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Contents

Ajith R. MBBS, DCP PuthuNira – A Set of New Keyboard Layouts for Malayalam	1-24
Ms. Manasa Preethika and Dr. Satish Kumaraswamy, Ph.D. in Speech and Hearing Conditional Clauses Among Kannada Speaking Children with Intellectual Disability	25-38
Dr. Sunanda M. Shinde, M.A. M.Phil. Ph.D. PGCTE (EFLU) and Dr. Mahesh B. Shinde M.A., Ph.D. Use of Cooperative Learning Techniques Used to Teach English Communication Skills to Limited English Proficiency ESP Students	39-49
Ms. Manasa Preethika and Dr. Satish Kumaraswamy, Ph.D. in Speech and Hearing Conjunction, Comparatives and Quotatives in Kannada Speaking and with Intellectual Disability	50-62
ADEKUNLE Basirat Omolola, (Ph.D. In view) A Pragmatic Analysis of Time and Circumstance Greetings among the Yoruba	63-82
Ms. Manasa Preethika and Dr. Satish Kumaraswamy, Ph.D. in Speech and Hearing Participle Constructions Among Kannada Children with Intellectual Disability	83-96
Ms. Rucha Jadhav (Research Scholar) and Prof. Rohidas Nitonde (Research Supervisor) Relevance of Adichie's <i>We Should All Be Feminists</i>	97-102
Dr. S. Nandakumar and Mr. S. Balamurali Krishna Understanding of Regional OTT Platform: Bs Value, Nakkalites	103-109
Himani Bansal, Dr. Rohila Shetty, Ph.D. and Dr. Satish Kumaraswamy, Ph.D. Pragmatic Profiling of 6-8 Years Old Typical Children Speaking Hindi	110-118
Aishwarya Narayanan, MASLP, Sivaranjani Gnanasekaran, MASLP and Dr. Usha A Dalvi, Ph.D. Study of Semantic and Syntactic Aspects in L2 of Bilingual Primary School Children	119-140
K. Nalini, Research Scholar and Dr. V. David Arputha Raj, Assistant Professor Action Research on Increasing the Intrinsic Motivation and Confidence of the ESL Learners Through Instructional Design Writing	141-147

Nandisha Dhanush, Ameena Shahanas PT, Joshan Kuriakose, Devika Ajith, Sivani Noushad, and Hebsiba Thomas	
Epidemiological Study of Aphasia, Dysarthria, Dysphagia Sequel to Stroke in Coastal Regions of Karnataka	148-154
Dr. Paromita Nandy, Ph.D. and Dr. Faroze Ahmad Chopan, Ph.D.	
Lateral Approximants and its Phonetic and Phonological Realization in Bangla and Malayalam	155-161
Meenakkanni Manikum	
Some Aspects of Tamil Language and Literature	162-197

PuthuNira – A Set of New Keyboard Layouts for Malayalam

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1.1. Abstract

The conventional keyboard layout schemes used by Malayalam, one of the Indian languages, do not consider the ease of typing the language. This study suggests two new keyboard layouts for Malayalam designed using character usage frequency, describes methods for comparing ease of typing and uses the methods to compare the two commonly used keyboard layouts InScript and Remington with the newly suggested layouts PuthuNira Aarambham and Puthunira Charutha. The study result suggests that the new layouts will be easier to type than conventional Malayalam keyboard layout.

1.2. Introduction

Malayalam is the language native to the people of Kerala, a state in south India and spoken by over 38 million (Gutman and Avanzati 2013). Malayalam has an abugida system of writing (Gutman and Avanzati 2013). The number of glyphs originally required to write Malayalam was over 500. This was brought down to 90 following an orthography reform in 1967 with further modifications in 1969 (Government of Kerala 1971). With the advent of computing, Malayalam, along with other Indian languages, was represented using ISCII (“INDIAN SCRIPT CODE FOR INFORMATION INTERCHANGE - ISCII” 1991). ISCII has been rendered largely obsolete with the rising adoption of Unicode to represent Malayalam (Kerala Government Information Technology Department 2008). Unicode 15 represents 118 Malayalam characters, of which 69 are regularly used (“The Unicode® Standard Version 15.0 – Core Specification” 2022). Unicode doesn’t have separate encodings for consonant signs. In conjuncts, zero width non joiner is used to display the consonant form rather than its sign.

Malayalam computer keyboard layout followed the Remington typewriter sequence initially (“Remington” 2010). Ralminov and others have modified Remington layouts modifying the original by adding the missing keys (Ralminov 2008), (“ThoolikaUnicode”, 2006). Phonetic transliteration schemes used to type Malayalam include Mozhi, Swanalekha, Google and others.

InScript layout standardized by the Government of India and approved by the Government of Kerala is the decreed standard Malayalam keyboard layout, which was enhanced recently (“A Document for Enhanced InScript Keyboard Layout 5.2” 2010).

Remington keyboard layout was adapted for computers probably because it was the main keyboard layout used in typewriters. The original keyboard layout was designed by omitting certain characters to squeeze the most important characters into the limited number of keys in a typewriter (Nair 1971). When the typewriter keyboard was adapted for computers, the principles by which the typewriter keyboard was designed were not considered. Instead, the missing characters were placed into the top row replacing the symbols in that row.

InScript layout is designed to keep the mapping of the characters of all Indian languages common (phonetic design) thereby making it advantageous for a person who knows typing in one Indian script to type in any other Indian script. InScript claims to simplify the layout by placing all the vowels on the left side of the keyboard layout and the consonants on the right side, taking advantage of the division of the Indian languages (“A Document for Enhanced InScript Keyboard Layout 5.2” 2010). However, this will only make the layout easier to remember, not necessarily easier to type. The phonetic transliteration schemes rely on typing an English phrase phonetically similar to the Malayalam word(s) required. We can easily appreciate that none of the keyboard layouts have taken into account the ease of typing.

There aren't any universally accepted methods or metrics to assess ease of typing of a keyboard layout. This situation arises because ease of typing is a poorly measurable characteristic that is influenced by personal factors like hand preference, absence of fingers, the type of matter that is typed frequently etc. Within these constraints, the more common metrics that are used to assess keyboard layouts are the distance traveled by each finger, frequency of consecutively using the same finger, change of fingers in sequence (rolling) either inwards or outwards versus alternating hands versus repeated use of same finger when striking consecutive characters etc (Krzywinski, n.d.), (Capewell, n.d.), (Gillespie, n.d.), (Bucao 2010). These metrics were mainly used in assessing keyboard layouts of the English language.

When assessing languages like Malayalam where the number of basic characters far exceeds that of English, we should also consider the total number of key presses for a given passage and the effect of modifier keys.

1.3 Objectives

1. To ascertain from a representative Malayalam passage
 - + the frequency of each character
 - + the frequency of characters following it and their frequency in that position.
2. To modify the representative Malayalam passage to change the characters such that it would

have the same character for vowels and their signs (with the exception of chandrakala (ഞ) being mapped to ഞ), gemination of consonants would be effected by typing a consonant followed by a special key, vowel less forms (chillu) are formed by typing a consonant followed by another special key and to ascertain from it

- + the frequency of each character
- + the frequency of characters following it and their frequency in that position.

3. To develop, using the frequency data, two Malayalam keyboard layouts that would make typing Malayalam easier. One keyboard with statically assigned keys and one such that the changes in (2) above are possible while typing.

4. To compare the so developed Malayalam keyboard layouts with the existing Remington and InScript layouts.

1.4 Materials and Methods

1.4.1 Estimating Character Frequencies

The SMC Malayalam corpus was downloaded and combined into a single file (“Malayalam Corpus by Swathanthra Malayalam Computing” 2019). HTML tags, characters other than Malayalam except zero width joiner and zero width non-joiner were removed from the text. Chillu characters represented traditionally were converted into atomic representation. The various representations of conjunct ഞ were converted into an uniform representation ഞ. Similarly, റ was converted to the phonetically correct representation of റ. Spaces were merged and converted to open boxes. These changes were made using a Perl script named ‘changesCommon.pl’ and is available in the code repository for the project (link given in End Notes). It was randomly split into a training and a testing set in the ratio 60:40.

The training set was further modified to facilitate objectives one and two. One set of changes effected by using ‘changesAarambham.sed’ was to convert the consonant symbols to correct for the restrictions imposed by fonts. Malayalam fonts in current use impose that the consonant symbol ഞ is allowed only if you type ഞ, but not ഞ, though language rules are clear that the consonant symbol is common for both consonants. Similarly, the symbol ഞ is common for ഞ and ഞ, though fonts permit it only for ഞ. The correction followed the principles given in (Ramakumar V 2004). Frequencies of each character, the characters that follow, their frequencies, proportions and ranks were calculated using standard Linux utilities grep, uniq, sort, paste, sed and awk. The script files used were named ‘RPcalc.sh’ and ‘RPpaircalc.sh’ and are available along with the commands used in the code repository for the project.

The second set of changes were made before ascertaining frequency to fulfill objective 2. The changes were effected using ‘changesCharutha.sed’ and included the changes mentioned in the para above and more. These included converting geminated consonants into base character

plus a special character :, converting chillus to a base character plus a special character ⊖, converting all vowel symbols to their corresponding vowel, converting chandrakala ് to അ, converting ണ് to ണ, converting ് to ള. These changes were made to ascertain the character frequency for developing a keyboard that would dynamically assign the same key to vowels or their vowel signs as dictated by the cursor position in a word, that would geminate a consonant by pressing a specially assigned key, that would convert a consonant to chillu if another specially assigned key would be pressed after the consonant and in which the conjuncts ണ് and ള would be assigned to their unique key positions rather than to the sequence of their constituent consonants.

1.4.2 Designing New Keyboard Layouts

To design a new Keyboard layout, a hypothetical, idealised, (8+8) * 5 + (1 + 1) grid of keys was assumed for simplicity (Figure 1). A second grid of the same dimensions was also considered for the ‘Shift’ (or another modifier) positions of the first grid. Each key in these grids was given a rank denoting the preference for the key. Any layout may have one or more of these 82+82 ranked positions unassigned. While evolving an unbiased ranking is considered not feasible, certain principles were adhered to in ranking the keys:

1. Home row keys were assigned higher ranks (lower numerals).
2. Stronger fingers were assigned higher ranks with the ranked order of fingers being thumb, index, middle, ring and little.
3. Keys that were to be pressed after lifting fingers from their home positions were ranked giving preference to straight up movements followed by straight down, followed by horizontal followed by oblique up and finally oblique down directions from the home positions for all fingers except the little finger. For the little finger, downward movements (straight and oblique) were given higher ranks over corresponding upward movements.
4. Grid positions that necessitate movements were ranked according to the distance to be traversed from the home position, with lower ranks assigned to greater finger travel.
5. For positions that were away by more than a row or column from home position, ranks assigned were lower than those assigned to ‘Shift’ed keys in positions within one key of the home positions.
6. Both hands were considered equal.

The grids with the ranks assigned to each key and the English characters that will fall in each of these keys in a standard QWERTY keyboard layout is given in figure 1. There are two panes, one for the ‘unshifted’ and another for the ‘shifted’ positions. In the figure, for those positions not available in a standard 105 keyboard, only ranks are shown. The positions that are not more than one key away from home positions are bounded by a dotted rectangle. The y-axis label is 0 for the home row and increasingly negative downwards and increasingly positive upwards. The “L” in x-axis labels stand for left and “R” for right. A vertical black line separates

the left and right half of the grid. Columns are numbered from 0 to 8 to either side. The column 0 indicates home column of thumb (usually the space bar), 2 index finger's home, 1 index finger moved inwards one column, 3 to 5 home columns of middle, ring, and little finger respectively and 6 to 8 columns accessed by the little finger by moving outwards by increasing number of columns.

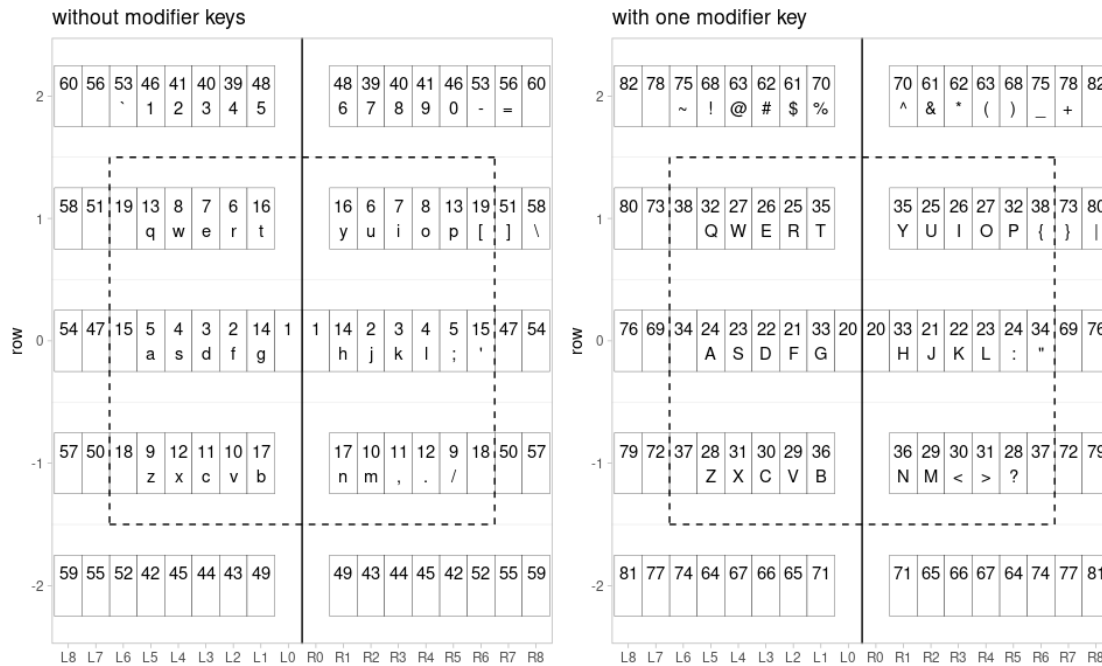


Figure 1: Rank for each key in an idealised matrix and corresponding characters in QWERTY layout

InScript and Remington keyboard layouts are shown in figure 2 to show the position of each character. The empty positions are not shown. The characters in ‘shift’ position are shown above those in ‘unshift’ position in each cell. Ranks of each position are not repeated. X and y axes are marked as in figure 1. Positions that fall within one key away from home positions are shown bounded with dotted lines.

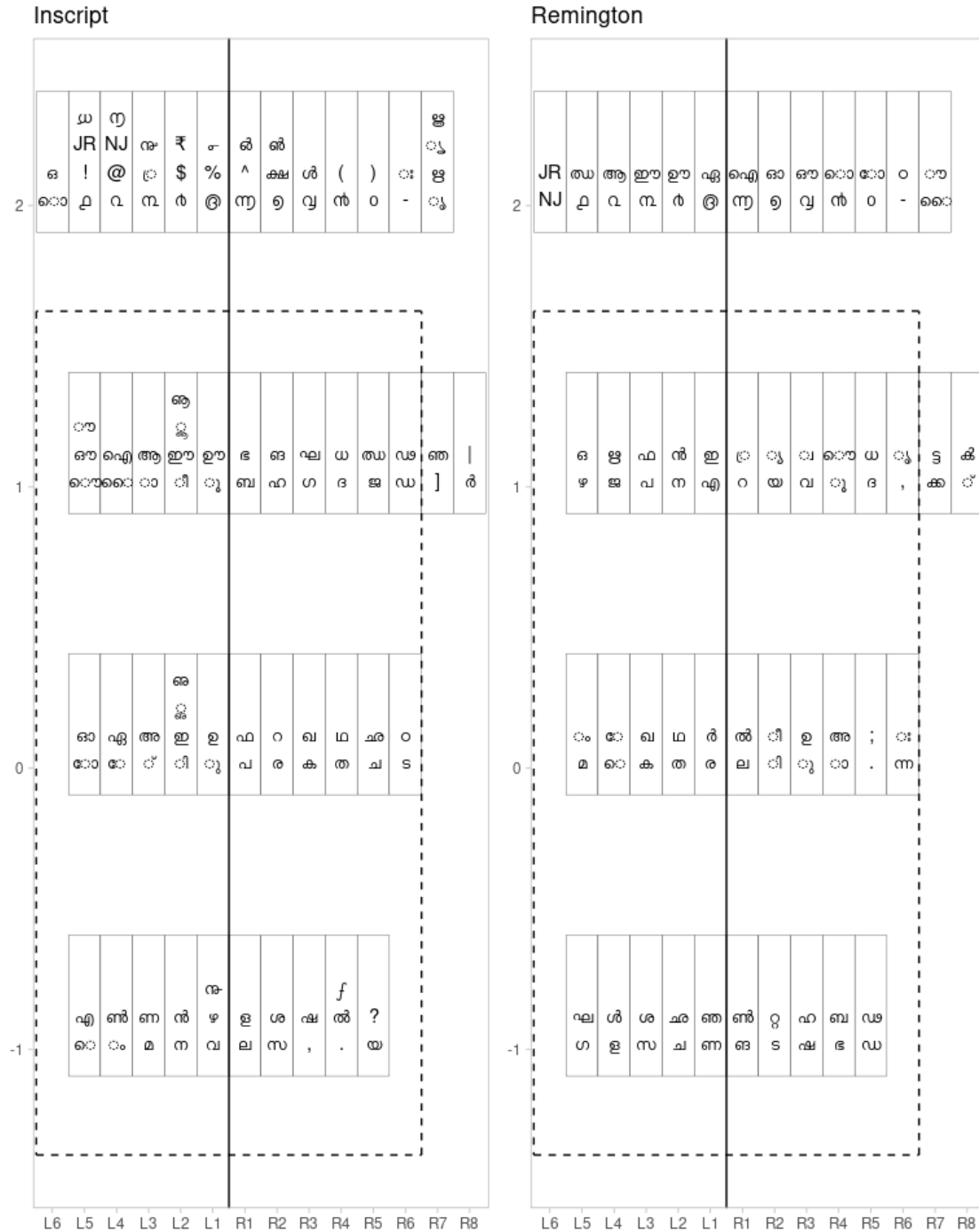


Figure 2: Inscript and Remington layouts

Characters were ranked according to their frequency in the analysed Malayalam text. Consecutive pairs were assigned to key positions of the highest rank (lowest numeral) key positions of either side. The next pair was assigned to the next highest rank, but the sides were alternated. Thus, frequency ranks 1,4,5 would fall on keys ranked 1,2,3 on one side while frequency ranks 2,3,6 would fall on the same ranked keys on the other side. However, perfect

matching was not attempted. Rank matching was relaxed to change the hand or finger if a character’s most frequent follower would land in a position that would adversely affect hand alternation or finger repetition. In this regard, while pressing two keys in sequence, alternation of hands was considered best, followed by rolling out of fingers of the same hand, followed by rolling in of fingers of the same hand and repeating the same finger was considered worst. For rolling out and rolling in, rolling over fewer keys was preferred.

Malayalam uses vowels in both upper case (swara aksharanga) and lower case (swara chihngal), upper case occurring only at the beginning of a word. It would be advantageous if dynamic assignment of vowel symbols to the same position as the vowels themselves could be done by the keyboard’s firmware or a software based on the key pressed immediately prior or position of cursor. The most common conjuncts in Malayalam are geminates. If a special geminate key were possible, it would reduce three key-presses needed to type a geminate otherwise, to two. The analysis of frequency done with such a layout in mind was used to design a layout using the same principles given above.

1.4.3 Evaluation of the Layouts

Evaluation of the keyboard layouts was done on the testing portion of the corpus. The test corpus was modified separately for each of the four layouts. The modifications were made to replace that combination of characters which were typed by keys other than the combination of the actual characters, to reflect the actual keys pressed. As an example, geminates were converted to the base character and the special key represented by “:”. Moreover, each press was to correspond to one character. Those keys which correspond to a combination of characters were converted to a Devnagiri letter. For example, “ഃ” of InScript was converted to “ः”. The sed scripts named ‘changestestxxx.sed’ used for those changes are available from the code repository.

The frequency of each character and of consecutive pairs were calculated using standard Linux utilities for each of the modified test corpus separately. R (R Core Team 2021) was used for further analysis after importing this data. Not all Malayalam Unicode characters were present in any given layout. The proportion of Malayalam characters in the corpus not present in a layout was calculated for each of the four layouts. This proportion was used as a correction for some metrics calculated.

The evaluation focused on five questions:

1. What is the difference between each of the four layouts in the number of key-presses (including modifier keys) required to type the same passage? This was answered by calculating the number of key-presses including those of modifier keys required to type the test corpus expressed as a proportion of total Malayalam Unicode characters in the test corpus.

2. Are the two hands used to a similar extent for typing a given passage? In other words, is one of the hands over used? This was answered by expressing the absolute difference between total characters typed by one hand and that by the other hand as a ratio of total characters in the test corpus.
3. Does the work of typing that falls on each of the different fingers correspond with their abilities. In other words, does more work fall on the stronger fingers? This is answered by calculating the sum of frequency of each character typed by each of the different fingers. The number of keypresses for each of the grid rank of the score is an estimate of how well the most preferred positions were used.
4. In typing the characters that each of the fingers have to type, does it move from its resting / home position? We can examine this aspect by dividing the keys into different zones - one for the home keys (home zone), another for positions that fall just one key away from the home position (neighbour zone) and others (town zone) and finding the proportion of characters that fall in each of these zones.

The average rank for each layout, calculated by summing the product of proportion of each rank with the rank will serve as a global measure of how well the layout agrees with the preferred ranks.

5. In typing consecutive characters, do the fingers change in a favourable direction or not? This aspect is analysed by considering overlapping pairs of characters. In a sequence of say “abcde”, the overlapping pairs would be ‘ab’, ‘bc’, ‘cd’ and ‘de’. For each such pair, a SequenceScore of 10 was assigned if the same finger was used to type both characters of the pair and at the same position. If the same finger was repeated but at a different position, more penalty was assigned according to whether the movement was in the preferred direction or not. For all fingers except the little finger, upward movement in the vertical direction i.e., moving up a row was preferred compared to moving down a row. For the little finger penalty was higher for moving up. In the horizontal direction, moving inwards, i.e., moving a column in the direction of thumb while typing was considered preferable. When the same finger was repeated for typing a pair, if the movement was in the preferred direction, an additional sequence penalty equal to the number of rows and columns moved was added. If the direction of movement was opposite to the direction preferred, a penalty of one more than the number of rows and columns moved was added. If different fingers of the same hand were used to type a pair, SequenceScore was assigned as shown in table 1. If modifier keys were used to type one or both of the pair, then the SequenceScore assigned according to the above principles was multiplied by the number of modifier keys used plus one. If different hands were used to type the characters of a pair, a score of 0 was used. Thus, the SequenceScore for a consecutive pair of characters indicates the rank from among the preferred sequence of changes, with lesser preference indicated by a higher number. But the rise in the numerical score assigned is discontinuous with possible gaps of irregular magnitude between adjacent scores. Thus, the SequenceScore has only an ordinal meaning. We summarise the SequenceScores for a layout by the average SequenceScore obtained by summing up the

product of proportion of pairs with a particular SequenceScore with one more than that SequenceScore (one is added to avoid multiplying with zero).

Table 1 SequenceScore assigned for finger change while typing consecutive pairs using the same hand.

first	second				
	Thumb	Index	Middle	Ring	Little
Thumb	10	1	2	3	4
Index	5	10	1	2	3
Middle	6	5	10	1	2
Ring	7	6	5	10	1
Little	8	7	6	5	10

1.5 Results

The corpus used contained 11,70,10,525 characters which reduced to 10,52,42,702 after the initial changes were made. From the 2,06,176 lines in this cleaned corpus, 1,23,705 (60%) were randomly separated into the training corpus and remainder as testing corpus. The training corpus had 6,32,22,411 characters and the testing corpus had 4,20,20,291 characters.

1.5.1 Frequency of Characters

The frequency of characters in the unmodified corpus analysed for the purpose of designing a layout with statically assigned characters is shown in table 2. The characters are sorted in the descending order of frequency. The rank based on the frequency and the proportion of the character in the entire test corpus are shown within parentheses.

Table 2: Frequency of Malayalam characters when analysed unmodified.

്	space	ി	ക	ന	ു	ത	ാ	യ	പ
(1 - 12.97)	(2 - 11.35)	(3 - 6.48)	(4 - 4.95)	(5 - 4.93)	(6 - 4.57)	(7 - 4.46)	(8 - 4.10)	(9 - 3.41)	(10 - 2.62)
ട	ര	വ	മ	െ	ോ	സ	ല	ച	റ
(11 - 2.49)	(12 - 2.31)	(13 - 2.23)	(14 - 2.18)	(15 - 2.08)	(16 - 1.98)	(17 - 1.89)	(18 - 1.81)	(19 - 1.45)	(20 - 1.45)
ള	ണ	ഴ	ബ	േ	ോ	ർ	ൽ	ദ	അ
(21 - 1.34)	(22 - 1.32)	(23 - 1.11)	(24 - 1.04)	(25 - 0.99)	(26 - 0.98)	(27 - 0.96)	(28 - 0.94)	(29 - 0.84)	(30 - 0.68)
ീ	ഗ	ഷ	ശ	ൻ	ൂ	ജ	ശീ	എ	ബ
(31 - 0.60)	(32 - 0.59)	(33 - 0.55)	(34 - 0.55)	(35 - 0.50)	(36 - 0.50)	(37 - 0.46)	(38 - 0.44)	(39 - 0.43)	(40 - 0.42)
ധ	ഹ	ഇ	ഭ	ആ	ണ	ഡ	ഞ	ൊ	ഥ
(41 - 0.40)	(42 - 0.38)	(43 - 0.36)	(44 - 0.34)	(45 - 0.33)	(46 - 0.32)	(47 - 0.30)	(48 - 0.24)	(49 - 0.23)	(50 - 0.23)
ഴ	ഒ	ഉ	ൈ	ഫ	NJ	ൗ	ഖ	ൂ	ഏ
(51 - 0.22)	(52 - 0.22)	(53 - 0.21)	(54 - 0.18)	(55 - 0.18)	(56 - 0.15)	(57 - 0.13)	(58 - 0.12)	(59 - 0.11)	(60 - 0.08)
ൺ	ഓ	ഘ	ൊ	ഠ	ഐ	ഛ	ഞ	ൠ	ഃ
(61 - 0.08)	(62 - 0.06)	(63 - 0.06)	(64 - 0.05)	(65 - 0.04)	(66 - 0.02)	(67 - 0.01)	(68 - 0.01)	(69 - 0.01)	(70 - 0.00)
ഡ	ഋ	ൡ	ൢ	്	ർ	ൣ	൤	൥	൦
(71 - 0.00)	(72 - 0.00)	(73 - 0.00)	(74 - 0.00)	(75 - 0.00)	(76 - 0.00)	(77 - 0.00)	(78 - 0.00)	(79 - 0.00)	(80 - 0.00)
൦	൦	൦	൦	൦	൦	൦	൦	൦	൦
(81 - 0.00)	(82 - 0.00)	(83 - 0.00)	(84 - 0.00)	(85 - 0.00)	(86 - 0.00)	(87 - 0.00)	(87 - 0.00)	(88 - 0.00)	(89 - 0.00)
്	്	്	്						
(90 - 0.00)	(90 - 0.00)	(91 - 0.00)	(91 - 0.00)						

Shaded cells indicate non-printing characters.

NJ = zero width non joiner

Analysis of the frequency of overlapping consecutive pairs of characters in the unmodified test corpus is shown in table 3. Not all pairs are shown. Pairs in which one of the character was space were excluded. After sorting the pairs in descending frequency, pairs were scrutinised in sequence for inclusion in table 2. A pair was selected only if at least one of its constituent was not selected earlier. Thus, for any character its most frequent pair is shown. However, not all

characters are shown in table 2, though all of the 69 characters in regular use except ശ are included. Rank and proportion of each pair out of all pairs are shown in parentheses.

Table 3: Frequency of important leader follower pairs of Malayalam characters when analysed unmodified.

ന - ്	ത - ്	ക - ്	ത - ി	പ - ്	ഃ - ട	ഃ - റ	ഃ - ള
(1 - 1.84)	(2 - 1.83)	(4 - 1.68)	(12 - 1.03)	(14 - 0.91)	(15 - 0.85)	(16 - 0.83)	(18 - 0.82)
ണ - ്	ു - റ	സ - ്	യ - ി	ാ - യ	മ - റ	ി - ല	ബ - ്
(20 - 0.79)	(22 - 0.78)	(24 - 0.76)	(25 - 0.75)	(31 - 0.68)	(34 - 0.65)	(35 - 0.65)	(40 - 0.58)
ി - ി	ര - ്	ച - ്	വ - ി	ദ - ്	ട - റ	ഃ - ള	ബ - ്
(42 - 0.57)	(43 - 0.57)	(44 - 0.54)	(49 - 0.49)	(68 - 0.35)	(69 - 0.34)	(70 - 0.33)	(76 - 0.32)
എ - ന	ക - ി	ഃ - റ	ദ - റ	ഃ - ഷ	ദ - റ	ാ - ി	ഗ - ്
(86 - 0.25)	(126 - 0.17)	(127 - 0.17)	(129 - 0.16)	(135 - 0.16)	(137 - 0.16)	(138 - 0.16)	(140 - 0.15)
ത - ്	ഃ - ഡ	ഃ - NJ	യ - റ	ാ - ി	ശ - ്	ഭ - റ	അ - വ
(150 - 0.14)	(159 - 0.14)	(167 - 0.13)	(168 - 0.13)	(169 - 0.13)	(170 - 0.13)	(176 - 0.11)	(181 - 0.11)
ു - ട	ക - റ	ഇ - ത	ബ - ്	ഡ - ്	ി - ക	ജ - ്	ഴ - ി
(183 - 0.11)	(189 - 0.10)	(206 - 0.09)	(211 - 0.09)	(216 - 0.08)	(219 - 0.08)	(232 - 0.08)	(244 - 0.07)
േ - ഹ	ഫ - ്	ഉ - പ	ു - ത	ആ - ദ	വ - ്	ഘ - ട	ഘ - ള
(264 - 0.07)	(273 - 0.07)	(312 - 0.06)	(322 - 0.06)	(398 - 0.04)	(459 - 0.03)	(473 - 0.03)	(509 - 0.03)
ാ - ണ	ൈ - ന	പ - റ	ഓ - ഹ	സ - റ	ഃ - ഹ	ഘ - ക	ഞ - ദ
(534 - 0.03)	(545 - 0.02)	(656 - 0.02)	(690 - 0.02)	(820 - 0.01)	(1087 - 0.01)	(1119 - 0.01)	(1238 - 0.00)
ഊ - ി	ഈ - സ	ന - ഃ	ു - ഡ	ഋ - ഷ	ഃ - റ	ര - റ	ി - ി
(1364 - 0.00)	(1404 - 0.00)	(1503 - 0.00)	(1684 - 0.00)	(1847 - 0.00)	(1847 - 0.00)	(1945 - 0.00)	(1977 - 0.00)

The frequency of characters in the modified corpus analysed for the purpose of designing a layout with dynamically assigned characters is shown in table 4. The characters are sorted in the descending order of frequency. The rank based on the frequency and the proportion of the character in the entire test corpus are shown within parentheses.

Table 4: Frequency of Malayalam characters when analysed after modifications.

space (1 - 11.90)	ഇ (2 - 7.17)	അ (3 - 7.11)	gem (4 - 6.45)	ഉ (5 - 5.02)	ആ (6 - 4.65)	ന (7 - 4.35)	ക (8 - 4.01)	ത (9 - 3.56)	യ (10 - 3.50)
chillu (11 - 3.06)	ല (12 - 2.71)	എ (13 - 2.63)	റ (14 - 2.52)	ര (15 - 2.43)	വ (16 - 2.32)	പ (17 - 2.27)	മ (18 - 2.20)	ട (19 - 2.17)	ഠ (20 - 2.08)
സ (21 - 1.94)	ള (22 - 1.59)	ണ (23 - 1.42)	ഏ (24 - 1.12)	ഓ (25 - 1.09)	ച (26 - 1.05)	ഭ (27 - 0.79)	ഈ (28 - 0.76)	ബ (29 - 0.61)	ഗ (30 - 0.60)
ഷ (31 - 0.57)	ശ (32 - 0.56)	ഊ (33 - 0.53)	ഓ (34 - 0.47)	ജ (35 - 0.47)	ബ (36 - 0.44)	റ്റ (37 - 0.42)	ധ (38 - 0.42)	ഹ (39 - 0.40)	ഭ (40 - 0.36)
ന്റ (41 - 0.33)	ഡ (42 - 0.31)	ഥ (43 - 0.24)	ഴ (44 - 0.23)	ഐ (45 - 0.22)	ഘ (46 - 0.19)	ഞ (47 - 0.17)	NJ (48 - 0.15)	ഖ (49 - 0.12)	ഘ (50 - 0.12)
ഔ (51 - 0.07)	ഘ (52 - 0.06)	ഓ (53 - 0.04)	ഔ (54 - 0.01)	ഔ (55 - 0.00)	ഔ (56 - 0.00)	ഔ (57 - 0.00)	ഔ (58 - 0.00)	ഔ (59 - 0.00)	ഔ (60 - 0.00)
ഔ (61 - 0.00)	ഔ (62 - 0.00)	ഔ (63 - 0.00)	ഔ (64 - 0.00)	ഔ (65 - 0.00)	ഔ (66 - 0.00)	ഔ (67 - 0.00)	ഔ (68 - 0.00)	ഔ (69 - 0.00)	ഔ (70 - 0.00)
ഔ (71 - 0.00)	ഔ (71 - 0.00)	ഔ (72 - 0.00)	ഔ (73 - 0.00)	ഔ (74 - 0.00)	ഔ (75 - 0.00)	ഔ (75 - 0.00)	ഔ (76 - 0.00)	ഔ (76 - 0.00)	

Shaded cells indicate nonprinting characters.

gem = key to geminate a character

chillu = key to remove inherent vowel of a consonant

NJ = zero width non joiner

Analysis of the frequency of overlapping consecutive pairs of characters in the modified test corpus is shown in table 5. Not all pairs are shown. After sorting the pairs in descending frequency, pairs were scrutinised in sequence for inclusion in table 5. A pair was selected only if at least one of its constituents was not selected earlier. Thus, for any character its most frequent pair is shown. However, not all characters are shown in table 5, though all of the 69 characters in regular use are included. Rank and proportion of each pair out of all pairs are shown in parentheses.

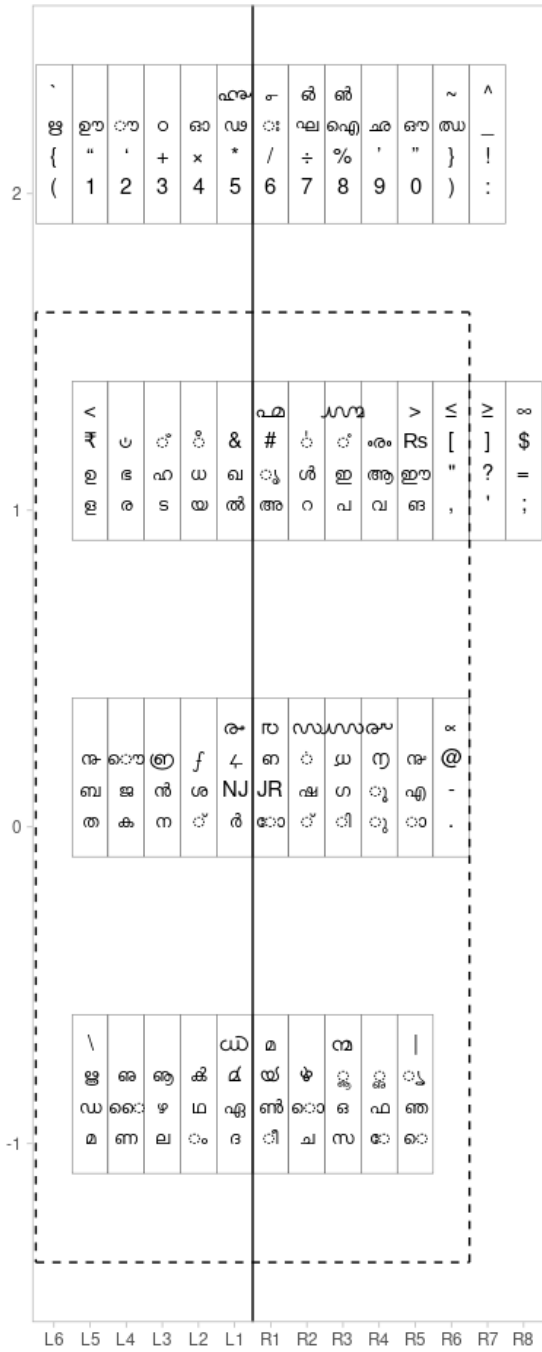
Table 5: Frequency of important overlapping consecutive pairs of Malayalam characters when analysed after modification.

gem - ഉ (5 - 1.36)	ന - gem (6 - 1.35)	ഇ - ല (7 - 1.30)	ക - gem (9 - 1.18)	ത - gem (11 - 1.11)	റ - chillu (13 - 1.00)	അ - റ (16 - 0.92)	ഉ - ൠ (19 - 0.82)
യ - ഇ (22 - 0.79)	ണ - അ (23 - 0.77)	സ - അ (25 - 0.75)	ആ - യ (26 - 0.75)	മ - ആ (33 - 0.67)	ര - ഉ (37 - 0.59)	വ - ഇ (40 - 0.52)	അ - ട (46 - 0.49)
പ - gem (47 - 0.48)	ബ - gem (48 - 0.48)	ച - gem (49 - 0.48)	ള - chillu (53 - 0.46)	gem - എ (64 - 0.38)	ദ - അ (81 - 0.28)	ന്റ - എ (85 - 0.27)	ഒ - റ (118 - 0.19)
അ - ഫ (123 - 0.18)	അ - ഷ (125 - 0.17)	അ - ധ (127 - 0.16)	ഗ - അ (146 - 0.15)	gem - ഏ (147 - 0.15)	അ - NJ (160 - 0.13)	യ - ഓ (161 - 0.13)	ശ - അ (167 - 0.12)
ഭ - ആ (168 - 0.12)	ഊ - ട (176 - 0.11)	അ - റ്റ (183 - 0.11)	ഈ - ക (223 - 0.09)	ഡ - അ (225 - 0.09)	ബ - അ (228 - 0.09)	ജ - ന (244 - 0.08)	ഞ - gem (245 - 0.08)
ഴ - ഇ (251 - 0.08)	ഏ - ഹ (275 - 0.07)	ഫ - അ (286 - 0.07)	ഋ - ത (322 - 0.06)	ഖ - അ (457 - 0.04)	ഐ - ന (467 - 0.03)	ഘ - ട (478 - 0.03)	പ - റ (637 - 0.02)
ഔ - ണ (750 - 0.01)	അ - ഛ (990 - 0.01)	ഊ - ഡ (1438 - 0.00)	അ - ൠ (1558 - 0.00)	യ - ആ (1624 - 0.00)	ഇ - ക്ക (1650 - 0.00)	ആ - റ് (1788 - 0.00)	അ - അ (1790 - 0.00)

1.5.2 New Keyboard Layout Designs

The new layouts designed using the data from frequency analysis are shown in figure 3. The layout designed for static assignment of characters is named Puthunira Aarambham (പുതുനീര അരംഭം) and the one designed for dynamic assignment of characters is named Puthunira Charutha (പുതുനീര ചാരൂത).

