Condition)   (Result)

Syntactically, the result is the main clause, and the condition is a subordinate clause. It is primarily the properties of the protasis (condition) (tense and degree of factualness), however, that determines the properties of the entire sentence. Conditional sentences consist of two clauses, a subordinate clause and a main clause, and are therefore more complex syntactically than many other structures. Moreover, the semantics of all the various types of conditional clauses are subtle and hard to understand even for native speakers. A good grasp of the English tense aspect system as well as the model auxiliaries and negation are essential before coping with the full range of conditional sentences in English.

Most grammar books tend to recognise four basic configurations of tenses in conditional sentences which vary in structure according to the time that we are talking about (past, present or future) and the meaning. These four types are normally referred to as the zero, first, second and third conditionals. We will look at the forms and meanings of each of these in turn and also examine some of the alternatives to these four basic types.

i.   Zero-type conditionals: The form of the zero conditional causes no problems because the present tenses are used in both clauses. e.g.

If clause	Main clause
If + present tense	Present tense

a.   If you heat water,   it boils

The zero conditional is normally used to talk about facts and to express general truths.

ii.   First-type conditionals : The basic form for this type of conditional sentence is different from that of the zero-type conditional because present tense is used in the 'if-clause' while 'future tense' is used in the main clause. e.g.

If clause	Main clause
If + present tense	Future tense

a.   If they don't arrive soon,   we will leave without them.

b.   If they are late,   I'm going to be angry.

This type refers to future possibilities that are certain or probable. That's why several reference grammars refer to the first-type conditional as "real"or "possible". The first-type conditional is also known as the future conditional.

iii.   Second-type conditionals: This type is often called the hypothetical or unreal conditional since it is usually used to speculate about either very unlikely future situations or present and future impossibilities. The basic form of this type is as follows:

	If clause	Main clause
	If + past tense	Would + verb[1]
a.	If I had time,	I would drop you off at school.
b.	If I had wings,	I would fly.

iv. Third-type conditions : This type refers to hypothetical situations in the past. In this case we use the past perfect tenses in the if-clause and "would + have + v^3" in the main clause.

	If clause	Main clause
	If + past perfect tense	would have + past participle
a.	If we had known about the storm,	we would not have started our journey.

The main uses of the third conditional are for speculating about the past, expressing regrets, excusing our own actions and criticising others.

Several reference grammars refer to the first type conditional sentence as a "real" or "possible" conditional as opposed to the second and third-type conditional sentences, which refer to "the unreal/hypothetical" present and past, respectively.

The second-type conditional sentence is problematic for the students who have learned to associate past tense with past time. It is difficult for them to believe that sentences like "If I had the money, I would take a vacation.", refer to present and not past time. It is common to think of 'if' in English as a kind of conjunction, and to think of the meaning of a conditional sentence as a straightforward product of the meanings of its component clauses. In the simplest way of thinking of this, the truth of a conditional sentence is a product of the truth values of its individual clauses, according to a truth-table that holds the full sentence to be true unless the 'P' part is true while the 'Q' part is false.

2.2   Form of Conditionals: A Syntactic Analysis of Conditional Sentences

Marianne Celce-Murcia and Diane Larsen-Freeman, in their book "The Grammar Book", (1999:546) define conditional sentence as "a sentence that consists of a main clause and a sub-ordinate clause, the latter typically begins with the adverbial subordinator "if". We agree with Quirk and Greenbaum (1973:323) that conditional sentences express the dependence of one set of circumstances (i.e., the result clause) on another (i.e., the "if-clause"). The order of the two clauses is generally not that important to the meaning of the sentence, so we can switch the if-clause to the end of the sentence if we want to. For example:

i.   If I go, Karoona will go.

ii.   Karoona will go if I go.

In either order, the if-clause sets up the condition, and the main clause gives the result or outcome. The if-clause is treated as an adverbial clause of condition.

Let us analyse the above conditional sentence in its two different forms according to the phrase structure rules and mapping rules.

Karoona will go if I go.
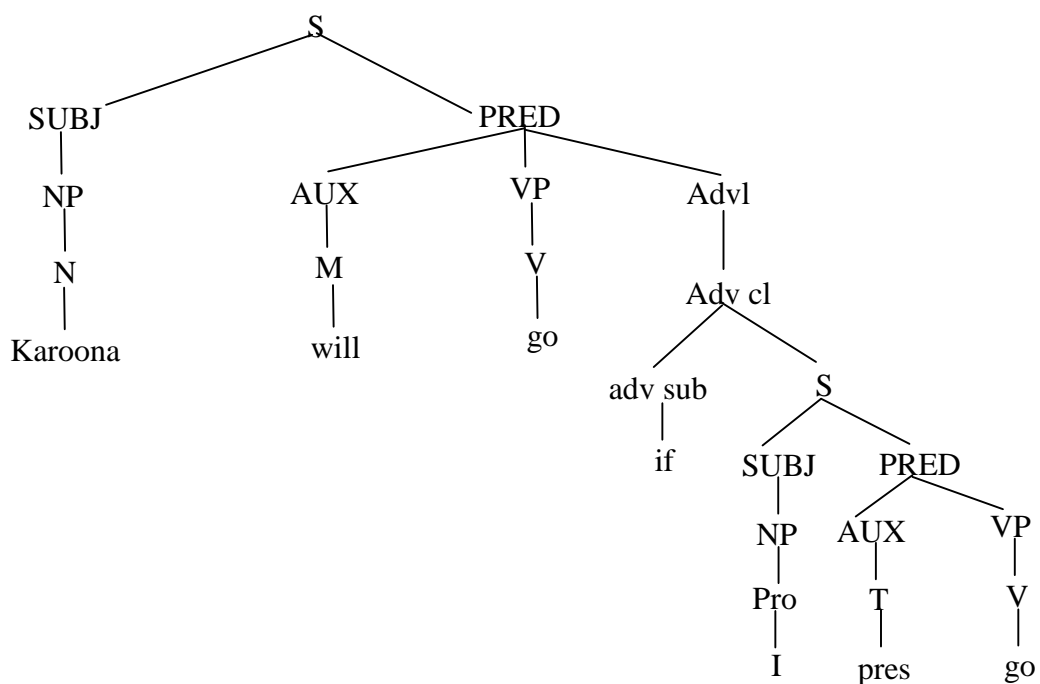
We generate the adverbial clause under the sentence modifier (sm) in order to account for the 'if-clause' in initial position.

If I go, Karoona will go.

```
                                    S
                  ┌─────────────────┴──────────────────┐
                 sm                                     S'
                  │                          ┌──────────┴──────────┐
                Advl                       SUBJ                    PRED
                  │                          │              ┌───────┴───────┐
                Adv cl                       NP            AUX              VP
           ┌──────┴──────┐                   │              │               │
        adv sub          S                   N              M               V
           │        ┌────┴────┐              │              │               │
          if      SUBJ      PRED          Karoona         will             go
                   │      ┌───┴───┐
                   NP    AUX     VP
                   │      │       │
                  Pro     T       V
                   │      │       │
                   I    -pres    go
```
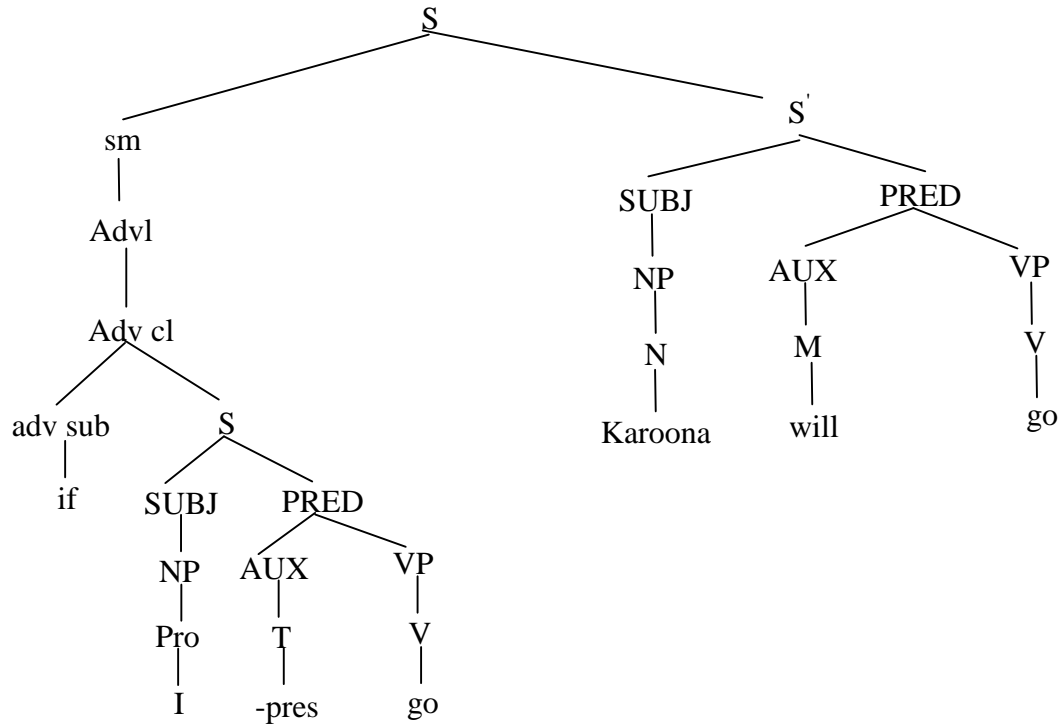
When the if-clause occurs in initial position, it is possible to optionally add 'then' before the main clause. e.g.
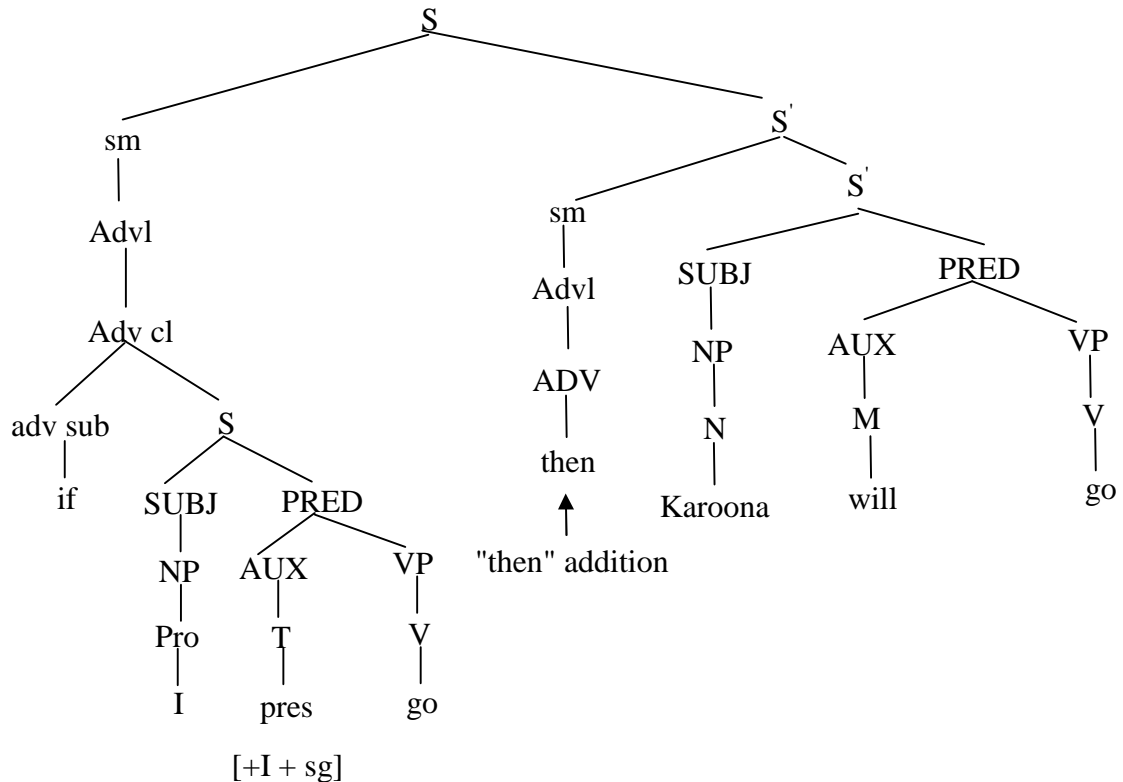
i.   If I go, then Karoona will go.

