

CHAPTER-ONE

INTRODUCTION

1. General Background

1.1 Language

Language, being the medium of communication, is very important for human beings. In connection with the importance of human language, Radhey Lal Varshney (1983-84:1) says that without language human civilization, as we know it, would have remained an impossibility.

1.2. The Importance of a Language

In connection with the importance of a language, Albert Baugh & Thomas cable (1963) opine, "So intimate is the relation between a language and the people who speak it that the two can scarcely be thought of apart (3)." The reasons behind the importance of a language given by Baugh and Cable seem to be worth while to mention. However, we can summarize various reasons behind the importance of a language. They claim that a language is important because the people who speak it are important- politically, economically, commercially, socially and culturally. For the reasons behind the importance of a language, Randolph Quirk, Sidney Greenbaum, Geoffrey Leech & Jan Svartvik (1980) present the four criteria. In this regard they say:

One criterion is the number of native speakers that a language happens to have. A second reason is the extent to which a language is geographically dispersed: in how many continents and countries is it used or is knowledge of it necessary? A third is its 'vehicular load': to what extent is it a medium for a science or literature or other highly regarded cultural manifestation– including 'way of life'? A fourth is the economic and political influence of those who speak it as 'their own' language. (2)

There are various languages in the world .But all of them are not equally significant at the same time. At a time Sanskrit had its supremacy over all the languages written and spoken in the eastern part of the globe whereas the Latin language occupied the same position in the western world. For various reasons, the English language has now become as one of the important languages in the world.

1.3. The Importance of English

Albert C. Baugh and Thomas Cable (1963) make the background of the importance of a language as stated above in order to claim the importance of the English language. Baugh and Cable's intention of the reasons behind the importance of a language is to prove that the English language is important in the sense that the people who speak English are important politically, economically, commercially, socially & culturally.

Quirk et al (1980:3) claim English is the language that has ultimately been able to meet all the four criteria mentioned above and so it has been the world's most widely used language. For example, 'English is spoken as a native language by nearly three hundred million people: in the united states, Britain, Ireland, Australia, New Zealand, Canada, the Caribbean and South Africa without mentioning smaller countries or smaller pockets of native English speakers/for example in Rhodesia and Kenya' (Quirk et al, 1980:3). English has been used a second language in some countries like 'India, Pakistan, Nigeria, Kenya and many other Common wealth countries and former British territories. This way a quarter of a century after independence, India maintains English as the medium of instruction for approximately half of its total higher education '(ibid).

Quirk et al (1980:2) further say. "English is the second language in countries of such divergent backgrounds as the Philippines and Ethiopia while in other numerous countries, Burma, Thailand, South Korea and some Middle Eastern countries, for example it has a second language status in respect of higher, education? They claim that English is one of the two 'working' languages of the United Nations and of the two it is by far the more frequently used both in debate and in general conduct of UN business.

Quirk et al (1980) describe its importance as foreign language too. They say that people who are not the native speakers also had to use the English language by means of listening to broadcasts, reading books or newspapers, commerce or travel, for example. It is their claim that no language is more widely studied or used as a foreign language than English (3-4). People are inclined to learn it. According to their explanation, the United States Information Agency and the Voice of America have played a notable role in recent years with close and amicable liaison with the British Council which provides support for English teaching both in the world. (ibid)

By studying the explanation written by Quirk et al (1980) we can conclude that the English language: The English language intimately associated with the all-round development of the modern human world.

Regarding the extension of the English language, Bhattarai (1989) says, "It has begun to permeate through the eastern hemisphere together with the expansion of the British Empire in the east." (232). Similarly, about the beginning of English in Nepal, he (Bhattarai 1989) again says, "English entered Nepal with the foundation of Durbar High School in 1889 A.D." (232). Talking about the formal teaching and learning activities of English at higher level, he (Bhattarai 1989) expresses his view thus, "In fact, the opening of Tri-Chandra College in 1918 A.D. marks the formal beginning of English in higher education in Nepal." (ibid). In connection with the further development of education and the importance of the English language teaching in Nepal, Bhattarai (1989) explains that the university was incorporated by law in 1959 and many colleges were declared open throughout the Kingdom. High schools spread in no time. The dawn of democracy brought light of education in Nepal. Until the introduction of the NESP, all high school/college syllabuses had occupied an important place for English because till the 1940s and 1950s even in secondary schools English language and English curriculum occupied an important place. (ibid). Bhattarai (1989) regards the New Education System Plan-2038 B.S. (NESP) as 'a bold step towards modern approach in the field of education' in Nepal. According to the NESP, English was given the position of one of the UN languages into the secondary school curriculum. And after the amendment of the curriculum in 2038 B.S., 'English' is taken 'as one of the 10 modern languages' (235) . The revival of democracy of 2047 B.S. has given a great impetus towards the development of education even in private sector. As a result, a great number of schools and colleges have been opened in private sector. The schools opened in private sector are in the English medium because now the new generation in Nepal is inclined towards learning English. Speaking English has been the modern fashion and prestige as well. The commonly used words "**baa**" and "**aamaa**" have been replaced by the words "**daddy**" and "**mummy**". The culture has also been almost Anglicized. In addition to the formal activities of teaching and learning of English at present, informal activities of teaching and learning of this language are also being carried out by NGOs and INGOs in Nepal. As a result, the English language has been an inevitable part of our daily life in Nepal these days.

Now the new generation in Nepal has been inclined towards bilingualism. It seems that code switching usually takes place in a bilingual or multilingual situation. In such a situation educated speakers find it easy to practice code-switching. By considering this reality, we can not also prevent our children from using English; rather it has been our necessity today in Nepal. About the growing interest of bilingualism Elizabeth Closs Traugott and Mary Louise Pratt (1980) say, "Yet even in Great Britain and America, bilingualism was and is a reality for significant number of citizens.In Canada, French and English bilingualism is a major political issue. In America, bilingualism has been statistically the norm since the beginning of colonization." (373). On the basis of the facts mentioned above we can that Nepal is no exception to it.

The development of science and technology in various fields has brought a revolutionary change in every aspect of human life. The mobility of people has rapidly increased due to the facilities in transportation and communication, the new trends in trade and business, and so many other factors. Just a single language has not been enough to fulfill the various purposes, wishes and desires of the modern people.

1.4 The Importance of the Nepali Language

Nepali language has also taken its own identity in and out of the territory of Nepal. It is spoken in Bhutan, and Sikkim, Darjeeling and many other parts of India. It has already been accepted as one of the national languages of India.

The Nepalese wherever they have been living seem to have been proud of their own national identity and their own language, and trying to do something to uplift their language in their own ways. For example, the foundation of the Sagarmatha Television in the USA has also played a vital role in increasing the learners of the Nepali language. Besides, some of the world's renowned and prestigious broad casting corporations in the field of mass media, such as the BBC, the Voice of America, the Radio China/Beijing and so many others have been using the Nepali language in the work of broadcasting news and running many other programs of their own. These activities have helped widening the area of the Nepali language along with the English one .

1.5 The Importance of Linguistics

Now, let's talk about the comparative study of two languages which is a part of linguistics. For being educated, the study of two languages at least has been a must for every citizen In Nepal. In this regard, the proposal writer thinks it proper to quote

Bhattarai's opinion. Trying to throw light on the aspect of the historical development of linguistics in Nepal, Bhattarai (1996) writes,

Since the implementation of NESP (New Education System Plan), linguistics has occupied a not-negligible part of English/Major and Nepali MA syllabuses in Nepal. Institution of Education has done a lot by opening M. Ed (Eng.) courses in Nepal. It has trained many teachers during this decade (206).

Keeping the all-round development of the study of languages in view on the other hand, TU has recently opened a separate department called the Department of Linguistics in Kathmandu.

1.6 An Overview of some Specific Terms

1.6.1 Sentence

The definition of the sentence given by David Crystal (1992) is, "The largest STRUCTURAL UNIT in terms of which the GRAMMAR of a Language is organized." (313).

A Nepali grammarian, Narendra Chapagain (2051) regards a sentence as 'a larger unit than a word.' padaawaleebhandaa mathillo ekaai' or the largest unit of language'. 'bhaasaako sababhandaa Thoolo ekaai' (218).

Jack Richards, John Platt and Heidi (1985) define a sentence as "the largest unit of grammatical organization within which parts of speech (e.g. nouns, verbs, adverbs) and grammatical classes (e.g. word, phrase, and clause) are said to function." (255).

A famous Nepali grammarian of the Nepali language, Mohan Raj Sharma (2061) has presented various types of definitions given by various grammarians and linguists. Some of them have already been mentioned above. Analyzing various definitions, Sharma also makes his definition and remarks, that a unit larger than a clause or a higher grammatical construction is called a sentence.' (166). His definition can be translated thus, " a unit larger than a clause or a higher grammatical structure or unit is called a sentence."

A modern linguist Yogendra Prasad Yadav (2004) has classified sentences on two basis: according to their form, he calls it 'formal classification' and he calls it 'functional classification').

1.6.1.1 Kinds of Sentences

The study of the classification of sentences is considered to be very important to have a comparative study of adverbial clauses in the two languages: Nepali and English. The clauses are the inseparable parts of sentences. They are said to be sentences themselves or smaller units of sentences lower in ranks than sentences. By regarding clauses as sentences, Palmer (1971) writes-"Traditional grammars also talk of: clauses: which are sentences" (78). The researcher now wants to illustrate various kinds of classifications of sentences from different points of views. They can be classified in terms of their functions, their forms, their honorific senses & their structural complexities.

1.6.1.2 Functional Classification of Sentences

First of all let's have a study of the classification of sentences in the English language that earlier grammarians have made. The earlier traditional grammarians like Akhanda Prasad Dhauvdel (2043:208) Choodamani Gautam (2044:343), and Parashmani Pradhan, and Rai Sahib Siddhinath Mishra, (1944:53) have divided sentences into five types. Pradhan and Mishra (1944) call this classification as a formal classification of sentences. In other words, the following five types of sentences are divided in terms of their forms or structures or patterns in which they are constructed of. For example,

- 1) Assertive Sentences,
- 2) Imperative Sentences,
- 3) Interrogative Sentences,
- 4) Exclamatory Sentences and
- 5) Optative Sentences.

Modern grammarians and linguists however, have stated that the sentences can be divided on the basis of their form and their functions. A famous modern linguist, David Crystal (1991:314) likes to call these two kinds of classification of sentences as:

- (a) Formal Classification and
- (b) Functional Classification

As has already been mentioned that the sentences in English language are classified on the two bases (a) form and (b) function, and they are divided into four types in each classification, there is one to one relationship between these two

classifications. Dr Yadav (2004:215) calls such kind of correlation ship as a form-function interface which is given in a table below:

Table No 1
Form-function interface

Formal Classification	Functional Classification	Examples
1. Declarative	1. Statement	I Like fish.
2. Interrogative	2. Question	Do you like fish?
3. Imperative	3. Directive	Go out.
4. Exclamatory	4. Exclamation	What a big bore she is!

1.6.1.3 Classification of Sentences in Terms of the Structural Complexity

The next turn of this chapter of the study goes on to carry out the study of the classification of sentences on the basis of their structures. John Lyons, (1971) calls it the structural complexity (178) while Mennon (1993) gives the name of "grammatical structures (108) and "Nepali grammarians call it as "samrachana" of sentences.