Puthunira Aarambham



Puthunira Charutha

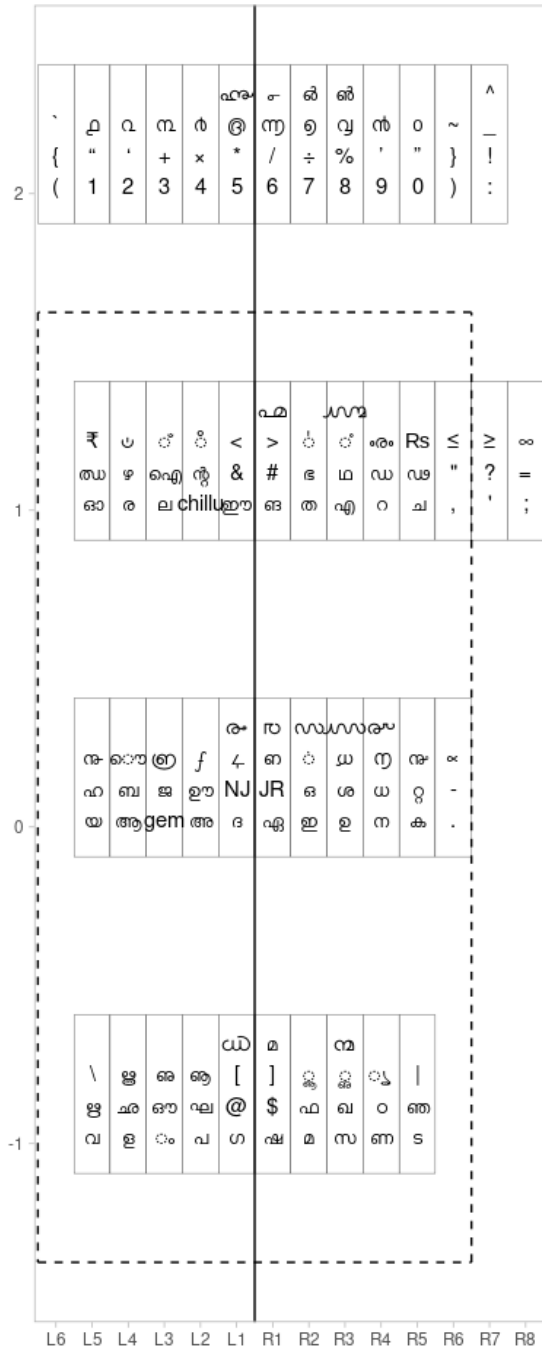


Figure 3: Puthunira Aarambham and Puthunira Charutha layouts

1.5.3 Evaluation of Layouts

1.5.3.1 Average key press per Unicode character

Figure 4 shows the result of comparison of the four layouts tested with regards to the average number of key-presses including modifier keys per Unicode character in the test corpus, corrected for the characters not represented in a layout.

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Comparison of layouts by average keypress per unicode character



Figure 4: Comparison of layouts by average key-press per Unicode character.

Result of comparison of layouts based on imbalance between the use of the two hands for the primary key-press is shown in figure 5.

Comparison of layouts by left right imbalance of primary key press

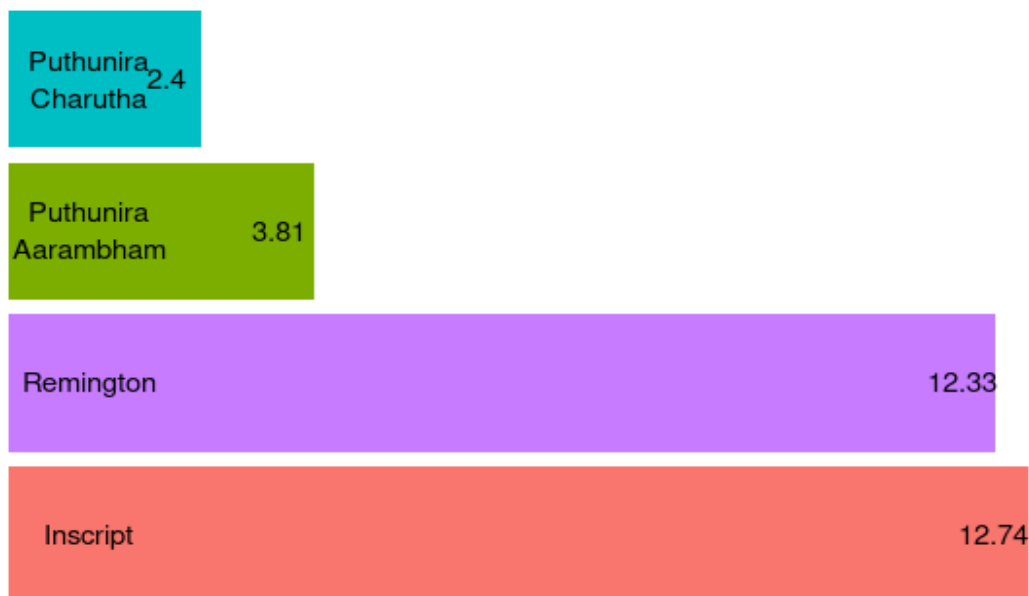


Figure 5: Comparison of layouts by left right imbalance of primary key press.

1.5.3.2 Finger Usage

The number of characters that fall on each finger at each combination of row and column is shown in figure 6. The numbers include characters in all levels - with and without modifiers. The numbers are shown in lakhs. The rows are distinguished by colours and named in the legend. The home row is the row where the finger rests when not typing. The bottom row is one row below, the top row is one row above, and number row is two rows above.

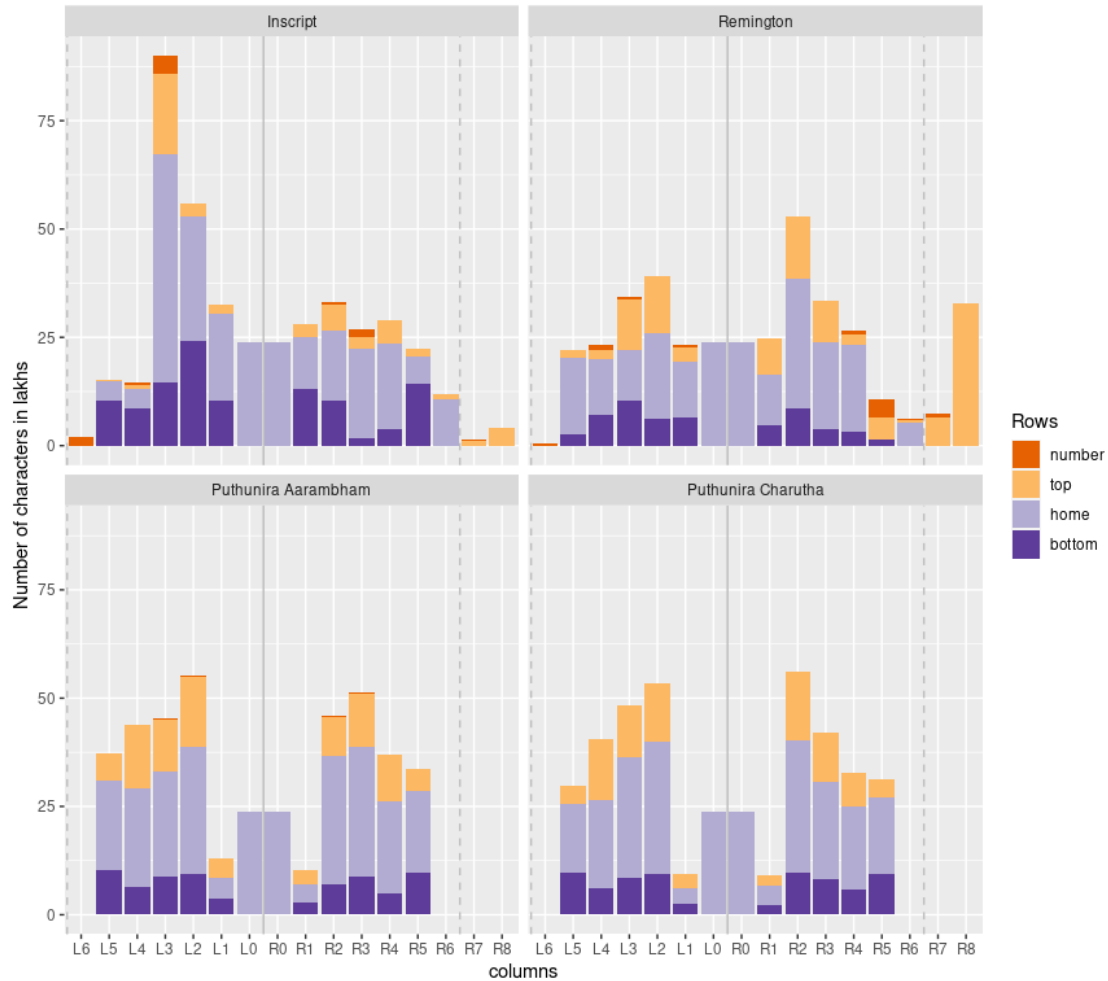


Figure 6: Finger usage pattern of the layouts.

1.5.3.3 Finger Positions

The proportion of key press that falls on each of the three zones is shown in table 6. The average rank for each of the layouts is also shown in table 6. The best numbers in proportions that fall in home zone and for the average rank are highlighted.

Table 6: The proportion of key-presses that falls on the different zones of the layout.

Layouts	Percentage of characters in each zone			Average Rank
	Home	Neighbour	Town	
InScript	48.36	48.09	3.55	11.20
Remington	46.62	40.70	12.67	15.83
Puthunira Aarambham	58.16	41.62	0.22	7.57
Puthunira Charutha	57.87	42.13	0.00	6.81

1.5.3.4 Finger Change

The distribution of SequenceScore for each of the four layouts is shown in figure 7. In the graph, the proportion of SequenceScore of value zero is not shown as it was the most frequent SequenceScore (by a very high margin) for all four layouts and including it would make interpreting the distribution of other SequenceScores difficult.

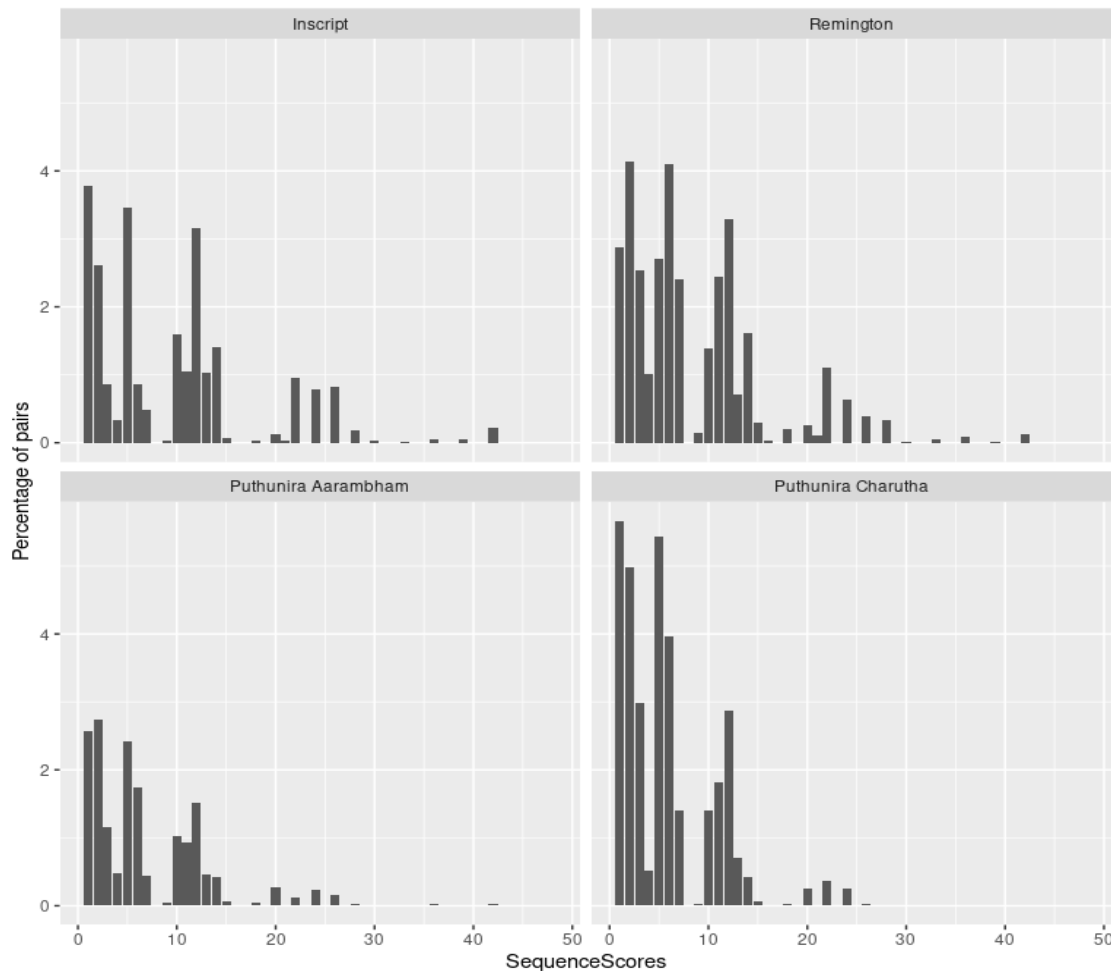


Figure 7: Finger change pattern of the layouts.

Table 7 shows the worst SequenceScore each layout has, the percentage of SequenceScore of zero out of all consecutive pairs and the average SequenceScore. The percentage of pairs for which a SequenceScore could not be calculated (because one or more of the pair was not represented in the layout) are also shown.

Table 7: Layouts compared by SequenceScore

Layouts	Percentage not included in the layout	Worst Sequence-Score	Percentage of a Sequence-Score of zero	Average Sequence-Score
Inscript	0.003	45	76	3.24
Remington	0.002	48	67	3.77
Puthunira Aarambham	0.001	45	83	2.13
Puthunira Charutha	0.002	42	67	2.94

1.6 Discussion

The training corpus was modified prior to character frequency analysis. Two types of changes were made. First set of changes were aimed for “cleaning” the corpus by eliminating characters not relevant for typing Malayalam, removing extra white spaces, and bringing uniformity in the way chillu and the conjunct റ്റ were represented in the corpus. The second set of changes were intended to rectify the bias in frequencies that are caused by the restrictions imposed by fonts in typing the conjuncts involving റ / റ and ല / ല. The underlying assumption for these “corrections” is that the keyboard layouts developed from these analyses would cater better to circumstances that permit typing all conjuncts permitted by the language.

The ranks assigned to each of the key positions in the idealised grid of keys is in no way objective. It is a subjective ranking of the author. However, the principles followed in ranking should be agreeable to most - The stronger fingers (thumb, index, middle) were preferred over weaker (ring, little). Home positions were preferred over other positions which required finger movements. Positions that required less finger travel were preferred compared to those which required more finger travel from home positions.

Similarly, the SequenceScore used to assess the change of fingers is also a subjective score. However, it would be agreeable to most that repeating a finger would be the least preferred as the finger doesn’t rest between typing a consecutive pair and that alternating the hands would be the most ideal.

The layout Puthunira Aarambham makes no assumption other than that a key press will result in a Unicode character. The most frequent character is chandrakala ്, nearly 13% of

characters, about double the frequency of “ ി” the Malayalam character second highest in frequency. As the gulf between the first and second commonest Malayalam characters was too wide, chandrakala is assigned to both hands, to the index fingers. This is a conscious design decision to reduce imbalance between the hands and to improve SequenceScore.

The layout Puthunira Charutha makes many assumptions. The first assumption is that the keys for the vowels will be used as such for the vowel signs, the assignment being made dynamically by the computer. This will save 13 key positions. Also, there would be lesser key positions to remember. The next assumption made is that a position will be marked for a special key to cause gemination of base consonants. This will result in two key presses for a geminate (the base character plus the special geminate key) instead of three (base character followed by chandrakala followed again by the base character). Considering that the geminates are frequent in Malayalam, this could reduce the key-presses substantially. The reason for including a special key position to change a consonant into its vowel-less form (chillu) is not based on ease of typing. In fact, it may slightly increase the keystrokes required. The reason for a “chillu key” is to shield the users from the need to decide from among the two ways in which chillu can be encoded in Unicode. Moreover, it can help reduce the confusion brought by Unicode representation of chillus as characters different from the base characters. Being able to produce a chillu from a base character by pressing “chillu key” would help reinforce the fact that chillu is just a vowel-less form of the consonant rather than a new character. The price to pay for “chillu key” should be an extra key-press for all the chillus. However, from the frequency analysis it can be seen that only റ and റ്റ would have fallen in the first level (without modifier keys) and all other chillu even otherwise would have needed two key-presses. Thus, the cost of a special “chillu key” is an extra key-press for റ and റ്റ. The Unicode representation of the conjunct റ്റ has been revised many times. It has been assigned to a sequence derived from its morphology rather than the conceptual constituents. Assigning the റ്റ to a separate key can help shield the users from the multiple representations of റ്റ. If the representation changes in future too, the users will be shielded from such changes. Similarly, it was thought better to assign a separate key for റ as its current Unicode representation is based on morphology.

For both the layouts designed, only the first and second level of characters were assigned based on frequency analysis. The third level was used for the archaic and rarely used characters. The fourth level was used for the Malayalam fractions. Malayalam digits are present only in the Puthunira Charutha. They are presumed to be assigned to the second or third levels of numerical keypad of Puthunira Aarambham. Both layouts assign keys for zero width joiner and zero width non-joiner. The punctuation marks and symbols are placed in the number row and outside the 5+5 columns in the other rows. This is decidedly different from the prevailing assignment in QWERTY layout.

The expectations and assumptions of the new layouts were evaluated against the two commonly used Malayalam layouts InScript and Remington. Before we consider the evaluation results, we need to take a look at InScript and Remington layouts. One design principle of InScript (“A Document for Enhanced InScript Keyboard Layout 5.2” (2010)) is that it is similar across the different Indian languages. It should be clear that the frequency of any one character in any given language would not match the usage frequency of the same character in another language. This design principle of InScript makes it challenging for that layout to provide typing ease in any language (barring the first language for which it was designed). Remington layout was originally designed for typewriters (“Remington” (2010)). Though frequency of glyphs were taken into account, the scarcity of key positions was a real problem for its design. To circumvent the problem, some characters were sacrificed, introducing some ad hoc methods to overcome their absence. When the Remington layout was adopted for computers, the missing characters were added to whatever positions were free, without taking into account their frequency. Remington layout assigns some geminates to individual keys, thus making it possible that the keystrokes required would be less.

The first evaluation metric that we consider is the number of keystrokes that would be required to type the test corpus. It is expressed as the average number of strokes required to type one Unicode character. The keystroke count includes the modifier keys. Though the number of characters not represented in a layout is very small for all four layouts, it is still used to correct the evaluation metric. The layout with the lowest number of keystrokes per Unicode character is Puthunira Charutha which requires only 1.014 keystrokes on an average. The InScript layout has the worst score of 1.126. Though Puthunira Aarambham does not assign multiple characters to a single key, it has a better score than InScript because it assigns more frequently assigned characters to the first level which doesn’t use modifier keys. The Puthunira Charutha requires 10% less keystrokes compared to InScript.

The second metric to consider is the hand imbalance. It is expressed as the proportion of characters that any one hand has to type more than the other. This metric too was corrected for characters not represented in a layout. The Puthunira Charutha has the least imbalance of only 2.4%. The Puthunira Aarambham follows close behind Puthunira Charutha and much ahead of both InScript and Remington. InScript has the highest imbalance 12.7% - to mean that the left hand does about 12.7% more typing than the right.

The third aspect to consider is how the work of typing is shared by the different fingers. This is shown in the stacked bar diagram of figure 7. For each column of keys, the number of characters that fall on that column is shown. The numbers for each row in each column is colour coded and stacked. The graph for InScript shows that a disproportionate number of characters fall on L3 column, left middle finger; almost triple the number that falls on R2 or R3. The index finger column L1 and R1 types nearly as much as L2 and R2. This is not desirable as the L1 and R1 columns require moving the finger inwards. Also, the number typed by the left middle finger

by stretching to the topmost row is significant, clearly visible in the graph. The Remington layout assigns a disproportionate number of characters to the right little finger and that too at a position where it has to stretch out and upwards as seen in the bars for R8 and R7.

Clearly, the distribution of typing effort to the various fingers is more balanced in both Puthunira Aarambham and Puthunira Charutha as seen in the graphs. The graphs for both layouts show decreasing height of bars from the home column of index key to that of the little finger on both sides. The positions where fingers are to be moved are used much less than home positions. No characters are typed by stretching the right little finger to the most extreme columns. The use of the number row is limited in Puthunira Aarambham and absent in Puthunira Charutha.

While the graphs give a comprehensive view of typing effort across fingers, some numerical summaries given in table can make the picture clearer. When we divide the key positions into zones, we see that both Puthunira Aarambham and Puthunira Charutha uses the home positions nearly 60% of time while for InScript and Remington, home positions are used only under 50% of time. The zone more than one key away from home positions (which I call town zone), is not used by Puthunira Charutha and is used only to a very small extent by both Puthunira Aarambham and InScript. However, Remington uses this zone more than 12% of the time.

Assuming that the ranks assigned to key positions is acceptable, the average rank can be considered as a more comprehensive metric indicating the fit of the matter typed to the preference expressed as ranks. The Puthunira Charutha has the best overall (lowest) rank, closely followed by Puthunira Aarambham.

The final aspect to consider is how the fingers change when typing consecutive characters. The best would be to alternate between hands so that there is a period of rest for the fingers. Hence, subjective scores are given to the various combination of movements with the lowest number for alternation of hands and the highest number for repetition. Penalty is increased if modifier keys are used for one or both characters of a pair. Figure 6 shows the proportion of consecutive pairs for each of the SequenceScores. A score of zero is the commonest, accounting for 83% of pairs in Puthunira Aarambham. The lowest proportion for a SequenceScore of zero is for Puthunira Charutha; but even there it constitutes more than 66%. This proportion requires cautious interpretation relating it to the total number of keystrokes. Thus, though the proportion of pairs where hands are alternated is lower for Puthunira Charutha, the total number of pairs that need to be typed is lower for Puthunira Charutha.

The graphs of figure 8 exclude the proportion for a sequence score of zero. From the distribution of the remaining SequenceScores, it can be seen that for Puthunira Charutha the better (lower numeral) scores have higher bars. Similar is the case with Remington, though not as high as the bars of Puthunira Charutha. All layouts except Puthunira Charutha have

SequenceScore beyond 40. Thus, though the proportion of zero SequenceScore is lower for Puthunira Charutha, the layout is easier on those pairs that does not involve alternation of hands.

The numerical summaries presented in table 7 bring greater clarity. The proportion of pairs not type-able by a layout is low for all layouts, least for Puthunira Aarambham. The worst SequenceScore for a layout is the lowest for Puthunira Charutha. The average SequenceScore is also shown. This metric can be considered as an overall measure of how well the distribution of finger changes matches with the preferred distribution of such changes. Puthunira Aarambham has the best score in this measure, followed by Puthunira Charutha.

1.7 Conclusion

A keyboard layout designed taking into account the frequency of character usage has the potential to make typing easy. The lack of such a layout for Malayalam is tackled in this study to create two layouts named Puthunira Aarambham and Puthunira Charutha. The Puthunira Aarambham is a simple layout that aims to lay out the characters in a manner efficient for typing. The Puthunira Charutha aims to reduce typing effort even more by envisaging dynamic assignment of vowels and their symbols. It also aims to reduce some of the effects of some restrictions introduced by the Unicode encoding of Malayalam on the language.

Objective evaluation of the new layouts confirms that the new layouts does reduce typing effort in comparison with two of the prevalent layouts InScript and Remington. They are better in needing lesser number of key presses, better balance in using the two hands, better distribution of typing effort across the different fingers and across different positions of the same fingers and in having a favourable distribution of change of fingers while typing consecutive characters. While Remington requires lesser keystrokes than Puthunira Aarambham, it has a far worse distribution of typing effort across the different fingers and positions. InScript requires the most key presses and has an unimpressive distribution of typing effort across the different fingers and positions, though less severe than Remington. Puthunira Aarambham is better than Puthunira charutha in only the finger change pattern.

The best layout considering all the factors is Puthunira Charutha. However, its implementation may be difficult. When implemented, it has the potential to be learned faster as it requires a smaller number of key positions to remember. If it cannot be implemented, Puthunira Aarambham is the next option. InScript is to be favoured only by those who would type more than one Indian language. In this situation, the common layout across languages would be an advantage, though it would sacrifice ease of typing.

1.8 End Notes

The computer code used in this study, the complete results of frequency analysis and the implementation code for Puthunira Aarambham and Puthunira Charutha are available at the git repository of the author available at <https://gitlab.com/ajithramayyan/puthunira>.

1.9 Acknowledgments

I would like to record my sincere thanks to Padmini R, who assisted me with designing the layouts using the frequency analysis result. The idea of dynamic assignment of vowel symbols and vowels to the same keys was inspired by Google’s Gboard Android keyboard. The idea of a separate key to mark gemination is expressed in Nair (1971). Though the idea of a special geminate key was not inspired by Nair (1971), and the function of the geminate key of Nair (1971) is to only apply a mark to show gemination, I acknowledge here that had there been the technical advantage of computers at the time of study of Nair (1971), it would have led to a geminate key as envisaged in this study. I want to record my sincere gratitude to Tim of Cross Validated for showing me how best to summarise rank preferences.

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PuthuNira – A Set of New Keyboard Layouts for Malayalam

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Conditional Clauses Among Kannada Speaking Children with Intellectual Disability

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Introduction

Language development is a complex and crucial aspect of human cognition that greatly enhances our ability to communicate and interact with the world around us. While the majority of children acquire language skills during their early years there are certain groups, such as children with intellectual disability (CWID) who experience delay or impairment in language development. Intellectual disability is characterized by significant limitations in intellectual functioning and adaptive behaviours, affecting various aspects of everyday life including language skills.

However, in the Indian context, there is a paucity of research focusing specifically on the language and communication aspects of CWID. Although the field of speech-language pathology in India has shown an awareness of changing theoretical perspectives and linguistic aspects in typically developing and language-disordered populations there is a need to understand the language skills of CWID in order to provide appropriate assessment and intervention.

This comparative study aims to fill this knowledge gap by examining the language development of CWID in the Indian context and comparing it with typically developing children. By investigating the unique challenges and specific impairments experienced by CWID, this research will contribute valuable insights to the field of speech-language pathology in India. The findings will help in understanding the linguistic profiles of CWID, inform more targeted assessment approaches, and facilitate the development of effective intervention strategies.

Understanding the language abilities of CWID is essential as language deficits can significantly impact their daily functioning and social interactions. By exploring the linguistic profiles of CWID and comparing them to typically developing children, this study will provide a comprehensive understanding of the language development in CWID within the Indian cultural and linguistic context. Ultimately, the findings will contribute to improve assessment and intervention practices for CWID in India and enhance their overall communication and participation in society.

As the child's sentences grow longer, syntactic knowledge begins to become clearer. The word order links are established, and morphological inflections begin to be added (e.g. /s/ for plural) to the words. These grammatical morphemes appear to be developing in an order (Brown, 1973). Similarly, sequential learning is noted for negations, questions and other syntactic acquisitions (Flavell et. al., 1993).

As their cognitive and linguistic development progress, children acquire a wealth of knowledge and skill in the social - communicative uses of language. They learn how to converse and to maintain a topic with another person (Carrow-Woolfolk and Lynch, 1982). Impressive as these skills are, however, research on meta communication (knowledge and cognition concerning communication) suggests that children of kindergarten and older, still have some important communicative development ahead of them. They need to learn to monitor their own comprehension and to recognize the meaning and implications of lack of understanding (Flavell et. al., 1993).

Review of Literature

Intellectual disability (ID) is a neurodevelopmental disorder characterized by impaired cognitive, social and adaptive functions. Intellectual disability usually originates before 18 years of age and significantly characterized by limitation both in intellectual functioning and

adaptive behaviour as expressed in conceptual, social practical and adaptive skills (AAID, 2010; International classification of diseases 10 ICD,10).

The Census of India (2011) defines Intellectual disability as disability where an individual has

1. Lack of Comprehension as compared to his/her age group.
2. Unable to communicate his/her needs, compared to person of his/her age group.
3. Has difficulty in doing daily activities.
4. Has difficulty in understanding routine instruction.
5. Has extreme difficult in making decisions, remembering things or solving problems.

Due to significant delays in language and communication difficulties the condition of ID has attracted the attention of speech language pathologists steadily over the year.

Another area of concern is the understanding of the similarities and differences between language performance among group of children having Intellectual disability, Hearing Impairment, Autism, Cerebral Palsy and Multiple disabilities. It is a general experience of Speech language pathologists that largest population of children that seek therapy in clinics in India is those with Intellectual disability. However, there is no hard data to support accurate interpretation.

Intellectual disability (ID) is a neuro-developmental disorder characterized by impaired cognitive, social and adaptive functions. Intellectual disability usually originates before 18 years of age and significantly characterized by limitation both in intellectual functioning and in adaptive behaviour as expressed in conceptual, social practical and adaptive skills (AAID, 2010; International classification of diseases 10(ICD,10).

The Census of India (2011) revealed that there was a significant increase in number of disabled persons in both rural as well as urban population compared to previous estimates. There was an increase seen in the male and female ratio. The census revealed that 20% of the disabled populations have disability in movement, 19% have disability in seeing, another 19 % have disability in hearing, 8% have multiple disabilities and 6% specifically were labelled as intellectually disabled.

Patel (2009) has postulated that disabilities predominantly exist below 15 years of age. The implications of this information for research in communication disorders will be very significant. He has indicated that the expanded data of language development in typical children and Children with Intellectual disability will expand the scope of research. It is further felt that the data will help us to verify the data veracity across and linguistic and cultural groups.

Western Studies

Gammon (2009) studied the phonology in Down syndrome with respect to the development pattern and intervention strategies. The first section of the study provides an overview of factors believed to influence phonological development in Down syndrome. The second section describes four aspects of Down syndrome phonology. Children with Down syndrome are slow to acquire the phonological system of their mother tongue. In spite of normal or near normal prelinguistic development, these children are delayed in the use of meaningful speech.

Jarrold, Thorne and Stephens (2009) studied the relationship among verbal short-term memory, phonological awareness and new word learning evidence from typical development and Down syndrome. The study examined the correlates of new word learning in a sample of 64 typically developing children between 5 and 8 years of age and a group of 22 teenagers and young adults with Down syndrome. results showed a relationship between verbal short-term memory measures and typically developing individuals ability to learn the phonological form of novel words but not 14 their ability to learn the physical referent of new words. Similarly, individuals with Down syndrome showed impaired verbal short-term memory and impaired form but not referent learning. Together, these findings specify the circumstances in which an accurate phonological representation within short-term memory is required for new word learning.

Wise, Seucik, Ronski and Morris (2010) examined the relationship between phonological processing skills, word and nonword identification performance in children with mild intellectual disabilities. Word and nonword identification skills were examined in a sample of 80 elementary school age students with mild intellectual disabilities and mixed etiologies who were described as struggling to learn and read by their teachers. Hierarchical regression analyses indicated that, after controlling for chronological age and vocabulary knowledge, phonological processing accounted for a large and significant amount of unique

variance of both word and nonword identification. In addition, the pattern of results found in this study is similar to that obtained with typically developing learners. As with typically developing children, measures of phonological awareness were significantly correlated with measures of both reading achievement and vocabulary knowledge.

INDIAN STUDIES

Subba Rao (1995) provided a detailed language data on intellectual disability by examining language characteristics among Kannada-speaking children with intellectual disability (CWID). The study revealed that along with the overall delay in language development there were differences among the Mental Age (MA) matched in typically developing children and children with intellectual disability. These differences were most easily noticeable in syntactic aspects, as compared to phonological or semantic aspects. In addition, within group comparison shows that normal subjects of 4-5 years group did not differ significantly from 5-6 years group. CWID with higher MA (5-6 years) did perform significantly better than CWID with lower MA (4-5 years). The study reveals that CWID demonstrated less use of spontaneous sentences, predominant single word elliptical responses, higher no responses and the need for larger number of questions to elicit responses. Attempts at telling a story or narrating incident were very restricted in CWID reflecting their inability to use certain aspects of language, such as, connecting words. Instances of CWID children not completing a sentence were observed frequently, probably reflecting the difficulties in recall of words. In phonology, both the normal and CWID groups showed the presence of all the phonemes of Kannada in their samples. This indicates that the phonological acquisition is complete in 4-6 years normal children and MA matched CWID. Syntactic analysis presented a varied picture for both normal and CWID. On the whole, MA matched CWID did poorly than normal subjects. Overall delay in development of syntax was clearly seen.

John and Kumaraswamy (2014) aimed to understand the semantic intention and relation in Malayalam speaking children with Intellectual disability and normal children, with mental age of 4-8 years; reported that most of the semantic intention and relation were reduced in intellectually disabled children when compared to normal children.

Renji, Shetty and Gupta (2015) reported that the participle construction in children with ID of mental age 4-6 years and age matched typical children and reveals that there is a general increase in the usage of participle construction with increase in the mental age of the children.

Thomas, Gupta and Kumaraswamy (2016) studied the acquisition pattern of morpho-phonemic structures in the children with ID and Malayalam speaking typical children of mental age 4-6 years; where the acquisition of morphophonemic structures increases with the age.

Methodology

Aim and Objective

The study aims at profiling language in children with intellectual disability speaking Kannada (mental age 4 to 6 years). Analysing the data at levels of language functioning – Predicates as compared to mental age matched typical children.

Participants with Inclusive and Exclusive Criteria

Participants included 30 typical children (TD) in the age range of 4 to 6 years and 30 Children with Intellectual disability (CWID) (Mental age 4 to 6 years).

Typical children establishing profiles of TD was found necessary because of the need for comparison with CWID. Currently extensive developmental data in typical children speaking Kannada is not available. Moreover, establishment of norms based on free conversational samples is rare. Hence, a preliminary performance description of normal children in the age range of 4 to 6 years was considered essential.

All the children were suggested by teachers who identified the best suited for the study. Children with history of any speech and /or language deficits, any reading and /or writing problems, any history /complaint of acquired hearing loss, complaints of cognitive deficits such as poor memory, attention deficits, organizational and /or sequencing issues, any transfer from more than one school, any shift in the medium of instruction and any academic failures were excluded from the study. No formal language testing was administered due to lack of such tests in Kannada language. Consent was obtained from the parents of children before data collection

Materials Used

Following the guidelines of LARSP (Crystal et.al., 1976 and 1989) and in subsequent Kannada language adaptation (Subbarao, 1995) on sample collection, a set of toys and pictures were selected. Toys and pictures used for sample collection are as shown below.

Toys and play materials– House building set, Toy, jeep, Ball, Toy Utensils, Coins, Travel bag set, Paper-Pencil

List of Pictures – City Road, traffic, Village, life-1 City life, Village Life

Topics for elicited work at school, teachers, response from subjects, Games played with friends, Cinema, Television program, Favourite music, Favourite clothes, Family member.

Procedure

This scan includes seven types of conditional clauses: simple, aspectual, complex, negative, topic, modal, quotative and concessive. Again, the presence or absence of these elements is noted in the transcription sample. Simple conditional: Conditional or if clauses are formed in Kannada by the addition of /-are/ to the verb stem.

Examples:

/avr bandre, avrjote ho: gti:ni/ If he comes, I will go with him

/na: n ke: lidre, ni:n helbe:ku/ You must answer if I ask (you)

Aspectual: Here the conditional marker/-are/ is carried by the aspect marker,

Examples:

/ni: v mugis: ddre nang kodi/ If you have finished(it)

you have-finished tome give then give (it) to me

/avn bandbitre ni: n ho: g be: da/ If it turns out that he comes if you go He comes, you dont go

Complex Conditional:

Example:

/ni: n mane: g bandidre/ If you had come home(earlier)

Negative Conditional:

Example:

/ma:dde: iddre/ if (someone) doesn't do

/ma:dde:ho:dre/ if (someone) doesn't do

/ma:dta: ilde iddre/ if (someone) is not doing (something)

Topic/Focus:

Example:

/Sinma andrenanghuccu/ I'm crazy about movies.

/ho: g ba: rdandre ho: g ba: rdu/ If I say you shouldn't go, you shouldn't go

Modal:

Example:

/avr barbe: ka:dre na: n barolla/ If he must come, I won't come

/avrig be: ka: dre na:n kodti:ni/ If he needs (them) I will give (them)

Quotative - Concessive:

Example:

/nimg be: kandru: avn kodolla/ Even if you need it, he won't give it.