In such condition/case, we should apply the same phrase structure rules used above for the second tree diagram and the mapping rules would be as follows:

Out put: If I -pres go, Karoona will go.

Copy s/t : If I-pres [+I + sg] go, Karoona will go.

'then addition' : If I -pres [+I + sg] go, then Karoona will go.

```
                                    S
                        /                      \
                      sm                        S'
                       |                  /            \
                     Advl              sm               S'
                       |                |          /          \
                    Adv cl           Advl       SUBJ          PRED
                   /      \             |          |         /      \
               adv sub     S           ADV         NP      AUX       VP
                  |       /   \         |           |       |         |
                  if   SUBJ   PRED     then         N       M         V
                        |    /    \      ↑          |       |         |
                        NP  AUX    VP  "then"    Karoona   will       go
                        |    |      |   addition
                       Pro   T      V
                        |    |      |
                        I   pres   go

                      [+I + sg]
```

Here it is to be noted that 'then' insertion is an optional rule that tends to be applied only if the conditional clause is generated in initial position, that is, the rule is much less likely to be applied when the "if" clause follows the main clause:

* Then Karoona will go if I go.

2.2.1 Other syntactic Details

2.2.1.1 Subject/Operator Inversion in Conditionals

or

Omitting "if"

In hypothetical conditionals with initial 'if-clauses' containing certain auxiliary verbs such as 'had' or 'should', it is possible to delete the initial 'if', however, when such a deletion takes place, subject/operator must follow:

i.   If I had known that, I wouldn't have said anything.

ii.   Had I known that, I wouldn't have said anything.

iii.   If the guests should arrive early, no one will be here to greet them.

iv.   Should the guests arrive early, no one will be here to greet them.

15

v.   Had I known, ... (instead of: If I had known, ...)

vi.   Were you my daughter, ... (instead of: If you were my daughter, ...)

vii.   Should you need my advice, ... (instead of : If you should need my advice, ...)

2.2.1.2 Conditional Clause Pro-forms

As Halliday and Hasan (1976) have pointed out, certain pro-forms can be used to replace the entire conditional clause following "if": "so" is used if the clause is affirmative, "not" is used if the clause is negative.

Would you like to make a class presentation ?

If so, volunteer.

If not, you don't have to.

2.2.1.3 Replacing 'if'

'If' can be replaced by words or expressions with a similar meaning. The most common are:

as long as

assuming (that)

on condition (that)

on the assumption (that)

provided (that)

unless

with the condition (that)

whether

suppose

even if

but for

otherwise.

2.2.1.4 'If' vs 'When'

'If' and 'When' are interchangeable when the statement of the conditional clause is sure (also known as zero-conditional).

i.   If you heat ice, it melts.

ii.   When you heat ice, it melts.

'If' is used for something that, according to the speaker, might happen. e.g.:-

iii.   We can spend the afternoon on the beach <u>if</u> the weather is fine.

'When' is used for something that, according to the speaker, will happen. e.g.

iv.   I will clean up the kitchen right away <u>when</u> I'm back from work.

2.2.1.5 'In Case' vs 'If'

'In case of' can be used to shorten an 'if-clause' as shown below:

i.   If there is a fire, leave the room.

ii.   In case of fire, leave the room.

While 'if' expresses a condition, 'in case' is used to express a possibility.

a.   I need painkillers <u>if</u> I'm in severe pain. (Condition)

b.   I need painkillers in case I'm in severe pain. (Possibility)

The expression 'Just in case' is used pretty much the same way.

c.   I got you a pizza 'just in case' you were hungry. (I don't know whether you are hungry.)

2.3   Classification or Kinds of Conditional Sentences

Most of the traditional grammars have classified conditional sentences into three groups or types. Birendra Ojha has talked about three kinds of conditionals: First conditional, second conditional and third conditional in his book O.K. English Grammar and Composition" (2001:176). Similarly, Choodamani Gautam, in his book Higher Level English Grammar, Composition and Pronoun Ciation (2005:200), has also talked about three kinds of conditional sentences: conditional sentences type 1 probable; conditional sentences type 2: hypothetical but possible; and conditional sentences type 3: hypothetical but impossible. Ojha and Gautam seem to have agreed

about the kinds of conditional sentences. They have talked about three kinds of conditional sentences only. On the contrary, most grammar books tend to recognize four basic configurations of tense in conditional sentences which vary in structure according to the time that we are talking about (past, present or future) and the meaning. These four types are normally referred to as the zero, first, second and third conditionals, we will look at the forms and meanings of each of these in turn and also examine some of the alternatives to these four basic types.

a.   Zero - type Conditionals: Certainty

The form of the zero-conditional causes no problems because the present tenses are used in both clauses. We use the so-called zero conditional when the result of the condition is always true, like a scientific fact. e.g.

If	Condition	Result
	Present simple	Present simple
If	you heat ice ,	it melts.

Let us analyse the above example using phrase structure rules and mapping rules.
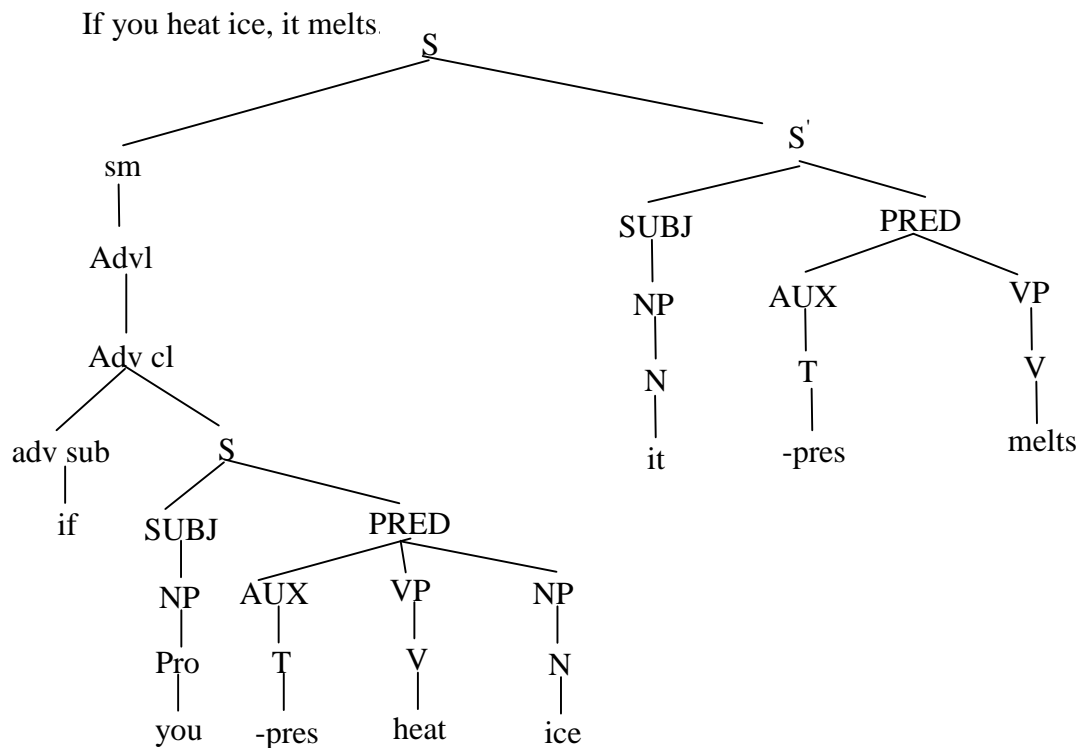
If you heat ice, it melts.

The zero conditional is normally used to talk about facts and to express general truths. In the zero-type conditional it is to be noticed that we are thinking about a result that is always true for this condition. The result of the condition is an absolute certainty. We are not thinking about the future or the past, or even the present. We are thinking about a simple fact. We use the present simple tense to talk about the condition. We also use the present simple tense to talk about the result. The important thing about the zero-conditional is that the condition always has the same result.