The grammarians and linguists have not come to the same opinion about the classification of sentences on the basis of their 'structures', of 'structural complexity'. We can find the following types of classifications:

(a) The first type of classification

Sentence

Simple

Complex

Co-ordination

Subordination

(b) The second type of classification

Sentence

Simple

Compound

Complex

saral

samyakta

mishra

(c) The third types of sentences

Sentence

Simple

Compound

Complex

Compound complex

It is not easy to say that there are exactly such types of sentences from the above examples. Before going to the conclusion, we can share the ideas of different grammarians and linguists for it. The two famous English grammarians Leech & Svartvik (1988) opine, "Sentences are units made up of one or more clauses" (288). In connection with the classification of sentences they further explain, "Sentences containing just one clause are called SIMPLE, and sentences containing more than one clause are called COMPLEX" (ibid). About the ways of linking clauses, they say, "There are two main ways of linking clauses together, ie of forming complex sentences: coordination and subordination" (ibid).

The definition given by Leech & Svartvik seems to be reasonable in the sense that sentences having more than one clause are complex. The structures of such sentences are not simple and the selection of the antonymic word 'complex' of the term 'simple' itself seems to be appropriate.

The classification of sentences into the two types by Leech and Svartvik (1988) has been further developed into the three types by other grammarians or linguists as Simple, Complex, and Compound. While observing these examples on their superficial form, they seem to be ambiguous. When we analyze the definition of these three types, we find no difference in the first type, Simple. All of the grammarians or linguists are unanimous about the definition given in terms of the grammatical structure. All of them agree that a simple sentence has just one clause. On the contrary, the latter two types- compound and complex seem to be developed by the same complex sentence- the proposition of Leech and Svartvik. They talk about the two types of conjunctives or conjunctions (a) Co-ordinators and (b) Sub-ordinators. In this regard connection with a compound sentence Mennon (1993), that a Compound Sentence is that it should have more than one main clause, the second, the third (and the fourth, etc) main clauses are called Co-ordinate Clauses(142). Regarding the Complex Sentences, Mennon (1993) writes, "A Complex Sentence consists of a Principal Clause and one (or more Subordinate Clauses." (118). In order to distinguish between a compound sentence and a complex sentence, Mennon (1993) further explains, "A Co-ordinate Clause in a Compound Sentence is an independent sentence. Subordinating Conjunctions connect Complex Sentence, but *Coordinating Conjunctions* connect Co-ordinate Clauses to the main clause in a Compound Sentence."(118).

1.6.2 Clause

According to Crystal (1992) a clause is a term used in some models of grammar to refer to a unit of grammatical organization smaller than the sentence, but larger than phrases, words or morphemes (55). A clause is a group of words which form a grammatical unit and which contain a subject and a finite verb. According to Richards et al (1985), a clause forms a sentence or part of a sentence and often functions as a noun, adjective, or adverb (39).

1.6.2.1 Kinds of Clause

As has already been stated that a complex in English language contains one or more dependent clauses, in addition to its independent, or main, clause, (Richards et al 1985:52). The dependent clauses are known as subordinating clauses and the main clause is also known as principal clauses which contains the main verb of the entire complex sentence.

There are three kinds of sub-ordinate clauses in complex sentences in both the languages, English & Nepali. They are:

- (a) the Noun Clause,
- (b) the Adjective Clause,
- (c) the Adverb Clause

A) THE NOUN CLAUSE: A clause which does the work of a Noun in relation to some words in some other clause is called a Noun Clause.

B) THE ADJEVTIVE CLAUSE: The clause that usually relates back to a noun whose meaning it modifies is an adjective clause.

C) THE ADVERBIAL CLAUSE: An adverb clause is a subordinate clause which does the work of an adverb.

1.7 The Review of the Literature

By means of the study, it has been proved that the concept of the adverbial clauses is not the recent one. Various grammarians and linguists have tried to make the study of adverbial clauses both in the Nepali and English languages.

On the basis of my own study I think that many grammarians are found to have tired to make a study of the adverbial clauses. Some of them have made an introductory study while some others have made a detailed study and some others

have made in between. In the Nepali language, there are some grammarians or linguists who have attempted to make a study of the adverbial clauses. For example,

Ghata Raj Bhattra (2053), Madhav Prasad Pokharel (1999), Krishna Prasad Parajuli (2053), Narendra Prasad Chapagai (2051), Mohan Raj Sharma (2061), Hemarga Raj Adhiakari (2061), Choodamani Bandhu are found to have made a detailed study of the adverbial clauses.

It is mostly done under the chapters of the clause and sentence. It is grammatically obvious that clauses are sentences because they bear the characteristics of the sentence. Therefore, under the topic of types of sentences, some grammarians have made the study of adverbial clauses, while some others have carried out it in the separate chapter.

In the Nepali language Bhattarai (2053), Chapagai (2051), Sharma (2061) and Adhikari (2061), have made a detailed study of the clauses. Even Sigdyal (2046), probably one of the oldest Nepali grammarians, has made an introductory study of the clauses and consequently the adverbial clauses. The analysis given by Chapagai (2051), Sharma (2061) and Adhikari (2061) in the Nepali language is in more detailed than by the others as found the researches intuition. Under the chapter of clauses, the separate analysis of the noun clause has been made while under the chapter of sentence, the study of the adverbial clause has been made under the topic of mishra vaakya in the Nepali language. Mr. Shurma (2061), Mr. Adhikari (2061) and Mr. Chapagai (2051) have made a detailed study of the clauses. Mr. Sharma (2061:182-184) has analyzed the principal and sub-ordinate clauses from both the functional point of view and the structural point of view.

Adhakari (2061) has made an analytic study of adverbial clauses under the chapter of "mishrit vaakya" or mixed sentences (207-214,216).

Likewise Madhav Prasad Pokharel (1999:185-205) has also made an analytic study on "Compound verbs in Nepali" that gives an insight mainly on account of the construction of compound verbs. It also helps us to known something about clausal structures in a wholesome way and about adverbial clauses to some extent. Pokharel has analyzed the compound verbs very minutely including the permutation of pole and vector in two languages, that is, Hindi and Nepali (187-188).

Some foreign linguists have also made the comparative study of the Nepali language. For example, Gilles Boye (1999), perhaps, a French has made his study on the Nepali Verb morphophonology (119-168). The "Verb roots" portion (123-127)

might help the learners of the Nepali language in connection with many aspects; it might be similarly useful to the learners of the adverbial clauses, especially, of the con-verbs and infinitive clauses. In the same way, Johnson Peterson (1999) has given an extensive analysis on "The Nepali sub-ordinate verb" which is also related to the adverbial clauses, so, it gives a new vision on the aspects of verbs as well as of the clauses-both on principal and sub-ordinate clauses, and eventually on adverbial clauses. He has made a study on "sub-ordination" and under this topic the minute study of 'Relative Constructions', 'Conditionals', 'Concessive', 'Reported Speech and Thought', 'Con-verbs', etc has been made. The whole essay is extremely useful for the learners, of the Nepali language, or the native speakers of Nepali learning English as a second language. This is one of the examples of conditional sentences given on Peterson:

- i) *ma aa-e ta* timee jaan-thyau,
'If I had come, you would have gone'.

The another foreign linguist, Michael Noona(1999) has also carried out an analytic study on "Con-verbal Constructions in Chantyal". This essay also contributes in providing an insight even in the field of the study of Con-verbs in the Nepali language.

Shanti Basnyat (1999) has made a "Comparative Componential Analysis of some Nepali and English Verbs" which might be useful for the English speakers learning Nepali (ESLN) and the Nepali speakers learning English (NSLE). The essay seems to be a useful weapon both from the linguistics point of view and from the pedagogical point of view.

1.8 General Objectives

The general objective of the study is to identify and analyze the similarities and differences in the structures of sentences of the English and Nepali languages, however, the specific objectives are as follows:

- a) To identify and analyze the structures of adverbial clauses in English and Nepali.
- b) To find out the similarities and differences in the adverbial clauses of these two languages.
- c) To find out the areas of difficulties for learning English adverbial clauses by Nepali speakers, and also Nepali adverbial clauses for English speakers learning Nepali language, and
- d) To give the pedagogical implications.

CHAPTER-TWO

METHODOLOGY

2.1 Sources of Data

In order to carry out this research, the researcher has used mainly the secondary sources of data. The secondary sources of data are taken from different books, previous thesis, articles, and other reading materials related to the topics. Some of the data are used by the researcher's own intuitions as well.

2.2 Population of the Study

As this is a library work, the population of the study does not consist of any person in this thesis.

2.3 Tools for Data Collection

The researcher has used the observation method as a tool for collecting the data.

2.4 Process of Data Collection

First of all, observations on the sources of data were made. Then, the required data were collected on the basis of their preference. After the collection, the data were listed in their sequential order finally, they were analyzed. For example, the different types of adverbial clauses have been illustrated. Based on the collected data from both Nepali and English, a comparative study has been made in terms of the structures, and functions of the adverbial clauses. The similarities and differences in the structures and functions of adverbial clauses have been summarized, the area of difficulty have been found out and some recommendations for pedagogical implications have been suggested.

2.5. Limitations

The subject area of the study is limited to the adverbial clauses in both the languages, English and Nepali. Only the structures and functions of these clauses are taken into consideration. The study excludes all the dialects of the Nepali and English languages. Thus only the patterns of the Standard Nepali and the R.P. English have been analyzed in the study.

CHAPTER-THREE

ANALYSIS

3.1 General Background

As regards the definition of the adverbial clause Wren and Martin (2004) write, "... an adverb clause is a sub-ordinate clause which does the work of an adverb." (201). Highlighting the area of the function of the adverbial clauses they further say. "It may, therefore modify some verb, adjective or adverb in main clause..." (ibid). In order to prove their definition and explanation, we can give some examples of mixed sentences containing adverbial clauses, which are presented below:

- i) Strike the iron *while it is hot.*
- ii) You are taller *than I thought.*
- iii) He ran so quickly that *he soon overtook me.*

In the above sentences, the italicized letters or parts represent the adverbial clauses. We can easily see that the adverbial clause "*while it is hot*" in the first sentence qualifies the verb 'strike'. The verb 'strike' indicates moment of striking, that is a verb Similarly in the second sentence the clause "*than I thought.*" modifies the adjective "*taller*" in the main clause, therefore, it is also an adverbial clause. Likewise in the third sentence the dependent clause "*that he soon overtook me*" modifies the adverb "*quickly*" in the main clause so the dependent clause is an adverbial clause.

The definition of Adhikari (2061) can be illustrated in this context .He says that a clause that qualifies or defines the context of a verb in the main clause is called an adverbial clause (209).

The main concern of the thesis is to analyze the structural as well as functional study of adverbial clauses of the two languages, English and Nepali. Naturally, the thesis writers attention is drawn towards the proper study of the subject matter that is the study of adverbial clauses. Therefore, certain definitions of adverbial clauses have been another and discussed. Ultimately, this will make easier to discuss and analyze the various kinds of adverbial clauses. Therefore, the thesis writer wants to draw his attention towards the study of his proposed subject matter, that is, the Adverbial Clauses. Therefore, the definitions of the adverbial clauses given by different

grammarians or linguists in both the languages will be given hereby. Then various kinds of Adverbial Clauses will be discussed.

3.2 The Classification of Adverbial Clause

So many grammarians or linguists do not mention how they have classified the clauses. However, Leech and Svartvik (1988) have mentioned their criteria of classification for the clauses. Some grammarians have classified the adverbial clauses on the two bases. That is, they can be classified (a) on the basis of the verb in the adverbial clauses, and (b) on the basis of the function of the adverbial clauses.

Here too the adverbial clauses in both the languages (in Nepali and English) can be divided on the following two bases:

- i. On the basis of the verb in the adverbial clauses, and
- ii. On the basis of the functions of the adverbial clauses

From the point of view of the verb used in the adverbial clauses, some grammarians have classified the adverbial clauses into two classes: (i) finite adverbial clauses and (ii) non-finite adverbial clauses. As regards the classification of adverbial clauses, Leech and Svartvik (1988) have their different opinion. They have grouped the adverbial clauses into three groups: In this respect, Leech and Svartvik write, "A second way of classifying the clauses is on the basis of what kind of verb phrase (if any) acts as its element. The types of clauses that have to be distinguished are: a) finite clauses, b) non-finite clauses, and c) verb less clauses." (213).

