

# Structure of Nepali Grammar

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## Abstract

*This document is an attempt to provide some basic insight of the structure of Nepali Grammar. The report deals with the writing system of Nepali introducing the alphabets and symbols in usage. Similarly the form classes or parts of speech of Nepali is also discussed followed by a detailed discussion on the phrase structure of the Nepali Grammar. Special Characteristics of the Nepali Grammar are well illustrated wherever necessary. The report is concluded by a brief overview of the sentential structure of the Nepali Language.*

## 1. Background

Nepali is the national language of Nepal. It is also a medium of a uniform, nationwide, educational system, public administration and mass communication. The most recent official census conducted by the government of Nepal in 2001 reports that there are around 20 million Nepali speakers in Nepal, out of which, it is spoken as the mother tongue by 11 million people, and as a lingua franca by others. Nepali is also spoken widely in the neighboring countries of Nepal like India, Bhutan and Myanmar. The Indian Constitution has recognized Nepali as a major language of India [1].

In this regard, despite the fact that the diaspora of Nepali speakers is comprised of more than 45 million people in Nepal and elsewhere, the Nepali language still continues to remain a underresourced language. Things seeming to be a matter to be taken granted for other languages like the availability of the digitized text corpora, digitized dictionaries, Natural Language, Image and Speech Processing Applications like the Spell-Checker and the Thesaurus, Grammar Checker, Machine Translation Systems, Optical Character Recognition Systems, Handwriting Recognition Systems, Text-To-Speech, Speech Recognition Systems, Speech-To-Text etc. are either in the early

stages of development or totally new for the Nepali language. There are several reasons for the low work profile of the Nepali Language in Computational Linguistics, the first one primarily being the lack of expertise and among several others, the lack of a sound research work required in the above activities. Other issues related to funds for the research and development support, the computer scientists and the linguists limiting themselves to their respective domains of interest thus creating a vacuum in the required collaboration are equally vital for the lagging behind of the Nepali language in producing the invaluable resources of computational linguistics.

This report is an attempt from the side of a computer scientist to get into the study of the basic structure of the Nepali Grammar. The results or findings of the study are believed to be very much substantial in the Spell Checker, Thesaurus, Grammar Checker, Machine Translation Systems, Optical Character Recognition Systems development for Nepali. Various resources available on the Nepali Grammar have been duly consulted while preparing the report. The resources consulted have been listed in the bibliography section of this report.

## 2. Introduction

Nepali is an Indo-Aryan language. It takes its root from Sanskrit, the classical language of India. Nepali was previously known as *Khas Kura* and the language of the Khasa kingdom, which ruled over the foothills of current Nepal during the 13th and 14th centuries. The history of the usage of Nepali in writing dates as back as the 12th century AD. Nepali is written with the Devanagari alphabet, which developed from the Brahmi script in the 11th century AD. Linguistically, Nepali is most closely related to Hindi. A large proportion of the technical vocabulary is shared by Hindi and Nepali. Even the script is more or less the same for both languages and differing with each other in only a few minor details. [2, 3, 6, 7].

## 2.1. Writing System of the Nepali

Nepali is written in the Devanagari script. The same script is used for Hindi, Marathi and Sanskrit. There are 11 vowels and 33 consonants in the Nepali language. The script being phonetic in nature, and hence the pronunciation closely resembles the writing system. The script is written from left to right. There is no provision of capital and small letters in the script [1,6,7]. The alphabets are written in two separate groups, namely the vowels and the consonants, as shown in the table below.

Vowels	अ,आ,इ,ई,उ,ऊ,ऋ,ए,ऐ,ओ,औ
Consonants	क,ख,ग,घ,ङ,च,छ,ज,झ,ञ,ट,ठ,ड,ढ,ण,त,थ,

**Table 1. Alphabets of the Nepali Writing System**

The three letters क्ष, त्र and ज्ञ are regarded as special clusters and are dealt with separately from the consonants. We would deal with their formation in a later section.

In addition to the alphabets and letters mentioned above, the following signs and symbols exist in the written Nepali as shown in the table below. A brief description on each of the symbol follows.

Candrabindu	ँ
Anusvar or Cirabindu	ं
Vowel signs	ा, ि,ी,ु,ू,ृ,े,ै,ो,ौ
Visarga	:

**Table 2. Additional symbols in the Nepali language**

### 2.1.1. Candrabindu and Anusvar or Sirabindu

These two signs are the marks of nasalization in the Devanagari Script. Anusvar or Candrabindu is generally used to indicate the nasalization of a vowel [7], e.g.

सँग, pronounced as "saga" and meaning "with"

गाउँ, pronounced as "gaau" and meaning "village"

In Nepali, sirabindu is often used interchangeably with the anusvar, e.g.

सँग, pronounced as "saga" or संग, pronounced as "sanga", both meaning "with"

गाउँ, pronounced as "gaau" or गाँ, pronounced as "gaaun", both meaning "village"

The Sirabindu in Nepali is inconsistently used to represent the nasal stops that are homoorganic with the adjacent stops, eg.

अङ्क, pronounced as "angka" or अंक, pronounced as "anka", both meaning "number".

अञ्चल, pronounced as "anchal" or अंचल, pronounced as "anchal", both meaning "zone"

### 2.1.2. Vowel Signs

The vowels in Table 1 and the vowel signs listed in Table 2 are often called the **free forms of vowels** and the **conjunct forms of vowels** respectively.

The free forms of the vowels are written when the single vowels constitute the syllables. On the other hand, the conjunct forms of vowels or the vowel signs are written when the vowels are preceded by consonants to constitute Consonant Vowel (CV) syllabic structure [7].

The association between free forms and conjunct forms of the vowels is shown in the table below:

Free Forms	अ	आ	इ	ई	उ	ऊ	ऋ	ए	ऐ	ओ	औ
Vowel Signs	ा	ि	ी	ु	ू	ृ	े	ै	ो	ौ	

**Table 3. Association between free form of vowels and vowel signs or conjunct forms**

Note that the vowel symbol अ, has no corresponding conjunct form, which means its presence is indicated by nothing but the shape of a bare constant symbol [7].

The text below illustrates the order of the writing system of some of the vowel signs.

The vowel sign ि is written before the consonant after which it is pronounced:

बि = ि before the consonant ब

गि = ि before the consonant ग

The vowel sign ी follows the consonant:

सी = ी after the consonant स

The vowel signs ु and ू are written at the foot of the consonant:

लु = ल + ु

नू = न + ू

When joined to र, the vowels ु and ू are written as: रु and रू. The use of the vowel signs in word formation is illustrated below:

द+ि+द+ी =दिदी, pronounced as "Didi" and meaning "Elder sister"

### 2.1.3. Visarga

The symbol : known as visarga occurs only in a few loanwords from Sanskrit. In most cases, it is disregarded in pronunciation [6]. Examples include, □□□□:, pronounced "praya" and meaning "usually or mostly"

□□:□, pronounced "dukkha" and meaning "pain"

### 2.1.4. Viram or halanta

Before we try to explain about viram or halanta, we need to briefly throw light on the background of its usage. Simple consonant characters represent not "letters" but syllables containing the vowel □. This vowel is known as the inherent vowel. Thus the character □ represents the syllable "ga" and not merely the consonant "g".

The inherent vowel □ is cancelled by placing the sign "□", known as viram or halanta at the foot of the consonant character. Thus □□□ is pronounced "bas" as opposite to □□ "basa". The viram indicates that the inherent vowel in the consonant is not to be pronounced [6].

With the viram or halanta discussed, it would be appropriate to discuss on the formation of the special clusters, क्ष, त्र and ज्ञ. The three special clusters are formed by the combination of the other consonants with the viram or halanta playing a significant role in the combination as shown below:

क्ष = क + ् + ष

त्र = त + ् + र

ज्ञ = ज + ् + ञ

There are some other clusters as well like श्र and च but right now have not been considered as clusters officially, though their formation follows the same procedure as above:

□□□ = □ + □ + □

□□□ = □ + □ + □

### 2.1.5. Vowels

Vowels, with one exception, each have two symbols [6]:

- vowel character – used in initial position and after other vowels, or when the vowel is isolated.
- vowel signs – used after consonants

The vowel character आ, aa has the corresponding vowel sign ा

The word aama is then written आमा, the initial vowel being represented by the vowel character आ, and the second vowel by the vowel sign ा, because it occurs after the consonant character म. The addition of the vowel sign cancels the inherent vowel of the consonant.

### 2.1.6. Conjunct Consonants

When two or more consonants occur together without an intervening vowel, e.g. स्छ in बस्छ, baschha (sits) or न्छ in मान्छे, manchhe (man), the combination is written as a single unit, known as a conjunct consonant.

In these two conjunct consonants, the elements (half characters preceding the full characters) are easily recognizable as parts of the consonant characters स and न respectively.

However, the various elements of some conjunct consonants are not so easily recognizable. When □ precedes another consonant, the 'ref' sign is placed directly over the consonant character to which it is joined. If part of that character extends above the top line, the sign is placed to the right of it [6].

For eg. गर्छ, गर्दैन

Some consonants have no special conjunct form. The junction is then effected by means of the viram, छोड्नु, the inherent vowel in ड being cancelled by the viram. In a compound word like (सगरमाथा) comprising of सगर and माथा, the consonant junction is again effected by the viram.

The consonants are divided into three groups depending upon their formation:

#### 2.1.6.1. Regular conjunct forms of the consonant symbols

The regular conjunct forms of the consonant symbols are written in three ways [7]:

- The first way of writing a conjunct consonant symbol is the one in which the first consonant's symbol is written in half-shape, and the second consonant's symbol is written in full-shape.

For e.g.

पक्का,मुख्य,योग्य,नाघ्यो,बच्चा,मज्जा,ज्याला

- The second way of writing a conjunct consonant symbol is the one in which the first consonant symbol is written full-shape, and

the second consonant symbol is written half-shape, or is at least modified.

For e.g.

इयाउ,छयाप्नु, ट्याम्को,ठ्याम्म,जँइयाहा,ढ्याम्म etc.

- The third way of writing a consonant conjunct symbol is the one in which the second consonant symbol in the (Consonant Consonant CC clusters is written half.

For e.g.

गाग्रो, तिघा,प्रक्ष,ब्राम्हण etc.

#### 2.1.6.2. Irregular conjunct forms of the consonant symbols

Following are the irregular conjunct forms of different consonant symbols; they are listed in the Devanagari alphabetical order [7]:

भक्त,अक्षर,मज्जा,ज्ञान etc.

Additional symbols: bindu, anusvar and visarga. The Devanagari writing system also uses additional symbols which are called bindu, anusvar and visarga(all Sanskrit names).

With the above discussion on the basic writing system of Nepali, we now move to the form classes (lexicon) and the phrase, clause and sentence structures (grammar).

### 3. Form Classes (Lexicon)

The Nepali Grammar consists of both the inflected and the uninflected forms, sometimes also called as open and closed classes as well. These constitute the parts of speech of the Nepali Grammar. The open class include noun, adjective, verb and adverb whereas pronoun, coordinating conjunction, subordinating conjunction, postposition, interjection, vocative and nuance particle come under the closed class.

#### 3.1. Nouns

Nouns inflect for number (singular and plural) and for the seven cases as listed in the table 4 below. They

do not inflect for gender (masculine vs. Feminine). Nepali nouns show inflectional contrasts for singular vs. Plural, e.g. मानिस(man -singular), मानिसहरू (men-plural) [7].

Cases	Singular	Plural
Nominative (Nm)	-	हरू
Accusative (Ac)	लाई	हरूलाई
Instrumental (In)	ले	हरूले
Dative(Dt)	लाई	हरूलाई
Ablative(Ab)	बाट	हरूबाट
Genitive (Gn)	को	हरूको
Locative(Lc)	मा	हरूमा

**Table 4. The number and case suffixes of nouns**

### 3.1.1. Function of noun

The nouns function as the heads in the noun phrase (NP) structures. They also function as dependents of postpositions (pp) in the postpositional phrases (pp) [7].

### 3.1.2. Dependents of noun

The dependents of noun are determiners, i.e. demonstratives, specifiers, and modifiers, i.e. adjectives, numerals and the dependent nominals [7].

### 3.1.3. Lexical morphology of nouns

The most frequent noun-forming derivational suffixes are याइ,आइ. [7]. For eg. मूख्याइ,हसाँइ, हिडाइ.

### 3.1.4. Special characteristics of Nepali nouns

Here we deal with some of the special characteristics of Nepali nouns [6].

- The plural suffix -हरू when added to nouns, a plural of the noun is formed. For eg., राजा, king(sing.), राजाहरू, kings(pl.)
- The demonstratives यो and त्यो change to यी and

ती for plural nouns. For eg., यो मानिस, This man(sing.), यी मानिसहरू, These men (pl.)

- When preceded by a numeral, the noun usually remains singular. For eg., दुई दिन, 'two days' पाँच वर्ष, 'five years'.
- When the noun is qualified by धेरै 'much, many' the addition of the extra suffix -हरू is optional and in spoken Nepali is often omitted. For eg., धेरै किताब, 'many books' or धेरै किताबहरू, 'many books'.
- In written and sometimes in spoken Nepali -को changes to -को before plural nouns. In this respect it behaves like an adjective: For eg.,

नेपालीहरूको मानिसहरू  
men of Nepal  
राजको किताबहरू the  
son's books  
रामको बहिनीहरू  
Ram's sisters

## 3.2. Adjectives

Adjectives end in -o and inflect for gender (masculine vs. feminine), and number (singular vs. plural). Inflections of adjectives is illustrated in the table 5 below [7]:

Singular number Masculine	Feminine	Plural number Masculine/Feminine
राम्रो	राम्री	राम्रा
बाठो	बाठी	बाठा
लाटो	लाटी	लाटा
कालो	काली	काला
मोटो	मोटी	मोटा
सानो	सानी	साना
ठुलो	ठुली	ठुला

Singular number Masculine	Feminine	Plural number Masculine/Feminine
बुढो	बुढी	बुढा
तरूनो	तरूनी	तरूना

**Table 5. Inflections of adjectives**

Nepali also includes a set of uninflected adjectival forms borrowed from Hindi or Sanskrit, which show the same distribution and functions as adjectives, e.g.

असल केटो      असल केटी  
असल केटाहरू      असल केटीहरू

### 3.2.1. Function of adjectives

The adjectives function as the heads of the adjective phrase (AdjP) structures. The AdjP's also function as pre-head modifiers in the noun phrases (NP) structures [7], e.g. बिरामी मानिस ।

### 3.2.2. Dependents of adjectives

The dependents of the adjectives are quantifiers which quantify the adjectives, by showing degrees of intensity including the comparative and superlative forms [7].

### 3.2.3. Lexical Morphology

There are several derivational suffixes that mark the adjectives in Nepali. The suffix इलो derives adjectives from nouns and verbs [7], for eg.

रस+इलो=रसिलो  
हाँस्+इलो=हाँसिलो  
मल+इलो=मलिलो

### 3.2.4. Special characteristics of Nepali adjectives

Here we deal with some of the special characteristics of Nepali adjectives [6].

i) Adjectives always precede the noun they qualify:

For eg., पुरानो मठ, the/an old temple  
ठूलो सहर, the/ a big city  
ठूलो फिल्म, the/ a good film

ii) The demonstrative adjectives are: यो 'this' and त्यो 'that'. For eg. यो किताब, this book, त्यो देश, that country यो बालक, this boy, त्यो महिला, that woman.

iii) The possessive adjectives मेरो 'my', तिम्रो 'timro', हाम्रो 'our', like all other adjectives precede the noun they qualify. For eg., मेरो घर छ। My house is there. हाम्रो देश नेपाल छ। Our country is Nepal.

iv) In written and occasionally in the spoken language, adjectives ending in -o change their endings to -a before a plural noun. For eg., पुरानो मठहरू Old temples  
ठूलो सहरहरू My sons ठूलो सहरहरू Big cities

v) In Nepali there are a number of words for 'good'.

- प्यो, though strictly speaking means 'pleasing to the eye', 'beautiful', is now used in most senses of the English 'good'.
- स्वादिलो means 'good to the taste' and is only used for food and drink.
- राम्रो means 'of good quality' or 'morally good'. राम्रो देखिने मान्छे। He's a good-looking man राम्रो मान्छे। He's a good man (ref. to character) राम्रो स्वादिलो। The water tastes good. राम्रो पानी। The water is good (for drinking)
- राम्रो and its emphatic form, i.e. stressing on the emphasis राम्रो again refers to quality: राम्रो राम्रो राम्रो। That hotel is good. राम्रो राम्रो राम्रो। The film is fairly good.

vi) Repetition of an adjective indicates plurality: For eg. त राम्रो राम्रो राम्रो राम्रो राम्रो राम्रो। There are all kinds of good things in the shop. It should be, however, noted that especially the

reduplicated forms लघु 'small', and ठूलो 'big' which always have the plural ending ठूलो ठूलो। In the river there are lots of little fish. ठूलो ठूलो ठूलो। In India there are many big cities.

ठूलो, ठूलो, ठूलो), which is occasionally used with nouns denoting females. Thus:

ठूलो ठूलो my wife  
ठूलो ठूलो an old woman  
ठूलो ठूलो Ram's daughter

vii) Comparison of adjectives is effected by means of the postpositions -ठूलो 'than'.

• Comparative

ठूलो ठूलो ठूलो ठूलो।  
।  
Calcutta is bigger than Delhi.

ठूलो ठूलो ठूलो ठूलो।  
ठूलो ठूलो ठूलो।  
These vegetables are not as nice as those vegetables.

ठूलो ठूलो ठूलो ठूलो।  
ठूलो ठूलो।  
Your house is more beautiful than mine.

• Superlative

This is effected by means of the phrase ठूलो ठूलो 'than all':

ठूलो ठूलो ठूलो ठूलो।  
ठूलो ठूलो ठूलो ठूलो।  
Ram is the cleverest boy in the school (lit. 'than all clever student')

ठूलो ठूलो ठूलो ठूलो।  
ठूलो ठूलो ठूलो ठूलो।  
Kathmandu is the biggest city in ('of') Nepal.

The adjective ठूलो 'all', 'every' usually takes a singular noun:

ठूलो ठूलो ठूलो ठूलो।  
Every shop in the city is closed.

viii) Questions may be asked by using an interrogative word like ठूलो 'where?', ठूलो 'what?', ठूलो 'Who?' ठूलो 'Which?'. Note that ठूलो is an adjective. ठूलो ठूलो? 'in which country', ठूलो ठूलो? 'which book?', ठूलो ठूलो? 'which sort?'

ix) Adjectives ending in ठूलो and the postposition -ठूलो have a feminine singular form in -ठूलो (e.g.

The use of a feminine verb with a feminine noun is obligatory:

ठूलो ठूलो ठूलो ठूलो।  
ठूलो ठूलो?

Where is Ram's wife?

ठूलो ठूलो ठूलो ठूलो।  
My little sister is in the temple.

ठूलो ठूलो ठूलो ठूलो।  
ठूलो? ठूलो ठूलो ठूलो।

Where is your wife? She is at home.

Note: ठूलो 'of you', 'your'

Feminine forms, though occasionally employed in spoken Nepali, are largely a feature of the written language.

मेरो कोट उसको (कोट) जस्तो छ।  
My coat is like his (coat).

3.3. Verbs

Verbs in Nepali inflect to show contrasts for the first, second and third persons, singular and plural numbers, masculine and feminine gender of a subject in third person singular and tense (present, past and future), for person:

जान्छु, जान्छ, जान्छन्, जान्छे, जानेछु

The verbs also inflect to show contrasts of the grades of honorifics in second and third persons, e.g.

जान्छस्(LGH), जान्छौं(MGH), जानुहुन्छ(HGH).

The verbs also inflect for infinitive, e.g. जानु, जान for perfective participle, e.g. गएको, जाने, जादा, गएर

The verbal inflections or verbal inflectional suffixes indicate that there are at least three levels of honorifics reflected in everyday spoken Nepali [7].

### 3.3.1. Function of verbs

The verbs function as the head of the clause structure. As heads of the clause structure, verbs stand either alone or in construction with various types of complements, e.g. Direct object, object complement and subject complements, adverbial complements, and optional adverbial adjuncts [7].

### 3.3.2. Dependents of verbs

Verbs show various dependents called complements which subclassify them into three main types: (transitive, equational and intransitive). Transitive verbs take direct objects as complements, equational verbs take subject complements as dependents; and intransitive verbs are marked by the absence of either direct object or subject complements.

Verbs, as heads of the clausal structures, also cooccur with indirect dative complements (dependents) such as adverbial complements, adverbial adjuncts and adverbial disjuncts [7].

### 3.3.3. Lexical Morphology

The verbs have simple or compound stems, marked by the infinitive suffix -नु when they are cited in the dictionary, e.g. खानु, लाउनु, सुत्नु, रूनु, कराउनु etc. The forms खा, ला, सुत्, रू are simple stems and नु marks their citation forms. In compound verb stems, the first stem is suffixed with इ and the second verb stem दि. Then follows the citation form marker नु. Verbs derived from nouns and adjectives are marked by the derivational suffix -आउ, e.g. रोग (ना), रोगाउनु (क्रि). The derivational suffix आउ also marks the causative verb stems [7], e.g. गर्नु/गराउनु

### 3.3.4. Special Characteristics of Nepali Verbs

Here we deal with some of the special characteristics of Nepali verbs [6].

i) The third person singular forms □ and □□ both mean 'is'. The difference between them is that,

generally speaking, □ locates (i.e. indicates where someone or something is) and □□ defines (i.e. indicates how. Who or what someone or something is). The verb usually comes at the end of the sentence.

For eg.,

□□□□□ □□□□□ □ ?

Where is the book? (□ locates)

□□□ □□□□□□□ □□

The pen is good. (□□ defines)

□□□□ □□□□□□□ □

The servant is there. (□ locates)

□□□□ □□□□□□□ □□ □□ ?