Let us look at some more examples in the table below:

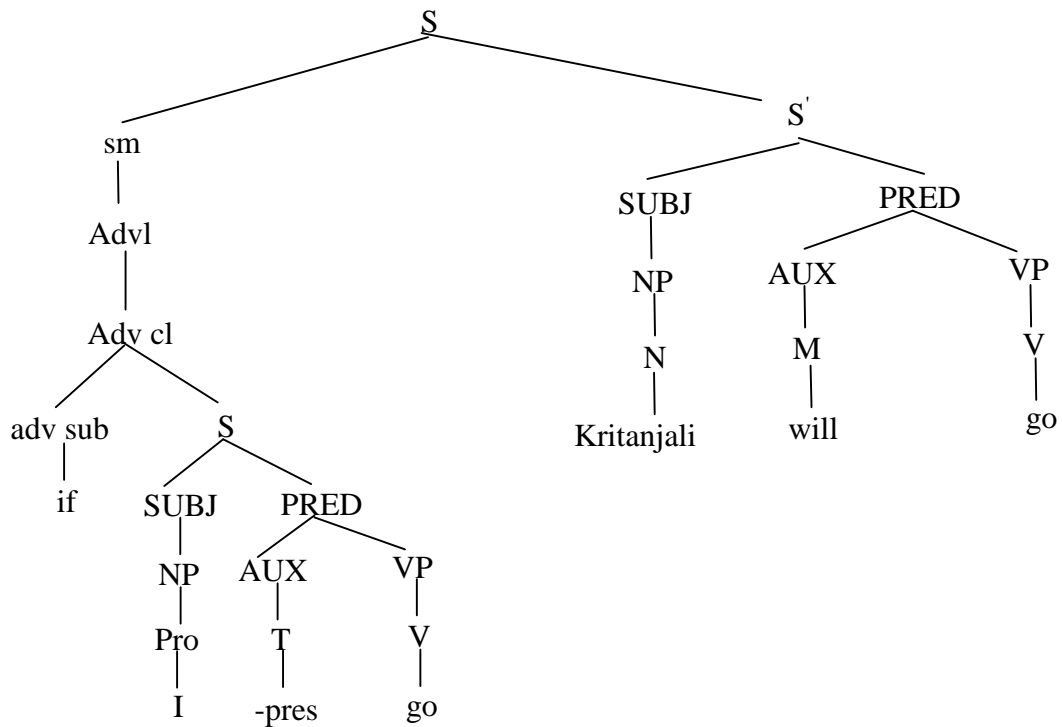| If	Condition	Result
	Present simple	Present simple
If	I miss the 8 o' clock bus,	I am late for work.
If	I am late for work,	my boss gets angry.
If	people don't eat,	they get hungry.
If	you heat ice,	it melts.

b.   First Conditional: real possibility, probable/open condition

We use the first type conditional to talk about future events that are likely to happen. This type refers to future possibilities that are certain or probable. e.g.

i.   If I go, Kritanjali will go.

Let us analyse the above example using the phrase structure rules and mapping rules.

If I go, Kritanjali will go.

```
                              S
                 _____|_____
                sm                            S'
                |                    _____|_____
               Advl               SUBJ              PRED
                |                   |            _____|_____
              Adv cl               NP          AUX         VP
           _____|_____              |           |           |
       adv sub        S             N           M           V
          |       ____|____      Kritanjali    will        go
          if    SUBJ     PRED
                 |     ___|___
                NP   AUX      VP
                 |    |        |
                Pro   T        V
                 |    |        |
                 I  -pres      go
```

In the first conditional, the 'if' clause can be used with different present forms.

e.g.

i.   If I go, Paro will go

ii.   If he is feeling better, he will come.

iii. If she has not heard the bad news yet, I'll tell her.

Similarly, the "future clause" or the 'main clause' can contain 'going to' or the "future perfect" as well as "will". e.g.

iv.   If I see him, I am going to tell him exactly how angry I am.

v.   If we don't get the contract, we will have wasted a lot of time and money.

When we use the first type conditional, we talk about the future. We are thinking about a particular condition or situation in the future, and the result of this condition. There is a real possibility that this condition will happen. For example,

If	Condition	Result
	Present simple	will + base verb
If	it rains,	I will stay at home.

In the first type conditional, it is to be noticed that we are thinking about a future condition. It is not raining yet. But the sky is cloudy and we think that it could rain. We use the present simple tense to talk about the possible future condition. We use "Will + base verb to talk about the possible future result. The important thing about the first conditional is that there is a real possibility that the condition will happen. Here are some more examples in the table below:

If	Condition	Result
	Present simple	will + base verb
If	I see Mary,	I will tell her.
If	Tara is free tomorrow,	he will invite her.
If	they do not pass their exam,	their teacher will be sad.
If	it rains tomorrow,	you will stay at home.
If	it rains tomorrow,	what will you do ?

Now, let us look at the tense sequences in the first type conditional sentences.

Tense Sequence:

Forms	If Clause [C.C]	Main Clause [M.C]	Sense
Basic form	* Present (If it rains)	* Future/Imperative Clause (I shall stay/stay here)	Probable/ condition
Substitutional Form -[A]	*Present (If it rains)	* May/Might (the match may/might be postponed)	Possibility
S.F. - [B]	*Present (If you have done this work)	* May/Can (you may/can go)	Permission
S.F. -[C]	* Present (If it stops thundering)	* Can (We can go out)	Permission/abil ity
S.F. - [D]	* Present (If you want to lose weight)	* Must/should -you must/should eat less bread) - you had better eat less bread. - eat less bread	Command/requ est/advice
S.F. -[E]	* Present (V^1/V^5/is/am/are) (If you boil water)	*/ Present (V^1/V^5) (it turns to vapour)	Cause and effect (automatic/habi tual action)

Now, let us look at some more possible structures of the first type conditional sentences:

If Clause	Main Clause
i. S + V^1/V^5/is am/are + ...	i. S+V^1/V^5 +.............. * V^1 + ... (imperative clause)
ii. S + V^1/V^5/has/have+	ii. S + shall/will may/can/must/might/ should + V^1 ..... * V^1 + ...
iii. S + is/am/are/+v^4+...... ("Used to express present action/future arrangement.")	iii. S + shall/will/may/can/might/must/ should + V^1 .... * V^1 + ...
iv. S+has/have+v^3+........ (used to express present action/future arrangement)	iv. S+shall/well/may/can/might/must/should + V^1 * V1 + ...

c. **Second Conditional : Unreal possibility or dream/improbable/**

hypothetical

This type is often called the hypothetical or unreal future conditional since it is usually used to speculate about either very unlikely future situations or present and future impossibilities. e.g.

If I went, Paro would go.

22
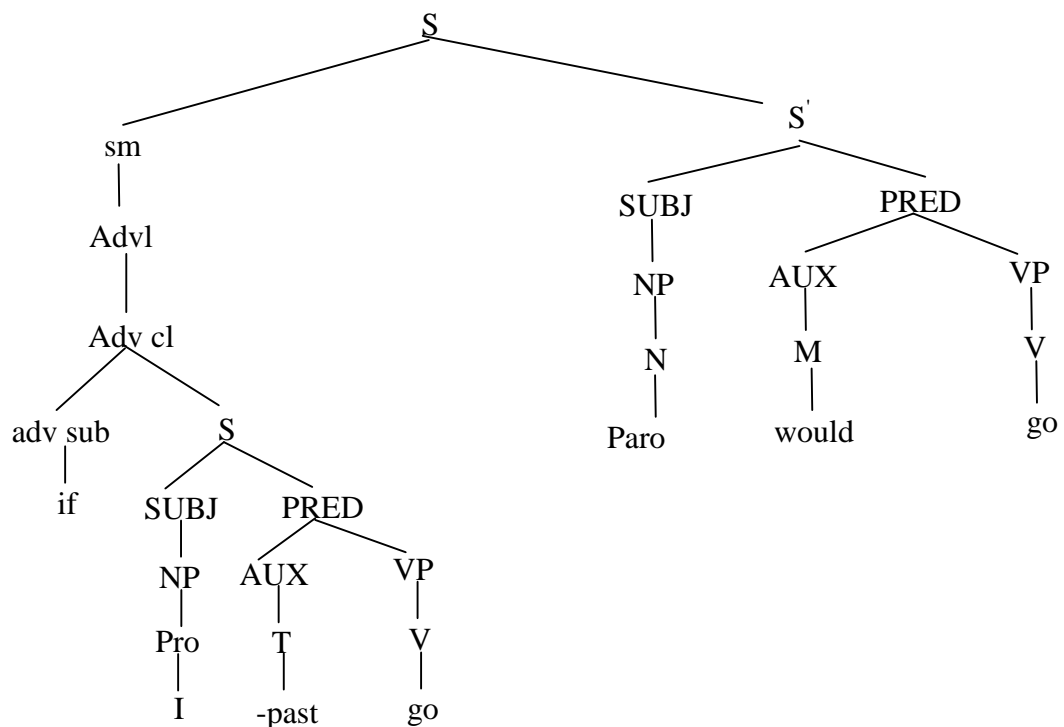
We can use the second conditional to talk about 'impossible' situations. It is to be noticed that after I/he/she/it, we often use the subjunctive form 'were' and not 'was'. Some grammarians think that 'were' is the only correct form but other grammarians think 'was' is equally correct'. e.g.

i.   If I were a bird, I would fly in the sky.

ii.   If she were really happy in her job, she'd be working much harder.

It is also to be noticed that the form "if I were you" is often used to give advice. e.g.

iii.   If I were you, I'd change my job.

iv.   If I were you, I'd do the work well.

The second conditional is like the first conditional. We are still thinking about the future. We are thinking about a particular condition in the future, and the result of this condition. But there is not a real possibility that this condition will happen. e.g.

If	Condition	Result
	Past Simple	Would + base verb
If	I won the lottery	I would buy a car.

In the second conditional, what is to be noticed is that we are thinking about a future condition. We use the past simple tense to talk about the future condition. We use "would + base verb" to talk about the future result. The important thing about the second conditional is that there is an unreal possibility that the condition well happen. Here are some more examples:

IF	Condition	Result
	Past Simple	Would + base Verb
If	I married Paro	I would be happy.
If	Bal Ram became rich	he would marry Paro.
If	it snowed next July	would you be surprised ?