Analysis

Samples were a combination of conversations with the children and interactive sessions, using toys and pictures. Free conversation was encouraged throughout the 30 minutes sessions with each child. The setting was within the familiar environment of the school. The researcher interacted with children before and to become familiar with each other. The first half of the session recording focused on free conversation, while the latter half involved discussions regarding the toys and pictures. The session was recorded using Sony video recorder (Model DCR-3R21E). The Recorder was placed at a distance of three foot from the setting. A quiet room of the special school /school was used for recording. An additional note was taken to indicate accuracy of children 's response to stimuli for later use in transcription. Thus, the obtained sample was transcribed and analysed.

The overall guideline provided by LARSP (Crystal et.al., 1976 and 1989) was used for the transcription of the sample and analysis of response patterns. Suggestions and guidelines

provided by an earlier study of language analysis in children with Intellectual disability speaking Kannada using LARSP (Subbarao, 1995) were adapted.

Statistical Analysis

T' test was used to compare the means of two groups. Z test was used to determine whether two population means are different when the variances are known and the sample size is large. Man Whitney test was used to compare the differences. ANOVA followed by post hoc analysis was done using Bonferroni test. The results are expected to strengthen linguistic profiling of Kannada speaking children with the intellectual disability. Such profiling is expected to increase our understanding of disordered language in this group and also help in planning age-appropriate remediation.

Results and Discussions

Language delays and disorders amongst children have increasingly attracted attention of practicing Speech Language Pathologists in India. One group has consistently demanded attention is Children with Intellectual Disability (CWID). Language behavior of these children has become an important area of research particularly in the Indian context. There are reports of differences between mental age (MA) matched typical children (TD) and children with Intellectual disability (CWID). In fact, it is recognized that the extent of deviance is underestimated (Kiernan, 1985; Subbarao, 1995). The results of the present study also support these views. Although, there is an overall delay in acquiring language, there are differences among the MA matched TD and CWID children. These differences are most noticeable in syntactic aspects as compared to semantic aspects. This assertion further strengthens similar conclusions of Subbarao (1995).

As described in methodology section, all TD and CWID interacted during play to obtain a natural conversational language sample. The transcription of the language samples was subjected to detailed analysis. Initially quantitative analysis was done, followed by analysis of qualitative aspects.

Quantitative Analysis

The transcription of language sample was analyzed for the stimulus type and response categories. All the sentences were counted for Therapist (T) and Participants (P). The total numbers of the sentences were counted which yielded three quantitative measures like Total

number of sentences, mean number of sentences per time and Mean sentence length; the present measures were compared for both groups of TD and CWID. The group mean, standard deviation was calculated and significance between the means were calculated using T-test for the unmatched pairs.

Table 1.1- Shows the presence of Conditional clauses in typical children and children with intellectual disability with statistical evidence.

	N	Typical Children	%	Children with intellectual disability	%	Testing proportions-z value	P value	Significance (at 0.005 level)
		No. present		No. present				
Simple conditional	30	4	13	0	0	2.07	.019	HS
Aspectual	30	0	0	0	0	0	0	NS
Complex conditional	30	0	0	0	0	0	0	NS
Negative conditional	30	3	10	1	3	1.04	.150	NS
Topic/focus	30	20	66	5	16	3.93	.000	HS
Aspectual	30	1	3	0	0	1.01	.157	NS
Quotative-concessive	30	13	43	0	0	4.07	.000	HS

NS-No Significance, HS-Highly Significant

Simple conditional or if clauses are formed in Kannada by adding /-are/to the verb stem. Such use appears to be difficult for 4- to 6-year-old children speaking 93 Kannada. Only 13% of children used Quotative -Concessive. Topic/focus types (eg: /bat andre nange ishta/ (I like bat) appear to be most used (66%). Followed by quotative concessive (43%) type (eg: /nange bekindru amma kodalla/ (even if I need it mother won't give). Other types are not seen in the sample.

CWID group used none of the conditional clauses, as can be expected. Topic/focus is seen in 16% of the children. Upon comparison of both the groups it can be concluded that usage of Topic/Focus and Quotative-concessive clauses were used more by the TD group. It can also be seen that the TD group showed better performance in the usage of conditional clauses than that of CWID group. However, ambiguity is noticed in the usage of clauses by both groups. Subbarao (1995) examined 4-to-5-year TD children reported the use of aspectual /re/and simple conditional /are/ most frequently. 5- to 6-year-old children added modal /bekadre/. However, only 50% of the children showed/used some of the features but not frequently. The present study almost agrees with Subbarao (1995), and differs only in the extent. One of the reasons could be that topics of conversation during data collection could have been different between the studies. In a previous study, Prema (1979) says that coordinate sentences rules are still in the stage of acquisition in 5- to 6-year-old children in Kannada. Uma (1991) has also said that coordinated sentences were difficult for typical Kannada speaking children in the age of 4 to 6 years. Overall CWID statistically differ for topic and quotative conditional clauses. In other features TD and CWID groups do not differ.

Discussion

Studies from many diverse disciplines show that as language is a complex structure, its use involves many diverse interacting psychological operations (Caplan, 1992). A majority of children acquire this complex system of language during their early years. It is generally accepted that interactionist approaches propagated in the late 70's (Bloom and Lahey, 1978; Carrow-Woolfolk and Lynch, 1982) explain language development better than any single theory. This integrated view point suggests that both maturation and behaviour of society simultaneously influence and determine linguistics and communicative behaviour.

In light of this approach, studying children for describing their linguistic communication in naturally occurring day to day interactions becomes important. It is well accepted that understanding of language and communicative development is an underlying force to enable effective language intervention in children with disability. One of the largest groups in India that require attention is children with Intellectual disability (CWID). The present study focuses on oral expression of the children and analysing the resulting language output. Studies of language development have made some headway particularly in Kannada (Karanth, 1990; Subbarao, 1995 and Rohila, 2015).

Summary and Conclusion

The present study is an extension of previous studies in language profiling of Kannada speaking children with intellectual disabilities (CWID). Most notably, Subbarao (1995) had obtained natural conversational samples of 4 to 6 years mental aged (MA) children with intellectual disability (CWID) and 4 to 6 years matched typical children (TD). The audio sample obtained thus was transcribed and subjected to analysis based on the overall general guidelines provided by LARSP (Crystal et. al, 1976 and 1989).

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Use of Cooperative Learning Techniques Used to Teach English Communication Skills to Limited English Proficiency ESP Students

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Abstract

The current research investigated the impact of cooperative language learning (CLL) approach on English language proficiency of English for specific purposes (ESP) students. The participants were one hundred and twenty First Year B. Tech students in a private university in Maharashtra, India. First, Pre-English proficiency test was administered to all one hundred and twenty participants to check their English proficiency. Selected students' one to one interactions with English language teachers were also conducted to check their English proficiency level. Twenty-seven students were shortlisted who had scored less than six percentiles and got C and D grades in face-to-face interactions. Then, the selected students were taught English through CLL approach for twenty-four sessions, Pre-test/Post-test quasi-experimental design was employed to investigate the impact of CLL approach on English language proficiency of the ESP students. The results were analyzed. The outcomes revealed that CLL has a significant positive effect on English language proficiency of ESP students.

Keywords: cooperative language learning (CLL), English for specific purposes (ESP), English language proficiency

Introduction

Cooperative Learning is a technique by which students cooperate with each other in the learning process, acting as partners, interlocutors with the instructors and with each other in order

to learn the course material (Johnson & Johnson, 1988; Nunan, 1999). Students' interaction with one another is equally important to teachers' interaction with students. How skillfully teachers arrange conversations among students has very important role in learning. When teachers provide a platform where students can interact with one another; it not only helps students to understand the concepts but also to improve their self-confidence.

Richards and Rodgers (2014) propose that cooperative learning provides opportunities for learners to enhance their participation in the classroom. Many researchers have been researching on cooperative learning and group work activities since mid1970s, but still, many of the language teachers are not aware of the role and importance of cooperative learning techniques. As a result, the teachers are in need of some remedies in their English language teaching to help their students be proficient English speakers. Many research has been done on how CLL can help the learners enhance EFL writing skills (Mahmoud, 2014; Zamani, 2016), improve their reading comprehension skill (Farzaneh & Nejadansari, 2014; Jalilifar, 2010; Zhang, 2012), improve their social skills (Ghaith, 2002; Ning, 2013), and decrease language learning barriers (Davoudi & Mahinpo, 2012; Han, 2014; Wichadee & Orawiwatnakul, 2012). However, there is dearth of research on the effect of CLL on English language proficiency of ESP students.

Literature Review

Cooperative learning is a teaching strategy that requires small student groups to work interdependently on learning activities in order to achieve and receive group rewards or recognition (Slavin, 1980). Cooperative learning's basic premise is that students construct knowledge through interaction with other students (Johnson et al., 1991). In such cases, students work together to solve one another's doubts that they may not ask to instructors. The most critical element of cooperative learning is that students must work together to achieve common interdependent goals (Johnson et al., 1991).

Research carried out on the effectiveness of the use of CL in ESL/EFL contexts has shown that CLL is very effective in developing positive attitudes towards learning and towards other learners (Gunderson & Johnson, 1980), enhancing intrinsic motivation (Clement, Dornyei, & Noels, 1994; Szostek, 1994; Ushioda, 1996), and creating solidarity among team members through their working together to achieve group goals (Nichols & Miller, 1994). Research has also shown that CL decreases levels of anxiety and increases self-confidence (Deci & Ryan, 1985), increases social backing for academic achievement (Daniels, 1994), and increases the level of expectancy of completing academic tasks successfully (Douglas, 1983).

Most studies on the effects of CLL have consistently indicated that this method improves students' English oral skills (Pattanpichet, 2011); English reading comprehension (Bolukbas, Keskin, and Polat, 2011; Law, 2011) and English writing (Roddy, 2009).

Teacher-centered classrooms rely on a pedagogical style in which the instructor transmits knowledge to the students (Knowles, 1970). In such cases, the student is highly dependent on the instructor for learning. In Cooperative learning classrooms, by contrast, instructors serve as learning facilitators rather than the sole knowledge source. The student becomes the focal point rather than the teacher, a technique that researchers have shown to improve thinking skills (Knowles, 1970; Tinto, 1997).

Therefore, learner-centered classroom environments are more likely to elicit higher order thinking gains than teacher-centered classrooms (Peterson & Walberg, 1979). In learner centered classrooms, students are more likely to work interdependently, which requires them to help each other in the learning process. The act of helping others and learning through interaction with others creates interdependence between students, which may lead to an increased desire for cognitive growth. Holtham, Melville, and Sodhi (2006) found that interdependent groups performed much more effectively than students who simply allocated work evenly among members. Cooperative Language Learning (CLL) approach (as opposed to individual learning) on factors such as: lowering anxiety and prejudice, promoting intrinsic motivation, creating altruistic relationships, and heightening self-esteem.

Methodology

Data Collection

Data for the present research was collected from a hundred and twenty First Year B. Tech students in a private university in Maharashtra. These were 12th pass students and admitted to engineering programme. Pre-test/post-test design was selected for this study. Pre-test was administered by using MOODLE to one hundred and twenty students when they admitted in First Year B.Tech. Immediately after that face-to-face interaction of those students with English language teachers were also conducted. All the teachers who conducted face to face interactions were doctorate in English Language and they had around 10 to 15 years' experience of teaching communication skills to engineering students.

Students who had scored less than six percentiles out of ten and those who had received C & D grades in face-to-face interactions were treated as limited proficiency level students. A total of twenty-six students scored less than six percentiles and got C or D grade in face-to-face interaction. Then the syllabus was designed by analyzing the needs and identifying areas in which those students were weak. Teacher cum language trainer used cooperative learning techniques to teach the syllabus of the course on Basics in English. Post-test was administered to them after completing the syllabus. Post face to face interaction was also done to check improvement in students.

Syllabus designed for the course **Basics in English** considering and analyzing the needs of limited English proficiency students:

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Sr. No.	Topics	Subtopics	Time (hrs)
1	Basic Grammar	Tenses, Parts of Speech, Modal Auxiliaries, Types of Sentences	05 hrs
2	Situational Conversations	Greetings, Introducing self and others, Situational conversations	05hrs
3	Practical English	Practical English (few, a few, little, a little)	02hrs
Practical Sessions/Practice			12 hrs
1	Basic Grammar	Creating sentences	06 hrs
		Analyzing Sentences (Newspapers, excerpts from story books)	08hrs
2	Story Telling	Guided story writing and telling	04 hrs
3	Describing objects/ Personalities	Describing objects, pictures, events, and famous personalities	04 hrs
4	Listening and reporting	Listening audio clips and reporting them	06 hrs
5	Prepared speeches	Delivering speeches on very simple topics	04 hrs
6	GD	Discussion on very simple topics	04hrs
			36 hrs

Data Analysis

The analysis of the students' Pre-test was done. Out of hundred and twenty, twenty-seven students scored less than six percentiles and got C or D grade. Twenty-four sessions were conducted and completed the syllabus. Syllabus designed for the course Basics in English is as follows:

There are dozens of strategies that can be used by the teachers under umbrella of cooperative learning process, some of them have gained more popularity than others, including; Think- pair- share, Student Teach Achievement Division (STAD), Jigsaw and Teams-Games-Tournaments (TGT). Essence of all cooperative learning activities is that in each case the students

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are divided in heterogeneous groups based on their learning capability, where they support each other for learning (Slavin, 2010). A brief description of activities is given below;

Think-Pair-Share

Think-Pair-Share allows students to activate their prior knowledge and share ideas about content or beliefs with peers. This structure gives students a chance to organize their ideas—first in their own minds, then in a smaller group setting before sharing with the entire group. In a Think-Pair-Share, students think individually about the question or idea(s) put forth, Pair up with someone to discuss their thinking, and then Share their conversation with their table group, and then finally with the whole group.

Jigsaw

Jigsaw is a cooperative learning strategy that enables each student of a ‘home group’ to specialize in one aspect of a learning unit. Students meet with members from other groups who are assigned the same aspect, which is called ‘expert group’ and after mastering the material, return to the ‘home’ group and teach the material to their group members. The purpose of the Jigsaw is to develop teamwork and cooperative learning skills within all students. It helps developing a depth of knowledge, allows student to be introduced to the material and yet maintain a high level of personal responsibility. It also intends to disclose student’s own understanding of a concept as well as reveal any misunderstandings.

Role Play

Role play is any speaking activity when you either put yourself into somebody else’s shoes, or when you stay in your own shoes but put yourself into an imaginary situation. Role play is an activity that brings variation and movements in the classrooms. Incorporating role play into the classroom adds variety, a change of pace and opportunities for lot of language production and also lot of fun. It is widely agreed that learning takes place when activities are engaging and memorable. While performing in role play quieter students get the chance to express themselves in a more forthright way. The world of the classroom is broadened to include the outside world; it offers much wider range of language opportunities. Through role plays learners will improve their communication skills. Teachers are facilitator in this whole task. They are supposed to guide students to select the situations for role play and to segregate students.

STAD (Student Team Achievement Division)

This can be termed as most simple form of cooperative learning, where teacher give material to students and they learn it as group. The groups are test and scored individually and collectively, the team securing high scores is termed as winning one (Arends,1997). One strategy adopted during cooperative learning as instruction approach is STAD. The research studies carried

out by Jolliffe (2005) reported its effectiveness for improving academic achievement and social skills. Similar results have been reported by Vaughan 2002, Jacobs et al. 2003 and van Wyk 2010.

TGT (Team Game Tournament)

The students are divided in heterogeneous groups, where they play multiple games based on given instructional materials. The scores are given individually and collectively as well, however, only team scores are considered basis for winning and losing (DeVries, Edwards & Wells, 1974).

Discussion and Findings

Pre-training result of English Language Proficiency Test and Face to Face interaction of selected students

Number of the students	Grades in Pre-Training Test	Grades in Pre-Training one to one interaction
S1	4.1	C
S2	4.8	D
S3	3.50	D
S4	5	C
S5	5.20	C
S6	5.20	C
S7	4	C
S8	3	D
S9	4.20	C
S10	5.40	C
S11	5	C
S12	5.80	C
S13	4.20	C
S14	4.20	C
S15	4	C
S16	5	C
S17	3.20	D
S18	4	D
S19	3.40	C
S20	3.90	D
S21	4.20	C
S22	4.20	D
S23	4.70	C
S24	4.70	D
S25	5.40	D

S26	5.50	D
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The results of the pre training proficiency test showed that out of one hundred and twenty students, twenty-six students have scored less than 6 percentiles. 65.38% students out of twenty-six have scored less than 5 percentiles. It showed that these students were very weak in English Grammar. The test consisted questions on tenses, articles, prepositions, parts of speech, situational English etc. In face-to-face interaction these students were unable to give their self-introduction properly. They could not construct sentences in English properly so, many of them have received C or D grades in face-to-face interaction. 38.46% students had got D grade and remaining 61.53% students had got C grade.

Post training result of English Language Proficiency Test and Face to Face interaction of selected students

Number of the students	Grades in Pre-Training Test	Grades in Pre-Training one to one interaction
S1	8.80	B
S2	8.60	B
S3	6.70	B
S4	8.60	B
S5	6.30	B
S6	7.90	B
S7	9.30	A
S8	7.40	B
S9	8.60	B
S10	7.00	B
S11	8.00	B
S12	8.20	B
S13	8.60	B
S14	8.90	B
S15	8.80	B
S16	8.80	B
S17	8.80	B
S18	8.80	B
S19	7.50	B
S20	7.30	B
S21	8.90	B
S22	7.50	B
S23	8.90	A
S24	8.80	A
S25	9.30	B

S26	7.40	B
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The result of post training test is improved. All twenty-six students could score more than six percentiles. 88.46% students received B grade after they completed training on Basics in English. 11.53% students received A grade. In post training face to face interactions students were very confident compared to pre training face to face interactions. It was also found that they were able to construct grammatically correct sentences while speaking. Students shared their learning experiences with researcher. According to them many of the grammar rules they learnt better through the Cooperative learning activities their teacher conducted while teaching grammar. Many of them liked think-pair-share, Jigsaw and role plays, STAD and TGT cooperative learning techniques.

Conclusion

The findings of the study support the Cooperative learning techniques. During these CLL activities students' excitement was more than routine class activities. It is also found that students' motivation level is also raised. When asked about feelings of working with their peers, all of them were impressed and happy because of the supportive environment. Students were working in highly cooperative groups, helping each other to perform better during class activities. This friendly environment helped them to achieve more. From the findings, it was determined that the pleasant/friendly atmosphere can be created by the teacher. Though language learning anxiety is natural teachers should not ignore it rather they should help students to achieve their learning goals. Moreover, the significant improvement on the participants' language proficiency possibly resulted from the fact that discussing, creating, and thinking in a group, rather than in a whole class context, can provide a less anxiety-producing context.

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Conjunction, Comparatives and Quotatives in Kannada Speaking Children with Intellectual Disability

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Introduction

Language development is a complex and essential aspect of human cognition that significantly improves our communication and interaction with the outside world. There are certain populations, such as children with intellectual disability (CWID), who experience delays or impairments in language development. Intellectual disability is characterized by significant limitations in intellectual functioning and adaptive behaviour, which impact many facets of daily life, including language skills.

However, there is a dearth of research in the Indian context that focuses on the language and communication aspects of CWID. Although speech-language pathology in India has demonstrated an awareness of changing theoretical perspectives and linguistic aspects in typically developing and language-disordered populations, there is a need to understand the language skills of children with intellectual disabilities (CWID) in order to provide appropriate assessment and intervention.

Conjunction is a part of speech that connects words, sentences, phrases, or clauses. A discourse connective is a conjunction joining sentences. This definition may overlap with that of other parts of speech, so what constitutes a "conjunction" must be defined for each language.

<http://grammar.yourdictionary.com/parts-of-speech/conjunctions/conjunctions.html>

Silva and Marilyn (1987) investigated acquisition of conjunction in 26 adults and 71 children aged 4 to 11 were asked to tell a story about three sets of story pictures. The result showed that there is clear increase in the frequency of subordinate conjunctions with age, with subjects under 7 using only "when" and "because," conjunctions already present in the speech of toddlers.

Comparison is a mental act by which two or more items are examined in order to assess similarities and differences between them. The comparison can be made with regard to a certain gradable, one-dimensional property, and the items are then assigned a position on a predicative scale. This mental act of comparison finds its linguistic encoding in comparison constructions, especially comparative constructions for the expression of comparison of inequality or equative constructions for the expression of comparison of equality

Stolz (2013) provides a very detailed and informative review of earlier studies of comparative constructions to which I have little to add and which I encourage the reader to consult. In the following, I thus only summarize the comparative typologies by Stassen (1985) and Dixon (2012). Subsequently, the major works on superlative, equative and similitive constructions are discussed in order to lay out the state of the art.

This comparative study seeks to address this knowledge gap by comparing the language development of children with intellectual disability in the Indian context to that of typically developing children. This research will contribute vital insights to the field of speech-language pathology in India by investigating the unique difficulties and specific impairments experienced by CWID. The findings will aid in the comprehension of the linguistic profiles of CWID, inform more targeted assessment strategies, and facilitate the development of effective intervention techniques.

Understanding the linguistic abilities of individuals with CWID is crucial, as language deficits can have a significant impact on their daily functioning and social interactions. This study will provide a comprehensive comprehension of the language development in CWID

Language in India www.languageinindia.com ISSN 1930-2940 23:7 July 2023

Ms. Manasa Preethika and Dr. Satish Kumaraswamy, Ph.D. in Speech and Hearing
Conjunction, Comparatives and Quotatives in Kannada Speaking and with Intellectual Disability

within the Indian cultural and linguistic context by examining the linguistic profiles of children with intellectual disability (CWID) and comparing them to typically developing children. Ultimately, the findings will contribute to the improvement of assessment and intervention practices for CWID in India, thereby enhancing their communication and social participation.

Review of Literature

Communication is a process of exchange of ideas between senders and receivers. It involves message transmission and response or feedback (Beebe, Beebe and Redmond, 1996).

Language is defined as "a code whereby ideas about the world are represented by a conventional system of symbols for communication" (Bloom and Lahey, 1978). Language constitutes both a set of symbols (codes) and set of procedures (rules), which combine to form words, phrases and sentences and used for the communication. The language components are phonology, morphology, syntax, semantics and pragmatics. Phonology refers to the sound system of a particular language, the regularities and rules governing pronunciations of words, phrases and sentences (Good luck, 1991). Morphology is a study of morphemes, which can be described as the smallest segment of speech that carries meaning (Good luck, 1991; Matthews, 1999).

The order or arrangement of words is referred to as syntax. This layout highlights significant relationships both inside and between sentences. The majority of syntactic research has concentrated on the relationships conveyed at the sentence level (i.e., sentence comprehension). The most essential grammatical relationships are provided here (Crystal, 1987).

Conjunctions are one of the most crucial parts of syntax. Because they are a common way of linking words or portions of sentences together, conjunctions are a significant method of increasing sentence length and complexity. Conjunctions are little words, yet they are extremely functional and essential for sentence construction.

Conjunctions are classified into several types.

- conjunctions that coordinate
- conjunctive adverbs
- correlative conjunctions

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Conjunction, Comparatives and Quotatives in Kannada Speaking and with Intellectual Disability

- subordinating conjunctions

Ziemer (1884) and Jensen (1934) wrote the first cross-linguistic works on comparative constructions. Ultan (1972) studies universals in comparative, superlative, and equative constructions worldwide using a global sample of 123 languages. Most recent typologies of comparison constructs start with Ultan's work and evaluate, test, and refine assumptions that he has proposed the alternative terms found in the literature on comparison.

COMPAREE = what is being compared against some standard of comparison (Mary); alternative terms used in the literature: ITEM COMPARED (Ultan 1972), TOPIC (Stolz and Stolz 2001, Gorshenin 2012)

STANDARD of comparison = what the comparee is being compared against (Peter)

STANDARD MARKER = marker of the grammatical function of the STANDARD (than), alternative terms used in the literature: MARK (Dixon 2012), MARKER (Greenberg 1966), TIE (Stolz 2013), PIVOT (Cuzzolin and Lehmann 2004), RELATOR (Gorshenin 2012, Stolz and Stolz 2001)

PARAMETER of comparison = property of comparison (tall, intelligent); alternative terms used in the literature: QUALITY or QUANTITY (Ultan 1972), QUALITY (Stolz 2013), COMMENT (Gorshenin 2012, Stolz and Stolz 2001), (COMPARATIVE) PREDICATE (Heine 1997, Stassen 1985, Stassen 2013)

DEGREE MARKER or PARAMETER MARKER marks the degree of presence or absence of a property in the comparee (more or -er); alternative terms used in the literature: INDEX (Dixon 2012), DEGREE (Stolz 2013, Gorshenin 2012, Stolz and Stolz 2001), COMPARATIVE CONCEPT (Heine 1994)

Western Studies

Brown (1973) investigated the acquisition of grammatical morphemes as well as the acquisition of meaning modulations expressed in spontaneous speech. He investigated 14 grammatical morphemes, including two prepositions, two nouns, inflections, articles, auxiliary verbs, third person, verb tense markers, contractive copula, and present singular, irregular, and regular tense forms, and found that each morpheme is acquired gradually. The percentage of

obligatory context in which the morphemes occur grows over a few weeks, and for several other tasks, it increases over a few months or years.

Brown (1973) explored grammatical morpheme acquisition as well as the acquisition of meaning modulations exhibited in spontaneous speech. He studied 14 grammatical morphemes, including two prepositions, two nouns, inflections, articles, auxiliary verbs, third person, verb tense markers, contractive copula, and present singular, irregular, and regular tense forms, and discovered that each morpheme is gradually acquired. The percentage of obligatory context in which the morphemes occur increases over a few weeks, while it increases over months or years for various other tasks.

Stolz (2013) provides a very detailed and informative review of earlier studies of comparative constructions to which I have little to add and which I encourage the reader to consult. In the following, we thus only summarize the comparative typologies by Stassen (1985) and Dixon (2012). Subsequently, the major works on superlative, equative and similitive constructions are discussed in order to lay out the state of the art.

Indian Studies

Rukmini (1994) created the Malayalam Language Test for children aged 4 to 7 years. The test is divided into two sections: semantics and syntax. Except for semantic discrimination (just reception) and lexical category (only expression), each section comprises 11 subsections with five items for expression and reception. The test was given to 90 Malayalam-speaking youngsters between the ages of 4 and 7. There were thirty youngsters divided into three age groups: 4-5 years, 5-6 years, and 6-7 years. Findings revealed that the scores increased with age. The receiving problem was more difficult for the children than the expressing challenge. They also outperformed semantic tasks on syntactic tests

Vijayalakshmi (1981) tested children between ages 1 to 5 years with the test of acquisition of syntax (TASK) in Kannada and reported that children use case, tense, gender, plural, conjunctions, adverb and adjectives all of which rose in frequency with increase in age.

In Dravidian languages, an universal quantifier invariably takes the conjunction marker *um/* - a morphological encoding of the logical fact that universal quantification is an infinite conjunction (Madhavan, 1988).

Methodology

Aim and Objective

The study aims at profiling language in children with intellectual disability speaking Kannada (mental age 4 to 6 years). Analyzing the data at levels of language functioning – Predicates as compared to mental age matched typical children.

Participants with Inclusive and Exclusive Criteria

Participants included 30 typical children (TD) in the age range of 4 to 6 years and 30 Children with Intellectual disability (CWID) (Mental age 4 to 6 years)

Typical children establishing profiles of TD was found necessary because of the need for comparison with CWID. Currently extensive developmental data in typical children speaking Kannada is not available. Moreover, establishment of norms based on free conversational samples is rare. Hence, a preliminary performance description of normal children in the age range of 4 to 6 years was considered essential.

All the children were suggested by teachers who identified the best suited for the study. Children with history of any speech and /or language deficits, any reading and /or writing problems, any history complaint of acquired hearing loss, complaints of cognitive deficits such as poor memory, attention deficits, organizational and /or sequencing issues, any transfer from more than one school, any shift in the medium of instruction and any academic failures were excluded from the study. No formal language testing was administered due to lack of such tests in Kannada language. Consent was obtained from the parents of children before data collection

Materials Used

Following the guidelines of LARSP (Crystal et.al., 1976 and 1989) and in subsequent Kannada language adaptation (Subbarao, 1995) on sample collection, a set of toys and pictures were selected. Toys and pictures used for sample collection are as shown below.

Toys and play materials– House building set, Toy, jeep, Ball, Toy Utensils, Coins, Travel bag set, Paper-Pencil

List of Pictures –City Road, traffic, Village, life-1 City life, Village Life

Topics for elicited work at school, teachers, response from subjects, Games played with friends, Cinema, Television program, Favourite music, Favourite clothes, Family member.

Procedure

The study envisaged obtaining an audio & videotaped conversational sample with TD and CWID group. Thus, obtained sample was transcribed analysed and profiled at predicate level. The overall guidelines provided by LARSP (Crystal et. al, 1976 and 1989) and suggestions provided by Subbarao (1995) on the same method in using with CWID speaking Kannada have been used for transcription and analysis of response patterns.3 types of conjunctions /-u:/, /mattu/, /haagu/; comparatives /atva/, /ginta/; and quotatives -/anta/ and other types are selected in this scan. The selectional ordering of elements was based on LPT (Karanth, 1985).

Examples:

Conjunctions:

/ra: manu: sankaranu: bandru/ Rama and Shankara came Rama also
shankar also came (they)

/nanna anna ha: gu: maklu ho: dru/ My elder brother and children went away my elder brother
and children went (they)

/ramesa mattu gane:sa kotru/ Ramesh and Ganesh gave me ramesh and ganesh gave

Comparatives:

/pensil atva: penkodu/ Give me either pencil or pen pencil or pengive

/Pensil ginta: pennu cenna: gide / Pen is better than pencil pencil more
than pen good is

Quotatives:

/maddi: ni anta: he: lidru/ They said they would do will do so they said

/i: taraddu bandittu/ This type (of something) had come This type come had

Analysis

Samples were a combination of conversations with the children and interactive sessions using toys and pictures. Free conversation was encouraged throughout the 30 minutes sessions with each child. The setting was within the familiar environment of the school. The researcher interacted with children before and to become familiar with each other. The first half of the session recording focused on free conversation, while the latter half involved discussions regarding the toys and pictures. The session was recorded using Sony video recorder (Model DCR-3R21E). The Recorder was placed at a distance of three foot from the setting. A quiet room of the special school /school was used for recording. An additional note was taken to indicate accuracy of children's response to stimuli for later use in transcription. Thus, the obtained sample was transcribed, analyzed.

The overall guideline provided by LARSP (Crystal et.al., 1976 and 1989) was used for the transcription of the sample and analysis of response patterns. Suggestions and guidelines provided by an earlier study of language analysis in children with Intellectual disability speaking Kannada using LARSP (Subbarao, 1995) were adapted.

Statistical Analysis

T' test was used to compare the means of two groups. Z test was used to determine whether two population means are different when the variances are known and the sample size is large, Man Whitney test was used to compare the differences. ANOVA followed by post hoc analysis was done using Bonferroni test. The results are expected to strengthen linguistic profiling of Kannada speaking children with the intellectual disability. Such profiling is expected to increase our understanding of disordered language in this group and also help in planning age-appropriate remediation.

Results and Discussions

Language delays and disorders amongst children have increasingly attracted attention of practicing Speech Language Pathologists in India. One group has consistently demanded attention is Children with Intellectual Disability (CWID). Language behavior of these children has become an important area of research particularly in the Indian context. There are reports of differences between mental age (MA) matched typical children (TD) and children with Intellectual disability (CWID). In fact, it is recognized that the extent of deviance is

Language in India www.languageinindia.com ISSN 1930-2940 23:7 July 2023

Ms. Manasa Preethika and Dr. Satish Kumaraswamy, Ph.D. in Speech and Hearing
Conjunction, Comparatives and Quotatives in Kannada Speaking and with Intellectual
Disability

underestimated (Kiernan, 1985; Subbarao, 1995). The results of the present study also support these views. Although, there is an overall delay in acquiring language, there are differences among the MA matched TD and CWID children. These differences are most noticeable in syntactic aspects as compared to semantic aspects. This assertion further strengthens similar conclusions of Subbarao (1995).

As described in methodology section, all TD and CWID interacted during play to obtain a natural conversational language sample. The transcription of the language samples was subjected to detailed analysis. Initially quantitative analysis was done, followed by analysis of qualitative aspects.

Quantitative Analysis

The transcription of language sample was analysed for the stimulus type and response categories. All the sentences were counted for Therapist (T) and Participants (P). The total numbers of the sentences were counted which yielded three quantitative measures like Total number of sentences, mean number of sentences per time and Mean sentence length; the present measures were compared for both groups of TD and CWID group. The group mean, standard deviation was calculated and significance between the means were calculated using t-test for the unmatched pairs.

Table 1.1 -Shows the presence of Conjunction, Comparatives and Quotatives in typical children and children with intellectual disability with statistical evidence.

	N	Typical Children	%	Children with intellectual disability	%	Testing proportions-z value	P value	Significance (at 0.005 level)
		No. present		No. present				
Conjunctions	30	30	100	22	73	3.04	.001	HS
Comparatives	30	22	73	1	3	5.58	.000	HS
Quotatives	30	25	83	0	0	6.55	.000	HS

HS-Highly Significant

Table 4.13 shows that usage of Conjunctions Comparatives, Quotatives was observed in almost all TD group. Conjunction /u: / was mostly used (e.g. /Kailu: chamchdalu: tintini/ (I eat with hands and spoon). Some children also used /mattu/ conjunction (eg: /huli mattu simha friendsu/ (tiger and lion are friends) Examples of comparatives /pencil atva pen beku/ (pencil or pen want) and Quotative - /amele kodtini anta helidru/ (said they will give later). In Subbarao (1995) study 5- to 6-year-old normal children showed the use of conjunction /u:/. The present study differs in the extent with which conjunction, comparative and quotative words are used. It is possible that language development has accelerated in the recent years as exposure to Kannada has increased.

CWID group performed poorly as compared to that of the TD group. 73 % of children showed the use of /mattu/ conjunction which is statistically significant. Subbarao (1995) had shown that only 10% CWID used /u/ conjunction. Such differences indicate probably the dynamic nature of language development. Comparing both the groups it can be ascertained that TD children acquire Conjunctions, Comparatives and Quotatives by 4 to 6years. On the other hand, CWID group showed minimal response. Prema (1979) also reported the usage of conjunction markers in 5 to 6 years old typical children.

Discussion

Studies from many diverse disciplines show that as language is a complex structure its use involves many diverse interacting psychological operations (Caplan, 1992). A majority of children acquire this complex system (Language) during their early years. It is generally accepted that interactionist approaches propagated in the late 70's (Bloom and Lahey, 1978; Carrow-Woolfolk and Lynch, 1982) explain language development better than any single theory. This integrated view point suggests that both maturation and behavior of society simultaneously influence and determine linguistics and communicative behavior.

In light of this approach, studying children for describing their linguistic communication in naturally occurring day to day interactions becomes important. It is well accepted that understanding of language and communicative development is an underlying force to enable effective language intervention in children with disability. One of the largest groups in India that require attention is children with Intellectual disability (CWID). The present study is focused on oral expression of the children and analyzing the resulting language

output. Studies of language development have made some headway particularly in Kannada (Karanth, 1990; Subbarao, 1995 and Rohila, 2015).

Summary and Conclusion

The present study is an extension of previous studies in language profiling of Kannada speaking children with intellectual disabilities (CWID). Most notably, Subbarao (1995) had obtained natural conversational samples of 4 to 6 years mental aged (MA) children with intellectual disability (CWID) and 4 to 6 years matched typical children (TD). The audio sample obtained thus was transcribed and subjected to analysis based on the overall general guidelines provided by LARSP (Crystal et. al, 1976 and 1989).

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A Pragmatic Analysis of Time and Circumstance Greetings among the Yoruba

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Abstract

This study focuses on the pragmatic analysis of greetings among the Yorùbá people. It aims at classifying greetings in relation to contextuality and help to present them as a socio-pragmatic tool for successful communication. The objectives of this study are to present a pragmatic analysis of participants' competence in greeting encounters; solve the ambiguity in social greetings encounters; examine the politeness of greetings in relation to the linguistic element meaning; and explain the general social importance and functions of greetings in Yorùbá. The data for this study were gathered through participatory observation, non-participatory observation and interview methods. Interviews were conducted for 6 Yoruba native speakers (4 males and 2 females) residing in Ile-Ife in Osun State, Ibadan in Oyo State and OwodeYewa in Ogun State Nigeria. The Grice 1975 Co-operative principles are used for the analysis of this study. It was found that greetings in the Yorùbá cultural context are largely used to express more than social approval but express the situation and the interaction state of the interlocutors. Also, it is very hard to know the actual meaning of greetings in Yoruba except for the cultural meaning and context among these people. This study concludes that social greetings are often extended to cover cants of piety that reflect the past chivalrous daring and exploits cherished in the family line of the addressee to whom the greeting is intended.

Keywords: Greetings, Yoruba, Pragmatics, Politeness and Context

1. Introduction

Greeting expression is a phenomenon of all natural languages, though the importance attached to it is different from one language to another. Greetings can be seen as positive and negative politeness which we acquire in our native environment. However, greeting expressions in Yoruba society are seen as a social instrument used to integrate conversations. According to Duranti (1997), greetings are often believed to be one of the first verbal routines learned by children and certainly one of the first topics introduced in foreign language classes.

Genetically, Yoruba as a language belongs to the Kwa language family of Africa. The language is originally spoken by the people of Southwest of Nigeria. It should be noted that some natives are found in other countries like Cuba, Benin, Togo, Ghana, Cote d'Ivoire, Sudan, Sierra Leone, the United Kingdom, Brazil and the United States of America due to migration and the slave trade. According to Adeniyi (2018), the language has different dialects such as Ọ̀yọ́, Èkìtì, Ìjẹ̀bù, Rẹ̀mọ̀, Ifẹ̀, Ìjẹ̀ṣà, Àkókó, Ìkálẹ̀, Okun, Ègbá, Àwòrì, Ìgbómìnà, Ọ̀wọ̀, Ìdànrẹ̀, Ègbádò, Ìlájẹ̀, Kétu, Ọ̀ndó, Yewa, Ànàgó, Ìbòlọ̀ among others. Recent research shows that the language is spoken by over 52 million speakers in the whole world of which 50 are native speakers while about 2 million are non-native speakers.

