

## **CHAPTER ONE**

### **Introduction**

Language is the most unique gift that sets human being 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- communications, thinking, group solidarity, inter linguistic conflict, nation building, social and emotional control, creation and so on. It is perhaps the most significant assets of human life. Language is understood as the natural and universal 'human' aptitude and behaviors of using words to communicate ideas.

Language is a very important means of establishing and maintaining relationship with other people in society. As language is also a social phenomenon, it helps to maintain intimate relationship with other people, and to influence the society. Language is not fixed entity; it is dynamic and changes over time. Knowing a language means a great deal more than simply knowing how to produce sentences; it also means knowing how to use them. All human beings normally speak at least one language and it is hard to imagine much significant social, intellectual or artistic activity taking place in its absence. A language has different components on different levels such as phonemes, morphemes, words, phrases, clauses, sentences and so on. The present study is on the clause level, which includes the relative clauses in English and Nepali. It is a comparative study because it attempts to compare and contrast relative clauses in English and Nepali.

English and Nepali are the languages which are genetically related; both languages are the members of Indo European family. The comparative study between English and Nepali relative clauses is significant today because both languages are

equally important in our context. There are two main reasons behind the significance of this comparative study. One reason is that English and Nepali are the descendents from the same Indo-European family. The genetic relation between English and Nepali is clearly stated by Judy Pearsall in *The New Oxford Dictionary of English*:

English is the principal language of Great Britain, the US, Ireland, Canada, Australia, New Zealand and many other countries. There are some 400 million native speakers, and it is the medium of communication for many millions more; it is the most widely used second language in the world. It belongs to the West Germanic group of Indo-European languages though its vocabulary has been much influenced by Norman French and Latin. (611)

The same dictionary describes Nepali language as, “the official language of Nepal, a member of the Indic branch of the Indo-European language family” (1243). The quoted texts clearly state that both English and Nepali are the descendants from the Indo-European family and they naturally have genetic relation and thus the comparative study of these languages significant.

The other reason of the significance is the rapidly growing use of English language in Nepal. The popularity of English language around the world including Nepal is growing. It has been a second language of billions of people worldwide and has been used as official language in many countries. It has gained the status of an international language not only because it is used as lingua franca but also because people in different parts of the world use it as their other tongue. English is being used in various sectors mostly in educational sector, government sector, conference, private sector, press, journals, newspaper, sports and so on. In Nepal’s context English has

occupied a respectable position and it comes next to Nepali language. There are Nepali people from different linguistic and cultural backgrounds but they find it interesting and necessary to use English in different contexts.

The role of the English language in a country like Nepal can never be underestimated. The teaching of English can be viewed from two different purposes: it can be taught for international purposes, that is, for carrying on international relations on a world scale, and for national purposes, that is, for using it as a lingua franca. In Nepal, the teaching and learning of English has become essential mainly for the first purpose.

English is one of the many modern languages which is being taught and learnt in many countries of the world. English has almost been a global contact language so it plays vital role in the development of international trade, transport and communication. It is, therefore, accepted as an international lingua franca and a medium of global communication. On this background, Malla sees equally important status of English language in the countries like Nepal, “English is undoubtedly of vital importance for accelerating the modernization process of Nepal, and so far as education is an agent of such a process the place of English in Nepalese education as a foreign language is secure unassailable” (11).

Malla also views that the Nepali language is not well developed for scientific and technological use that is why, English finds a highly respectable status in Nepal. “Nepal needs English because Nepali, her national language, is not developed enough for scientific and technological needs” (11).

Nepal is known as one of the most beautiful countries in the world. Every year thousands of foreign tourists from different nooks and corners of the world come to Nepal to enjoy her natural beauty. Thus, English is needed to communicate with them. The knowledge of English is absolutely necessary for high ranking officials and technocrats such as doctors, engineers, pilots, foreign diplomats and so on. It is undoubtedly of vital importance for accelerating the modernizing process in the world. According to Bhattarai, “English has become indispensable vehicle to transmission of modern civilization into the nation. It is a passport through which one can visit the whole world and one who knows English can enjoy the advantages of the world citizen” (226).

One who has a good command of English can easily survive in any part of the world. It makes an easy access to a good job. Above all, it is the gateway to world knowledge or the window through which the modern world can be viewed.

Detailed studies have been done in both languages on this topic, but separately. The comparative study between English and Nepali in this area has not been done yet, that's why, I have attempted this dissertation to fill this gap. This will be very useful for Nepali learners who want to learn English and for foreigners who want to learn Nepali.

### **Literature Review**

Relative clauses are the subordinate clauses in complex sentence because they are subjugated under the matrix clause. They are also known as adjectival clauses. Whether it is an adjectival clause, or relative clause, or adnominal clause, its function is to describe, or add something to the noun phrase in the matrix clause. So in this

study, the term relative clause is used instead of that traditional term adjectival clause.

Defining relative clauses, Cowan remarks, “*Relative clauses* are clauses that modify noun phrases” (9420). He further writes:

Relative clauses are one kind of dependent clause. They are introduced by a special set of pronouns, the *relative pronouns* –*that, which, who, whom* and *whose*. Relative clauses have the same function as adjectives, and for this reason, are sometimes called “adjective clauses”. They add information to the head nouns of noun phrases. However, relative clauses differ from adjectives in where they occur- adjectives come before head nouns (i.e., are pronominal modifiers), and relative clauses come after them (i.e., are postnominal modifiers).  
(420)

The quoted text clearly defines relative clauses as clausal modifiers, differing from adjectives only on the ground of position they occur.

Talking about relative clauses, Swan writes:

Clauses beginning with question words (e.g. *who, which, where*) are often used to modify nouns and some pronouns to identify people and things or to give more information about them. Clauses used like this are called ‘relative clauses.’ Have you ever spoken to the people **who live next door?** (487)

In this example, the clause *who live next door* is the relative clause and describes the noun *people*. In this regard, Leech and Svartvik define relative clauses as:

The term RELATIVE CLAUSE is used for various types of subclause which are linked to part or all of the main clause by a back-pointing element ..., usually a RELATIVE PRONOUN ... . The principal function of a relative clause is that of modifier in a noun phrase, where the relative pronoun points back to the head of the noun phrase (THE ANTECEDENT). (285)

From the above definitions, it is obvious that the relative clauses tell something about the NP in the independent clause.

In Nepali Grammar too, many linguists and grammarians have made detailed studies on relative (or adjectival) clauses. In Nepali, the term 'adjective clause' (*vishesana upavAkya*) is found more usual than the term relative clause (*sambandhavAcak upavAkya*).

According to Sharma, the subclause that functions as an adjective of the main clause in the complex sentence is called an adjective clause. It qualifies the subject, object or complement of the main clause and functions like an adjective. In Nepali, the subordinators like *jo, je, jasale, jasto* etc. join the subclause (adjective clause) to the main clause. He further says, the adjective clause is also called the relative clause. If expressed in defining terms, he says, the relative is that kind of subclause that is introduced with *ja* (-wh) pronominal conjunctions and that functions as a modifier of the NP in the main clause (181).

1.rames mero bhAi ho jo imAndar cha  
 ramesh my brother be-NPT:3S who honest be:NPT:3S  
 Ramesh, who is my brother, is honest.

Or, Ramesh is my brother, who is honest.

Here, *jo imAndAr cha* is a relative clause and tells something about the NP Ramesh.

*Jo* is relative pronoun in the example.

Adhikari defines it as the clause that appears being an adjective (qualifier) to the noun or noun phrase in the main clause, beginning with the *ja* subordinators (*jo, jun, je, jati, jasto*, etc.). According to him, the main clause is introduced with the demonstrative pronouns like, *tyo, tyasa-le, tyasa-lAi, tyati, uti*, etc.

2. jas-le maha kAd-cha, us-le hAta cAT-cha

who-ERG\_ honey extract-NPT:3S he-ERG hand lick-NPT:3S

He who extracts honey licks the hand.

*Jas-le maha kADh-cha* is an adjective clause.

Especially, in Nepali, the relative clause contains *ja* pronominal conjunction (*jo, jas-le, jas-lAi*, etc.) and the main clause contains demonstrative pronouns like *tyo, u, tyasto*, etc. and the combinations are known as the correlatives. So, while combining the relative clauses to the main clauses, there are correlative connectives *ja+subclause...demonstrative pronouns+ main clause*. But in English, only relative pronouns, adjectives or adverbs introduce the relative clauses.

3. Tyo keTo mero bhatijo ho, jas-le kitAb cyAt-yo

that boy my nephew be-NPT:3S who-ERG book tear-PT-3S

That boy is my nephew, who tore the book.

(Correlative: *tyo...jas-le*)

In this example, the pronoun  *jasa-le*  is the connective element and  *tyo*  is demonstrative pronoun, and the combination results in correlatives.

4. Jo   sahayogi        cha,        u   poojya        hun-cha  
Who helpful        be:NPT:3S he honorable be-NPT:3S  
That who is helpful is honorable.

In this example, *jo* and *u* are correlatives.

But in English, there are no correlatives. The relative pronouns or adverbs (*that* and other –wh words) are the connective elements that introduce the relative clauses. The head noun or the noun which is relativized is preceded by the definite article. An example:

5. The boy who came here yesterday stole my pen.

The Nepali translation of this sentence is:

jun   keto   hijo   yahA   A-yo,        tyas-le   mero   kalam   cor-yo

which boy   yesterday   here   come-PT:3s   he-ERG my   pen       steal-PT:3s

Or,   tyo   keto-le    mero   kalam   cor-yo,   jo   hijo       yahA   A-yo

that boy-ERG my   pen       steal-PT:3s who yesterday here   come-PT:3S

Similarly some data is now available for some of the lesser known languages in or about Nepal. For example, DeLancey (1999) has carried out a study on the relative construction in Tibetan entitled "Relativization in Tibetan". Similarly Bickel (1999) in his article "Nominalization and Focus in some Kirati languages" discusses relative construction - an aspect of subordination. Likewise, Michael Noonan (1999)

in her article "Converbal Construction in Chantyal" deals with some aspects of subordination in Chantyal language. These studies provide some background information and some data necessary to make research on subordination in Nepali. Peterson (1999) comparatively gives greater details about subordination in Nepali. His article "Nepali Subordinated Verbs" (337-370) discusses Nepali verb system and subordination, under which he has included the topics like Relative Constructions, Conditionals, Concessives, Reported Speech and Thought, Subordination by means of Post Positions and Conjunctions, Complement Clauses and The Use of Converbs. However, he has not dealt with each and every aspect of the subject matter in depth. He has not dealt with the types and functions of subordinate clauses in detail. Anyway his study on these topics is highly contributing because it provides a lot of data for further study.