It is not clear in their explanation whether all the clauses can be classified in the three classes or only the adverbial clauses can be done so. But as it is clear that the adverbial clauses modify the verbs, we can claim ourselves that this explanation of Leech and Svartvik(1988) is about adverbial clause. Quirk et al (1980) also talk about the three adverbial clauses in sub unit 11.26 of unit 11 (743). They are: finite, non-finite and verb-less clauses. However, now at first different types of finite adverbial clauses will be discussed one after the other.

3.2.1 Kinds of Adverbial Clauses on the Basis of the Function

It is obvious that there are three kinds of subordinating clauses- the noun clause, the adjective clause and the adverb clause. Like the noun clause and the adjective clause, an adverb clause is the one which functions as an adverb in relation to some word in some other clause. Nesfield (2002) mentions the eight kinds of adverbial clauses in English language (343). They are of:

- (1) Time
- (2) Place
- (3) Purpose

- (4) Cause (5) Result (6) Condition
 (7) Comparison (8) Supposition or Concession

All the grammarians are not unanimous about the classification of adverbial clauses. Sinclair (1994) has also divided the adverbial clauses into eight groups which are given in the table below:

Table No 2

S.N.	Kinds of clause	usual conjunction
1	Time clauses	when, before, after, since, while, as, until
2	Conditional clauses	if, unless
3	Purpose clause	in order to , so that
4	Reason clause	because, since, as
5	Result clauses	so that
6	Concessive clauses	although, though, while
7	Place clauses	where, wherever
8	Clauses of manner	as, like, the way

In terms of the function, there are various kinds of adverbial clauses. They are the adverbial clauses of time, place, reason, purpose, effect or result, condition, comparison, concession or contrast, manner, proportion and preference. Let us now discuss them one by one.

3.2.1.1 Adverbial Clauses of Time

It has already been mentioned that adverbial clauses functions as adverbial clauses also describe it in the same way. Like adverbs, adverbial finite clauses of time in English language are introduced by one of the following subordinators: *after*, *as*, *before*, *once*, *since*, *till*, *until*, *when*, *whenever*, *while*, *whilst* (esp Br E), *directly* (informal, esp Bre), e, g,

- (i) Buy your tickets *as soon as you reach the station*:
- (ii) *When I last saw you*, you lived in Washington.

Adverbial -ing clauses of time are introduced by one of the following subordinators: *Once*, *till*, *until*, *when*, *whenever*, *while*, *whilst*, e.g.

- (i) He wrote his first novel *while working*.
kaam gar-dai-ko avasthaa-maa us-le pahilo upanyaas lekh-yo
- (ii) Be careful *when crossing streets*.

bbaaTo kaaT-daa hosiyaar ho-u.

adverbial-*ing* clauses have in their separate topic, so discussion will be carried out here. In this connection Abbreviated-ed clauses in English language follow *once*, *until*, *when (ever)*, and *while*, e.g.

- (i) *Once published*, book caused a stir.

Abbreviated verbless clauses may follow *as soon as*, *once*, *when(ever)*, and *while*.e.g:

in difficult, constant the manual

In Nepali language the following are the examples of the adverbial clauses of time given by Sharma (2061:182-3):

- (i) *jaba sukhaa yaam aaunchha*, taba aaglaagee badhee hunchha
When the dry season occurs, there happen more events of fire.
- (ii) *julus-maathi golee chalaanda* dherai maanis mar-e.
With the firing at the procession, many people were shot dead.
Having fired at the procession, many people were shot dead

In the above sentences, the first one contains a finite clause and the second one has a non-finite clause. Moreover, the first sentence has taken the correlative conjunction *jaba....taba*'. The correlative conjunctions that introduce the adverbial clauses of time in the Nepali language are: *jaba....taba*, *jatibela* .--. *tyatibela*, *jatinjel* .--. *tyatinjel*, *jatikhera*... *tyatikhera*, etc (Adhikari 2061:216).

The exact translation from English to Nepali or from Nepali to English is not always possible. Similarly the sub-ordinators from one language to another can not be translated.

3.2.1.2 Adverbial Clauses of Place

According to Quirk et al (1985) the adverbial clauses of place are introduced mainly by *where* or *wherever* (1087). Between these the two, *where* is specific and *wherever* is non specific, e.g.

Where the fire had been, we saw nothing but blackened ruins.

- (i) They went *wherever they could find work*.

It is to be remembered that *where* and *wherever* also introduced *-ed* and *verbless* clauses (ibid).

Now we can study the adverbial clauses of place in Nepali language from the examples illustrated as follows:

- (i) jahaan maayaa devee-ko mandir cha, tyahan agautam buddha janmeke thi-ye.
- (ii) Changaa uDe-thira hawaa bag-eko chha.
- (iii) uddhyog rugna bha-kaa Thaa-maa upachaar aabashyak chha.

The above sentences in Nepali language show that the first one has a finite verb so it is a finite clause, the second and the third sentences contain a non-finite clause. According to Adhikari (2061), the adverbial clauses of place in Nepali language are introduced by the following conjunctives, e.g.

jahaan.... tyahaan, jahaan-nera... tyahaan-nera, jahaan-dekhi.... tyahaan-dekhi, jahaan-samma.... tyahaan-samma, etc(216).

3.2.1.3 Adverbial Clauses of Reason

As stated by Quirk et al (1980) the adverbial clauses of reason or cause in the English language are most commonly introduced by the conjunctions like 'because', 'as' or 'since' (702) . Laying emphasis on the position of the adverbial clause reason, they mention that 'because' has a tendency to follow the main clause, while 'as' and 'since' have a tendency to precede it, e.g.

- (i) I lent him the many because he needed it.
- (ii) As Jane was the eldest, she looked after the others.
- (iii) Since we live near the sea, we enjoy a healthy climate.

Some complex sentences having the adverbial clauses of reason in the Nepali language are as follows:

- (i) khaaddyanna-ko bhaau ajhai baDh-chha, kinabhane baqaar-maa ajhai kritrim abhaav chha.
- (ii) aba bijulee aaun-dai-na, kaaraN aaja bijulee kaat-ne paalo ho.
- (iii) chhaDke-maa parnaale us-ko jaagir ga-yo.
- (iv) samsad bha-ekale un-le gaaDee paa-e.

The above examples show that the adverbial clauses or reason in the Nepali language appear either initially or finally. The 'kinabhane-clause' Nepali mostly appears after the main clause as in English language. The meaning main in the clauses can be realised in accordance with the meaning of the sub-ordinate clauses. Therefore, Quirk et al (1985) say that there is generally a temporal sequence in such a way that

the situation in the subordinate clauses precedes in time that of the matrix clause (1103).

Quirk et al (1980) point out that there are no abbreviated clauses of reason but non-finite and verbless can be used equivalently (752), e.g.

- (i) *Being a man of ingenuity*, he had soon repaired the machine.

According to Adhikari (2061), the adverbial clauses of reason in Nepali are mostly introduced by the conjunctions like *kinabhane*, *kin.... bhane*, *yaskaraN*, *tyaskaraN*, *ki*, *kaaraN tyasaile*, etc (211-2).

Adhikari (2061) says that the subordinate clause that comes as a logical base of the main clauses becomes causative point of view expressed by Quirk et al (1985) above.

3.2.1.4 Adverbial Clauses of Purpose

Let's have a glance upon the sentences illustrated by Sharma (2061:184) first, and then have a discussion upon them. The examples are:

- (i) *shiksha-ma sudhaar hos hbanera* shiksha aayog-ko gaThan gar-iyo.
(ii) ma-ile praharee-laaee khabar di-en, *jasale gardaa laagu padaartha-ko kaarobaar gar-ne-haru pakraau par-un*.
(iii) *dharai nepalee-haru paisa kamaau-nakaa laagi* pravaas Jaan-chhan.

In the above sentences, the conjunctions like *bhanera*, *jasale gardaa*, *kamaaunakaa lagi*, have been used. As started by Adhikari (2061) the adverbial clauses of purpose in Nepali are introduced by conjunctions like '*bhanera*' '*bhannaka nimti*', *bhanne uddeshya/ bichaar/drisTile* etc. (213). He adds that the phrases like '*yas/tyas drisTile*' '*ki*' *yas/tyaska laagi* *ki*, *yas/tyas nimti ki* ' are used. The conjunctions, '*jasbaaTa* & *jasale gardaa*' are also the conjunctions of purpose that describe the further context (ibid).

In English Language, the adverbial 'Clauses of Purpose are more often infinitival than finite' Quirk et al (1980:753), e.g.

- (i) *To improve the garden*, we shall plant shrubs.
(ii) I left early *to catch the train*.

Adverbial clauses of purpose in English are commonly introduced by conjunctions like '*in order that*' '*in order to*', '*so*' '*so as to*', '*so that*' and '*to*' (Sinclair,1994)

Finite clauses of purpose may be introduced by compound subordinations in order that and so (that), e.g.

- (i) She visited Washington in order that/so that she could see some senators.

Negative purpose is expressed by the conjunction 'lest' or by 'in case' e.g.

- (i) Lest (in case) the wall should collapse, they evacuated the building.

The use of 'lest' is very formal and seems rather archaic too.

3.2.1.5 Adverbial Clauses of Effect or Result

According to Sinclair (1994) result clauses usually begin with 'so that' (356) e.g.

- i) My suitcase had been damaged in the adjoining home, so that the lid would stay close.

Informally the 'that' of 'so that' is omitted. Quirk et al (1980:754), e.g.

- (i) I took no notice of him, so he flew into a rage.

Throwing light on the contrastive relation between 'result' and 'reason' clauses Quirk et al (1980) say that it is an interesting fact to be remembered that the 'result' relation is the converse of that of 'cause', so that the same meaning can be expressed by reversing the subordinate and super ordinate clause relation and using a conjunction such as 'because'. e.g.

- (i) He flew into a rage because I took no notice of him.

According to Adhikari (2061) the adverbial clauses of result or cause in the Nepali language are introduced by the conjunctions like 'jas baaTa,' jasle gardaa, kati.... bhane, yasto ki, 'yati....ki,' etc. (212), e.g.

- (i) hamee-le shyaam-laaee waastaa gar-enaun, jasle gardaa u: haamee-sanga risaa-eko chha.
- (ii) hari-le bhoj-maa kati khaa-yo bhane us-laaee duee din-samma khaanu par-ena
- (iii) bhaando yati taato chha ki samaauna sakindai-na.

Adhikari (2061) concludes that there a sequence of clause and action between the main and subordinate clauses in sentences mentioned above. (212).

3.2.1.6 Adverbial Clauses of Condition

The Adverbial clauses of condition in English are simply introduced by "if" and "unless". The most common subordinator and most versatile of the condition

subordinators is "if". The negative subordinator "unless" is the next common. Other conditional subordinators are: *as long as*, *so long as*, *assuming (that)*, *in case*, in the event that just *so (that)*, *providing (that)*, *supposing (that)*.

General recurrent contingency is expressed by *once*, *when*, *whenever*, *where*, and *wherever*. In addition, several sub ordinators combine condition with time, e.g., *before*, *as long as*, *so long as*, *when*, *whenever*, *once*. The subordinators except that and only are used with exception with condition.

All these subordinators are used with finite clauses, e.g.

- (i) *If you want some more*, you should ask me.
- (ii) *Unless the strike has been called off*, there will be no trains to
- (iii) She may go, *as long as he goes with her*.
- (iv) *Assuming that the movie starts at eight*, shouldn't we be leaving now?