Among the Yoruba people, context always determines the actual meaning of a greeting. They condemn the coarseness and rebellious acts that could lead to social misconduct among strangers in their society, though, strangers are warmly accommodated. And it is believed eventual learning would be undertaken by them in the right greeting direction given a little while. These greetings are numerous but undetermined (greeting expressions can take different dimensions). As communication is vital, so also greeting is crucial to Yoruba people. Nevertheless, this study will solve the ambiguity in social greeting encounters; classifies greetings in relation to contextuality and present greetings as socio-pragmatic tools for successful communication.

The purpose of this research is to identify the various greeting expressions, their uses, their social functions and their importance among the Yoruba people. It solves the ambiguity in social greeting encounters and classifies greetings in relation to contextuality. It contributes to the application of Grice Cooperative principles. It presents greetings as a socio-pragmatic tool for

successful communication. Finally, it will serve as research material for further studies on Yoruba greetings.

The greeting is universally employed as a standard social interaction facilitator. It has a social focus that has been adapted to various cultural interpretations, which in most cases have become concretized into stereotypes (Sacks 1975). In this connection, specific greetings have become identifiable with religious ceremonies, commercial enterprises, and political rallies. In certain cultures, greeting behaviour has been interpreted into interpretations that transcend the ordinary needs of social interaction. Let us consider this example cited in Elegbeleye (2005, p. 21), in the Yoruba culture of Western Nigeria, it is culturally mandatory for a child to greet his parents in the morning when they live under the same roof, for a wife to do the same to her husband and her husband's people in the morning, and for the subordinate to do the same to his superior each time they encounter one another in a workplace. The social importance of greetings among the Yoruba people is the motivation for this study.

The Yoruba people attach great importance to greeting in their culture. It is very hard to see any aspect of their lives that does not have a distinct greeting. For this reason, the Yoruba greetings are numerous. However, the scope of this study will be delimited to time and circumstances greeting among the Yoruba people.

2. Greetings and Greeting among the Yoruba People

As communication is vital, so also greeting is crucial to Yoruba people. Duranti (1997) observes that the greeting ritual is an essential communicative skill in all cultures, that is greeting is a common occurrence in all cultures of different languages of the world. Greetings are conventional expressions used for welcoming people or for expressing pleasure when meeting somebody. Greetings are so important to the Yoruba people that they refer to themselves as 'Ọmọ káàárò ọ̀jìire' which means the descendants of those who greet by saying 'good morning, and hope you woke well?' Daramola and Jeje (1967, p.33) assert that it is obligatory for parents to teach their children how to greet politely because a child who wakes up early in the morning without greeting the elders, such child would be rebuked. On the other hand, a child that wakes up and first observes the norms associated with greetings would be highly favoured. This study,

however, places greetings on three basic factors, which are: the time of the day, the context of greeting, and the age/relationship of people involved in greeting.

Akindele (2007) argues that greetings may either be prefatory, informative, pre-closing or closing. This means greetings can give information about time and circumstances, also, they can be used to open and end discussions. Following Elegbeleye (2005), Schleicher (2010) and Odebunmi (2013) all speech communities are well known for their specific categories of greetings related to age, status, gender, and other socio-cultural factors. Wolfram and Schilling-Estes (2006) also affirm that greeting varies depending on regional, ethnic, gender and status factors. That is, there is no language without specific categories of greetings which differentiate their culture from one another.

According to Hudson (1996), greetings display the power and solidarity relation between speakers which signals the level of familiarity as well as the participant roles in the forthcoming interaction or dialogue. Pillet-Shore (2008) also observes greetings to be the means for soon-to-be interlocutors to move from physical co-presence into social co-presence. That is, greetings build social interactions among the interlocutors. In view of Oumarou (1997), greetings are accompanied by certain deferential terms and paralinguistic behaviours in some communities. In other words, different speech societies have their mode of greetings which are accompanied by verbal greetings in their environment.

Greetings are social instruments of politeness and relationship. Greetings play certain roles in human communities. Firth (1972), for instance, identifies three major themes of greetings and farewells: the production of attention, the identification of the interlocutor, and the reduction of anxiety in the social contract. Goody (1972) recognizes the following basic functions for greetings: to begin a series of communicative acts, to define and affirm identity and rank, and to manipulate a particular relationship for achieving particular ends. These ideas agree somewhat with Brown and Levinson's (1978) views that greetings constitute a politeness strategy. They identify two broad types of politeness strategies: positive and negative. While positive politeness satisfies a speaker's needs for approval and belonging, negative politeness serves to minimize the imposition of a face-threatening act.

Greeting indicates continuity of personal relationships and signals the recognition of the other participant as a potential agent in some activity. (Halliday and Hasan, 1985, p.63), also aligned with this submission. However, there are some greeting expressions, which are termed negative gre\eting among the Yoruba since they perform negative social functions among the users.

Adebija (1989, p. 61), identifies greetings as a major means of showing positive politeness among the Yorùbá. That is, greetings are strategies used by the Yorùbá to attract the attention of a co-interlocutor and facilitate good interactions. Those greetings must be initiated by the younger interactant when relating with elders. Also, the first meeting greetings or reunion meetings are elaborate to the extent that close interactants can extend greetings to relations, and associates who are not present at the scene of greeting.

The Yorùbá people have greeting forms for every occasion in all aspects of their lives, following Adebija, (1989); Adejumo (2010); Akindele, (2007); Biobaku, (1958); Oyetade, (1995); Schleicher, (2010) Yorùbá greetings is classified into three forms:

1. Greetings based on times, seasons, and circumstances. e.g., 'È káàárò' (Good morning).
2. Greetings based on traditional occupation or religion. e.g., 'àrìnpánitògún o' (god of iron will support you in killing animals) is a hunting greeting.
3. Situational greetings: Greetings for a pregnant woman, greetings for the new mother and the new baby, and greetings for the children of an older person whodies,e.g, 'ẹ kúewuomọ' (happy delivery).

3. Theoretical Framework

This study adopts Grice's 1975 Cooperative principles for the analysis. The framework of analysis for this study is called the Co-operative Politeness Hypothesis, which is found very apt in describing and analyzing the greeting expressions among the Yoruba. The Cooperative Politeness Theory in this paper is based on Grice's (1975) Cooperative principles. Grice's pragmatic theory finds application in the ethnography of greetings of the Yoruba People.

The Cooperative principle has it that conversation is usually a cooperative activity. Grice believes that at any point in a conversation, a speaker should be guided by certain maxims, such as:

Quality – speakers should say only what is true;

Quantity – speakers should say no more and no less than is required;

Relation – speakers should be relevant; and

Manner – speakers should be perspicuous, i.e. be brief, orderly and should avoid ambiguity.

Yoruba Greetings follow Gricean laws or maxims because their culture entails many cooperative interactions, which also involve politeness. Therefore, this theory is suitable for the analysis of this study. The primary function of the cooperative maxim is that of constraining the participants in the greeting conversation to make their conversation orderly, purposeful, and maximally efficient.

4. Methodology

The data for this study were gathered through participatory observation, non-participatory observation and interview methods. Interviews were conducted for 6 Yoruba native speakers (4 males and 2 females) residing in Ile-Ife in Osun State, Ibadan in Oyo State and OwodeYewa in Ogun State Nigeria. An audio recorder was used for recording greetings at different events, people's greeting interactions and discussions with informants. The Grice 1975 Co-operative principles are used for the analysis of this study.

5. Data Presentation and Analysis

This section presents the data and analysis for this study. It addresses the mode of greeting and the use of honorific pronouns in Yorùbá. The data for this study will be grouped into two major groups, viz: greetings of the day and circumstance greetings.

Mode of Greeting in Yorùbá

The Yorùbá group is known for their respective characteristics. Their series of dialects make it indefinable but this study focuses on the general mode. The young ones pay respect to

the elders and the pragmatic meaning can only be decoded in culture. The respect is exhibited pragmatically thus:

Prostration: The male ones are already equipped with this culture at a tender age. They train their young ones towards this so that they can maintain the basic cultural phenomena. The prostration is done by laying down flat. This is no way to be modified except for certain conditions. The elders are always happy for the respect and importantly, preserving the culture. In traditional and contemporary Yorùbá culture, younger male family and community members greet elders by assuming a position called 'ìdòbálè'. The traditional, full Yorùbá prostration involves the prostrator lying down almost prone with his feet extended behind his torso while the rest of his weight is propped up on both hands. This tradition is the more informal bow and touches the fingertips to the floor in front of an elder with one hand while bending slightly at the kneel.

Kneeling: The female ones presented their cultural heritage by kneeling for the elders. Parents transfer this to their children. The use of kneeling for elderly ones can be pragmatically decoded as means of greeting. The two kneels are used in this instance. Sometimes adults who are experienced in the culture exhibit their respect with the aid of what is called òṣùbà.

In furtherance, there are some other methods of respecting elders through greeting in some other Yoruba dialects, but the general ones are focused on this finding.

The Use of Honorific Pronouns

Apart from greetings, all forms of conversations among the Yorùbá people are honorifics and culture-specific address terms, which, are referentially and pragmatically used. Yoruba is a language with a strong honorific attachment, which distributes social labels because of older or younger age. The use of *ó* and *é* depict respect which can be expressed pragmatically in terms of usages. 'O' is used as a second or third-person pronoun to index an individual in the lower or equal age bracket of the speaker. 'È' is a second-person honorific pronoun, with 'wọ̀n' or 'awọ̀n' (they) as its third-person counterpart. 'Èyin' (honorific 'you') is contrasted with 'iwọ̀' (non-honorific 'you'). 'Àwọ̀n' (third person plural pronominal 'they') is an honorific contrast to the non-honorific 'òun'. Sometimes, the choice of honorifics or non-honorifics depends on the nature

of a relationship (whether or not interlocutors are meeting for the first time), status differentials, the level of intimacy and the speakers' personal styles. The ó-notion is pragmatically used for younger ones and friends of the same peer. This is an example of sociolect in linguistics. The use is interchangeable in different contexts. Below is an example:

1. 'ẹ káàárò mà

(ẹ-notion) good morning ma

ẹ káàárò

(ẹ-notion) good morning.

Pragmatically, the uses of these notions are meant to express respect and it separates elders from their younger ones and maintains the culture. Greetings are central to everyday life in Yoruba land, everyone should be greeted, especially elders. Failure to do so will label a person as disrespectful. This is a custom among the Yoruba people.

2. *Pẹ̀lẹ̀ o* 'sorry o'

Káàárò o/ káàárò 'good morning o/ good morning'

The use depends on the closeness of the addressee

The addressee happens to be older in the context of data (2). The Yoruba people always maintain respect in society by observing these general phenomena among their neighbours.

a. Greetings for the Day

Period of the day	Greetings	Gloss
Morning	ẹ káàárò	'good morning'
Afternoon	ẹ kásàn-án	'good afternoon'
Evening	ẹ kúròlẹ	'good evening'
Night	ẹ káalẹ	'good evening'

The literal analysis of these greeting expressions in the above table connotes a direct meaning of the time of the day. These types of greetings are exchanged based on the time of the day among the Yoruba people. The time of the day depends on these greeting utterances. The pragmatic use of the above utterances depends on the relationship of both the addressee and the addresser. The

user can be further exchanged thus: *ẹ kààárọ sir/ẹ kààárọ ma*. This type of greeting is mostly used by the youth among the Yoruba people. The user can also tend to say *kààárọ*.

Pragmatically, it can further be used thus:

3. *'a kú ojúmọ* '
şé a jí dáàdáà or: *hope we woke up well?* '
ẹ kààárọ, àà jítire bí?' *good morning, hope we woke up well?'*

The meaning of these utterances is directly encoded in the hour of the day which is morning.

4. *ẹ káalẹ/ ẹ kú àşálẹ* 'good evening'

'*ẹ káalẹ*' and '*ẹ kú àşálẹ*' insinuate the same meaning in the underline form. The use depends on the stylistic competence of the user. The observation is this greeting can be either positive or negative among the Yoruba people depending on the context and circumstance.

Circumstance Greetings

Since pragmatics explores the 'meaning' of an utterance based on the circumstances in which it is uttered. Circumstances greetings can be used for bullying, commending efforts, showing sympathy, appreciation etc. Below are the analyses of some circumstance greetings among the Yorùbá people:

5. *pẹlẹ* 'sorry'

This greeting is different from day-to-day greetings among the Yoruba. This greeting expresses sympathy. The use of this expression is consciously applied among this tribe. The literal meaning can be decoded in the present condition of the addressee. It is termed a foul expression depending on the mutuality or relationship between the two parties. The meaning can be easily decoded when it is expressed thus: *Pẹlẹ oo*, which expresses *ikíàbòsí* (*hypocritical greeting*). The utterer might implicate meaning to the situation of the addressee. Therefore, *pẹlẹ* can have a positive or negative meaning depending on the context.

Such examples can be illustrated below:

6. A father is exchanging words with his little child:

Father: *ẹ pẹlẹ sà* 'sorry sir'
ẹ kú eré àná *well-done for yesterday's play.*
ẹ sì tunkú ìmúra tèní *also, well-done for today's preparation'*

The above greeting is not proportional to the direct meaning. The father is older than his little son still; he respected him like an elderly person. This type of expression insinuates that the son is too playful, and the father is cautioning the son. The father is teasing the son and expressing warning through these greetings.

7. *Greeting*

Gloss

<i>Utterer:</i>	<i>ẹ káàbò</i>	<i>welcome</i>
<i>Addressee:</i>	<i>ẹ ẹsun</i>	<i>thank you</i>
<i>Utterer:</i>	<i>şé dáadáa lẹdẹ?</i>	<i>hope you came well?</i>
<i>Addressee:</i>	<i>a dúpé</i>	<i>we thank God</i>
<i>Utterer:</i>	<i>şé àláfià lẹwà?</i>	<i>Hope you are fine?</i>
<i>Addressee:</i>	<i>a dúpé</i>	<i>we thank God</i>
<i>Utterer:</i>	<i>omọ ñkọ?</i>	<i>how is your child?</i>
<i>Addressee:</i>	<i>alááfià</i>	<i>he/she is fine</i>
<i>Utterer:</i>	<i>ayańkọ?</i>	<i>how is your wife?</i>
<i>Addressee:</i>	<i>àlááfià</i>	<i>she is fine</i>
<i>Utterer:</i>	<i>gbogbo ẹbí lúpapọ ñkọ?</i>	<i>how is the family in general?</i>
<i>Addressee:</i>	<i>àlááfià</i>	<i>they are all fine</i>
<i>Utterer:</i>	<i>Olúwaşun</i>	<i>thank God</i>

This greeting expression in datum (5) explains the hospitality and caring of the utterer towards the addressee. It shows that the utterer is loving, considerate, concerned, and caring. Those who do not, by converse, tend to be given the opposite attributes.

8. *ẹ kú ojọ męta* ‘quite an ages’

The pragmatic meaning of *ẹ kú ojọ męta* can be literally or metaphorically analyzed. This greeting expression can be decoded in terms of days (three days) or longevity (long time). This greeting is used if both parties have seen each other for a long time.

9. *ẹ kú idide* ‘thanks for coming

Pragmatically, someone cannot tell which meaning should be tagged with this type of greeting unless someone understands the context by which the greeting is transmitted. The meaning that the hearer will attach depends on the context. If someone has taken his time to visit

someone on a purpose or honour an invite, it will be meant an appreciation for visiting someone. If ordinarily, someone stood up from his/her seat, the pragmatic sign can mean to abuse someone for unnecessary standing up or praise him/her for standing up.

10. **ẹ kú ewu ọkọ/ẹ kú ewu ojú ọnà** ‘thank God for journey mercies’.

This greeting is offered to a person who has just arrived from a journey successfully. It shows caring and concern for the addressee. Yoruba interact with other cultures and tend to tolerate and accommodate them therefore they make use of this greeting to welcome people from a journey. 'Ewu' means danger in Yoruba, it is believed that a lot of danger is attached to the journey which is why they always greet and embrace people returning from a journey in a very special and esteemed way. The above greeting can be perceived that an initiator is caring and hospitable.

11. **ẹ kú ìrìn**

This greeting captures a situation of a trip or walking. This is a circumstancing greeting. The condition for this greeting is that a person must have travelled or walked for a period of time. The initiator of the greeting conversation can use this greeting positively or negatively, depending on his or her feelings towards the addressee in the discourse. If negative, it might be subjected to question and remain ambiguous. If positive, the conversation might not have stopped therefore, the following day the initiator might still say *ẹkú ìrìnàná* or *ẹkú ìrìnọjó*. The pragmatic message is direct to the circumstance while the speaker's meaning is relative to the context.

12. **mo bá yín ní ire** ‘I have met you well.’

This greeting is directed to someone eating ‘*mobáyínní ire*’ (I have met you well). It is a polite greeting expressed to show pleasantry to someone while eating. The person eating might initiate the greeting by saying ‘*ẹ bá mi níre*’ (you meet me well). ‘*ẹ bá mi níre*’ is used for inviting the addressee to join him/her in eating. Most times it is expected of the addressee to say ‘*á gbaibi ire*’ (it will go well). Failure to say ‘*a gbaibi ire*’ regards the addressee as *olójúkòkòrò*.

13. **a kú rògbòdiyàn**

A kú rògbòdiyàn is situational rather than time-greeting. It is used when there is a problem going on in one's immediate environment or at a particular place. The pragmatic use might go in a different direction depending solely on what the problem looks like.

Example:

a kú rògbòdiyàntí ó n sẹ̀lẹ̀ ní idílẹ̀ wayí o 'problem going on in the family.'

a kú rògbòdiyàntí ó n selẹ̀ níorílèdè yí 'problem going on in the country'

a kú rògbòdiyànyí 'indefinite'

14. **mo kí òta, mo kí òpẹ** 'I salute the winner and the novice'

This greeting is exchanged when a group of people is playing the traditional Yorùbá games such as ayò ọ̀lọ̀pọ̀n, draft or any game. This greeting is logical, in this context, the word *òta* means the winner while *òpẹ* is the novice. When the person lunches this greeting, this initiates him to the game automatically. This means he can now be involved in the next game. It also shows politeness towards the people he met in the scene of the game.

15. **ẹ̀ẹ̀ bí akọ; ẹ̀ẹ̀ bí abo/ ẹ̀yìn iyáwó kòní mọ ẹ̀ní o-** 'you will give birth to male and female'

This greeting is pragmatically directed to newly wedded couples '*ẹ̀ẹ̀ bí akọ ẹ̀ẹ̀ bí abo*' (you will give birth to male and female) or '*ẹ̀yìn iyáwó kòní mọ ẹ̀ní o*' (literally-may the back of the wife not get used to the mat implying may the wife get pregnant on time, indicative of the cultural premium placed on a wife promptly getting pregnant after a marriage). The metaphorical meaning of the above greeting is simply that the wife will give birth in due time. The transformational meaning is decoded by the receiver.

16. **ẹ kú ìjokòó; ẹ káàbò o/ẹ kú ináwó o; ẹ kú idìde o; ẹ sẹ o**

This can be translated thus: you are well sitted/ you've been sitting for a while, and we appreciate you; you are welcome; you've spent a lot of time and we appreciate you; Thanks for coming; Thank you/ thanks a lot. *Ìjókòó*, at intervals, serves as a summary of what has been done or said so far, especially where it appears to be a lot of non - Yoruba participants or guests in the

audience; this can be ascertained from the dressing or looks of the guests. The transformational meaning of this greeting expression can be perceived as being appreciative.

Below greeting, exchanges can infiltrate a sense of appreciation by the celebrant,

17. <i>Greeting</i>	<i>Gloss</i>
<i>Celebrant: ẹ ẹ́ sa</i>	‘thanks sir
<i>ẹ kú ìdìde</i>	thanks for coming (thanks for standing up)
<i>ẹ kú ànàwó sí</i>	thank you for your contribution
<i>ẹ kú àdúró tì wa</i>	thanks for staying with us
<i>Oluwa yoo ma duroti yin o</i>	God will be with you

The receivers reply thus:

àmínooo, kò tó pé / àídúpé ara ẹ ni. ‘amen, don’t mention’

In furtherance, our informants provided that the significance of this greeting expression is to exhibit culture and retain harmony with everyone in the society. It was said that if two people who are in the same social group meet on a certain occasion and did not greet each other, this shows a clash or disharmony between them. According to our informant, he said this can cause a state of insurgence or problem for both the society and the families.

It was observed during the Oketase, a man stood up to give his recognition to the necessary people. The man said:

18. *Utterer: à ẹ̀yí sàmódún o!*
Audience: à ẹ̀ oo!
Utterer: ẹ kú ọdún o!
Audience: àláfíá!

Utterer: I greet àràbà àgbáyé and all elders gathered at Ile Ifẹ for the world Ifá festival. greetings on my own and on behalf of iyàwó mi olori Adétólá Ọdúnfúnládé. greetings from my 94years old maternal grandmother to àgbáyé .

The sociolinguistic observation is code-mixing. However, the use of this greeting lies in the context of this occasion. The pragmatic meaning is embedded in this occasion. This greeting is showing a great wish for the audience. After this festival, I could hear some greeting exchanges:

19. 'ẹ̀ n̄ lé mà
 a kú odún òní
 àsèyìsàmódún
 Ifá á dá waśioo
 A o ní kú dàmódùn oo
 pí rí lologo n̄ jí, a o ní sàisàn.'

'ẹ̀ n̄ lé mà
 a kú ọdún.'

Let us compare and contrast the above greeting expression with this:

20. 'ẹ̀ lé mà/ ẹ̀ n̄ lé sà (well done ma/sir
 a kú ayeyẹ̀ òní happy celebration
 èrè pupọ̀ la ó rí n̄bè o' may we gain a lot from the celebration)

The significant use of the greeting expression in (21) might not be directly determined because such expression can be exchanged in many ceremonies such as graduation, wedding and other social ceremonies among the Yoruba people. The greeting in (20) is exchanged during Ifá festival since the utterer said *Ifá a dáwasí o*. The second could have been easily denoted if such expression comprises of *ẹ̀yìnìyàwó kònimẹ̀ni' o*.

Let's consider the greeting expression which shows sympathy towards a loss of life.

- | 21. Greeting | Response |
|--|-------------------------------|
| <i>ẹ̀ pẹ̀lé ma (good day ma)</i> | <i>ẹ̀ ẹ̀é ma (thanks ma)</i> |
| <i>ẹ̀ kú ọrọ̀ èyàn(sorry for loss)</i> | <i>ẹ̀ ẹ̀éunmà (thanks ma)</i> |
| <i>Ọjọ̀ a jìnà síra wọ̀n (may you not die prematurely)</i> | <i>àmín (amen)</i> |
| <i>Olúwa ò níṣe é lákùfáà o (may this not cause further death)</i> | <i>àmín (amen)</i> |
| <i>ẹ̀ ẹ̀é mà/sir (thanks ma/sir)</i> | |
| <i>a ò nífirú ẹ̀ gbàá o/ a ò ní firú ẹ̀ san án fúnra wa</i> | |
| <i>(may we not repay each other with death)</i> | <i>àmín ooo (amen)</i> |

This expression is expressed when a person lost someone. This is used to denote concern and sympathy for the person. The pragmatic use of this expression is only allowed when someone dies. Literally, the expression *ẹ̀ kúọrọ̀ èyàn* is a metaphoric expression. In Yoruba language, *ọrọ̀* simply means 'wealth.' *Ọrọ̀* in this context means 'endurance' of the loss.

Pragmatically, our informant provides explicit information on the mental state of both speaker and receiver of the greetings. Although there is a cultural method of exchanging greetings yet, the mental state of both parties contributes to the pragmatic coding and decoding of greeting occasions. Below example analyzes different meanings.

22. Greeting exchange:

- | | | |
|--------------|--|---|
| <i>Òjó:</i> | <i>ẹ kú ilé nílẹ̀ yì o</i> | <i>(I greet the people of this house)</i> |
| <i>Mama:</i> | <i>Oooooo, ìwọ̀ tanì yẹ̀n oo?</i> | <i>(we greet you, who are you)</i> |
| <i>Òjó:</i> | <i>èmiÒjó ni</i> | <i>(it is me Ojo)</i> |
| <i>Màmá:</i> | <i>Òjó kẹ̀? Òjó,ìwọ̀ ni, ẹ́ dáadáa ni?</i> | <i>(ojo? Ojo you are the one? How are you?)</i> |
| <i>Òjó:</i> | <i>bẹ̀yẹ̀nì ma, dáadáa ni mà</i> | <i>(yes ma, fine ma.)</i> |

In the above greeting exchange, ‘ìwọ̀ tanì yẹ̀n?’ denotes the fact that a person in the room does not know who is really at the door, therefore demanding an introduction from the visitor. Since what the speaker means can only be justified by his/her state of mind and circumstance, which hold the utterance, it is very hard to know the actual meaning of greetings in Yoruba except for the cultural meaning among the people.

23. ẹ kú ohùn bàbá (well done for your words of wisdom)

This is an honorific. It is used to commend an effort of an elderly person when a person has been talking for a while.

24. ẹ kú iṣẹ́ ‘well-done’

This is used to praise or commend the effort of a person when he/she has been working for a while. This goes in line with a proverb that *kú iṣẹ́ nimórí yá*. When a person is commended for work or during work, such a person is happy. They believe that when a person is greeted in such a manner, he/she gains more strength and willingness to do more.

25. kú làákàyè ‘I salute your intelligence.’

‘Làákàyè’ is intelligence therefore this greeting expression is appraisal in nature. It is used to complement the intelligence of someone whether in action or speech. It is used when someone has done or spoken well. The pragmatic meaning is used to salute the intellect of someone. If someone shows a sense of direction when someone is making a speech or accurately provides an answer to some complicated questions then this greeting comes in.

26. ẹ pẹ̀lẹ̀ bàbá, ẹ kú àgbà ‘I commend you for your age.’

This is expressed towards an old man or woman who doesn't have more strength to walk. Our informant explained that it depicts honours in Yoruba land and the elderly people are so happy anytime they are greeted in this manner. This same expression connotes a way of expressing concern when a person has just sneezed.

27. **ẹ kú òsì; ẹ kú iranù** 'Well done for your nonsensical act.'

The tone of the expression is somehow suspicious and conspicuous. The addressee is reluctant to reply to this greeting. This type of greeting is used to disgust a gossip act or rebuke an unacceptable attitude/manner in society.

28. **ẹ kú ègàn; ẹ kú òfófó** 'Well done for your hypocrisy.'

The literal meaning of these greeting expressions is known to the speaker and the purpose is to rebuke and correct any uncultured acts. Pragmatically, these types of greetings cannot be exchanged if someone has not suspected any foul play. Others will be listed thus

- ẹ kú àyọnusọ-well done for meddling act*
- ẹ kú tiyín- well done for your own unfortunate*
- ẹ kú àimò èyí tókàn- well done for not what is next*
- ẹ kú wàhàlà etc. - well done for the problem*

In some of these circumstances, greetings are used in media to show positive politeness to the target audience. Examples of such greetings include:

29. **ẹ kú ilé and ẹ káàbò** (greeting to the people in the house).

ẹ kú ilé and ẹ káàbò is the most controversial greeting expression in my observation among the Yorùbá people. This greeting is the most exchanged type of greeting by this ethnic group. The main context acceptable for this type of greeting is when someone meets people at home, at this point he/she is expected to initiate the greeting by saying e kú lé. The person at home will immediately respond with *ẹ kú àbò* (welcome). It is controversial because this is the rule laid down in justification with this proverb *ẹnití ò kínikúulé, yó pàdánù káàbò* (someone who does not salute people at home lost welcome). In furtherance to this, if an elder comes in and he or she meets the younger ones at home, the younger ones are expected to spark the greeting. Hence, we must say the above proverb is questionable.

However, the circumstance in which two people meet on the street and greet each other *ẹ kú ilé and ẹ káàbò* is controversial to time greeting. Most of the time I observe someone could go

otherwise with a preferable time greeting. This is because both parties are coming from different directions therefore, who to accept the *ẹ kúuléandẹ káàbò* is sometimes problematic for both parties.

Nevertheless, the fact is that among the Yorùbá people, some people still negotiate the type of greeting to be exchanged. Observation measures the length of systematic combination of greetings. If two people meet on the street they can exchange greetings thus:

<i>Greeting</i>	<i>Response</i>
<i>ẹ káàbò mà (welcome ma)</i>	<i>ẹ kásàn án</i>
<i>ẹ kúròlẹ sà (good evening sir)</i>	<i>ẹ káàbò ma/sir</i>

6. Discussion of the Findings

Yorùbá greetings are normally begun by the interlocutor of lower status and responded to by the interlocutor of higher rank, but in some cases (especially in an intimate atmosphere); the interlocutors do not follow this rule. In other words, it is quite natural for the interlocutor(s) to utter their shares simultaneously or if with a latency, to use the same notion (e.g., A: *ẹ káàárọ mà*. B: *ẹ káàárọ mà*). The reason for this apparent license is that the second greeting is not a reply to the first. Both are reactive responses to the sudden availability of the participants to each other, and the point of performing these little rituals is not to solicit a reply or to reply to a solicitation, but to act an emotion that attests to the pleasure produced by contact.

The key to understanding the Yoruba greetings on a pragmatic level lies in an understanding of the dynamics of interpersonal behaviour. It is through the intricacies of face-to-face interaction that power is negotiated, alliances are made, action is made, and choices of strategy are made. Greeting exchanges involving the use of names or address terms vary enormously in such term as who speaks first, what a suitable reply is, and even what variety of language may be employed. It can be safely argued that, if there are important differences in the way greetings work within and between ethnic groups who speak different varieties of the same language, we must expect to find greater differences across speech communities where various languages are spoken. Such a situation is found in Yoruba dialectical greetings. In the cultural adjacent situation, the greetings can be initiated by either of the parties and accepted by the first

parties or the second parties if both of them are in a mutual situation. These types of greetings might not regard age or superiority since the two parties are in a mutual form.

On the other hand, the cultural non-adjacent situation is a bit different from that of the adjacent situation. The greetings can be initiated by either party but not accepted by one party, if the greeting is not well arranged the older parties might not accept the greeting.

7. Conclusion

This study researches the pragmatics analysis of the time and circumstances greetings of the Yoruba. The study was able to discuss the greetings of the day alongside different circumstances greetings which were categorized into praising greetings, bullying greetings, appreciation greetings and occasion greetings. It is of no hesitation, that greeting expression in Yoruba language thoroughly rested on the context and circumstance. Though there are general rules and conventions, sometimes the mental ability of someone is still required to determine some greeting messages among this tribe. Lastly, Grice's (1975) Cooperative principles truly revealed the hidden parts of Yoruba greeting expressions.

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Participle Constructions Among Kannada Children with Intellectual Disability

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Introduction

Language development is a complex and important part of human cognition that substantially improves our ability to communicate and interact with our surroundings. While the majority of children learn to speak in their early years, some groups, such as children with intellectual disabilities (CWID) face delay or impairments in language development. Intellectual impairment is defined by significant limits in cognitive functioning and adaptive behaviour, which affects many elements of daily living, including language skills.

However, there is a scarcity of research in the Indian setting that focuses primarily on the language and communication elements of CWID. Despite the fact that the field of speech-language pathology in India is aware of changing theoretical perspectives and linguistic aspects in typically developing and language-disordered populations, there is still a need to understand the language skills of CWID in order to provide appropriate assessment and intervention.

Language is a complex and dynamic system of conventional symbols that is used in various modes for thought and communication.

Contemporary views of human language hold that

1. Language evolves within specific historical, social, and cultural contexts;
2. Language, as rule-governed behaviour, is described by at least five parameters
- phonologic, morphologic, syntactic, semantic, and pragmatic;
3. Language learning and use are determined by the interaction of biological, cognitive, psychological, and environmental factors;
4. Effective use of language for communication requires a broad understanding of human interaction including such associated factors as nonverbal cues, motivation, and socio-cultural roles.

Morpho-syntax is the study of the morphological and syntactic properties of linguistic or grammatical units and concerns itself with inflection and paradigms but not with word formation or compounding. Brown (1973) serves as a foundation for the work on English monolingual morpho-syntactic language development. He has done a longitudinal study of three children acquiring English as their native language and developed the sequence of 14 morphemes. According to Brown, there are five stages which depict the development in children's language. During the first stage of development, the child starts to combine words and semantic roles in linear simple.

Language development is a complex and important part of human cognition that substantially improves our ability to communicate and interact with our surroundings. While most children learn to speak in their early years, some groups, such as children with intellectual disabilities (CWID), face delays or impairments in language development. Intellectual impairment is defined by significant limits in cognitive functioning and adaptive behaviour, which affects many elements of daily living, including language skills.

However, there is a scarcity of research in the Indian setting that focuses primarily on the language and communication elements of CWID. Despite the fact that the field of speech-language pathology in India is aware of changing theoretical perspectives and linguistic aspects in typically developing and language-disordered populations, there is still a need to understand the language skills of CWID in order to provide appropriate assessment and intervention.

Participles are best classified as verbal adjectives, or words that behave like adverbs in terms of morphology and external syntax but are frequently derived from verbs. It is used to alter a noun or noun phrase in a sentence. Participles may relate to "passive voice" (passive participle), where the modified noun represents the 'patient' (undergoer) of the action, or to "active voice" (active participles), where the modified noun represents the "agent of action."

Jia and Fuse (2007) studied the acquisition of English grammatical morphology by native Mandarin-speaking children and adolescents and age-related differences. The results indicated that acquisition of some grammatical morphemes by school ages immigrants takes several years to complete. As second learners exhibit some error types and difficulties similar to monolingual children with specific language impairment, caution needs to be taken when interpreting and using morphological errors as indicators of speech language learning problems in this population.

Dabrowska and Street (2014) provided experimental evidence for the role of lexically specific representations in the processing of passive sentences and considerable education related differences in comprehension of the passive construction. They measured response time and decision accuracy of participants with high and low academic attainment. The results suggested that all participants have verb specific as well as verb general representations, but the latter are not as entrenched in the participants with low academic attainment, resulting in less reliable performance.

Lakshman (2000) investigated the acquisition of relative clause in 27 Tamil speaking children (2-Gyrs). The findings indicated that the younger children produced a significantly greater number of pragmatically inappropriate response than the older children. But the younger children are not inferior to the older children with respect to their grammatical competence.

This comparative study intends to bridge this knowledge gap by comparing the linguistic development of CWID in the Indian context to that of typically developing youngsters. This research will bring vital insights to the field of speech-language pathology in India by investigating the unique obstacles and specific impairments encountered by CWID. The findings will aid in the understanding of CWID's linguistic profiles, enable more tailored evaluation procedures, and aid in the creation of successful intervention options.

Understanding CWID's language abilities is critical since language deficiencies can have a substantial influence on their daily functioning and social interactions. This study will provide a complete knowledge of language development in CWID within the Indian cultural and linguistic setting by studying the linguistic characteristics of CWID and comparing them to typically developing youngsters. Finally, the findings will help to improve CWID assessment and intervention procedures in India, as well as their overall communication and engagement in society.

Review of Literature

Language is a living system of conventional symbols utilised in many types of thought and communication. It is a complex and specialised skill that develops spontaneously in the child, without conscious effort or formal instruction, without awareness of its underlying logic, is qualitatively the same in every individual, and is distinct from more general abilities to process information or behave intelligently.

Language follows rules and is described by five parameters: phonology, morphology, syntax, semantics, and pragmatics. Language development begins with the child's first cry and continues until late childhood. The interplay of biological, cognitive, psychological, and environmental elements determines language learning. Language semantics, syntax, phonology, and morphology are exceedingly complex. Syntax has drawn the most attention among all aspects of language development.

Syntax is a dominant component of language. It governs how morphemes and words are correctly combined. It refers to the branch of grammar dealing with the ways in which words, with or without appropriate inflections, are arranged to show connections of meaning within the sentence.

Words are assigned to syntactic categories, words head or project phrases, and these syntactic phrases organize the linear string of words that makes up a sentence into a hierarchical structure. After learning the rules governed for connecting words it is possible to create number of infinite meaningful sentences. Hence it is possible to construct many novel and different sentences. Traditionally, it refers to the branch of grammar dealing with the ways in which words, with or without appropriate inflections, are arranged to show connections of meaning within the sentence. By learning the finite number of rules for connecting words it possible to

create an infinite number of sentences, all of which are meaningful to a person who knows syntax. Thus, it is possible to construct many sentences that the speaker never heard before.

Participle clauses are dependent clauses that are abbreviated by using a present or past participle. Verbal adjectives are participants. They have some characteristics of verbs and others of adjectives. However, they are really a form of adjective. Participles can be used as adjectives to modify nouns or pronouns. We may put a lot of information in a statement this manner without making it excessively long or confusing. The present participial structure (ing-form) shows that both acts occur at the same time, and we can reduce a passive clause by using the passive participle and the past participle. The perfect participle indicates that the activity in the participle clause occurred prior to the action in the main sentence.

The perfect participle in English can represent acts in both the active and passive voice. Other English participles are constructed periphrastically in order to mimic the larger array of classical participles, although they frequently appear formal or even odd.

Western Studies

Redmond (2003) investigated Children's productions of the affix -ed in past tense and past participle contexts (e.g., the boy kicked the ball vs. the ball was kicked) were examined in spontaneous conversations and elicited productions. The performances of 7 children with specific language impairment (SLI) were compared with those of 2 control groups of typically developing children (age matches, MLU matches). Children with SLI produced fewer obligatory contexts for both past tense and past participle forms than did the control children and were more likely to omit past tense affixes. In contrast, few omissions of the past participle were observed across all 3 groups. Implications for theories regarding the morphological deficits associated with SLI are discussed.

Savage, Lievan, Theakston and Tomasello (2003) investigated on abstractness of early syntactic constructions in children of ages 3, 4, and 6 years and the results reveals that 6-year-old children showed both lexical and structural priming for both active transitive and passive constructions whereas 3- and 4-year-old children showed lexical priming only. These results revealed that children develop abstract linguistic representations in their pre-school years.