Who is that man? (□□ defines)

ii) □ is often used in contexts where according to the above rule □□ would be expected. For instance, it would be quite correct to say □□□ □□□□□□□ □ without any real difference being made to the sense. In certain idiomatic expressions like □□□ □ 'it's all right', □□ would infact be incorrect. In statements, therefore, □ is often used in place of □□ to define. In questions asking for a definition (usually with □□ 'what?' and □□ 'Who?') □□ is invariably used. Thus in the question □□□□□□□ □□□□ □□ □□? 'What is your name?' □ would be incorrect.

In spoken Nepali, the same sentence may be expressed:

□□□□□□□□□□□ □□□□ □□□□□ □।

iii) Nepali verbs have special negative forms. The negative forms corresponding to □ and □□ are □□□ and □□□□ respectively. The plural negative forms are □□□□□ and □□□□□□ respectively.

For eg.,

□□□□ □□□□□ □□□□ □□□।

My book is not here.

□□□□ □□□□□□□ □□□□□ □□□□।

That man is not a Brahmin.

□□□□ □□□□□□□ □□□□□□□ □□□□□।

My sons are not at school.

□□ □□□□□□□□ □□□□□□ □□□□□□□।

These women are not Nepalis.



- iv) The third person singular verb रहेछ is used in place of छ and हो implying that a fact has just been discovered or that it was contrary to what had been expected. It may often be translated 'Oh, I see that ...is'. रहेछ is frequently used with the particle पो.

For eg.,

मेरो किताब तिम्रो कोठामा रहेछ।  
Oh, I see that my book is in your room.

त्यो होटेल महँगो पो रहेछ।  
No, infact that hotel is expensive.

The negative form is रहेनछ:

मेरो खल्तीमा केही पनि रहेनछ।  
I find that I have nothing in my pocket.

त्यो गाउँमा चियापान रहेनछ।  
It seems that there is no teashop in that village.

The last sentence may also be idiomatically expressed:

त्यो गाउँमा चियापसल छैन रहेछ।

- v) The Nepali verb has several infinitives. The infinitive by which the verb is referred to in dictionaries ends in the suffix -नु. Thus गर्नु 'to do', आउनु 'to come', जानु 'to go'. As noted earlier, the verbs छ and हो share a common infinitive हुनु 'to be'.
- vi) The Nepali verb has several infinitives. The infinitive by which the verb is referred to in dictionaries ends in the suffix -नु. Thus गर्नु 'to do', आउनु 'to come', जानु 'to go'. As noted earlier, the verbs छ and हो share a common infinitive हुनु 'to be'.

- vii) The Primary Base of the verb, to which suffixes

Group Infinitive	Primary Base
a) □□□□□ बस्नु	□□□ to do बस् to sit, to stay
b) □□□□ जानु दिनु उभिनु	□□ to eat जा to go दि to give उभि to stand
c) □□□□ रूनु	□□ to wash रू to weep
d) □□□□□□□ दुहुनु	□□□□□ to forget दुहु to milk
e) □□□□ पठाउनु पिउनु	□□ to come पठाउ to send पिउ to drink

are added to form certain tenses and participles, is obtained from the infinitive by dropping the suffix -नु as shown below:

Nepali verbs are then divided into five groups according to the nature of their primary base:

- Base ending in a consonant: गर्, बस्
- Base ending in the vowels-आ, इ: खा, जा, दि
- Base of one syllable ending in the vowel -उ: धु, रू
- Base of more than one syllable ending in the vowels -अ, उ: बिस, दुहु
- Base ending in the vowels आउ, इउ: पठाउ, पिउ

Verbs belonging to the last three groups c, d and e also have a secondary base.

The Secondary Base of the verbs belonging to group (c) is formed by changing the Primary Base vowel -u

to -o. That of verbs belonging to groups (d and (e) is formed by dropping the final vowel of the Primary Base. Thus:

Infinitive	Primary Base	Secondary Base
c) धुनु	धु	धो
d) बिसनु दुहनु	बिस दुह	बिस दुह
e) आउनु पिउनु	आउ पिउ	आ पि

**Table 8. Formation of the Secondary Base of verbs**

The group (b) verb जानु (Primary Base जा) has an irregular Secondary Base ग. The personal suffixes of the Simple Past Tense, which are added to the

Primary Base of Verbs belonging to groups (a) and (b) and to the Secondary Base of Verbs belonging to groups (c),(d) and (e) are as follows:

Pronoun	Affirmative	Negative
□	- □□	- □□□
□□	- □□□	- □□□□
□, □□□□, □ □	- □□	- □□
□□□□ (- □□□)	- □□□	□□□□
□□□□ (- □□□)	- □□□	□□□□
□□□ (- □□□)	- □	□□□□

**Table 9. Personal suffixes of the Simple Past Tense**

The HGH forms of the Simple Past Tense have the suffixes -भयो (affirm.) and भएन(neg.) added to the infinitive. The subject of a transitive verb in the imple

Pronoun	Affirmative	Negative
□	-□	□□
□□□	-□□□	□□□□

Past  
Tense  
always

s takes the postposition-ले. The Simple Past Tenses of गर्नु (transitive) and आउनु (intransitive) are thus:

a) □□□□□	Affirmative	Negative
□□□□	□□□□	□□□□ □
□□□□□	□□□□□	□□□□□ □□
□□□□	□□□□□	□□□□□
□□□□□□	□□□□□□	□□□□□ □□
□□□□□□	□□□□□□	□□□□□ □□
□□□□, □□□□□□ □	□□□	□□□□□ □□
□□□□□□□, □□□□□□	□□□□□□ □□	□□□□□ □□□□

**Table 10. Simple Past Tenses of गर्नु (transitive) and आउनु (intransitive)**

(b) □□□□	Affirmative	Negative
□	□□□	□□□□
□□	□□□□	□□□□□
□	□□□	□□□
□□□□	□□□□	□□□□□
□□□□	□□□□	□□□□□
□□□ (- □□□)	□□	□□□□□
□□□□□, □□□□	□□□□□□ □	□□□□□□ □□

It should be noted that when the verb is transitive, the pronouns take the postposition-ले. Note that म and तँ with -ले become मैले and तैले.

Third person forms have the following optional feminine suffixes.

**Table 11. Third Personal forms and the feminine suffixes**

त्यो गई She went  
मेरीबहिनीले गरिन।  
My sister did not do.  
तिनी आइन्।  
She (MGH) came.  
यिनले धोइनन्।  
She (MGH) did not wash.

The Simple Past Tense denotes action completed at some time in the past.

पोहोर साल म नेपाल गएँ।  
Last year, I went to Nepal.

Note: पोहोर साल or simply पोहोर 'last year'

तपाईंको छोरा कहिले आयो? अस्ति आयो।  
When did your son come?

He came the other day. अस्ति strictly means 'the day before yesterday', but is frequently used loosely in the sense of 'the other day'. अस्तिको preceding the days of the week means 'last' अस्तिको बिहिवार म घरै बसेँ।

Last Thursday, I stayed home. गएको means 'last' in all contexts. गएको महिना पानी परेन। It did not rain last month.

In written Nepali गत is used for 'last'. Thus गत बिहिवार 'last Thursday', गत वर्ष 'last year' (वर्ष is an alternative spelling for बर्ष) । the past tense of the verbs छ and हो (corresponding to English 'was' and 'were') is formed from the base थि- to which the suffixes are added regularly.

Pronoun	Affirmative	Negative
□	□□□□	□□□□□
□□	□□□□□	□□□□□ □
□	□□□□	□□□□
□□□□	□□□□□	□□□□□ □
□□□□	□□□□	□□□□□ □
□□□ (- □□□)	□□□	□□□□□ □
F. □	□□□□□	□□□□□ □
□□□(-□□□)	□□□□□	□□□□□ □
HGH □□□□□, □□□□	□□□□□□ □□□□□□	□□□□□□ □□□□□□ □□□□

**Table 12. Past Tense of the verbs छ and हो**

Note that the HGH suffixes -हुन्थ्यो (affirmative) and -हुन्नथ्यो (neg.) are added to the infinitive. थियो is used both to locate and define

अस्तिको शुक्रबार म रामकहाँ थिएँ।  
Last Friday, I was at Ram's place.

मेरी बहिनी सिकिस्त बिरामी थिई।  
My little sister was seriously ill.

The base भ is used only with past tense and past participle suffixes. Strictly speaking भ- functions as the Secondary Base of the verb हुनु though usage of the tenses and participles formed from this base should be carefully noted. The Simple Past Tense is formed from the base भ – regularly:

भयो may literally be rendered in English as 'has become', 'became'. The alternative translations in the following examples should, however, be carefully noted:

म बिरामी भएँ। I became ill/ I felt ill.

But म बिरामी थिएँ। I was ill.

The affirmative suffixes of the Simple Indefinite Tense are as follows:

- 1 sing. (म) -छु
- 1 plur. (हामी etc.) -छौं
- 2 sing. (तँ) -छस्
- 2 MGH (तिमी etc.) -छौ
- 3 sing. LGH (ऊ etc.) -छ
- 3 MGH. Plur. (उनी,उनीहरू) -छन्

There are also four special feminine suffixes:

- 2 LGH -छेस् 3 LGH -छे 2 MGH -छ्यौं 3 MGH -छिन्

It should be noted that the suffixes of the Simple Indefinite are identical to the forms of छ.

The suffixes are added directly to the Primary Base of the verbs belonging to Group (a).

म गर्छु I do.  
तँ बस्छस् You sit  
तिनीहरू सुत्छन् They sleep  
Verbs belonging to Group

l (b), (c), (d) have नinfixed between the vowels of the Primary Base and the suffix:

म खान्छु I eat  
हामी बिर्सन्छौं We forget.  
उ दिन्छे She gives  
त्यो जान्छ He goes  
Verbs belonging to Group

(e) have the second vowel of the Primary Base nasalised before the suffix:

म पठाउँछु I will send.

मी आउँछौं We come.

तिनीहरू पिउँछन् They drink.

HGH (तपाईं, वहाँ etc.) forms of all groups have the suffix -हुन्छ added to the infinitive:

तपाईं गर्नुहुन्छ।  
You do.

वहाँहरू आउनुहुन्छ।  
They come.

मेरो बुबा पठाउनुहुन्छ।  
My father sends.

The full conjugation of the Simple Indefinite Tense of गर्नु is as follows:

1 sing.	□	□□□□□
2 sing. LGH	□□	□□□□□□ (□□□□□□ □)
3 sing. LGH	□, □□□□, □□	□□□□
1 plur.	□□□□ (- □□□)	□□□□□□
2 sing. pl. MGH	□□□□ (- □□□)	□□□□□□, □□□□□□ □
3 sing. MGH	□□□, □□□□, □□□□	□□□□□□ (□□□□□□ □)
3 plur. LGH, MGH	□□□□□□	□□□□□□
2 sing. pl. HGH	□□□□□□(- □□□)	□□□□□□ □□□□
3 sing. pl. HGH	□□□□□□(- □□□)	□□□□□□ □□□□

**Table 13. Full conjugation of the Simple Indefinite Tense of गर्नु**

Similarly:

□ □□□□□  
 □□ □□□□□□  
 □ □□□□□  
 □□ □□□□□□  
 □ □□□□□□□□□  
 □ □□□□□  
 □□ □□□□□□

The Simple Indefinite Tense refers to action performed at regular intervals or as a matter of habit. It can often be translated by the English simple present tense. 'I do, I eat, I go' etc.

□ □□□□□ □□□ □□□□□□ |  
 I work ('do work') every day.

□□□□ □□□□ □□□□□□□□□□□□□□  
 □□□□ |  
 My son studies ('reads') at the college.

□□□□□□ □□□□ □□□□□□□□  
 □□□□□□□□□□□□ |  
 Nowadays he lives in Nepal.

Note that □□□□□ means both 'to sit down' and 'to reside':

□ □□□□□□□□ □□□□□□ |  
 I live in England.

□ □□□□□ □□□□□□ |  
 I sit down in a chair.

□□□□□ □□□□□ □□□□□□□□□□□?  
 Do you smoke cigarettes?

Note the expression □□□□□ □□□□□ 'to consume cigarettes', i.e. 'to smoke', □□□□□ means both to eat and to drink:

□□□□ □□□□□□□ □□□□ □□□□□□ |  
 That man eats meat.  
 □□□□ □□□□ □□□□ □□□□□□□ □□□□□□ |  
 That holy man (jogi) drinks only water.

The verb □□□□□ 'to drink', though it may be used for any liquid, is frequently used in the context of alcohol.

□□□□ □ □□□□□□ □□□□ □□□□□□ □□□□□□  
 □□□□□□□□□ |

We sometimes drink spirits.

□□□□□□□□□ □□□□□ □□□ □□  
 □□□□□□□□ |  
 The Nepalese often eat only (cooked) rice.

viii) The Simple Indefinite Tense is also used with reference to future time and in some contexts may be translated. 'I shall do, I am doing', etc. For eg.,

□□□□ □□□ □ □□□□□□ □□□□□□□ |  
 Next year, I am going to Nepal.

ix) A Present Continuous Tense (corresponding to the English 'I am doing') is formed with the Imperfect participle in -□□ followed by the auxiliary verb □.

x) The Imperfect Participle is formed by adding the suffix -□□ directly to the base of verbs belonging to group (a). The final vowel of the Primary Base of verbs belonging to other groups is nasalised before the addition of the suffix. For eg.,

□□□□□□, □□□□□□, □□□□□□, □□□□□□, □□□□□□  
 □, □□□□□□, □□□□□□, □□□□□□□□, etc.

The present continuous tense is then formed as follows:

□ □□□□□□□□ | I am doing.  
 □ □□□□□ □□ | He/She is eating.  
 □□□□ □□□□□ □□ | We are going.  
 □□□□□ □□□□□ □□□□□□□□□□ | You  
 (HGH) are coming.  
 □□□□□□ □□□□□ □□□ | They are washing.

Sometimes, it also may be used with reference to future time.

□□□□□ □□ □□□□□ □□□□□□□□□□□? □  
 □□□ □□□□□□□□□ |  
 What are you doing? I am working.

xi) The negative suffixes of the Simple Indefinite Tense are as follows:

- 
- 
- 
-

-□□□□□  
-□□□□□

The final vowel of the 1'st person singular suffix is sometimes nasalized दिँन.

The negative suffixes are added directly to the base of the verbs belonging to the group (a):

गदिन, गर्देनस्, गर्देन, गर्देनौ, गर्देनौ, गर्देनन्

When the base ends in an unvoiced consonant, i.e. क,ख,च,ट,ठ,त,थ,प,फ,स, the द of the suffix may be 'devoiced' to त, i.e. -दिन becomes तिन. Thus म बस्तिन 'I do not sit', उ सुतैन 'he does not sleep'. There is however, a growing tendency to use the suffix in -द- , whatever the nature of the base and बस्दैन is now commonly written and spoken.

Verbs belonging to all other groups (i.e. with primary bases ending in a vowel) have the final vowel nasalized before the suffix is added:  
For eg.,

म जाँदिन  
I do not go  
तँ खाँदेनस्  
You do not eat  
उ धुँदैन  
He does not wash  
हामी बिर्सदैनों  
We do not forget  
उनीहरू आउँदैनन्  
They do not come.

HGH forms have the suffix -हुन्न added to the infinitive in -नु

तपाईँ जानुहुन्न  
You do not go  
वहाँ देखुहुन्न  
He does not see  
मेरो बुबा निस्कनुहुन्न  
My father does not go out

The negative of the Simple Indefinite Tense has the following feminine forms:

3 sing. LGH उ गर्दिन,

3 sing. MGH उनी गर्दिनन्

Verbs belonging to the groups (b), (c), (d) and (e) have alternative negative forms of which the suffixes are:

म -न्न  
तँ -न्नस्  
उ -न्न  
हामी -न्नौं  
तिमी -न्नौं  
उनी (हरू) -न्नन्

These suffixes are added directly to the Primary Base.

म जान्न ।  
तँ आउन्नस् ।  
उ खान्न ।  
उनी पिउन्नन् ।  
हामी धुन्नौं ।  
तिमी बिसन्नौं ।  
उनीहरू जान्नन् ।

Verbs which may take a direct object are known as transitive verbs. For eg.,

गर्नु, 'to do',  
भेट्नु 'to meet',  
पिट्नु 'to hit',  
हेर्नु 'to look at'

दुह्नु 'to milk' are all transitive verbs.

Verbs which cannot take a direct object, such as जानु 'to go', आउनु 'to come', बस्नु 'to sit/remain', are known as intransitive verbs.

When the object of a transitive verb is:

- (1) a proper noun (राम, गणेश etc.) or
- (2) a noun or pronoun referring to the person (मान्छे, बहिनी, म, उ, त्यो, etc), the postposition - लाई must be added to the object of the verb.

xii) A Simple Indefinite Tense is also regularly formed from the Primary Base हु as shown in the table below:

Affirmative	Negative
□ □□□□□□□	□□□□□□
□□ □□□□□□□□	□□□□□□□□□□
□ □□□□□□	□□□□□□□□
□□□□ □□□□□□□□	□□□□□□□□□□
□□□□ □□□□□□□□	□□□□□□□□□□
□□□□(□□□□) □□□□□□□□	□□□□□□□□□□
□□□□□□ □□□□□□□□□□	□□□□□□□□□□
□□□□□ □□□□□□□□□□	□□□□□□□□□□

**Table 14. Simple Indefinite Tense from the primary base हु**

The alternative negative forms are:

हुन्न हुन्नौं  
हुन्नस् हुन्नौं  
हुन्न हुन्नन्

हुन्छ, though usually translated as 'is' differs from छ and हो in that it is used to denote a general fact or occurrence. For this reason हुन्छ is frequently used with adverbs like अक्सर 'often', सधैं 'always', and धेरैजसो 'mostly, usually'. For example, the sentence 'mangoes are sweet' states a general fact. They are sweet by nature. This is rendered in Nepali as आँप गुलियो हुन्छ. In the sentence 'This mango is sweet', a

particular instance is referred to: यो आँप गुलियो छ or हो।

The Simple Indefinite Tense हुन्छ is also used with reference to future time. Thus म हुन्छु also means 'I shall be' etc.

आउने हसा शहरको सबै अड्डा बन्द हुन्छन् तर पसल बन्द हुँदैनन्।

Next week all the offices in the city will be closed, but the shops will not be.

The four verbs which can be translated by the English verb 'to be':

- हो used only to define and obligatory in questions of the type: के हो?, को हो?, 'What is?', 'Who is?'
- छ used mainly to locate, but also frequently in statements in place of हो to define;
- हुन्छ used to denote a generality or a regular occurrence, and also with reference to future time.
- रहेछ used in place of छ and हो indicating surprise.

xiii) The HGH imperative is formed by adding -होस् to the infinitive of the verb:

गर्नुहोस् -> do

बस्नुहोस् -> sit

आउनुहोस् -> come

भित्र पाल्नुहोस् -> please come in

Note that भित्र is used both as an adverb and a postposition "in", "inside"

म भित्र जान्छु। I'll go outside.

हाम्रो घरभित्र inside our house.

काठमाण्डौंभित्र inside Kathmandu.

xiv) The negative of the HGH imperative is formed by adding the prefix न to the positive form.

नआत्तिनुहोस् do not panic  
नरिसाउनुहोस् do not be angry

The ending -नुहोस् is often pronounced and sometimes written as -नोस्:

पाल्नुहोस् or पाल्नोस् come, go  
नआउनुहोस् or नआउनोस् do not come  
गर्नुहोस् or गर्नोस् do

xv) Many Nepali verbs have passive or impersonal counterparts which are formed by adding the suffix इ to the base of verbs belonging to groups (a) and (b) and to the secondary base of the verbs belonging to groups (c), (d) and (e). Thus the active verb गर्नु 'to do' is made passive by extending the base with the suffix -इ; गरिनु 'to be done'. Such verbs are often referred to as 'I-stem' verbs.

In general only the infinitive, 3<sup>rd</sup> person forms and certain participles of such verbs are used.

I-stem verbs are conjugated like other verbs belonging to group (b) with a base ending in इ, e.g. दिनु, and have the full range of tenses and participles. The I-stem forms of गर्नु are considered below.

I-STEM base	गरि-	To be done
Infinitive	गरिनु	It is done
Simp. Indef. 3 s. aff.	गरिन्छ	It is not done
Simp. Indef. 3 s. neg.	गरिदैन	
	गरिन्छन्	They are done.
Simp. Indef. 3 pl. aff.	गरिन्छन्	They are not done.
Simp. Indef. 3 pl. neg.	गरिदैनन्	
	गरिन्छन्	It was done

Simp. Past 3 s. aff.	गरियो	It was not done, etc.
Simp. Past 3 s. neg.	गरिएन	

Table 15. Formation of verbal conjugates from I-stem base verbs

The above applies to other verbs like: भन्नु 'to say', सुन्नु 'to hear', देख्नु 'to see'

Note that all I-Stem verbs may have the alternative Simple Indefinite negative forms:

गरिन्छ, देखिन्छ, चाहिन्छ, पाइन्छ

The transitive verb पाउनु means 'to find', 'to receive', 'to get', 'to earn money' etc.

Thus:

मैले गएको मङ्गलबार तपाईंको चिठी पाएँ।  
I received your letter last Tuesday.  
म चालीस रूपियाँ पाउँछु।  
I earn forty rupees.  
तिमीले के पायो? केही पनि पाइनँ।  
What did you get? I got nothing at all.

The Simple Past forms of the transitive verb पायो, पाएन 'he got', 'he did not get' must be carefully distinguished from the impersonal forms, पाइयो 'it was found', पाइएन 'it was not found'.