The two subordinators '*if*' and '*unless*' introduce nonfinite clauses, mainly-ed participle clauses and verbless clauses. They are marginally acceptable in -ing. Participle clauses, e.g.,

- (i) *The grass would well if grow* if watered regularly.
- (ii) *Unless otherwise introduced*, you should leave by the back exit.

From the examples above it is seen that some clauses of time and place may express a general notion of a contingency relationship between the situations described in the sub-ordinationship is also conveyed by conditional *if clauses*. It is also obvious that some temporal clauses may imply relationships of condition and concession, and that some clauses of place may imply contrast. In this way, we can draw the make a conclusion that there is a considerable overlapping of meaning of condition, concession, and contrast in the adverbial clauses.

3.2.1.7 Adverbial Clauses of Comparison

In connection with the adverbial clauses of manner and comparison, Quirk and Greenbaum (1990) write, "Clauses of manner are introduced by (*exactly*) *as*, (*just*) *as*:" (328). For example

- (i) Please do it (*exactly*) *as I instructed* (in the way that

This statement does not seem to clarify the idea that definition whether this is of the adverbial clause of comparison or manner. Therefore, I think it is worthwhile to mention the idea given by Nesfield (2002:245) and Wren and Martinet (2004:204) who try to clarify the idea by saying, "Adverbial clauses of comparison are of two

kinds: (i) Adverb clauses of comparison of manner, and (ii) Adverbial clauses of comparison of degree.

There grammarians further expresses that adverbial clauses denoting manner are introduced by sub-ordinate conjunction or Relative adverb "as" (ibid).To clarify this point, We can study the following examples:

- i) It happened as I told you. (.....in the way that.....)
- ii) Do to others as you wish them to do to you.
- iii) He seemed anxious, as if he expected something to happen.
- iv) As the twig is bent, so will the tree grow.

If this type of "as-clause" is placed initially, the correlative form "so", in formal literary English, may introduce the main clause.

About the adverbial clauses of degree, the afore mentioned grammarians express the view that adverbial clauses denoting degree, are introduced by one of the subordinate conjunctions or relative adverbs like "as", "the", and "then"

a) The word "as" denoting degree is generally accompanied by a corresponding demonstrative word (as or so) in the main clause. e.g.

- i) She is as wise as she is beautiful.
- ii) He is not so rich as he appears.
- iii) He is not so foolish as you think.

b) The term "the" is always accompanied by a comparative adjective or adverb in the subordinate clauses, e.g.

- i) The sooner it is done, the better it is.
- ii) The more king Midas got, the more he wanted.
- iii) The heavier the coin is, the more it is worth.

c) The term "than" is always accompanied by a comparative adjective or adverb, or by words like "other" in the main clause, e.g.

- i) My landlady is younger than she looks.
- ii) No one is a better teacher than he is.
- iii) I could do no other than I did.

It is to be noticed that verb of the adverbial clause of comparison is often not expressed but understood. The following sentences can make the idea clear.

- i) Nobody knows it better than I (do).
- ii) It will happen as sure as death (is sure).

The phrases "as if" and "as though" introduce adverbial clauses indicating comparison with some hypothetical circumstances.

- i) He treats me as if I'm a stranger.
- ii) He treats me as though I were a stranger.

Quirk et al (1980) remark that, in some cases the addition of the phrases "as if" or "as though" with the present gives the meaning of factual expression (755). The sentence below might make the idea clear.

- i) He looks as if he's sick; fetch the doctor.

In Nepali grammar only the adverbial clause of manner is described by Sharma (2061:183), Adhikari (2061:214 & 216) and Chapagai (2051). The adverbial clauses denoting manner or "reeti" in Nepali are introduced by:

yasaree ki (such that/ in the way that)

kasaree bhane (how as in substandard English).

jasogaree tyasaigaree (exactly) as (in a manner similar)

jasto tysto (just so)

Now let's apply these conjunctions into sentences

- (i) jasaree bhanchhau stasree nai garunlaa .
- i) usale tyasaree dhumprapaan chhaaDyo jasaree thaaleko thiyo .
- ii) kaaryakartaa.- le jasto chahkekaa thiye, tyasto chunaau parinaam bhayo.

In this way, we see that the adverbial clauses denoting manner or "reeti" are introduced by correlative conjunctions in Nepali language unlike in English.

3.2.1.8 Adverbial Clauses of Contrast or Concession

In Nepali language, adverbial clauses of contrast known as (vyatireka-vaachak upavaaliya or vipareetabodhaka) are introduced by the conjunctions like "taapani", "bhane,pani", "ra pani", "tara pani" etc. In such sentences, the concept expressed in the sub-clauses is opposite or unexpected from the fact that is expressed in the main clause. for example,

- i) haamee dherai dhane bhayaun bhane pani dunkha paaunchaun.
- ii) dherai paDheko chhaina taapani u: samajhadaar chha.
- iii) timee-le virodha gar-yau bhane pani ma waastaa gar-dina.

The conjunctions like "chaahe ... jesukai/ josukai" & "bhalai" also denote the meaning of contrast in Nepali language. For example,

- i) chhaahe timee je-sukai bhana, ma tyo kaam poora garichhoDchhu.

- ii) chaahe u: pradhaan-mantree nai kina na-hos, mero ta bhaai nai ho.
- iii) bhalai usa-le hari-laaee na-bolaa-os, haamee chaanhi bola-uchhaun.

The adverbial clauses denoting contrast also take the words that refer to uncertainty. Such words are:

jo-sukai(in Nepali) whoever (in English)

je-sukai (in Nepali) whatever (in English)

The use of such words in the sentence can be shown as in the following way.

- i) jo-sukai aa-o-s, (taapani) ma Daraaun-dina.
- ii) je-sukai bhana, u: patyaaun-dai-na.

Such kinds of sentences are used if main clauses are in negative. In order to show the contrast of actions between two clauses, the following correlative conjunctions like: yaddyapi----- tathapani and hunata----- taapani/taipani are used, For example

- i) yaddyapi u: mehanata gar-chha tathapaapi usa-ko ghara-ko sthiti sudhri-e-ko chha-i-na.
- ii) hunata raama prashasta paDh-thyo taapani usa-le jaancha-ma raamro gar-ena.

In English language, the clauses of concession are introduced chiefly by "though" or its more formal variant "although". Quirk and Greenbaum (1990) show some other conjunctions as "while", "whereas" (chiefly formal), "even if" and occasionally "if" (325). The use of these conjunctions can be studied from the following sentences.

- i) No goals were scored, though it was an exciting game.
- ii) Although I enjoyed myself, I was glad to come home.
- iii) Whereas John seems rather stupid, his brother is clever.
- iv) Even if you dislike music, you would enjoy this concert.
- v) If he's poor, at least he's honest.

The correlative sequence "whether (...) or" is a means of coordinating two subordinate clauses, combining conditional meaning with disjunctive sense. The following sentences prove this statement;

- i) Whether they beat us or we beat them we'll celebrate tonight.
- ii) Whether or not he finds a job in New York, he's moving there.

The sentences combined with the conjunctions like "whoever", "whatever", etc, indicate free choices from among any number of conditions. Such adverbial clauses

have been discussed under the sub topic of "Universal conditional-concession clauses" by Quirk and Greenbaum (1990; 326).

Similarly the sentences combined with conjunctions like "whether (...) or ..." have been discussed under the sub-topic "Alternations conditional-concession clauses" by them (326), In this way Quirk and Greenbaum classify the concessive clauses into two types : (a) Universal conditional concession clauses, and (b) Alternative conditional concession clauses.

3.2.1.9 Adverbial Clauses of Manner

Quirk et al (1980) indicate that there are major and minor kinds of adverbial clauses. They say "Amongst minor kinds of adverbial clause, four may be mentioned: those of manner, comparison, proportion and preference" (754). It has already been mentioned under the sub topic ADVERBIAL CLAUSES OF MANNER and COMPARISON, that clauses of manner are introduced by "as", (or often, in substandard English, by "how") (ibid). The research writer, therefore, does not think it necessary to make a separate study for it any more now .

3.2.1.10 Adverbial Clauses of Proportion

In relation to the adverbial clauses of proportion, Quirk et al (1980)) write, that "Proportional clauses are an extension of the category of adverbial clauses of comparison the proportional clauses express a 'proportionality' or equivalence of tendency or degree between two circumstances like other clauses of comparison just illustrated the proportional clauses may be introduced by as (with or without the formal matching correlative form so) : "(755). The structures of adverbial clauses denoting proportion can be shown and discussed as follows:

- i) As time went on, (so) their hopes began to wane.
- ii) As the lane got narrower, (so) the overhanging branches made it more difficult for us to keep right of our quarry.

Thus the structures of clauses seem to be:

As + sub-clauses+ (so) + main clause.

The second proportionality could also be expressed in another form, in which clauses are introduced by correlative items "the the".

- i) The narrower the lane got, the more difficult the overhanging branches made it for us to keep right of our quarry.

3.2.1.11 Clauses of Preference

Stated by Quirk et al (1980 & 1985), the conjunctions of preferences in English are "rather than" and "sooner than" and they deserve mention as the only subordinators introducing a bare infinitive clause e.g.

i) Rather than/ Sooner than travel by air, I'd prefer a week on a big liner.

hawaaee-jahaaj-baata yaatraa gar-na bhandaa ta baru ma paanee jahaaj-ma ek haptaa lagaa-era yatraa gar-na man paraaune chhu.

3.3 Kinds of Adverbial Clauses on the Basis of Verb

From the structural point of view, the adverbial clauses can be classified into three types. They are:

- i) Finite adverbial clauses
- ii) Non-finite adverbial clauses, and
- iii) Verb-less adverbial clauses.

3.3.1 Non-finite and Verb less Adverbial Clauses

Previously, we discussed the finite adverbial clauses, and now we will discuss the non-finite adverbial clauses and verb-less clauses. As it is structurally and semantically obvious that in a finite adverbial clause, the forms of the verb is finite that is verb +s/es, is/am/are, was/were, has/have etc. whereas in a non-finite adverbial clause, the form of the verb is non-finite, that is infinitive, and both present and part participle e.g.: to be honest; being read, Having finished/written /cleared etc. On the contrary a verb-less adverbial clause does not have its verb.

In this sub-chapter, the comparative study of the non-finite adverbial clauses both in Nepali and English will be carried out first and the study of the verb-less clauses will be carried out later. Both structural as well as functional study will also be made simultaneously.

3.3.1.1 Non-finite Clauses

It has already been mentioned that non-finite clauses contain non-finite verbs. Laying emphasis upon the construction of the verbs in English Quirk at al (1980) write, "The four classes of non-finite verbal construction (...) serve to distinguish four classes of non-finite clause:" (722). These four classes of non-finite classes are:

- i) INFINITIVE WITH "to"
- ii) INFINITIVE WITHOUT "to"
- iii) "_ing" PARTICIPLE"
- iv) "_ed" PARTICIPLE

Now the grammarians or linguists have coined a new term "CONVERB" for grouping the two participles, "ing" participle and "ed" participle. They also group the former two types into one group "INFINITIVES".

In terms of the presence or absence of the verb, Yogendra Prasad Yadav (2004) has divided the classes into two groups as (1) VERBAL and (2) VERBLESS. He divides these VERBAL clauses into (i) a finite clause and (ii) a non-finite clause. He further divides the non-finite clauses into two types: These two types are (a) Infinitives (b) Participles. The infinitives are also known as (i) To infinitives and (ii) Bare-infinitives, and the participles are called the PRESENT PARTICIPLE (v-ing) and the PAST PARTICIPLE (v-ed) (208-9)

It is also obvious that there are non-finite adverbial clauses even in Nepali language functioning in different ways. However, in Nepali language, all the non-finite adverbial clauses function as converbal clauses, (the new term coined by the modern linguists or grammarians). Either by themselves or by being combined with some post-positions so unlike English infinitival clauses, Nepali infinitival clauses are converbal clauses. The Nepali converbal clauses are of five types as stated by Madhav Prasad Pokharel (1999:190). They are as that are shown below:

- i) GERUNDIVE (nu-type)
- ii) INFINITIVE (na-type)
- iii) DURATIVE (dai-type).
- iv) ADSOLUTIVE (i-type)
- v) PROSPECTIVE (ne-type)

First of all the Infinitival and Participial clauses in English will be discussed. Then the participle clauses or the converbal clauses in Nepali will be discussed turn by turn. On the basis of the analysis made by Adhikari (2061), therefore, no separate study of these five converbs will be made here.