Heather and Lely (2013) compared the acquisition and underlying syntactic representation of passive sentences in specifically language impaired (SLI) children and

normally developing children, concluded that SLI children were significantly worse at interpreting transitive verbal passive sentences than the normal children they also concluded that both groups may have problem deriving the syntactic representation underlying a verbal passive sentence but not the less complex adjectival –stative passive.

Indian Studies

Rao (1995) investigated on development of syntax in children with intellectual developmental disorder and found that there was delay in the development of syntax when compared to normals.

Ranjan (2006) did a study on syntactic skills in children with intellectual developmental disorder with the mental age of 3-7 years and the results revealed that children with 5-7 years mental age shown an increase in percentage of use in all plurals forms mainly regular plurals.

Nitha (2010) investigated on development of tense markers in typically developing Malayalam speaking children and children with intellectual developmental disorder and the results revealed that the present tense markers is poor in children with intellectual developmental disorder when compared to normals.

Methodology

Aim and Objective

The study aims at profiling language in children with intellectual disability speaking Kannada (mental age 4 to 6 years). Analyzing the data at levels of language functioning – Predicates as compared to mental age matched typical children.

Participants with Inclusive and Exclusive Criteria

Participants included 30 typical children (TD) in the age range of 4 to 6 years and 30 Children with Intellectual disability (CWID) (Mental age 4 to 6 years)

Typical children establishing profiles of TD was found necessary because of the need for comparison with CWID. Currently extensive developmental data in typical children speaking Kannada is not available. Moreover, establishment of norms based on free conversational samples is rare. Hence, a preliminary performance description of normal children in the age range of 4 to 6 years was considered essential.

All the children were suggested by teachers who identified the best suited for the study. Children with history of any speech and /or language deficits, any reading and /or writing problems, any history /complaint of acquired hearing loss, complaints of cognitive deficits such as poor memory, attention deficits, organizational and /or sequencing issues, any transfer from more than one school, any shift in the medium of instruction and any academic failures were excluded from the study. No formal language testing was administered due to lack of such tests in kannada language. Consent was obtained from the parents of children before data collection

Materials Used

Following the guidelines of LARSP (Crystal et.al., 1976 and 1989) and in subsequent Kannada language adaptation (Subbarao, 1995) on sample collection, a set of toys and pictures were selected. Toys and pictures used for sample collection are as shown below. All the subjects were selected from the same socio-economic background.

Toys and play materials– House building set, Toy, jeep, Ball, Toy Utensils, Coins, Travel bag set, Paper-Pencil

List of Pictures – City Road, traffic, Village, life-1 City life, Village Life

Topics for elicited work at school, teachers, response from subjects, Games played with friends, Cinema, Television program, Favourite music, Favourite clothes, Family member.

Procedure

Adjectives may be derived from verbs, generally, by adding /-o:/ or /-a/ to the verb stem. This scan includes five types of constructions, verbal, negative verbal, noun relative and negative relative participle constructions. The scan again is made for the presence or absence of the structure.

Examples

Affirmative/Verbal participle: /a/o:/

/baro:va:ra/ next week (the coming week)

comeweek

/nod:o ja:ga/ the place (one is)

seeing seeplace

/bandahudga/ the boy who came

Came boy

/ho:da va:ra/ last week gone week

Negative participle: /-ade/

/na:n tinde ho:de/ I went without eating

/ra:ju a: sinma no:dde bidlilla/ Raju didn't leave without seeing that movie

Raju that movie without-seeing did-not-leave

Relative Participle: /-ta: iro: / or /-iro/

/albandirohudga/ the boy who has come there

/al barta:iro: hudga/ the boy who is coming there

Negative relative: /ada/ /a: gda/

/ivattu kelsa: ma:dad hudga ya:ru? / Who is the boy who is not working today?

today work is-not boy who

/fe:la:gda hudga/ the boy who did not fail

Participle Noun

/ogeyuvaaagasa/ The one who washes is a washer man

/doddavanu/ /doddo: nu/ a big man

Analysis

Samples were a combination of conversations with the children and interactive sessions using toys and pictures. Free conversation was encouraged throughout the 30 minutes sessions with each child. The setting was within the familiar environment of the school. The researcher interacted with children before and to become familiar with each other. The first half of the session recording focused on free conversation, while the latter half involved discussions regarding the toys and pictures. The session was recorded using Sony video recorder (Model DCR-3R21E). The Recorder was placed at a distance of three feet from the setting. A quiet room of the special school /school was used for recording. An additional note was taken to

indicate accuracy of children's response to stimuli for later use in transcription. Thus, the obtained sample was transcribed, analysed.

The overall guideline provided by LARSP (Crystal et.al., 1976 and 1989) was used for the transcription of the sample and analysis of response patterns. Suggestions and guidelines provided by an earlier study of language analysis in children with Intellectual disability speaking Kannada using LARSP (Subbarao, 1995) were adapted.

Statistical Analysis

T' test was used to compare the means of two groups. Z test was used to determine whether two population means are different when the variances are known and the sample size is large, Man Whitney test was used to compare the differences. ANOVA followed by post hoc analysis was done using Bonferroni test. The results are expected to strengthen linguistic profiling of Kannada speaking children with the intellectual disability. Such profiling is expected to increase our understanding of disordered language in this group and also help in planning age-appropriate remediation.

Results and Discussion

Language delays and disorders amongst children have increasingly attracted attention of practicing Speech Language Pathologists in India. One group has consistently demanded attention is Children with Intellectual Disability (CWID). Language behavior of these children has become an important area of research particularly in the Indian context. There are reports of differences between mental age (MA) matched typical children (TD) and children with Intellectual disability (CWID). In fact, it is recognized that the extent of deviance is underestimated (Kiernan, 1985; Subbarao, 1995). The results of the present study also support these views. Although, there is an overall delay in acquiring language, there are differences among the MA matched TD and CWID children. These differences are most noticeable in syntactic aspects as compared to semantic aspects. This assertion further strengthens similar conclusions of Subbarao (1995).

As described in methodology section, all TD and CWID interacted during play to obtain a natural conversational language sample. The transcription of the language samples was subjected to detailed analysis. Initially quantitative analysis was done, followed by analysis of qualitative aspects.

Quantitative Analysis

The transcription of language sample was analysed for the stimulus type and response categories. All the sentences were counted for Therapist (T) and Participants (P). The total numbers of the sentences were counted which yielded three quantitative measures like Total number of sentences, mean number of sentences per time and Mean sentence length; the present measures were compared for both groups of TD and CWID groups. The group mean, standard deviation was calculated and significance between the means were calculated using t' test for the unmatched pairs.

Table 1.1 Shows the presence of Participle constructions in typical children and children with intellectual disability with statistical evidence.

	N	Typical Children	%	Children with intellectual disability	%	Testing proportions- z value	P value	Significance (at 0.005 level)
		No. present		No. present				
Affirmative	30	24	80	17	56	1.94	.026	Sig
Negative participle	30	0	0	0	0	0	0	NS
Relative participle	30	3	10	0	0	1.78	.038	Sig
Negative relative	30	0	0	1	3	0	0	NS
Participle noun	30	0	0	5	16	0	0	NS

NS-No Significance, Sig-Significant

In Kannada adjectives may be derived from verbs, generally, by adding /-o:/ or /-a:/ to the verb form. 80 % of the children show the presence of affirmative verbal participle. For example: /bar o va:ra/ (coming week); /bareyo: pennu/ (pen that writes); /ho: da va:ra/ (last week). Relative participle was seen in 10% children indicating that these syntactic forms are

acquired later than 6 years. Eg: /al barta iro: ga: di/ (the vehicle that is coming there). Other aspects were not seen in the samples.

It is clear from table 1.1 that 56% of the CWID group used affirmative participle construction consistently. Other types were not used by children in either group. Comparing both the groups the TD group performed better than the CWID group. Significant differences were seen for affirmative and relative participle constructions in which children had responded. Subbarao (1995) had also reported that none of the CWID exhibited participle constructions. (Karanth and Suchitra 1993, cited in Subbarao, 1995) have indicated that acquisition of such syntactic types may start by 6 years onwards.

Discussion

Studies from many diverse disciplines show that as language is a complex structure its use involves many diverse interacting psychological operations (Caplan, 1992). Most children acquire this complex system (Language) during their early years. It is generally accepted that interactionist approaches propagated in the late 70's (Bloom and Lahey, 1978; Carrow-Woolfolk and Lynch, 1982) explain language development better than any single theory. This integrated viewpoint suggests that both maturation and behaviour of society simultaneously influence and determine linguistics and communicative behaviour.

Considering this approach, studying children for describing their linguistic communication in naturally occurring day to day interactions becomes important. It is well accepted that understanding of language and communicative development is an underlying force to enable effective language intervention in children with disability. One of the largest groups in India that require attention is children with Intellectual disability (CWID). The present study is focused on oral expression of the children and analyzing the resulting language output. Studies of language development have made some headway particularly in Kannada (Karanth, 1990; Subbarao, 1995, and Rohila, 2015).

Summary and Conclusion

The present study is an extension of previous studies in language profiling of Kannada speaking children with intellectual disabilities (CWID). Most notably, Subbarao (1995) had obtained natural conversational samples of 4 to 6 years mental aged (MA) children with intellectual disability (CWID) and 4 to 6 years matched typical children (TD). The audio

sample obtained thus was transcribed and subjected to analysis based on the overall general guidelines provided by LARSP (Crystal et. al, 1976 and 1989).

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Relevance of Adichie's *We Should All Be Feminists*

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Chimamanda Ngozi Adichie

Courtesy: [https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Chimamanda Ngozi Adichie](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Chimamanda_Ngozi_Adichie)

Abstract

Chimamanda Ngozi Adichie is a Nigerian author and a renowned feminist. In *We Should All Be Feminists*, Adichie puts forward a thought-provoking perspective on feminism. She challenges all the negative stereotypes associated with the term. She also describes her first encounter with the phrase 'feminist', which was uttered to her in a way that sounded like a supporter of terrorism. Through this essay, she creates an awareness of the importance of gender equality and calls for action to create a fair and equal society. This paper examines and analyses Adichie's views on the societal constructs of gender inequality and its consequences on society.

Introduction to Adichie

Adichie was born on 15th September 1977 in Enugu, Nigeria. In her works, Adichie often explores the themes of gender inequality, identity, race, and culture. Adichie has received

numerous awards for her contribution to literature, which include MacArthur Foundation Fellowship (2008), The Orange Prize for Fiction, International Nonino Prize (2009) and PEN. Her novels like *Purple Hibiscus* (2003), *Half of Yellow Sun* (2006), and *Americanah* (2013) gained her international recognition. In addition to these novels, she has also written essays and short stories and delivered speeches creating awareness about the importance of gender equality. Adichie is considered one of the most important and prominent voices in contemporary literature, and her works have been translated into more than 30 languages.

Concept of Feminism

Feminism is a theory that aims to create social, political, and economic equality for both sexes and eliminate all kinds of discrimination against women. Feminism has a rich history and can be traced back to the 18th Century. Feminism aimed not only at ending gender discrimination but for advocating women's suffrage, reproductive rights, equal pay for equal work, and challenging and dismantling the patriarchal power structures. Also, feminism is not a monolithic ideology but an intersectional approach that addresses the issues regarding race, class, sexuality, and disability. Feminism recognizes that equality cannot be achieved without addressing these issues owing to their interconnected nature.

Variants of Feminism

Feminism is a broad, multifaceted movement with different variations and approaches. While there are many variations of feminism, the prominent ones are discussed here in brief.

Liberal Feminism

Liberal Feminism is the most common or mainstream variant, which stresses achieving equal rights and opportunities for women through political and legal frameworks within societal constructs. Liberal feminists advocate changes in the legal and political system required to eliminate gender-based discrimination and to promote gender equality. Examples: Voting, Equal pay for equal work.

Radical Feminism

This variant of Feminism views patriarchy or male supremacy as the root cause of women's suffering and oppression. This variant strongly argues for overthrowing patriarchy in all social and economic spheres for women's liberation and for creating a just society. Prominent radical feminists include Alice Walker, Catherine MacKinnon, and Andrea Dworkin.

Marxist Feminism

Marxist Feminism is a combination of the theories of Marxism and Feminism. Marxist feminists strongly believe women's oppression is rooted in the capitalist system. They argue that women's oppression is a byproduct of the intersection of capitalism and patriarchy. They demand and strive for a more egalitarian society by changing the social system through collective action.

Intersectional Feminism

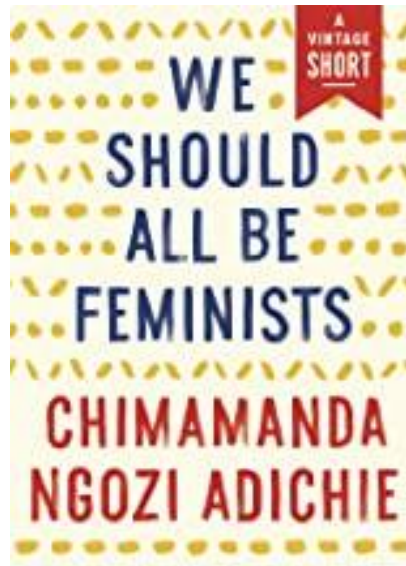
This variant of Feminism is the intersection of gender inequality and various forms of oppression. It addresses the issue of women's exploitation in various spheres based on race, class, and sex. Intersectional feminists seek to create awareness about the intersectional nature of various forms of oppression and to promote social justice for women.

Ecofeminism

This variant explores the interconnectedness of the exploitation of women and nature. Ecofeminists attempt to depict the similarities between women's and nature's exploitation. They argue that both women and nature must be respected, and their motive is to create an equitable and sustainable society.

These are some of the many variants of the mainstream theory of Feminism. Though each variant has its uniqueness and perspectives, they all share one common aim to eliminate the worm of gender inequality.

We Should All Be Feminists



Courtesy:

https://www.amazon.com/s?k=We+Should+All+Be+Feminists&i=stripbooks&crd=1K0SVAJJXF4OW&sprefix=we+should+all+be+feminists%2Cstripbooks%2C190&ref=nb_sb_noss

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We Should All Be Feminists (2014) is a talk-turned-book by Adichie. In it, she tries to define the concept of 'feminism' in the twenty-first century. Here, she discusses the essence of being a feminist. Adichie also argues that the support of men for women's empowerment is important and therefore not only women but we all should be feminists.

Importance of Feminism

Feminism is a movement that seeks to achieve social, political, and economic equality for all genders. Despite the importance of gender equality, Feminism has faced criticism for years by many who consider it an unnecessary movement. Another misconception regarding Feminism is that it only benefits women and that men are somehow disadvantaged. Adichie

counters this statement by clarifying that Feminism does not aim to disadvantage men but to create a just and equal society. She strongly advocates that Feminism is not about putting one gender above another but achieving gender equality.

Adichie attempts to redefine the term feminism by saying that this term should not only be restricted to women but any man or woman who feels that something is wrong with the present gender system and that it needs to change.

Consequences of Gender Inequality

The present societal construct requires men to be more masculine or rigid and suppress their fears and weaknesses. As a result, their egos are more fragile, and women are trained to be submissive to men's fragile egos. Gender inequality pervades almost every sphere of human life, including schools, colleges, and workplaces. Adichie cites her first-hand experiences growing up in Nigeria, where she faced gender inequality. She remembers being unable to be the class monitor because only a boy could be the monitor. She also talks about not being allowed to enter bars or clubs without a male counterpart. Adichie argues that gender inequality harms women by limiting their potential and men by pressuring them to conform to narrow definitions of masculinity.

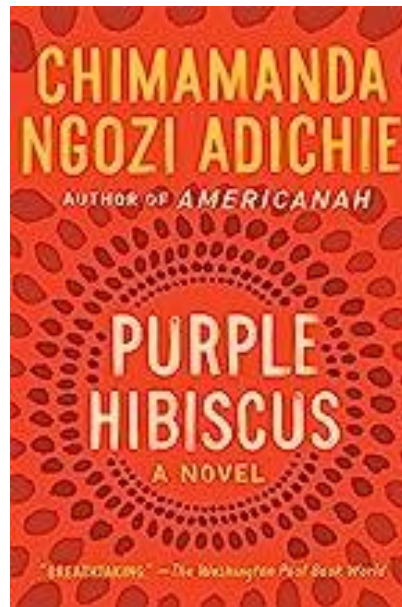
Consequences of Patriarchy

A quote from Simone de Beauvoir's *The Second Sex* best suits this context, "One is not born, but rather becomes, a woman". Right from their childhood, girls are trained to be submissive and likable and are expected to be the ones to compromise. Adichie says that when we see certain things again and again, somehow, it becomes routine. Thus, women's subordination has become quite normal, and our society finds nothing wrong with it. It also results in the underrepresentation of women and gender pay gaps in workplaces. A woman with the same abilities and qualifications as a man is still paid less for the same job. Therefore, Adichie dismisses the argument that Feminism is unnecessary as women have made significant progress in recent decades. She makes it clear that though progress has been made, there is a long way to go before we achieve gender equality in all aspects of life. Adichie also claims that "Culture does not make people. People make culture. If it is true that the full humanity of women is not our culture, then we can and must make it our culture."

Adichie's Contribution to Feminism

Throughout history, numerous individuals have played vital roles in shaping feminist ideologies. Adichie is among those many influential figures, whose work has profoundly impacted the contemporary discourse surrounding gender equality. Through her compelling narratives, powerful speeches & thought-provoking essays, Adichie has raised awareness, challenged stereotypes & advanced a more inclusive understanding of Feminism. Her work challenges gender stereotypes, expands the feminist discourse to embrace intersectionality, and empowers women to define their paths. Adichie's critically acclaimed works "Purple Hibiscus" and "Half of a Yellow Sun" offer profound insights into the lives of women and the systemic issues they face. With her remarkable skills, she exposes the complexities of gender inequality, enabling readers to question the societal expectations placed upon women. Adichie's work champions women's empowerment inspiring them to embrace their individuality and challenge

societal expectations tied to traditional gender rules. She encourages women to break free from patriarchal norms, defining success and happiness on their terms. Her writing catalyses for women to find their voices, pursue their aspirations, and reject the limitations imposed upon them by societal norms. Her unwavering commitment to gender equality has inspired individuals worldwide, and her legacy as a feminist icon will continue to shape future generations.



Courtesy:

https://www.amazon.com/s?k=purple+hibiscus+book&i=stripbooks&crd=QAYOCBHSW7M&prefix=Purple+Hibiscus%2Cstripbooks%2C190&ref=nb_sb_ss_ts-doa-p_2_15

Adichie's 14 Points in Support of Feminism

Further in her book *We Should All Be Feminists* Adichie explores the following 14 points which may be the ways of advocating Feminism:

- 1) Gender equality
- 2) Women empowerment
- 3) Freedom of choice
- 4) Fair pay
- 5) Education
- 6) Political representation
- 7) Solidarity
- 8) Ending violence against women
- 9) Women's rights
- 10) Challenging stereotypes
- 11) Reproductive rights
- 12) Challenging gender norms
- 13) Creating awareness
- 14) Encouraging women's participation in society.

Last, but not least, Adichie gives a solution for creating a fairer and happier world. She says, "We must raise our daughters differently. We must also raise our sons differently so that they do not become vulnerable in the face of sexism".

Conclusion

It is concluded that gender equality is essential if we wish to prosper as a society, and no other channel better than feminism can help us achieve the same. While Feminism has faced criticism for decades, Adichie argues that it benefits both men and women and can eventually be helpful for the betterment of society.

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Understanding of Regional OTT Platform: BS Value, Nakkalites

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Abstract

Over-the-top (OTT) platform is basically working with the use of internet services with all communication electronic gadgets such as smart phones, tablets, smart TV, and desktop. The Digital online streaming Platform OTT (Over-the-top) providing television and film content in different languages over the internet extensively which is available across the globe today at the request.

OTT platform such as Netflix, Amazon prime video, Disney plus, and HBO are famous in foreign countries nearly two decade ago, but in India it got popularise during the COVID-19 pandemic. The total lockdown of cinema theatres/halls during the covid pandemic paved way to develop the indigenous OTT platforms such as Sun nxt, hoichoi, aha, koode, stage, cityshor, chaupal, planet marathi, olly plus Manorama max, VOOT, SonyLIV, and Disney+ Hotstar, etc., which are acquiring films and video contents in different Indian languages including four southern languages in order to attract customers from tier-two and tier-three areas. Due to the non-accessibility of theatres and lack of entertainment, people totally turn towards the video contents of OTT platforms during COVID period. Theatrical pictures attracted crowds in almost all cities, towns and villages became binge users of OTT.

Basically the different vernacular language OTT content is to suit the requirements of the individual consumer. According to the Federation of Indian Chamber of Commerce and Industry (FICCI) recent analysis, in 2020 the regional languages OTT (over-the-top) video content is 27% will be expected to double in 2024. All OTT platforms have realised that in order to remain relevant across India, they must both purchase and generate unique content for regional audiences. Now most platforms have been looking to grow their audience by purchasing and developing content in several regional languages.

As a result, OTT platforms now are expanded to small YouTube producers or content creators to form their video content libraries in order to grow their subscriber base. *Nakkalites* is one of the leading Indian Tamil YouTube media channel that operates in the space along with *Black Sheep* (BS Value) and formed first independent OTT Platform by end of 2020

exclusively for Tamil language, which provides Tamil classic films, web series and has about one million subscribers.

The preferences of OTT contents are determined by the preferences of an individual in which the OTT platforms are unique. Binge-watching is a relatively a new behaviour pattern in recent time. The study focuses on the understanding of content strategy and challenges of the content creators. The qualitative study is used to collect data through an in-depth interview method.

Keywords: Regional platforms, OTT video application, content strategy, global

Introduction

India's pattern of digital consumption has undergone a significant shift over time. Pandemic altered consumer behaviour patterns more quickly than any other media businesses could have anticipated. The new way of watching videos was starting to gain popularity among audience. The apex of the in-home entertainment market occurred during the lockdown. Global firms like Netflix and Amazon Prime are attempting to get into the huge emerging market. Several Bollywood and regional films that were slated for theatrical premieres were instead released on OTT channels. More new shows have been produced throughout this time to appeal to more viewers. (Bhattacharya, 2020).

OTT video service acceptance is largely influenced by variables including convenience, mobility, content, and subscription models. The most important of these factors is content. (Dasgupta & Grover, 2019). The audience is initially drawn to content because of its narrative style and storytelling. Since these streaming services offer diverse narrative styles and International and regional content, people have changed their consumption patterns. With the use of subtitles, OTT platforms transmit foreign content across multiple locations, enabling the viewer to become familiar with diverse cultures and aesthetics. The globalised contents of this new platform have the potential to influence and pave the way for the spread of regional areas. It is likely that over time, the new media could contribute to cultural uniformity and could lessen to some extent multicultural identity.

The paradigm challenges the notion of cultural domination by offering new geo-linguistic flow patterns for audio-visual information around the world (Lievrouw & Livingstone, 2007). Paradoxical behaviour is constantly present in the new media spectrum. Although technology causes people to become isolated from the outside world, it also stimulates societal arguments on social media. Similar to how the OTT platform demanded the simultaneous development and spread of regional and multinational content.

"[Localization] is] the linguistic and cultural adaptation of digital material to the requirements and locality of a foreign market, and the supply of services and technologies for the management of multilingualism throughout the digital global information flow," says Schaler (Schaler & Anastasiou, 2010). It's not a novel commercial approach to make a product region-specific. Global corporations customise products as needed for different regions. Now that local audiences may easily access global content through online channels,

there is a greater need for personalised, localised content. Subtitling and video dubbing are not only a small part localization of content. Localization, internationalisation, and globalisation are terms used by Anastasiou and Schaler in their paper Translating Vital Information. Locale is a term used to describe the combination of language and culture used in localised digital content.

Methodology

In-depth interviews both In-person and Telephonic modes have been carried out in order to investigate and understand the regional and localization strategy of content creators *Nakkalites* and *BS Value*. In order to gather the necessary information for the study, a variety of texts -- research journals, online articles, news reports, interviews and annual reports were reviewed. Qualitative method of approach is employed here.

Brief Note on Samples

BS Value: BS Value is the first independent Tamil OTT platform in India, Where you can enjoy unlimited original Tamil web series, Original Tamil Movies, Short films, etc. Founded in the year 2020 BS Value tends to be the pioneer for the Tamil regional OTTs.

Nakkalites: Nakkalites is one the leading South Indian YouTube media channel founded in the year 2017, which has recently launched its OTT platform namely Nakkalites Life in collaboration with BS Value. The main theme of their contents are comedy, political and social satire based sitcom series and individual videos.

Binge-Watching - An OTT Phenomenon

A relatively recent behavioural trend known as binge-watching which is when two to six episodes of a TV show are watched all at once. The more episodes someone watched, the more troublesome their behaviour became. Scientists counted the number of binge-watching sessions people participated in each day, week, and month to determine frequency. In addition, 72% of those asked said they regularly binge-watch TV shows. According to numerous research, younger adults (18–39) are more likely than older adults to binge watch television.

According to Rubenking and Bracken, binge-watching has taken root among the group of college students. The majority of the research employs Uses and Gratification Theory, which describes how people utilize media like social media, television, and the internet to satisfy their needs. People binge watch for a variety of reasons. The simplest justification speaks of hedonistic requirements for amusement, involvement, and relaxation as well as immediate fulfilment. Additionally, some people have a cognitive incentive for self-improvement and are motivated to learn things by watching TV shows.

The desire to socialise is yet another reason for binge-watching. People binge watch to form new friendships, fit in with the group or fandom, and experience peer acceptance. The main reasons for wanting to spend more time binge-watching, according to Panda and Pandey, are social engagement, escape, the influence of advertising, and accessibility. Surprisingly, the researchers found that individuals are more likely to engage in binge-

watching for longer periods of time and develop a greater dependence on it, if they feel anxious or uncomfortable. High impulsivity, which is the leading factor that raises the risk of behavioural addiction, is linked to unintentional binge-watching, as Riddle has emphasised. According to the study done by Castro, Rigby, Cabral, and Nisi, people report feeling more depressed after binge-watching, which could be a result of them having just engaged in a really pleasurable and engaging activity and then having to return to reality.

Challenges of Content Creators Regional OTTs

The data collected from the in-depth interviews and a survey of literature envisions the trajectory of challenges faced by the content creators of Regional OTTs. On a close survey of the two OTT platforms selected as samples, we end up in two major spheres of challenges, namely, Economic Challenges and Content Challenges.

Economic Challenges

Economic Challenges is quite a common challenge faced by almost all the regional OTTs. Through the In-depth interviews conducted with the Founder and creative head of the sample OTTs, the common economic challenges faced by the regional OTT could be depicted.

The foremost Economic Challenge faced by the regional OTT is the Payoff issue. The surveys let us know that the payment of revenue for the regional OTTs is being delayed. They say that the mainstream OTTs can survive delayed Payoffs. As they are well established and are economically strong, they could manage crisis during the delay in their payoffs. OTTs like Amazon and Netflix are financially equipped enough to produce original contents worth of 200 million US dollars. Whereas the Regional OTTs, being small-scale start-ups find themselves in a critical position to survive these payoff delays. They say that they consider this crisis as a challenge to survive. During the payoff crisis, they have to sort out timely alternative sources of revenue.

Content Challenges

The challenges faced by the regional OTTs in content making is quite common and similar to that of other content creators. The regional OTT Content creators should keep their Timeline so engaged that they produce and sell contents on a very regular interval. Keeping the audience engaged is the main challenge faced by these regional OTTs.

The next challenge faced by them is competition. The competitors of these OTTs are a bit unusual. Apart from professional OTT creators, they face even the amateur content creators in a critical way. Amateur content creators without any professional approach easily influence and invade the audience, which triggers these professional OTT content makers to concentrate more on their content.

The next one is the content creator shortage. There is a demand for innovative content creators now. The creative heads of the regional OTTs confess that there is a huge pool of opportunities awaiting for young and aspiring content creators. Anyone with an innovative content that could invade a mass audience, has a bright opportunity in the arena.

Heterogeneity of OTT

Similar to the main stream platforms the regional OTTs also have heterogeneity in their content varieties. The content creation team strive hard to attain this large range of varied content. The teams pursue an in-depth research to spot out the suitable genres for the audience time and again.

The content heads of the regional OTTs say that Nostalgia themed contents and comedy dramas are the hot selling cakes now and they are concentrating on both.

Discussion and Debate

OTT platforms have an important place in the contemporary period. It is also considered a well existing democratic empowerment for the OTT users. By the influence of content creators, many individual channels and groups are developing through the OTT platforms, which also stand and create new revenue in the industrialisation. OTT platform is one of an integrated parts of democracy and it stimulates industrialisation for the future generation.

The mainstream media creates a strong revolution in OTT platforms. The developed OTT platforms like Amazon, Netflix and other online streaming media encouraging the high budget movies commercial, and hero worshipping movies to occupy their OTT platforms. The traditional way of theatre movies are celebrating the festive times and also give importance to the hero worshipping movies. In future the OTT also will follow in creating the chances for the individuals content creators streaming their ideas under the economic bases.

The following threats are changing the online streaming. The Regional OTT platforms help the individual content creators by encouraging their new contents. Meanwhile, the need of local OTT platforms is giving contents uplifting particular ethnic groups and their culture to our society. The regional plat formers also understand the nature of particular people's feelings and emotion based on their environmental factors. The media can find new young talents through the local OTT platforms. The idea of local streaming media encourages the media openings in easy ways, and it is very much comfortable for the local content creators. This creates a big passion of individual person and make revolution in the digital world.

For instance, the Malayalam movie **The Great Indian Kitchen** was first rejected by the mainstream media houses for its controversial content regarding the Sabarimala Tradition. Later NeeStream regional OTT came forward to stream the movie on their OTT, which later attracted other OTTs like Amazon and Netflix towards it. Now the Regional OTTs have become an ice breaker for the content creators.

Conclusion

OTT undoubtedly symbolizes the future of media, whether you're following up and finding new platforms or binge-watching the latest Netflix Original series. OTT technology has enormous potential to gain leverage, especially in entertainment sectors, added to worldwide adoption. Cinema directly influences the society and the community where it becomes the pivot of entertainment after the pandemic days. During the period of COVID-19

drastically surges the ratio of movies consumption audience across the world and it also subjects more youngsters to binge-watch for more hours of time that starts the way to the rise of OTT Platforms. In today's scenario, OTT plays a prominent role in world cinema. Experts also says it is the future of cinema industry. Certainly, theatre consumption audience is slightly getting low in number, rather they prefer the OTT platforms in which it is more convenience and easily portable in all content. OTT is a relatively new phenomenon, there is a huge amount of growth potential. Lots of companies are entering the OTT space, leading to a wide variety of options for consumers, and increasing quantities of ad inventory for marketers. This new trendsetter of OTT platform streaming is particularly popular among teenagers due to the availability of new web series, tv shows, and play stations.

OTT gives huge opportunity to newcomers who aspire to shine in film industry. Creating regional OTT platforms can improve better Socio-culture in the society and it also attract the native audiences and it also provides a space to young talents to showcase their expertise and create nepotism free in film industry. OTT has also opened up the biggest possibility for showcasing ad-free content, with subscription services powering digital campaigns, targeted video advertising & inclusive of direct sponsorships.

Finally, when it comes to surviving in this fast tide of rapid moderation, digital streaming infrastructure has served as a boon to construct a native platform which can produce huge benefit to native film-makers and content creators. Certainly, it saves us from Media centralisation.

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Pragmatic Profiling of 6-8 Years Old Typical Children Speaking Hindi

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Abstract

Early childhood communication success depends on the development of effective pragmatic skills making it vital for social interaction and language learning outcomes within this developmental stage. To enhance our understanding, we aim to explore and profile the pragmatic skill set among typical children speaking Hindi between the age group of 6-8 years through a qualitative approach that involves analysing results qualitatively enabled by contemporary methodologies and tools available today. A sample of 50 randomly selected children who fulfil our criteria in terms of age group, linguistic background, and lack of developmental or language-related disorders were studied to better understand the development of pragmatic skills amongst typical children speaking Hindi. Qualitative data was obtained by means of naturalistic observations along with audio/video recordings which helped us examine real-life communicative situations more closely. This research seeks answers regarding numerous pragmatic phenomena including communicative intent, stylistic variation, topic initiation, topic maintenance, etc. which are all unique in nature to typical children speaking Hindi.

Keywords: pragmatics, typical children, child-initiated skills, Hindi language

Introduction

Meaningful relationships require effective communication between individuals which entails sharing ideas and emotions through spoken or written words. The ability to communicate proficiently involves mastering various aspects of language development with pragmatic skills representing one essential attribute that makes people competent speakers. Pragmatic competence covers numerous skills like taking turns during conversations, understanding figurative language usage, adhering to suitable politeness norms while conversing with others and responding adequately according to social cues provided- verbal or otherwise. Research on pragmatic abilities has so far concentrated mainly on English-speaking populations; however, increasing evidence suggests exploring the pragmatics of other languages such as Hindi.

This study focuses on exploring pragmatic profiling among typical children who are proficient in conversing in Hindi. The purpose of this investigation is to gain a more comprehensive understanding of how language use influences communication styles and social interaction patterns within a given linguistic community. Specifically focusing on studying the pragmatic skills adopted by typical children speaking Hindi sheds light on previously unrecognized aspects of the developmental process that can bring out unique challenges faced by the children during their acquisition journey. In turn, such insight contributed towards enriching current knowledge on how pragmatic development occurs among this demographic group while emphasizing respectful ways towards promoting equal access for all towards communication and language interpretations.

The results obtained from this research initiative offer significant benefits to speech-language pathologists, educators and parents. Providing nuanced insight into typical pragmatic growth in typical children speaking Hindi will help in devising culturally sensitive assessment methods. Moreover, these outcomes are instrumental in crafting strategies that cater to effective communication for the Hindi-speaking population while developing appropriate educational resources.

In summary, our research aims at offering a comprehensive profile of the pragmatics capabilities exhibited by typical children speaking Hindi. Our focus is on examining intricate linguistic nuances and socio-cultural factors that potentially influence their ability to acquire and apply pragmatic skills effectively. As a consequence, thereof, results emanating from this study would significantly inform efforts directed towards strengthening communication channels particularly amongst young children encountering challenges assimilating key aspects essential for fluid conversation in native Hindi-speaking setups. Additionally, these findings could add valuable insight towards facilitating overall enhancement within areas related to language acquisition.

Shilpashri & Chengappa (2015) evaluated the performance of 2–5-year-old typical children speaking Kannada on five pragmatic skills. Results showed that pragmatic skills; answering questions, request of object and/or action, response for negation and response for joint attention used by typical children increased with age. Pragmatic skill like questioning was

high at the age of 2.1-3 years and decreased with age, indicates the interest/curiosity of young children in understanding new concepts compared to the higher age groups.

Xavier, Sunny & Rao (2015) did a study on pragmatic profiling in Malayalam speaking children with Down syndrome in the age range of 4-12 years. The statistical result showed that there exists a significant difference in the age group of 4-7.11 years and 8-11.11 years for clinician-initiated and self-initiated pragmatic skills and no significant difference across the age group for both the clinician initiated and self-initiated.

Children have an innate ability to detect nuanced power hierarchies within the family setting. They communicate in ways that reflect this awareness by altering their approach based on the person they are dealing with. Research shows that child's interactions vary depending on age groups as well as gender: younger siblings and mothers receive more direct commands whereas older siblings and fathers are addressed using respectful requests accompanied by mitigating explanations (Ervin-Tripp & Gordon 1986; Ervin-Tripp, Guo & Lambert 1990; Ryckebusch & Marcos 2004).

Ervin-Tripp, Guo & Lambert (1990) found that up to the age of three, children mark social relations mainly by using an aggravated tone of voice while speaking to their mothers and even more markedly with younger siblings. By the age of four, children make more subtle differences between family members and outsiders, by using more models and permission forms with outsiders compared to parents. At this age, children also learn to use their voice to act as a mitigator and use a soft voice to produce directives to their fathers much more often compared to their mothers, indicating again their perception of a different social status for both parents. Also, between the ages of two and three, children who request a toy belonging to a younger sibling use polite forms much more often than when formulating less costly requests. Throughout childhood development, most children do not fully grasp what sarcasm or irony means until around six to eight years old - although there are exceptions depending on certain factors. However, there are specific indicators children look for to help them better comprehend this kind of communication; such indicators include clear insight into echoing sources (Keenan & Quigley, 1999), blatant indications when someone intends criticism toward another person (Hancock, Hughes, Jagger, Paterson, Russell, Tulle-Winton & Tyler, 2000; Pexman & Glenwright, 2007), and prosody (Glenwright, Parackel, Cheung & Nilsen, 2014).

Zufferey (2016) studied pragmatic skill acquisition and concluded that requests are among the first speech acts acquired by children across languages and cultures and that sensitivity to the social status of the addressee is visible from a very early age in children's speech. The study also resulted that the system of social relationships that children have to learn varies across the world and such fine-grained aspects of social pragmatics do not lend themselves to cross-linguistic and cross-cultural comparisons.

A comprehensive overview of research expands our knowledge concerning the progress of pragmatism in typical children. This inclusive approach offers insights into cross-cultural variations and promotes evidence-based practices among professionals working with this

population. Primarily, grasping pragmatic profiles requires ongoing exploration in neglected domains to continue discovering uncharted horizons.

Methodology

Aim of the Study

The present study endeavoured towards achieving two distinct goals:

- a) Outlining all identified types of pragmatic skills in typical children speaking Hindi in the age group of 6-8 years.
- b) Analysing differences noted in the progress of acquiring pragmatic skills across different age groups.

Subjects

The subject group comprised 50 school-going children from Kanpur district, divided equally in the age groups of 6.0-6.11 years and 7.0-7.11 years with each category comprising a total of 25 children. All the subjects were intellectually good and had a good academic school record.

Inclusion & Exclusion Criteria

In order to receive precise outcomes during research certain criteria have been considered beforehand for participant eligibility requirements. This includes children between ages 6-8 who are Hindi native speakers but excludes anyone who has encountered speech/hearing/language problems or neurological deficits.