म चालीस रूपियाँ पाउँछु।  
I earn forty rupees.  
तिमीले के पायो? केही पनि पाइनँ।  
What did you get? I got nothing at all.

The Simple Past forms of the transitive verb पायो, पाएन 'he got', 'he did not get' must be carefully distinguished from the impersonal forms, पाइयो 'it was found', पाइएन 'it was not found'.



In sentences as shown below, the 3'rd person singular of the transitive verb भन्नु may also be used:

यसलाई नेपालीमा के भन्छ? यसलाई किताब भन्छ।  
What do they call this in Nepali? They call it kitab.  
प्रयोग गर्नु 'to use' प्रयोग गरिनु 'to be used'

The I-Stem verb चाहिनु 'to be required', 'to be needed is' formed from the comparatively rarely used transitive verb चाहनु 'to want'

The Simple Indefinite form चाहिन्छ is mainly used to express 'it is generally required' or 'it will be required'. Thus:

मान्छेहरूलाई रोटी सधैं चाहिन्छ।  
Men always need bread.

तपाईंलाई अब के चाहियो? मलाई चिया चाहियो।  
What do you want (now)? I want some tea.

बाटोको लागि हामीहरूलाई के के चाहिन्छ?  
What things shall we need for the journey?

Note the use of लाई in this construction.

In practice the Simple Indefinite चाहिन्छ is sometimes used where according to the above rule चाहियो would be expected. Thus चिया चाहिन्छ ... is also correct, but less common.

यो रोटी बासी रहेछ।मलाई त चाहिन्न बा।  
This bread is stale. I don't want it.

हो is an exclamation of disgust.

In general, only transitive verbs possess I-Stem counterparts. There are, however, a few intransitive verbs which also possess them. One common example is पुग्नु 'to be reached', formed from the intransitive verb आउनु 'to arrive'.

तपाईंहरूको घर पुग्न सजिलै छ।  
You can reach our house easily from here.

सजिलै 'with ease', 'easily'

हामी समयमा नआयौं।  
We did not arrive on time.

In the above examples the verb is used impersonally. However, if a subject word is expressed, the transitive verb पुगाउनु must be used:

तपाईं कति समय आउनुहुनेछ? म साँझ छैटै बजे आउनुहुनेछु।

What time will you arrive? I'll arrive at six o'clock.

The verb पुगुनु may also mean 'to suffice', 'to be enough'. In this case the postposition तिर is always added to the subject word:

उति धेरै पैसा तिर नपर्छ।  
He says that much money is not enough.

In spoken Nepali पुगुनु and पुगुनुनु are often used impersonally instead of their I-Stem counterparts:

साँझ पुगुनुनुन्छ? पुगुनुन्छ?  
Can we get there by evening or not?

Strictly speaking पुगुनुनुनु and पुगुनुनुनुनु would be correct. In the same way, पुगुनुनु is often used in place of पुगुनुनुनुनु।

The transitive verb खुल्नु 'to open' has an intransitive counterpart खुल्नुनु 'to be opened', 'to come open'

खुल्नुनुन्छ। It is hot in the room. I'll open the window.

But the adjective खुला means 'open'.खुला खुला खुला they say the road is now open.

xvi) The imperative forms of the Nepali verbs also require special attention:

1) The LGH (हो) imperative is formed as follows:

a) Verbs belonging to groups (a) and (b) – the LGH imperative is identical with the base of the verb: For eg.

□□□ do □□□ sit down  
 □□ eat □□□ stand

b) Verbs belonging to groups (c) and (e) -the LGH imperative is identical with the Secondary Base of the Verb. For eg.,

□□ wash □□□ send  
 □□ drink □ come

c) Verbs belonging to the group (d) in most cases have the suffix □ □□ added to the secondary base of the verb: For eg.

□□□□ milk □□□□□□□□ forget  
 □□□□□ remember

□□□□ and □□□□ have irregular LGH imperatives: □□ 'give', □□ 'take'.The LGH imperative of □□□□ is sometimes □□□□ as well as □

2) The MGH (□□□□) imperative is formed as follows.

a) Verbs belonging to group (a) have the suffix -a added to the base: □□ do □□ sit down

b) Verbs belonging to group (b) have the suffix -u and sometimes the suffix -o added to the base: □□ ख eat  
 □□□ go □□□□ or □□□□ stand up

c) Verbs belonging to the groups(c) and (e) have the suffix -u added to the secondary base: □□□ wash □□ come □□□□□ bring

3) Verbs belonging to group (d) have the suffix -a added to the secondary base: □□□ milk □□□□□ forget □□□□ remember

□□□□ and □□□□ have irregular imperative forms for the MGH: □□□ give □□□ take

The verb □□ has the imperative forms:

LGH □□ MGH □□□□ be

The negative of the imperative is formed by adding the prefix □:

□□□ □□□□ □□□□ □□ □□□□  
 □□□□□□□□

Examples of the imperative

LGH

□□□□ □□ □ □□□□□  
 Eat your dinner, won't you, child.

□□□□ □□□□, □□□□□□□ □□□□□,  
 Come here. Do not sit there.

MGH

□□ □□□□□□□ □□□□□□ □, □□□□□ □□□□ □,  
 It is hot in this room. Switch on the fan, please.

HGH

□□□□□□□□□ □□□□□□□□□□□□, □□□□□□□□□□  
 □□□□□□□□□□□□□□□□□□ □,  
 Good morning, Mr. Bista. Come in and sit down.

xvii) The conjunctive participles are formed by adding one of the three suffixes:

-□□□, -□□, □□□□ to the Base of the verbs belonging to groups (a) and (b) and to the Secondary Base of the verbs belonging to the groups(c), (d),(e) respectively. In the table below, we look at the three forms for the five different categories of verbs:

-□□□	-□□	□□□□
(a) □□□□□□ □□□□□	□□□□ □□□□	□□□□□□ □□□□□□
(b) □□□□□□ □□□□□	□□□□ □□□□	□□□□□□ □□□□□□
(c) □□□□□□ □□□□□	□□□□ □□□□	□□□□□□ □□□□□□
(d) □□□□□□□□ □□□□□□□□	□□□□□□□□ □□□□□□	□□□□□□□□ □□□□□□□□
e) □□□□ □□□□□	□□□□ □□□□	□□□□□□ □□□□□□
□□□□□ / □□□□□ □□□□□	□□□□□ □□□□□	□□□□□□ □□□□□□
□□□□□□/□□□□□□	□□□□□□ □□□□□□	□□□□□□□□ □□□□□□□□

**Table 16. Formation of the conjunctive participles**

Of the three forms, the participle in -□□□ is by far the most common. The other two forms are by and

large stylistic alternatives. The form of the participle is invariable.

The negative of the conjunctive participle is formed by prefixing the negative participle -□ to the positive form:

□□□□□ □□□□ □□□□□□  
□□□□ □□□ □□□□□

In sentences where the subject of the conjunctive participle is the same as the subject of the main verb, the participle may literally be translated 'having done', 'having come' etc.

□□□ □□□□ □ □□ □□□□□□□□  
Having eaten dinner, I shall go home.

The conjunctive participle in □ may be used in exactly the same way.

□ □□□□□□□□□□ □□□ □□□□□□ □□□  
I boarded the plane and went to Britain.

When a long narrative contains several conjunctive participles, the participle in -□ is often used to avoid the monotonous repetition of the syllable -□□.

The particle in -□□□ is more emphatic than the other two forms and is used rather less frequently: For eg.,

□□□ □□□□□ □□□□□ □□□□□□□□□  
We left as soon as we had eaten.

□□□□ □□□□□ □□□□□□□ □□□  
□□□□□□□□□□

I went straight into the house and scolded him.

### 3.4. Adverbs

Adverbs in Nepali are uninflected forms. Adverbs show the gradation of comparative and superlative degrees by syntactic means of their dependents (quantifiers or adverbs of quantity).

#### 3.4.1. Function of adverbs

Adverbs occur as independent or as the head of an adverbial phrase (AdvP) structure, and function as dependents of the verb, i.e. As complements or adjuncts, e.g राम्ररी खाउँ. Adverbs also function as

quantifiers (or intensifiers) of adjectives, e.g. साह्रै राम्रो, or other adverbs, e.g.साह्रै छिटो. The adverbs which function as quantifiers of adjectives or quantifiers of other adverbs are "adverbs of quantity" [7].

The comparative and superlative formations of the adverbs are syntactic, not morphological, e.g.

Comparative: अलि विस्तारी वा झन् विस्तारी

Superlative: ज्यादै विस्तारी

#### 3.4.2. Dependents of adverbs

The dependents of the adverb are quantifiers that indicate the gradation of adverbs, e.g. विस्तारै वा झन् विस्तारै. Such constructions with adverbs as heads and their dependent adverbs (quantifiers) are called analytic comparative and superlative constructions [7].

#### 3.4.3. Lexical Morphology

Adverbs are marked by the derivational suffixes - अरी,-साथ,-वित्तिकै,-पूर्वक,(जस्तै राम्ररी,खुशीसाथ,जानेवित्तिकै,आनन्दपूर्वक).Those adverbs, which are not so marked by derivational suffixes are adverbials. Adverbials function and distribute in the same way as adverbs in phrasal and clausal constructions [7].

#### 3.4.4. Special Characteristics of Nepali Adverbs

Below, we present some of the special characteristics of Nepali Adverbs [6] :

- i) The interrogative adverb कहिले means 'when?' For eg.

तपाईं मकहाँ कहिले आउनुहुन्छ?

When are you coming to my house?

राम दिल्ली कहिले जान्छ?

When is Ram going to Delhi?

The phrase कहिले कहीं means 'sometimes'

त्यो कहिले कहीं मात्र मासु खान्छ।  
He eats meat only sometimes.

म कहिले कहीं नेपाल जान्छु।  
I sometimes go to Nepal.

कहिले पनि followed by a negative verb means  
'never', 'not ever':

म त कहिले पनि रक्सी पिउँदिन।  
I never drink spirits.

हामी उसलाई कहिले पनि भेट्दैनौं।  
We never meet him.

Similarly, the adverb कतै 'somewhere' followed by  
a negative verb may be translated 'nowhere', 'not  
anywhere'

त्यो त कतै जान्छ।  
He does not go anywhere/ he goes nowhere.

ii) The interrogative adverb कसरी 'how?', 'by  
what means?' must be distinguished from the  
adjective कस्तो 'how?', 'of how quality?' 'in  
what state'.

Compare the following:

कसरी जानुहुन्छ? म हवाईजहाजमा जान्छु।  
How are you going? I am going by aeroplane.

सिनेमा कस्तो छ? बेसे छ।  
What is the film like? It is not too bad.

Note that the adverbs and adverbial phrases often  
directly precede the verb they qualify:

तपाईं कहाँ जाँदै हुनुहुन्छ? म त कतै जान्छु।  
Where are you going? I'm not going anywhere.

iii) जस्तो 'like', 'such as' may be used as an  
adjective and an adverb.

When used adverbially जस्तो immediately precedes  
the verb:

उसको कुरा साँचो जस्तो छैन।  
What he says does not sound true.

आज पानी पर्ला जस्तो छैन।  
It does not look like it will rain today.

Note that कुरा may mean 'a thing' in the general sense,  
but often refers to something said. Thus तपाईंका कुरा  
may be translated 'what you said'. The expression कुरा  
गर्नु means 'to talk', 'to have a word':

म भोलि तपाईंसँग कुरा गर्छु।  
I will have a word with you tomorrow.

### 3.5. Pronouns

Pronouns constitute a small closed class of forms  
that inflect for case and number in a way analogous to  
nouns. Pronouns belong indirectly to the gender of  
nouns to which they anaphorically refer. The gender of  
pronoun, like the gender of a noun, is shown  
syntactically in the third person by its cross reference  
tie to verb for which they function as subject [7].

#### 3.5.1. Function of pronouns

Pronouns, as heads of the Pronoun phrase (ProP),  
and function as subject, or (direct or indirect) object  
complements, and adjuncts of verbs [7].

#### 3.5.2. Dependents

Pronouns, as heads of the Pronoun phrases  
(ProP), do not occur with dependents such as  
determiners since the pronouns are inherently definite  
or determined. It should be noted, however, that in  
contrast, the common nouns as the heads of the  
common noun phrases (CNPs) do take the determiners  
as their dependents [7].

#### 3.5.3. Lexical Morphology

Pronouns are marked by their simple (underived)  
forms that distinguish them from other form classes.  
The traditional grammars sometimes speak about  
pronomial adjectives as if they were pronouns [7], e.g.  
त्यो, यो, कुन.

### 3.5.4. Special Characteristics of Nepali Pronouns

Here we deal with some of the special characteristics of Nepali pronouns [6].

- i) □□ and □□□□ are used as third person singular pronouns 'he', 'she', 'it'. □□ refers to the person or thing nearer the speaker, and □□□□ to the person or thing farther away. When no such distinction is implied, □□□□ is usually employed. For eg.,

□□□□ □□ □□ ? Who is he?

□□ □□ □□? What is this? Or, what is it?

□□□□ □□□□□□ □ | He/She/It is

there.

Obviously the translation he, she, it will depend on the context.

Unless ambiguity is likely to arise, the pronomial subject of the verb may be omitted. Thus □, □□ could mean "he/she/it is". The translation will be decided by the context.

□□□□□□ □□□□ □□□□ □?

Where is our servant ?

□□□□□□ □ |

He is there.

□□□□ □□□□□□ □□□□ □?

Where is my book?

□□□□ □ | It is there.

□□□□ □□□□□□ □□ □□ ? Who is that man ?

□□□□ □□ | He is the washerman.

- ii) The interrogative pronouns □□ 'who?' and □□ 'what?' have no separate plural forms. Plurality is indicated by repeating the pronoun. For eg.,

□□□□□□ □□□□ □□ □□ □? (□□□)

Who (i.e. what people) are in your house?

□□□□□□ □□ □□ □?

What things are in the shop?

- iii) The Nepali Pronomial System with its three honorific grades and special forms

The Nepali Pronomial System with its three honorific grades and special forms requires special attention. Second person pronouns ('you') and third person pronouns ('he', 'she', 'it', 'they') may be grouped into three major honorific grades:

- a) Low Grade Honorific (LGH) pronouns;

This form is used mainly for children in one's own family, family retainers and animals.

- b) Middle Grade Honorific (MGH) pronouns;

This form is used mainly for other children, social inferiors, younger relations and intimate friends.

- c) High Grade Honorific (HGH) pronouns;

This form is used mainly for older relations, acquaintances of equal status, and people to whom one owes a measure of respect.

For example, a family servant, one's own daughter might be addressed as '□□' you' (LGH). The pronoun can equally be used to insult or to express endearment. A child belonging to someone else, a waiter in the hotel or a taxi driver might be addressed as □□□□ 'you' (MGH). An elder relation, one's father, teacher or any other older acquaintance would be addressed as "□□□□□□" 'you' (HGH).

The honorific scale also extends to third person pronouns. Thus □ 'he/she' is LGH, □□□ is MGH, and □□□□ and □□□□ are HGH. Whereas in third person pronouns there is no distinction of gender (□, □□□ mean both 'he' and 'she'), a distinction of nearness and farness is maintained.

In most cases, plural pronouns are formed by adding the plural suffix -□□□ to the singular form. Thus □□□□ sing HGH, □□□□□□ plur. HGH.

The following is a complete list of the personal pronouns:

Singular

1'st person		□		i
2'nd person	LGH	□□	you	
2'nd person	MGH	□□□□	you	

2'nd person HGH □□□□ you  
 3'rd person LGH □ he/she  
 3'rd person LGH □□, □□□□ he/she/it  
 3'rd person MGH □□□□, □□□□, □□□□  
 he/she  
 3'rd person HGH □□□□, □□□□  
 he/she

Plural

1'st person □□□□, □□□□□□□□  
 We  
 2'nd person LGH/MGH □□□□, □□□□□□□□  
 You  
 2'nd person HGH □□□□□□□□ You  
 3'rd person LGH/MGH □□□□□□□□, □□□□□□□□, □□□□□□□□ They  
 3'rd person HGH □□□□□□□□, □□□□□□□□  
 They

The 2'nd person LGH pronoun □□ has no plural form. Instead, the MGH form is used. The 3'rd person LGH pronoun □ and the 3'rd person plural pronouns refer only to persons and not to things.

The affirmative and negative forms of Nepali verbs are greatly influenced and dependent on the Nepali pronomial system involving three different honorific grades. Given below in the tables 17 and 18, we will see the illustrations for the two verbs "□" and "□□", both meaning "is".

Personal pronoun	Affirmative	Negative
□	□□	□□□
□□	□□□	□□□□ □
□□, □□□□, □	□	□□□
□□□, □□□□, □□□□	□□□	□□□□ □
□□□□□, □□□□□□□□	□□□□□□	□□□□ □□□□ □
□□□□, □□□□□□□□	□□□	□□□□ □
□□□□, □□□□□□□□	□□□	□□□□ □
□□□□□□, □□□□□□□□, □□□□□□□□	□□□	□□□□ □

Personal pronoun	Affirmative	Negative
□□□□, □□□□	□□□□□□ □□□	□□□□ □□□□ □
□□□□□□□□, □□□□□□□□	□□□□□□ □□□	□□□□ □□□□ □

Table 17. Affirmative and Negative forms of the verb "□"

Personal pronoun	Affirmative	Negative
□	□□□	□□□□
□□	□□□□	□□□□□□
□	□□	□□□□
□□□	□□□□	□□□□□□
□□□□	□□□□□□ □□□	□□□□□□ □□□
□□□□	□□□	□□□□□□
□□□□	□□□	□□□□□□
□□□□□□	□□□□	□□□□□□
□□□□	□□□□□□ □□□	□□□□□□ □□□
□□□□□□□□	□□□□□□ □□□	□□□□□□ □□□

Table 18. Affirmative and Negative forms of the verb "□□"

From the above tables it will be clear that the 3'rd person MGH pronouns (□□□, □□□□□, □□□□□) require the 3'rd person plural verb forms □□□ and □□□□ and that all the HGH pronouns (□□□□□□, □□□□□□ etc.) take the same forms. It will also be noted that the HGH forms of □ and □□ are identical.

The two verbs also share a common infinitive □□□□ 'to be'. In English both verbs are translated as 'I am', 'you are', 'he/she is' etc., but as we have already seen, the function of □ is to locate and that of □□ is to define.

The personal pronoun may be omitted in cases where confusion is not likely to arise as evident from the following example.

□  
 □□□□□□□□  
 □□□□  
 □□□□□□□□  
 □□□□  
 □□□□□  
 □□□□□

I am English, not Indian.

2'nd singular LGH □□ 'you' is reserved for social inferiors usually in the family. Children and servants of the speaker's family are often addressed as □□. It is also used when speaking to animals and often used in poetry, something like English "thou". For eg.,

□ □□□□ □□ □□□□ □□□?  
 Child, where are you?  
 □□ □□□□□□ □□□□□□?  
 Aren't you good (little boy)?

2'nd Singular MGH □□□□ 'you' is reserved for social inferiors and for children not of the speaker's family. It may be used to address younger members of the family (sisters, brothers etc.). A man may address his wife as □□□□ but she would not generally use it for the husband. A foreigner would do well not to use □□□□ when addressing adult strangers.

2'nd Singular HGH □□□□□ 'you' is used for anyone to whom respect is due. It is becoming customary to use '□□□□□□' for any adult stranger regardless of his/her social status. A woman usually addresses her husband as □□□□

□□□□□□ □□□□ □□ □□□□ □□□□□□□□□□  
 □□□□□□□□□□?  
 Where are you these days, Mr. Bista?

□ □□□ □□□□□□ □□□□□□ □□□□□□□□□□?  
 Excuse me, are you a Brahmin?

2'nd Plural MGH and HGH □□□□□□□□, □□□□□□□□□□ 'you' are used to address several people who would individually be addressed as □□□□ and □□□□□□. Occasionally in books and speeches, when a number of people are addressed as a group, the singular forms are used.

□□□□□□□□□□  
 □□□□□□□□□□□□ □□□□□□□□□□?  
 Are you students?

□□□□□□□□□□ □□□□□□□□  
 □□□□□□□□□□□?

Are you Chhetris?

Note that the noun in predicative position remains singular.

1' st Plural □□□□ 'we' and the form □□□□□□□□ are in most respects synonymous and interchangeable. If there is any difference □□□□ means 'we as a group'; □□□□□□□□ 'we as individuals'. Occasionally □□□□ may be used by the speaker to refer to himself, in which case it would be translated as 'I'.

□□□□ □□□□□□ □□□□  
 We are labourers.  
 □□□□ □□□□□□□□ □□□□  
 We are Nepalis.

3'rd singular LGH □ 'he/she', □□, □□□□ 'he/she/it'. We have already seen that the demonstratives may be used as 3'rd person singular pronouns. When proximity or distance is not implied □□□□ is used rather than □□. These pronouns refer to persons, to whom no particular respect is due, and to things. □ is only used for persons.

□ □□□□□ □□  
 He/She is at home.

□□□□ □□□□□□□□□□□□□□□□ □□  
 He/She is in Darjeeling.

□□□□ □□□□ □□□□□□□□ □□  
 That's very good.

□□ □□□□□□□□ □□ □□ □□□□ □□□□□□□□ □□  
 He is in Nepal, but he (the other one) is in India.

3'rd singular MGH □□□□, □□□□, □□□□ 'he/she' are used for persons to whom a certain measure of respect is due. They are frequently used to refer to persons in novels and historical narrative, but not usually to refer to the royalty of Nepal or their ancestors. □□□□ refers to the person nearer the speaker and □□□□ to the person farther away. □□□□ is more or less synonymous with □□□□ and perhaps used more frequently in speech.

□□□□ □□ □□□□□?  
 Who is he/she?

उनी लण्डनमा छैन।  
He is in London.