3.3.1.2 To-infinitive Clauses

In English, the to-infinitive clause is introduced by the verb marked by "to+root". The infinitive is not marked for tense, person and mood. The infinitival clause in Nepal has the verb marked by the suffix "-nu" or its oblique forms "-na" or "-ne" attached to the stem. The infinitive clauses function as nominal as well as adverbial clauses. As this section is on account of the NON-INFINIVE CLAUSES, the focus of the study will be laid on the "to-infinitival clause" as the adverbial clause. The to-infinitive adverbial clauses in English are introduced by "to+stem" of a "to"; "in order to", "as to", etc. The to-infinitive adverbial clauses are used to express purpose in both the languages, Nepali and English. Therefore, these clauses function as purposive clauses that show the purpose of the action of the main clause. Such clauses are used with subject or without subject (Quirk et al: 1980: 723).

a) With subject:

i) The best thing would be for you to tell everybody. (English)

sabai-laaee bataau-nu nai timro-nimti sabai bhandaa raamro kura hu-ne-chha

b) Without subject.

i) The best thing would be to tell everybody (English)

pratyek व्यक्ति-laaee bataau-nu nai sabai bhandaa raamro kura hu-ne-chh

ii) John went to Kathmandu to/in order to join the campus

kyaampas bharna huna-ko-lagi johan kathmandu-tira ga-yo.

3.3.1.3 Infinitive Without "to"

It has already been stated that the infinitives either with "to" or without "to" are used to refer to the purposive adverbial clauses. The infinitive adverbial clauses without "to" are also called "bare infinitive clauses". They can also be used with or without the subject. For example:

a) With subject:

Rather than John do it I'd prefer to give the job to Mary. (English).

johan-le gar-nu bhanda baru

ma yo kaama myaree-laaee dina baDhee mana para-u-ne-chhu. (Nepali).

b) Without subject:

All I did was hit him on the head. (English)

ma-ile yo saba gare-ko usa-laaee taauko-maa haanna thioyo. (Nepali)

All the infinitival adverbial clauses in the above sentences have described the purpose of the actions. The clause "to tell everybody" introduces the purpose of the verb "would be". Similarly the clause "to join the campus" introduces the purpose of John's action of "going to Kathmandu". The bare infinitive clause "hit him on the head", introduces the purpose of the action verb.

3.3.1.4 The "-ing" Participle

Among the four non-finite clauses the "-ing" participle clauses are also the important clauses in English languages. According to Quirk et al (1980:723), such clauses can also be used with subject or without subject

a) With subject

Her aunt having left the room, I declared my passionate love for Celia.(Eng)

una-kee kaakee-le kotha chhode-kole (chhoDisakepachhi) ,

ma-i-le siliya kanimti mero uTkata prema-ko ghoshana gare (Nepali).

b) Without subject

Leaving the room, he tripped on over the mat. (English).

kothaa chhoadera, u: gundree maathi dauDyo. (Nepali)

Now we can see in Nepali not only the "era" but "-sakeepachhi" is also common in the practice both in speech and writing, but it seems to be similar to "-i-type" that has been is called Absoluting, by Pokharel (1990).

3.3.1.5 The "-ed" Participle

In English language, there is another form of participle that is the past participle or the "-ed participle". Like the "-ing participle", the "-ed participle" also plays an important role in forming structure of the non-finite adverbial clauses in English language. According to Quirk et al (1980) this type also can be introduced with the inclusion or the exclusion of the subject, e.g.

a) With subject

We left the room and went home, the job finished. (English)

nokari sak-i-eko-le (or saki-e-pachhi) haamee-haru koThaa chhoD-rea ghara ga-eun.

Nokari sakieskole haamee haru koThaa chhoDera /chhodi ghara ga-eun.

b) Without subject

Covered with confusion, I left the room (English).

dodhaara- maa pareko/pardai, ma-i-le koThaa choDen. (Nepali).

Sinclair (1994) shows that there is a "being+ Past participle" form of an adverbial

(i) *Anton being dead*, the whole affair must now be laid before Colonel Brawne.

The English converbs function in two ways. The *-ing* form performs as the simultaneous function of the converbs whereas the *having + ed* form functions as the sequential converbs. The converb is said to be simultaneous if the action denoted by the converbs (-ing) happens almost at the same time as that of the matrix clause. The study of the examples given by Quirk et al (1980) shows that they are not only sequential but regulative, because in the sentence, 'We left the room and went home, the job finished.' The speaker's action of departing of the room and going home seems to be the result of the finishing of his job. In terms of the semantic roles of adverbial clauses, it is therefore, to be noticed that such clauses have a deficiency of the complication of meaning. It is also in this context, stated by Quirk et al (1985) in this way, "semantic analysis of adverbial clauses is complicated by the fact that many subordinators introduce clauses with different meaning ... (1077)

3.3.1.6 Verbless Clauses

Regarding the verbless clauses Quirk et al (1980) opine, The verbless clause, apart from being verbless, is also (like the non-finite clause) commonly subject less; it therefore, takes the ellipsis of clause elements one stage further than the non-finite clause. Once again, the omitted finite verb can generally be assumed to be a form of the verb *BE*, and the subject, when omitted, can be treated as recoverable from context" (725).

We can illustrate the sentences to prove the statement as follows:

(i) *Whether right or wrong*, he always comes off worst in argument.

The clause can be rewritten thus: *Whether he is right or wrong*

(ii) One should avoid taking a trip abroad in August *where possible*

The clause can be rewritten thus: "*Where it is possible.*"

Besides this, Quirk et al (1980) further say "Verb-less clauses can also, on occasion, be treated as reductions of non-finite clauses" (725). For example:

(i) Too nervous to reply, he stared at the floor.

The clauses can be rewritten as "Being too nervous.". Here the verbless clause itself contains a non-finite clause, "to reply" it is to be noticed that when the subject is already there, it is the verb alone that has to be supplied (726)

For Example:

i) Seventy three people have been drowned in the area, many of them children.

The clause "many of them children" can be rewritten, "many of them being children.,"

But, as with participle clauses, the subject is often introduced by "with".

For example,

(i) With the tree now tall, we get more shade.

The clause can be extended like "with the tree grown/growing tall". The verbs "grown" or "growing" are elliptical in English, but while writing the Nepali version, we are unable to exclude the verb but it is present, i.e. bha-e-kole

On account of the number of structures of the verbless clauses, Quirk et al (1980) remark that as the verbless clause is basically an elliptical intensive verb clause, that is, type SVC or SVA. The variations of the verbless adverbial clauses are somewhat limited (726). The following are among possible combinations given by them, e.g.

i) Suddenly the creature reared up on its hind legs behind the bars teeth bared, jaws wide open, and started to scratch. S[Vintens]Cs

ii) She marched briskly up the slope, the blanket across her shoulder. S [Vintens]

iii) When ripe, these apples will be delicious. sub [SV intens] Cs

iv) While at college, he was a prominent member of dramatic society. sub [SV intens]A

v) His gaze traveled round, irresolute. [SV intens] Cs

In Nepali language the verb should be included in the clauses that are called verbless clauses in the English language.

By analyzing the sentences, given by Quirk et al (1980) the structures of verb less clauses in English language can be summarized in the following ways :

i) S [V intens] Cs, ii) S [V intens] A, iii) Sub [SV intens] Cs,

iv) Sub [SV intens] A, v) [SV intens] Cs

Leech and Svartick (1988:214) have also given the structures of the adverbial clauses in a simple manner that the common readers also can understand.

It is to be considered that when the verb less clause becomes reduced to its bare minimum of a single complement or adverbial, however, it may not be easy to distinguish from an appositional construction, non-restrictive relative clause, or an adverbial which is a direct constituent of the main clause.

3.4 Con-verbal Clauses

The term 'con-verb' is made up of two morphemes they are "con" and "verb". The first morpheme "con" seems to be the short form of "conjunction" and the second morpheme is itself clear that it is a "verb". Therefore, it is obvious for us from the facts that the combination of the two morphemes is the con-verb. Then, from the point of view of its structure, we can infer that the word "con-verb" can function both as a verb and a conjunction. It has also been proved from the experience that it can function as a sub-ordinator in a non-finite adverbial clause. One of the modern linguists Michael Noonan (1999) defines the con-verb thus, "The verbal noun, in association with an appropriate case critic, can also be used for adverbial sub-ordination, but adverbial sub-ordination can also be accomplished by means of a set of specialized non-finite form referred to a con-verb" (401).

The definition shows that con-verbs are verbal conjunctive elements and are used to join clauses. They display the function of adverbials in a complex sentence.

The studies made on the con-verbs till now have indicated that a con-verb is the participial form of the verb in an adverbial clause which can function both as a conjunctive and as a non-finite verb. Therefore, not a conjunction is used to join the con-verbal clause to the matrix clause. About the features of the con-verbal clause, Sharma points out the following three features:

- i) It must have a participial form of a verb,
- ii) It must be an adverbial clause, and
- iii) There is no conjunction to join the sub-clause to the main clauses as the con-verb itself functions as a conjunction.

In connection with the con-verbs in English language, some linguists show two verb forms which can function as con-verbs. These two forms are:

- i) Present participle or the *V-ing* form, e.g. Sitting, speaking, etc.
- ii) Perfect Participle or the *Having +v-ed* e.g. having eaten, having spoken etc.

Some grammarians call this "V-ed" form as a "V-en" form also because it is the perfect form or "v³" form of the verb. However it has been used as a "having +v-ed" form for our convenience.

Some linguists have shown only two forms but Quirk et al (1980:724-6) & (1985:1120-7) have illustrated more in the context of the explanation of finite, non-finite and verb-less clauses.

3.4.1 Kinds of con-verbal clauses

There are two kinds of con-verbal clauses in English. They are: the present participle and the perfect participle.

3.4.1.1 The present participle

The "ing" form functions as the simultaneous converb whereas the "having+ ed" form functions as the sequential converb. The clause is said to be simultaneous if the action denoted by the converb "ing" happens almost at the same time as that of the matrix clause. For example:

i) Hari ate his food sitting on the chair.

In this example, the two actions of "eating" and "sitting" are occurring almost at the same time. The English verbs "eating" and "sitting" refer to the progressive actions. We in Nepali language use the "-era" form, that is "bas-era" here for "sitting" in English.

3.4.1.2 The Perfect Participle or The having +ed Form

Similarly, the converb becomes sequential if the action in the sub-clause happens before the action in the principle clause happens. For example:

i) Having washed his clothes, Hari went home.

In some circumstances, the past participle or the "v-ed" form also conjunctions as a converb. For example,

Lady Clare went to Lord Ronald followed by the doe.

This sentence seems to contain "being+v3" form in stead of "v3" form, that Quirk et al (1980) have already stated in the verb less clause. Here the "being+v3" form gives the meaning of passive voice. For example, in this above sentence, the clause can be rewritten as Lady clear was being followed by the doe." Therefore, we can say that the actions are simultaneous, but not sequential. So the next sub-title or

category in this regard should be developed. Thus we can make the three forms as in the following ways:

- i) The Present Participle or the v-ing form. (ot The Being +v-ed form)
- ii) The Perfect Participle or v-ed form

3.5 Con-verbs in Nepali

It is a grammatically known fact that Nepali is an SOV type of language. From the point of view of our experiences, we can find various types of con-verbs and con-verbal clauses used in both speech and writing. In connection with the Nepali subordinating verbs John Peterson (1999) shows only two types of con-verbs (356:359). They are:

- i) The sequential con-verb, and
- ii) The simultaneous con-verb.