If	it snowed next July	what would you do ?
Result	If	Condition
Would + base verb		Past simple
I would be happy	if	I married Paro.
Paro would marry Bal Ram	if	he became rich.
Would you be surprised	if	it snowed next July ?
What would you do	if	it snowed next July ?

Tense sequences in the second conditionals are as follows:

Forms	If-clause	Main clause	Sense
Basic form	* Past Tense (If I had money)	* Conditional Tense (I would buy watch)	Improbable/ hypothetical condition
Substitutional form	[A] past (V^2/ were) (If you tried again)	* Should/would/could/ might (You would/might succeed)	Improbable /hypothetical condition
S.F.	[B] past (V^2) (If anyone interrupted him)	* Past (V^2) (he got angry)	automatic/habitual action

Now, let us look at some more possible structures of the second conditional

sentences:

If Clause	Main Clause
i. S + V^2/had+	i. S+should /would/could/might + V^1 +.......
i. S + were + ...	ii. S + should/would/could/might + V^1 + ...
iii. S + V^2 + ...	iii. S + V^2 + ...
iv. S + was/were + V^4+......	iv. S + modals + V^1 +
v. S+had + v^3+........	v. S + modals + V^1/be +
vi. S + would + V^1/be + ...	vi. S + would + V^1 +

24

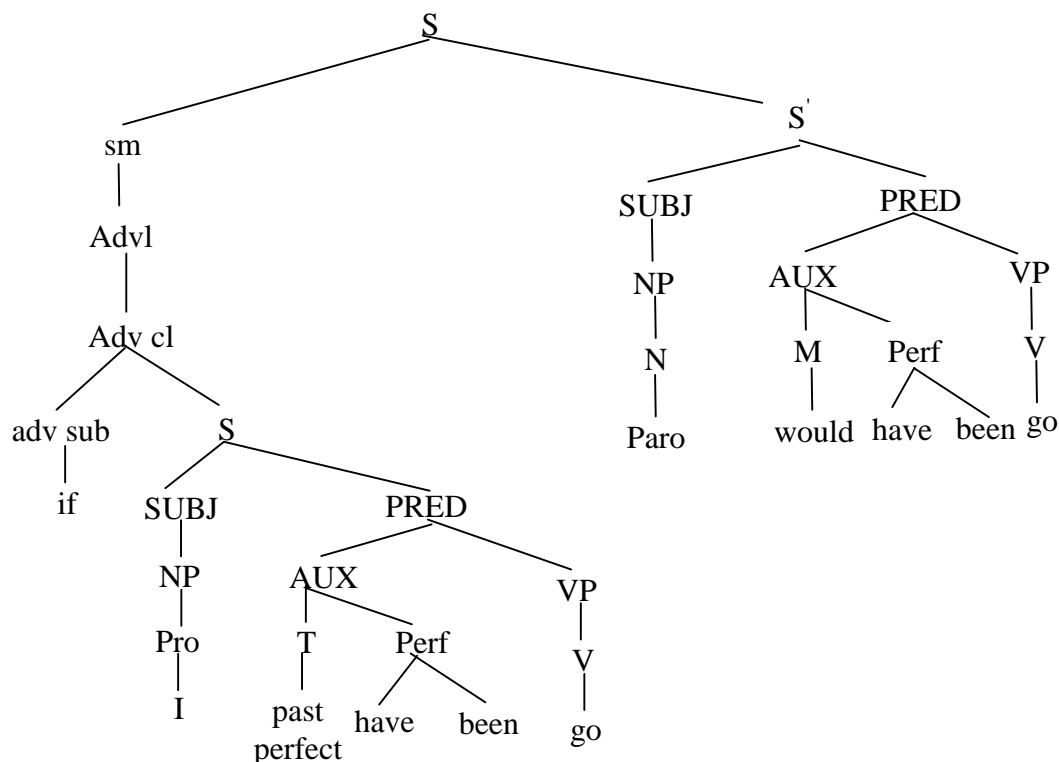**d.   Third conditional : no possibility / unfulfilled Condition**

This type refers to hypothetical situation in the past. In this case we use the 'Past perfect tense' in the if-clause and 'would + have' in the main clause. We can use the third conditional to talk about 'impossible' conditions, impossible because they are in the past and we can not change what has happened. e.g.

i.   If I had known about his condition, I would have phoned for you earlier.

ii.   If we had known about the storm, we wouldn't have started our journey.

The main uses of the third conditional are for speculating about the past, expressing regrets, excusing our own actions and criticising others.

The phrase structure rules and the mapping rules can also be useful for analysing the third conditionals. Let us apply them in the following example:

If I had gone, Paro would have gone.

The first conditional and second conditionals talk about the future. With the third conditional, we talk about the past. We talk about a condition in the past that did not happen. That is why there is no possibility for this condition. The third conditional is also like a dream, but with no possibility of the dream coming true. For example,

iii.   If I had won the lottery, I would have bought a car.

When we use the third conditional, we talk about an impossible past condition. The speaker in the above example did not win the lottery. So the condition was not true, and that particular condition can never be true because it is finished. We use the past perfect tense to talk about the impossible past condition. We use "would have + past participle" to talk about the impossible past result. The important thing about the third conditional is that both the condition and result are impossible now. Here are some more examples of the third conditionals in the table below:

IF	Condition	Result
	Past Perfect	would have + past participle
If	I had seen Paro	I would have told her.
If	Kriti had been free yesterday	I would have invited her
If	they did not pass their exam	their teacher would have been sad
If	it had rained yesterday	would you have stayed at home ?

Result	If	Condition
would have + past participle	if	Past Perfect
I would have told her	if	I had seen paro
I would have invited her	if	Kriti had been free yesterday
Their teacher would have been sad	if	they did not pass their exam
Would you have stayed at home	if	it had rained yesterday ?

The tense sequences in the third conditionals are as follows:

Forms	If-clause	Main clause	Sense
Basic form	* Past perfect (If you had called me)	* Perfect Conditional (I would have helped you)	Impossible condition
Substitutional form	[A] past perfect (had + V^3)	* Should/would/could/ might /must+have+V^3	Impossible condition
S.F.	[B] past perfect (had + V^3) (If she had not come)	* Perfect continuous (modals+have+been+V^4) (I would have been waiting for her)	Impossible condition
S.F	[C] past perfect continuous (had + been + V^4)	* perfect continuous (modals+have+been+V^4)	Impossible condition

Some other possible structures of the third conditionals are as follows:

If Clause	Main Clause
i. S + had + V^3+ .... e.g. (If you had worked hard)	i. S+should /would/could/might/must+ have + V^3 +....... (you would have got good marks)
ii. S + had + V^3+ .... (If he hadn't called me)	ii. S + should/would/could/might/must + have + been + V^4+ .... (I would have been staying there)
iii. S + had + been + V^4 + ... (If you had not been wearing gloves)	iii. S + should/would/could/might/must + have+ been + V^3 + ... (your fingers would have been sericusly hurt)

2.3.1   Conditionals: Summary

Here is a chart to help us to visualize the basic English conditionals. We should not take the (50%) and (10%) figures too literally. They are just to help us.

Probability		Conditional	Example	Time
100%	▬▬▬▬	Zero-conditional	If you heat ice, it melts.	Anytime
50%	▬▬	First -conditional	If it rains, I will stay at home.	Future
10%	▬	Second-conditional	If I won the lottery, I would buy a car.	Future
0%		Third-conditional	If I had won the lottery, I would have bought a car.	Past

2.3.2   Conditional Sentences: Real and Unreal

English conditional sentences can be divided into two broad classes, depending on the form of the verb in the condition (protasis). The terms 'real' and 'unreal' broadly correspond to the notions of realis and irrealis modality. The examples of real and unreal conditionals are as follows:

Real conditionals:-

If I have money, I spend It.	Present real conditional
If I had money, I spent it.	Past Real conditional
If I have money, I will/am going to spend it.	Future Real conditional

Unreal Conditionals:

If I had had money, I would have spent it.	Past unreal conditonal
If I had money, I would spend it. (I think about spending the money today)	Present unreal conditional
If I had money, I would spend it.	Future unreal conditional

So far as the conditional sentence formation in the Nepali language is concerned, it is a less researched area of study where we find the lack of adequate syntactic structures to form the conditional sentences to express the hypothetical situations and their consequences.

a. Real Conditionals

In real conditional sentences, the condition clause expresses a condition the truth of which is unverified. The verb in the condition clause is in the past tense or in the present tense. The result clause can be in the past, present or future. Generally, conditional sentences of this group are in two groups, the 'zero' conditional and the potential or indicative conditional. This class includes universal statements and predictions.

i. The 'Zero' conditional is formed with both clauses in the present tense. This construction is similar across many languages. It is used to express a certainty, a universal statement, a law of science, etc. e.g.

a. If you heat water to 100 degrees celsius, it boils.

b. If you don't eat for a long time, you become hungry.

c. If the sea is stormy, the waves are high.

ii. The potential or indicative conditional is used more generally to express a hypothetical condition that is potentially true, but not yet verified. The conditional clause is in the present or past tense and refers to a state or event in the past. The result can be in the past, present, or future. e.g.

d If she took that flight yesterday, she arrived at 10 pm.

e. If she took that flight yesterday, she is somewhere in town today.

f. If she took that flight yesterday, we will see her tomorrow.

g. If I become president, I will lower taxes.

h. If it rains this afternoon, your garden party is doomed.

b. Unreal Conditionals

In unreal conditional sentence, the condition clause expresses a condition that is known to be false, or presented as unlikely. The result clause contains a conditional verb form consisting of would plus an infinitival main verb. The contrary - to - fact present conditional (sometimes referred to as the second' conditional) is used to refer

to a current state or event that is known to be false or improbable. The past subjunctive must be used. e.g.

i.   If she were at work today, she would know how to deal with this client.

ii.   If I were king, I could have you thrown in the dungeon.

iii.   If I won the lottery, I would buy a car.

iv.   If he said that to me, I would run away.