उनी कहाँमा छैन?  
Where is he?

Nouns denoting persons who would be referred to with a MGH pronoun take a 3'rd person plural verb:

उनी कहाँमा छैन? Where is Ram?  
उनी घरमा छैन। He is at home.

The plural verb in the question and the use of उनी in the answer makes the sentences more polite than if the singular छ and कहाँमा had been used.

3'rd singular HGH उनी उनी (sometimes written उनी) 'he,she' are used to refer to people who would be addressed as उनी in the second person. The difference between उनी and उनी is again one of proximity.<sup>1</sup>

उनी कार्यालयमा छैन।  
He is at the office.

उनी ब्राह्मण छैन।  
He (the person here) is a Brahmin.

Nouns denoting persons referred to with a HGH pronoun require the honorific form of the verb.

उनी कलकत्तामा छैन। उनी मन्त्री छैन।  
उनी कहाँमा छैन।

My father is in Calcutta. He is a minister.

उनी घरमा छैन। उनी बिरामी छैन।  
उनी कहाँमा छैन।

My elder sister is at home. She is ill.

When such a noun is preceded by the postposition - मा in written and occasionally in spoken Nepali, - मा becomes मा (the plural concord denotes respect).

<sup>1</sup> यहाँ and वहाँ are occasionally used in place of तपाईं to address a second person, in which case, of course, they would be translated 'you' in English. This usage is felt to be extra polite.

उनी टोकियोमा छैन।  
उनी कहाँमा छैन।  
The Prime Minister of Japan is not in Tokyo.

उनी इंग्ल्याण्डमा छैन।  
उनी कहाँमा छैन।  
The President of France is in England.

3'rd plural LGH/MGH उनी, उनी, उनी 'they' are used only for persons:

उनी ब्राह्मण छैन।  
They are Brahmins.

उनी विश्वविद्यालयमा छैन।  
उनी कहाँमा छैन।  
They are not at the university nowadays.

उनी कहाँमा छैन?  
Where are they?

Note that 'they' referring to things is left unexpressed.

उनी (उनी) कहाँमा छैन?  
उनी कहाँमा छैन?

Where are my books? They are here.

In colloquial speech the singular forms of the adjectives and verbs may be used:

उनी कहाँमा छैन?  
उनी कहाँमा छैन?  
उनी कहाँमा छैन?

3'rd plural HGH उनी, उनी correspond to their singular counterparts.

उनी कहाँमा छैन।  
उनी कहाँमा छैन।

iv) कोही 'someone' and केही 'something' are 3'rd person singular indefinite pronouns. In English they may be translated 'anyone', 'anything', and in negative sentences 'no one', 'nothing'.

दोकामा कोही छ?

Is there anyone at the door?

घरमा कोही छैन।

There isn't anyone at home.

हिजो आज पसलहरूमा केही छैन।



ढोकामा कोही छैन।

There is no one at the door.

In negative sentences, the indefinite pronouns are often emphasized with the adverb पनि 'at all', 'also':

मेरो खल्तीमा केही पनि छैन।

There's nothing at all in my pocket.

त्यो गाउँमा कोही पनि छैन।

There is not anyone in that village.

- v) The oblique case of the 3<sup>rd</sup> person pronouns is used before -लाई: For eg.

केटालाई किन पिट्छौं?

Why do you beat the boy?

म रामलाई हेर्दै छु।

I am looking at Ram.

म तपाईंलाई एक बजेतिर भेट्छु है।

I'll meet you at about one o'clock, shall I?

Note the postposition -तिर 'towards', 'about', 'approximately'.

- vi) The oblique forms of को? 'Who?' कोको 'who?' (Plural), and कोही 'someone' are कसकस and कसै respectively.
- vii) The oblique forms are used before postpositions: For eg.,

कसको किताब? Whose book?

कसकसकहाँ at whose places?

म कसैलाई दिँदिन I shall not give it to anyone.

के "what?" And केही 'anything' have no oblique forms.

केमा जानुहुन्छ? हवाईजहाजमा जान्छु।

How (in what) are you going? I'm going by air.

केको हतपत? What's the hurry (lit. 'of what ...')?

### 3.6. Coordinating conjunctions

The co-ordinating conjunctions are a closed class of uninflected forms. They are the following [7]:

अनि, कि, किन्तु, नकि, र, तर, वा, अथवा, कि...कि, न...न, परन्तु, तैपनि, यद्पि, तथा, या.

#### 3.6.1. Function of co-ordinating conjunctions

The co-ordinating conjunctions function as connectors of equal level constituents at all levels.-word, phrase, and clause level. The items which precede coordinating conjunctions and those that follow them need not both be of the same filler class, but both fill the same functional slot [7].

#### 3.6.2. Dependents of co-ordinating conjunctions

The words, phrases and clauses connected by the co-ordinating conjunctions are not dependents since the coordinating conjunctions are not the heads of such constructions, but connect coordinate structures [7].

#### 3.6.3. Lexical Morphology

As uninflected and underived class, the co-ordinating conjunctions are marked by their simple stems or complex stems (e.g. अथवा, तैपनि) and lack of lexical morphology [7].

### 3.7. Subordinating conjunctions

Subordinating conjunctions are a closed uninflected class. The closed list is: कि, भने, पछि, अघि, पनि, यदि etc [7].

#### 3.7.1. Function of subordinating conjunctions

The function of subordinating conjunctions is to mark dependent (adverbial or noun) clauses as subordinate to the principal clause in sentential structures [7].

कि marks noun clause;

अगाडि marks adverbial clause;

पछाडि marks adverbial clause;

भने marks adverbial clause;

पछि marks adverbial clause;

अधि marks adverbial clause;

पनि marks adverbial clause;

यद्यपि marks adverbial clause.

### 3.7.2. Dependents of subordinating conjunctions

The dependent of a subordinating conjunction is a subordinate clause. The subordinate clause may be a relative adjectival clause, relative adverbial clause, adverbial clause or a noun clause [7].

### 3.8. Postpositions

Postpositions (comparable to prepositions in English) are called postpositions (pp) in Nepali since they occur after the nouns or noun phrases (Nps) with which they stand in construction. Postpositions are an uninflected, simple, or complex closed class of forms which function as the head of adverbial postpositional phrases (PP) which function as adverbial complements or adjuncts to the verbs in clausal structures [7].

#### 3.8.1. Function of postpositions

The postpositions (pps) function as head in the postpositional adverbial phrase (Pps) structure. The Pps are dependent on verbs since they stand in the clausal construction as adverbial adjuncts, e.g. अगाडि- "घर अगाडि बगेँचा छ" [7].

#### 3.8.2. Dependents of postpositions

The dependents of the postpositions are nouns or noun phrases (Nps) or pronoun phrases (ProPs) of which the postpositions are heads [7].

#### 3.8.3. Lexical Morphology

Postpositions are simple, or complex closed class without inflectional morphology [7].

#### 3.8.4. Special characteristics of Postpositions in Nepali

Below, we try to present some special characteristics of Postpositions in Nepali [6].

i) Words like - 'in, at, on', - 'with', - 'with', follow the word they govern and are known as postpositions. In writing they are joined to the word they follow. For eg.,

in Nepal  
 at school  
 on the table  
 at the door  
 with the man  
 with my son

The translation of - 'in, at, on' is decided by the context, - and - are largely synonymous. In certain idiomatic phrases, one may be preferred to the other.

ii) The postposition - 'of' deserves special attention. 'The book of the son' or 'the son's book' is expressed   'boy of book'. Compare the following sentences.

?  
What is the servant's name?  
   ?  
Where is Ram's shop?

The capital of Nepal is Kathmandu.  
    
 ?

What sort of goods are there in Ram's shop?

In written and sometimes in spoken Nepali - changes to  before plural nouns. In this respect it behaves like an adjective:

men of Nepal  
 the son's books  
 Ram's sisters

iii) The postpositions - and - both mean 'from'.

?

How far is Pokhara from Kathmandu?

Nepal is six thousand miles away from London.

(Note the use of the adjective  'far' in the second sentence.) In sentences like the following only - may be used:



हामी दिनहुँ काम गर्छौं।  
We work ('do work') every day.

- xi) The postposition -ले deserves special attention. It may be translated 'by', 'with', 'from', 'of', 'in' etc. according to the context in which it occurs. It is encountered in many idiomatic expressions. Note the following:

औँलोले मर्नु to die of malaria  
पानीले भिजेको soaked with water  
ठूलो स्वरले बोल्नु to talk in a loud voice.  
मान्छेहरूले भरिभराउ packed with people.

The postposition -ले is often added to the third person subject of a transitive verb in the Simple Indefinite: For eg.

प्रधानमन्त्रीले आज भाषण गर्नुहुन्छ।  
The Prime Minister will make a speech today.

ट्याक्सीले कति लिन्छ?  
How much will the taxi take (i.e. 'how much will it cost by taxi?')

लिनु 'to take' त्यो बाटोले कहाँ कहाँ लान्छ हँ?

Where does that road lead to?  
लानु 'to take away'. The repetition of कहाँ implies 'to which different different places?' हँ is an interrogative particle, something like English 'huh', 'eh'.

When the 3<sup>rd</sup> person singular pronouns are used -ले requires the oblique case: उसले, यसले, उनले, तिनले, यिनले.

उसले मलाई चिन्दैन।  
He does not know me.  
उसले मलाई भन्छ।  
He says to me/tells me.

When -ले is added to the pronouns म and तँ, their forms are मैले and तैले respectively.

- xii) The indirect object of a transitive verb is indicated by the postposition लाई 'to', 'for'. For eg.,

म तिमीलाई पैसा दिन्छु।  
I'll give you some money.

त्यसले मलाई केही पनि भन्दैन।  
He does not tell me anything at all ('say to me').

The verb भन्नु 'to say' with an indirect object may be translated to tell'. For eg.

म यसलाई भन्छु।  
I'll tell him.

उसले मलाई भन्छ।  
He will tell me.

- xiii) The postposition -तिर 'towards, about' is used in expressions of time for a rough approximation:

तीन बजेतिर at about three o'clock  
साढे पाँच बजेतिर at about half past five.

-तिर is also used with reference to place:

म खुम्बुतिर जाँदै छु।  
I am going towards Khumbu/ I'm heading for Khumbu.

- xiv) The postposition -मा is used in the following expressions:

बस दुई दुई घण्टामा आउँछ।

The repetition of the numeral implies that the bus comes at regular intervals:

रेल कति कति बेलामा आउँछ?  
How often do the trains run?

रेल हरेक घण्टामा आउँछ।  
The train comes every hour.

-का लागि  
-का निमित्त

Note: हरेक 'every': हरेक मान्छे 'every man', हरेक किसिम 'every kind' हरेक दिन 'every day'

Similarly, adjectives ending in -o has the ending changed to -a if they qualify a noun which is governed by a postposition (i.e. They become oblique):

xv) Certain postpositions or postpositional phrases consist of two or more words, the first of which is -को

त्यस साना देशका राजधानीमा  
in the capital city of that small country

-को लागि for, the sake of -को बारेमा about, concerning -को निमित्त for, for the sake of -को निमित्त for ( a literary synonym of -को निमित्त) -को बाद म पन्ध्र दिनका लागि भारत जाँदै छु। I'm going to India for a fortnight. नेपालको बारेमा के थाहाँ छ? What do you know about Nepal?

This, however, is entirely restricted to the written language and consistency is not always observed.

xvi) When a postpositional phrase with -को as the first element follows one of the pronouns म, तँ, हामी, तिमी, the possessive adjective is used.

xix) The postposition -बाट is used idiomatically in certain expressions like:

उसले मेरो निमित्त केही पनि गर्दैन।  
He does nothing for me ('for my sake').

बसबाट by bus  
हवाईजहाजबाट by air  
यो बाटोबाट by this road  
कुन बाटोबाट by which road?

विवाहको निमित्त नेपालीहरू धेरै पैसा खर्च गर्छन्।  
Nepalis spend a lot of money on wedding.

-बाट is also used with adverbs like बाहिर 'outside', नजीक 'nearby'

xvii) Certain postpositional expressions consist of -को and a noun followed by -मा -को उपलक्षमा on the occasion of -को विषयमा on the subject of, about

पर्यटकहरू धेरैजसो काठमाण्डौँबाट बाहिर जाँदैनन्।  
Tourists do not usually go outside Kathmandu.

वहाँले नेपाली साहित्यको विषयमा भाषण गर्नुहुन्छ।  
He is making a speech on the subject of Nepali literature.

यहाँबाट सब भन्दा नजीकको गाउँ कुन हो? Which is the nearest village to here?

महाराजधिराजको शुभजन्मोत्सवको उपलक्षमा  
On the occasion of the birthday of His Majesty

नजीक may also be used as a postposition:

त्यो मेरो घरनजीक बस्छ। He lives near my house.

xviii) In written Nepali, the first element -को in compound postpositional phrases, is often changed to का, which is the oblique form of the postposition:

### 3.9. Interjections

Interjections constitute a small closed class of forms which show no inflection, dependents or lexical morphology. They function as syntactically independent parenthetical minor sentences, semantically complete but structurally reduced. Thus the interjections are in a way syntactically complete and syntactically independent of other elements in phrasal or clausal structures. The most frequent interjections in Nepali are [7]:

अँ,अहँ,ओहो,अबुङ,लौं,छिः,धत्तेरिका,ला,अय्या,लौखा,धत्,जा  
,ला.

### 3.9.1. Special characteristics of Nepali interjections

Below, we try to list down some special characteristics of Nepali interjections [6]:

भयो, which is a past tense form of the verb हुनु (to be) is also used as an interjection, meaning 'enough', 'stop'. In this case it is usually pronounced भो

भो भो, अब त खान्न।  
That's enough. I can't eat any more.

भो भो, त्यो त धेरै नै भयो।  
Stop. That's plenty.

### 3.10. Vocatives

Vocatives are also uninflected forms. They differ from interjections in that the vocatives, e.g. एइ,हे,ओइ may stand in construction with the nouns, e.g.ओइ गोपाल, हे इश्वर to form independent parenthetical minor sentence types. The forms सरकार!,सर! are also used as vocatives. Noun stems without inflectional or derivational suffixes (i.e. Nominative forms) also function as vocatives [7], as गोपाल!

### 3.11. Nuance particles

Nuance particles belong to a small closed set of uninflected forms, showing no characteristic lexical morphology and occur in a syntactically independent way in phrases and statements. They are characterized by their having no dependents. The nuance particles in Nepali are [7]: अरे,चाहि,है,कि,क्यारे, लौं,ना,नै,नि,पो,र, त

#### 3.11.1. Special Characteristics of Nuance particles

Below, we try to list down the characteristics of Nuance particles[6]:

i) Nepali possesses a number of particles, which are mostly monosyllabic words like □□, □□,□□,□ etc. The meaning given to these particles depends very much on the context in which they are used, and may often be rendered in English merely by a change of tone.

a) □□, usually precedes the main verb of the sentence and implies a contradiction of something that has already been said. For example, if someone says □□□□ □□□□□ □□□□□□ □, 'that hotel is good', when you have found that it is not, you may contradict the statement by replying □□□□□□□ □□ □ । 'it's not, I tell you'. The pitch on which □□ is uttered is higher than that of the other words in the sentence. The sentence □□□□ □□□□□□□□ □□ □□□□□□□□□□ might be translated as 'Oh, I see you are a Brahmin (whereas I thought you were something else). Note that □□□□□□□□□□ is a literary form of □□□□□ 'a Brahmin'.)

b) The particle □□ usually comes at the end of the sentence. In statements it implies that the information given is common knowledge and may be translated 'you know'.

□□□□ □□□□□□□□ □□ □□।  
That's Mt. Everest, you know.

In short interrogative phrases, it may be translated 'what about ...'

यो होटेल राम्रो छैन। त्यो होटेल नि।

c) The particle त, which never stands as the first word in the sentence, has a number of functions. One is to emphasize the word or phrase it follows.

म त ब्राह्मण हुँ।  
I am a Brahmin.

मेरो भाइ त कलेजमा छ।  
My brother is at the college.

When linking two sentences, त may be translated 'but'

तपाईं धनी हुनुहुन्छ, म त गरीब छु।

You are rich but I am poor.

होइन त? (Or simply होइन?), standing at the end of a sentence turns the statement into a question.

त्यो सगरमाथा होइन त?  
That's Mt. Everest, isn't it?

रक्सौल भारतमा छ, होइन?  
Raxaul's is in India, isn't it?

The affirmative answer to such a question is हो 'yes'.

त and पो may occur in the same sentence, giving emphasis to an assertion:

त्यो होटल त राम्रो पो छ त।  
But that hotel is nice, I tell you.

d) The particle है is interrogative, often used on polite requests.

म जाऊँ है त।  
All right if I go now?

ii) The particle □□ emphasises the word it follows. It may often be translated 'only' when it follows a noun.

Most Nepali words have emphatic forms. They are formed thus:

1. When a word ends in a vowel, the final vowel is changed to □ thus:

□□□□□ -> □□□□□□  
□□□□□ -> □□□□□□  
□ -> □□

2. When a word ends in a consonant, the syllable □ is added to the word:

□□ -> □□□  
□□□□ -> □□□□□  
□□ -> □□□

Many emphatic forms have special or modified meanings, which cannot be explained simply in terms of emphasis. For eg.,

□□□ 'at home', □□□□□□□□ 'slowly',  
□□□□□□□□□□ 'early in the morning', □□□□□□  
□□□□□□□ 'morning and evening'.

The emphatic form □□□□□□ is used in preference to the ordinary form □□□□□ 'only'. □□□□□□ □□□□□□ □□□□□□ □□□ □□□ □□ □□□ □ □□□ □□□□□□□□.

Villagers eat rice and lentils twice a day morning and evening. Note the expressions:

'two times a day' - □□□□□□ □□□ □□□□  
'four times a month' - □□□□□□□□ □□□ □□□□

The particle □□, itself an emphatic form, adds further emphasis.

□□□□□ □ □□□□□ □□ □□□□□  
□□□□□ □.

But that's an extremely long way round (lit. 'long road')

In some cases, the final consonant of a word may be doubled before the emphatic suffix □. For example, □□□□ 'good', 'well' '□□□□□' 'extremely well', 'very much'.

iii) The particles न and त, following the imperative, have the effect of making the command less brusque. They may be rendered in English as 'won't you?', 'please' etc.

मलाई भन्नुहोस् त।  
Please tell me.

चिया खानुहोस् त।  
Have some tea, won't you?

iv) The particle रे (always coming at the end of the sentence) indicates that the words which precede it are reported or that the information is at the second hand. It may be translated: 'they say that ...', 'he says that...', 'I hear that ...etc

भरे पानी पर्छ रे।  
They say that it's going to rain this evening.

आउने हप्ता बिदा छ रे।  
I hear that there's a holiday next week.

उसको खल्तीमा केही छैन रे।

He says that he's got nothing at all in his pocket.

के रे? What does he say?

### 3.12. Numerals

The numerals in Nepali may be divided into [7]:

- 1) cardinal adjectives or adjectivals, answering 'how many'
- 2) ordinal adjectives answering "which one of a series"
- 3) distributive adjectives answering how many each
- 4) ordinal adverbials answering which time of a series.

All the instances for all the four cases mentioned above is illustrated for number "1" in the table 19 below:

Table 19. Four different numeral cases of the number "1"

Cardinal adjectives	Ordinal adjectives	Distributive adjectives	Ordinal adverbials
एक	पहिलो	एक-एक	एक पल्ट

The numbers multiplied by ten are written in the following way:

- 1 एक  
10 दश  
100 सय  
1,000 हजार  
10,000 दश हजार  
1,00,000 एक लाख  
10,00,000 दश लाख  
1,00,00,000 करोड  
10,00,00,000 दश करोड  
.....

Note: The adverbial marker पल्ट has several dialectal variants: पटक, चोटी, ताली, बार

#### 3.12.1. Special Characteristics of numerals

Here, we try to list down the special characteristics of numerals [6]:

- i) All numerals take the classifiers -जना and -वटा  
For eg.

पच्चीसजना सिपाही 'twenty-five soldiers'

उनन्तीसवटा किताब 'twenty-nine books'

- ii) The most important fractions are:

पाउ -> a quarter

तिहाई -> a third

आधा -> half

डेढ -> one and half

अढाई -> two and a half

These function in the same way as other numerals:

आधा मील, 'half a mile',

डेढ महिना, 'one and a half months'

अढाई रुपियाँ, 'two and a half rupees'.

The word रुपियाँ may also be written and pronounced रूपैया

- iii) The words सवा 'plus one quarter', साढे, 'plus one half', पाँने 'less one quarter' are always followed by another numeral.

सवा चार -> 'four plus one quarter' or four and a quarter  
साढे चार -> 'four plus one half' or four and a half  
पाँने पाँच -> 'five less one quarter' or four and three quarters

Occasionally साढे एक and साढे दुई are used in place of डेढ (1 ½) and अढाई (2 ½)



In telling time, divisions of the hour are expressed as follows:

- चार बजे at four o'clock  
सवा चार बजे at a quarter past four  
साढे चार बजे at half past four  
पाँने पाँच बजे at a quarter to five

In other words, one says 'at four and a quarter o'clock' etc. Note in particular:

- डेढ बजे or साढे एक बजे at half past one  
अढाई बजे or साढे दुई बजे at half past two

Minutes to and past the hour are expressed as follows:

- चार बज्जलाई पाँच मिनेट बाँकी छ।  
It is five to four.  
बाह्र बज्जलाई पच्चीस मिनेट बाँकी हुँदा ।  
At twenty-five to twelve.

Note that बाँकी is an adjective meaning "left over, remaining":

iv) Some more points with regards to time:

- a) ठीक with expressions of time means 'exactly, precisely' For eg.,

ठीक छ बजे at exactly six o'clock.