Peterson (1999) points out the two Nepali con-verbs as:

The sequential con-verbs -i, and e-ra are used to join two or more cores:

3.5.1 Types of Con-verbs

Some linguists opine that "pertaining to their types, the con-verbs in Nepali language can be studied categorizing them into three classes as pure/basic con-verbs, complex con-verbs and derivative con-verbs." (107).In this way, on the basis of their structural distinctions, the Nepali con-verbs can be divided into three types. They are as follows:

- (i) Pure or Basic con-verbs,
- (ii) Complex con-verbs, and
- (iii) Derivative con-verbs

3.5.2 Pure or Basic Con-verbs

From the point of view the title name itself, the term 'pure' means the basic form of the element in which there is not a mixing up of anything. Accordingly, the pure converbs also do not add any post positions of any kind. For example, the Nepali verbs end in the following ways:

Stem+dai/ (tai/)

Stem+era

Stem+ikana

Stem+na

Stem+injel/unjel

In term of their meanings, the pure con-verbs are divided into the five sub-types. The table below shows their forms types and their functions as well of the afore mentioned five types

Table no 3

Pure Con-verbs

S. NO	Functions	Forms	Abbreviation
1	Conditional	Stem+ <u>e</u>	COND
2	Sequential	Stem+ <u>ee/era/ikana</u>	SEQ
3	Simultaneous	Stem+ <u>daa/dai</u> (or	SIM
4	Purposive	taa/tai)	PUR
5	Temporal	Stem+ <u>na</u> Stem+ <u>injel/unjel</u>	TEMP

As it is stated earlier that on the basis of their structures, the con-verbs are classified into three types. Now the five types of Pure or Basic con-verbs are being discussed one after the other.

3.5.2.1 The Pure Conditional Con-verbs

The pure types of conditional con-verbal clauses are introduced by adding "e" to the root verb. For examples:

(i) kaDaa kaam gar-e paisa kamaain-chha

Money is earned if we work hard.

ii) man lag-e jaa-u

Go if you like.

iii) dherai raks pi-e rogi hun-chau

You will fall sick if you drink much wine. (English)

It is to be noticed that the Nepali conditional con-verbs are translated into English by using the subordinators " if/unless " and accordingly, the converbal clauses in Nepali are translated into English by changing into finite clauses.

3.5.2.2 The Pure Sequential Con-verbs

The pure sequential con-verbs in Nepali indicate that the action in the sub-clause occurs before the action in the matrix clause occurs. Normally, the meaning of

a sequential con-verb is 'and then', 'after that', 'then', etc. in Nepali, the verbs ending in "-i", "-era" and "-ikana" are pure sequential con-verbs.

- i) raam us-ko kaam sakee ghara ga-yo
Ram, having finished his work, went home.
- ii) hari eutaa chiThee lekh-era baahira ga-yo
Having written a letter, Hari went out

The sentences can be translated into English as (i). *Ram finished his work and went home and (ii) Hari wrote a letter and went out* (both are finite clauses and the sentences are coordinating). There are some Nepali complex sentences containing pure sequential converbial clauses, which should be translated only into coordinate sentences in English

- iii) bas-era paDh-a (Nepali)
Sit and read. (English)

In this Nepali sentence, we have a converbial clause and a main clause, but its translation into English has two independent clauses. One of them is "sit" and the another one is "read", and the conjunction is "and".

In Nepali, there are some two-word phrases containing noun/adjective + sequential con-verbs which are translated into single adverb in English. For example:

- i) bichaar gar-era = carefully ii) shaanta bha-era = silently
- iii) hos gar-era = carefully iv) bhalaadmee bha-era = gently
- v) hallaa gar-era = noisily vi) dhairya bha-era = patiently

The use of two-word phrases containing noun/adjective+ sequential con-verbs can be realized as follows:

- i) bhadra bha-era bas-a
Sit gently.
- ii) hos gar-era hinD-a
Walk carefully.
- iii) hallaa na-gar-ee bas-a la
Sit silently.

In the above sentences the combination of "full words" + "con-verbs" has been translated into a single word as adverbs in English. So the translation from Nepali to English or vice versa should be carried out more carefully. It is to be considered opines that the pure sequential con-verbs can sometimes give the meaning of manner, or condition or reason con-verbs. For example:

- i) u: ghasr-era tyaaahan ga-yo. (Nepali)
He went there *crawling*. (English)
- ii) janataa *dhak na-maan-ee* bol-na thaal-e (Nepali)
People started speaking *unhesitatingly*. (English)
- iii) u: ramraree *na-paDh-era* phel pba-yo (Nepali)
He failed because he did not read well. (English)
- iv) haamee *parishram gar-era_dhane* hun chhau (Nepali)
We become rich if we work hard. (English)

In the above examples, we see that the examples i) "u: ghasr-era tyahaan ga-yo", and ii) janataa dhaka na-maan-ee bol-na thaal-e." give the meaning of manner. Similarly iii) raamraaree u: na-paDh-era phel bha-yo" and iv) haamee parishram gar-era dhane hun-chhau" give the meaning of reason, and condition respectively.

3.5.2.3 The Pure Simultaneous Con-verb

The pure simultaneous con-verbs in Nepali also play important roles in the sentence subordination. It is already assumed that the simultaneous con-verbs are used to indicate the actions denoted by the various predicates occurring simultaneously. It means that the simultaneous con-verb shows the action expressed in the sub-clause occurring or occurred almost at the same time as the action of the matrix clause in a complex sentence. In Nepali, the pure simultaneous con-verbs are the forms of verbs ending in "*-daa*", "*-dai*" and "*-tai*". Similarly, in English, the verbs ending in "*v-ing*" (present participle) can be used to function as simultaneous con-verbs. Noonan terms the simultaneous con-verb as the progressive con-verb and says:

"The basic meaning of the progressive con-verb is that the activity expressed by the converb is presented as being simultaneous with, or temporally overlapping with, another activity expressed by the matrix predicate, and, further, that the two activities together constitute, in some sense, two aspects of the same larger 'event'. This basic meaning defines a semantic/pragmatic territory within which a number of more specific interpretations are possible. These more specific interpretations are a function of the surrounding linguistic environment and situational context"(404)

- i) tyo keTaa *run-dai* koThaa-bhitra ga-yo
That boy went into the room, *weeping*.
- ii) mai-le *paDh-daa* aanshu-le aankhaa bhar-in-chan.
My eyes are filled with tears *while reading*.

But the English translation of a Nepali complex sentence with a simultaneous converb sometimes becomes a simple sentence. For example:

iii) baakhree ufran-dai khor-bhitra ga-yo
The goat jumped into the pen.

Or The goat entered the pen, jumping.

The Nepali pure simultaneous converbs can also give various meaning like reason, condition, manner, time and circumstance, depending on the situations. For example:

i) jhuTo bol-daa us-le pi-Taai khaaa-yo
He got a beating as he told a lie.

ii) kaam na-gar-daa us-le kehee khaa-na paaui-dai-na.
He does not get anything to eat if he does not work.

iii) gopaal ufran-dai yataa aa-yo
Gopal came here jumping.

iv) eklai bas-daa Dar lag-chha.
One fears while living alone.

In the above examples, all the sub-clauses have simultaneous converbs but they have given different meanings. For example, the sentence (i) "jhuTo bol-da us-le piTai khaa-yo.," It has given the meaning of reason. The sentence (ii) has given the meaning of condition, the sentence (iii) has given the meaning of manner and the sentence (iv) has given the meaning of circumstance.

3.5.2.4 The Pure Purposive Con-verbs

In Nepali, purpose is indicated by the verb ending in "-na". The clauses containing such verbs are pure purposive con-verbal clauses. In English, purposive clauses are not con-verbal ones because they are not the participial forms of verbs although they are non-finite verbs. An example:

(i) moTe senaa-maa bhartee hu-na sunauli ga-yo (jaa-yo=ga-yo
Mote went to Sunauli to join the army.

In Nepali, there are other ways of expressing purpose. For example, we can add postpositions such as "-laagi", "-uddheshyale", etc, but they are not pure converbs, and their discussion has already been carried out under the chapter of converbs as a whole.

3.5.2.5 The Pure Temporal Converbs.

Nepali pure temporal converbs contain the participle forms of verbs ending in "-unjel", "-injel". These converbs also indicate simultaneous actions. Complex sentences with temporal converb give the meaning that the action in the matrix clause continues till the time that the action in the sub-clause comes to an end. For example:

i) ma na-aa-unjel u: ghar-maa bas-yo.

He stayed at home until I came

In this example, the action in the main clause "staying at home" continues till the action expressed in the subclause happens, that is "coming".

ii) khaa-injel hataar na-gar-a.

Do not hurry while eating.

The examples above show that Nepali pure temporal clauses are translated into English as time adverbial clauses and most of them change into finite clauses.

3.6 Complex Converbs

The term 'complex' itself refers to the combination of two or more than two elements. In our context of the converbs in Nepali language, if two or more than two basic converbs are combined together they are called the complex converbs. Such a job is known as reduplicating in the context of word-building or 'word formation' in English. Bhattarai (1996) calls this process as reduplicating and Quirk & Greenbaum (1990) call such words as re-duplicative which are under the topic of word-formation (448). Such examples are see-saw, goody-goody, din-din, ding-dong, tick-tock etc, but these are not the converbs in English. They only give us the way of duplicating words in other languages.

In English language there are only a few such words, but in Nepali language there are many more such reduplicative words in verb forms and can work as converbs. They have their different meanings according to the context of the sentence. On the basis of their meanings, Nepali complex converbs can be grouped into two sub-types which can be shown in the table below:

Table No. 4
Complex Con-verbs

S.No.	Functions	First forms	Second Forms
1	Simultaneous	Stem+ <u>ee</u>	Stem+ee
2	Sequential	Stem <u>daa/taa</u>	Stem+ <u>daa/dai</u> (or <u>taa/tai</u>)

3.6.1 The Complex Simultaneous Converbs

The Complex simultaneous converbs in the Nepali language can be introduced by the combinations, eg.