Relativization is an important area of subordination. Regmi (1978) has carried out a detailed study on "Relativization in Nepali" in his Ph.D. dissertation. By using the theoretical framework of Transformational Generative Grammar, Regmi has included various aspects of relativization like surface structure of relative clauses, their functions and their types. Deep structures of relative clauses, constraints of relativization, properties of verb phrases and condition on relativization have also been discussed in the dissertation. In this research work, he defines relativization as, "By relativization we mean the syntactic process in which a sentence is embedded in a noun phrase of larger sentence in such a way that it modifies the head of the noun phrase" (1). The work can be a big source for this comparative study study.

The review shows that a lot of work has been done on relative clauses in both languages but separately. No comparative study between these two languages

regarding relative clauses has not been made yet. This is the gap left in the studies made till now. This gap has created a big question of what the similarities and differences there are between these two languages, especially in matters of the structures and position of relative clauses. Another issue of the study is whether the relative clauses in these languages are translatable into each other or not. Attempts are made to fill that gap with the hypothesis that the relative clauses in English and Nepali have more differences than similarities and the clauses can be translated in to each other to make the meaning clear enough for the understanding of these language users.

### **Methodology**

The study will be based on the descriptive analysis of the relative clauses in English and Nepali. Naturally a descriptive study is concerned with the description of characteristics of the issues under consideration. It mainly concentrates on the current issues, however, past issues with the influence on the present also become the subject matters of this type of study. Such studies are not only related to fact finding but they are also used for the formulation of important principles and solution of significant problems of current issues.

In language research, the descriptive studies simply describe the features of the languages which are in use at present situation. The present study is concerned with the comparative study of relative clauses in English and Nepali, so data will be drawn from the grammar books, articles, dissertations and materials on linguistics in English and Nepali, and analysis will be done on the basis of the description of their surface structure, focusing on the similarities and differences regarding their structures, functions and positions. Besides the data obtained from different sources,

the researcher's intuition of the concerned languages will be used side by side.

Comparative study of language is concerned with the analysis of features of two or more cognate languages in terms of their similarities and differences. English and Nepali are the descendents of the same Indo-European language family, and the comparative study of these languages must be significantly useful.

## CHAPTER TWO

### Sentence and Clauses

#### Sentence and its Types

The term sentence, though a general term in grammar, is not easy to define. In general sense, a sentence is a group of words arranged in a structure to convey a meaningful message. It is an important unit of any language. In any language, phonemes are combined to form morphemes, morphemes to form words and words to form bigger, longer, meaningful structure. This meaningful structure is known as a sentence. In the process of human communication, the sentences are exchanged. Perhaps human communication would not have been so advanced if the expressions at sentence level had not been invented. Because of sentences, volumes of written texts as well as lengths of speeches have become possible. Different linguists and grammarians have defined sentence in different ways.

According to Wales: “Sentences, like many clauses, normally consist of a SUBJECT and PREDICATE; but unlike clauses can stand on their own as independent units. Traditionally, therefore, they are said to contain ‘a complete thought’; or a distinct PROPOSITION” (356). The definition includes both syntactic as well as semantic aspects.

*The New Oxford Dictionary of English (1998)* defines a sentence as “a set of words that is complete in itself, typically containing a subject and predicate, conveying a statement, question, exclamation or command and consisting of a main clause and sometimes one or more subordinate clauses” (1694). The definition also

includes both structural and functional aspects of a sentence. A famous linguist Geoffrey defines sentence as:

In writing, sentences are marked by beginning with a capital letter and ending with a full stop (.), question mark (?), or exclamation mark (!).

In spoken language, the definition of a sentence is more problematic.

There are no 'watertight' definitions of the sentence, but it is useful to think of it as the largest unit of grammar, at the head of a hierarchy of grammatical units. (104)

These definitions lead us to the conclusion that a sentence in English is a group of words arranged in an order, beginning with a capital letter, ending in full stop, question marks or exclamation mark, having its own main verb, making complete sense to the readers and conveying a statement, question, exclamation or command. But in speech, the above definition may not apply everywhere because an incomplete sentence or even a verb-less expression may be possible, for example: *Fire! Fire! Fire brigade - quick!* With this expression anybody can understand that some house is on fire and people are crying for fire brigade. It is meaningful though verbless expression it is.

A lot of Nepali Grammarians and linguists have also defined sentences.

Adhikari gives importance to the presence of the finite verb and says that normally there is finite verb in any sentence. So, he says, the important basis of identification of a sentence is the finite verb. He also admits that sentences are also possible even without the finite verb but he terms those expressions as minor sentences. For example:

'सावधान!खतरा !चुप ! प्रवेश निषेध !' "Attention! Danger! Silence! No entry! "(178)

Sharma defines it as a grammatical structure or unit that is larger and higher than the sub-clause (166). Some grammarians and linguists have defined sentence with structural point of view while others have done so with functional point of view. Thus, different grammarians and linguists have defined sentence in different ways.

### **Types of Sentences**

When we look at the classification of the sentences, we find two types of classifications: one on the basis of structural features, and the other on the basis of function or illocutionary force. Since the present study is mainly concerned with the complex sentence, structural features are taken into consideration keeping aside the functional features.

On the structural basis, sentences are classified as: simple sentence, compound sentence and complex sentence. Some linguists and grammarians have also divided them in another way as: simple and multiple. Thus, from the structural point of view, two types of classifications of sentences are seen. However, the essence is the same because the second classification also shows that under multiple sentence, there are compound and complex sentences. So, in whichever way we classify the sentence, there are three types of sentence:

- a. Simple Sentence,
- b. Compound Sentence, and
- c. Complex Sentence

### **Simple Sentence**

A simple sentence by its name suggests that it is the basic one because it conveys one simple complete idea. Wales defines it as, “a sentence with just a MAIN CLAUSE is called a **simple sentence**” (356). According to *Longman Dictionary of Applied Linguistics* “a sentence which contains only one PREDICATE is called simple sentence, e.g. *I like milk*” (Richards et al. 53)

Similarly, Quirk et al. define a simple sentence as “a sentence consisting of single clause in which each of its elements (subject, object, adverbial, etc.) is realized by a subclause unit –a phrase” (987).

In Nepali too the simple sentences have been defined in the same way. Dahal defines a simple sentence as the sentence that has got only one subject and only one predicate (153). Sharma defines the simple sentence (*saral vAkya*) as the grammatical structure or unit that has only one independent clause. It is also called root or basic sentence (168). Adhikari says that the sentence consisting of only one clause is called the simple sentence. He further says, there is one finite verb in a simple sentence (202).

Summing up the meaning of all the above definitions, we can conclude that a simple sentence is an independent clause having one finite verb or only one predicate. But some of the grammarians are not content with the definitions. For example, Tripathi says that if a sentence can be broken into two or more clauses, this non-cleft sentence is compound sentence. He further says that if more than one subject is seen in a sentence, and even if there are not separate predicates, one predicate is supposed to have been missing and it is compound sentence (17). For example, the sentence, ‘Peter and John ran the race’ falls under the simple sentence according to other

definitions. However, if it is analyzed in deep structure, as said by Tripathi, it can be broken as:

Peter ran the race.      II.      John ran the race.

But in its surface structure, the sentence 'Peter and John ran the race' does not have two clauses. Hence, it should be regarded as a simple, but not a compound sentence.

### **Compound Sentence**

A compound sentence consists of two or more independent clauses as its constituent parts which are connected with coordinating conjunctions like *and, or, but, both...and, either, neither, so, yet*, etc. in English and *ra* (and), *tara* (but), *athawA* (or), *ani* (and), *ki* (or), *wA* (or), etc. in Nepali. The clauses in a compound sentence have independent status.

Wales writes, "A compound sentence consists of two or more conjoined or CO-ORDINATED main clauses" (73). According to Wren, a compound sentence has independent clauses as its parts, which he calls clauses. He also says that neither of the parts is inferior to, or dependent on the other and that they are of equal order or rank (154). For example,

He is slow but he is sure. (wren 155)

is a compound sentence and the clauses are: 'he is slow' and 'he ', and the conjunction is ' but '. Neither of these clauses are part of the other clause. The clauses included in this compound sentence have quite independent status. They are not subjugated by any other clause.

Defining compound sentence, Quirk et al put, “A compound sentence consists of two or more coordinated main clauses; the clauses of a compound sentence provide classic instances of a paratactic relationship, that is, they have equivalent function...” (987).

Nepali grammarians have also dealt with compound sentences. Dahal remarks that a sentence made up of two or more independent sentences joined with coordinating conjunctions (157). According to Sharma, the compound sentence is the structure formed by the linkage of two or more independent clauses (185). For example:

6. ghanti baj-yo      ra    baccA-haru    ghara ga-e

bell    ring-PT:3s    and    child-P      home go-PT:3P

The bell went and the children went home.

The two clauses in this compound sentence *The bell went (ghanti bajyo)* and *Children went home (baccA-haru ghara ga-e)* are independent and have equal status.

The study mainly concerns the analysis of the relative clauses, which are the component parts of a complex sentence, so the importance has not been given to discussing the simple and compound sentences.

### **Complex Sentence**

A complex sentence is a type of sentence in which there is only one independent clause and one or more than one dependent (subordinate) clause. The subordinate clauses are joined to the main clause with the subordinators like *that, if,*

*because, so that, unless, although, etc.* in English, and *bhane, yadi, kinaki, kinabhane, tathApi, yadhyapi, tApani etc.* in Nepali.

Defining complex sentence, Wren writes, “a complex sentence is one that contains a main clause and one or more subordinate clauses” (145). *The New Oxford Dictionary of English* defines a complex sentence as, “a sentence containing a subordinate clause or clauses” (376). Quirk et al. define the complex sentence as:

A complex sentence is like a simple sentence in that it consists of only one main clause, but unlike a simple sentence it has one or more SUBORDINATE clauses functioning as an element of the sentence. Subordination is an asymmetrical relation: the sentence and its subordinate clauses are in a hypotactic relationship, that is, they form a hierarchy in which the subordinate clause is a constituent of the sentence as a whole. (987)

The above definitions tell us that a complex sentence is the composition of the clauses having different status, that is, independent and dependent status. In a complex sentence, the subclauses or subordinate clauses are embedded within the main clause. It means the sub-clauses are under the control of the matrix clause. Leech and Svartvik say, “But in subordination one clause which we call a SUBCLAUSE, is included in the other, which we call the MAIN CLAUSE” (294).

In a complex sentence, there is only one main or independent clause and one or many subordinate clauses. The main clause, as termed by Quirk et al, can be called a ‘matrix clause’ (991). *Longman Dictionary of Applied Linguistics* defines the

complex sentence as “a sentence, which contains one or more DEPENDENT CLAUSES, in addition to its independent, or main clause” (52).

The definition of the complex sentence in Nepali is not different from that in English. In Nepali, too, the grammarians define complex sentences in terms of dependent and independent clauses. According to Dahal, a sentence which is formed by a main (independent) and other subordinate (dependent) clauses is a complex sentence, or the sentence in which there is at least one dependent clause in addition to a main clause is called a complex sentence (156).