- b) The adverbs बिहान 'in the morning', दिउँसो 'in the afternoon', भरे 'this evening', बेलुका 'in the early evening', राति 'at night' precede the expression of time: For eg.

हवाईजहाज बिहान नौ बजे काठमाण्डौं पुग्यो।  
The aeroplane reaches Kathmandu at nine in the morning.

म भरे सात बजेतिर तपाईं कहाँ आउँछु।  
I'll come and see you this evening at about seven.

### 3.13. Prefixes and suffixes

The prefixes precede the forms to which they are attached, e.g. बे, निर्, अन् as in बेकारी, निर्दोष, अनपढ. The suffixes follow the forms to which they are attached, e.g. ली as in गोर्खाली. Prefixes and suffixes are not treated as separate class of forms since they are bound to one or other of the major form classes or parts of speech [7].

#### 3.13.1. Special Characteristics of Nepali Prefixes and Suffixes

Here, we list down the special characteristics of Nepali Prefixes and Suffixes [6]:

- i) The suffix चाँहि may be added to adjectives, nouns and pronouns.  
a) When added to adjectives, चाँहि has the effect of turning them into nouns, and may usually be rendered into English as 'the ... one'

ठूलोचाँहि 'the big one'  
मेरोचाँहि 'mine, my one'

In the same way चाँहि may be added to the demonstrative and pronomial adjectives, and to a possessive formed with the postposition -को

त्योचाँहि that one  
योचाँहि this one  
कुनचाँहि which one?  
रामकोचाँहि Ram's one.

- b) When added to nouns and pronouns, चाँहि has the effect of emphasizing them and may be translated in English as 'as for', or simply by a change of tone.

मचाँहि as for me  
गर्मीमाचाँहि in the hot season (as opposed to others)

Note the use of चाँहि in the following sentences:

त्यो गाउँमा कुन चाँहि चियापसल सब भन्दा राम्रो छ?  
Which (one) is the best tea shop in that village?

यो घडी राम्रो हो तर त्योचाँहि त्यति राम्रो होइन।  
This watch is nice but that one is not so nice.

Note that त्यति is an adverb which modifies an adjective: त्यति ठूलो 'so big', त्यति राम्रो 'so nice'

ii) The suffix -होला instead of -होस् may be used to convey extra politeness.

मोटर बिस्तारै हाँक्नुहोला।  
Please drive the car slowly.

नरिसाउनुहोला।  
Please do not be angry.

iii) The days of the week

आइतबार Sunday  
सोमबार Monday  
मङ्गलबार Tuesday  
बुधबार Wednesday  
बिहिबार Thursday  
शुक्रबार Friday  
सञ्चरबार/शनिबार Saturday

The suffix -बार is often written वार. Note the expression: आज के बार? What day of the week is it today?

Three days have alternative literary forms, which are often used in newspapers and the other official contexts:

रविवार Sunday  
वृहस्पतिवार Thursday  
शनिवार Saturday

## 4. Nominal Structures

After having dealt with the form classes (lexicon) in considerable detail, we now move to the phrase structure of the Nepali Grammar. We start with nominal structures which includes the common-noun phrase, proper noun phrase, pronoun phrase and dependent nominals functioning as modifiers in large nominals.

### 4.1. Common-noun phrase

The internal structure of the common-noun phrase follows the following formula [7]:

Common-noun phrase (CNP) = Optional Determiner (Det.) + Optional Modifier (Mod.) + Obligatory Head

The structural formula of the CNP is illustrated by the following examples:

त्यो विशाल भवन, That huge building  
Det.+Mod.+Head

#### 4.1.1. Common nouns as heads

The common nouns as heads have further internal structure as shown in the formula below:

Head = Obligatory common noun stem+ Optional plural marker हरू+ Optional inflectional suffix for cases

This implies that the common noun head is either singular or plural and that the plural suffix is occurrent in the environment of some heads, nonoccurrent in that of other heads. The inflectional suffix is required to convey the semantic meaning, e.g.

मानिस, मानिसहरू, मानिसहरूलाई

The common nouns ending in -o like डोको, बोको, छोरो etc. have their allomorphs ending in -a such as डोका, बोका, छोरा etc.

When they are followed by the optional plural marker, or by a case inflection, they follow the pattern as shown below in the table.

Singular	Plural	Inflectional forms
डोको	डोका	डोकामा
बोको	बोका	बोकाले
छोरो	छोरा	छोरालाई

**Table 20. Inflectional forms of common nouns ending in -o**

#### 4.1.2. Gender as nouns

Every noun (proper or common) in Nepali belongs to either masculine or feminine gender. Only these two genders (masculine and feminine) as reflected morphologically in the verbs, although traditional grammars talk about masculine, feminine, neuter and common genders [7].

In other words, the gender of nouns is indicated morphologically by the form of verbs, not by the form of nouns, e.g.

दुर्गा गयो(m) दुर्गा गई(f) लक्ष्मी गयो(m) लक्ष्मी गई(f)

Thus in the above case, *दुर्गा* and *लक्ष्मी* may be the names of both men or women and is distinguished only after looking at the form of the verbs they take.

Exceptions hold professional titles and persons belonging to a certain caste, in which case the males and females would be differentiated by means of the derivational suffixes as shown in the table below:

Male	Female
घर्ती	घर्तिनी
नेवार	नेवार्नी
सार्की	सार्किनी
डाक्टर	डाक्टर्नी
चाकर	चाकर्नी

**Table 21. Derivational suffixes applicable to males to form female titles**

#### 4.1.3. Determiners in the CNP

The determiners in the CNP generally follow the linear order as presented below [7]:

- demonstratives (pronomial adjectives);
- limiters;
- quantifiers which are the numerals (cardinal or ordinal);
- Optional classifiers (human or non human).

Hence determiner has the following formula [7]:

Determiner = Optional demonstratives+ Optional limiters+ Optional quantifiers + Optional classifiers

Let us look at the following example:

यी+ मेरा+ चार+ जना +(साह्रै प्रिय मित्रहरू)

These + my +f our + human + (very + dear + friends)  
Demonstrative+ limiter+quantifier+classifier

##### 4.1.3.1. Demonstratives

Demonstratives form a small closed subset of determiners which are inflected for number. They are (proximate): यो,यी,त्यो,ती

##### 4.1.3.2. Limiters

Limiters are a closed set of forms which, as determiners follow the demonstratives in the linear order of occurrence. The limiters are either definite such as: हरेक 'each', प्रत्येक 'each' or indefinite such as: केही 'some', केवल 'only', एकै 'same', उही 'same', अरु 'other', कुनै 'certain', अघिल्लो, 'first', पछिल्लो 'last', अन्तिम 'final', अलिकति 'a little', थोरै, 'a little', सबै 'all'. The nouns and pronouns in possessive forms also function as limiters.

##### 4.1.3.3. Quantifiers (numbers) and classifiers

The quantifiers are cardinal numbers such as एक, दुई, तीन followed by one of the two classifiers (human classifier, non human classifier). The quantifiers followed by the classifiers distribute like adjectives when they stand in construction with the head nouns in the common-noun phrase.

The classifier जना occurs with countable human nouns; the classifier वटा occurs with countable non human nouns e.g.

human classifier	Non human classifier
पाँच जना मानिस	पाँच वटा कलम

**Table 22. Classifiers जना and वटा**

Note that the form of एक of non human classifier is एउटा. Other forms show two free variants each, e.g.

दुई वटा दुइटा  
.....  
दश वटा दशोटा

Classifiers do not occur with expressions of telling time or with nouns which denote periods of time, e.g. एक बजे; दश दिन

#### 4.1.3.4. CNP's functioning as quantifying determiner

Noun-phrases denoting units of quantity or measure occur as quantifying determiners and are embedded CNP's in higher level CNP [7]. For instance,

एक किलो + राम्रो आलु  
one kilo + good potato/potatoes

Note that the common noun phrase (CNP) एक किलो occurs as a quantifying determiner to the higher level common noun phrase (CNP) राम्रो आलु .

#### 4.1.3.5. Modifiers in the CNP

The modifiers in the CNP are expansions of the basic CNP structure. These expansions are dependent on a higher level CNP, e.g. दुःखको सागर 'ocean of pain'. A common-noun phrase stands in conjunction with optional modifiers. These optional modifiers are either nouns or noun phrases subsumed as 'nominals', adjectives or adjective phrases subsumed as 'adjectivals', postpositional phrases or clauses [7].

#### 4.1.3.6. Nouns or noun phrases as modifiers in CNP

Nouns (common or proper) or noun phrases function as modifiers in the CNP when they cooccur with a common noun. In such constructions, the first noun is the modifier, and the final noun is the head of the CNP [7], e.g.

नेपाली भाषा 'Nepali Language'  
भक्तपुर जिल्ला 'Bhaktapur District'  
गण्डकी अञ्चल 'Gandaki zone'

#### 4.1.3.7. Adjectives or adjective phrases as modifiers

Adjectives as modifiers occur after the determiners and before the head of the CNP, e.g.

त्यो विशाल भवन  
That huge building

Besides the adjectives and the adjective phrases, dependent adjectivals also modify nouns and noun phrases [7].

#### 4.1.3.8. Clauses as modifiers

The clauses that function as adjectives are dependent modifiers of the noun. For instance,

सुभद्रा दुलही भएर आउँदाको बखत  
The time when Subhadra came as a bride

Here the clause सुभद्रा दुलही भएर आउँदाको modifies the item बखत.

## 4.2. Proper-noun phrase

The proper-noun phrase has the following internal structure [7]:

Proper-noun Phrase (PNP)= Optional Modifier + Obligatory Proper noun head

The modifier is optional, and is filled by adjectives or adjectivals. The head is obligatory and is filled by the place and person names (person names are personal names given by parents).

Person and place names in Nepali do not cooccur with determiners (demonstratives, limiters, quantifiers), e.g.

त्यो देविरमन 'That Deviraman',  
यो सुभद्रा, 'This Subhadra'  
मेरी न्याउली, 'My Nyauli'  
कति लक्ष्मी, 'How many Laxmis?'  
दुई सुशिल 'Two Sushils'.

Proper names as such are inherently determined as definite, and thus do not cooccur with any of the determiners that the common nouns cooccur with. However, the person names do occur with the modifiers (adjectives or adjectivals). The formula for PNP is exemplified by the following instances:

विचरी सुभद्रा;  
Poor Subhadra  
कङ्गाल देवीरमन  
Penniless Deviraman

#### 4.2.1. Person names as heads

When functioning as heads, person names consist of an obligatory person name with optional modifiers but without plural number. In other words a person name does not inflect for number since the person name is inherently singular as it refers to an individual (who has been given the name) is inherently singular. When the plural number suffix -हरू occurs with a person name, it does not stand as plural number marker; it stands for the other (unspecified) names semantically associated with the person name with which it cooccurs [7].

For instance,

देवीरमण, नौलीहरू  
Deviraman, Nauli and others

Person names, like common nouns, have a syntactic property of gender which is in one-to-one correspondence with the sex of the individual that is referred to by the name. The gender of the person names is reflected in the gender concord they have with the forms of verbs, e.g.

शारदा गयो(m)  
Sharada went.

दुर्गा गयो(m)  
Durga went

शारदा गई(f)  
Sharada went.

दुर्गा गई(f)  
Durga went

When the person names of masculine gender such as शारदा प्रसाद and दुर्गा प्रसाद are reduced as शारदा and दुर्गा, their gender is ambiguous as they can refer to females of the same names. Their gender is disambiguated by the finite form of the verb in the clausal structure.

Person names are chosen by the parents based on such factors as caste, position in the family, and sex of the child. So it may be sometimes possible to guess the caste of a person from the name if the person's first name is a typical one. However, there is not much rigidity in caste adherence in Nepal. Moreover, the names given to men and women cut across caste distinctions. So one cannot always be right in one's guess.

The family names indicate the caste of the person more accurately, though not infallibly. Some typical family names are:

- Brahmins: आचार्य 'Acharya', अधिकारी 'Adhikari', अर्याल 'Aryal' etc.
- Kshatriyas: अधिकारी, 'Adhikari', बस्नेत, 'Basnet', भट, 'Bhat' etc.
- Vaisyas: जोशी, 'Joshi', श्रेष्ठ, 'Shrestha' etc.
- Sudras: सुन्दास, 'Sundas', नेपाली, 'Nepali'

The Nepalese give their children two names, a first name, e.g. विश्वनाथ, तोयनाथ।

#### 4.2.2. Place name as heads

Place names when functioning as heads consist of an obligatory place name. As with the person names, place names do not inflect for numbers as they refer to one geographical place name, as काठमाण्डौ, गौरिघाट etc.

#### 4.3. Pronoun Phrase

The pronoun phrase follows the following internal structure [7]:

Pronoun Phrase (ProP) = Optional Modifier + Obligatory Pronoun Head

In certain instances, the optional modifier occurs after the head. This applies to a few personal pronouns. The plural number suffix -हरू occurs with तिमी, तिनी, वहाँ, तिमि. The plural number suffix -हरू occurs optionally with the pronoun हामी, which shows an alternative form हामीहरू.

##### 4.3.1. Pronouns as heads

The pronouns (pro) constitute a small closed class and belong indirectly to the gender (masculine vs. feminine) of the nouns which they substitute, but are not inflected for gender. The gender of the pronouns is expressed morphologically by the verbs with which they stand in syntactic construction. Compared to nouns, pronouns inflect more irregularly for case and number. Following are the personal pronouns and their honorific forms [7]:

Person	Singular	Plural
First	म	हामी(हरू)
Second		
Level of respect		
Low Grade Honorific (LGH)	तँ	तिमीहरू
Mid Grade		तिमीहरू
	तिमी	

Person	Singular	Plural
	तपाईँ	
High Grade Honorific (HGH)		
Third		
		उनीहरू, तिनीहरू
	तिनी	तिनीहरू
	वहाँ	वहाँहरू

**Table 23. Personal Pronouns and their honorific forms**

In formal conversation तपाईँ and तपाईँहरू (second person HGH) show variants यहाँ and यहाँहरू.

The Royal honorific used to refer to the king and his family सरकार is used as both second person and third person pronoun, and follows the regular pattern.

##### 4.3.2. Modifiers in the pronoun phrase

Pronouns do not occur with the determiners (demonstratives, numerals and classifiers), but they do cooccur with certain modifiers [7].

The following modifiers precede the pronouns they stand in construction with:

केवल 'only',

खाली 'only'

The following modifiers follow the pronouns they modify:

एकलै 'alone'

मात्रै 'only, alone'

दुवै 'both'

सबै 'all'

आफैं 'oneself'

village+ neighbours

#### 4.4. Dependent nominals functioning as modifiers in larger nominals

Dependent nominals function as modifiers in larger CNPs. These dependent nominals are divided into four subgroups [7]:

- i) characterizing modifiers;
- ii) appositive modifiers;
- iii) genitive modifiers;
- iv) delimiting modifiers.

The order of the functional constituents of the larger nominals with dependent nominals as modifiers is presented in the following formula:

Larger Common Noun Phrase (CNP) = Modifier + obligatory head (dependent nominals)

The modifiers could be the following [7]:

- i) The characteristic modifiers are adjectives, adjectival phrase or adjectival clauses.
- ii) The appositive modifiers are nouns .
- iii) The genitive modifiers are marked by the genitive case forms of nouns and pronouns.
- iv) The delimiting modifiers are pronomial adjectives. When they occur independently in a syntactic structure, they occur like pronouns (with anaphoric reference), inflecting for cases, and distribute as complements or adjuncts of the verbs. But when they occur in the CNP structures they function as modifiers as they stand in construction with the nouns (heads).

##### 4.4.1. Characterizing modifiers

Characterizing modifiers, that is modifiers describing the head(noun), are formally different from other modifiers. The characterizing modifiers are adjectivals, or participial forms of verbs with their complements [7]. For instance,

गाउँले + छिमेकीहरू

नरमाइलो लाग्नु पर्ने + कुरा  
the matter to be unhappy about

सब भन्दा ठुलो + सन्तोष  
the greatest + satisfaction

आँगनमा चरिरहेका + परेवा  
the pigeons + wandering in the courtyard  
तीर्थ गर्ने इच्छा  
a desire to go on + a pilgrimage

##### 4.4.2. Appositive modifiers

Appositive modifiers occur in noun phrases which are double-headed constructions consisting of two or more heads, all obligatory, filled by two or more juxtaposed noun phrases which show the same case. This may be represented as follows:

Appositive Modifiers = Obligatory Head:NP+Obligatory Head:NP

Although structurally apposition consists of no more than the simple juxtaposition of two noun phrases each filling a head, the noun phrase in the second head serves to identify more completely the noun phrase filling the first , e.g.

हरिवंश पुराण "Haribamsha the legend"

फागुन महीना "the month of Falgun"

नाौली घर्तिनी "Nauli the slave"

माघ महिना "The month of Magh (January-February)"

काले कामी "Kale the blacksmith"

##### 4.4.3. Genitive Modifiers

Genitive modifiers are marked by the genitive case suffix -को of nouns, or genitive cases of pronouns; as मेरो, हाम्रो, तिम्रो, आफ्नो. Thus the genitive case of nouns and pronouns represents the adjectival use of nouns and pronouns [7], e.g.

सुभद्राको कोख

देवीरमनको जित  
उनको अभिमान

The genitive case markers -को,-रो,नो show their allomorphs (variants of minimal grammatical units) – का,रा,ना when the genitive modifiers modify the nouns in plural number, or nouns in oblique cases, e.g.

सन्तानका आशाले  
देवीरमणका आँखा

Since the genitive modifiers function as adjectives, they show inflections not just for number but also for gender. For instance, the genitive case markers -को,रो,नो show their allomorphs -की,री,नी when they stand in construction with the nouns of feminine gender:

घरकी पुरानी चाकर्नी  
सुभद्राकी सुखदुःखकी साथी

#### 4.4.4. Delimiting Modifiers

The difference between the characterizing modifiers and the delimiting modifiers is that the characterizing modifiers are adjectives, adjective phrases, clauses. The delimiting modifiers are only pronomial adjectives in nominal case [7], e.g.

हरेक उपाय 'every effort'

अर्को विवाह 'another marriage'

पल्लो कोठा 'the next room'

कुनै दिन 'certain day'

## 5. Adjectival Structure

### 5.1. The Adjective Phrase

The internal structure of the adjective phrase is as follows [7]:

Adjective Phrase (AdjP)=Optional Modifier+Obligatory Head (Adjective) Eg.

बहुत + पतिपरायणा  
very +loyal (to husband)

झन् भयङ्कर  
more + dreadful

साह्रै नराम्रो  
very +bad

केही शान्त  
somewhat + pacified

एकदम साफ  
very+clean

## 5.2. Adjectives as heads

Within the internal structure of the adjective phrase, an obligatory adjective occurs as the head, e.g.

राम्रो 'handsome'

अग्लो 'tall'

होचो 'short'

कङ्गाल 'poor'

बिरामी 'sick'

असल 'good'

Adjectives ending in -o which occur in the head reflect the gender and number of the noun with which they stand in construction. In other words, they simply manifest those morphological changes to mark the syntactic relationship to the gender of nouns with which they stand in construction with, e.g.

राम्रो केटो 'handsome boy'

राम्री केटी 'beautiful girl'

राम्रा केटाहरू 'handsome boys'

राम्रा केटीहरू 'beautiful girls'

The Nepali adjectives which end in -o show inflected 'evaluative' forms ending in -अङ्ग which show an evaluative degree of quality. These evaluative forms are not allomorphs but are similar to the syntactic comparative and superlative forms. Then an



evaluative connotation 'fairly' or 'more or less' is added to the meaning of such adjectives, e.g.

ठुलो 'big' ठुलै 'fairly big'

सानो 'small' सानै 'fairly small'

होचो 'short' होचै 'fairly short'

अग्लो 'tall' अग्लै 'fairly tall'

मोटो 'fat' मोटै 'fairly fat'

The adjective सब, although not ending in -o, also shows an inflection for its evaluative form ending in -अइ which adds to its meaning the connotation 'fairly' or 'more or less'. For instance, सब 'all' -सबै 'more or less all' [7].

### 5.3. Quantifiers in the AdjP

Quantifiers in the AdjP are divided into four categories [7]:

- 1) adverbs of quantity;
- 2) comparative quantifier phrases;
- 3) superlative quantifier phrases;
- 4) relative superlative quantifier.

#### 5.3.1. Adverbs of quantity

The adverbs of quantity are the following [7]:

अझ 'more', अलिक 'somewhat', अलिकति 'a little', धेरै 'many', केही 'some, somewhat', बहुत 'very', ज्यादै 'very', साह्रै 'extremely'

These adverbs of quantity function as quantifying determiners in the CNP, e.g.

अझ गाह्रो काम 'more difficult task'

अलिक फरक कागज 'somewhat different paper'

अलिकति लामो बाटो 'a little long way'

बहुत पतिपरायणा रमणी 'a very loyal wife'

धेरै नराम्रो खबर 'very bad news'

ज्यादै धेरै पैसा 'very much money'

केही राम्रो परिणाम 'a somewhat better result'

साह्रै नराम्रो रोग 'an extremely bad disease'

#### 5.3.2. Comparative quantifier phrases

Comparative quantifier phrases are divided into two groups [7]:

- i) comparatives with भन्दा;
- ii) comparatives with झन,अझ.

#### 5.3.3. Comparative with भन्दा

Comparative quantifier phrases with भन्दा consist of two obligatory nominals, i.e. common noun, proper noun, pronoun, plus a comparative degree quantifier भन्दा and a head filled by an adjective. The order of these obligatory constituents is shown in the formula [7]:

CompP-भन्दा = Obligatory nominal +Obligatory comparative भन्दा +Obligatory nominal +Obligatory head(adj)

भाग्य भन्दा पुरुषार्थ ठूलो हो।

Hard work is greater than luck.