Stimulus Used

The study utilized various stimuli to elicit linguistic responses from the participants including materials like toys/books/pictures. For further clarity, a list of all these materials used is shown in the table below.

Table 1:

Toys and materials used for Language Data Collection

Category	Material
Toys and Play Materials	Doll house, Building blocks, Toy cars and toy train, Kitchen set, Paper-pencil
List of Pictures	Road traffic, Village scene, Birthday party, City scene
Topics for elicited Responses	Family, School life, TV programmes, Cartoon scenes, Favourite clothes/music

Procedure

The present study centred on capturing real-life conversations during playful interactions between clinician-child pairs or parent-child duos. In reclus of any interruptions that could hamper our observations, we set up a corner room within the school compound specifically for recording purposes. Throughout every session which spanned about 10 to 15

minutes every time, we focused on bringing out every child's unique style of expression in response to stimuli like toys and pictures. The objective was to let the children express themselves as naturally as possible, with therapists and parents serving as mere facilitators while providing minimal guidance. The modified developmental protocol for pragmatics (Shiplashri, 2010) was utilized for the present study which included 12 child- initiated pragmatic skills like refusal, communicative intent, request for an object and/or action, stylistic variation, questioning, initiation of turn-taking, narration, topic initiation, initiation of topic maintenance, topic change, initiation of joint attention and request for repair.

Data Analysis

Once the samples were collected, a thorough analysis was conducted that included the transcription of all conversation details. Through statistical evaluation of the recorded data, we summarized it by frequency and percentages. By utilizing the Z test for proportions, we compared pragmatic skills across various age groups.

Results

The primary objective of our study was to investigate the acquisition of pragmatic skills by scrutinizing natural conversation language samples. Furthermore, juxtaposing the varieties and rates of such markers in diverse age categories. The collected data had gone through statistical analysis and the results are delved below.

Table 2:

Showing gender and age wise distribution of subjects in each group

		GENDER					
		F		M		Total	
		Count	Column N %	Count	Column N %	Count	Column N %
AGE GROUP	6.0-6.11 yrs	11	44.0%	14	56.0%	25	50.0%
	7.0-7.11 yrs	14	56.0%	11	44.0%	25	50.0%
	Total	25	100.0%	25	100.0%	50	100.0%

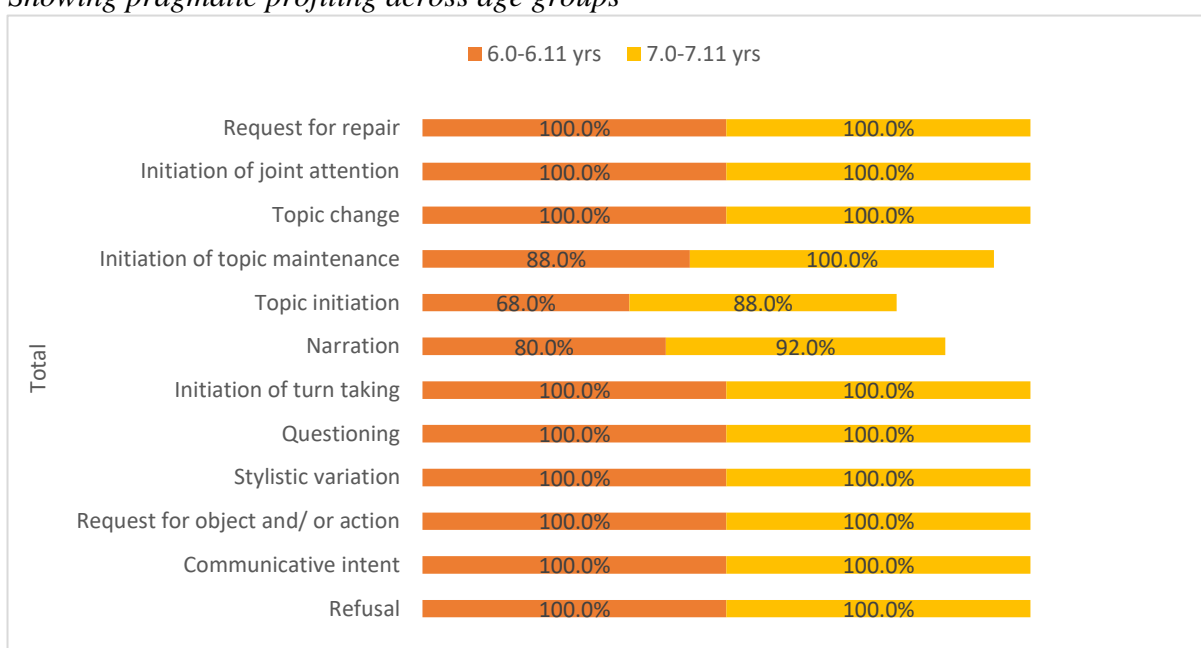
Table 3:

Showing age wise pragmatic profiling and their comparative values across age groups

Pragmatic skill	6.0-6.11 yrs		7.0-7.11 yrs		Testing equality of proportion	
	Count	Row N %	Count	Row N %	P value	
Refusal	25	100.0%	25	100.0%	1.000	NS
Communicative intent	25	100.0%	25	100.0%	1.000	NS
Request for object and/ or action	25	100.0%	25	100.0%	1.000	NS
Stylistic variation	25	100.0%	25	100.0%	1.000	NS
Questioning	25	100.0%	25	100.0%	1.000	NS

Initiation of turn taking	25	100.0%	25	100.0%	1.000	NS
Narration	20	80.0%	23	92.0%	0.227	NS
Topic initiation	17	68.0%	22	88.0%	0.094	NS
Initiation of topic maintenance	22	88.0%	25	100.0%	0.080	NS
Topic change	25	100.0%	25	100.0%	1.000	NS
Initiation of joint attention	25	100.0%	25	100.0%	1.000	NS
Request for repair	25	100.0%	25	100.0%	1.000	NS

Figure 1:
Showing pragmatic profiling across age groups



The results showed that topic initiation and narration were not fully acquired by the age of 7.11 years however, all other child-initiated pragmatic skills were acquired by this age. The comparative values showed no significant difference between pragmatic skills of the two age groups.

Table 4:
Showing gender wise pragmatic profiling and their comparative values across age groups

Pragmatic Skill	Female		Male		Testing equality of proportion	
	Count	Row N %	Count	Row N %	P value	
Refusal	22	100.0%	28	100.0%	1.000	NS
Communicative intent	22	100.0%	28	100.0%	1.000	NS

Request for object and/or action	22	100.0%	28	100.0%	1.000	NS
Stylistic variation	22	100.0%	28	100.0%	1.000	NS
Questioning	22	100.0%	28	100.0%	1.000	NS
Initiation of turn taking	22	100.0%	28	100.0%	1.000	NS
Narration	18	81.8%	25	89.3%	0.454	NS
Topic initiation	18	81.8%	21	75.0%	0.566	NS
Initiation of topic maintenance	21	95.5%	26	92.9%	0.703	NS
Topic change	22	100.0%	28	100.0%	1.000	NS
Initiation of joint attention	22	100.0%	28	100.0%	1.000	NS
Request for repair	22	100.0%	28	100.0%	1.000	NS

The comparative values of pragmatic skills across genders showed no significant difference.

Discussion

The acquisition patterns of pragmatic skills in typical children speaking Hindi are illuminated in the current study providing an informative guide for both parents and therapists alike. This newfound comprehension can facilitate improved outcomes for children facing challenges in their communication skills. The results showed that topic initiation and narration were not fully acquired by the age of 7.11 years however, all other child-initiated pragmatic skills were acquired by this age. The comparative values of pragmatic skills across age groups and genders showed no significant difference.

The results of the present study align with the study done by Shilpashri & Chengappa (2015), who evaluated pragmatic skills in typical children speaking Kannada in the age range of 2-5 years and a study by Anjana (1999) who compared the pragmatic abilities of autistic and normal children. Dheepa & Shyamala (2008) prepared a developmental protocol for pragmatics and found that children acquire all the pragmatic skills by the age of 8 years. However, the present study showed that topic initiation and narration were not fully acquired by the age of 7.11 years. This might be due to the limitation that the data collection was done only in a school setup where children were aware of being observed and recorded resulting in them being shy often. Also, the data was taken from the Uttar Pradesh state board school where the medium of instruction was English, and the study required children to interact only in Hindi except names of toys or pictures.

Summary & Conclusion

Further exploration is needed in understanding how typical children speaking Hindi acquire pragmatic skills since there is a lack of information available on this subject area. To that end, our study seeks to provide useful insights into the existence and characteristics of these abilities among 6-8-year-old children speaking Hindi while contrasting differences in their profiles across different age groups during natural conversation and picture description

exercises. A sample population comprising 50 standard school-age children was evenly distributed between two separate cohorts based on their age demographics so that we could produce accurate interpretation outcomes. We gathered linguistic responses from these participants employing diverse equipment such as toys and books supplemented with visual aids like pictures while capturing all events via audio/video recording using Vivo V2029 smartphone. The collected evidence was analysed through transcription followed by rigorous statistical investigation revealing a pattern of acquisition for pragmatic skills that varies across age groups. The results showed that topic initiation and narration were not fully acquired by the age of 7.11 years however, all other child-initiated pragmatic skills were acquired by this age. The comparative values of pragmatic skills across genders showed no significant difference. The investigation revealed that individuals with higher ages demonstrated superior ability to effectively utilize accurate pragmatic skills. However, statistically significant difference was not found between both the age groups.

Clinical Implications

The study will aid in the pragmatic profiling of children speaking Hindi aged 6 to 8 years. The results of this research will impact the way teachers, speech-language pathologists and parents approach designing interventions and educational techniques that facilitate pragmatic skills for children speaking Hindi. Ultimately, this endeavour seeks to strengthen communication outcomes while promoting social inclusion for children in the designated population.

Limitations

It is important to recognize that this study has some limitations to consider such as a small participant pool of just 50 individuals and the fact that all experiment data was drawn solely from a school setting. This may not be entirely representative of the diverse population out there which may lead to issues with reliability in broader instances.

Future Recommendations

The enhancement of our understanding regarding language use and development depends on expanding the scope of our studies to include additional subjects. To attain a more holistic view researchers can conduct studies on other Indian languages or compare pragmatic profiling across different age groups or dialects while keeping social economic factors in mind during analysis. Considering these variables further enriches our comprehension about how people engage with language over time.

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Study of Semantic and Syntactic Aspects in L2 of Bilingual Primary School Children

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ABSTRACT

The present study aimed to evaluate lexical diversity and sentence types in English. Sequential bilingual children from third (n=60) and fifth grade (n=60) were evaluated using an observation checklist and a language screening. 120 children identified with age-appropriate skills from screening were selected and written samples were collected in English using three written tasks. These samples were analyzed using TTR and Sentence Types. t-Test was done to identify the effect of age, gender, parental education, and school location on TTR, and Chi-square test was used to identify the influence of these factors on sentence production. Findings suggested that lexical diversity is not significantly influenced by grade but is influenced by gender, parental education, and school location. However, sentence types are influenced by all of these factors.

Keywords: Semantics, Syntax, Bilingual, Lexical Diversity, Sentence Types

Introduction

Language acquisition begins with the infant's ability to perceive and discriminate speech sounds. It is followed by the process of word learning, sequencing, and combining words to form phrases and sentences. As the grammatical knowledge improves, the production of lengthy and complex sentences becomes possible (Hoff, 2009). Early bilinguals develop the ability to learn two phonological systems, grammar and vocabulary depending on the time at which the second language exposure begins and the amount of such exposure (Hoff, Core, Place, Rumiche, Sero & Parra, 2012; Kim, Park & Lust, 2016; Hoff et al., 2012). The extent of proficiency in these languages is determined by measures like lexical diversity and sentence types. The current study is an attempt to study these elements in Tamil-speaking sequential bilingual children.

Lexical Diversity

Children learn new words every day and have a vocabulary of 10,000 words by the age of 6 years (Clark, 1995). This results in a significant increase of lexical items and lexical diversity observed in their language samples. Lexical diversity is the measure of how many various types of words are used within a text. The higher the number of word varieties used, the higher the lexical diversity (Johansson, 2008). It reflects the vocabulary size and multidimensional complexity of mental lexicon usage (Edwards, Collins, Jarvis & Daller, 2013). In sequential bilinguals, lexical diversity in L2 can be a measure of productivity in that language. It may be influenced by L1 background, the L1-L2 age proximity, L2 proficiency, and the language usage context of L2 (Schmitt & Meara, 1997). In languages with limited standardized test materials for bilinguals, measures of lexical diversity are a valid tool (Treffers-Daller, 2011).

Sentence Types

Sentences communicate the meaning in form of statements, commands, exclamations, or questions (Andersen, 2014). It can be simple, compound, or complex based on the number of clauses present and how they are combined. As children grow, they begin to produce more diverse combinations of subjects and verbs, resulting in the production of longer and grammatically complex sentences. However, the scarcity of clinical literature about the development or onset of sentence types has made it difficult to use it in regular assessments. Measuring the sentence diversity along with other comprehensive analyses of syntax may provide information about the emergence of knowledge of sentence structure (Hadley, McKenna & Rispoli, 2018). This is especially important in assessing bilingual children because a complete form of sentence production is the representation of the syntactic knowledge and lexicon. It is also influenced by the frequency of use (Sadat, Martin, Alario & Costa, 2011).

The Social Basis of Language and the Role of Parental Education

The role of parental education in language development and exposure has been studied over the years. Family becomes the first learning environment for a child, providing a strong footing in shaping his/ her character. There is an abundance of direct and indirect stimulation during the early years, especially between 6- and 18 years (Syaodih, 1995). It influences physical development, cognitive abilities, and social interaction within the child's environment (Syaodih, 1995). Moreover, the capacity of teaching in parents shows a positive impact on the oral language and print skills of the children (Kalia & Reese, 2009). The impact of literacy activities like shared book reading on a child's performance is also highlighted in the literature.

Language acquisition also depends on a social basis. It can be of two types: opportunity to communicate with another person (catalyst for language development) and understanding the use of non-linguistic communication (e.g. eye gaze) (Bavin & Nigles, 2015). This learning occurs in the child's immediate environment with the community being a great influencer. The ethnic diversity within the community determines the sociolinguistic characteristics of a child during elementary school years (Firmansyah, 2018). Both these influences have been identified as vital boosters for language development, especially in bilingual children, during the primary years of language acquisition.

English as L2 in India

English has dominated domains like education, administration, law, business, armed forces, media, national politics, and publications while existing along with other major languages like Hindi and Tamil (Sharma, 2017). Though it plays a functional role, it has not replaced the other native languages expansively. The existence of the British-influenced academic curriculum leads to a high proportion of functional literacy in English in India. Although, English in the academic curriculum exists without any modifications caused by the native varieties, an increase in the number of balanced bilinguals with English as L2 has increased its usage in informal genres. Its usage can range from an exclusively formal education setup to an informal setting like a conversation (Sedlatschek, 2009).

Need

The extent of learning multiple languages by a child is determined by the learning processes and various language experiences (Gathercole & Hoff, 2007). In a multilingual country like India, bilingualism has become a norm (Kalia & Reese, 2009). In urban areas, a large number of people with various linguistic and cultural backgrounds come together. This leads to the routine use of additional languages along with the mother tongue (Mishra & Stainthorp, 2007). In such conditions, a common language is required to bridge the gap to infuse daily life across institutions, media, and education (Crystal, 2003). English has been identified as a common language and it has been dominating as the medium of instruction, especially in higher educational forums (Parasher, 1991). However, the developmental processes involved in the achievement of English education in children whose native language is not English has not been clearly understood (Kalia & Reese, 2009). The present study attempts to highlight a few aspects like semantics and syntax in bilingual children from two different socio-cultural backgrounds (urban and rural) along with the effect of parental education on these aspects. Measures like lexical diversity and sentence diversity have been used as it measures productivity in a language, especially in bilinguals (Dewaele & Paulenko, 2003).

Aim

The present study aims to profile the semantic (lexical diversity) and syntactic (sentence types) aspects of English (L2) used by bilingual primary school children with Tamil as their L1. The influence of parental education and socio-cultural background has also been studied.

Methodology

The study was carried out to explore the lexical diversity and sentence types used in English by bilingual third and fifth graders of two schools within the Chennai district.

Participants

A total of 120 sequential bilingual children (with L1: Tamil and L2: English language) from third (n= 60) and fifth grades (n=60) of English medium urban and rural primary schools were selected to be the participants. Children developed L2 following school entry by 3 years of age. Those who scored 60% marks or above in the 3 most recent academic examinations conducted by the school and identified with age-appropriate speech and language Skills were

alone included. Children with known complaints of learning difficulties, and hearing/ ear infections were excluded from the study. Care was taken to maintain the gender ratio.

Materials Used

- Student Observation Checklist adapted from 'Observing, Recording and Reporting Children's Development' (Laffranchini, 2017) to be completed by the respective class teachers.
- Typical Communication Development Checklist adapted from 'Language Development: from Theory to Practise- 3rd Edition' (Turnbull & Justice, 2017) to screen the age-appropriate language skills in children selected for the study
- Picture of the park for picture description task adapted from 'Assessment in Speech-Language Pathology' (McAfee & Shipley, 1992)

Procedure

Phase I: Subject Selection

Permission was obtained from the school authorities for carrying out the study on their premises. Assent and consent were obtained from each participant to collect the demographic details along with information about parental education and participation in the study. The class teacher of III and V grades in each school were given the 'Student Observation Checklist' and were requested to administer the same for each child. The checklist has eight developmental domains about which the teacher marks her comments through informal observation. Children who got 'present' on all the skills proceeded to the second screening. The Speech and Language screening was carried out by the investigators using the 'Typical Communication Developmental Checklist'. Of the children identified with age-appropriate speech and language skills, 60 children (30 boys and 30 girls) were randomly selected from each grade from both schools as participants.

Phase II: Data Collection

This phase marks the collection of the data required for analysis. Children selected through the process explained in Phase I was seated in groups in their respective classrooms. Children were given three tasks that were to be completed within 20 minutes each. Three different tasks, namely essay writing, picture description, and story writing were given. Three different topics were chosen for each of the tasks following consultation with a senior speech-language pathologist and three primary school teachers with an experience of at least 10 years. Topics given were – 'My Mother' for essay writing; 'Picture of the park' for picture description and 'The Thirsty Crow' for story writing. These topics were chosen based on the participant's abilities and familiarity. All the instructions provided and collected samples were in English (L2). Children were instructed to limit their writing to 10 lines for each task to maintain the length of the sample.

Phase Iii: Analysis

Lexical Diversity

The written samples were analyzed using the 'Type Token Ratio (TTR)' to measure the lexical diversity. The type-token ratio gives the number of diverse words used by the child in

each sample. The number of different words is the type and the total number of words is the tokens. Hence, the number of different words divided by the total number of words in the sample gives the ratio. The final score taken for statistical analysis was the average obtained from all three tasks.

Sentence Types

Sentences in each sample were identified as 'simple/ compound/ complex. Sentences that contained only one single independent clause were marked as 'simple', those with at least two independent clauses with equal importance to both were marked as 'compound'. Sentences with independent and dependent clauses were marked as 'complex'. The total number of sentences in each category taken for statistical analysis was the average obtained from all three tasks.

All written samples were analyzed by three speech-language pathologists. Following the analysis, the acquired data were further classified based on the location of the school (rural and urban) and the parental education (parents with high school certification and those without the certification). These records were obtained from the school authorities with prior permission and the consent of the participant's parents.

Result

The data were analyzed using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) version 23.0. Student t-test was used to identify the difference in TTR scores among groups based on grade, gender, parental education, and school location. Chi-square test was used to identify if the age, gender, parent's education, and school location affected the ability to construct different sentence types.

Semantic Diversity Using TTR

The semantic diversity was analyzed using the type-token ratio. It was separately analyzed based on class, gender, and school location.

TABLE 1:

Mean and Standard Deviation of Type-Token Ratio Scores obtained by III and V graders

CLASS	NUMBER	Mean	Std. Deviation
3	60	50.66	9.38
5	60	53.93	9.11
Total	120	52.30	9.35

Table 1 shows the mean scores obtained by the third and fifth graders. The t-Test results show that there is no significant difference between the performance of children in third grade (M=50.66, SD= 9.38) and fifth grade (M=53.93, SD = 9.11), $t= 1.94$, $p= .05$. This means that there is no observable difference or improvement in lexical diversity within the selected age group.

TABLE 2:

Mean and Standard Deviation of Type-Token Ratio Scores obtained by male and female children

GENDER	NUMBER	Mean	Std. Deviation
FEMALE	60	51.09	6.06
MALE	60	53.50	11.69
Total	120	52.30	9.35

Table 2 describes the mean and standard deviation of scores obtained by both genders. The t-Test results showed a significant difference between scores obtained by male children (M= 53.50, SD= 11.69) and female children (M=51.09, SD= 6.06), $t = 1.419$, $p = .15$. Male children outperformed female children when the TTR was the measure of semantic diversity used.

TABLE 3:

Mean and Standard Deviation of Type-Token Ratio Scores obtained based on parental education.

PARENTAL LITERACY	NUMBER	Mean	Std. Deviation
No Higher Secondary	23	45.73	8.00
Higher Secondary and Above	97	53.85	9.00
Total	120	52.30	9.35

The mean scores and standard deviation based on parental education are shown in Table 3. The Children with parents with higher secondary education (M= 53.85, SD= 9.0) performed better than children with parents with no high school certification (M= 45.73, SD = 8.0), $t = -3.97$, $p < 0.001^*$, across tasks when lexical diversity was the measure used.

TABLE 4:

Mean and Standard Deviation of Type-Token Ratio Scores obtained between children of rural and urban schools.

LOCATION	NUMBER	Mean	Std. Deviation
RURAL	60	46.53	6.04
URBAN	60	58.06	8.50
Total	120	52.30	9.35

Table 4 shows the scores obtained by children studying in rural schools and urban schools. The t-Test results ascertain that a significant difference exists between the

performance of children from the rural school ($M= 46.53$, $SD= 6.04$) and children from urban school ($M=58.06$, $SD = 8.50$), $t= -8.56$, $p < 0.001^*$. Children from urban schools presented with better semantic diversity when compared to children from rural schools.

Sentence Types

Sentences from each of the written samples were analyzed and identified as simple, compound, or complex sentences depending on the number of clauses present in each of them. These sentences were further categorized as poor, average, and good under each type, based on the qualitative analysis by the investigators. When sentences were broken or incomplete, they were classified as poor. Similarly, the sentences that sound semantically correct but do not follow the sentence structure rules were classified as average and sentences that were semantically and structurally correct are labeled as good. However, the complex sentence types found in the samples were very rare (hardly 2, poorly framed) and hence, were not considered for the statistical analysis. Chi-square test was used to find the relation between the use of sentence types and grades, gender, parental education, and school area.

Sentence Types and Grade

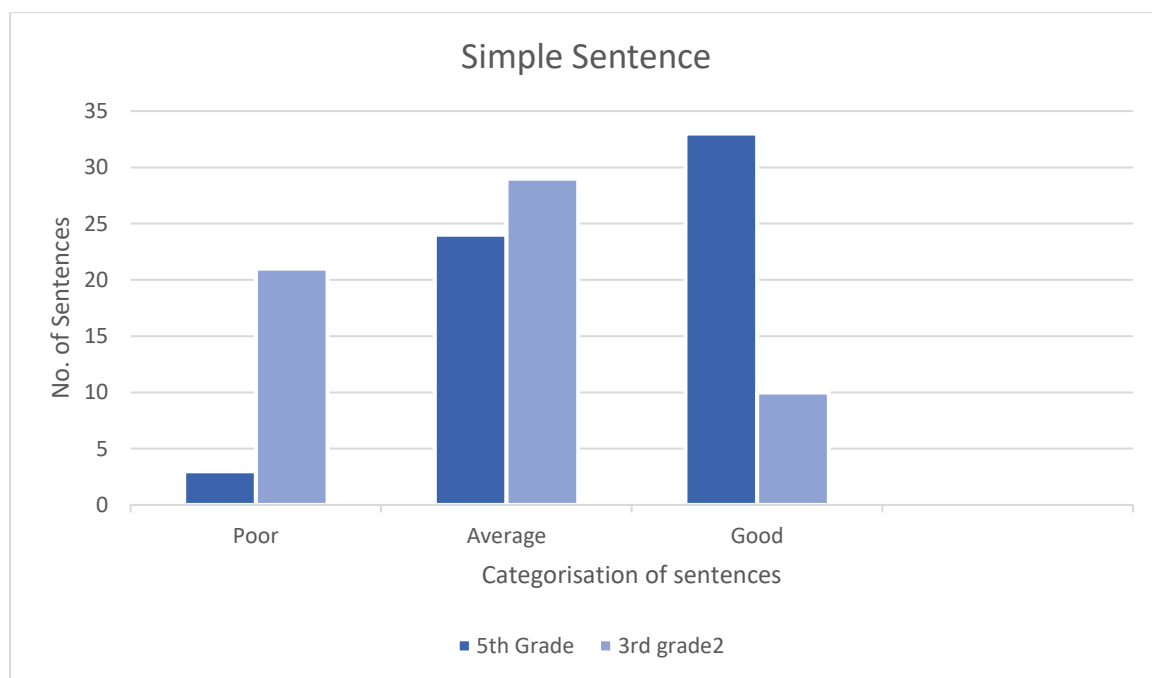


Figure 1. The number of poor, average, and good simple sentences used across the grades.

There is a significant relationship between the use of simple sentence and grades, $X^2(2, N = 120) = 26.27$, $p < 0.001$. Children in 5th grade were found to be using a higher number of well-framed simple sentences that were labelled as ‘good’ when compared to the 3rd graders. While most of the children from both grades were observed able to construct averagely constructed simple sentences, third graders were noted to be using more poorly framed simple sentences.

Compound Sentences

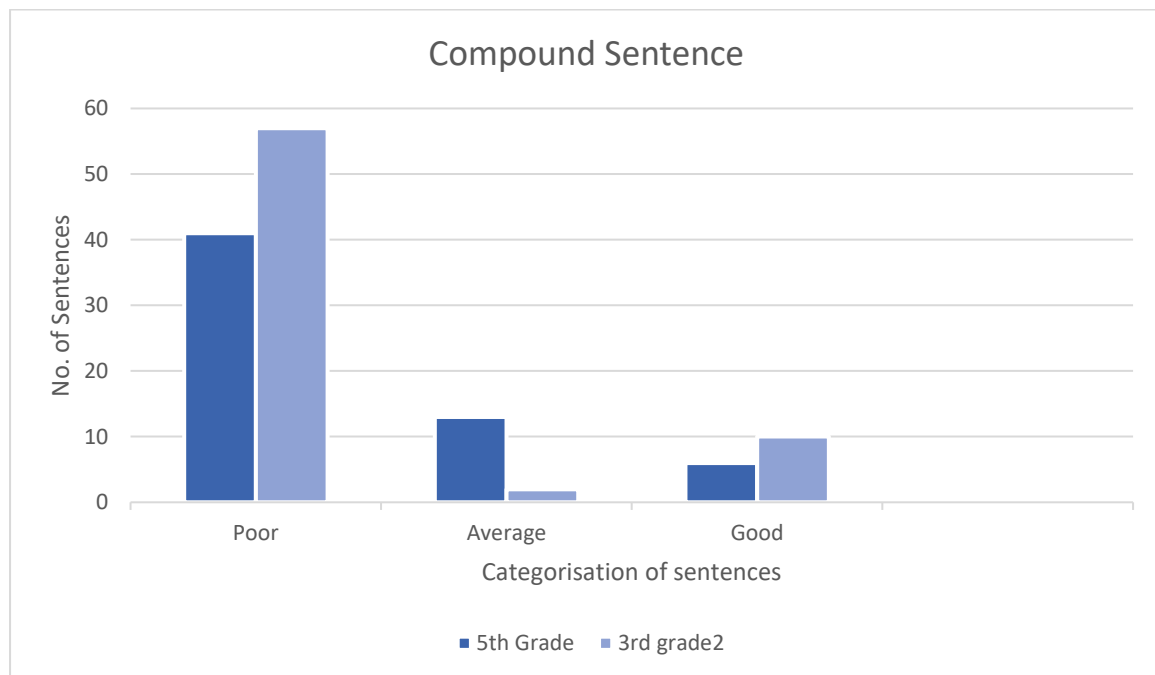


Figure 2. The number of poor, average, and good compound sentences used across the grades

The number of compound sentences found in the sample was comparatively less. There is a significant relationship between the number of compound sentences and grades, $X^2(2, N = 120) = 14.25, p < 0.001$. Children in 5th grade were able to form more compound sentences but most sentences were found to be poorly framed.

Sentence Types and Gender



Figure 3. Simple sentence categories used by female and male children

Figure 3 depicts the usage of simple sentences by both genders. On qualitative assessment, female children were seen to be using a greater number of well-formed simple sentences that were labeled 'good'. However, there is no statistically significant difference observed between the genders and the use of simple sentences, $X^2(2, N = 120) = 1.977, p > 0.001$.

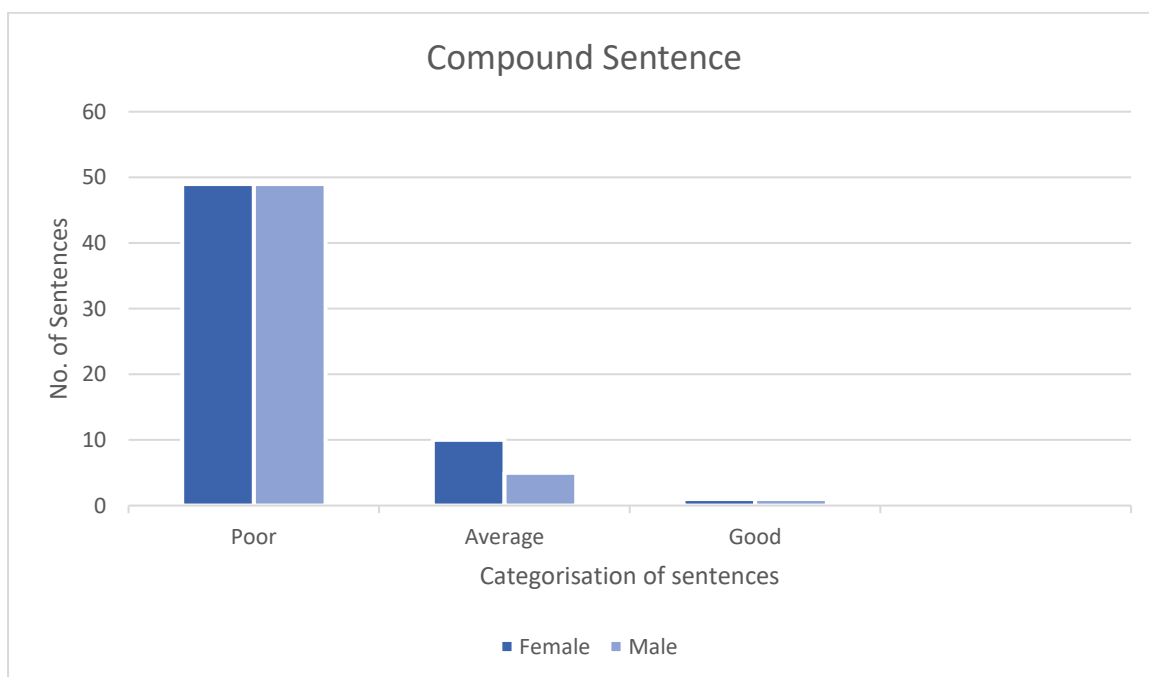


Figure 4. Compound sentence categories used by female and male children

Figure 4 shows the number of compound sentences used by both genders in each category. Most of the compound sentences in the samples were poorly framed but were observed to be in usage as in the case of simple sentences. Though there is no significant relationship between the gender and use of compound sentences, $X^2(2, N = 120) = 5.238, p = 0.073$, female children were noted to use more averagely framed sentences compared to their male counterparts on qualitative assessment.

Sentence Types and Parental Education

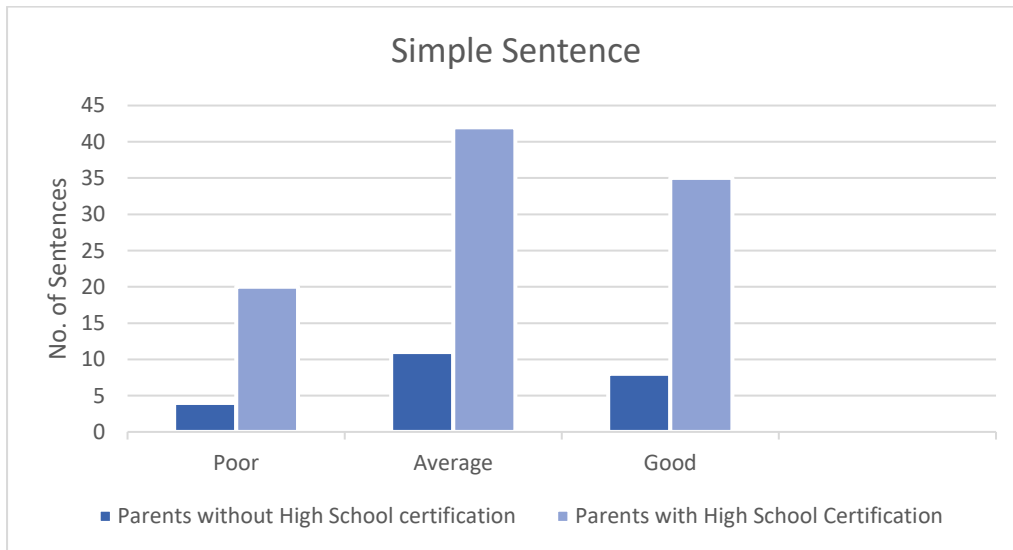


Figure 5. Simple sentence categories used by children based on parental education

Figure 5 shows the number of poor, average, and good simple sentences used by the children with parents with and without high school certification. There is a statistically significant relationship between the use of simple sentences and parental education, $X^2(2, N = 120) = 0.192, p = 0.909$. Children of parents with high school qualifications performed better than those with parents without high school certifications.

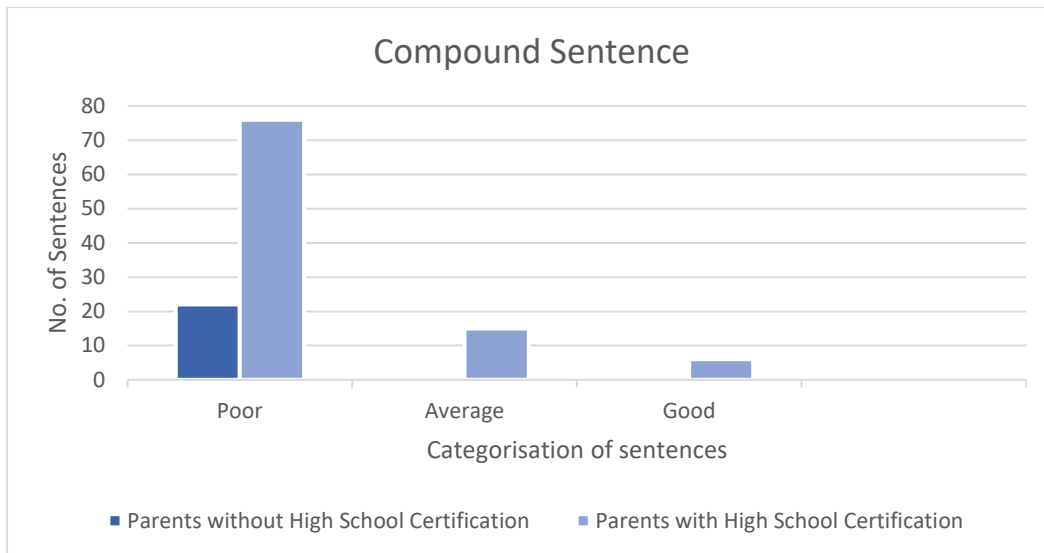


Figure 6. Compound sentences used by children based on parental education

A significant statistical relation was seen between the use of compound sentences and parental education, $X^2(2, N = 120) = 4.346, p = 0.114$, as shown in figure 6. Children of parents with high school education were found to be better at framing compound sentences when compared to those of parents with no high school education. Though compound sentences were present in samples of children with no high school education, they were poorly framed.

Sentence Types and Rural or Urban Area



Figure 7. Simple sentence categories used by rural and urban area children

In Figure 7, the number of simple sentences used by children in urban and rural areas is depicted. There is a significant $X^2(2, N = 120) = 14.090, p < 0.001$, the relationship between the use of several simple sentences and children from rural and urban schools. The children from the urban areas could frame good simple sentences than children from rural areas. However, both groups were able to frame a good number of averagely constructed simple sentences when compared to the other two categories.

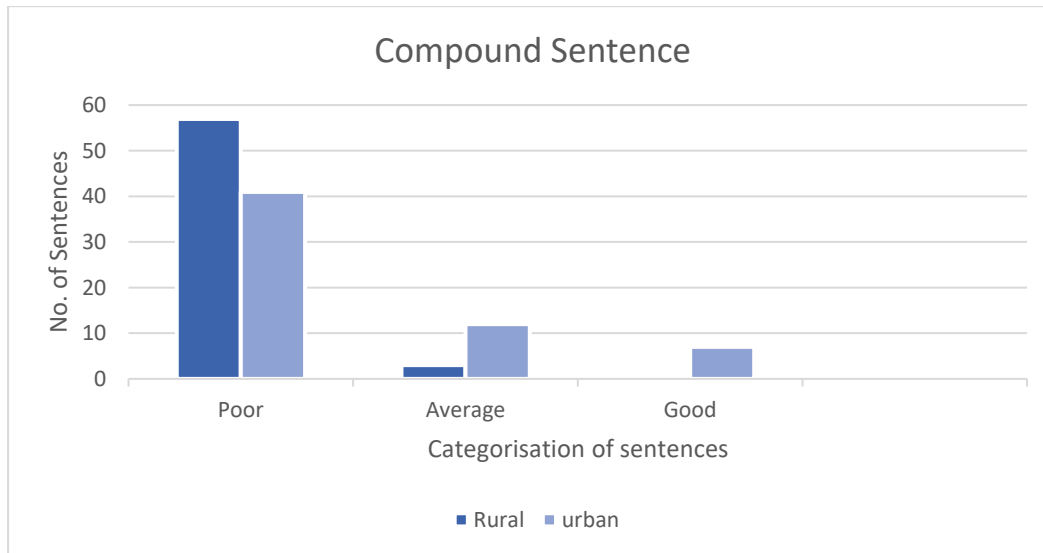


Figure 8. Compound sentence categories used by rural and urban area children

The depiction of several compound sentences framed by children from rural and urban schools is seen in figure 8. Though a statistically significant ($X^2(2, N = 120) = 15.012, p < 0.001$) relationship existed between the sentence type and location of the school, most compound sentences were poorly framed. Only children from the urban schools were able to frame good compound sentences and were fewer than the simple sentences.