According to Adhikari, a complex sentence consists of more than one clause, however, the clauses are not in symmetric state but in asymmetric condition, or of the clauses, one is main clause and another is subordinate. The main clause has the nature of being independent while the subclause is dependent on the main clause (207).

Sharma says that the single structure formed with the bondage of one main clause (independent clause) and one or more dependent (subordinate) clauses is the complex sentence. He further says that there is bondage not a linkage between the clauses of complex sentence. In a complex sentence, according to Sharma, the subordination is made by the use of subordinators and other conjunctive units like non-finite verbs, pronominal or zero subordinators (175). Some examples:

7. mahangi      baD-dai      cha      *bhanne* spasTa      cha

dearness      grow- PRO      be NPT:3S      CONJ      clear      be:NPT:3S

It is clear that dearness is going up.

In the above example,

In Nepali

In English

Main Clause: <i>spasTa cha</i>	<i>It is clear</i>
Subclause: <i>mahangi baD-dai cha</i>	<i>dearness is going up</i>
Subordinator: <i>bhanne</i>	<i>that</i>

### **Clauses and their Types**

A clause in grammar is simply a smaller sentence within bigger sentence. For example:

8. *gopAl-le chorA-lAi pit-yo kinaki us-le jhutho bol-yo*

Gopal-ERG son-ACC beat-PT:3S because he-ERG lie speak-PT:3S

Gopal beat the son because he told a lie.

In the above sentence, there are two clauses connected with because (*kinaki*):

One *gopAl-le chorA-lAi pit-yo* (Gopal beat the son), and the other *usle jhuto bol-yo* (he told a lie.). In both languages we find the similar type of definitions of clause.

*Nepali Brihat Shabdakosh* (2040) defines clause as a small sentence with a finite verb within a big sentence. Dahal says that a sub clause is such a grammatical unit with a finite verb, which in spite of having its ability to give meaning, just becomes the part of the sentence (153). Similarly *The New Oxford Dictionary of English* defines a clause as “a unit of grammatical organization next below the sentence in rank and in traditional grammar said to consist of a subject and predicate.” But *Longman Dictionary of Language Teaching and Applied Linguistics* extends the definition of a clause as, “a group of words which form a grammatical unit and which contain a subject and a FINITE VERB. A clause forms a sentence or part of a sentence and often functions as a noun, adjective, or adverb” (52-53). The definitions clearly show

that a clause is like sentence but it has lower status than a sentence. In both languages, there are two types of clauses on functional basis:

i. Coordinate clauses

ii. Sub-ordinate clauses

Coordinate clauses are the constituent parts of compound sentences and they have equal status. They are independent from each others. Generally they are joined with coordinating conjunctions like: *and, but, yet, so, either ... or neither ... nor*. In Nepali, the corresponding conjunctions are: *ra, tara, pani, or, tapani, kinabhane*, etc. (Sharma, 187.)

Subordinate clauses are those clauses which are the constituent parts of the complex sentences. Such clauses are sub-clauses as they are subjugated by the matrix clause. It means, the subordinate clauses have lower status than the main clause.

### **Subordinate and Superordinate Clauses**

Subordination consists of two types clauses: subordinate and superordinate. The subordinate clause functions as the constituent part or a dependent part but the superordinate as the independent or the main clause. So subordinate clause is also known as dependent clause. Quirk et al say, “a subordinate clause is a part of its superordinate clause, functioning as one of its elements.” (*Comprehensive Grammar* 991). Similarly, talking about the clauses in a complex sentence, Close characterizes subordinate clause as:

A complex sentence has two or more clauses, at least one of which is SUBORDINATE to a main clause. A main clause is one that can stand

alone, i.e. is not dependent on another clause. A clause can be subordinate by being able to replace an NP in the other clauses, or by modifying an NP in the other clause, or by being able to replace an adverbial in it. (42)

The following examples help clarify the above definition:

- a. I did not notice the crumbled edge of the road.  
= I did not notice that the edge of the road was crumbled.
- b. An honest man is always trusted.  
= The man who is honest is always trusted.
- c. Everybody matures gradually.  
= Everybody matures as the time passes by.

In example *a*, the clause *that the edge of the road was crumbled* can replace the NP *the crumbled edge of the road*. Similarly, in *b*, the relative clause *who is honest* can modify the NP *man* by replacing the adjective *honest*. Likewise, in example *c*, the clause *as the time passes by* replaces the adverb *gradually*. Hence, in the above examples, *that the edge of the road was crumbled*, *who is honest*, and *as the time passes by* are the subordinate clauses.

Nepali grammarians have also defined the subordinate clauses clearly. Dahal remarks that a sub clause (*Ashrit upawAkya*) does not give complete meaning but it just becomes the subordinate to the main clause (156). Sharma says that the subclause that is present in a complex sentence, not independently but within the subjugation of another clause, is known as the subordinate clause. According to him, the subordinate clause functions as the subject, object, complement, adjective and adverb to the main

clause (176). From the above definitions, it is now clear that the subordinate clauses are identified by the functions they perform in a sentence. The following examples clarify the definition:

9. mero bhAi-le      Aja bidA cha      bhan-yo  
 My brother-ERG    today holiday      be-NPT;3S say-PT:3S  
 My brother said that it is holiday today.

10. Prithvi cyApto cha han-ne kurA jhuTTA ho  
 Earth flat      be:NPT:3s CONJ matter false be:NPT:3S  
That the earth is flat is false.

Or, It is false that the earth is flat.

11. rAm cincit cha      kinaki u parikshA-mA phel bha-yo  
 ram worried be:NPT:3s because he examination-LOC fail be-PT:3S  
 Ram is worried because he failed the examination.

In the example 9, the clause *Aja bidA cha* (it is holiday today) is the object to the verb of the main verb *bhan-yo* (said). It means the clause has come as a part of the main clause, *mero bhAi-le bhan-yo* (My brother said). In 10, *prithvi cyApto cha han-ne kurA* (that the earth is flat) is the subject to the main clause *jhuTTa ho* (It is false). Likewise, in 11, *kinaki u parikshA-mA phel bha-yo* is the adverb clause that shows the reason of his becoming worried. So the underlined clauses in the above examples are the subordinate clauses as they are not independent but have shown their presence as subservient parts of the main clauses. Similarly, the subordinate clauses can function as complement, adjective, and as appositive.

### **Types of Subordinate Clauses**

The subordinate clauses are categorized in different ways. For the purpose of this study, the subordinate clauses are classified on two bases: on the basis of their verbs, and on the basis of their functions. On the basis of the verb present in the clause, there are three types of subordinate clauses: finite clauses, non-finite clauses and verbless clauses. The identification of these clauses depends on what type of verb there is in the clause or there is not a verb in it. Therefore, it is important to define the finite and non-finite forms of verbs.

A finite verb in these languages is the form of a verb which carries the markers for person or number of the subject, and the tense. The non-finite form, on the other hand, is the one that does not carry any markers for the person or number of the subject and the tense:

Finite Verb Forms: In English: write, writes, wrote, etc.

In Nepali: *lekh, lekh-cha, lekh-yo*, etc.

Non-finite Verb Forms: In English: writing, written, to write

In Nepali: *lekh-dai, lekh-eko, lekh-nu*, etc.

In Nepali the verb forms with the suffixes like *-nu, -ne, -eko, -to, -do, -tai, -dai, -i, -era, -na, -Ai* etc. are non-finite verbs. Similarly, the English non-finite verb forms are: past participle (written), present participle (writing), to-infinitive (to write) and perfect participle (having written). The non-finite verb forms become finite verbs after the addition of auxiliary verbs to them. It means ‘written’ (*lekh-eko*) is non-finite verb but ‘has written’ (*lekh-eko cha*) is finite because of the auxiliary verb ‘has’.

### **Finite Sub-ordinate Clauses**

If there is a finite verb in a clause, it is known as the finite clause. Quirk et al. define a finite clause as “a clause whose verb element is finite (such as *takes, took,*

*can, work, has worked, is writing, was written* etc.), e.g. I can't go out with you *because I am studying this evening*" (992).

In the example above, the form of the verb in the subclause 'studying' is non-finite but the presence of auxiliary verb 'am' makes it finite. Let's deal with an example from Nepali:

12. pradushan baD-hyo bhani keTo-le bhan-yo  
pollution increase-PT:3S CONJ boy-ERG say-PT:3S

The boy said that pollution increased.

In this example, the main clause is 'The boy said (*keTo-le bhan-yo*), and the subordinate clause is 'pollution increased' (*pradushan baD-yo*). The subordinate clause has the finite verb 'increased' (*baD-yo*), and so it is a finite subordinate clause.

### **Non-finite Subordinate Clauses**

Non-finite clauses have no finite verbs. They are called non-finites because they contain non-finite verb forms like *to-infinitive, present participle, past participle* or *perfect participle*. Quirk et al. define a non-finite clause as "a clause whose verb element is non-finite (such as *to work, having worked, taken, writing* etc.)" (992). They further say, "Because non-finite clauses lack tense markers and modal auxiliaries, and frequently lack a subject and a subordinating conjunction, they are valuable as a means of syntactic compression" (*Comprehensive Grammar* 995).

In Nepali, many grammarians and linguists have defined the non-finite clauses. According to Adhikari, if non-finite verbs are used in a sentence to weave more than one idea, the clauses are called non-finite clauses (222). Talking about non-finite clause, Pokharel says that an oblique clause is made with a non-finite verb

(163). He also says that if there are no suffixes that mark the tense and are attached to the root of a verb, the verb is called a non-finite verb (35). For example:

13. bAgh dekh-era keTo bhAg-yo  
Tiger see-SEQ boy run-PT:3P  
Seeing a tiger, the boy ran away.

In this example the non-finite clause is *bAgh dekh-er* =seeing a tiger.

14. paisa bacAu-nu nikai kaThin kAm ho  
Money save-INF very difficult job be-NPT:3S  
To save money is a very difficult job.

The non-finite clause in this example is: *paisa bacAu-nu* = to save money)

15. maile ciThi lekh-er bAbA-lAi paThA-e  
I-ERG letter write-SEQ father-ACC send-PT:1S  
Having written a letter, I sent it to my father.

'*ciThi lekh-er* =having written a letter' is the non-finite clause in this example.

The non-finite forms of the verbs also function as converbs. They are called converbs because they can function as conjunctions as well as verbs. Present participle converbs have the simultaneous function whereas past and perfect participles have sequential.

- a. Sleeping on a cot, I read a story. (SIM)
- b. Having written a letter, I went to post office. (SEQ)
- c. John and Smith came in, followed by their wives. (SEQ)

In Nepali also, there are converbal clauses but no Nepali linguist has mentioned anything about them. Basically, they are of many types: conditional, simultaneous, sequential, purposive, temporal complex and derivatives. Some examples:

16. garmi bha-e      pankhA cal-Au  
 Hot be-COND fan move-IMP  
 Switch on the fan if it is hot.