2.4   The Meaning of Conditional Sentences: A Semantic Overview

Eve Sweetser, in "From Etymology to Pragmatics," has classified conditional semantics according to three domains she speaks of in that book, the content domain, the epistemic domain, and the speech act domain. Content based conditionals are understood by relating the content of the two clauses to each other. A typcial way in which content conditionals can be understood is for the "P" clause (the conditional/'if'-clause) to identify a situation which causes or automatically results in the state of affairs signalled by the "Q" clause (the result/main clause). This is the case for:

i.   If you drop it, it will break.

ii.   If you say that again, I will slap you.

iii.   If it rains, we will cancel the picnic.

Epistemic conditionals are understood as expressions of the reasoning process. If the state of affairs represented by the 'P' clause (if - clause) turns out to be true, then we are licensed to believe what we are told in the 'Q' clause (the main clause). e.g.

iv.   If their lights are on, the Wilson's are home from their vacation.

v.   If the streets are wet, it rained last night.

v.   If she wins, she has been practicing in secret.

And speech act conditionals are understood as pre-posing to a speech act a 'P' clause (the if-clause) that identifies the situation which got the speaker to provide the speech act. e.g. ;

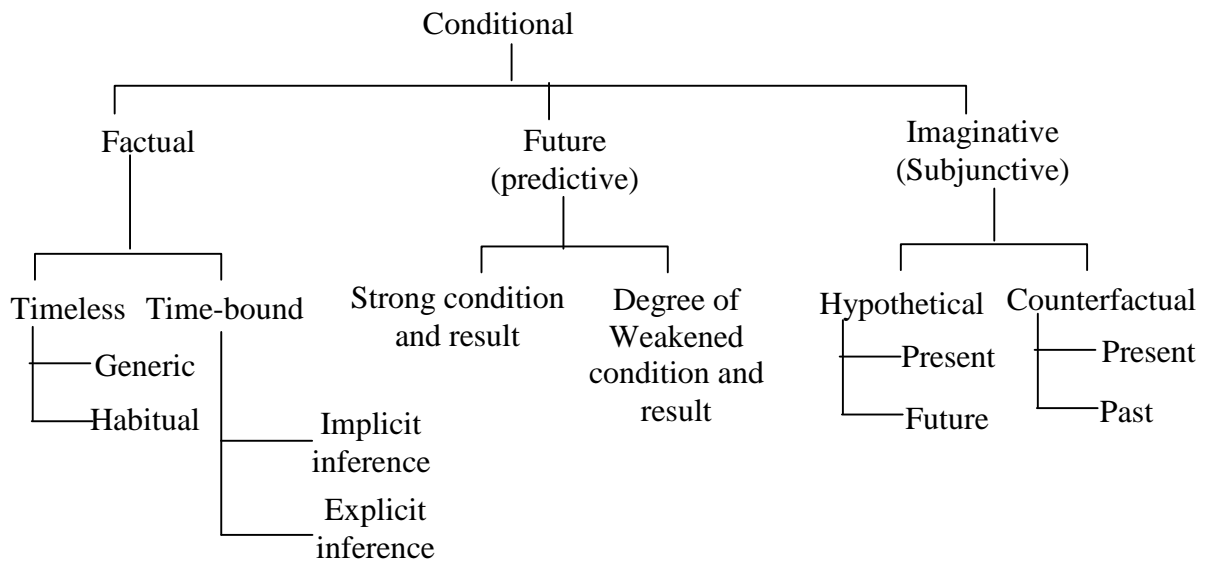vii.   If you are hungry, I could find something for you in the fridge.

viii.   If you leave before I see you again, have a good time.

ix.   If what I said offended you, I apologize.

English conditional sentences express three different kinds of semantic relationships:

i.   factual conditional relationships,

ii.   future or predictive conditional relationships, and

iii.   imaginative conditional relationships

Murcia and Freeman: "The Grammar Book" (1999:548)

A Semantic Hierarchy of Conditional Sentence Types:

```
                              Conditional
                                  |
         ┌────────────────────────┼────────────────────────┐
      Factual                  Future                   Imaginative
                             (predictive)               (Subjunctive)
         |                        |                          |
   ┌─────┴─────┐         ┌────────┴────────┐         ┌────────┴────────┐
 Timeless  Time-bound  Strong condition  Degree of  Hypothetical  Counterfactual
     ├─Generic         and result        Weakened       ├─Present      ├─Present
     └─Habitual                          condition and  └─Future       └─Past
               ├─Implicit                result
               │ inference
               └─Explicit
                 inference
```

2.4.1 Factual Conditional Sentences

Factual conditional sentences are of high frequency in everyday English, and they include four types:

i.   Generic factual conditionals,

ii.   Habitual factual conditionals,

iii.   Implicit inference conditionals, and

iv.   Explicit inference conditionals.

Now, let us discuss each of these types in turn.

2.4.1.1 Generic factual conditionals,

These conditionals express relationships that are true and unchanging. For example:

i.   If oil is mixed with water, it floats.

ii.   If you boil water, it vaporizes.

Because of their unchanging truth value, these conditionals normally take a simple present tense in both clauses. They are especially frequent in scientific writing, since the sciences are often concerned with such absolute relationship.

2.4.1.2 Habitual factual conditionals:

These conditionals resemble generic factuals in that they also express a relationship that is not bounded in time, however, the relationship is based on habit instead of physical law. The conditionals express either past or present relationships that are typically or habitually true. For example:

iii.   Present : If I wash the dishes, Sally dries them.

iv.   Past : If Nancy said, "Jump!", Bob jumped.

In habitual factual conditionals, both clauses usually have the same tense: simple present tense in both clauses if the habitual relationship refers to the extended present time; simple past in both clauses if the sentence refers to a past habit.

2.4.1.3 Implicit inference conditionals:

Implicit inference conditionals express inferences about specific time bound relationships. They make use of a much wider range of tense and aspect markers, and they also occur with certain modal auxiliaries. Schachter (1971:70) provides some examples of implicit inference conditionals:

v.   If smog can be licked in L.A., it can be licked anywhere.

vi.   If there was a happy man in the world that night, it was Bal Krishna.

These conditionals, like their habitual counterparts, are conversational in flavor, and like generic and habitual factuals, implicit inference factuals tend to maintain the same tense and aspect or the same modal in both clauses - even though they make use of a much wider range of tenses and auxiliary verbs. However, implicit inference factuals differ from generic and habitual factuals in that 'When' or 'When

ever' can not substitute for 'if' without changing the meaning and often making the sentence ungrammatical or, nonsensical.

vii.　? When (ever) it's Tueday, it's Bal Ram's birthday.

2.4.1.4 Explicit inference factual conditionals:

In explicit inference factual conditionals, there is no strict parallelism of tense, aspect, or modal in both clauses. This is because the conditional (the 'if' clause) is used as the basis for making an explicit inference; the result clause thus contains an inferential modal typically 'must' or 'should':

viii.　If someone is at the door, it must be Srijana.

ix.　If anyone has the answer, it should be Sameer.

2.4.2　Future or Predictive Conditional Sentences

Future conditional sentences refer to the sentences that have strong condition and result, and they also refer to the conditionals having degrees of weakened condition or result.

The conditionals that have strong condition and result can be understood with the help of following example:

i.　If it rains, I will stay home.

Such sentences express future plans or contingencies. The normal pattern for this types of conditional is simple present tense in the 'if' clause and some explicit indication of future time in the result clause:

ii.　If Ram comes to class, he will get the answer to the quiz.

iii.　If you finish your vegetables, I am going to buy you an ice cream cone.

The above examples reflect the only type of future conditional. However, sometimes, the future outcome expressed in the result clause is not sufficiently certain to warrant use of "will or be going to", in which case a weaker modal of prediction such as "many or should" can be used:

iv.　If you finish your vegetables, I may buy you an ice cream cone.

v.　If Ram comes to class, he should get the answers to the quiz.

2.4.3 Imaginative Conditional Sentences

The imaginative conditional sentences are perhaps the most problematic of the three main types of the conditionals, the other two being factual conditional sentences and future or predictive conditional sentences. There are two subtypes of imaginative conditionals:

i. Hypothetical, and

ii. Counterfactuals.

2.4.3.1 Hypothetical Conditionals

These conditionals express what the speaker perceives to be unlikely yet possible events or states in the 'if' clause":

i. If Ram had the time, he would go to Mexico. (Present hypothetical)

The 'if' clause is not strongly negated here. There is an outside chance that Ram has (or will have) the time.

2.4.3.2 Counterfactuals Conditionals

These conditionals express impossible events or states in the 'if' clause:

ii. If my grandmother were alive today, she would experience a very different world. (present counterfactual)

The 'if' clause is strongly negated (i.e. my grandmother is not alive today nor will she be alive in the future). Counterfactual conditionals refer to impossibilities with reference to the present or the past:

iii. Present : If my grandmother were alive today, she would experience a very different world.

iv. Past: If my grandmother had still been alive in 2008, she would have been 100 years old.

The problem with imaginative conditionals arises in the tense used. The past tense refers to the present time, and the past perfect tense refers to the past time.

2.4.4 Summary

The semantic description of conditional sentence types with the addition of verb forms can be summarized as follows:

CONDITIONALS				
	Factual	Timeless	Generic	If + simple present, simple present
			Habitual:	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{If + simple present, simple present} \\ \text{If + simple past, simple past} \end{array} \right\}$
		Time-bound	Implicit inference :	If + TAM*x, TAMx
			Explicit Inference:	If + TAM, $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{Must} \\ \text{Shuld} \end{array} \right\}$ VP
	Future (Predictive)	Strong Condition and Result		If $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{will} \\ \text{be going to} \end{array} \right\}$, simple present
		Weakened condition and/or result:		if $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{should} \\ \text{happen(s) to} \\ \text{should happen to} \end{array} \right\}$ VP, $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{should} \\ \text{may} \\ \text{might} \end{array} \right\}$ VP
	Imaginative	Hypothetical	Future:	if $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{were to V} \\ \text{V + Simple past} \end{array} \right\}$, would
			Present:	if $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{Simple past} \\ \text{Present subjunctive} \end{array} \right\}$, would
		Counterfactual	Present:	if $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{Simple past} \\ \text{Preent subjunctive} \end{array} \right\}$, would
			Past :	if + past perfect, would have V + -en

* TAM = any possible combination of tense, aspect, modals, and phrasal modals.