Discussion

Acquisition of language in bilinguals is a complex process influenced by the magnitude of cross-language relationships. It changes with the development, language experiences, and proficiency. Moreover, in sequential bilinguals, proficiency in both languages plays an important role in their daily environment (Konhert, 2010). The present study was an attempt to study aspects like lexical diversity and sentence types in sequential bilingual primary school children who were exposed to English (L2) as part of their academic curriculum.

Lexical Diversity in Bilinguals

The findings of the current study showed that lexical diversity does not significantly improve with grades during primary schooling. This lack of difference could be attributed to the variation in quality and quantity of input and the influence of literacy conditions at home and school (Huang & Kua, 2020; Moyer, 2014). In the early learning stage of successive bilinguals, the productivity in L2 is usually reduced (Rossello, 2001). They show a tendency to use a higher proportion of high-frequency words. This represents the presence of a limited

lexicon in L2 that forces the less proficient users to use only the basic terms. It further limits the lexical detailing used in their descriptions (Noyau & Paprocka, 2000), as was seen in the present study. However, with the improvement in proficiency, productivity may also improve (Dewale & Paulenko, 2003). As a child passes from one grade to another, these experiences are likely to increase in frequency and quality.

Concerning gender, literature has documented superior language functioning in females at an early age (Le Normand, Marie-Therese, Parisse & Cohen, 2008). As part of the dynamic language acquisition process, at age of 3 years, girls have increased vocabulary than boys. This could be due to the biological substrates catalyzing early word mapping and the cognitive abilities change more rapidly and earlier in girls (around 14 to 24 months) than boys (around 20 to 24 months). However, these gender differences appear early and diminish by 3 years. Later language acquisition mostly depends on the sociocultural influence rather than the gender difference. The most frequently occurring influence is the type and quality of care received (Ebert et al., 2013). The interaction patterns of the caregivers also differ with gender (Johnson, Caskey, Rand, Tucker & Vohr, 2014). These factors can highly influence language use and production in children.

In this study, male children have outperformed female children in lexical diversity. This could be the effect of the sociocultural influence and attitude towards English education for girls, especially in rural India (Natta, Saswathi, Desai & Vanneman, 2017). There is literature evidence that shows better vocabulary performance of males in a foreign language when compared to females during primary school (Edelenbos & Vinje, 2000).

Another important factor is the influence of the societal language and diverse home and school experiences (Huang & Kuo, 2020). Word learning depends on the opportunities obtained to process words and multiple exposures to the word that help in creating a flexible mental representation (Wasik, Barbara, Hindman & Snell, 2016). This learning occurs in the child's immediate environment with the community being a great influencer.

The ethnic diversity within the community determines the sociolinguistic characteristics of a child during elementary school years (Firmansyah, 2018). In the present study, English is the L2 for all participants. English in India has been used in its filtered forms and the indigenized form is used expansively. For example, extensive use of 'this', 'that', and 'some' instead of articles, 'a', and 'the' is noted, more frequently by the South Indian speakers. Similarly, source features transfer from the first language system like reduplication, lack of auxiliary inversion, and system-internal regularization like the count of mass nouns or emergence of verb-particle constructions. This causes the occurrence of a range in the competency of the L2 learners (Sharma, 2017).

Moreover, the L2 learners learn vocabulary additional to their L1 lexicon (Karslen, Lyster & Lervag, 2017). L2 learners often show a limitation in their vocabulary knowledge and a significant gap is noticed between them and their monolingual peers during their early years. This gap is later reduced by factors such as parental education and literacy activities at home.

The literacy activities at home and the number of books available at home for the children have been identified as primary reasons for the development of lexicon in bilingual children (Rindermann & Baumister, 2015; Hoff, 2006). The other factor is the increasing number of English speakers in the urban cities and improvement in English education could be the reason for the better performance of children in the urban schools.

Sentence Types in Bilinguals

As children grow, the lexicon improves and they begin to make sentences in correct word order (Hadley, McKenna & Rispoli, 2018; Rispoli & Hadley, 2011). A child uses a different level of discourse genres as he/she progresses through school (Westerveld & Moran, 2011). Moreover, to effectively gain the power of grammar, the child must be able to integrate the knowledge of vocabulary and syntactic structure in real-time to produce sentences (Hadley, McKenna & Rispoli, 2018).

The emergence of simple sentences in children is seen around 24 to 26 months with simple subject-verb-object or subject-verb combinations (Hadley, McKenna & Rispoli, 2018; Klee & Gavin, 2010). A steady increase in the number of such sentences is seen around 3 years of age. When children achieve the ability to frame more simple sentences with correct word order, they begin combining one sentence with another to form compound sentences (Mishra & Jha, 2013). The ability to produce compound sentences increases with the child's generative capacity and age (Mishra & Jha, 2013; Brown et al., 1969).

As seen in the present study's findings, children in fifth grade have used a greater number of compound sentences when compared to the third graders. This could be the effect of the input frequency and progression of language experience in the fifth graders. However, the use of complex sentences was limited and rarely noted in the samples. This is because the expression of complex relationships and ideas requires the utilization of complex syntactic structures (Lundine & McCauley, 2016).

The processing of complex sentences requires an understanding of the semantic account (iconicity); syntactic account (main and subordinate clause orders that are easier to process); frequency-based account (assumes forms frequently heard in the input) and capacity constrained (working memory capacity). Experimental studies have shown difficulty in processing such complex sentences even at 6, 9, or 12 years of age (de Ruiter, Theakston, Brandt & Lieven, 2018). This persisting difficulty in the formulation of well-framed complex sentences was seen across the samples in the current study as well.

A good number of researches have linked language learning and gender (Alahmadi & Lahlali, 2019). Although individual differences in language learning can occur, gender differences are apparent, especially when L2 performance is considered. Age and gender of sequential bilinguals affect the L2 in stages while inviting, processing, and producing the information received. Kissau (2006) showed, in his research findings, improved performance of females when compared to males primarily due to their motivation level. While females learn language due to interest and motivation, males may learn it for more practical reasons.

Moreover, the various learning strategies used by females may also contribute to this effect (Tercanliogh, 2004). Thus, females can produce longer, syntactically correct sentences (Piasecka, 2010). Similar findings were obtained from this study. Some aspects of language acquisition are easier and faster in females than in males due to certain predetermined tendencies (Matiini, 2019).

L2 learning also requires the adjustment of one's existing linguistic knowledge to accommodate the features of language in the context (Kaan, Futch, Fuertes, Mujcinovic & de la Fluente, 2019). Hence, in bilingual individuals, the complete form of sentence production could be the representation of the syntactic knowledge and lexicon that varies with the frequency of use (Sadat, Martin, Alario & Costa, 2011). This could be the reason for the regular use of well-framed simple sentences among both groups in this study.

Furthermore, in India, English (L2) has been adapted into informal genres with a great influence on the native substrate languages. Since the social category and parental education also largely determine the mode of acquisition for the individual, most errors seen in second language acquisition are interlingual, overgeneralization, incomplete application of the structural rules, and ignoring the rule of restriction (Corder, 1975). These errors mostly occur due to the negative transfer of the L1 structure (Al-khresheh, 2016). These errors are common when a language is newly introduced, with familiar patterns being more rightly produced, especially in young sequential bilinguals. It is most importantly dependent on the ability to perceive the newly received information, the L2 (Alahmadi & Lahlali, 2019). Sequential bilinguals communicate the intended meaning by overlying on the structure of the first language (Alahmadi & Lahlali, 2019). However, they are seen to correctly produce the most familiar and frequently known patterns. They store complete sentence structures in their declarative memory due to adaptation from repeated exposure (Kaschak & Borrengine, 2008). Such examples were noted in the samples in the present study as well. Children were able to reproduce the most familiar patterns that they have heard and read, especially when they were simple sentence structures. An increasing number of English speakers at home due to higher education and urban exposure was identified as an important influence in such cases.

Conclusion

The present study considered semantic and syntactic aspects in young sequential bilinguals. While lexical diversity is a reliable measure of language production, other external influences may affect the performance. The constraints of a structural combination of words operate following qualitative constraints on word meanings that determine the grouping of words into phrases. Thus, for the study of syntactic development in children, clausal density also becomes an important measure when used along with utterance length and overall length of expository discourse (Westerveld & Moran, 2011; Nippold et al., 2005). Differentiation of problems in word combination to form sentences can be one important diagnostic feature to identify early difficulties in sentence structure formulation (Hadley, McKenna & Rispoli, 2018; Rispoli & Hadley, 2011). Thus, it can be said that semantic integration is influenced by the syntactic analysis, but does not contribute to the syntactic structure (Friederici & Weissenborn,

2007; Cruse, 2004; Hagoort, 2003). The role of external influences is to be kept under careful consideration while assessing bilingual language samples.

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Action Research on Increasing the Intrinsic Motivation and Confidence of the ESL Learners Through Instructional Design Writing

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Abstract

The use of technology in education has grown crucial in today's classrooms all over the world. For a long time, technology has been a crucial tool for enhancing language learners' reading, writing, speaking, and listening skills. Thanks to technology, writing has become one of the most supported abilities. For learners, learning how to write paragraphs or essays is a crucial ability. The objectives of this experimental study were to: 1) assess the effectiveness of instructional design writing in enhancing ESL learners' writing abilities, 2) investigate students' satisfaction and motivation with instructional design writing, and 3) investigate students' autonomy following the completion of the instructional design writing course.

31 English literature undergraduate students participated in this study. The instruments used to acquire pertinent data were lesson plans, grammar and writing tasks, learner perception questionnaires, pre- and post-tests. The data was evaluated, and the results showed that the learners' writing achievement level was much greater after taking the course. The post-test scores of the students improved over the pre-test results. According to the findings, the students' motivation and level of satisfaction with the instructional design writing course were quite high. The results of this course also showed that the students' writing abilities might be enhanced. Suggestions are made and given in terms of the need for further study and practical use in the future.

Keywords: Instructional Design Writing, Writing ability, motivation

Introduction

Modern technology is becoming a more significant part of daily life in the twenty-first century, and it has drastically altered how educational institutions operate and how its staff, including teachers and students, live. Technology is constantly used by people all around the world. As technology is a tool that can enhance many other facets of life, including business, the economics, education and health, they can easily access through social networks. In terms of education, the use of technological resources, tailored learning materials, and chances for advanced learning benefits both teachers and students. The internet enables the students to communicate, practise their lessons, and share fresh information.

Today's educational technology gives many options to change global education at all grade levels and to access global learning materials. So, in terms of education, studying English and using technology are essential for all students and are a fundamental prerequisite for a positive learning environment. Technology in education has been included into the educational system since using it in the classroom has helped students study more effectively while also developing their multitasking abilities.

Technology in the classroom can offer digital communication, flexible scheduling, increased freedom of choice, and relevant materials (Harris, Yunus and Badusah, 2017). Technology frequently raises questions, makes it easier for students to understand concepts, and elevates its significance in education. Technology can give students and teachers more resources to use when learning English as a second language or as a foreign language, than it can help to improve learning outcomes. Technology, particularly social networking sites, makes teaching and learning easier. The use of technological tools and advances may cause academic personnel to lose sight of the fundamental pedagogical principles that guide extensive language instruction.

Language is still seen as being among the most crucial components of education and literacy, both in terms of receptive and productive skills. Writing abilities are one of the most crucial language productive talents, frequently linked to other abilities, and the desirable consequence for students. Writing abilities are highly valued in all educational establishments. When practising English writing, the learner's motivation is crucial. For successful outcomes,

interesting instructional ideas and tactics must be used. The usage of technology in the classroom may help students to create a positive learning environment. Teachers must use a variety of writing exercises to comprehend the students' strengths and weaknesses (Stine 2010, Alanazi, 2013).

Proper exercises and strategies can improve a learner's writing abilities even if they are not already strong writers. When practising writing, students may find it challenging to choose words, grammatical structures, and terminology. To effectively encourage writing and motivation, sessions can be held virtually, in person, or in a hybrid format (Albalawi, 2015). The teachers' attempt to adapt a cutting-edge teaching strategy for writing lessons could inspire the students and save time. Since understanding students' learning preferences and utilising an appropriate teaching delivery technique result in meaningful learning, instructors should choose an efficient teaching approach to teach the students (Ahmadi, 2017). Education professionals must pick their teaching methods wisely if they want to succeed.

The utilisation of electronic resources and activities by students to practise their language abilities must be interesting and engaging for the instructors. In order to promote learners' interest in communicating in the target language and to offer them with a variety of practise opportunities, the path to strengthening learners' English writing skills may therefore include appropriate instructional delivery techniques and contemporary teaching media. This study uses instructional design writing to classify helpful teaching strategies for ESL learners who are having trouble writing in English.

The following objectives are established for this study:

1. Evaluate how well instructional design writing improves ESL students' writing skills.
2. Examine students' confidence and motivation with instructional design writing.
3. Examine students' autonomy once the course is over.

The effectiveness of instructional design writing is examined by the following research topics.

1. Do learners' writing styles alter between before and after taking the instructional design writing course?

2. How can instructional design writing affect learners' motivation and self-confidence?
3. How does writing for instructional design encourage independent learning?

The Importance of Writing Skills

For learners, effective writing abilities are essential. The capacity of a learner to write in English is frequently used as a measure of literacy. In higher education or at work, students will use their writing talents. All of a learner's linguistic abilities come together in their writing competence. It's essential for a learner to be able to articulate ideas clearly when writing. A learner's vocabulary, sentence structure, and grammar can all be improved by writing (Ridha, 2012).

Writing is an essential tool for coming up with fresh ideas, comprehending complex material, and disseminating significant data in an academic setting (Graham, Gillespie, 2013). Because writing is a complicated process that includes technology, the teaching approach for writing instruction will be an important strategy to develop learner writing skills. A language lesson can be utilised to boost the learner's motivation for writing. A learner's autonomy, social self-control, interpersonal skills, decision-making ability, and social skills can all be influenced by their writing capabilities.

Motivation and Autonomous Learning for English Writing

The ability to be motivated and to learn on one's own are essential for language learners. Achievement is centred on motivation. Learners who are autonomous tend to be more motivated. Participating in extracurricular activities and working hard outside of class can help students advance their skill levels more quickly than those who lack motivation. Learner autonomy can be encouraged or discouraged depending on the classroom environment a teacher develops. Students' writing abilities may improve if they are engaged and motivated during the writing courses.

Learning to think critically, or metacognition, is a prerequisite for success as an autonomous learner (Little, 2007). Learners should make an effort to depend less on the instructor's courses and more on their own self-guided learning for successful language acquisition. If teachers want their language students to succeed, they must promote independent

learning. To encourage learner autonomy and effective learning outcomes, instructors should discover engaging methods to incorporate technology into their classes. Through enjoyable activities and tasks, technology may make boring subjects more fascinating for students.

Research Methodology

This study intends to investigate ESL learners' motivation and confidence, learner autonomy, and the effectiveness of the instructional design writing course in improving their writing abilities. Lesson plans, PowerPoint presentations based on instructional design writing, questionnaires on the learners' perceptions, assignments, and pre- and post-tests were all used as research tools in this study. Students studying English literature at the undergraduate level made up the study's participants. A limited number of 31 students were enrolled in this course.

Data Collection

This research took place during the months of February and March 2023. It was conducted for 30 hours. Students were taught and given exercises on instructional design writing, content writing, proof reading, grammar, spelling, jargons, story weaving, writing reviews, gaming instructions, recipes, summarizing, writing e-mails, writing blogs, video scripts, writing instructions for animators, imaginative and creative writing etc. Students were also involved in activities such as jumbled letters, hangman game, adzap, fun with rhymes, association word game, stem word, picture prompts, comic strips, slogans and captions, fantasy wish, search engine optimization, finding objectives, tweeting, how stuff works, trouble shooting, debate etc.

The students were initially required to prepare responses to practise ID questions and submit them for review. Their writing weaknesses were discovered from the provided responses. Both the technical and linguistic components were evaluated. The corresponding students received comments and succinct advice on how to improve their performance in the future. The students' performance was then evaluated through instruction. Assessments and activities.

Findings

Students were found to increase their grammar and proofreading capabilities. It was found that students commonly made errors in grammar, spelling and tense. Some responses were not appropriate for written English. They improved their spelling through activities like jumbled letters and hangman. Extensive grammar exercises on prepositions, tenses and voice helped the students better comprehension and application of grammar. Activities like story weaving and adzap enabled them to increase their creativity skill through interest and motivation. Students could increase their vocabulary through creative writing, word games and writing slogans and captions.

They also learnt business English through practising writing reviews, gaming instructions, recipe instructions and writing e-mails. They learnt to optimize their content through SEO and writing objectively. They also learnt how to browse through and research information to understand how an object works and trouble shooting the problems. They also practised informal writing through imaginative writing, writing blogs and tweets.

Limitation

The review was conducted by one researcher and the level of subjectivity may be high.

Conclusion

The study sought to investigate the effects of demographic factors on writers' talents. The activities carried out were determined to be beneficial in raising the students' writing performance in terms of the calibre of their writing. Demographic factors were found to have no discernible impact on their writing.

This planned study was designed to identify the pupils' needs or areas for improvement. The writing exercises stressed what was required of them in order to produce high-quality writing.

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Epidemiological Study of Aphasia, Dysarthria, Dysphagia Sequel to Stroke in Coastal Regions of Karnataka

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Abstract

The present retrospective study was aimed at documenting the prevalence rates of various communication disorders and swallowing disorders as a resultant of stroke and other neuropathological conditions in a tertiary super speciality neuro Hospital. Stroke is one of the major causes of neurological communication disorder in adults. The growth of neurological communication disorder in coastal regions of Karnataka due to stroke in a period of six months from first of January to July 2018.

Prevalence of Dysphagia, Aphasia and Dysarthria sequel to stroke and other neuropathologies in a total of 177 individuals was documented in the mentioned period. Radiological investigations served as basis for the inclusion of participants. It was found that the prevalence of dysarthria (36.15%) constituted the major neurogenic communication disorder among the stroke survivors.

The age range of 60-70years older were at the higher risk of neuro-communicative disorder compared among 20 to 90 years of age. It was highly prevalent in males than females, with the rate of 59% in males and 41% females. Medical diagnosis based on various sites of lesion and neurological causes such as Left and Right Middle Cerebral Arteries, Subcortical lesions, Degenerative conditions, Cerebellar Infarct, Thalamic Bleed and LMN lesions were taken into consideration. It was noted that higher rates of prevalence of neurological disorders due to stroke were cerebellar infarct (18.07%) followed by right MCA infarct (17.5%).

This study calls for urgent strategies to establish patient registry and outreach neurological services for individuals with stroke to address various communication, cognitive and swallowing deficits. An organised effort from both the government and the private sector is needed to tackle these associated deficits of stroke in the coastal regions of Karnataka.

Keywords: Incidence, Prevalence, Neurogenic Communication Disorders, Aphasia, Dysarthria.

Introduction

Stroke is a leading cause of neurogenic disorders. The key risk factors leading to the stroke and the demographic changes in the country are becoming an important cause of premature death and disability in low-income and middle-income countries like India.

Communication and swallowing problems are common as a result of neurological conditions like stroke, traumatic brain injury, neoplasms of the nervous systems, viral encephalitis, diseases affecting neuromuscular junction and neuro degenerative conditions. The most frequently encountered problems are dysarthria, aphasia, dysphagia and apraxia of speech.

Speech language pathologist plays an important role as a member of the rehabilitation team in a neurological setup with respect to identifying these problems and initiating intervention at the earliest. Hence, it is necessary for speech language pathologists to be well versed with the features each disorder may present in terms of communication and swallowing.

In a study by Mansi J, et al., 2014, it was reported that the most frequently occurring disorder was dysarthria (60%), followed by dysphagia (55%) and aphasia (18%). Study also revealed that the dysarthria and dysphagia co-existed in around 45% patients with neurological diseases.

There is dearth of research on the incidence and prevalence study of associated speech and language problems in Indian scenario. The poor are increasingly affected by stroke, because of both the changing population exposures to risk factors and, most tragically, not being able to afford the high cost for stroke care. The majority of stroke survivors continue to live with disabilities, and the costs of ongoing rehabilitation and long-term care are largely undertaken by family members, which impoverish their families. Studying the burden of stroke and the availability of health services will help policy makers to tackle the rising burden of disability through proper channelled speech and language rehabilitation and swallowing retraining.

Aim And Objectives

The study aimed at investigation of distribution of Neurogenic Communication disorders and Dysphagia sequel to Stroke registered at Tertiary Neuro-Super specialty Hospital during the time period of 1st January 2017 to 1st July 2018. The current study had the following objectives of documenting the frequency of occurrence of language disorders specific to Aphasia and other non-aphasic language Disorders following Stroke. The second objective of the study was to document frequency of occurrence of the speech disorders namely Dysarthria

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Nandisha Dhanush, Hebsiba Thomas , Ameena Shahanas PT, Joshan Kuriakose, Devika Ajith and Sivani Noushad

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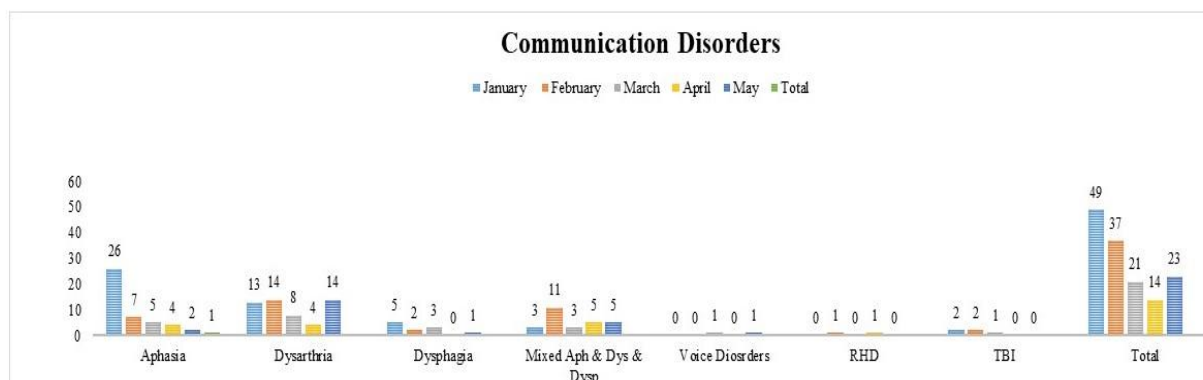
and Apraxia caused due to Stroke. The third objective of the study was to document the occurrence of Dysphagia sequel to Stroke. The fourth objective was to document the prevalence of above-mentioned disorders across age and gender.

Methodology

A heterogenous group of 177 patients with neurological conditions were assessed for presence of speech, language, and swallowing problems. A percent analysis was carried out to determine the occurrence of aphasia, dysarthria, and dysphagia in general, in specific diseases and also to describe type of aphasia and dysarthria according to the characteristics presented.

Results And Dscussion

Condition	Aphasia	Dysarthria	Dysphagia	Mixed Aph & Dys & Dys	Voice Disorders	RHD	TBI	Total
January	26	13	5	3	0	0	2	49
February	7	14	2	11	0	1	2	37
March	5	8	3	3	1	0	1	21
April	4	4	0	5	0	1	0	14
May	2	14	1	5	1	0	0	23
June	8	11	4	5	0	2	3	33
Total	0	0	0	32	2	4	8	177



According to the study, the prevalence of aphasia from January to June was 26,7,5,4,2 and 8 respectively with a total of 52. Dysarthria prevalence were 13,14,8,4,14 and 11 in each month with the total of 64 patients. 15 Dysphagia patients, 32 patients with mixed aphasia, dysarthria and dysphagia. Voice disordered patients were 2, 4 RHD patients and 8 TBI patients.

The prevalence of neurogenic disorders in the month of January were 49, in the month of February were 37, 21 in the month of March 14 in the month of April, 23 in the month of May and 33 in the month of June.

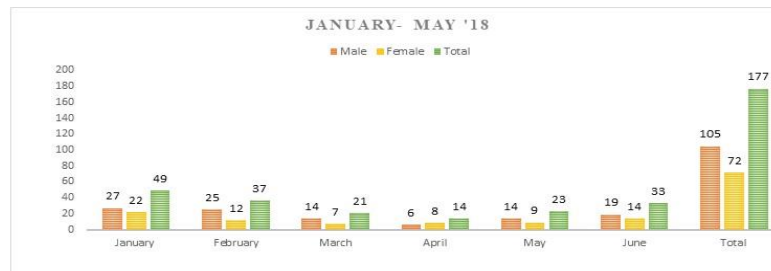
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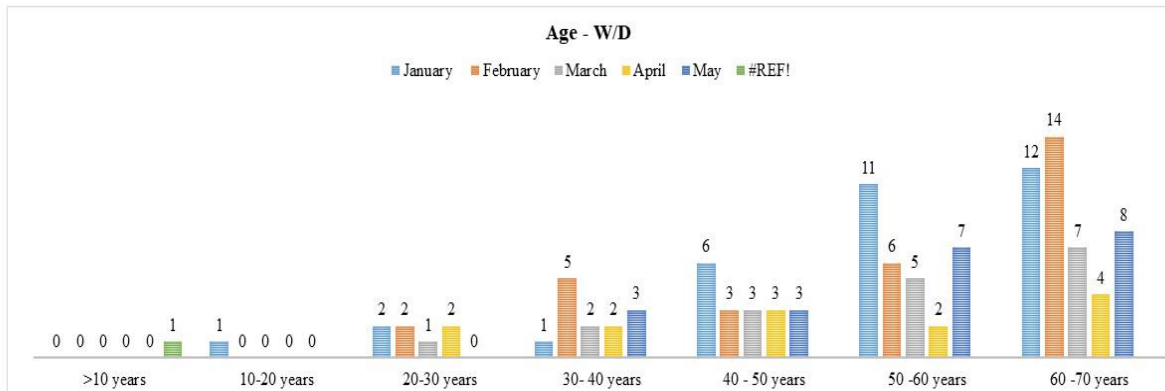
Statistics-First Neuro Super speciality Outreach Centre

Gender	Male	Female	Total
January	27	22	49
February	25	12	37
March	14	7	21
April	6	8	14
May	14	9	23
June	19	14	33
Total	105	72	177



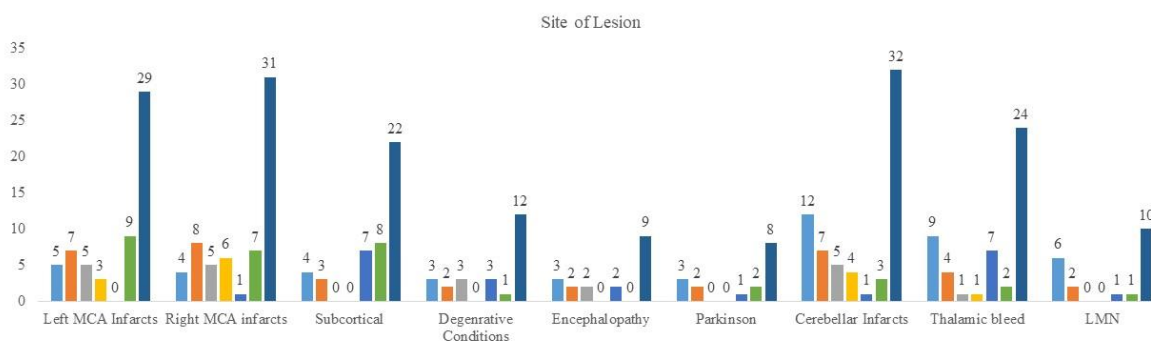
There were 177 neurologically disorder patients, among them 59% were males and 41% were females. Among them out of 49 patients, 55% of males and 45% of females were affected in the month of January. 68% of males and 32% of females out of 37 patients were affected in the month of February, in the month of March 67% were males and 33% were females with a total number of 21 patients. In APRIL 43% of the patients were males and 57% of them were females. In the month of May among 23 patients, 61% were males and 39% were females and in the month of June among 33 patients 58% were males and 42% were females.

Age	>10 years	10-20 years	20-30 years	30- 40 years	40 - 50 years	50 -60 years	60 -70 years	70 - 80 years	80 -90 years
January	0	1	2	1	6	11	12	14	2
February	0	0	2	5	3	6	14	6	1
March	0	0	1	2	3	5	7	1	2
April	0	0	2	2	3	2	4	0	1
May	0	0	0	3	3	7	8	2	0
June	0	0	2	1	1	8	10	9	4



The prevalence study was done on the age groups between >10 years to 90 years with age gap of 10 years with 9 groups. From the age group >10 years there were no patient. In the age group of 10 to 20 years there was 1 patient, from the age group of 20 to 30 years there were 9 patient, from the age group 30 to 40 years there were 14 patient, from the age group 40 to 50 years 19 patient, from the age group 50 to 60 years there were 39 patient, 60 to 70 years there were 55 patient, from the age group 70 to 80 years there were 32 patient and from the age group 80 to 90 years there were 10 patient.

Med.Diagnosis	Left MCA Infar	Right MCA in	Subcortical	Degenrative Conditions	Encephalopathy	Parkinson	Cerebellar Infarcts	Thalamic bleed	LMN
January	5	4	4	3	3	3	3	12	9
February	7	8	3	2	2	2	2	7	4
March	5	5	0	3	2	2	0	5	1
April	3	6	0	0	0	0	0	4	1
May	0	1	7	3	2	1	1	1	7
June	9	7	8	1	0	0	2	3	2
Total	29	31	22	12	9	9	8	32	24



Taking into account the medical diagnosis, among 177 patients, 29 were affected due to left MCA infarct, 31 due to right MCA infarct, 22 due to Subcortical lesion, 12 had degenerative conditions, 9 with encephalopathy, 8 parkinsonism, 32 patients had cerebellar infarcts, 24 had thalamic bleed and 10 with LMN lesion. Most of the individuals affected were due to cerebellar infarcts with 18.07 % followed by right MCA infarct with the prevalence of 17.51%.

Conclusions

It can be concluded that speech, language and swallowing problems are frequent in individuals with neurological conditions. Speech language pathologist plays an important role as a member of the rehabilitation team in a neurological setup with respect to identifying these problems and initiating intervention at the earliest. Hence, it is necessary for speech language pathologists to be well versed with the features each disorder may present in terms of communication and swallowing.

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Lateral Approximants and its Phonetic and Phonological Realization in Bangla and Malayalam

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Abstract

This paper is a study on structural distribution of lateral consonants in Bangla and Malayalam for identifying the nature of mother tongue interference in case of lateral approximants in Bengali diaspora in Kerala. In Malayalam, there are two lateral approximants, which are phonemic in nature, [l] and [ɭ]. While in Bengali, there is one phoneme [l] having three realisations as [l], [ɭ] and [ɻ] which are allophonic in nature.

Keywords: Approximants, lateral, Malayalam, Bangla.

1. Introduction

Though all the most Indian languages have a unique alphabetic system, their linguistic characteristics are different in many respects. The phonic and allophonic nature of each language provides its word structure. The existence of distinctive phonemes may have different allophones which serve a distinctive part of linguistic behavior of that language. Since the articulation of syllables are on accordance with the phonetic characteristics of sounds combination, it is normal speech behavior of any native speaker to produce the structured phonological combination of their language while they speak another language, as the whole language faculty function in well-defined order. So conscious effort is necessary to overcome these phonetic features.

In this paper, we investigate the phonetic realization of lateral sounds that affects greatly when a Bengali speaks Malayalam. Though, there is only one lateral approximant, the alveolar lateral /l/, is available in Bangla, it has different phonetic realization; the retroflex and dental variable of /l/ may be functioned as a distinctive phonetic feature of Bengali language. This

feature reflects in their Malayalam pronunciation, as the phonological characteristics of laterals in Malayalam is different from that of Bengali. Their distribution is contrastive in nature. Moreover, its occurrence is possible in all the three contexts, initial, middle, and final, though the structural distribution of alveolar laterals both in Bengali and Malayalam are different. This paper investigates the nature of its phonological manifestation, in the case of lateral approximants, in both languages and also identifies the nature of mother tongue interference caused when a person belongs to the Bengali diaspora speaks Malayalam.

2. The Phonological Distribution of Alveolar Lateral Approximant in Bengali

At the initial position, the most frequent manifestation of syllabic structure of /l/ is with /ɔ/, the central open-mid rounded vowel, which is considered as the most prominent vowel in Bengali language, in the rate of occurrence in all contexts. And this vowel is absent in Malayalam where the vowel /a/, which is also a central vowel, is at the first position in the frequency of occurrence in all the three positions, initial, middle, and final. This nature of syllabicity in both languages causes major challenge in the Bengali diaspora in Kerala. A tendency to pronounce /ɔ/ instead of /a/ is evident in their pronunciation. Even though the alveolar lateral approximant /l/, as a phoneme, is available in both languages, its syllabic structure is greatly different.

So, the influence of Bengali language is reflected when a person belongs to Bengali diaspora speaks Malayalam. The most identifiable phonetic difference between Bengali /ɔ/ and Malayalam /a/ is all the initial /la/ sound is substituted with the rounded /ɔ/ in middle and final position. This roundness nature may consider as the most prominent phonetic feature of Malayalam pronunciation among the Bengali diaspora in Kerala. The tongue is slightly retracted, and the lips are rounded while pronouncing /la/ at the initial, middle, and final positions. The phonological distribution of /l/ with the corresponding vowels other than initial and final positions are intervocalic in all the intermediate syllables in both languages. But there are certain exception in the context of clusters both in Bengali and Malayalam. In case of /la:/, the influence of /ɔ/ is not evident, as /aa/ is also a prominent vowel in Bengali.

The other syllables like /lo:/, /lee/ are other noticeable syllables at the initial position in Malayalam. Words with other syllables at the initial position are very less in number. They are used to write loan words in Malayalam. As in the case of Malayalam, the most frequently occurring vowels other than /ɔ/ is /o:/ and /la:/ in Bengali; both are available in the two languages. The vowel length in Bengali is not phonemic, but allophonic. But in Malayalam it is phonemic. Hence, in this study, much attention is not given to vowel length.

2.1. For substantiating this syllabic nature, a list of words with the positions discussed above is given below. The Malayalam pronunciation of Bengali is also listed after that in order to establish the general trend of Bengali diaspora in Kerala.

1. /lɔʔ/ 'to take'
2. /lɔŋka/ 'chillies'

3. /ɔŋa/ ‘bamboo pola’
4. /ɔkɔk/ ‘expressing the lolling state’
5. /ɔŋon/ ‘an auspicious time’
6. /ɔbɔa/ ‘mixed vegetable curry’
7. /ɔlɔma/ ‘redness’
8. /ɔlon/ ‘nurture’
9. /ɔkkho/ ‘aim’
10. /ɔkkhi/ ‘lakshmi’

The above-mentioned phonological structure of Bengali is greatly influenced when a native Bengali pronounce Malayalam words. Tongue, in this context, is positioned in such a way to articulate the corresponding syllables that are available in Bengali language. The choice of substitution is on the basis of its phonetic similarities.

2.2 /la/ > [ɔ]

1. /layam/[ɔyam] ‘blending’
2. /laksyam/[ɔksyam] ‘aim’
3. /lamghanam/[ɔmghanam] ‘violation’
4. /lahari/[ɔhari] ‘intoxication’
5. /lahala/[ɔhala] ‘riot’

2.3 /la:/ = [la:]

1. /la:ghavam/[la:ghavam] ‘silliness’
2. /la:bham/[la:bham] ‘profit’
3. /la:yani/[la:yani] ‘solution’
4. /la:lanam/[la:lanam] ‘fondling’
5. /la:vanam/[la:vanam] ‘salt’

2.4 /lo:/= [lo:]

1. /lo:kam/ [lo:kam] ‘world’
2. /lo:lam/ [lo:lam] ‘fragile’
3. /lo:ham/ [lo:ham] ‘metal’
4. /lo:canam/ [lo:canam] ‘eye’
5. /lo:ri/ [lo:ri] ‘lorry’

3. Occurrence of /l/ at the Intermediate Position

The major occurrence of /l/ extends to the intermediate position in both languages; at the initial and final position, its occurrence is phonologically restricted. The occurrence of /l/ at the second syllable initial position are considered for the present study. Here is a list of such words from Bengali language.

1. /pɔlaf/ ‘flower’

2. /gɔlaf/ ‘glass’
3. /tɔla/ ‘under’
4. /lɔlona/ ‘beautiful lady’
5. /tʃʰɔlona/ ‘deception’
6. /lalima/ ‘redness’
7. /lalɔʃa/ ‘greedy’
8. /ɔlɔʃ/ ‘lazy’
9. /ɔlɔʊkik/ ‘supernatural’

3.1 Considering the syllabic structure of alveolar lateral approximant in Malayalam, all the syllables mentioned above, as in the case of Bengali words, except /lɔ/ is also available in the language. So, the prominent influence of mother tongue while pronouncing Malayalam words by a person belonging to Bengali diaspora in Kerala is in the case of /lɔ/, as in the event of /l/ at the initial position. Since there are identical syllabic structures available in Malayalam, their pronunciation is perfect in all other referred conditions. Here is a list of Malayalam words with its corresponding Bengali pronunciation with the alveolar lateral approximant /l/ at the second syllable initial position.