In this example, the Nepali non-finite clause *garmi bha-e* is without conditional conjunction, but there is conditional marker, that is, *-e* that has come combined with the verb ‘be’. The translation in English clearly shows an explicit connective ‘if’.

17. rAm-le    pacAs barsha sewA gar-er    abakAs    li-yo (SEQ)  
 Ram-ERG fifty year service do-SEQ retirement take-PT:3S  
Having served for fifty years, Ram got retirement.

18. pokharA bas-dA    mai-le sitA-lAi    bhēt-e (SIM)  
 Pohara stay-SIM I-ERG Sita-DAT meet-PT:1S  
 I met Sita while staying in Pokhara.

In the example 17, the converb *sewA gar-er* (having served) and in the example 18 *bas-dA* (while staying) function both as verbs and conjunctions, and thus converbs.

### **Verbless Clauses**

Verbless clauses are those that have no verb of any kind – finite or non finite – in them on the surface. But when those expressions are analyzed through predication analysis, they have verbs in their deep structures. In both languages, there are subordinate clauses, which have no verbs of any kinds on the surface. According to Sharma, there is no finite or non-finite verb in the verbless dependent clause (215).

For example:

19. u asal mAnche ho, nikai udAr  
 he good man be-NPT:3s very generous  
 He's a good man, very generous. (He is very generous)

In the above example, the verbless subclause *very generous* means *u nikai udar cha* 'he is very generous'. Similarly:

20. hari acammako mAnche cha, jAdugar Jasto  
 Hari wonderful man be-NPT:3s magician like  
 Hari is a wonderful man, like a magician.

In this example, *jAdugar jasto* is a verbless clause which means *jAdugar jasto cha* and in English 'he is like a magician'. There are a lot of such examples of verbless clauses in Nepali.

In English also, Quirk et al. talk in detail about verbless clauses. They say, "Verbless clauses take syntactic compression one stage further than non-finite clauses and like them are also commonly subjectless" (996).

21. A lot of students failed, most of them girls.

Dherai viddhyartha fel bha-e, tini-haru maddhya dherai keti-haru

A lot of students fail-PT3P, they of many girl-P

In this example, the verbless clause 'most of them girls' (*tiniharu maddhya dherai keTi-haru*) means 'most of them were girls' (*tiniharu Madhya dherai keTi-haru thi-e*) but the verb 'were' (*thi-e*) is understood even in its absence, and the expression is well accepted in practice.

### **Subordinate Clauses (Subclauses) on the Functional Basis**

The sub-ordinate clauses function in different ways, being different parts of the main clause in the complex sentence. In both languages, the subordinate clauses can be classified on the basis of their functions they do in a complex sentence like subject, object, complement, appositive and adjective.

### Subject Subclause

22. sansAr-mA sAnti cha-ina bhanne sAco ho  
 world-LOC peace be-NPT:3S:NEG CONJ true be:NPT:3S

It is true that there's no peace in the world.

Or, That there's no peace in the world is true.

In the example, the underlined clauses of both English and Nepali have functioned as the subject to the verbs of the main clause *ho* (is). In both languages, the subclauses that function as the subject are noun clauses.

### Object Subclause

23. mai-le sagarmAthA caD-e bhani shrimAn serpa-le bhan-yo  
 I-ERG Mt. Everest climb-PT:1S CONJ Mr. Sherpa-ERG say-PT:3S

Mr. Sherpa said that I climbed Mt Everest.

The underlined clauses are the direct objects to the verb of the main clause *bhan-yo* (said). An interesting aspect of Nepali language is to be noticed here. In Nepali, the first person pronoun "I" is usual and is accepted though it is indirect speech. But in English, it is not accepted. It must be "he". So it reads in English as: 'Mr. Sherpa said he climbed Mt. Everest'.

24. guru-le bhan-nubhayo ki pAni jivan ho  
 teacher-ERG say-PT:HH that water life be:NPT:3P

The teacher said that water is life.

The Nepali sentence given in 24 above is not so usual. The more usual form of the sentence is:

pAni jivan ho bhani guru-le bhan-nubhayo

water life be:NPT:3S CONJ teacher-ERG say- PT:HH

Or, guru-le pAni jivan ho bhan-nubhayo

Teacher-ERG water life be:NPT:3S say-PT:HH

From the above examples, it is clear that Nepali object subclauses have three positions, i.e. they occur at the beginning, in the middle and at the end. But in English, they only occur after the main verb.

### **Complement Subclause**

In general sense, a complement is a part of a sentence that is used to complete the meaning of the verb, subject, object, adjective, etc. As defined by *Longman Dictionary*, “complement is that part of the sentence which follows the verb and which thus completes the sentence” (52). The commonest complements in English are subject complement, object complement, adjective complement and prepositional complement. A complement is either a noun phrase or an adjective or noun clause. In Nepali, the complement comes after the subject and before the verb (Sharma: 197). Like in English, Nepali complements are also either noun phrases, or adjectives, or noun clauses. Nepali grammar has explained only two types of complements: subject complement and object complements. No explanations have been made on adjective

complements. In Nepali, In place of prepositions, there are postpositions so there are not prepositional complements.

The subclause that is used to extend the meaning of the subject or to indicate the same reference as the subject of the main clause is the subject complement. In both languages, there are clauses available for subject complements:

25. hamro AshA ke ho bhane chito sambidhAn ban-os  
our hope what be:NPT:3S CONJ soon constitution form-OPT

Or, hAmro AshA chiTo sambidhAn ban-os bhan-ne ho

our hope soon constitution form- OPT CONJ be:NPT:3S

Or, sambidhAn chiTo ban-os bhanne hAmro AshA ho

Constitution soon form-OPT CONJ our hope be:NPT:3S

What we hope is that the constitution be made soon.

Or, Our hope is that the constitution may form soon.

In the above sentence, *hAmro AshA*(ourhope) is the subject and *sambidhAn ban-os* (constitution be made) is the complement to the subject. The above examples show that the complement clauses in Nepali can be placed in the beginning, in the middle and at the end while they come after the verb in English.

If a subordinate clause is used to complete the meaning of the object of the main clause, it is the object complement clause. Such type of subclause has the same reference as the object of the main clause. Such complements are common in Nepali

but in English they are marginally accepted. Sharma gives the following example as an object complement:

26. sabai un-lAi      parjAtantra-kA bAgh      hun      bhan-chan

All he:MH-DAT democracy-GEN tiger be:NPT:2MH say-NPT:3P

(180). The interesting thing is that this Nepali subclause translates into English in different ways:

- a. All people call him the tiger of democracy
- b. All tell him that he is the tiger of democracy

The first translation is verb less clause ‘the tiger of democracy’ and the second translation shows that the clause is not the complement but the direct object of the verb ‘tell’.

27. Mai-le bhAi-lAi      timi alchi cha-u      bhan-e

I-ERG brother-DAT you lazy be-NPT:2:MH say-PT:1S

I told the brother that you are lazy.

In the Nepali examples 26 and 27 above, *PrajAtantra-kA bAgh hun* and *timi alchi cha-u* are the complements to the objects *us-lAi* and *bhAi-lAi* respectively. In English, clauses are not found to be used as object complements.

Subclauses can be used to extend the meaning of the adjective in the main clause. Such subclauses tell us about the background situation of somebody’s being sad, happy, comfortable, confident and so on. These clauses are adjective complements. In Nepali grammar, it has not yet been clearly stated that a subclause can be the complement to an adjective. But we can find a lot of such examples of noun clauses functioning as an adjective complement. An example:

28. ma sArai dukhi chu                    ki us-le sabai sampati gumA-yo

I    very sorry be:NPT:1S CONJ he-ERG    all    property lose-PT:3S

I am very sorry that he lost all his property.

Or, us-le sabai sampati gumA-yo bhani ma sArai dukhi chu

In this example, the subclause *us-le sabai sampati gumA-yo* (He lost all his property) is the complement to the adjective *dukhi* (sorry). The example shows that the clause *us-le sabai sampati gumA-yo* completes the meaning of why the speaker was sorry.

29. pAni par-cha            bhanera kisAn-haru    Dhukka    cha-n

Water fall-NPT:3S    CONJ    farmer-P            confident be-NPT:3P

Farmers are confident that it will rain.

In this sentence, *Dhukka* (confident) is an adjective and *pAni par-cha* (It will rain) is the complement to it.

From the above examples 28 and 29, it is seen that the adjective complement clauses in English are normally placed immediately after their adjectives, but in Nepali, the adjective and its complement come separately. Such clauses of adjective complement are preferably placed in the beginning in Nepali sentences.

In Nepali, there are not prepositions and so there are not subclauses that can be used as prepositional complements, but in English, subclauses used as prepositional complements are usual. However, translation is easily done from English into Nepali. The prepositions in English are translated into postpositions in Nepali: An example:

30. Talk to whichever leader you like.

jun netA man par-cha            us-sanga            kurA    ga-ra

which leader    like    feel-NPT:3s he-POSS    matter do-IMP

In the above example, ‘whichever leader you like’ is the complement to the preposition ‘to’. In English, the prepositional complement clause comes after the preposition but the clause is generally placed in the beginning in Nepali translation, and the subclause generally comes before the *correlative pronoun+ postposition*.

### **Appositive Subclause**

*The New Oxford Dictionary of English* defines apposition as, “a relationship between two or more words or phrases in which the two units are grammatically parallel and have the same referent”. The definition shows that an apposition is a word or phrase or a clause that has equal semantic value to what has gone before it. An apposition has many functions: “to provide, in a kind of POSTMODICATION, additional information or description by way of identification ...” (Wales 28).

Subclauses can function as the appositive to subject or object of the main clause. In both languages, the appositive clauses have the same reference as the respective nouns. In English, the appositive clauses come immediately after their nouns but in Nepali, they can occur either before the nouns or after them.

31. samAj-ko vikAs kasari hun-cha bhanne sawAl gambhir cha

Society-POSS progress how be-NPT:3S CONJ issue grave be:NPT:3S

The issue how the society progresses is serious.

In this example, *samAj-ko vikAs kasari hun-cha* is the apposition to the subject *sawAl* (issue). No doubt, the sentence can be written as:

Yo sawAl gambhir cha ki samaj-ko vikAs kasari hun-cha

This issue grave be:NPT:3S CONJ society-POSS progress how be-NPT:3S  
 But the expression is not usual. The above example indicates that the appositive noun clauses in Nepali occur in the beginning or in the end, but in English, the appositive clause comes immediately after the noun.

In the following example, the subordinate clause *ghaDi us-ko ho* (The watch is his) is the appositive to the object *dAbi*.