2.5   Some other meaning distinctions: Conditional and related connectors

2.5.1   Only If and Unless

Let us look at the following sets of sentences and see what difference in meaning 'Only if' and 'unless' bring when they replace the adverbial subordinator 'if'.

i.   I will stay home <u>if</u> it rains.

ii.   I will stay home <u>only if</u> it rains.

iii.   Don't apply for the job <u>if</u> you don't have an M.A.

iv.   Don't apply for the job <u>unless</u> you have an M.A.

Both "Only if" and "unless" mark conditions that are exclusive, that is, no other condition will bring about the stated result. 'If' and 'if ... not', on the other hand, express weaker or more neutral conditions in that they do not exclude the possibility that other conditions might also bring about the same result. Thus, we have the following semantic relationships expressed by conditional adverbial subordinators in English.

	Affirmative	Negative
Open (unmarked) conditions	If	if .... not
Exclusive (marked) Conditions	Only if (sometimes: if and only if)	Unless (= except if)

2.5.2   "Even Though and Even If"

v.   You should visit Vienna <u>even though</u> it is expensive.

vi.   You should visit Vienna <u>even if</u> it is expensive.

When we consider and compare the above sentences, we find that in the first sentence the speaker knows that Vienna is expensive but advises that the addressee visit it despite the cost. In the second sentence the speaker does not know definitely

whether or not Vienna is expensive - there is a possibility that Vienna is expensive - but in any event, the advice is to visit the city.

2.5.3 "Whether ... or not"

The adverbial subordinators indicate that the condition is unmarked, exclusive, emphatic, negative, or exclusive and negative.

vii.   I will stay home if it rains. (Unmarked)

viii.   I will stay home only if it rains. (exclusive)

ix.   I will stay home even if it rains. (emphatic)

x.   I will stay home if it does not rain. (negative)

xi.   I will stay home unless it rains. (exclusive negative)

English has yet another adverbial subordinator, "Whether .... or not", which indicates that the condition can be explicitly eliminated from playing any role in determining the outcome expressed in the result clause. Thus we can refer to such cases as irrelevant conditions:

xii.   I will stay home <u>whether or not</u> it rains.

2.5.4 Related Verbs : hope and wish

The verb 'hope' is similar to future or predictive conditionals in the the same clauses that follow 'hope' can also function either as the 'if' clause or the result clause of a future conditional. For example :

$$ \text{I hope (that)} \quad \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{John finishes his work.} \\ \text{John will come.} \end{array} \right\} $$

If John finishes his work, he will come.

Both of these sentences imply that it is possible that John will finish his work and that he will come.

On the other hand, the verb "wish" is similar to counterfactual conditionals in that the same clauses that follow 'wish' can also function either as the 'if' clause or the result clause of a counterfactual conditional:

I wish (that) $\begin{cases} \text{John had finished his work.} \\ \text{John could have come.} \end{cases}$

If John had finished his work, he could have come.

In both sentences we know that John didn't finish his work and he did not come.

2.6   The Frequency of Conditional Sentences

Hwang (1979) analyzed a corpus of English speech (63, 746 words) and writing (357, 249 words) representing diverse discourse types and concluded that in addition to general rules of consistency in tense sequencing, only two statements can be made about ungrammatical forms in conditional sentences:

i.   Logical uses of 'might' do not occur in 'if'- clause;

ii.   Subjunctive 'were and were to' do not occur in result clauses:

a.   If it might rain, we would need our umbrellas.

b.   If the whether got too hot, I were not feeling well.

Furthermore, Hwang found that seven structures - out of a total of about 70 patterns that naturally occurred - accounted for two - thirds of the conditional sentences in her corpora. Furthermore, she found that these seven patterns - with minor ranking differences - were most frequent in both the spoken and the written corpus.

The following table reproduces the most important frequency data reported by Hwang(1979: 63).

A Frequency Ranking of Conditional Sentence Types

Structure	Terminology	Speech 266 conditionals	Ranking	Writing 948 conditionals	Ranking
A: If + pres. ... pres.	generic factual	51 (19.2%)	1	156 (16.5%)	1
B: If + pres ... will/be going to	future (predictive)	29 (10.9%)	2	118 (12.5%)	2
C: If + past, { would / might / could }	present hypothetical or counter factual	27 (10.2%)	3	95 (10%)	4
D: If + pres .... { should / must / can / may }	explicit inference factual or future with weakened result	24 (9%)	4	114 (12.1%)	3
E: If + { were / were to } { would / could / might }	present or future hypothetical or present counterfactual	23 (8.6%)	5	57 (6%)	6
F: If + { had + en / have + en } { would / could / might } have	past counterfactual	10 (3.8%)	6	31 (3.3%)	7
G: If + pres .... { would / could / might }	future with weakened result	7 (2.6%)	7	58 (6.1%)	5

Note: This chart accounts for only those conditional sentences in Hwang's Corpora that followed the most frequent syntactic patterns; i.e., 171 of the total 266 conditional sentences in the spoken corpus and 629 of the total 948 conditional sentences in the written corpus.

2.7   Uses of conditional Sentences

According to Ford and Thompson (1986), who did a corpus analysis of conditional in English, conditional sentences with initial if-clauses perform four functions in both oral and written discourse. These functions are:

i.   To propose options for future scenarios,

ii.   To introduce contrasts,

iii.   To provide examples following generalizations, and

iv.   To make inferences based on previously mentioned assumptions.

Other uses of conditionals in oral discourse are :

v.   Giving polite directives,

vi.   Speaking humourously or sarcastically.

e.g.

a.   If he is intelligent, then I am Albert Einstein !

b.   If you had half a brain, you would be dangerous.

CHAPTER THREE

CONDITIONAL SENTENCES IN NEPALI

3.1   Introduction

Conditional sentences are called "sa ket rthak" or "shartbodhak" w kya in Nepali language. As in English language, the conditional sentences in the Nepali language are composed of two constituent parts: the if/conditional clause and the main /result clause. In the Nepali conditional sentence we don't use comma (,) to join the 'if' clause and the result clause rather we use the conjunction *'bhane'* for that purpose. The 'if clause' that begins with *'yadi'* usually comes before the main clause which comes after the conjunction *'bhane'*. The order of the 'if' clause and the main clause is not generally altered in the Nepali conditional sentence. That's to say the main/result clause may not precede the conditional clause. e.g.

i.   *uniharu + gae + bhane, + ma + pani + j nchu*

      + they + went + if, + I + also + go

      "If they go, I'll also go."

      * + ma + pani + j nchu, + uniharu + gae + bhane

      + I + also + go, + they + went + if

      "I'll also go if they go".

3.1.1   Conditional Sentence Structures

Jayraj Acharya, in his book *A Descriptive Grammar of Nepali and An Analyzed Corpus* (1991:174), has talked about the Nepali conditional sentence formation under the topic "nonfinite dependent adverbial clause with a verb phrase in conditional form". The dependent clause with conditional form occurs in a simple verb, or verb phrase form marked either by the conditional suffix '-e' to a simple verb stem or complex verb stem, or by a verb phrase with the main verb in perfective form

41

marked by the perfective aspect suffix '-eko', imperfective form sufix '-ne', or infinitive form marked by '-nu', or 'n' and the auxiliary verbs in conditional form in the dependent clause.

Verb phrase with the main verb in perfective participle form marked by '-eko' and auxiliary verbs in conditional form:

i. + *eka vachana + sodheko + samma + bhae + unko ãsu+ puchhine thiyo*

+ DO: CNP - ac + P: tVP1-prf. prt + AA: adv1 + Aux: be - cond $\pm$ S:CNP -

- nm + P: tVP1 passive - impf- Aux: 3sg.pst.

+ One word + asked + only + if -be, her tears + wiped would - be.

"If she was asked a word, her tears would be wiped".

Verb phrase with the main verb in imperfective aspect marked by -'ne' and auxiliary verbs in conditional form:

ii. + *uniharu + j ne + bhae + j un*

+ S: pro-nm + P:iv1 - impf. prt. + P:iv1 - imp. p1

+ they + going + if-be + let - them - go

"If they are going, let them go".

Verb phrase with the main verb in infinitive form marked by -'nu' and auxiliary verbs in conditional form:

iii. + *chhad*ꝗ*nu + pare + chhad*ꝗ*idi l*

+P: iv1-inf + Aux : must - cond + P: iv1 - 3sg. fut to-leave if-must, I-will - quit

"If I must leave, I will leave". / I won't mind (leaving).

Non finite dependent clauses with negative conditional form is connected to the principal clause by subordinate conjunction *'pani'* or *'pachi'* which follows the verb (in conditional form, or absolutive particple form) in the dependent clause.

iv. ± *gharam* ± *chañchal r* + *bhaikna* + *pani* ± *dev raman*q*ak sant na* +

thienan

± LA:cn-lc ± S:cn-nm + P: iv1 - abs. prt + C: sc ± S: CNP - nm + P: iv1 - 3pl.

pst. neg

± home-at ± great - wealth + being + although, ± Deviraman - of children +

were - not

'Although there was plenty of wealth at home, Deviraman had no children.'

v. ± *phukhu* + *bhae* + *pani,* ± *naul le* + *ghara* + *chh d*q*ina*

± AA: advl + P: iv 1 - cond + C: sc ± S: pn - nm + DO: ac + P: tv1 - 3sg. pst. f.

± voluntary + if -be + also, + Nauli + house + did - not - leave.

'Although it was voluntary, Nauli did not leave the house.'

vi. ± *tara* ± *da vale* + *nasunidie pachhi kasako ke l gdo rahechha ra ?*

± C:cc ± S: cn-nm + P: iv1 - cond. ± C: cc + S: Prop-nm + P:ivP1 - impf. -

Aux- pres ± Q:qw

± But ± god + if - not - listen, whose what + striking is ± ra ?

'But if God doesn't listen, who can do anything ?'

In Nepali the dependent clause may not precede the principal clause as it does

in English, e.g.

vii. + *uniharu* + *gae* + *bhane,* + *ma* + *pani* + *j nchhu*

+ they + went + if, + I + also + go

'If they go, I'll also go.'

*+ *ma* + *pani* + *j nchu,* + *uniharu* + *gae* + *bhane*

+ I + also + go, + they + went + if

'I'll also go if they go.'