#### 5.3.3.1. Comparative adjective phrase with झन

Comparative quantifier adjective phrases with झन consist of an obligatory nominal, the comparative झन, and an obligatory head slot filled by an adjective. Unlike comparatives with भन्दा, comparatives with झन do not consist of more than one nominal in the clause. Thus, झन is anaphoric to the nominal of the preceding clause. The order of the constituents is shown in the following formula:

Comp-झन=Obligatory nominal+Obligatory comparative (झन)+Obligatory head

रात्री झन् भयङ्कर प्रतीत हुन्थ्यो।

The night appeared more terrifying.

### 5.3.4. Superlative quantifier phrases

Superlative quantifier phrases with सब भन्दा consist of an obligatory subject, the superlative सब भन्दा and an adjective head. The order of the constituents is shown in the formula [7]:

SupP-सब भन्दा=Obligatory subject+Obligatory superlative(सब भन्दा)+Obligatory complement

सगरमाथा सब भन्दा अग्लो पहाड हो।

The order of the constituents of the superlative quantifier phrases indicates a statistical order (the most frequent order). However, the position of the subject is changeable. This is illustrated by the following example:

सब भन्दा ठूलो सन्तोष यही हो।  
This is the greatest satisfaction.

### 5.3.5. Elative superlative quantifier

The elative superlative quantifier सबै भन्दा is used in expressions with more emphatic connotations than the superlative quantifiers express [7], e.g.

यो घर सुभद्रालाई संसारमा सबै भन्दा प्यारो वस्तु थियो।  
This house was the dearest thing in the world for Subhadra.

## 6. Dependent adjectivals functioning as modifiers within CNPs

The dependent adjectivals modify the CNPs. The internal structures CNP with the dependent adjectivals as modifiers is present in the following formula [7]:

CNP(with DepAdjls)=Obligatory Modifier +Obligatory Head

Dependent adjectivals are derived from verbal adjectives (participles).The participles are divided into two subclasses: (1) imperfect participle marked by the

suffix -ने (2)perfect participle marked by the suffix -एको. The imperfect participle marked by the suffix -ने, functioning as a dependent adjectival is not inflected for tense, person,number, gender and aspect. The perfect participle marked by the derivational suffix -एको is not inflected for tense and person, but it is inflected for number, and gender, e.g.

Singular		Plural	
Masculine	Feminine	Masculine	Feminine
-एको	एकी	-एका	-एका

Table 24. Perfect Participle and the derivational suffix-एको

In the cases where the mode (nonprogressive vs. progressive) is marked, the imperfect participial suffixes -ने, and perfect participial suffix -एको follow the progressive mode marker -इरह- The nonprogressive mode is unmarked, e.g.

Nonprogressive mode		Progressive mode	
Imperfect participle	Perfect participle	Imperfect participle	Perfect participle
-ने	-एको(male singular)	-इरहने	-इरहेको (male singular)
-ने	-एकी(female singular)	-इरहने	-इरहेकी (female singular)
-ने	-एका (pl.)	-इरहने	-इरहेका (plural)

Table 25. Progressive and Nonprogressive modes

The internal structure of all participles consists of the stem of the verb, and with the addition of one of the participial suffixes, i.e. -ने or एको.

### 6.1. The imperfect participle -ने as modifier.

The dependent adjectivals characterizing the head (noun) with the imperfect participle -ने consist of an obligatory derived verbal adjective, that is a verb with imperfect participle -ने, and an obligatory head (noun) [7].

CNP(with DepAdj1)-ने= Obligatory derived verbal adjective: verb with imperfect participle -ने + Obligatory head (noun)

Verb stems	Imperfect participle (-ने)	Head (noun)	
खा	खाने	कुरा	खाने कुरा
जानु	जाने	मान्छे	जाने मान्छे
लेख्नु	लेख्ने	कलम	लेख्ने कलम
पढ्नु	पढ्ने	किताब	पढ्ने किताब

**Table 26: Adjectivals formed from the imperfect participle -ने, modifying nouns in the CNP structures.**

Dependent adjectivals with the imperfect participle -ने may cooccur with the obligatory direct object(+DO), if the verb (in the imperfect participial form) is a transitive verb, and the head filled by a noun. The order of the functional constituents of the CNP with dependent adjectivals is shown in the formula [7]:

CNP (with DepAdj1-ने) = Obligatory direct object+Predicate: transitive verb – imperfect participial form (-ने)+ Head: common noun

The formula is illustrated by the following example:

दुलही अन्माउने बेला

Adjectivals formed from the perfect participle -ने frequently occur in Nepali.

Direct Object	Verbs in Imperfect participle -ने	Head noun modified by the DepAdj1
दुलही	अन्माउने	बेला
दुःख	पोस्ने	भाँडो
परेवालाई	पक्रने	कोशिश
तीर्थ	गर्ने	इच्छा
काम	गर्ने	मान्छे

**Table 27. Adjectivals formed from the perfect participle -ने**

## 6.2. The perfect participle -ने as modifier

Dependent adjectivals marked with -एको which characterize the head noun consist of an obligatory past participle -एको and an obligatory head.

Verb stems	Perfect participle	Head noun
	-एको	
सुत्	सुतिरहेको	कोठा
सोध्	सोधेको	प्रश्न
देख्	देखेको	कुरा

**Table 28. Perfect participle -एको marking the dependent adjectivals modifying the head noun.**

Dependent adjectivals with the perfect participle -एको may cooccur with an optional complement, the predicate filled by a verb (marked by the perfect participial suffix -एको), and the head filled by a noun. The order of the functional constituents of the CNP with dependent adjectivals is shown in the following formula [7]:

CNP(with DepAdj1-एको)= Obligatory Modifier(Complement)+Predicate:verb-एको+ Head: common noun

The complement, an optional element, can be a noun in instrumental case, dative case, ablative case, locative case, or any noun phrase or postpositional phrase filling the same functional slot, i.e. complement. For instance,

Instrumental complement:

तपाईंले भनेको खबर

Dative complement:

उसलाई दिएको पैसा

Ablative complement:

अमेरिकाबाट आएको चिठी

Locative complement:

लण्डनमा भेटेको मान्छे

## 7. Adverbial Structures

The internal structure of adverb phrase (AdvP) is as follows [7]:

Adverbial Phrase (AdvP)= Optional Complement +Optional Modifier+ Head (Adverb)

The following adverbial phrase shows that the optional complement is realized in it:

घरबाट धेरै टाढा  
very far from home

### 7.1. Simple adverbs

Simple adverbs act as the head in an adverb phrase and are divided into two categories [7]: (1) derived adverbs, and (2) nonderived adverbs.

#### 7.1.1. Derived adverbs

The derived adverbs are grouped into three subclasses:

i) adverbs ending in -अरी;

ii) adverbs ending in -साथ;

iii) adverbs ending in -पूर्वक;

The derived adverbs consist of a stem (adjective, adverb or noun) and one of the following suffixes: -अरी, -साथ, and -पूर्वक. The suffix -अरी occurs with the Nepali stems; the suffix -साथ occurs with stems borrowed from Hindi; and the suffix -पूर्वक occurs with stem borrowed from Sanskrit.

Adverbs ending in -अरी

Adverbs ending in -अरी in a manner are derived from Nepali adjectives, and Nepali adverbs. The underlying linear order consists of an adjective stem, or an adjective stem, or an adverb stem plus the adverb suffix -अरी in a certain way or manner, i.e.

Nepali Adjective stem	Derived adverbs in -अरी
राम्रो	राम्ररी
बेस	बेसरी
सुस्त	सुस्तरी

Table 29 (a). Adjective Stem

Nepali Adverb stem	Derived adverbs in -अरी
कसो	कसरी
जसो	जसरी
त्यसो	त्यसरी

Table 29. Adverbs ending in -अरी

Adverbs ending in -साथ

Adverbs ending in -साथ are derived from Hindi adjective or nouns. The underlying linear order consists of a Hindi adjective or noun stem plus the adverb suffix -साथ, e.g.

Hindi noun, adj-stems	Derived adverbs in - साथ
खुशी	खुशीसाथ
दिकदारी	दिकदारीसाथ
फूर्ति	फूर्तिसाथ

**Table 30. Adverbs ending in -साथ**

Adverbs ending in पूर्वक

Adverbs ending in -पूर्वक are derived from nouns. Adverbs ending in पूर्वक are of Sanskrit origin. The underlying linear order consists of a Sanskrit noun stem plus the adverb suffix -पूर्वक, e.g.

Sanskrit noun stems	Derived adverbs in - पूर्वक
उत्साह	उत्साहपूर्वक
आनन्द	आनन्दपूर्वक
धैर्य	धैर्यपूर्वक

**Table 31. Adverbs ending in -पूर्वक**

### 7.1.2. Non-derived adverbs

Non-derived adverbs are adverbials since they do not show the derivational suffixes that characterize the adverbs. The adverbials are distinguished from the adverbs only on the basis of their forms (morphology). In terms of the distribution, the adverbials fill the same functional slots as the adverbs do.

<i>अब</i> 'from now on'	<i>अबेला</i> 'late'
अहिले 'now, at this time'	आज 'today'
अघि 'before, previously'	आफूखुशी 'voluntarily'

<i>अब</i> 'from now on'	<i>अबेला</i> 'late'
अहिले 'now'	अकस्मात् 'suddenly'
आखिर 'finally'	अलि 'a little'
अत्यन्त 'extremely'	अहिल्यै 'right now'
बारबार 'frequently'	भोलि 'tomorrow'
भएपनि 'although'	बहुत 'very'
भरखर 'recently'	बाहिर 'outside'
बित्तिकै 'as soon as'	चाँडै 'soon, quickly'
एकलै 'alone'	चटक्कै 'completely'
एकदम 'completely'	जहाँ 'where'
जहिले 'when'	झण्डै 'almost'
जसरी 'in which way'	जता 'which way'
कहाँ 'where?'	कहिले 'when?'
कसरी 'in which way?'	कता 'which way, whither?'
केही 'somewhat'	किन 'why?'
परस्पर 'mutually'	मात्र 'only'
नजिकै 'near'	पछि 'afterwards'
पछिल्लिर 'behind'	फेरि 'again'
पनि 'also'	पिलपिल 'atwinkle'
सबेरै 'early'	साह्रै 'very'
सदैव 'always'	सम्म 'only'
तलतिर 'downward'	त्यहाँ 'there'
त्यसरी 'in that way'	त्यता 'there, on that side'
उहिले 'then'	उता 'on that side'
व्यर्थै 'unnecessarily'	यहाँ 'here'

अब 'from now on'	अबेला 'late'
यस्तरी 'in such a way'	यता 'here, on this side'

**Table 32. Adverbials of most frequent occurrence**

### 7.1.3. Interrogatives, relators and demonstratives

Among the nonderived adverbs, some of them are substitute forms. These substitute forms are grouped into three subclasses: interrogatives, relators, and demonstratives which are correlative forms. In other words, the demonstrative adverbials answer the questions posed by the interrogatives. For instance, the question कहाँ, is answered by त्यहाँ or यहाँ or कहिले is answered by उहिले or अहिले, कसरी is answered by त्यसरी or यसरी [7].

K-Interrogatives	J-Relatives	D-Demonstratives
कहाँ 'where?'	जहाँ 'where'	त्यहाँ, यहाँ 'there', 'here'
कहिले 'when?'	जहिले 'when'	उहिले, अहिले, 'then', 'now'
कसरी 'how?'	जसरी 'which way'	त्यसरी, यसरी, 'that way', 'this way'
कता 'which way?'	जता 'which way'	त्यता, यता 'that way', 'this way'

**Table 33. Interrogatives, relatives and demonstratives**

### 7.1.4. Compound adverbials

Compound adverbials are combinations of two adverbials. The fact that they are compound adverbials is indicated by the hyphen (-) in their transcribed form although there is no hyphen in their Devanagari orthography [7], e.g.

अगाडि पट्टि 'in front'  
आमने सामने 'face to face'  
मास्तिर 'upward'  
मुन्तिर 'downward'

पारि पट्टि 'on the other side'  
अघिल्लि 'in front'  
विचविचमा 'intermittently'

The traditional Nepali grammars call the second element in such compound adverbial postpositions, comparable to prepositions in the English language. When they occur alone, they are called compound adverbials, or adverb phrases (AdvP), i.e. as fillers of the optional adverbials adjunct (AA:) in the clausal structures, e.g.

ऊ अगाडिपट्टि सर्यो।  
He moved in front.

अघिल्लि नबस।  
Do not sit in the front.  
उनीहरू आमने सामने उभिए।  
They stood face-to-face.

## 8. The adverbial postpositional noun phrase

Postpositions are equivalent to prepositions in English. The postpositional phrase consists of a noun or a noun phrase (NP) acting as obligatory complement (+C:) and a postposition (pp) filling the obligatory head (+H:) slot. The internal structure of the postpositional phrase (PP) is as follows [7]:

Postposition (PP) = Obligatory  
Complement: + Obligatory head (postposition):

The formula is illustrated in the following instance,

घर अगाडि  
In front of the house

### 8.1. Postposition and its complements (Nps)

A postposition filling the obligatory head of the postpositional phrase (PP) stands in construction with the noun phrase (Nps) filling the optional complement slot. Some of the postpositions, e.g. अघि or पछि, which may occur alone filling an optional adverbial complement or adjunct slot in a clausal structure may also occur as nonderived adverbials [7].

The forms अघि and पछि, which may occur with clausal constructions are classified as subordinating conjunctions. They are homophonous forms which belong to different classes (subordinating conjunctions, postpositions, or adverbials).

अनुसार 'according to'	बाबजुद 'in spite of'
बदला 'instead'	बाहेक 'except'
बाहिर 'outside'	बमोजिम 'according to'
भर (भरा) 'throughout'	भरी 'all over, in full'
भित्र 'inside, in, into'	देखि 'since'
जस्तै 'like'	जस्तो 'like'
झैं 'like'	द्वारा 'by'
कहाँ 'in, at (location)'	मध्ये 'among'
मनि 'under'	माथि 'on, above, over'
मुनि 'under'	नजिक 'near'
नजिकै 'very near'	नेर 'near'
निमित्त 'for the sake of'	निमित्त 'for, for the sake of'
पछि 'after'	पछाडि 'behind'
पारि 'across (a river or road)'	पट्टि (on the side of)
सँग 'with'	सम्म 'up to'
सामुन्ने 'right in front'	सामु 'in front of'
सित 'with'	तल 'below, under'
तिर 'toward'	बारे 'about'
बिना 'without'	विरुद्ध 'against'

अनुसार 'according to'	बाबजुद 'in spite of'
वारि 'on the closer of two sides'	वारिपारि 'around'

**Table 34. A list of Nepali postpositions**

## 8.2. Postpositions occurring with the NPs in genitive case

A small group of postpositions which belong to this group occur with the complements (NPs) in genitive case. These postpositions occur with the NPs in genitive case only if the NPs refer to human beings. They do not occur with NPs in genitive case if the NPs refer to non human beings [7].

The following are examples of these postpositions cooccurring with complements (NPs) only in the genitive case:

अगाडि 'in front of' मेरो अगाडि नबस  
'Do not sit in front of me.'

बाबजुद 'in spite of' त्यसका बाबजुद  
'In spite of that'

निमित्त 'for the sake of' सन्तानका निमित्त  
'for the sake of offspring'

निमित्त 'for' मेरो निमित्त यो गर।  
'Do it for me please'

पछाडि 'behind' घरको पछाडि रूख छ।  
'There is a tree behind the house.'

सामुन्ने  
'right in front'

घरको सामुन्ने पोखरी छ।  
'There is a pond right in front of the house.'

सामु  
'in front of'

देविरमणका आँखा सामु

'In front of the eyes of Deviraman' विरुद्ध 'against' त्यो

मेरो विरुद्ध बोल्छ।  
He talks against me.

### 8.3. Postpositions occurring with morphologically unmarked forms of the NPs.

The following is a list of postpositions occurring with the morphologically unmarked forms of nouns or noun phrases (Nps) [7]:

कहाँ 'in, at location'	बाहिर 'outside'
बाहेक 'except'	भर 'throughout'
बमोजिम 'according to'	भित्र 'inside, in, into'
भरी 'all over, in full'	जस्तो 'like'
देखि 'since'	द्वारा 'by'
झैं 'like'	मध्ये 'among'
मनि 'under'	माथि 'on, above, over'
मुनि 'under'	नजिक 'near'
नजिकै 'very near'	नेर 'near'
निर 'near'	पारि 'across ( a river or road) '
पछि 'after'	पट्टि 'on the side of'
सँग 'with'	सम्म 'up to'
सित 'with'	तल 'below, under'
तिर 'toward'	बारे 'about'
विना 'without'	वारि 'on the closer of two sides'
वारिपारी 'around'	
अनुसार 'according to'	

**Table 35. Postpositions occurring with the morphologically unmarked forms of nouns or noun phrases (NPs):**

## 9. Conjunctions: Coordinate and subordinate

Conjunctions serve as the connector function, and conjoin two or more structures (words, phrases, or clauses). Conjunctions are of two types: coordinating conjunctions conjoining any two equal structures, and subordinating conjunctions conjoining unequal structures, e.g. a clause dependent on a word, phrase, or clause. The structures conjoined by conjunctions are called conjunctive structures (CX). The internal structure of the coordinating conjunctive structures (CoCX) is presented in the following formula [7]:

CoCX= Obligatory Head: Optional Head : Optional Head: ... Optional Head: +Obligatory Connector : +Obligatory Head:

The items which fill the head preceding and following the connector may be words, phrases, clauses, or sentences. The preceding and the following heads need not both be of the same filler class but both always fill the same functional slots.

### 9.1. Coordinating conjunctions

The coordinating conjunctions conjoin any two equal structures: words, phrases, clauses or sentences. Nepali coordinating conjunctions are presented alphabetically below.

Coordinating conjunctions	Words	Phrases	Clauses
अनि	-	-	+
अथवा	+	+	+
कि	+	+	+
कि ...कि	+	+	+
किन्तु	-	-	+
न .... न	+	+	+
नकि	-	-	+



Coordinating conjunctions	Words	Phrases	Clauses
परन्तु	-	-	+
र	+	+	+
तैपनि or यद्यपि ...तैपनि	-	-	+
तर	-	-	+
तथा	+	+	-
वा	+	+	-
या	+	+	-

**Table 36. Coordinating conjunctions and the element they conjoin**

The figure above indicates what elements are conjoined by which coordinating conjunctions. The coordinating conjunctions अनि , नकि, परन्तु, तैपनि, तर conjoin only clauses and sentences. The coordinating conjunctions अथवा, कि and र conjoin words, phrases and clauses. Following are examples of coordinating conjunctions in use:

अनि के भयो?

And then what happened?

अथवा त्यस अपराधी जस्तो थियो।

Or, it was like that criminal..

जान्थिन् कि जाँदैन्थिन्

Whether she would go or not.

कि त्यो जान्छ कि म जान्छु।

Either he goes, or I will go.

किन्तु ... बीचैमा लुप्त भयो।

But it disappeared in the middle...

न ऊ आफै आयो न कसैलाई पठायो।

Neither he came himself, nor did he send anyone.

मानिसको पाण्डित्य अरूलाई उपदेश गर्नमा काम लाग्छ

नकि आफुलाई परिआउँदा

A man's wisdom is useful in advising others, but not himself.

परन्तु देवीरमणका कपालमा अर्कै विचारको द्वन्द हुन

लागेको थियो।

But in Deviraman's mind, another troubling thought arose.

आखिर लक्ष्मी र सुशीलालाई पनि साथमा लिए ।

In the end, he took Laksmi and Sushil as well.

तैपनि सुभद्राको कोख सफल हुन सकेन।

Even then Subhadra's womb could not be fruitful.

A clause, occurring with the co-ordinating conjunction तैपनि 'even then', stands in construction with the preceding clause which is redundantly and optionally marked by यद्यपि which is glossed as 'although' and wrongly treated as subordinating conjunction by traditional grammars of Nepali. However, the following illustration proves that यद्यपि is not a subordinating conjunction and that it only redundantly marks the first of the two co-ordinate clauses connected by the coordinating conjunction तैपनि 'even then'.

यद्यपि कुरा सत्य हो तैपनि मलाई राम्रो लागेन।

Although it is a true fact, even then I do not like it.

तर अप्तो भनेको सुन्ने बित्तिकै

But as soon as he heard someone calling him 'childless',

धर्म तथा विवेकको हत्या

The violation of religious duty and conscience.

सुभद्राको आदेश पाई हो वा नपाई हो ...

It was with the permission from Subhadra or not...

आशापाश या मृगतृष्णा

The snare of hope or mirage

## 9.2. Subordinating conjunctions

The subordinating conjunctions अघि 'before' , अगाडि 'before', भने 'if', पछि 'after', and पनि 'although' occur at the end of the subordinate clause. The subordinate clauses marked by these subordinating conjunctions occur before the principal clause.

Subordinating conjunctions कि 'that' and किनकि 'because' occur at the beginning of the subordinate clause. The subordinate clause marked by these subordinating conjunctions occur after the principal clause [7].

The following are illustrations of the subordinating conjunctions in context:

डाक्टर आउनु अघि बिरामी मरिसकेको थियो।  
The patient had died before the doctor came.

The subordinating conjunction अगाडि 'before' also distributes the same way as अघि 'before'.

सुभद्रालाई ताडना गरून् भने  
If he rebuked Subhadra

उसले भन्यो कि खबर झूटो हो।  
He said that the news was incorrect.

आफ्नी आमालाई दुलही भन्थ्यो किनकि लक्ष्मीलाई घरमा  
सबैजना दुलही बज्यै भन्थे।  
He called his own mother 'dulahi' because everyone at  
home called Laksmi 'Dulahi Bajyai'.