32. Us-le yo dAbi gar-yo ki ghaDi us-ko ho

He-ERG this claim do-PT:3S CONJ watch he-POSS be:NPT:3S

He made the claim that the watch is his

### Adjective Subclause

In English and Nepali, there are subordinate clauses which modify the nouns of the main clause, or the main clause as a whole. These clauses are called adjective clauses in traditional term but in modern use, they are termed as the relative clauses.

33. tyo keTo viddhyarhi ho jo yo ghar-mA bas-cha

That boy student be-NPT:3S who this house-LOC live-NPT:3S

That boy who lives in this house is a student

In this example, *tyo keTo viddhyarhi ho* (that boy is a student) is the main clause and the noun *viddhyarhi* (student) is the head noun, *jo yo ghar-mA bas-cha* (who lives in this house) is the sub clause that describes/qualifies the head noun in the main clause. So *jo yo ghar-mA bas-cha* is the relative/adjective clause.

The research focuses on the comparison of the relative clauses in English and Nepali, so extensive discussion of them will be made in the chapters that follow.

### **Adverb Subclause**

Some subclauses tell about the time, place, manner, reason, purpose, condition, etc. of the verb of the main clause. Such clauses are called adverbial clauses. In both languages we find subordinate clauses that function as adverbs. For example:

34. us-le    kamij    kin-ena                    kinaki tyo dherai mahango thi-yo

He-ERG shirt    buy-PT:3S:NEG    because that very expensive    be-PT:3S

He didn't buy the shirt because it was very expensive.

In this example, *kinabhane tyo dherai mahango thi-yo* (because it was very expensive) is the adverb clause of reason and tells us why the action in the main clause did not happen. *Kinabhane* (because) is the conjunction in the sentence.

35. jaba mahangi                    baDh-cha                    taba    Andolan    hun-chan

When dearness    increase-NPT:3S then    agitations    be-NPT:3P

When dearness goes high, there are agitations.

In the above example, the underlined clause *jaba mahangi baD-cha* (when dearness goes high) is the adverbial clause of time and tells us when agitation takes place.

Likewise, there are adverbial clauses of manner, place, purpose, result, condition and frequency. As the main concern of the study is the relative clauses, adverbial clauses do not get much attention here.

## CHAPTER THREE

### Relative Pronouns and Adverbs in English and Nepali

Relative pronouns and adverbs function as the connectors of the relative clauses. There are both relative pronouns and adverbs in English. When the *wh*-words like *who*, *whom*, *which*, *whose*, *what*, *that*, *where*, *when* and *why* are used to introduce relative clauses, the first six items on the list are called relative pronouns and the rest are adverbs in English.

In Nepali, the relative pronouns are defined as the pronouns that establish the relations of the clauses in a sentence (Sharma 66). In English ‘where’, ‘when’, and ‘why’ are used as connectors to introduce adverbial relative clauses when the head noun denotes place, time and purpose or reason, but in Nepali, according to the grammarians, *jahA*, *jahile*, and *Kina* introduce adverbial clauses not the relative clauses. Nepali grammarians have not talked about relative adverbs in detail. Adhikari talks about the adverbs like: *jati* (how much), *utA* (there), *jahA* (where), *jasari* (how), etc. as relative connectors (214), but he does not clearly state whether they introduce adverbial relative clauses or adverb clauses. However, we find relative adverbs like *jahA* (where), *jahile* (when), *kina* (why), being used as relative adverbs. Some examples:

36. Tyo gAu sundar hun-cha jahA imAndAr mAnche bas-cha

The village beautiful be:NPT:3S where honest men live-NPT:3P

The village where honest men live is beautiful.

37. san 2010 durbhAgya-ko barsha thi-yo jahile mero kukur mar-yo

AD 2010 misfortune-POSS year be-PT:3S when my dog die-PT:3S

2010 AD when my dog died was the year of misfortune.

In the example 36, the adverb *jahA* (in which=where) establishes the relation between the noun in the main clause *tyo gAu* (the village ) and the subordinate clause *jahA imAndAr mAnche bas-chan* (where honest men live). Similarly in 37, the clause *jahile mero kukur mar-yo* ( in which/when my dog died) refers back to the noun phrase *san 2010* (2010 AD). In these two examples, the subordinate clauses describe the preceding nouns but they have adverbial function so they are adverbial relative clauses. But the grammarians in Nepali have not pointed it out yet.

These pronouns and adverbs establish a type of anaphoric relation of the subordinate clauses (relative clauses) to the nouns or noun phrases in the main clause, so they are called relative pronouns and adverbs.

In fact these relative adverbs are the substitutions for *preposition + which* as Cowan puts:

Nouns that denote a place, a time, or a purpose may be followed by OP relative clauses... . The preposition +which combinations... can be replaced by where, when, and why.... Since these three words have an adverbial function, grammarians often refer to the clauses they introduce as *adverbial (ADV) relative clauss.*(434-35)

Cowan also presents following examples illustrating how the *preposition + which* construction is replaced by *where, when* and *why*:

38. a. That's the gas station at which I'm working now.
- b. How well I remember the day on which he was born.
- c. I have forgotten the reason for which the trust fund was established.

39. a. That's the gas station where I'm working now.  
 b. How well I remember the day when he was born.  
 c. I've forgotten the reason why the trust fund was established.

Nepali grammarians only talk about relative pronouns derived from *ja* pronominal element like: *jo, jun, je*, and those with some postpositions like: *jas-le, jas-ko, jas-lAi, jas-bAt, jo-sanga*, etc. Unlike English, Nepali has correlative pronouns like *jo...tyo, jasale.....usale/tyas-le, jasalAi....usalAi/tyas-lAi, jas-ko...us-ko/tyas-ko*, etc. Some examples:

40. *ganes, jas-le timi-lAi kitAb di-yo sahayogi cha*

Ganesh, who-ERG you-DAT book give- PT: 3S helpful be-NPT:3S

In this Nepali example, *jas-le* is the relative pronoun referring back to *ganesh*, but the sentence sounds unusual in this structure. The usual structure is:

*ganes sahayogi cha jas-le timi-lAi KitAb di-yo*

Ganesh helpful be:NPT:3S who-ERG you-DAT book give-PT:3S.

The English translation of the sentence is: 'Ganesh, who gave you this book, is helpful' in which the relative pronoun is 'who'.

In the example 40, the relative pronoun *jas-le* is the single connector but in 41 below, we have correlative connectors consisting of *relative pronoun + demonstrative (jo ..... tyo)*. An example:

41. jo imAndAr cha tyas-le sammAn PAu-cha

Who honest be:NPT:3s that-ERG, respect get-NPT:3S

In this example, *jas-le... tyas-le* are correlatives. The example also shows that the head noun is deleted with correlatives. The English translation of the above sentence is ‘He who is honest receives respect’, which is not so usual in English as Quirk et al. put, “A personal pronoun + a relative pronoun is ... possible only in archaic or very formal context” (91247).

In Nepali the following relative pronouns are used to join the relative clauses to the matrix clauses:

*Jo* for people as subject of intransitive verb

*Je* for things

*Jun* for things as subject/object

*jas-le* for people as subject of the transitive verb. (-*le* is ergative marker)

*jas-lAi* for people as object. (-*lAi* is dative marker)

*jas-ko* for people and things as possessive. (-*ko* is possessive marker)

All these relative pronouns except the possessive (*jas-ko*) one agree with all person, number and gender. The possessive form, however, has three different forms depending on the number, and gender of the person or thing possessed: *jas-ko* for the singular male or inanimate thing, *jas-kA* for the plural nouns irrespective of gender, and *jas-ki* for singular female. Examples:

42. tyo keTo nirAs dekhin-cha *jas-ki* AmA birAmi cha

That boy sad seem-NPT:3S who-POSS:F mother ill be-NPT:3S

The boy whose mother is sick seems sad.

43. tyo mAnche dhani cha *jas-kA* chorA-haru koriyA-mA cha-n

That man rich be-NPT:3s who-POSS:P son-P Korea-LOC be-NPT:3P

The man whose sons are in korea is rich.

In 42, the possessive pronoun is *jas-ki* because the person possessed is a female (mother), and in 43, the possessive pronoun is *jas-kA* as the possessed persons are plural (sons).

Most of the relative constructions in Nepali employ correlative structure:

*Jo...tyo/u* for person (subject)

*Je...tyahi* for things (subject/object)

*Jun...tyahi/uhi* for person and things (subject/object)

*Jas-le...tyas-le/us-le* for person (subject to the transitive verb)

*Jas-lAi...us-lAi/tyas-lAi* for person (object)

*Jas-ko... us-ko/tyas-ko* for person (possessive)

*jahA...tyahA* for place

*jahile ...tahile* for time

In English, besides the relative adverbs mentioned above, the relative pronouns are:

Who = for people as subject and object

Whom = for people as object.

Whose = for people as possessive.

Which = for things/animals as subject and object.

That = for people (informal)/things / animals as subject and objects.

What = for things (without antecedent in free relative clauses)

The relative pronoun 'that' is used only in the restrictive clauses. It is not used in non-restrictive clauses. Similarly the pronoun 'what' stands in place of 'the thing(s) which', and so it comes without antecedent.

In English the relative pronouns also occur with prepositions like: *in which, on which, with whom, to whom*, etc. but in Nepali, there are postpositions in place of the prepositions, so relative pronouns occur with post-positions like: *jo-sang, jas-lAi, jas-bAT*, etc.

## CHAPTER FOUR

### Relative Clauses

As defined already, relative clauses are the parts of the complex sentences. A relative clause is a subordinate part in a complex sentence because it just describes, or adds some information to the head noun of the matrix clause. In hierarchy, a relative clause has lower status than the matrix clause because the former is under the control of the latter. Relative clauses in general are modifiers in the form of clause. In English, they are post modifiers as they modify the preceding nouns. However, in Nepali, they can be pre modifiers or post modifiers as their positions can be changed, but the non-finite relative clauses in Nepali are pre-modifiers.

Both English and Nepali languages have relative clauses with some similarities and differences. In Nepali ‘adjective clause’ (*visheshan upawAkyā*) is more common terminology than ‘relative clause’ (*sambandha wAcak upawAkyā*). The following sub-chapters are focused on the discussions of relative clauses in English and Nepali to find out similarities and differences regarding their positions, structures and functions.

#### Characteristics of Relative Clauses

Like other grammatical items, the relative clauses also have their own characteristics. Quirk et al. point out the following features of the relative clauses:

Part of the explicitness of relative clauses lies in the specifying power of the relative pronoun. It may be capable of

(i) Showing concord with its antecedent, *ie* the preceding part of the

noun phrase of which the relative clause is a post modifier [external relation];

and

(ii) indicating its function within the relative clause either as an element of clause structure (S, O, C, A), or as a constituent of an element in the relative clause [internal relation]. (1245)

The Nepali relative clauses too have got these features except that the relative clause is a post modifier. In Nepali the relative clauses are not only post modifiers but pre modifiers too.