43

In his book *Samasamayik Nepali Vyakarana* (Contemporary Nepali Grammar) (1993:129), Adhikari has given a minute description of the conditional sentence formation in the Nepali language. He says that a conditional sentence has two clause: a conditional clause and a result clause. The conditional clause gives a condition for the fulfillment of the action expressed in the result or main clause. If there is a state of imaginative condition and the action between the two verbs of a conditional sentence, then that type of expression can be called a conditional expression. e.g.

i.   *usle bol yo bhane ma j nchhu*

he + called + if + I + go

'If he calls, I'll go.'

In the above example, the first clause 'usle bol yo bhane' refers to a condition, and the second clause 'ma j nchhu' refers to the action or the result. The action /result stated by the main clause happens only when the condition expressed in the if-clause is fulfilled. Let us consider some more examples:

i.   *tim yo bhane ham s th hunthyau*

you + came + if + we + friend + would -be

If you came, we would be friends.

ii.   *hari padqhchha bhane saphal hunchha*

hari + reads + if + successful + becomes

'If Hari reads, he becomes successful.'

iii.   *padqhdai chha bhane h m parkhanchhau*

he + reading + is + if + we + wait

If he is reading, we wait.

In all of the above examples, the first parts having the conjunction 'bhane' refer to the condition the fulfillment of which is essential for the completion of the action expressed in the main clause which comes after the conjunction 'bhane'.

The conditional /if clauses may occur in a simple verb or verb phrase form marked by the conditional suffix -'e'

bol chha bhane	*usle bol e ma j nchhu.*
usle bol yo bhane	

tim   e s th hunthyau.

*harile pad*q*he saphal hunchha.*

There are some conditional sentences which refer to the imperfection/unfulfillment of the action stated in the main clause because they are based on the unfulfilled /impossible condition which can not be fulfilled now. e.g.

*rameshle pad*Ç*heko bhae j gir p   thyo*

        *(tara rameshle pad*q*hena, ani j gir paena)*

'If Ramesh had read, he would have got a job.'

        (But Ramesh didn't read, so he didn't get a job.)

If the verb in the if/conditional clause occurs in the present perfective or past tense or the verb or the verb phrase is marked by the conditional suffix -'e', the main clause may appear in present, future or imperative form. e.g.

Present:

    r mle sunyo bhane/suneko chha bhane/suneko bhae/sune, bhanchha

    *tim le pad*q*hyau bhane /pad*q*heko chha bhane/pad*q*heko bhae/pad*q*he,*

bujhchhau.

Future

    r mle sunyo bhane/suneko chha bhane/suneko bhae/sune, bhannechha

45

*tim le pad*ɋ*hyau bhane/pad*ɋ*heko chha bhane/pad*ɋ*heko bhae/pad*ɋ*he,*

bujhnechhau.

Imperative :

tim le bujhau bhane/bujheka chhau bhane/bujheko bhae/ bujhe, lekha.

3.2   Types of Conditional Sentences in the Nepali Language

As in English language, we can classify the conditional sentences into four groups in the Nepali language. They are: conditional sentence type - zero, the first conditional, the second conditional, and the third conditional.

Let us consider each of them in turn as follows:

i.   Zero Conditionals

The form of the zero-type conditionals is simple because the present tenses are used in both clauses. The zero conditional is normally used to talk about facts and to express general truths. In the zero-type conditional it is to be noticed that we are thinking about a result that is always true. The result of the condition is an absolute certainty. We use the present simple tense to talk about the condition. We also use the present simple tense to talk about the result. The important thing about the zero-conditional is that the condition always has the same result. e.g.

i.   *yadi h m du sa khy l   eks th jod*ɋ*chhau bhane tyo jod*ɋ *hunchha.*

If + we + two + numbers + together + add +, this + addition + is

'If we add two numbers together, this is addition.'

ii.   *yadi tim   phno a l   p n ma r khchhau bhane, bhijchha.*

If + you + your + fingers + in + water + put +, + get wet.

'If you put your fingers in water, it gets wet.'

ii.   First Conditional

This type of conditional is used to talk about future events that are likely to happen. This type refers to future possibilities that are certain or probable. We use the first type conditional to talk about the future. We are thinking about a particular condition or situation in the future, and the result of this condition. There is a real possibility that this condition will happen. We use the present simple tense to talk about the possible future condition. We use 'will + base verb' to talk about the possible future result. e.g.

i.   *yadi ma j nchhu bhane kar n j nechhin.*

If + I + go +, + Karoona + will go.

If I go, Karoona will go.

ii.   *yadi   mal   bhandachha bhane ma usl   sah yt   garnechhu*

If + he + me + tells +, + I + him + help + will do.

'If he tells me, I will help him.'

iii.   Second Conditional

The second conditional is called the hypothetical or unreal future conditional since it is used to speculate about either very unlikely future siutations or present and future impossibilities. It is to be noticed that after I/he/she/it, we often use the subjunctive form 'were' and not 'was'. We use the second conditional to talk about a future condition. We use the past simple tense to talk about the future condition and we use 'would + base verb' to talk about the future result. e.g.

i.   *p n paryo bhane b l r mro hunechha.*

rain + rained + if + crop + good + would be

'If it rained, the crop would be good.'

ii.   *phurtilo h do ho ta   sidhy une thiyo.*

he + active + were to be + he + would finish.

'If he were active, he would finish.'

iii.   *ma charꞌh dohꞌta ak shmꞌudɋne thie.*

If I were a bird, I would fly in the sky.

iv.   Third Conditional

In the third conditional, we use the past perfect tense in the 'if' clause and 'would + have' in the main clause. This type is used to talk about 'impossible' conditions, impossible because they are in the past and we can not change what has happened. e.g.

i.   *usle koshish gareko bhae   garna sakne thiyo.*

If he had tried, he could have done.

ii.   *malꞌthꞌh bhaeko bhae maꞌune thiꞌ.*

If I had known, I would have come.

CHAPTER FOUR

CONDITIONAL SENTENCE FORMATION: SIMILARITIES AND DISSIMILARITIES

4.1   Introduction

This chapter aims at exploring the similarities and dissimilarities between English and Nepali languages in terms of the conditional sentence formation. The sentences expressing factual implications or hypothetical situations and their consequences are called conditional sentences in English; and 'Sa ket rthak' or 'Shartbodhak' w kya in Nepali. Both languages use a variety of conditional constructions and verb forms to form these kinds of sentences. They use numerous ways of expressing the meanings that get expressed in conditional sentences. Syntactically, a conditional sentence that consists of a subordinate clause and a main clause, is more complex than many other structures. Syntactically, the result is the main clause and the condition is a subordinate clause. It is primarily the properties of the condition that determine the properties of the entire sentence e.g.

1.i.   yadi uniharu gae bhane ma pani j nechhu.

ii.   If they go, I'll also go.

In the above examples, the first parts of both the sentences refer to the condition, and their second parts refer to the result. If the syntactic analysis is to be made in the above examples, it can be said that both the conditional sentences differ at the level of syntax. The first sentence is an example of the Nepali conditional sentence which has begun with 'yadi' meaning 'if'. In this sentence, we find no use of the comma (,) to join the if - clause and the main clause. In the first sentence, the first part "yadi uniharu gae bhane" is the if-clause which refers to the condition; and the second part "ma pani j nechhu" is the main clause which refers to the result.

Similarly, the second sentence is an example of the English conditional sentence which has begun with 'If' and in which there is the use of the comma (,) to join the if-clause and the main clause. What is remarkable in the second sentence is that the order of the if-clause and the main clause can be altered without any change in the meaning. That's to say, the main clause may come in the beginning of the sentence and in this case the use of comma (,) is not needed to join both the clauses.

4.2 Similarities and Dissimilarities

The similarities and the dissimilarities between the English and Nepali conditional sentences can be explored basically at the level of syntax and semantics. The similarities and dissimilarities between them are as follows:

4.2.1 Similarities

1. The conditional sentence in both English and Nepali languages are composed of two constituent parts: the if/subordinate clause and the main/result clause. The subordinate/if clause refers to the condition; and the main clause refers to the result of the condition expressed in the if-clause. e.g.

i.   <u>uninaru gae bahne</u>   <u>ma pani j nechhu</u>

↓   ↓

if/subordinate clause   main clause

↓   ↓

condition   result

ii.   <u>If they go,</u>   <u>I'll also go.</u>

↓   ↓

if-clause   main clause

↓   ↓

Condition   result

2. Both English and Nepali conditional sentences use the adverbial sub-ordinator in their if/subordinate clause. The Nepali conditional sentences use the adverbial sub-

ordinator 'yadi' meaning 'if' in sub-ordinate clause, and the English conditional

sentences use the adverbial subordinator 'if' in their if/sub-ordinate clauses. e.g.

iii.   <u>yadi</u> usle bol o bhane ma j nechhu.
       ↓
       the adverbial sub-ordinator.

iv.   <u>If</u> he calls, I'll go.
       ↓
       the adverbial sub-ordinator.

3.   The adverbial subordinator with which the if-clause begins can be omitted in

certain circumstances in both English and Nepali conditional sentences. e.g.

v.   yadi usle bol yo bhane ma j nechhu.

      usle bol yo bhane ma j nechhu.

In the second sentence the adverbial subordinator 'yadi' has been omitted

which has caused no damage in the meaning that is expressed in the first sentence.

In hypothetical conditionals with initial 'if-clauses' containing certain auxiliary

verbs such as 'had' or 'should', it is possible to delete the initial 'if', however, when

such a deletion takes place, subject /operator must follow:

vi.   If I had known that, I wouldn't have said anything.

      - Had I known that, I wouldn't have said anything.

vii.   If the guests should arrive early, no one will be here to greet them.

      - Should the guests arrive early, no one will be here to greet hem.

4.   We use the zero-type conditionanls in both English and Nepali languages to

talk about facts and to express general truths. The present tenses are used in both

clauses in the zero-type conditionals. The result of the condition is an absolute

certainty. e.g.

viii.   yadi h m du sa khy l eks th jod c̄hhau bhane tyo jod ̄hunchha.