(Stem + ee) + (Stem + ee)

i) dulahee run-dai run-dai ghara ga-in . (Nepali)

The bride went home, weeping (English)

ii) julfikar ali bhutto, haans-ee haans-ee faanse-maa laTkana tayaar bha-e
(Nepali)

Julfikar Ali Bhutto became ready to hanged in the rope, laughing/smiling .
(English)

3.6.2 The Complex Sequential Converbs

The complex sequential converbs in Nepali take the (root verb daa/dai /taa/ tai) + (root verb+ taa/tai/daa /dai) form whereas they can be translated into a single word the present form of the verb in English, eg

i) bas-taa bas-taa pani thaaki-yo. (Nepali)

We became tired of sitting. (English)

ii) tyo bachchaa ghasrandai ghasran-dai uta ga-y. (Nepali)

The child went there, crawling . (English)

3.7 Derivative Converbs

It has already been mentioned that in terms of their basic form or their structures, there are five basic converbs. These forms can be extended by adding some postpositions to their ends. As a result there is a variation in the sense of the same basic converb. For example, the conditional converbs (stem+e), can give the meaning of the temporal, concessive, or spatial converbs when some postpositions are added to it. The difference between the pure converbs and the derivative converbs is that the

former contain no postpositions whereas the latter do. *Some* linguists points out that these derivative con-verbs contain postpositions that include adjectives, nouns, adverb, case ending, suffixes, suffix adverbs, etc. According them, there are various types of derivative converbs. The following are the derivative converbs of various types:

- | | |
|---|------------------------------|
| a) Purposive converbs | b) Conditional converbs |
| c) Reason Converbs | d) Temporal Converbs |
| e) Converbs of Quantity | f) Manner Converbs |
| g) Concessive Converbs | h) Converbs of Circumstances |
| i) Spatial Converbs (or Locative Converbs | |
| j) Comparative Converbs | |

- 1) Purpose Stem+na+laae/ko-laagi+ko-nimti (for the purpose of)
 Stem+ne+uddheshya-le/uddheshya li-era (with the purpose of)
- 2) Conditional

Stem+ne+bha-e/maa
 Stem+eko bha-e

Sharma (2061) has not made a separate study between the convertible clauses and the other adverbial clauses while Adhikari (2061) has made a distinct area of the study under the topic of "kriyaa-yogik asamaapikaa upa-vaakya" that is called the non-finite adverbial clause in English. According to Adhikari (2061:223-228) there are various types of non-finite adverbial clause in Nepali. Along with their English equivalent converbal clauses given by Adhikari are presented as follows:

- a) kaalik (Temproal)
- b) anukram bodhak (Sequential)
- c) sarta-bodhak (Conditional)
- d) viparit-bodhak (Oppositive)
- e) kaaraN-bhodhak (Causal)
- f) prayojan-bokhak (Purposive)
- g) paristhiti-bokhak (Situational)
- h) reeti-bodhak (Manner)
- i) parimaaN /maatra-bodhak (Quantitative)
- j) tulanaa-bodhak (Comparative)

3.7.1 Temporal Converb (TEMP)

According to Adhikari (2061), temporal converbs are introduced by using the following combinations:

- i) Stem + nu + bhandaa aghi / pachhi (before/after)
- ii) Stem + e + pachi/dekhi/upraanta/pichchhe (after/since/after/every time):
- iii) Stem + ne + bittikai/belaa-samma (as soon as, immediately)
- iv) Stem + unjel/injel

According to Adhikari (2061), the Nepali temporal converbs are introduced by adding "aghi, pachhi, saath, bittikai, dekhi, samma, upranta, pichchhe", etc to the "-nu, -ne, -e" inflections of the verbs or by using "-unjel/injel" suffixes at the end of the root of the verbs (223).

By giving the English translation of the postpositions into brackets, we can make has made a list of the converbs as follows:

- i) Stem + nu + bhandaa + aghi (before)
- ii) Stem + e + dekhi (since)
- iii) Stem + e + samma (till)
- iv) Stem + da + samma
- v) Stem + naa + saath (immediately)
- vi) Stem + ne + bittikai (as soon as, immediately)
- vii) Stem + ne + belaxamaa (while/in time)
- viii) Stem + e + upranta (after)
- ix) Stem + daa/dai (SIM)
- x) Stem + daa + kheri (while)
- xi) Stem + e + pichchhe (everytime)
- xii) Stem + e + dekhi (from/since)

For our convenience, the use of these post positions as given as follows:

- i) u: bha-t khaanu aghi : paanee khaanchha.
He drinks water before he eats rice.
- ii) ma bidaa-maa ghar-maa aa-e-dekhi yaheen baseko chhu.
I have stayed here since I came home on holiday.
- iii) unee-haru na-aa-e-samma parkh-i-raakha
Wait until they come.

iv) *ma na-sut-unjel* raam hind-e-na. .

Ram did not move/walk *until I'd slept*.

3.7.2 Sequential Converb (SEQ)

In connection with the definition of the sequential converb, Peterson (1999) defines thus:

The sequential converbs in Nepali the inflections like *-i* and *-e-ra* are used to join two or more cores (= predicate and its arguments) which are in a sequential temporal relationship to each other and the simultaneous converbs in *-dai* and *-da* are used to signal that the actions denoted by the various predicates occur simultaneously." (356).

Regarding the sequential converb, Peterson remarks, "In general, junctures resulting from the use of a sequential converb represent a special kind of "subordination", as it is generally the case that the scope of the mood, tense and illocutionary force of the matrix verb extends to the sequential converb as well." (356). Sequential converbs are introduced by using "*-era, -ee, -ikana*," at the end of the root form of the verbs as follows:

Stem + *era/ee/kana* (after + verb)

i) hari *bhaat khaa-era* viddhyalay jaa-nchha.

Having eaten rice, Hari goes to school.

The sentence can be translated as:

Hari ate rice and went to school.

ii) *haamee melaa her-era* 5 baje ghara phark-iyun.

Having observed the fair, we returned home at 5 o'clock

3.7.3 Conditional Converb

The conditional converbs in Nepali are introduced by adding "*-e/eko bha-e*" participial suffixes at the end of the root of the verb. For example:

Stem + *eko+ bhae*

Stem + *eko+khanDa+maa*

Stem + *e + maa*

Stem + *e + samma*

Stem + *e + dekhi*

i) *paDh-ne bha-e* bas-os.

*If * he (wants to) read, If &(he reads/studies), may he stay*

ii) *timee-le jaan-eko bha-e* bhana

Say if you know.

iii) una-le sodh-eko bhae maa bataa-un-then

If he asked, I would say. or I would say if he asked.

Sometimes such kinds of conditional converbs can take the following postpositional, -emaa,

-e-dekhi, -e-samma, etc.

Stem + e -maa/dekhi/samma.

i) If they came, my work would be finished.

uni-haru aa-e-maa mero kaam sak-in-thyo

3.7.4 Oppositive or Contrastive Converb (CONT)

The oppositive or contrastive converbs are introduced by using "-e + pani/taapni" postpositional suffixes at the end of the verbs, e.g.

i) Although someone has much wealth, he/she is/gets suffered.

dherai dhan bha-e pani dukhai paa-in-chha

ii) Although he laboured hard, Hari was not successful

nikai mihinet gare taapani hari safal bha-e-na

The contrastive converbs can also take the following inflectional suffixes after the verbs, e.g.:

Stem + e + pani

Stem + daa/taa + pani

Stem + era + pani

Stem + kana + pani

Sometimes they can be introduced by using "hundaahundai + pani" or "baabajud + pani" (*in spite of/dispite*).

i) barshaat-ka babajud tini-haru-le khel khel-e.

In spite of the rain, they played the game.

Somewhere the "-era" participle also can work as a causal converb, eg:

(ii) mero bhaai-sanga baajh-era shyaam ma-sanga ris-aa-yo.

Having quarrelled with my brother, Shyam became angry with me.

The relative pronouns also can be used in the sense of uncertainty in such contrastive converbal clauses without the use of their correlatives. Such relative pronouns are:

whatever, whichever, whoever, whatever, whenever, however, how much, how many, etc.

- i) jo-sukai bha-e-pani maa Daraa-un-di-na
Whoever else is I don't fear. or I don't fear whoever else is.

3.7.5 Causal or Reason Converb (REAS)

The causal converbs are introduced by using the following participles or the post positionals.

Stem + eko/ekaa/eki + le

Stem + eko/ekaa/eki + hunaale

Stem + eko/ekaa/eki + kaaraNale

Stem + nu-le / naa-le

Stem + daa/taa etc.

The English version of these postpositions can be used as "because", "as", "for", because of, etc.

- i) kaam na-gar-naa-le us-le khaana paa-e-na
He did not get to eat because he did not work.

The reason clause in English can be introduced initially and finally, but in Nepali they can only be introduced initially.

3.7.6 Purposive Converb (PUR)

The purposive converbial clauses are introduced by using "-na" inflectional suffix that is called "na type infinitive" by Pokharel (1999) in connection with the explanation of the 'Participial construction' in the verb of Nepali Language(190). The structure of the converbs can be identified with:

Stem+na

Stem+na+laaee

Stem+na+kaa laagi (for purpose of)

Stem+na+kaa nimti

Stem+na+bhanera

Stem+na+uddheshyale (with the purpose of)

Stem+ne+uddhesya li-era

Such clauses in the English language are joined with "to, in order to, so that, for the purpose of", etc.

- i) us-le lugaa siu-na mesin kin-yo
He bought a machine to sew clothes.
- ii) maile ghar-ko kharcha dhaan-na-kaa laagi nokaree gar-en.
I did a job in order to maintain the household expense.
I took a job in order to maintain the household expense.
- iii) seetaa paDh-na bhan-era kaaThmaanDu aa-ee
Sita came to Kathmandu so as to read.

3.7.7 Situational or Circumstantial Converb (CRMS)

The situational converbs in Nepali language are used to show the particular atmosphere or the situation of the main clause. such clauses are introduced by the following postpositionals, eg,

Stem+daa/taa+kheri

Stem+eko+belaa

Stem+eko+belaama

Stem+daa/hundi (hudai)

- i) paanch barsa pahile ma-i-le deekh-daa u: saan-ai thi-yo
When I saw him five years ago, he was quite small.
- ii) ghaara pugda raat par-i-sak eko thi-yo.
The night had already fallen while reaching home.

Such converbs resemble the temporal con-verbial clauses. In some circumstances, such clauses take "daa+kheri" or "dai+hundaa" are added to the stem of the verb such as

- iii) unee boldaa-kheri ashaadhyai haat hal-la-un-chhin.

She shakes her hands very much while speaking.

The duplicating types of compound verbs are used in the circumstantial converbal clauses to refer to that something else or the second action happened during the time of something occurring or going on. For example

Stem+daa/taa) + (stem+dai/tai)

- iv) haamee dauDandaa-dauDan-dai unee-haru-le bheT-i-haale.

They met us while we were running or They met us while running

The "maa" suffix is added to the inflections like "nu" and "na" in the verbs of the converbal clauses to refer to the circumstance of the subject matter or the topic.

For example:

Stem+nu+maa

Stem+na+maa

v) gaaun-maa viddhaalaya khul-eko-maa unee-haru dangan chh-an

They are quite surprised at being the school opened

Such sentences give the meaning of reasons.

Somewhere the following participial inflections also come after the root verbs,

eg,

Stem+i+kana

vi) yo kaam gar-i-kana ma ghara jaan-chhau.

I go home (after) doing this work

The "-maa" suffix is added to the participle "-dai/(tai)" the verbs to refer to the contrastive circumstance:

Stem+dai/tai+maa

vii) unee-haru aaundai-maa Dar-aa-unu pard-ai-na

We don't need to be afraid of their arrival or

We don't need to be afraid despite their arrival. or

We don't need to be afraid although they've arrived.

3.7.8 Converbial Clauses of Manner

The following participial inflections can be used to introduce the converbial clauses of manner. For example:

Stem+e+anusaar

Stem+e+mutaabik

Stem+e+bamojim

Stem+e+jasaree

Stem+e+jastai

Stem+e+jastai garee/garera

Stem+e+jasto

Stem+e+jasto garee/garera

Stem+dai/tai

Stem+era

Stem+ee

Stem+jhain

Stem+jhain garee/gerera

i) hari uphr-e jastai ma uphra-na sak-di-na

I cannot jump as well as Hari can(does)

ii) us-le didee-le bhan-e-jasto gar-yo

He did in the way his sister had told him.

iii) umaa geet gaa-un-dai nach-chhe

Uma dances singing songs. or Uma sings songs while dancing.

OR Uma dances while singing. or Uma dances and sings songs.

Such clauses also seem to introduce duration and they can be called as durative participles in the Nepali Language.

3.7.9 Quantitative Converbial Clauses (QUANT)

The quantitative converbial clauses in the Nepali language are introduced by the and "eko-jati" "-e+jati" participial inflections, e.g,

i) shyaam-le jan-e jati ma pani jan-da-chhu

I know as much as Shyam does.

ii) suntalaa lagaa-eko jati usa-ko jaggaa ho.