तिमीले कथा भने पछि मैले बुझें। When you told the  
story, I understood (it).

घरमा चञ्चलाश्री भइकन पनि देवीरमणका सन्तान  
थिएनन्।

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

As an exception to the formula for the subordinate clause in Nepali, the subordinating conjunction यदि 'if' (borrowed from Sanskrit) occurs at the beginning of the subordinate clause, and such a clause also occurs before the principal clause. However, such a clause is also marked according to the normal structure of the Nepali subordinate clause by भने 'if' thus making यदि optional and redundant.

यदि तिमी आउँछौं भने म पनि आउँछु।  
If you come, I will also come.

## 10. Interjections, vocatives, and nuance particles

The Nepali Interjections, vocatives and nuance particles are uninflected, small , closed sets of forms which show no inflections, dependents, or lexical morphology. Interjections are syntactically free, and function as minor sentences, semantically complete but structurally reduced.

Vocatives like interjections, are syntactically free, and can be treated as interjections, representing minor sentences. Vocatives are, however, treated as different from interjections only on the basis that they can also occur in vocative phrasal constructions.

Nuance particles are also uninflected, and a small, closed set of forms. They are characterized by their having no dependents, show no characteristic lexical morphology, and occur in a syntactically independent way in phrases or sentences as optional elements and add to the meaning of a phrase or statement with which they cooccur [7].

### 10.1. Interjections

Interjections constitute a small closed class of independent particles. They function as minor sentences, semantically complete but structurally reduced. Thus, interjections are syntactically complete, and independent of any other element in phrasal, or clausal structures. The most frequent interjections in Nepali are [7]:

अँ (approval)

अहँ (disapproval)

ओहो (great surprise)  
 अबुइ (fear)  
 धत्तेरी (frustration)  
 धत् (indignation)  
 जाँ (regret for forgetfulness)  
 लौँ (vindication)  
 लौँ खा (greater vindication)  
 आचे (surprise)  
 अहाँ (pleasure)  
 ए (pleasure)  
 ऐया (pain)  
 छि: (disapproval/disgust)  
 धत्तेरीका (frustration)  
 ला (Here you go)  
 लौँ (surprise, vindication)

अरे 'they say so' (in reporting speech)  
 है 'okey'  
 क्यारे 'probably, I guess (noncommittal)'  
 न 'simply'  
 नि 'and how about (question)'  
 र 'in confirmation questions'  
 चाँहि 'this, that particular one'  
 कि 'expression of doubt'  
 लाउ 'granted that...'  
 नै really (emphatic particle)  
 पो 'emphatic'  
 त (rather)

Certain nuance particles occur only in phrases, others occur in certain types of statements. So in terms of their distribution, the nuance particles are grouped as phrasal nuance particles and statement nuance particles.

## 10.2. Vocatives

Vocatives, like interjections, are marked by the absence of inflection, dependents, and lexical morphology. The vocatives are attention drawers. The Nepali vocatives are: ए, आइ, हे, ओ, ओइ. The vocatives are similar to interjections as they occur alone and are syntactically free. The vocatives are slightly different from interjections as they may also occur with nouns in unmarked case, and may be constituents of a vocative phrase as: ए गोपाल, 'Hey Gopal!'. However, even in such instances it can still be argued that vocatives are not different from the interjections they still function like interjections (as minor sentences) [7].

## 10.3. Nuance particles

Nuance particles belong to a small closed set of uninflected forms, show no characteristic lexical morphology, and occur as syntactically dependent upon phrases or statements, but are characterized by their having no dependents of their own. The nuance particles in Nepali are [7]:

Nuance particles	Phrase	Statement	Types
अरे, रे	-	+	Declarative
चाँहि	+	-	
है	-	+	Declarative, Imperative, Question
कि	-	+	Question
क्यारे	-	+	Declarative
लाउ	-	+	Declarative
न	+	+	Imperative
नै	+	-	
नि	-	+	Question
पो	+	-	
र	-	+	Question
त	+	+	Imperative,

Nuance particles	Phrase	Statements	Types
			Question

**Table 37. Phrasal and Statement nuance particles**

### 10.3.1. Phrasal nuance particles

As evident from the above, certain nuance particles occur only with phrases, while others occur in different types of sentences (declarative, interrogative and imperative). Those nuance particles which occur only with the phrases are phrasal nuance particles [7].

The phrasal nuance particles are: चाँहि, नै and पो ।

सुशील चाँहि  
Sushil in particular  
अघि नै  
Long before

मलाई पो  
Rather me

The nuance particle त occurs in a phrase as well as question and imperative statements, e.g.

In the phrase:

मलाई त  
'For me in particular'

In a question statement

तपाईंलाई गोर्खा कस्तो लाग्यो त?  
'How did you like Gorkha?'

In an imperative statement:

त्यो किताब लेउ त ।  
'Please pass on that book'.

### 10.3.2. Statement nuance particles

Those nuance particles that occur only with statements are statement nuance particles. They are: अरे, है, कि, क्यारे, न, नि and र । These statement nuance

particles are subdivided as imperative statements, nuance particles, declarative statement nuance particles, and question statement nuance particles [7].

#### 10.3.2.1. Imperative statement nuance particles

The only nuance particle occurring in an imperative statement is न. The following example illustrates its use [7]:

मलाई अलिकति चिया दिनोस् न । 'Give me some tea please'.

#### 10.3.2.2. Declarative statement nuance particles

The declarative statement nuance particle is क्यारे. The following example illustrates its use [7]:

शायद ब्रम्हावादीहरू यसैलाई आशापाश या मृगतृष्णा  
भन्छन् क्यारे ।

The Vedanta school philosophers call it a snare of hope or mirage, I guess.

#### 10.3.2.3. Question statement nuance particles

The question statement nuance particles are: कि, नि, and र .They are exemplified in the following instances [7]:

Question statements:

जान्छौं कि?

Will you also go?

सानो बाबु कस्तो छ नि?

And how about the little boy?

कुन दौलतको चैन गरेकी छु र?

Am I enjoying any wealth?

The nuance particle है cooccurs with all the three types of statements: declarative, imperative, and question statements, e.g.

In a declarative statement है adds the nuance of warning:

त्यो तिमी जस्तै छ है ।

He is just like you. (be careful).

In an imperative statement है adds to the nuance of emphasis:

होश गर है कैदी भागला ।

Be careful, the prisoner may run away.

In an imperative statement with first person singular, है changes the statement into a question:

जाऊँ है?

May I go please?

The nuance particle न occurs in the phrases as well as in statements, e.g.

बलेके आगो न

'Indeed a burning fire'

When the nuance particle न cooccurs with a statement, it cooccurs only with an imperative statement.

मलाई एक किलो चिनी दिनुस् न ।

'Please give me a kilo of sugar'.

## 11. Verbal Structure

The internal structure of the verb phrase (VP) is as follows [7]:

Verb-nonfinite=Optional negative (न-  
...इकन)+Obligatory stem verb+Optional  
causative+Obligatory voice+Obligatory aspect

Verb Phrase-finite=Optional Prefix (Optional  
negative न-)+Obligatory stem verb+Optional  
causative+ Obligatory voice+ Obligatory mode+  
Obligatory aspect + Obligatory Auxiliary suffixes(

Obligatory person+ Obligatory number + Obligatory  
gender+ tense (Optional negative -न-)

The nonfinite forms are:

- i) infinitives marked by the infinitive suffix -  
न or -नु;
- ii) participles marked by the suffixes -एको, -ने,  
-दै, -तै, -एर, -इ, -इकन;
- iii) conditionals marked by the suffix -ए

### Infinitive forms:

जान or जानु 'to go'

खान or खानु 'to eat'

गर्न or गर्नु 'to do'

### Participial forms:

गरेको - (perfect participle) 'done'

गर्ने -(imperfect participle) 'doing'

गर्दै (conjunctive participle) 'doing'

गरेर (absolute participle) having done'

गरिकन '(absolute participle) having done'

### Conditional forms

गए 'if go'

खाए 'if eat'

गरे 'if do'

The verb stems in Nepali are grouped, into three types:

- i) 1'st Conjugation;
- ii) 2'nd Conjugation;
- iii) 3'rd Conjugation.

### 1'st Conjugation type:

Verbs with bases which end in consonants. The  
bases of these verbs have only one form. For instance:  
गर- 'do', बस -'sit', दगुर -'run'.

## 2'nd Conjugation type:

Verbs with bases which end in the following vowels: -इ and आ, with a single exception of जा-'go'. The bases of these verbs have only one form. For instance, दि-'give', लि-'take', खा-'eat', बिसी-'forget'.

## 3'rd Conjugation type:

Verbs with bases which end in the following vowels: आउ, अ,उ, and आ in the single case of जा-'go'. These bases have two variant forms which are known as primary and secondary.

1'st Conjugation	2'nd Conjugation	3'rd Conjugation	
		Primary	Secondary
गर -'do'	खा -'eat'	आउ 'come'	आ-
बस- 'sit'	ला -'take away'	पाउ 'get'	पा-
देख -'see'	दि -'give'	पठाउ -'send'	पठा-
सुन- 'hear'	लि -'take'	धु -'wash'	धो-
भन - 'say'	उभी -'stand'	रू - 'weep'	रो-
दगुर - 'run'	बिसी-'forget'	दुहु -'milk'	दुह-
खस - 'drop'	उम्ली -'boil'	जा 'go'	ग-

**Table 38. Conjugate types of verbs**

### 11.1. Verbs as heads

The simple finite verb forms are the heads of the verb phrases. Thus the verb as a grammatical word may be represented as [7]:

Verb = Optional Prefix+Obligatory Stem Verb + Optional Causative + Obligatory Voice + Obligatory Mode + Obligatory Aspect + Obligatory Suffix

The finite forms of the verbs are inflected for the following categories: causative, voice, mode, aspect, tense, person, gender and number. The verb shows whether it is a noncausative form (unmarked) or causative (marked by the suffix -आउ). The verb also shows one of the two voices, active (unmarked) vs. passive (marked by the suffix -इ), e.g. गर् -'do' vs. गरी - 'be done'. If the non-causative stem is considered as a normal consonantal C stem, the causative form can be called the A stem. Likewise, if the active (unmarked) stem can be considered normal consonantal C stem, the passive form can be called the I stem because the इ is suffixed to the normal stem to make it a passive stem. Thus, the causative and the passive forms can be regarded as parts of the stem, and they can be grouped as A stems and I stems respectively, e.g.

C stem	A stems		I stem
	Primary	Secondary	
गर्	गराउ	गर	गरी
बस्	बसाउ	बस	बसी
देख्	देखाउ	देख	देखी

**Table 39. Verb stems**

The verb shows one of the two modes: nonprogressive (unmarked) vs. progressive (marked by the -इरह-) and one of two aspects: nonperfect (unmarked) vs. perfect (marked by -एको). The verb also shows person, number, tense and gender (at least in third person singular) by a portmanteau suffix (one morpheme which simultaneously represents many categories, e.g. person, number, tense and gender).

The verbs shows one of the three persons (first, second or third), one of the two numbers (singular vs. plural), one of the two genders (masculine vs. feminine), in the third person singular, and one of the three tenses (past, present or future). The past tense is further divided into simple past, habitual past, and unknown past. The unknown past refers to an activity once unknown to the speaker. The future tense is further divided into future definite and future nondefinite. The future definite indicates stronger probability than the future indefinite.

### 11.2. Auxiliary verbs in the Verb Phrase

The auxiliary verbs in Nepali are: पर्नु 'should,must', हुनु 'be' and सक्नु 'can, may'. Auxiliary verb पर्नु 'should,must' is inflected for tense, but uninflected for aspect, person, number or gender [7], e.g.

पर्छ (present) 'should, must'  
पर्यो (simple past) 'had to'  
पथर्यो (habitual past) 'had to'  
परेछ (unknown past) 'had to'  
पर्ला (future) 'will have to'

The auxiliary verbs हुनु 'be' and सक्नु 'can, may' are inflected for aspect, person, number and gender.

With the auxiliary हुनु 'be' the head of the Verb Phrase carries the perfect participial suffix -एको, which inflects like an adjective for gender, and number, e.g. -एको (masculine singular), -एकी (feminine singular), and -एका (plural).

With the auxiliary सक्नु 'can,may' and पर्नु 'should,must' the head of the verb phrase is in the infinitive form.

### 11.3. The negative verb forms

The negative verb forms are formed at the morphological level and the morpheme न- is prefixed (to the imperative, infinitive, conditional, and participial forms), or is suffixed (to the verb stems elsewhere) [7].

#### 11.3.1. The negative prefix न-

The negator न- 'not' is prefixed to imperative, infinitive, conditional, and participial forms, e.g.

#### Imperative:

खानोस् 'Please eat.' नखानोस् 'Please do not eat.'  
जानोस् 'Please go' नजानोस् 'Please do not go'  
गर्नाोस् 'Please do it' नगर्नाोस् 'Please do not do it'

#### Infinitive:

जान 'to go' नजान 'not to go'  
खान 'to eat' नखान 'not to eat'  
गर्न 'to do' नगर्न 'not to do'

#### Conditional forms:

खाए 'if eat' नखाए 'if not eat'  
गरे 'if do' नगरे 'if not do'

#### Participial forms:

नगरेको '(perfect participle) not done'  
नगर्ने '(imperfect participle) not doing'  
नगर्दै '(conjunctive participle) not doing'  
नगरेर '(absolutive participle) having not done without doing'  
नगरी '(absolutive participle) having not done, without doing'  
नगरीकन '(absolutive participle) having not done, without doing'

#### 11.3.2. The negative suffix -न-

The negative -न- is suffixed to the verb stem elsewhere, e.g.

गर्दैन 'He does not do it'  
खादैन 'He does not eat it'  
जाँदैन 'He does not go.'  
गर्दैनन् 'They do not do it'  
खादैनन् 'They do not eat it'  
जाँदैनन् 'They do not go'

In the third person plural forms the negative -न- is followed by the third person plural suffixes.

### 11.4. Verbs which require the obligatory fronting of the dative complement

Verbs which require the fronting of the dative complements (nouns, noun phrases, pronouns, or pronoun phrases in dative case) belong to the class of d-secondary verbs. The following is a list of the most frequently occurring d-secondary verbs which require the obligatory fronting of the dative complement [7]:

भोक लाग्नु 'feel hungry'  
 दिक्क लाग्नु 'feel sad'  
 गाह्रो लाग्नु 'find difficult'  
 निको लाग्नु 'be well, cured'  
 थकाइ लाग्नु 'feel tired'  
 डर लाग्नु 'be afraid'  
 दिशा लाग्नु 'have diarrhoea'  
 मन पर्नु 'like'  
 रक्सी लाग्नु 'get drunk'  
 तिर्खा लाग्नु 'feel thirsty'

### 11.5. Modifiers in the Verb Phrase

Modifiers in the verb phrase are either adverbs (adv), adverbial phrases (AdvP), or postpositional phrases (PP) [7], e.g.

#### Adverb:

सुस्तरी भनिन् ।  
 She said faintly.

#### Adverbial Phrase:

एक एक गरी हेरे ।  
 He examined one by one.

गए साल हरिवंश पुराण लगाए ।  
 He listened to the Harivamsha purana last year.

#### Postpositional phrases (PP)

सुशील तुलसीको मठनेर खेतिरहेको थियो ।  
 Sushil was playing near a mound of earth in which the sacred Tulsi plant was growing.

Nepali has relatively few modal verbs as compared to English. The English modals 'will' and 'shall' are expressed through the Nepali future tense. The English modal 'would' is expressed through the Nepali habitual past tense. The English modal 'might' is expressed through the Nepali nondefinite future tense.

## 12. Clausal Structures

The internal structure of the clause may be represented by the following formula [7]:

Clause (Cl)= Optional Adverbial Disjunct+ Optional Exclamation + Optional Connector+ Optional Subject+ Optional Instrumental Adjunct+ Optional Locative Adjunct+ Optional Ablative Adjunct+ Optional Adverbial Adjunct+ Obligatory Locative Complement+ Obligatory Dative Complement+ Obligatory Direct Object+ Obligatory Subject Complement+ Obligatory Object Complement+ Obligatory Predicate+ Optional Nuance Particle

The clauses in which the verb phrases occur may be categorized as:

i) transitive;

A clause and its verb may be characterised as 'transitive' if the verb cooccurs with the direct object.

ii) Equational;

A clause and its verb may be characterised as 'equational' if the verb cooccurs with a subject complement.

iii) Intransitive;

A clause and its verb is characterised as 'intransitive' if the verb cooccurs without a direct object and without a subject complement.

Each of these three types of clauses and verbs may be further subcategorized according to other obligatory complements which cooccur in the clause.

The constituents which are obligatory to the clause are:

i) predicate;



ii) obligatory complements of the predicate.

### 12.1. Verbals as predicates

The nucleus of a clause is a verb phrase which is either a finite or nonfinite form (infinitive, participle, conditional). The verb phrase is either a simple verb phrase or a complex verb phrase (main verb plus auxiliary).

### 12.2. Subjects in the clause

In Nepali the verb which fills the nuclear predicate of a finite clause is marked for the person and number of the Subject. Further specification of the subject by the occurrence of a nominal in the nominative cases is optional. If the subject is further specified, the form or forms which fill the optional Subject are nominal forms in nominative case, e.g. Nouns, pronouns, nominalized adjectives, noun clauses, etc. which show a cross reference tie to the verb in person, number and gender.

### 12.3. Complements in the clause

The complement functions in a clause are: direct object (DO), object complement(OC), subject complement (SC), dative complement (DC) and locative complement (LC). These functions are filled by nouns and pronouns in different cases, adjectives in nominative and accusative cases, and phrases (AdjPs, NPs and PPs).

#### 12.3.1. Transitive verbs and their complements

All transitive verbs occur with an obligatory direct object. The transitive verbs are subcategorized as follows on the basis of other obligatory complements they take besides the direct object :

- i) transitive verb-1;
- ii) transitive verb-2;
- iii) transitive verb-3;
- iv) transitive verb-4.

##### 11.3.1.1. Transitive-1 verbs

Transitive-1 verbs are verbs which occur with an obligatory direct object. Direct objects which are animate are marked by the accusative case marker -लाई. Objects which are not animate are not marked by

the accusative case marker -लाई, i.e. The nominative and accusative cases of nonanimate nominals are identical in both the singular and plural. The constituents of the clause with the transitive-1 verbs are:

Optional Subject:+ Obligatory Direct Object:-accusative + Obligatory Predicate: transitive verb-1

म आफ्नो छोरालाई पढाउँछु।

I teach my own son.

म भात खान्छु।

I eat rice.

##### 12.3.1.1. Transitive-2 verbs

Transitive-2 verbs are verbs which occur with an obligatory dative complement besides an obligatory direct object complement. The dative complement of a transitive-2 verb is marked by the dative case marker -लाई while the direct object of the transitive-2 verb is not so marked. The constituents of the clause with the transitive-2 verb are:

Optional Subject+Obligatory Dative Complement+Obligatory Direct Object+ Obligatory Predicate:transitive-2 verb

सुभद्रा दमाई र डोलेहरूलाई ज्याला बाँड्दैथिइन्।

Subhadra was giving away wages to the musicians and the litter-bearers.

सुभद्रा छोरालाई भात खुवाइरहेकी थिइन्।

Subdhra was feeding rice to her son.

##### 12.3.1.2. Transitive-3 verbs

Transitive-3 verbs are verbs which occur with an obligatory direct object in accusative case and an obligatory object complement in the accusative case. The constituents of the clause with the transitive-3 verb are:

Optional Subject: + Obligatory Direct Object:-accusative+Obligatory Object Complement:-accusative+Obligatory Predicate:Transitive-3 verb

देविरमण आफ्नो वैभवलाई तुच्छ सम्झन्थे।

Deviraman considered his wealth as worthless.

सुशील आफ्नी आमालाई दुलही भन्थ्यो।  
Sushil called his own mother 'dulahi'

12.3.1.3. Transitive-4 verbs

Transitive-4 verbs are verbs which occur with an obligatory direct object and an obligatory locative complement. The constituents of the clause with the transitive-4 verb are [7]:

Optional Subject:+Obligatory Direct  
Object+Obligatory locative complement+Predicate:  
Transitive-4 verb

कन्यापक्षका मानिसले दुलहीलाई डोलीमा हालिदिए।  
The people of the bride put her in the litter.

सुभद्रा गास मुखमा हालिदिन्थिन्।  
Subhadra put the mouthfuls of food in the mouth.

### 12.3.2. The equational verbs

The equational verbs (i.e. verbs which cooccur with 'subject complement' (SC) in Nepali are हुनु 'be', देखिनु 'appear, seem', and लाग्नु 'feel'. The equational verb-1 हुनु 'be' has two forms:

- i) the identificational हुनु;
- ii) the existential हुनु

The equational verb-2 has two members: देखिनु and लाग्नु

12.3.2.1. Identificational हुनु 'be'

The function of the identificational हुनु is to identify the subject.

ऊ नेपाली हो ।  
He is a Nepali.

12.3.2.2. The existential हुनु 'be'

The function of the existential हुनु is to indicate the existence of the subject or locate it.

ऊ बाठो छ।  
He is clever.

12.3.2.3. The equational verbs-2 देखिनु and लाग्नु 'appear'

The equational verbs देखिनु and लाग्नु occur with an obligatory subject complement plus an obligatory direct complement.

देविरमणलाई कोठा नौलो लाग्यो।  
The room appeared strange to Deviraman.

### 12.3.3. Intransitive verbs and their complements

Intransitive verbs are verbs which do not stand in construction with a Direct Object or a Subject Complement. Nepali has three types of intransitive verbs [7]:

- i) Intransitive-1 verbs
- ii) Intransitive -2 verbs
- iii) Intransitive -3 verbs

#### Intransitive-1 verbs

Intransitive-1 verbs are verbs which occur with no complements.