The above sentence is an example of the Nepali zero-type conditional which expresses a general truth. So far as the tense is concerned, both the verbs 'jod͞ chhau' and 'hunchha' are in simple present tenses.

ix.   If we add two numbers together, this is addition.

Like the first sentence, the second sentence is an example of the English zero-type conditional in which both the verbs: 'add' and 'is' are in simple present tenses.

5.   Similarly, we use the first - type conditionals in both English and Nepali languages to talk about future events that are likely to happen. We use the present simple tense to talk about the possible future condition, and 'will + base verb' to talk about the possible future result. e.g.

x.   yadi ma j nchhu bhane kar n j nechhin.

xi.   If I go, Karoona will go.

Both of the above sentences refer to future events that are likely to happen and both of them have followed the same tense patterns. That's to say, the simple present tense has been used in the 'if-clause', and 'will + base verb' in the main clause.

6.   Both English and Nepali languages use the second conditionals to speculate about either very unlikely future situations or present and future impossibilities. Both the languages follow the same tense patterns in the second conditionals. That is to say, they use the past simple tense in the if-clause to talk about the future condition; and 'would + base verb' in the main clause to talk about the future result e.g.

xii.   p n paryo bhane b l r mro hunechha.

xiii.   If it rained, the crop would be good.

7.   Both English and Nepali languages use the third conditonal to talk about 'impossible' conditions, impossible because they are in the past and we can not change

what has happened. They follow the same tense patterns. That is to say, they use the past perfect tense in the 'if- clause' and 'would + have' in the main clause. e.g.

xiv.   mal th h bhaeko bhae ma une thi

xv.   If I had known, I would have come.

8.   There are some conditional sentences in both English and Nepali languages which refer to the imperfection/unfulfillment of the action stated in the main clause because they are based on the unfulfilled /impossible conditions which can not be fulfilled now. They are impossible because they are in the past and we can not change what has happened. e.g.

xvi.   rameshle pad h̄eko bhae j gir p thyo (tara rameshle pad h̄ena, ani j gir paena)

xvii.   If Ramesh had read, he would have got a job.

(But Ramesh didn't read, so he didn't get a job.)

That, is, he is unemployed now.

4.2.2 Dissimilarities

The English and Nepali languages, being two diferent languages, use a variety of conditional constructions and verb forms to form the conditional sentences. They have their own ways of expressing the meanings that get expressed in the conditional sentences. The dissimilarities between the English and Nepali conditional sentences are as follows:

1.   In the English conditional sentences, the comma (,) is used to join the if - clause and the main clause; but in the Nepali conditional sentences, the conjunction 'bhane' is used for that purpose. e.g.

xviii.   If they go, I'll also go.

xix.   uniharu gae bhane ma pani j nechhu.

2.	The order of the two clauses can be altered in the English conditional sentences. That is to say, the if-clause may precede the main clause and in that case the comma (,), is used after the if-clause. The if-clause can also be switched to the end of the sentence if we want. e.g.

xx.	If I go, karoona will go.

Karoona will go if I go.

In either order, the if-clause sets up the condition, and the main clause gives the result or outcome. The if-clause is treated as an adverbial clause of condition.

The order of the two clauses is not usually altered in the Nepali conditional clauses. In Nepali, the main clause may not precede the if-clause. e.g.

xxi.	uniharu gae bhane ma pani j nechhu.

(If they go, I'll also go.)

* ma pani j nechhu uniharu gae bhane.

(I'll also go, if they go).

3.	In the English conditional sentences, 'if' can be replaced by words or expressions with a similar meaning. The most common are:

as long as	with the condition (that)
assuming (that)	whether
on condition (that)	suppose
on the assumption (that)	even if
provided (that)	but for
unless	other wise

There is not such an abundance of the words or expressions with a similar meaning that can replace the adverbial subordinator 'yadi' meaning 'if' in the Nepali conditional sentences.

4.   In the Nepali conditional sentences, the if-clause occurs in a simple verb, or verb phrase form marked either by the conditional suffix -'e' to a simple verb stem or complex verb stem, or by a verb phrase with the main verb in perfective form marked by the perfective aspect suffix '-eko', imperfective form suffix -'ne', or infinitive form marked by '-nu', or 'n ' and the auxiliary verbs in conditional form in the dependent clause. e.g.

xxii.   eka vachana sodheko samma bhae unko ãsu puchine thiyo.

xxiii. chhod nu pare chod idi l

In the English conditional sentences, the if-clauses may follow different tense patterns. They may occur in present and past tenses and in their different forms as well.

xxiv.   If it rains, the match may be postpoined.

xxv.   If you have done this work, you may go.

xxvi.   If it rained, the crop would be good.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

5.1   Summary

This chapter aims at summarizing the whole dissertation and presenting a brief conclusion of it. The introductory chapter of the present dissertation has shed light on all the issues to be dealt in the whole thesis. It has introduced both English and Nepali languages along with their importance and historical facts. It has given an outline of the whole thesis giving informations about the objectives of the study, the significance of the study, the methodology, the related literature (language) review, the limitation of the study, the significance of grammar in improving language; and the organization of the whole study.

The second chapter which is one of the focal points of this dissertation deals with the conditional sentences in English. It has presented a study of the conditional sentence formation in the English language at the level of syntax and semantics. This chapter has made a formal/syntactic analysis of the conditional sentences in English applying the phrase structure rules and mapping rules with the help of tree-diagrams. This chapter has also dealt with the kinds and the meaning/semantics of the conditional sentences in detail. While dealing with the kinds of the conditional sentences, in response to the traditional grammarians, who have talked about the three kinds of the conditional sentences only, the researcher has explored a new type of the conditional sentence called the zero-type conditional. The form of the zero-type conditional is simple because the present tenses are used in the both clauses. This type of the conditional sentence is used to express the general truth or the scientific facts. e.g. "If you boil ice, it turns into vapour". The second chapter has not only dealt with

the formal/syntactic classification of the conditional sentences, but it has also presented the semantic classification of the conditionals into factual, predictive and imaginative conditionals.

The third chapter has presented the syntactic and semantic study of the conditional sentence formation in Nepali language. This chapter has dealt with the syntactic structures or different forms of the conditional sentences in the Nepali language. The change in syntactic structures or forms causes the change in meaning. While dealing with the conditional clause structures in this chapter, the researcher taking the help of the grammars of Jayraj Acharya and Dr. Hemang Raj Adhikari, has generalized about the conditional sentence formation and talked about the four kinds of the conditional sentences which are not categorically given in their work. So, the discussion about the four kinds of the conditional sentences in the Nepali language is a kind of finding or an exploration by the researcher.

The fourth chapter which is also a focal point of this dissertation, has founded out some similarities and dissimilarities in English and Nepali languages in terms of the conditional sentence formation. Since Nepali and English are two different languages, the dissimilarities between them in terms of the formation of the conditionals are natural. This chapter has presented some eight similarities, and four dissimilarities between them in terms of the conditional sentence formation. This shows that both English and Nepali languages are more similar in the expression of factual implications or hypothetical situations.

5.2   Conclusion

In sum, the sentences expressing the factual implications or hypothetical situations and their consequences are called the conditional sentences. English and

Nepali, in spite of being two different languages, are more similar in the expression of the factual implications or hypothetical situations and their consequences. It doesn't mean that they use the same syntactic structures to express the hypothetical/ imaginative situations. The whole discussion about the conditional sentences in the English language can be concluded with the help of the following chart where we should not take the 50 percent and 10 percent figures too literally.

Probability		Conditional	Example	Time
100%	▬▬▬	Zero-conditional	If you heat ice, it melts.	Anytime
50%	▬▬	First -conditional	If it rains, I will stay at home.	Future
10%	▬	Second-conditional	If I won the lottery, I would buy a car.	Future
0%		Third-conditional	If I had won the lottery, I would have bought a car.	Past

So far as the conditional sentence formation in the Nepali language is concerned, it is a less researched area of study where we find the lack of adequate syntactic structures to form the conditional sentences to express the hypothetical situations and their consequences.

WORKS CITED

Acharya, Jayaraj. 1991. *A Descriptive Grammar of Nepali and an Analyzed Corpus.* Washington D.C.: Georgetown University Press.

Adhikari, Hemang Raj. 1993. *Samasamayik Nepali Vyakaran.* Kathmandu: Kunjal Publication.

Asher, R.E. and Simpson, J.M.Y. 1994. *The Encyclopedia of Langauge and Linguistics.* Vol. 3, 1600-1606. London: Peregamon Press.

Chalker, Sylvia and Weiner Edmund. 1994. *The Oxford Dictionary of English Grammar.* Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Crystal, David. 1985. *A Dictionary of Linguistics and Phonetics.* Andre Deutsch: Basil Blackwell.

Davis, Marianna N. 1997. *Transformational Grammar and Written Sentences.* The Hague: Mouton.

Gautam, Deviprasad. 1993. *Nepali Bhasa Parichaya.* Lalitpur: Sajha Prakashan.

Gleason, Henry Allan Jr. 1965. *Linguistics and English Grammar.* Holt: Rinechart and Winston.

Halliday, M.A.K. 1990. A*n Introduction to Functional Grammar.* London: Edward Arnold.

Kachru, Yamuna. 1989. *Aspects of Hindi Grammar.* New Delhi: Manohar Publications.

Masica, Colin P. 1991. *The Indo-Aryan Languages.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Mathews, P.H. 1981. *Syntax.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Murcia, Marianne Celce and Diane Larsen Freeman. 1999. *The Grammar Book.* Boston: Heinle and Heinle.

Pande, Gopal. 1938. *Nepali Rachana Darpan-1.* Kathmandu: Nepali Bhasa Prakashini Samiti.

Pokharel, Balakrishna. 1990. *Rastrabhasa*. Kathmandu: Sajha Prakashan.

Quirk, Randolph and Sidney Greenbaum. 1973. *A University Grammar of English.* London: Longman.

Quirk, R., Greenbaum, S. Leech, G. and Svartik, J. 1985. *A Comprehensive Grammar of the English Language.* London and New York: Longman.

Sharma, T.N. 1996. *Sajilo Nepali.* Kathmandu: Royal Nepal Academy.

Sigdyal, Somnath. 1920. *Madhyachandrika.* Kathmandu*:* Sajha Prakashan.