The land where oranges are planted is his land.

The land area in which oranges are planted is his land

As much area of land the as oranges are planted is his land.

3.7.10 Comparative Converbial Clauses (COMP)

The comparative converbial clauses seem to be introduced by the following inflectional suffixes:

Stem+nu+bhandaa/jasto/jastai

Stem+ne+bh/andaa/jasto/jastai

Stem+elp+bhandaa/jasto/jastai

Stem+e+bhandaa/jasto/jastai

Stem+na+bhandaa/jasto/jastai

Stem+e+jhai, etc.

i) ketaa-ketee-haru-laaee hapkaa-unu-bhandaa phakaa-u-nu parch.

We should persuade the children more than chide (the m).

ii) ramesh paDh-ne-bhandaa lekh-ne gar-chha

Ramesh writes more than he reads.

iii) u: paDhna-bhandaa khelna ruchaa-un-chha

He likes to play more than to read or

He likes playing more than reading.

He prefers playing to reading.

CHAPTER - FOUR

FINDINGS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

4.1 Background

This thesis is concerned mainly with adverbial clauses; therefore, the findings and recommendations are also concerned with the adverbial clauses. However, the recommendations will be beneficial to the grammar as a whole.

4.2 Findings

4.2.1 Similarities in Adverbial Clauses

1) On the basis of their structures, the adverbial clauses in English and Nepali have the following similarities

(a) In both languages, there are finite and non-finite adverbial clauses, e.g.

(in English)

- (i) The goat entered the pen, *jumping*. (Non-finite)
- (ii) *Having washed his clothes*, John went out. (Non-finite)
- (iii) He looks *as if he is sick*. (Finite)
- (iv) Nobody knows it *better than I do*. (Finite)

(in Nepali)

- (i) *saamsad bha-ekaale*, un-le gaaDee paa-e. (Non-finite)
- (ii) *jati-jati bhan-chhu*, uti-uti sabai-laaee de-oo (Finite)

(b) Both languages have converbal clauses, e.g.

(in English)

- (i) Celia ate her food, *sitting on the chair*.
- (ii) Lady Clare went to Lord Ronald, *followed by the doe*.
- (iii) *Having finished his work*, Holmes went out

(in Nepali)

- (i) gopal *ufran-dai* yataa aa-yo.
- (ii) tyo bachchaa *ghasr-era* hinDna thaal-yo

(c) In both languages, converbal clauses are introduced by participle forms of a verb e.g.

- (i) Gopal came here, *laughing*. (-ing participle)

- (ii) Let's go *shopping*. (-ing participle)
- (iii) Lady Clare went to Lord Ronald, *followed by the doe*. (-ed participle)
(in Nepali)
- (i) *bas-daa bas-daa*, thaak-iyo. (-daa+-daa participle)
- (ii) *bas-era*. paDha. (-era participle)
- (d) The purposive clauses are introduced by the use of infinitival form of a verb. (*to infinitive* in English and-na in Nepali.)
- (e). Both the languages have simple, compound and correlative subordinators, e.g.,
- i) Simple subordinators
- (in English):
- after, (al)though, as, because, before, if, however, like, since, that, etc.
- (in Nepali):
- aghi, agaaDi, ki, kheri, jo, je, jun, tak, dekhi, pachhi, pachhaDi, etc.
- ii) Compound subordinators
- (in English):
- in that, so that, in order that, such that, except that, for all that, save that, etc.
- (in Nepali):
- kinabhane, kinaki, jas-baaTa, jas-le gardaa, je-le, jo-sukai, etc.
- iii) Correlative subordinators
- (in English):
- if...then, al(though...yet/nevertheless, as...so, more/less/er...than,etc.
- (in Nepali):
- kati...bhane, kasari...bhane, kasari...jasari, etc.
- 2) From the functional point of view the adverbial clauses in both the languages have some similarities as stated below :
- a) The adverbial clauses modify the principle clauses by denoting time, place, manner, reason, etc, e.g.,
- (in English)
- (i) Strike the iron *while it is hot*. (Time)
- (ii) He ran so quickly *that he soon overtook me*. (Manner)
- (iii) *Although he is poor*, he is honest, (Contrast)
- (in Nepali)
- (i) *chhadke- maa parnale* us-ko jaagir ga-yo (Reason)

(ii) naaraa lagaoundai, vijaya julus aai pugyo. (Manner)

(iii) baanchi-rahe sansaar dekh-inchha (Condition)

b) The converbal clauses also function as adverbial clauses in both languages because they also modify the principle clause, e.g.

(i) The girl went there crawling. (English)

(ii) man laag-e jaa-oo. (Nepali)

c) In both languages one type of adverbial clause does not limit its meaning in its narrow area, but it has its coverage of different shades of meaning according to the context, e.g.

(i) jahaan maayaa devee-ko mandir chha, tyahaan gautam buddha janm-ekaa thi-ye

Gautam Buddha was born in the place where there is the temple of Maya Devi.

(ii) jahaan ahile baabaree masjid chha, tyahaan raam jaanaki-ko mandir thi-yo.

The temple of Ram Janaki was in the place where there is now the Babari mosque.

The first sentence gives the meaning of location and time. Similarly, the second sentence gives the meaning of time and contrast although the structure is almost similar to the first sentence.

4.2.2 Differences in Adverbial Clauses

1) From the structural and functional points of views, the adverbial clauses have the following different characteristics between these two languages:

a) The adverbial clauses in Nepali normally appear before or in between the main clauses but in English, the clauses can occur initially, medially (rare) or finally, e.g.

(in English)

(i) If you want to succeed, you should work hard.

(ii) He behaves me as if I am a stranger.

(iii) As time went on, (so) their hopes began to wane.

(iv) I left early to catch the train.

(v) Suddenly the creature reared up on its hind legs behind the bars teeth bared, jaws wide open, and started to scratch.

(in Nepali)

(i) tyo keTaa skul ga-e-na kinaki u: baramee thi-yo.

(ii) bachchaa, ghasr-era, hind-yo.

(iii) changa uDe-tira haawaa bag-eko chha.

b) Sometimes Nepali non-finite adverbial clauses can be changed into finite clauses in English after translation. For example:

(i) uth-era pr-aarthanaa gar-a (non-finite)

Stand up and pray. (finite)

(i) ma janme-ko ghar yahee ho (non-finite)

This is the house where I was born. (finite)

When we suppose the subject, the plural form of the verb is used. In this sense, the verb in English has been used as a finite verb. The converb "janmeko" has been translated as "was born" in which the "be" verb has been used in the past tense in the singular form "was", that is the finite verb.

c) There are only two types of converbs (-ing, and having-ed) in English, but in Nepali there are five basic, two complex and many other derivative converbs.

d) The verb less clauses in English can not be translated into Nepali without a verb, e.g.

(i) When ripe these apples will be delicious.

paakeko abasthaamaa tee syaaau-haru swaadilaa hune-chhan

(ii) With the tree now tall, we get more shade.

rukha ahile aglo bha-e-kole, haamee-le baDhi chhahaaree paau-nchhaun.

e) Sometimes the single adverbs of English give the meaning of two word phrases containing "noun + converb" or "adjective + converb" in the Nepali language, e.g.

(i) noisily = hallaa gar-era, halla gar-dai

(ii) carefully = hos gar-era

(iii) silently = shaanta bha-era

(iv) gently = bhalaadmi bha-era

(v) patiently = dhairyaa bha-era

f) The complex converbs of the Nepali language can also be translated into a single words into English , e.g.

(i) tee dulahee naanee run-dai run-dai aafnaa ghara ga-in, (Nepali)
The bride girl went to her groom's house, weeping. (English)

(ii) paDh-daa paDh-daa thaak-i-yo
We got tired of reading.

g) The complex converbs of the Nepali language can also be translated into "while clauses" in the English language, e.g.

(i) Saddam was announced the capital punishment while he was in prison.
(English)

jel-maa chhandaa chandai saddaam-laaee mrityu danDa-ko sajayan sunaa-
iyo. (Nepali)

h) There are not complex converbs in English, but Nepali has two complex converbs. For example, there are pure (or basic), compound and derivational converbs in Nepali. Besides these, Pokharel (1999:188) has shown the permutation of vectors in his essay "Compound Verbs in Nepali". One of such permutation of verbs is:

khai- dii- saki- hAlne- garnu – pari –raheko huna-sak-cha
1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 (Aux)

i) In Nepali, purposive clauses are converbal clauses but in English they are not converbal clauses. For example:

He bought a machine to sew clothes.(English)
us-le lugaa siu-na mesin kin-yo (Nepali)

4.2.3 The Areas of Difficulties

From the study, we can say that the following are the areas of difficulties in the context of teaching and learning of adverbial clauses in English and Nepali:

- i. The clauses having compound verbs in Nepali are more difficult for the learners of Nepali speaking English because the sequence of Vectors verbs in Nepali can be permuted. Such permutations result in different shades of meaning comparable to the change in meaning due to topicalization. In this sense, we can say that the derivative converbs in Nepali are more difficult than others converbs. For the learners mentioned above.

- ii. On account of the complexity of meaning, Quirk and Green Baum (1980) make their comment on the topic of "Structural 'deficiencies' of non-finite clauses" thus, "The absence of the finite verb from non-finite clauses means that they have no distinctions of person, number, or modal auxiliary. Together, with the frequent absence of a subject, this suggests their value as a means of syntactic compression . . ." (311)

4.3 RECOMMENDATIONS

On the basis of findings listed above, the researcher recommends the following pedagogical implications:

- 1) The adverbial clauses having similar characteristics in both the languages should be taught prior to those having dissimilar characteristics in both languages (English and Nepali). For example, there are finite and non-finite adverbial clauses; there are simple, compound and correlated subordinators, and so on.
- 2) First of all, teachers should provide their students the knowledge about the functions of the adverbial clauses in the sentences. In order to accomplish this work, the teachers should provide the students plenty of examples of sentences having noun clauses, adjective clauses and adverbial clauses. This helps the students to link their ideas about their previous knowledge of the complex sentences having noun clauses and adjective clauses. This might contribute for the students in learning from known to unknown.
- 3) The use of simple subordinators should be taught first, and the use of compound and co-relative subordinators afterwards one after the other. This is the way of teaching from simple to complex.
- 4) Then the discussion might be conducted on the position of adverbial clauses, because the positions of adverbial clauses differ from one language to another language.
- 5) The number of converbs in English and Nepali differs; therefore, more attention should be paid to this factor while conducting the teaching and learning activities.
- 6) In both languages some types of adverbial clause do not limit their meaning within their narrow sense but produce various shades meaning being comprised of two categories or more than two e.g.

(i) jahaan maayaa devee-ko mandir chha, tyahaan gautam buddha janm-ekaa thi-ye

Gautam Buddha was born in the place where there is the temple of Maya Devi.

(ii) jahaan ahile baabaree masjid chha, tyahaan raam jaanaki-ko mandir thi-yo.

The temple of Ram Janaki was in the place where there is now the Babari mosque.

The first sentence gives the meaning of location and time. Similarly, the second sentence gives the meaning of time and contrast although the structure is almost similar to the first sentence. Therefore, language should be taught not in isolation, but in accordance with the context.

- 7) As stated above, there is a semantic complexity of the non-finite clause and verbless clause in the English language, therefore, the possibility of various shades of meaning of such structures is to be explained not only for the learners of English speaking Nepali as a second or foreign language, but even for the native speakers of English.
- 8) Similarly, the more attention should be given to derivative converbs in the Nepali language.
- 9) Finally, it is also to be remembered that not a single method is 100% correct, therefore, it is up to the teacher who reflects the approaches or methods and techniques of teaching English or Nepali as a second or foreign language, according to his/her beliefs, needs, experiences and circumstances.

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