### **Positions of Relative Clauses**

In English, all relative clauses except nominal relative clauses strictly follow their antecedents, but in Nepali, there is greater variety in the placement of the relative clauses, and they can be placed at the beginning, in the middle or at the end of the sentence according to the convenience for the formation of the sentence. Moreover, with correlative pronouns, the head noun is merged with the correlatives. Therefore, there is no defined position of relative clauses in Nepali. An example:

44. The children who do physical exercise are healthy.

In this example, the clause 'who do physical exercise' has been placed after the antecedent 'children'. But its translation into Nepali is:

ti baccA-haru swAsthA hun-chan jas-le byAyam gar-chan  
those child-P healthy be-NPT:3P who-ERG exercise do-NPT:3P

or, ti baccA-haru, jas-le byAyam gar-chan, swastha hun-chan,

those child-P who-ERG exercise do-NPT:3S healthy be-NPT:3P

But the second sentence is not usual in Nepali. Regarding the position of relative clauses in English, Nesfield's definition of adjective clause is worth quoting:

An adjective clause is introduced by some relative pronouns or relative adverbs used in a restrictive (that is, a qualifying) sense... the relative pronoun or relative adjective should stand as close as possible to its antecedent, that is, no word should be placed between them if it can be conveniently placed anywhere else. (345)

However, in English too, Cowan talks about the possibility of "extra-posed relative clauses" (429) which are separated from their nouns but he says they are "amusing errors"(430) and "stylistically bad" (430).

Even more interesting thing in Nepali relative clause is the inclusion of the head noun in the relative pronoun:

45. jas-le parishram gar-chha, us-le rAmro pragati gar-chha  
who-ERG labour do-NPT:3S he-ERG nice progress do-NPT:3S

He who works hard progreses well.

In this Nepali example, the head noun is included in *jas-le*. In the example 45, the hidden head noun could be *tyo mAnche*, or *tyo keTA* but it is included in the relative pronoun *jas-le*. Talking about the inclusion of the head noun into relative pronoun in Nepali relative construction, Peterson puts:

The correlative pronoun appears in the place of the head noun, which is not usually mentioned in the subordinate clause, and the marking of the correlative is the same as that which would appear on the head noun in this position. The head noun itself, or an anaphoric pronoun

referring to it, appears in the main clause. The correlative pronoun has the form *jo* in the absolute *jas* in the oblique. (347)

The head noun is included in the relative pronoun with correlative constructions.

### **Types of Relative Clauses**

Relative clauses are classified in different ways. Their classification depends on what type of functions they perform in a complex sentence and what types of verbs they have, or they have no verbs at all. On this ground, in both languages, relative clauses can be classified in two ways:

- a. On the basis of the verb used in the relative clauses: Finite (*samApak*), Non-finite (*asamApak*) and verbless (*kriyAbihin*) relative clauses:
- b. On the basis of the functions of the relative clauses: nominal, adnominal (restrictive and non-restrictive) and sentential relative clauses.

### **Relative Clauses on the Basis of Their Verbs**

On the basis of the verbs present or absent in the relative clauses they are classified into: finite, non-finite and verb less relative clauses.

### **Finite Relative Clauses**

A finite relative clause must have a finite form of the verb. Mostly the relative constructions in both languages are usual with the finite verbs. The finite relative clause begins with relative pronoun, adjective, and adverb. An example:

46. The boy who came here yesterday stole my pen.

Tyo keTo jo hijo hAhA A-yo us-le mero kalam cor-yo

That boy who yesterday here come-PT:3S he-ERG my pen steal-PT:3S

In the above example, ‘who came here yesterday’ (*jo hijo yAhA A-yo*), is the finite relative clause because it has finite verb ‘came’ (*A-yo*). There are various types of finite relative clauses on the functional basis. They are: subject relative clauses, object relative clauses, possessive relative clauses and complement relative clauses.

Some relative clauses describe the subject of the main clause. These are subject relative clauses. Such clauses are available in both languages:

47. Tyo mantri buddhimAn Thi-yo jas-le garib-ko bhalAi gar-yo  
 The minister wise be-NPT:3S who-ERG poor-POSS welfare do-PT:3S  
 The Minister who provided welfare for the poor was wise

In this example, *jas-le garib-ko bhalAi gar-yo* qualifies the subject of the main clause *mantri* in Nepali, and likewise, in English ‘who provided welfare for the poor’ qualifies the subject ‘minister’. It is therefore, a subject relative clause.

The relative clause that modifies the direct object of the main clause is the direct object relative clause. An example:

48. us-le ma-lAi euTA kathA bhan-yo, jun ramAilo thi-yo  
 he-ERG I-DAT one story tell-PT:3S which amusing be-PT:3S  
 He told me a story which was amusing.

In this example, *kathA* (story) is the direct object in the main clause and the clause *jun ramAilo thi-yo* (which was amusing) describes the *kathA* (story). So it is object clause. Thus in both the languages there are direct object relative clauses, and there is no problem in translation. The example also shows that the position of the clauses in both languages is the same.

Some relative clauses describe indirect object in the main clause. These relative clauses are known as the indirect object relative clauses. We can find such clauses in both English and Nepali:

49. mai-le tyo netA-lAi prasna sodh-e jas-le jhuTho prtignya gar-yo

I-ERG the leader-DAT question ask-PT:1S who-ERG false promise do-PT:3S

In this example, *netA* ( leader) is the indirect object and the clause *jas-le jhuTho prtignya gar-yo* (who made false promises) is the relative clause that refers to *netA* (leader). So it is indirect object relative clause. Its translation into English is: ‘I asked questions to the leader who made false promises’. Here, ‘who made false promises’ refers to ‘the leader’, which is the indirect object of the verb. Again the position of the subordinate clauses is the same.

In English, there are relative clauses that function as the objects to the prepositions:

50. The mattress on which he slept was worn out.

Jun dasanA-mA u sut-yo tyo ekdam purAno thi-yo

Which mattress-LOC he sleep-PT:3S that very old be-PT:3S

The example shows that the preposition in English is attached to the relative pronoun but its corresponding translation, *ie* postposition in Nepali, is attached to the head noun *dasanA* (mattress). In English the preposition can be placed at the end of the relative clause as: ‘The mattress which he slept on was worn out’. But in Nepali such shifting of postposition is not possible.

Another function of the finite relative clauses is that they can be possessive clauses in both English and Nepali as in 51 below:

51. tyo keti nirAs cha        jas-ko        kitAb cor-i-yo

That girl sad    be:NPT:3S who-POSS book steal-PASS-PT:3S

The girl whose book was stolen was sad.

In Nepali, *jas-ko* is the only relative connective but in English, two possibilities are available: ‘whose’ for human or animate or a collective noun such as a club, agency, corporation or society, and ‘of which’ for inanimate things. However, ‘whose’ can also be found to be used with inanimate head nouns (Cowan 424).

Finite relative clauses can also function as complement relative clauses, modifying the complements of the main clause and can be found functioning in this way in both languages, and the clauses are placed at the end of the sentence:

52. ganesh euTA neTA ho        jas-le        garib-lAi mAyA gar-cha

Ganesh one leader be-NPT:3S who-ERG poor-DAT love do-NPT:3S

Ganesh is a leader, who loves the poor.

In the above sentence, the relative clause, *jas-le garib-Lai mAyA gar-cha* describes the complement *neTA*. Similarly *who loves the poor* has the relation with the complement *leader*. In this example, we even see the similarity in the positions of the relative clauses.

### **Non-finite Relative Clauses**

These are the subordinate clauses that have got non-finite verb forms. A lot of data of non-finite relative clauses are available in both English and Nepali. In Nepali, the non-finite relative clauses are the pre-modifying clauses while in English they are mostly post modifying. In Nepali, such clauses employ the non-finite verbs ending in infinitival participle *-na / ne/-nu*, perfective participle *-eko/ -ekA/ -eki*, imperfective participle *-to/-do/tai/dai*, and passive participle *-ieko/-iekA/-ieki* after deleting correlatives *ja... demonstrative*. For example:

53. saDak-mA dauDi-ne keTo pAgal ho  
 street-LOC run-IP boy mad be:NPT:3S

The boy running down the street is mad.

The example is the collapsed form of :

Jun keTo saDak-mA dauDi-dai chha tyo pAgal ho  
 which boy street-LOC run-PROG be:NPT:3S that mad be:NPT:3S

The boy who is running down the street is mad.

In the above sentence, *saDak-mA dauDi-ne* (running down the street) is the non-finite relative clause because it has the non-finite form of the verb *dauDu-ne*, and it refers to the noun *keTo* (the boy).

54. belAet-mA chap-Ai-ekA kitAb-haru-mA galti pA-idai-na  
 Britain-LOC print-PASS-PF:P book-P-LOC mistake find-PASS-NPT-NEG  
 Mistakes are not found in the books printed in Britain

In the above sentence, *belAet-mA cha-pAi-ekA* (printed in Britain) is the non-finite relative clause that is the reduced form of the passive finite relative clause:

tee kitAb-haru-mA galti pA-idai-na,  
 those book-P-LOC mistakes find-PASS:NPT-NEG  
jun belAet-mA chap-Ai-ekA cha-n.

which Britain-LOC print-PASS be-NPT:3P

There are no clear-cut explanations about how the imperfective and perfective non-finite relative clauses are formed from their respective finite clauses. In English, non-finite relative clauses are introduced with *v-ing* (present participle), *v-ed* (past participle) and *to*-infinitive. Generally, the *v-ing* form can replace the “relative pronoun + (be-verb) + active verb”, the *to*-infinitive form replaces "relative pronoun + subject + can/may/might + active verb" and the *v-ed* form can replace the “relative pronoun + passive verb”. Some examples:

- a. The farmers who work hard grow more grains. (finite)

The farmers working hard grow more grains. (non-finite *-ing* clause)

- b. The windows that were broken by the wind have been repaired. (finite)

The windows broken by the wind have been repaired. (non-finite)

- c. She has got some money that she can spend. (finite)

She has got some money to spend. (non-finite *to*-infinitive clause)

English grammar has got some more generalizations about how non-finite relative clauses are formed:

❖ A relative clause in English can be replaced with *to*-infinitive:

I After ordinal numbers (e.g. first, second) and superlative degree:

The first man who conquered Mt. Everest was Tenzing Norgay. (finite)

The first man to conquer Mt. Everest was Tenzing Norgay. (non-finite)

II. With an idea of purpose or permission:

He brought a robot which he could show to his neighbours. (finite)

He brought a robot to show to his neighbours. (non-finite)

❖ Similarly, the relative clause can be replaced with present participle clause:

I. With continuous tense:

The boys who were playing football started fighting in the end. (finite)

The boys playing football started fighting in the end. (non-finite)