सुभद्रा रोइन् ।  
Subhadra cried.

#### Intransitive-2 verbs

Intransitive-2 verbs are verbs which occur with an obligatory dative complement, e.g.

देविरमणलाई चाँडै निद्रा पर्यो।  
Deviraman fell asleep soon.

#### Intransitive-3 verbs

Intransitive-3 verbs are verbs which occur with an obligatory locative complement.

देविरमण खाटमा पल्टे।  
Deviraman lay in the bed.

#### 12.4. Subject-predicate linking by person-number-gender-honorific level inflection

The subject and the predicate of a clause are linked by person, number, gender, and honorific level inflection of the verb in the third person singular. The categories person, number, gender, tense, and honorific level are shown only in finite forms of the verbs. In nonfinite clauses these categories are not reflected.

#### 12.5. Optional adverbial adjuncts

The clausal structure (transitive, equational, or intransitive) may also cooccur with one or more optional adverbial adjuncts, namely instrumental adjunct (IA), locative adjuncts (LA), ablative adjuncts (AbA) or adverbial adjunct (AA).

Following are the examples of each of these optional adverbial adjuncts:

##### Instrumental adjuncts

आत्मग्लानिले पानी हुन्थे ।  
He used to be inflicted by sorrow.

##### Locative adjuncts

भाग्यले यो उमेरमा उनलाई फेरि दुलाहा बनायो।  
Destiny made him (Deviraman) a bridegroom again at this age.

##### Ablative adjuncts

यसबाट उनको भलो कुभलो के हुने हो।  
Whether good or evil would result from this.

##### Adverbial adjuncts

भाग्यले यो उमेरमा उनलाई फेरि दुलाहा बनायो।  
Destiny made him (Deviraman) a bridegroom again at this age.

#### 12.6. Other optional elements

The other optional elements in clausal structure are [7]:

- i) adverbial disjuncts;
- ii) exclamations;
- iii) connectors;
- iv) subjects.

##### 12.6.1. Adverbial disjuncts (AD)

The adverbial disjunct consists of an adverbial clause which is marked by the verb with absolutive participial suffixes -इ, -एर, -इकन, imperfect participial suffix -दा or the conditional form suffix -ए followed by subordinate conjunctions यदि 'if' and पनि 'although'. For eg.,

घरमा चञ्चलाश्री भइकन पनि  
Although there was wealth in his house.

जोरिपारीसँग ठोकाबाजी पर्दा  
While in competition with the (jealous) neighbors

दुलही भएर  
being (as) a bride.

##### 12.6.2. Exclamations

The optional function of the exclamation is filled by the interjections and the vocatives. For eg.,

छि! सुभद्राको आजीवन सेवाको पुरस्कार यही हो?  
Fie! Is this the reward for Subhadra's life-long service?

##### 12.6.3. Connectors

The optional connector function is filled by either coordinate conjunctions or subordinate conjunctions. For eg.,

घरमा चञ्चलाश्री भइकन पनि  
Although there was wealth in his house

#### 12.6.4. The Subjects

The functional slot of the subject filled by nouns, noun phrases, pronouns, or noun clauses is optional. The subject is optional because it is marked in the finite form of the verbs.

For eg.,

आत्माग्लानिले पानी हुन्थे।

He used to be inflected by sorrow.

In the above example, the form हुन्थे in mid level honorific indicates that the subject referred to by it is a third person, singular, masculine gender. Hence the subject is not necessary to explicitly mention.

### 13. Special type of clauses

Special type of clauses include [7]:

- passive clauses;
- imperative clauses;
- question clauses;

#### 13.1. Passive Clauses

In Nepali the passive clause has a passive form of a verb which is marked by the derivational suffix -ई-. For instance,

Active stem	Active form	Passive stem	Passive form
छेक् - 'block'	छेक्छ 'he blocks'	छेकी	छेकिन्छ 'is blocked'
पा- 'get'	पाउँछ 'he gets'	पाइ	पाइन्छ 'is gotten'
पुच् - 'wipe'	पुछ्छ 'he wipes'	पुछी	पुछिन्छ 'is wiped'

Table 40. Active and Passive Stems and forms

When the passive form of a verb is used in a passive clause, the object of the verb in active clause occurs as subject; and the number, gender, person of

the noun or pronoun filling the subject function slot are shown syntactically in the third person by their reference tie to the verbs, e.g.

Passive clause	Active clause
स्वर्गको बाटो छेकिन्छ ।	स्वर्गको बाटो छेक्छ ।
फलेफूलेको देख पाइयोस् ।	फलेफूलेको देख पाओस् ।
उनको आँसु पुछिने थियो ।	उनको आँसु पुछ्ने थियो ।

Table 41. Active and Passive clauses

#### 13.2. Imperative clauses

The imperative clauses are marked by the imperative form of the verb with its complements. The imperative form of the verb inflects for the following four levels of honorifics. For instance,

गर्, गरेस् 'do (LGH)'

गर 'please do (MGH)'

गर्नास् 'please do(HGH)'

गरिबक्स्योस् 'please do (Royal Honorific)'

Imperative: घरको सम्भार राखेस् । 'Take a good care of the house.' Declarative: घरको सम्भार राख्छ । 'He takes a good care of the house.'

#### 13.3. Question clauses

The question clauses in Nepali are of two types:

- K-question clauses;
- हो-होइन question clauses.

##### 13.3.1. K-question clauses

A K-question clause has a word which begins with a 'k' and asks an information question. The following is a list of common information questions.

को 'who?' के 'what?'

कहाँ 'where?' किन 'Why?'

कसरी 'how?' के 'what?'

कहिले 'when?'

कति 'how much, how many?'

कस्तो 'what kind?'

### 13.3.2. Ho/hoina question clauses

Ho/hoina questions are so called because the answer to these questions is either हो 'yes' or होइन 'no'. The ho-hoina question clauses are divided into two categories: ho/hoina questions with question intonation, and ho/hoina questions with हगि.

#### 13.3.2.1. हो/होइन question with question intonation

The ho/hoina question has the same grammatical or syntactic structure as the declarative sentence, but is differentiated by the shift in intonation, e.g.

Declarative: नेपाल एक हिन्दू देश थियो । Nepal was a Hindu country.

Question: नेपाल हिन्दू देश थियो?' Was Nepal a Hindu country?'

#### 13.3.2.2. Ho/Hoina question with the tag हगि

The ho/hoina question with the tag हगि has the same structural description as the declarative clause. The tag हगि, 'wouldn't it, isn't it, aren't you, etc', occurs in the final position in the sentence, and makes the clause a question clause, e.g.

Declarative: नेपाल हिन्दू देश थियो । 'Nepal was a Hindu country.'

Question: नेपाल हिन्दू देश हगि? 'Nepal was a Hindu country, wasn't it?'

## 14. Finite Dependent clauses : Nominal, adjectival, and adverbial

A finite clause has a finite form of verb filling the predicate slot. A finite dependent that fills the object slot or subject slot in the principal clause is a finite dependent noun clause; a finite dependent clause that fills the modifier slot in the principal clause is a finite

dependent adjective clause; and a finite dependent clause that fills the adverbial adjunct slot in the principal clause is a finite dependent adverbial clause [7].

### 14.1. Finite dependent noun clause

The dependent noun clause functions either as an object or subject to the verb in the principal clause like a noun or noun phrase except that this is a clausal structure.

Dependent noun clause functioning as object to the verb in the principal clause has a finite verb in it. The verb in the principal clause is a transitive verb. The dependent noun clause functioning as object to the transitive verb in the principal clause is connected to the principal clause by कि भनेर, or quotation marks in written Nepali, e.g.

मनमनले भने, के सुभद्राले साँचो मनले सल्लाह दिएको हो?

'He said to himself, "Did Subhadra give her consent sincerely?"'

In Nepali a dependent noun clause functioning as subject to the verb in principal clause has a verb only in nonfinite (infinitive) form, and is, therefore, a nonfinite clause.

### 14.2. Finite dependent adjective clause

The finite dependent clause functioning as an adjective clause fills the modifier slot in the sentence and modifies the noun or noun phrase in the principal clause: such a dependent adjectival clause has a finite verb or verb phrase at its nucleus. The dependent clause is marked by the J-class substitute forms, e.g. जो 'who', जसलाई 'whom' जसले 'who', जसबाट 'from whom', जसको 'whose', जुन 'which', जहाँ 'where' and जहिले 'when'.

आज देवीरमणको गति त्यस बालक छात्रको जस्तो थियो जो पहिलो दिनको पाठ बिर्सेर अबेला गुरुकहाँ पुग्दछ।

'Today, Deviraman's situation was like that of a little boy who forgetting his previous lesson, arrives late at his guru's place.'

Finite dependent adverbial clause with भने 'if, किनकि or किन भने 'because'. Finite dependent adverbial clauses with भने 'if' किनकि or किनभने 'because' fill the slot of adverbial adjunct in the principal clause, e.g.

लक्ष्मीलाई ताडना गरून् भने पुत्रवती पत्नी थिइन्।  
'If he rebuked Lakshmi, she was his wife with a son'.

आफ्नी आमालाई "दुलही" भन्थ्यो, किनकि लक्ष्मीलाई घरमा सबैजना "दुलही बज्यै" भन्थे।  
He called his own mother "Dulahi" because everyone in the family called Lakshmi "Dulahi Bajyai".

#### 14.3. Finite dependent adverbial clause with भने'if', किनकि, किन भने,'because'

Finite dependent adverbial clauses with भने'if', किनकि, किन भने,'because' fill the slot of adverbial adjunct in the principal clause.

For eg.,

यो योजना नेपालमा संभव छैन किनभने त्यहाँ पूँजीको कमी छ  
This plan is not feasible in Nepal because there is a shortage of capital here.

#### 15. Nonfinite dependent clauses: Infinitive, participial, and conditional

Nonfinite dependent clauses are of three types [7]:

- i) nonfinite dependent noun clause;
- ii) nonfinite dependent adverbial clause with a verb in either infinitive form -नु, न plus ले, or perfect participial form -एको plus ले, or imperfective participial form -ने plus ले functioning as adverbial adjuncts;
- iii) nonfinite dependent adverbial clause with a

verb in conditional form functioning as adverbial adjuncts.

#### 15.1. Nonfinite dependent noun clause with a verb in infinitive form

A dependent noun clause that fills the subject slot in the principal clause in Nepali has a verb only in nonfinite (infinitive) form. Such a noun clause functioning as subject is connected to the principal clause by भन्नु or भनेको, e.g.

सौँताको रिसले पोइको नाक काट्नु भनेको यही हो।

This is like cutting the nose of one's husband because of anger at one's co-wife.

बिहानमा घुम्नु राम्रो हो।

To walk in the morning is good.

#### 15.2. Nonfinite dependent adverbial clause as adverbial adjunct.

Adverbial clauses fill the functional slot of adverbial adjunct to the principal clause. Such dependent adverbial clauses are marked with the perfective participial form -एको plus -ले or imperfective participial form -ने, plus -ले, or imperfective participial forms or infinitive forms -नु, -न of a verb plus -ले 'because', e.g.

बिरामी भएकोले हिजो म स्कूल आइन।

(Because was sick), I did not come to school yesterday.

The verb phrase consisting of a particular -एको and auxiliary हुनु in its infinitive हुना with the suffix -ले also marks a dependent adverbial clause, functioning as an adverbial adjunct, e.g.

सरकारले रोकेको हुनाले आज जुलुश भएन।

Because the government had prevented it, there was no demonstration today.

#### 15.3. Nonfinite dependent adverbial clause with a verb phrase in conditional form

The dependent clause with conditional form occurs in a simple verb, or a verb phrase form marked either by the conditional suffix -ए to a simple verb stem or complex verb stem, or by a verb phrase with the main verb in perfective form marked by the perfective aspect suffix -एको, imperfective form suffix -ने, or infinitive form marked by -नु, or ना and the auxiliary verbs in conditional form in the dependent clause.

Verb phrase with the main verb in perfective participial form marked by -एको and auxiliary verbs in conditional form:

एक वचन सोधेको सम्म भए उनको आँसु पुछिने थियो ।  
'If she was asked a word, her tears would have been wiped.'

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

उनीहरू जाने भए जाउन् ।  
'If they are going, let them go.'

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

छोड्नु परे छोडिदिँला  
'If I must leave, I will leave.'

Nonfinite dependent clauses with negative conditional form is connected to the principal clause by subordinate conjunction पनि or पछि which follows the verb (in conditional form, or absolute participial form) in the dependent clause.

घरमा चञ्चलाश्री भइकन पनि देवीरमणका सन्तान  
थिएनन् ।

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

आफूखुशी भए पनि नौलीले घर छाडिन।  
Although it was voluntary, Nauli did not leave the  
house.

तर दैवले नसुनिदिए पछि कसको के लाग्दो रहेछ र?  
'But if God does not listen, who can do anything?'

Note:

In Nepali the dependent clause may not precede the principal clause as it does in English, e.g.

उनीहरू गए भने म पनि जान्छु ।  
I'll also go if they go.

The subordinate conjunction पनि 'although' should not be confused with the homophonous पनि 'also' which is an adverbial.

## 16. Dependent clauses in expression of comparison

Dependent clauses in expressions of comparison represent basically two degrees of comparison: comparative degree and superlative degree. Thus, the expressions of comparisons are subdivided into two types: Comparisons of inequality and Comparisons of equality [7].

### 16.1. Comparisons of inequality

Comparisons of inequality are structurally divided into two types: Symmetrical comparison and Asymmetrical comparison. Both types of comparisons consist of the comparative quantifiers अझ, भन्दा and झन in comparisons of two items.

The quantifier सबभन्दा, or its variant सबै भन्दा 'more than all' occurs in the superlative degree of comparison (comparing one item against many other items in symmetrical comparisons)

#### 16.1.1. Symmetrical comparisons

In symmetrical comparisons one item is described as exceeding, or falling short of, another item with respect to some specified property or behavior. In such comparisons, there are two clauses (one is reduced to the form of a phrase). The first is the principal clause, the second is the reduced dependent clause. The constituents of the two clauses perform identical functions within their respective clauses. The

constituents being compared with each other may be subjects, objects, complements, or predicates [7].

i) Comparision of subjects

नेपाल भन्दा अमेरिका ठूलो छ ।  
America is larger than Nepal.

ii) Comparision of objects:

म भात भन्दा तरकारी धेरै खान्छु ।  
I eat more vegetables than rice.

iii) Comparision of subject complements:

उ धनी भन्दा पनि खुशी छ।  
He is more happy than he is rich.

iv) Comparision of predicates

लेख्न भन्दा बढी पढ ।  
Read more than you do writing.

Superlative degree comparision has the same structural pattern as the comparative degree comparision in Nepali. The superlative degree comparision is marked by सबैभन्दा or सबै भन्दा 'than all'

सगरमाथा सबभन्दा अग्लो पहाड हो।  
Sagarmatha (Mt. Everest) is higher than all (the highest) mountains.

### 16.1.2. Assymmetrical comparisions

In the assymmetrical comparisions the compared item in the principal clause does not have anything overt to compare with. The compared item is said just to exceed the extent expected, apparent, understood. Such assymmetrical comparisions are marked by अझ and झन् 'further'.

यो किताब अझ राम्रो छ।  
This book is even better (than one expected).

रात्री झन् भयङ्कर प्रतीत हुन्थ्यो।  
The night appeared even more terrifying.

## 16.2. Comparisions of equality

The quantifiers जति 'as much', उति 'as much as that (remote)', त्यति 'as much as that (proximate)' occur in the comparisions of equality.

### 16.2.1. Comparisions of subjects

म राम जति काम गर्छु।  
I can do the work as much as Ram can.

### 16.2.2. Comparisions of subject complement

म राम जति धनी छु।  
I am as rich as Ram'.

### 16.2.3. Comparision of objects:

म राम जति काम गर्न सक्छु।  
'I can do the work as much as Ram can.'

### 16.2.4. Comparision of dative complement

म रामलाई त्यति नै चिठी लेख्छु जति गोविन्दलाई।  
I write as many letters to Ram as I write to Govinda.

### 16.2.5. Comparision of locative elements

म जति यहाँ बस्छु उति त्यहाँ बस्तिन ।  
I do not stay there as much as I stay here.

### 16.2.6. . Comparision of predicates

म त्यति नै लेख्छु जति पढ्छु। म त्यति नै लेख्छु जति पढ्छु।  
I write as much as I study.

## 17. The Sentence as a speech act

Traditional grammars distinguish four types of sentences [7]:

i) declarative;



- ii) interrogative;
- iii) imperative;
- iv) exclamatory.

However, a sentence such as 'Can you open the door?' traditionally described as interrogative, is an imperative statement in terms of its function. So the assignment of the sentences to the various categories in question depends on the function of the sentence at a higher level – discourse level where utterances are simply considered as 'speech acts'. And it is the speech act, as a unit of discourse, that either

- (1) makes a statement requiring no speech act in response,
- (2) asks a question requesting another speech act in response, or
- (3) issue a request or order expecting compliance in a word (speech act) or deed (other act).

It is in correlation with these various pragmatic functions that the sentence as speech act possesses certain formal properties.

Nepali sentences as speech acts can be divided into two main categories on formal basis:

- (1) direct speech acts, which are unmarked and
- (2) indirect speech acts, marked by lexical items: रे, अरे, and भनेर; in such indirect speech acts the speaker reports the speech of another speaker.

Sentence as speech acts also have structure pragmatically reduced to a mere word or phrase, called elliptical sentences.

### 17.1. Direct speech act

The direct speech acts are speech acts in which the speaker makes his own statements as opposed to reporting the speech act of someone else, including mainly four types of sentences [7]:

- (1) declarative speech acts;
- (2) interrogative speech acts;
- (3) imperative speech acts (Commands);
- (4) exclamatory speech acts. For instance,

#### Declarative speech acts (Statements)

बिचरी सुभद्रा पनि खिन्न थिइन् ।

Poor Subhadra also was sad.

#### Interrogative speech acts (Questions):

किन नौली, किन त्यसो भनिस्?  
Why Nauli, why did you say so?

#### Imperative speech acts (Commands)

घरको सम्भार राखेस्।  
Take good care of the house.

#### Exclamatory speech acts (Exclamation)

ओहो बज्यै, हेर कति दुब्लो ।  
'O Bajai! Look, how thin you have become!'

## 17.2. Indirect speech acts

Indirect speech act is the act of reporting what a third person has said. There are two ways of reporting speech in Nepali [7]:

- i) Using the particle रे or अरे 'is said, they say' ;
- ii) Using the absolutive participle भनेर 'having said'.

### 17.2.1. Indirect speech acts with रे or अरे

The nuance particle अरे or रे occurs at the end of the statement to signify information that is received indirectly about a subject. It carries the meaning of 'I hear that...' or 'They say ...', e.g.

उनीहरू हिजो गए रे।  
They went yesterday, they say.

साह्रै नराम्रो रोग हो अरे ।  
It is a very bad disease, they say.

### 17.2.2. Indirect speech act with भनेर

The most frequent way to report a speech in Nepali is to use the absolutive participle भनेर ('having said').

The use of भनेर is divided into two ways [7]:

- (1) Reporting the actual speech, and
- (2) Reporting the intention.

#### 17.2.2.1. Reporting the actual speech act

The absolutive participle form भनेर of the verb भन्नु 'say' is employed to report the words actually uttered by the speaker. The reporter does not change the words of the speaker. So the written Nepali texts present the reported speech in quotation marks, e.g.

"मेरो राजा" भनेर म्वाइ खाइन्।  
She kissed the boy saying "My Raja".

#### 17.2.2.2. Reporting the intention

The absolutive participle भनेर is also employed in the speech act to report the intention of the speaker. The words reported by means of भनेर in such sentences are not the actual speech acts of the person being reported about, but the speech acts of the reporter who translates in his own words the intention of the person. The fact that only the intention is reported is also reflected in written Nepali where the reported intention is not put within the quotation marks, e.g.

खस्नुपर्ला भनेर बीचैमा अलप हुन्छन्।  
Thinking that they may have to fall, they disappear between the sky and the earth.

कसैले देख्छ कि भनेर ओढ्नेले छोपेकी थिइन्।  
Thinking that someone may see it, she covered it (the bundle) with her shawl.

### 17.3. Elliptical sentences as declarative speech acts

Reduced sentential structures are elliptical sentences which lack either the subject and objects, or the predicate. Such sentences as declarative speech acts are complete semantically because the redundant element in them is deleted since these elements are anaphoric to a prior sentence.

#### 17.3.1. Reduced sentences with elliptical subject and object

Reduced sentences with elliptical subject and object consist of a verb phrase which is a repetition of the verb form of the question. e.g.

##### Full sentence:

तिमी काम गर्ने? Would you like to do the job?

##### Reduced sentence with elliptical subject and object:

गर्ने  
Yes, I would like to do that job.

#### 17.3.2. Reduced sentences with elliptical predicate

In speech acts of declarative statements made as short answers to the questions asked to the speaker the predicate may be elliptical in Nepali. When the predicate becomes elliptical, the optional element is obligatory [7]. Consider the following conversation for instance,

Interrogative speech act (Question)	Declarative speech act (Answers)
को सँग आइस्? Who did you come with?	रातमाटे भण्डारीका जहानसँग With Ratmate Bhandari Pandit's family.
कैले जान्छेस्? When will you go?	भोलि बिहानै Tomorrow morning

Table 42. Interrogative and Declarative Speech Act

### 18. Conclusion

This report does not in any sense capture all the aspects of the Nepali Grammar structure. Furthermore, the findings of the study presented might be subjected to changes and corrections as well as newer concepts and ideologies emerge. However, this report can serve as a strong base document for further research. The findings are but sure to serve as an invaluable source

for the development of the grammar checker and other Natural Language Applications for Nepali.

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