II. With the verbs expressing habitual or continuous action:

Anybody who intends to enter this park has to pay Rs.100. (finite)

Anybody intending to enter this park has to pay Rs. 100. (non-finite)

III. With the verbs expressing wishes/hope:

Farmers who hoped to have good harvest got disappointed. (finite)

Farmers hoping to have good harvest got disappointed. (non-finite)

IV. With the verbs of knowing and thinking (e.g. *know, think, expect*, etc.) in non-defining clause:

Hikmat, who expected to get a job, went to Kathmandu. (finite)

Hikmat, expecting to get a job, went to Kathmandu. (non-finite)

The corresponding constructions in Nepali are the non-finite verbs ending in –*ne, -to/do, -ekA/eki/eko* for “co-relative + active verbs” (*ne, to/do* for imperfective and –*ekA/eki/eko* for perfective) and –*iekA/ieko* for “co-relative + passive verbs”. Some examples:

55. Nimtya-i-ekA pAhunA-le aupachArik posAk lagA-e (non-finite clause)

Invite-PASS-PF guest-ERG formal dress wear-PT:3p

The guests who were invited to the party wore formal dress. (finite)

The guests invited to the party wore formal dress. (non-finite *-ed* clause)

56. Parishram gar-ne biddhyarthi-le rAmro anka pAu-chhan (non-finite)

Labour do-IP student-ERG good marks secure-NPT:3P

The students who work hard secure good marks. (finite)

The students working hard secure good marks. (non-finite-*ing* clause)

57. u-sanga paDh-na kA lAgi prasasta kitAb-haru chha-n

He-POSS read-IP for a lot of book-P be-NPT:P

He has got a lot of books that he can read. (finite)

He has got a lot of books to read. (non-finite *to*-finitive clause)

In the examples 55, 56 and 57 above, the Nepali verbs *nimtya-i-ekA*, *gar-ne* and *paDh-na* are all non-finite verbs and the clauses containing them are the reduced forms of finite relative clauses, *ie* non-finite clauses.

Peterson talks about the Nepali prenominal relative constructions, which are the nonfinite relative clauses. He remarks:

The more common construction involves prenominal relative constructions. The verb in this construction is one of two participles. The two forms are imperfective *-ne*, "IP" and perfective *-e-ko* 'PF-NML'. While the form *-ne* bears no overt TAM marking, we will consider it here to be inherently marked for TAM as 'imperfective', due to its paradigmatic opposition to the form *-e-ko*, which is overtly marked as perfective in general. (347)

Let's see how Peterson's observation can be illustrated:

58. umAl-eko pAni swasthyakar hun-chha

Boil-PF:P water hygienic be-NPT:3S

Boiled water is hygienic. (the water that has been boiled is hygienic)

In this example, the non-finite verb *umAl-eko* functions as an attributive adjective to the noun 'water'. The example also shows that some Nepali prenominal relative constructions translate into English prenominal relative clause. But they do not reflect

any trace of relative clauses. They are like attributive adjectives in both languages.

Interestingly, the positions of the clauses in both languages are also the same.

Nepali pre-nominal constructions also sometimes involve the non-finite verb forms ending in *to/do* for male, *it/di* for female and *tA/dA* for plural, which Peterson does not talk about. These suffixes indicate the incomplete or progressive activities.

Some examples:

59. hurkadA      baccA-haru-lAi santulit    AhArA Avashyak chha  
grow-IPF      child-p-DAT      balanced diet      necessary be:NPT:3S

Balanced diet is necessary for children who are growing up. (finite)

Balanced diet is necessary for those growing children. (non-finite)

Or, Growing children need balanced diet. (non-finite)

60. tyo dauDi-do keTA-le                  mero kalam chor-yo

That run-IPF boy-ERG my pen steal-PT:3s

That running boy stole my pen. (non-finite)

The boy who is running stole my pen. (finite)

From the example 59 and 60 above, it is to be noticed that Nepali non-finite relative clauses are translated into finite or non-finite relative clauses in English.

Like finite relative clauses, the non-finite relative clauses in both languages can modify subject, object and the complement of the main clause. On this ground, a non-finite relative clause can also be a subject clause, an object clause and a complement relative clause. Some examples:

61. timi-lAi gAli gar-eko mAnche mero kAkA ho  
you-DAT abuse do-PF man my uncle be:NPT:3S

The man who abused you is my uncle.

The man abusing you is my uncle.

62. mai-le kalej-mA paDh-ne vidhyArthi-lAi bhet-e  
 I-ERG college-LOC read-IP student-DAT meet-PT:1S

I met the students who read in college.

Or, I met the students reading in college.

63. jhyAlkhanA aparAdhi-haru bas-ne ghar ho  
 Prison criminal-P stay-IP house be:NPT:3S

Prison is the house for criminals to stay

In example 61, *gAli gar-eko* is the non-finite subject relative clause because it describes the subject of the matrix clause *mAnche* (man). Similarly in 62, *kalej-mA paDh-ne* is the non-finite object relative clause that describes the object (*vidhyArthi* student). In the example 63, the clause *aparAdhi-haru bas-ne* is the non-finite complement relative clause that describes the complement of the main clause *ghar* (house).

### Verbless Relative Clauses

If there is no verb of any type (finite or non-finite) in the relative clause, it is a verbless relative clause. In both languages, the relative clauses can be reduced even to verbless clauses. Some examples:

64. a. The book which is on the table is mine. (finite clause)

= The book on the table is mine. (verbless clause)

The same sentence is translated into Nepali as:

b. Jun kitAb tebal mAthi chha tyo mero ho (finite)

which book table on be-NPT:3S that my be-NPT:3S

Tebal mAthi-ko kitAb mero ho (verbless)

table on-POSS book my be-NPT:3S

But we find different constructions with the following sentence in English and Nepali.

65. I have got a jacket which is full of pockets.

= I have got a jacket full of pockets. (verbless)

This English verbless clause translates into Nepali as a relative clause with non-finite verb as:

ma-sanga eutA khalti khalti bha-eko jAket chha.

I-POSS one pocket pocket have-PF jacket be:NPT:3S

In the sentence, *bha-eko* is a non-finite verb, which is essential for the meaningful expression. Likewise, the English verbless clauses are also formed by replacing “have got” with “with” but they become non-finite relative clauses in Nepali. Example:

66. The pen which has got red cap is mine. (finite)

The pen with red cap is mine. (verbless)

The Nepali translation of this verbless clause is:

rAto birko bha-eko kalam mero ho. (non-finite clause)

Red cap be-PF pen my be-NPT:3S

In this Nepali translation, there is a non-finite verb *bha-eko* (have-PF). It does not translate into verbless clause. The sentence without the verb- though non-finite – is not meaningful.

### **Relative Clauses on the functional Basis**

On the basis of their functions, the relative clauses are classified into three categories: nominal, adnominal and sentential relative clauses.

#### **Nominal Relative Clauses**

The name itself suggests that these clauses function as the noun phrases, and they are called relative clauses because these clauses establish a type of relation with the matrix clause. Such nominal relative clauses do not have antecedent, which is

included in the *wh*-element. These clauses are also called free relative clauses. Quirk et al. define nominal relative clauses as:

The nominal relative is basically a noun phrase modified by an adnominal relative clause, except that its *wh*-element is merged with its antecedent (the phrase to which the *wh*-element refers). In that respect the nominal relative clause more self-contained than the adnominal relative clause and can function as an element in a super-ordinate clause. (1056)

Although Nepali grammarians have not named a relative clause as nominal clause, there is no problem in translation. English nominal clauses translate into Nepali as correlative clauses:

67. I said *what I heard*.

Mai-le je sun-e tyahi bhan-e

I-ERG what hear-PT:1S that say-PT:1S

In Nepali translation, we have correlatives *je...tyahi* ( what...that)

The connective element (what, where, etc.) in the clause is the combined form of the head noun (antecedent) and relative pronoun. For example:

I said *what* I heard. = I said *the thing(s) that/which* I heard.

On the functional ground the nominal clauses are like noun phrases and can function as: subject, object, and complements:

*What I want* is a new laptop. (subject)

You can see *whoever you like*. (direct object)

I gave *whoever asked for it* a book on Buddhism. (indirect object)

Autumn is *when we celebrate Dashain*. (subject complement)

You can call me *whatever you like*. (object complement)

You can talk to *whichever leader you choose best*. (prepositional complement)

All these nominal relative clauses normally translate into Nepali as correlatives:

68. Je ma cAhan-chu tyo nayA lyAptap ho

What I want-NPT:1S that new laptop be:NPT:3S.

What I want is a new laptop.

### **Adnominal Relative Clauses**

These relative clauses are always placed immediately after the nouns they refer to. The main category of relative clauses is this adnominal clause. The relative pronouns for these clauses are ‘who’, ‘whom’, ‘which’, ‘that’, ‘whose’, and the adverbs are ‘where’, ‘when’ and ‘why’ as described under the chapter ‘Relative Pronouns and Adverbs’. The adnominal relative clauses in both languages are classified into restrictive and non-restrictive relative clauses.

### **Restrictive and Non-Restrictive Relative Clauses**

The relative clauses that narrow down and restrict the meaning of the head noun is called restrictive relative clause. On the other hand, the relative clause that does not limit the noun in this way is known as non-restrictive relative clause. The restrictive and non-restrictive relative clauses are also termed as defining and non-defining relative clauses, respectively. The restrictive clauses are defining clauses because they define the preceding noun whereas the non-restrictive clauses are non-defining clauses as they do not define the antecedent but they just add extra information. The non-restrictive relative clauses are added after the head nouns, which are already definite, so they are not essential for the clear-cut meaning of the noun. Example:

a. My father, who works in a bank, earns a lot of money.

The relative clause is non-defining because *my father* is already definite and there is no need of defining it.

b. The man who works in a bank earns a lot of money.

This is defining relative clause because the head noun *the man* cannot give any clear identity unless the clause is added.

Discussing defining relative clause, Thompson and Martinet observe:

These describe the preceding noun in such a way as to distinguish it from other noun of the same class. A clause of this kind is essential to the clear understanding of the noun. In the sentence: *The man who told me this refused to give me his name* ‘who told me this’ is the relative clause. If we omit this, it is not clear what man we talking about. (81)

They also define non-defining relative clause as:

Non-defining relative clauses are placed after nouns, which are definitive already. They do not, therefore, define the noun, but merely add something to it by giving some more information about it. Unlike defining relative clauses, they are not essential in the sentence and can be omitted without causing confusion. Also unlike defining relatives, they are separated from their noun by commas. *Peter, who had been driving all day, suggested stopping at the next town.* (85)

In this example, *Peter* is already definite as it is a proper noun and the clause *who had been driving all day* does not define it rather it adds some more information to *Peter*.

In English, commas are not used with the defining relative clauses but they are used with the non-defining relative clauses. Similarly, relative pronouns can be omitted from the object defining relative clause whereas the pronouns cannot be left out from the non-defining clauses.

a. The man you met there helped me a lot. (defining clause with the omission of the pronoun who/whom). But,

c. Sete, whom everybody suspected, turned out to be innocent.

(non-defining clause and *whom* cannot be left out.)

In restrictive clauses, frequent use is made of the general pronoun *that*, which is independent of the personal or the non-personal character of the antecedent and also of the functions of the pronoun in the relative clause. But *that* cannot be used in non-defining clause.

In this connections Quirk and Greenbaum term the two types as *restrictive* and *non-restrictive* and define them as:

Modification can be restrictive or non-restrictive. That is, the head can be viewed as a member of a class, which can be linguistically identified only through the modification that has been supplied (restrictive). Or the head can be viewed as unique or as a member of a class that has been independently identified; any modifications given to such head is additional information, which is not essential for identifying the head, and we call it non-restrictive. (376)

In Nepali also, there are both defining and non-define relative clauses. Sharma states that the defining clauses give some additional information or restrict the noun

or noun phrase in the main clause. According to him, a non-defining relative clause simply gives extra information to the head noun, but does not restrict or define it (181). In this connection, Adhikari defines defining and non-defining relative clauses and says that the clause, which defines and restricts the main clause, is known as defining clause.

69. *tyo buddhimAn ho, jo aru-kA kurA pani*  
 that wise be-NPT:3s who other-GEN:P matter also  
*dhairyapurvak sun-cha*  
 patiently hear-NPT:3s (Adhikari 219)

He who also listens to others patiently, is wise.

In the above sentence, *jo aru-kA kurA dhairyapurvak sun-cha* (who listens to other too patiently) is the defining relative clause. But, Adhikari's definition and his example do not match up with each other because he says that the relative clause defines and restricts the main clause but his example shows that the relative clause *jo aru-kA kurA dhairyapurvak sun-cha* defines the NP *tyo* but not the clause. He further says that in such complex sentences, correlation is seen between relative pronouns (*ja* pronouns) and demonstrative pronouns (*tyo, tyas, u*, etc.). Such defining relative clauses can function as the restrictive adjective to the subject, object, and complement in the main clause. (219)

According to Adhikari, that type of clause is called non-defining clause which, in spite of functioning as an adjective of the main clause, does not define or restrict it. Adhikari further says that such relative clauses can function as modifiers of the main clause or the word/phrase in the main clause but they do not define them clearly. And

also such non-defining relative clauses do not take demonstrative pronouns (219). For example:

70. kArl mArks dunuyA-mA prasiddha cha-n,  
Karl Marx world-LOC famous be-NPT:3s:MH  
jas-le sAmyabAd pratipAdan gar-e  
who-ERG communism propound do-PT:3s:MH

Karl Marx, who propounded communism, is famous in the world.

Especially, when the head noun is unique one, the relative clause added after it is non-defining relative clause. According to him non-defining relative clauses cannot be made to function as adjective clauses. Adhikari gives another example of non-defining relative clause:

71. us-le hari-lAi sammAn gar-yo, jun ashwAbhAvik thi-e-na  
He-ERG hari-DAT respect do-PT:3s which unnatural be-PT-ENG:3s  
He respected Hari , which was not unnatural.

In this example, according to him, the clause *jun aswAvAvik thi-e-na* (which was not unnatural) is the non-defining relative clause but in English, such clause is known as the sentential relative clause.

The restrictive and non restrictive relative clauses can do all the functions of the finite relative clauses, that is, they can function as: subject, object, possessive and complements.

### **Sentential Relative Clause**

The sentential relative clause does not describe any NP, but it describes the main clause as a whole. In the example 71, above, *jun aswAvAvik thi-e-na* (which was

not unnatural) is a sentential relative clause that modifies the whole main clause *us-le hari-lAi sammAna gar-yo* (he respected Hari) but not a noun or noun phrase in it. In Nepali grammar, there is not clear cut explanation about sentential relative clauses. Nepali grammarians have included it in the non-defining clauses. The connective element for the sentential relative clause is ‘which’ in English and *Jun* in Nepali.

## CHAPTER FIVE

### Findings

English and Nepali are both cognate languages so this comparative study was attempted focusing the discussion on relative clauses, which cause one of the major problems to language learners. The study has been carried out with the hypothesis that the relative clauses in English and Nepali not only have similarities but they also have some differences, and the study has come to the same conclusion. The study has been able to dig out some similarities and differences as well as some erstwhile uncovered aspects regarding relative clauses in these languages.

#### Similarities in Relative Clauses

- I. On the basis of the verbs present in the clause, both languages have finite and non-finite relative clauses, and on the functional ground both languages have restrictive (defining) and non-restrictive (non-defining) relative clauses.
- II. In both languages, the relative clauses are found to be available in all ranges of functional uses, that is, subject, object, possessive and complement relative clauses.
- III. Both finite and non-finite relative clauses are translatable into each other in spite of their different typological nature, that is, English SVO language and Nepali SOV language.
- IV. In both languages, restrictive relative clauses are said to be adjective clauses but non- restrictive clause cannot function as adjective clauses.

V. The purpose of using relative clauses in both languages is to add something to or to modify the head noun in the main clause or the main clause itself as a whole.

VI. Relative clauses are frequently strung together, one clause after the other, . . . . This phenomenon, which appears to occur more frequently in conversation than in writing, is called *stacking* (Cowan 430). This is one of the features of complex sentences consisting of relative clauses in both languages:

72. tyo keTA mero sAthi ho jo yAhA A-yo ra  
that boy my friend be-NPT:3S who here come-PT:3S and  
jas-lAi timi-le paisa di-eu  
who-DAT you-ERG money give-PT:2MH

VII. The finite relative clauses in both languages can be reduced to non-finite and even verbless clauses. Regarding the verbless clauses in complex sentences, both languages display many similarities, which can be seen in the above examples no. 64, 65 and 66. They also show that the positions of the verbless clauses are same in these languages although their basic structures are different: Nepali, SOV and English SVO. Generally, the verbless clauses occur in the beginning, in the middle or at the end of the complex sentence in both languages.

VIII. In both languages, the relative pronouns or adverbs occur in the beginning of the relative clauses.

## Differences in Relative Clauses

- I. Nepali relative clauses can be placed in the initial, medial or final position of a complex sentence. But in English, relative clauses occur only after their antecedents. It means they come either in the medial or final position.
- II. Sometimes the translation of Nepali non-finite relative clauses requires finite verb in English. For example:

73. mai-le hijo kin-eko kitAb cor-i-yo

I-ERG yesterday buy-PF book steal-PASS-PT:3S

The book I bought yesterday got stolen. (bought is finite verb)

- III. Most of the Nepali relative clauses do not need antecedents but in English, antecedent is necessary except in certain cases. For example, the following sentence can be written without antecedent.

That is the place *where* he was born, **or**, That is *where* he was born.

That is the reason *why* he spoke, **or**, That is *why* he spoke. (*U. Grammar 380*)

- IV. Sentential relative clauses have clearly been described in English but Nepali grammarians have not dealt with them. In Nepali grammar, the sentential relative clauses are categorized under non-defining relative clauses. However, sentential relative clauses are quite common in Nepali too. For example:

74. rAm-le ciTThA jit-yo, jun rAmro bhagya-ko kurA ho

Ram-ERG lottery win-PT:3S which good luck-POSS matter be:NPT:3S

Ram won the lottery, which is a matter of good luck.

- V. In Nepali relative clauses, there are two types of connective elements: (i) Correlative (-*Ja*... + demonstrative pronoun) and (ii) Relative (-*ja* only). But in English only single relative pronoun/adjective/adverb is used. For example:

75. jas-le parishram gar-cha us-le prasasta dhan kamAu-cha

Who-ERG labor do-NPT:3S he-ERG much money earn-NPT:3S

He who works hard earns a lot of money.

(correlative: *jas-le.....us-le*)

In the example no. 75, we see that the head noun is included in the first part of the correlatives *Jas-le*. In the example, the noun *mAnche*, or *keTo* has been included in the correlatives *jo.....tyo*.

- VI. In English, the relative pronouns 'who/m', 'which' and 'that' can be omitted from object defining relative clause. For example:

76. The book I bought yesterday is about computer. (English)

Mai-le hijo kin-eko kitAb kamyutar-ko bAre-mA ho (Nepali)

I-ERG yesterday buy-PF book computer-POSS about be:NPT:3s

Or, jun KitAb mai-le hijo kin-e tyo kamyuTar-ko bAre-mA ho

Which book I-ERG yesterday buy-PT:1S that computer\_POSS about be:NPT:3S

But the Nepali translation of English relative clause without relative pronoun becomes the non-finite relative clause or the relative clause with correlatives. In 76

above ‘I bought yesterday’ is the finite clause but in Nepali *mai-le hiyo kin-eko* is the non-finite relative clause, and the second translation in Nepali has got correlatives *jun....tyo*.

VII. In Nepali, commas are used with both defining and non-defining relative clauses but in English, commas are used only with the non-defining relative clauses. Comma makes great difference in meaning in English. For example:

- a. Her brother who is a religious leader is interested in social service.
- b. Her brother, who is a religious leader, is interested in social work.

In *a*, *who is a religious leader* is defining relative clause. It implies that she has got many brothers, and only the one who is a religious leader is interested in social work, but others are not. In *b*, we have non-defining clause, and it implies that she has got only one brother, and he is a religious leader and he is interested in social work.

VIII. In English, we have preposition + relative pronoun like *with whom*, *in which*, *from which*, etc., but in Nepali, the construction is relative pronoun+ postposition like *jo-sang*, *jas-mA*, *jas-lAi*, *jas-ko*, etc. An example:

77. The man with whom you live is my uncle

In the example 77, the relative clause begins with ‘preposition + relative pronoun’, but in translation we have ‘relative pronoun + postposition’ as in:

Tyo mAnche mero kAkA ho jo-sanga timi bas-chau

That man my uncle be:NPT:3S who-POSS you live-NPT:2MH

IX. Nepali non-finite and verb less relative clauses are premodifiers whereas those in English are post modifiers.

X. The English free relative clauses translate into correlative clauses in Nepali:

78. You can eat what you like

Timi je cAhanch-au tyahi khA-na sak-chau

You what want-NPT:2MH that eat-IP can-NPT:2MH

In the example, in English there is a free relative clause introduced with ‘what’, but in Nepali we have correlative *je.....tyahi*.

XI. In Nepali, there are correlative pronouns but such connectives are not used to join relative clauses in English.

XII. In English, the possessive relative clauses are introduced with ‘Whose’ for people and ‘of which’ for animals and inanimate things in general but in Nepali, there is only one connective ‘whose’ with some inflectional variations *jas -ko, jas-ka, -jas-ki*.

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