1. /kala:pam/ [kala:pam] ‘conflict’
2. /tula:m/ [tula:m] ‘month name’
3. /nila:vu/ [nila:vu] ‘moonlight’
4. /kala:layam/ [kala:layam] ‘marriage’
5. /talo:lam/ [talo:lam] ‘chuckle’
6. /a:lo:chana/ [a:lo:chana] ‘thinking’
7. /kalo:tsavam/ [kalo:tsavam] ‘art festival’
8. /me:lo:ttu/ [me:lo:ttu] ‘upward’

3.2 The Alveolar Lateral Approximant /l/ at the Word Final Position

The occurrence /l/ in Malayalam is mostly restricted to certain grammatical contexts like verbal noun, locative case marker, conjunctive marker which are very common in everyday use. In Bengali language also the words ending with /l/ is common. Following is the list of words with /l/ at word final position with three different onset position.

1. /tɔpɔbɔl/ ‘the power of penetration’
2. /ɔbikɔl/ ‘Duplicate’
3. /utkɔl/ ‘Orissa’
4. /uʃʃɔl/ ‘brightness’
5. /ɔpʰɔl/ ‘unfruitfulness’
6. /ɔkal/ ‘improper time’
7. /utʰɔl/ ‘wave movement’
8. /kɔmol/ ‘lotus’
9. /ucchol/ ‘swelling up’

10. /ɔmbol/ ‘acidity’
11. /kɔmbol/ ‘blanket’
12. /ol/ ‘bulbous plant’

3.3 The occurrence /l/ in Malayalam is mostly restricted to certain grammatical contexts like verbal noun, locative case marker, conjunctive marker which are very common in everyday use. The following are the examples of Malayalam words with /l/ at the final position and its corresponding Bengali pronunciation.

1. /Ka:val/ [ka:val] ‘temple’
2. /u:nja:l/ [u:nja:l] ‘swing’
3. /takil/ [takil] ‘musical instrument’
4. /Vakki:l/ [vakki:l] ‘lawyer’

There is no considerable difference exists in the pronunciation of /l/ at the word initial position, even though, certain identifiable difference is evident in the articulation of other syllables with in the words.

3.4 Lateral Retroflex Approximant [ɭ] at the Word Final Position

But words with lateral retroflex approximant /ɭ/ at the word final position is also available in Malayalam. Its occurrence is mostly restricted in certain grammatical contexts like pronouns, plural marker, adverbs, and also in the case of certain suffixation. So, its usage is also high in day-to-day communication. It seems difficult to a Bengali to articulate /ɭ/ at the final position, as the allophone /l/ does not occur at the word final position. So, it is a natural linguistic behavior to a Bengali speaker to articulate the alveolar lateral approximant instead of retroflex lateral approximant /ɭ/, which functions as an allophone only at the context of retroflex sounds. Eg. /uɭto/ ‘opposite’, /paɭta/ ‘reverse’. A normal Bengali cannot articulate this sound in a different context. The following are the list of Malayalam words of this kind with its Bengali pronunciation.

1. /avaɭ/ [aval] ‘she’
2. /niɳkaɭ/ [niɳkal] ‘you’
3. /va:l/ [va:l] ‘sword’
4. /kuttikal/ [kuttikal] ‘children’
5. /malaya:ɭikal/ [malay:aɭikal] ‘malayalees’
6. /appo:l/ [appo:l] ‘then’
7. /ka:ɳumpo:l/ [ka:ɳumpo:l] ‘when I will see’
8. /kaɳɖappo:l/ [kaɳɖappo:l] ‘when I saw’

4. The Allophonic Distribution of /l/

4.1 /l/ -Voiced Apico Pre-palatal Retroflex Lateral Approximant

In general, the retroflex lateral approximant is available in both languages. But there exists slight difference in their place of articulation. In Bengali, it is voiced apico prepalatal retroflex approximant. Irrespective of this difference, each sound shares common acoustic

features. So, perception of these sounds is more identical. So, it is not a task for a Bengali speaker speaking Malayalam words with the retroflex lateral consonant. But the influence of mother tongue is also playing its role even in the case of these very similar sounds. The distribution of /l/ in Bengali is allophonic in nature; it serves as an allophone of the alveolar lateral approximant [l] and it is assimilated as /l/ at the context of retroflex sounds. So, the use of /l/ is restricted with such contexts. In the case of Malayalam, its distribution is phonological. In Bengali, the allophonic distribution of /l/ is only available at the intermediate position. Eg. /ulʈo/ ‘opposite’, /palʈa/ ‘reverse’. Occurrence of such context is absent in Malayalam.

4.2 /l/ The Lamino-dental Approximant

As in the case of retroflex lateral approximant, the distribution of /l/ is also allophonic in nature. The alveolar lateral approximant /l/ is assimilated as /l/ at the context of the preceding dental consonant, eg. /polʈa/ ‘name of a place’, /calʈa/ ‘sour vegetable’, /polʈe/ ‘wick’, /alʈa/ ‘a beauty aid’, all these words are very common in everyday use. Such phonological context is also available in Malayalam. The following gives the list of Malayalam compound words with alveolar lateral approximant and the adjacent dental plosive.

1. /vayalʈaɖam/ [vayalʈaɖam] ‘paddy ridge’
2. /a:ltara/ [a:ltara] ‘altar’
3. /ka:yalʈaɖam/ [ka:yalʈaɖam] ‘backwater ridge’
4. /kaltittʌ/ [kaltittʌ] ‘fodder’

Even though alveolar lateral approximant is available in Bengali, it cannot be articulated at the context of dental plosive as pronounced by a native Malayalee. This is because of their speech behavior to articulate dental lateral approximant at the context of dental plosive.

Conclusion

Considering the nature of occurrence of laterals, the laterals in Bengali and Malayalam occur mostly on certain distinctive phonetic environments, we could identify certain divergences as well as similarities in the phonological conditioning of its syllabic manifestation. The syllabicity of a language may act as the main cause of mother tongue interference, though identical phonemes are available in different languages. The tongue of a native speaker regulated in such a way to articulate the syllabic nature of that language. In case of Malayalam spoken by a person belongs to Bengali diaspora in Kerala, the mother tongue influence is caused by the syllabicity of Bengali language. The three lateral approximants of Bengali language are structured in a well-defined phonological environment, which is absent, in certain extent, in Malayalam. So possible substitution is made by a native Bengali speaker to cope with the phonetic characteristics of Malayalam; the absence of Phonological structure in a language is substituted with the more phonetically identifiable syllables.

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Some Aspects of Tamil Language and Literature

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I present here a research article based on my personal research and understanding of some aspects of Tamil Language and Literature. I am an integral member of Tamil migrants from Tamilnadu who migrated to Mauritius as indentured labour several generations ago. We continue to maintain our Tamil identity and engage ourselves in getting to know more about our mother tongue and its literatures of various sorts. We learn written Tamil in our schools and do our best to use it both as spoken and written Tamil. Our teachers encourage us to maintain our identity not only in our personal and religious life but also through speaking and writing Tamil.

The present article has four following major sections:

1. The purpose, aim and coverage of the information in this article. The type of research method adopted.
2. A description of the Tamil script, explain the possible meanings of the word Tamil, and continued use of the ancient language both as the written language and spoken language. The tendency and assertion of the independence and purity of the language. Resistance to accept script letters, etc.
3. Elaborate introduction to Tamil grammars, with focus on Tolkappiyam and how Tolkappiyam presents the linguistic and literary aspects of Tamil language and literature

தமிழ் மொழியைப் பற்றி ஓர் ஆய்வு

பொருளடக்கம்

இயல் 1 : தலைப்பு

- 1.0 : முன்னுரை
- 1.1 : ஆய்வின் தலைப்பு விளக்கம்
- 1.2 : ஆய்வின் நோக்கம்
- 1.3 : ஆய்வின் எல்லை
- 1.4 : ஆய்வின் ஆதாரங்கள்
- 1.5 : ஆய்வின் இயல் அமைப்பு

இயல் 2

- 2.0 : முன்னுரை
- 2.1 : தமிழ்ச் சொல்
- 2.2 : தமிழ் மொழி
- 2.3 : தமிழின் வரிவடிவம்
- 2.4 : தமிழ் எழுத்துக்கள்
- 2.5 : சொற்பாகுபாடு
- 2.6 : தமிழின் பொருள்
- 2.7 : தமிழ் மொழியின் தொன்மை
- 2.8 : முடிவுரை

இயல் 3

- 3.0 : முன்னுரை
- 3.1 : தொல்காப்பியம்

தமிழ் மொழியைப் பற்றி ஓர் ஆய்வு

- 3.2 : காலம்
- 3.3 : சிறப்பும் பெருமையும்
- 3.4 : தொல்காப்பியத்தின் அமைப்பு
 - 3.4.1 : எழுத்ததிகாரம்
 - 3.4.2 : சொல்லதிகாரம்
 - 3.4.2.1: வேற்றுமை மயங்கியல்
 - 3.4.2.2: விளி மரபு
 - 3.4.2.3: பெயரியல்
 - 3.4.2.4: வினைச்சொற்கள்
 - 3.4.2.5: வினையியல்
 - 3.4.2.6: இடைச்சொற்கள்
 - 3.4.2.7: அடிச்சொற்கள்
 - 3.4.2.8: எச்சவியல்
 - 3.5 : பொருளதிகாரம்
 - 3.5.1 : அகத்திணை
 - 3.5.2 : முதல்பொருள்
 - 3.5.3 : நிலம்
 - 3.5.4 : காலம்
 - 3.5.5 : கருப்பொருள்
 - 3.5.6 : உரிப்பொருள்
 - 3.5.7 : புறத்திணை

தமிழ் மொழியைப் பற்றி ஓர் ஆய்வு

- 3.5.8 : களவியல்
- 3.5.9 : பண்புகள்
- 3.5.10: பொருளியல்
- 3.5.11: மெய்ப்பாடு
- 3.6 : முடிவுரை

இயல் 4

- 4.0 : முடிவுரை
- : மேற்பார்வை நூற்கள்

தமிழ் மொழியைப் பற்றி ஓர் ஆய்வு

1.0 முன்னுரை

தமிழக வரலாற்றை அறிய சான்றுகள் காலவாரியாகவும் சான்றுகள் வாரியாகவும் என்று நோக்கி அறியப்படுகிறது. காலமாகப் பகுப்போர் அதனை வரலாற்றுக்கு முற்பட்ட காலம், சங்க காலம், பல்லவர் காலம், சோழர் காலம், பாண்டியர் காலம், நாயக்கர் காலம், ஐரோப்பியர் காலம், இன்றைய காலம் முறைப்படுத்தினர். "சிந்துவெளி நாகரிகம் தமிழக வரலாற்றுடன் தொடர்பு படுத்திப் பார்க்கப்பட்டபின் தமிழ் நாகரிகத்தின் பழமை புதிய கோணத்தில் ஆராயப்படுகிறது." ¹ சண்முகத்தைப் பார்த்து வேறு எந்த உயிரையும் கொல்ல அவசியம் இல்லை என்று சொன்னது இனித்தமிழ் மொழி. அகத்தை விட்டு புறத்தை மட்டும் பார்த்து அழித்தது தமிழ் மொழி. ஆதலால், சற்று உள் உணர்ச்சியே தமிழே ஆகியது. இரும்புக்காலக் கருவிகள் ஆதிச்சநல்லூர், கரடியூர், கோயம்புத்தூர், தலைச்சேரி, பிரமகிரி, பெரம்பூர், போடிநாயக்கனூர், மந்தம்பாடி, மோகனூர், வல்லம் ஆகிய இடங்களில் கண்டெடுக்கப்பட்டுள்ளன. தமிழ் வரலாற்றை அறியத் துணைநிற்கும் நோக்க அடிப்படையில் இலக்கியங்களையும் இலக்கணங்களையும் இரு வகைப்படுத்தலாம். அவை சமுதாயப் பின்னணியை மையமாகக் கொண்டு படைக்கப்படுபவை மற்றும் அரசியல் பின்னணியை மையமாகக் கொண்டு படைக்கப்படுபவை. இலக்கியங்களிலும் இலக்கணங்களிலும் காலமும் நிகழ்ச்சியும் நுட்பமான அல்லது

தமிழ் மொழியைப் பற்றி ஓர் ஆய்வு

தெளிவான முறையில் தொடர்புபடுத்திக் காட்டப்படும் வாய்ப்பு இல்லை. அம்முறையில் அவை நிரல்படத் தொகுக்கவும் படவில்லை. கற்கால மனிதச் சிலை ஒன்று கண்டுபிடிக்கப்பட்டுள்ளது. பல்லாவரத்தில் சிற்பங்கள் செய்யும் மரபும் திறனும் அக்காலத்தில் இருந்தமையை இது உணர்த்துகிறது எனலாம்.

1.1 ஆய்வின் தலைப்பு விளக்கம்

தமிழ் மொழி கர்நாடக மொழிகளில் ஒன்றாகும். சிறப்பான தாலாட்டை அடைந்தவுடன் தமிழ் மொழி குழந்தைக்கு இனிமையாகத்தான் இருக்கிறது. "ஜாதி மதங்களைப் பாரோம்" இந்த மொழியாலே.

" வாழிய செந்தமிழ்! வாழ்க நற்றமிழர்!

வாழிய பாரத மணித்திரு நாடு!

இன்றெமை வருத்தும் இன்னல்கள் மாய்க! ²

என்று வாழிய செந்தமிழ் ஆசிரியப்பாவில் வருகின்றது. தமிழின் விடுதலை இன்று கூட கிடைக்கவில்லை. இருந்தும் "இழிவு கொண்ட மனித ரென்பது இந்தி யாவில் இல்லையே;" என்றார் பாரதியார். மேலும் அல்லது இன்றும்; இழிவு கொண்ட...மாதர் தம்மை இழிவு செய்யும் மடமை

யைக்கோ ளுத்துவோம்;" என்றும் "பாரத நாடு பார்க்கெலாம் திலகம்;" என்றார் பாரதியார்.

தமிழ் மொழியைப் பற்றி ஓர் ஆய்வு

"யாமறிந்த மொழிகளிலே தமிழ் மொழி போல்

இனிதாவது எங்கும் காணோம்."

என்று கூறி பாரதியார் தமிழ் மொழியின் புகழ்ச்சியினைப் பாதுகாத்து விவரிக்கின்றார். நெஞ்சம் துதிக்கிறது. இந்த மொழியைக் கேட்கும்போது வயிற்றில் உயிரில்லா சாப்பாடு போல தோற்றம் அடைகிறது. தேன் போல் நுரையீரலுக்கு எங்ஙனம் சுவையான அமைதியைத் தருகின்றதைப் போன்றே தமிழ் மொழியே. கேட்கும்போது உலகில் உள்ள மொழிகள் எல்லாத்துள் தமிழ் மொழியும் இனிமையாக இருக்கிறது. கூட சொல்லி தமிழ் மொழி சிறப்பே என்றும் சொல்லலாம். அன்னைத் தமிழ்ப் பவானி போலேதான் இருக்கிறாள். "நிர்மல முனிவரும் நிறைந்தநன் னாடு!" என்றார் கவிமணி தேசிகனான பாரதியார்.

1.2 ஆய்வின் நோக்கம்

இந்த ஆராய்ச்சியின் பெருநோக்கம் என்பது தமிழ் இலக்கியம் புராதனப் பெருமையுடையது. பல ஆண்டுகளாக முன்னேறி வந்து; வந்த தமிழ் இலக்கியங்களை முழுதும் "தமிழிலியக்கியம்" தான் எனப் பொதுவாக வழங்கல் ஆயிற்று எனலாம். ஆனால், கூர்மையாக நோக்கும்போது நீண்ட காலமாகப் பரிணமித்து வந்துள்ள இலக்கியங்களைக் கால அடிப்படையில் தனிமையிலும் சிறந்து நல்ல பண்புகளையும் கொண்டு

தமிழ் மொழியைப் பற்றி ஓர் ஆய்வு

வேறுபாடுகளையும் அடைந்துகொண்டு காணப்படுகிறது. இந்தத் தமிழ் மொழி "இலக்கியம் தேர்வுக்குரிய ஒரு பாடமாகவும் உள்ளது என்னும் அடிப்படை உண்மையை மறக்கவியலாது" என்றார் க.கைலாசபதி அவர்கள். அறிவியலைக் கொண்டு தமிழ் மொழியை நன்றாக வளர்த்துக் கொள்ள முடியும் என்றனர் தமிழர்கள் அனைவரும். இந்த உக-ஆம் நூற்றாண்டில் செம்மொழி செழிந்தது. வாழ்க மொழியே. வாழ்க தமிழ் மொழியும்.

1.3 ஆய்வின் எல்லை

ஆய்வாளர்கள் எழுதிய நூலகத்தின் புத்தகங்களையும் அறிக்கைகளையும் கொண்டு இவ்வாய்வின் எல்லையாகக் கொள்ளப்படுகிறது.

1.4 ஆய்வின் ஆதாரங்கள்

இவ்வாய்வின் அணுகுமுறைகள் என்பவை:
-வரலாற்று அறிக்கைகளும் புத்தகங்களும்.

1.5 ஆய்வின் இயல் அமைப்பு

'தமிழ் மொழியைப் பற்றி ஓர் ஆய்வு' என்னும் தலைப்பைத் தவிர இந்த ஆராய்ச்சி ஐந்து இயல்களைக் கொண்டுள்ளது.

தமிழ் மொழியைப் பற்றி ஓர் ஆய்வு

இயல் 1:

முதலாவது இயல் ஆய்வின் முன்னுரையும் ஆய்வின் தலைப்பு விளக்கமும் ஆய்வின் நோக்கமும் ஆய்வின் எல்லையும் ஆய்வின் ஆதாரங்களும் ஆய்வின் இயல் அமைப்பும் கொண்டுள்ளது.

இயல் 2:

இரண்டாவது இயல் தமிழ்ச்சொல், தமிழ் மொழி, தமிழின் வரிவடிவம், தமிழ் எழுத்துக்கள், சொற்பாகுபாடு, தமிழின் பொருள், தமிழ் மொழியின் தொன்மை ஆகியவைக் கொண்டுள்ளது.

இயல் 3:

இயல் மூன்று என்பது தொல்காப்பியம், அதன் காலம், அதன் சிறப்பும் பெருமையும், அதன் அமைப்பு, எழுத்ததிகாரம், சொல்லதிகாரம், வேற்றுமை மயங்கியல், விளி மரபு, பெயரியல், வினைச்சொற்கள், வினையியல், இடைச்சொற்கள், அடிச்சொற்கள், எச்சவியல், பொருளதிகாரம் போன்றவைப் பற்றியது.

தமிழ் மொழியைப் பற்றி ஓர் ஆய்வு

இயல் 2:

2.0 முன்னுரை

அகன்றும் உலகம் என் மேல் வைத்தோர் கடவுள். கடவுள் தான் தமிழ் மொழியைக் காப்பாற்றுக் கொண்டே இருக்கிறது. வீர சோழியம் மற்றும் சோழ வமிசம் போன்ற நூல்களைப் படிக்கும்போது கடினமான தமிழ்த்தான் தெரிகிறது. எனினும், தமிழ் மொழியே சிறப்பு என்று சொல்கிறது. "கல் தோன்றா காலத்தே" தமிழ் மொழி தோன்றி இருக்க வேண்டும் என்று வீர சோழியம் என்னும் நூலால் தெரிகிறது. பாரதியாரும் சொன்னார் என்பது "யாமறிந்த மொழிகளிலே தமிழ் மொழி போல் இனிதாவது எங்கும் காணோம்." ஆகையால் வாசவன் என்பவன் ஒருவனும் தமிழ் மொழியைப் பற்றி எழுத ஆரம்பித்த போது அக்கினிக் குஞ்சு எழுதினார். ஒப்பற்ற இரு குலங்களும் நிலைபெற வந்து, ஒரு தனி குடைக்கீழ், நான்கு கடல்களையும் நான்கு திக்குகளையும் தனக்கே உரிமையாக பெற்றிருக்கின்ற, சூரிய குலத்திற் சிறந்தவனான முதற்குலோத்துங்க தமிழே வாழ்க தமிழ்க்கடவுளான முருகன் பன்னிரண்டு கைகளும் பன்னிரண்டு கண்களும் பெற்றிருப்பது போலக் குலோத்துங்கனும், நான்கு கடல்களையும், நான்கு திக்குகளையும் தனக்கே உரிமையாகப் பெற்றிருக்கின்ற, சூரிய குலத்திற் சிறந்தவனான முதற்குலோத்துங்க தமிழே வாழ்க. தமிழ்க்கடவுளான முருகன் பன்னிரண்டு கைகளும் பன்னிரண்டு கண்களும் பெற்றிருப்பது போலக் குலோத்துங்க நான்கு கடல்களையும், நான்கு திக்குகளையும் தனக்குப்

தமிழ் மொழியைப் பற்றி ஓர் ஆய்வு

பொன் இரண்டு படைத்த மொழியாகும். எட்டுத்திக்கு யானைகளும் எட்டுத் தூண்களாக வெற்றித் தூண்கள் பலவற்றை நாட்டி, ஒப்பற்ற வானத்தைக் கூரையாகக் கொண்டு இருப்பதைப் போல, உலகங்களை எல்லாம் வென்ற மொழியே தமிழ் மொழி.¹

2.1 தமிழ்ச் சொல்

"தமிழ்" என்னும் சொல், தமிழில் கிடைத்துள்ள முதல் நூலாகிய தொல்காப்பியத்தில் காணப்பெறுகிறது. "தமிழ் என் கிளவியும் அதனோ ரற்றே" (தொல்: 385) என்பது நூற்பா. மேலும், தமிழ் என்ற சொல் வல்லெழுத்து மிக்கு முடிதலோடு அக்குச் சாரியையும் பெற்று வரும். தமிழ்க்கூத்து, தமிழ்ச்சாதி என்பன சான்றுகள். இது மட்டுமின்றி தமிழ் என்ற சொல் (பதம்) தொல்காப்பியத்தில் (135) நூற்றுமுப்பத்தைந்து இடங்களில் பயன்பெறுகிறது. 'தமிழ்' என்னும் சொல் (பதம்)-இல் த் - வல்லினம், ம் - மெல்லினம், ழ் - இடையினம் என மூன்று இனங்களும் உள்ளன.

2.2 தமிழ் மொழி

தமிழ் மொழி திராவிட மொழிகளின் தாய் (மூலம்) என்பது மேல்நாட்டு மொழியறிஞராகிய கால்டுவெல் அவர்களது கருத்தாகும். தற்போது இந்தியாவில் இரண்டு பெரும் பண்பாடுகள் உள்ளன. அவை, திராவிட பண்பாடும் ஆரிய பண்பாடும் ஆகும். தென்பகுதிகளில் திராவிட

தமிழ் மொழியைப் பற்றி ஓர் ஆய்வு

பண்பாடும் மொழிகளும் பரவியுள்ளன. தென்மொழிகள் என்பவை தமிழ், தெலுங்கு, மலையாளம், கன்னடம் முதலியவை ஆகும். இம்மொழிகள் தமிழ் மொழியின் அடிப்படையானவை என்பது பொதுக் கருத்து. உலக மொழிகளில் இன்று பழமையானது என்று கருதப்பெறும் மொழிகளுள் தமிழ் மொழியும் ஒன்றாகும். தமிழ் மொழி பக்தி மொழியாய் திகழ்கின்றது. " யாமறிந்த மொழிகளிலே தமிழ்மொழி போல்; இனிதாவது எங்கும் காணோம்" என்றார் பாரதியார் அவர்கள். இலத்தீன், கிரீக், சமஸ்கிருதம் போன்ற பழமையான மொழிகளுள் தமிழ் மொழி மட்டுந்தான் இன்றும் உயிருள்ள, வழக்கிலுள்ள மொழியாக உள்ளது. தமிழ் என்ற சொல்தான் தமிழ், த்ரமிள, த்ரமிடா, த்ரபிடா, திரவிடா எனப் பிறமொழியாளர்களால் அழைக்கப்பட்டது என்பது மொழியியலாளர்களின் கருத்து. பழங்காலத்தில் தமிழ் மொழி சமஸ்கிருதத்திலிருந்துதான் பல சொற்களைக் கடனாக வாங்கியது என்ற எண்ணம் இருந்தது. ஆனால் பரோவும் எமனோவும் (BURROW, EMENAU) 'Dravidian loans in Sanskrit' என்ற நூலை எழுதியபின்பு அவ்வெண்ணம் மாற்றம் அடைந்து 'திராவிட மொழிகளின் அடிச்சொல் அல்லது வேர்ச்சொல் அகராதியை இயற்றி தமிழ்மொழியின் சிறப்பினை உலகிற்கு உணர்த்தினர். (A Dravidian Etymological Dictionary) வரிவடிவத்தைப் பெறும் மொழிகளுள் தமிழ் மொழியும் ஒன்றாகும்.

தமிழ் மொழியைப் பற்றி ஓர் ஆய்வு

2.3. தமிழின் வரிவடிவம்

ஒரு மொழி வரிவடிவத்தைப் பெறுவதற்குப் பல நூற்றாண்டுகள் ஆகின்றன. தமிழ் மொழி கி.மு ஐந்தாம் நூற்றாண்டிற்கு முன்பே வரிவடிவம் பெற்ற மொழி ஆகும். அதைத் தொல்காப்பியம் கூறுகிறது. " உட்பெறு புள்ளி உருவா கும்மே"-(தொல்: 14), "மெய்யின் இயற்கை புள்ளியொடு நிலையல்" (தொல்:15), "எகர ஓகரத்து இயற்கையும் அற்றே" (தொல்:16). இந்த மூன்று நூற்பாக்களும் வரிவடிவத்தைப் பற்றி கூறுகின்றன. தொல்காப்பியர் காலத்தில் எ, ஓ புள்ளி கொண்டு இருந்தால் குறில், புள்ளி கொள்ளாமல் இருந்தால் நெடில். ஆனால் எ, ஓ என்னும் வரிவடிவம் காலந்தோறும் மாற்றம் அடைந்துள்ளன. கல்வெட்டுக்கள் தோன்றிய பின்புதான் மாற்றங்கள் குறைந்தன. தமிழ் மொழிக்கு மட்டும் வடமொழியில் இல்லாத ஐந்து எழுத்துக்கள் எ, ஓ, ற, ன, ழ என்பன. சமஸ்கிருதத்தை விட தமிழ் மொழிக்கு அதிக வரிவடிவங்கள் உள்ளன. ஆக, சமஸ்கிருதத்திற்கு முன்பு தமிழ் தோன்றியது என்பது சான்றாகும். மெல்லொலிகள் தமிழுக்கு மட்டும்தான் ஆறு வடிவங்கள் உண்டு. சமஸ்கிருதத்திற்கு ஐந்து. சில மொழிகளுக்கு மூன்று, நான்கு மெல்லொலி வடிவங்கள் உண்டு. மற்ற மொழிகளை விட தமிழுக்கு 'ன' என்னும் மெல்லொலி வரிவடிவம் மிகுதி என்பர். அது ஆண்பாலைக் குறிக்கிறது/சட்டுகிறது.

தமிழ் மொழியைப் பற்றி ஓர் ஆய்வு

தெலுங்கு, மலையாளம், கன்னடம் போன்ற திராவிட மொழிகள் சமஸ்கிருதத்தில் உள்ள வர்க்க எழுத்துக்களைக் கடன் வாங்கி ஒலிக்கின்றன. சான்றாக: வர்க்க எழுத்துக்கள் என்பவை நான்கு க, நான்கு த, நான்கு ப, நான்கு ட ஆகும். ஆனால் தமிழுக்கு மட்டும் கடன் வாங்காமல் இன்று வரை வர்க்க எழுத்துக்கள் இல்லாமல் ஒரு க, ஒரு த, ஒரு ப, ஒரு ட கொண்டு வெவ்வேறு இடங்களில் வெவ்வேறாக ஒலிக்கின்றன. இது தமிழ் மொழியின் ஒலிவடிவத்தைச் சிறப்பிக்கின்றது.

எடுத்துக்காட்டாக: அழகன்- க='ga' வாக ஒலிக்கும்/ -:கந்தன்- க='ka' வாக ஒலிக்கும்.

ஆங்கிலத்தில் 'c' என்னும் எழுத்து தனியாக இருக்கும்போது 'சி' என்று ஒலிக்கும். ஆனால், 'cat':- ket-ஆக மற்றும் 'cot' : At-ஆக ஒலிக்கும். அதாவது ஒலி இயல்பு திரியும். ஆனால் தமிழ் எழுத்துக்களது ஒலி இயல்பு திரியாது. அதை " மொழிப்படுத்து இசைப்பினும் தெரிந்துவேறு இசைப்பினும்-எழுத்துஇயல் திரியா என்மனார் புலவர்." என்னும் நூற்பாவில் (தொல்: 53) தொல்காப்பியம் கூறுகிறது.

2.4. தமிழ் எழுத்துக்கள்

பண்டைத் தமிழ் எழுத்துக்கள் பிராமி எழுத்திலும் வட்டெழுத்திலும், கிரந்த எழுத்திலும் உள்ளன. ஆனால், இன்றைய தமிழ் எழுத்துக்கள்

தமிழ் மொழியைப் பற்றி ஓர் ஆய்வு

கி.பி. ஏழாம் நூற்றாண்டுக்குப் பிறகு ஏற்பட்ட கல்வெட்டுக்களில் உள்ளன. தமிழில் உயிர் எழுத்துக்கள் பன்னிரண்டு. அவை குறில், நெடில் என்று இரண்டாக வகைப்படும். அ, இ, உ, எ, ஓ என்னும் ஐந்தும் குற்றெழுத்துக்கள் அ+இ=ஐ வான நெடில் எழுத்து. மற்றும் அ+உ=ஔ வான நெடில் எழுத்து. ஆக, மொத்தம் நெடில் எழுத்துக்கள் ஏழு ஆகும்.

மெய் எழுத்துக்கள் 'க' கரம் முதல் 'ன' கரம் வரை பதினெட்டு ஆகும். அவற்றுள் க,ச,ட,த,ப,ற என்னும் ஆறு வல்லின எழுத்துக்கள். ங, ஞ, ண, ந, ம, ன எனும் ஆறும் மெல்லின எழுத்துக்கள். ய, ர, ல, வ, ழ, ள எனும் ஆறும் இடையின எழுத்துக்கள். வல்லினம் முதலில் தோன்றின என்றும் இடையினங்கள் மெல்லினத்துக்கு முன் தோன்றின என்பதும் மொழியியலாளரின் கருத்து. ஆய்த எழுத்து ∴ என்னும் வடிவில் உள்ளது.

2.5. சொற்பாகுபாடு

தமிழ்ச் சொற்கள் பெயர், வினை, இடை, உரி என நான்கு வகைப்படும். தமிழ்ச் சொற்கள் ஒழுக்கத்தின் அடிப்படையாக விளங்குகின்றன. உயர்ந்த ஒழுக்கங்களை உடையவர்கள் உயர்திணையாக, குறைந்த அல்லது தாழ்ந்த ஒழுக்கங்களை உடையவர்கள் அல்திணை அல்லது அஃறிணை என்னும் வகைகளாக வகுக்கப்பட்டுள்ளன. அஃறிணைகள் ஓரறிவு முதல் ஐயறிவு வரையாகவும் வகுக்கப்பட்டுள்ளன. மேலும்,

தமிழ் மொழியைப் பற்றி ஓர் ஆய்வு

அடிச்சொற்கள் உரிச்சொற்களாகத் தெரியப்படுகின்றன. பொருளின் பெயரை உணர்த்துபவை பெயர்ச்சொற்கள் செய்யும் தொழிலை உணர்த்துபவை வினைச்சொற்கள் வாக்கியத்தை அமைப்பதற்குப் பயன்படுபவை இடைச்சொற்கள். இச்சொற்பாகுபாடு உலக மொழிகள் அனைத்திற்கும் உள்ள பொதுப்பாகுபாட்டை ஒட்டியே அமைந்துள்ளது.

2.6. தமிழின் பொருள்

தமிழ் என்னும் சொல் தமிழ் நாடு, தமிழ் மொழி, தமிழ் இனம், தமிழ் மக்கள், தமிழரசர் போன்ற பொருள்களைத் தந்துள்ளது.

"இனிமையும் நீர்மையும் தமிழ் எனலாகும்" என்பது பிங்கல நிகண்டு கூறும் பொருள் ஆகும். சங்கம் மருவிய காலத்தில் தமிழுக்குத் தன் மதிப்புக் குறைந்தது ஏனென்றால் அக்காலத்தில் களப்பிரர், பல்லவர்கள், தமிழ் நாட்டுக்கு வந்து ஆட்சிபுரிந்தனர். அப்போது சமஸ்கிருதச் செல்வாக்குத் தான் இருந்தது. தமிழ்ச்சிசுவான திருஞானசம்பந்தரால்தான் தமிழுக்கு மறுமலர்ச்சி ஏற்பட்டது.

2.7. தமிழ் மொழியின் தொன்மை

தொல்காப்பியம் கி.மு.வில் தோன்றிய நூல் என்பதில் ஐயம் இல்லை. தொல்காப்பியம் போன்று ஓர் இலக்கண நூல் தமிழ் மொழிக்குத் தோன்றுவதாக இருந்தால் குறைந்தது கி.மு. ஐந்து ஆயிரம்

தமிழ் மொழியைப் பற்றி ஓர் ஆய்வு

ஆண்டுகளுக்கு முன்பு இம்மொழி தோன்றியிருக்க வேண்டும். பின்புதான் அம்மொழிக்கு வரிவடிவங்கள் தோன்ற முடியும். இலக்கியங்கள் தோன்றியிருக்கும். இலக்கியங்களின் அடிப்படையில்தான் இலக்கணம் தோன்ற முடியும்.

2.8 முடிவிரை

இத்தனை ஆண்டுகளாக இருப்பது நமது வாழ்க்கையில் இயற்கைச் சீற்றலாலும் (சீற்றத்தாலும்) வன்முறைகளாலும் மனிதன் அழிந்து போனதுதான் கொண்டே இருக்கிறான். சரியில்லாத சமுதாயத்தில்தான் வாழ்கிறோம் என்று சிலர் சொல்கின்றனர். கடல்கோள்களால் குமரிகண்டமும் மற்ற நாடுகளும் கடலில் மூழ்கின. நமது கோவில்களும் நீரில் மூழ்கி வழிபடப்படுகின்றன. வாழ்க தமிழ் மொழி. வாழ்க வளமுடன் தமிழ்ச் சமுதாயம். எண்ணற்ற வாழ்வாங்கு வாழ்பவன் வானுரையுள் தெய்வத்துள் தெய்வத்துள்ளம் செல்வம். தெய்வம் என்றனர் சென்னை தமிழ் மக்கள். பல நாட்களாக மக்கள் பலர் தங்கள் ஆரோக்கியங்களைப் பற்றி யோசிக்கிறார்கள். உடல்நலம் சரியில்லாமல் இருக்கும்போதுதான் உடல்நலத்தைப் பற்றி ஆரோக்கிய சிந்தனை வரும். ஒவ்வொருவருக்கும் ஒரு சிலவற்றான நோய் உண்டு. சிறுதுளிமையங்கள் மிகவும் குறுகியவையானவை. இவையை அல்லது இவற்றைப் பார்ப்பதற்கு மைக்கரோஸ்கோப்பு -அப்புறமாதம் கருவி மூலம்தான் முடியும். அதே போல உலகத்தையும் வானத்திலிருந்து

தமிழ் மொழியைப் பற்றி ஓர் ஆய்வு

பார்க்க முடியும். இயற்கைச் சீற்றங்களால் அழியப்பட்ட உலகத்தில் வாழ்ந்த மக்களை இதன் மூலம்தான் அல்லது வாயிலாகப் பார்க்க முடியும், அல்லது இயலும்.²

இயல் 3

3.0. முன்னுரை

தமிழில் இருந்த மிகப்பெருமையான தொன்மையில் கிடந்த இலக்கண நூல்கள் என்பன தொல்காப்பியமும் அதன் மூலம் வீரசோழியமும் ஆகும். தொல்காப்பியமாகக் கிடைத்து உள்ள நூல்கள் மூன்று ஆகும். ஒவ்வொரு நூலும் ஒன்பது இயல்கள் கொண்டுள்ளன. சூத்திரங்கள் மொத்தத்தில் 1,610 (483+463+664) என்பர். தொல்காப்பியத்தைப் பற்றி நிலவியலின் மூலமாகக் கூட பலவாறான செய்திகள் பெறவில்லை என்றனர் ஆய்வாளர்களான கே.கே பிள்ளை, அ.ஜெயமும் அவர்கள். ஐயா நடராஜா தேவபூபதியின்படி தொல்காப்பியத்தின் முதல் பாடம் கி.மு.உ.க நூற்றாண்டுக்கு முன் காலத்தியது.¹

3.1. தொல்காப்பியம்

தொல்காப்பியம் தமிழ் மொழி, தமிழ் இலக்கியங்களைப் பற்றிக் கூறும் செம்மையான, தெளிவான இலக்கண நூல். தொல்காப்பிய பொருளதிகாரம் பொது நிலையில் இலக்கியம் பற்றி பேசுகிறது. செய்யுளியல் என்ற இயல் முழுவதும் தமிழ் இலக்கியத்தின்

தமிழ் மொழியைப் பற்றி ஓர் ஆய்வு

இலக்கணம். செய்யுள் என்ற சொல்லால் தொல்காப்பியக் காலத்தோர் இலக்கியத்தைக் குறித்தனர். தொல்காப்பியச் செய்யுளியல் தொல்காப்பியர் காலத்திற்கு முன்பு இருந்த தமிழ் இலக்கியத்தின் பிழிவு, செய்யுளியல் இலக்கிய வகைகள், இலக்கிய மரபு, இலக்கியக் கொள்கை, இலக்கியத் திறனாய்வு அனைத்தையும் கூறுகிறது. தொல்காப்பிய காலத்திற்கு முந்தியோர் இலக்கிய வகைகளை ஏழாகப் பகுத்தனர்.

*“பாட்டு, உரை, நூலை, வாய்மொழி, பிசியே,
அங்கதம், முதுசொல்லொடு, அவ்வேழ் நிலத்தும்*

யாப்பின் வழியது என்மனார் புலவர்.”

தமிழில் இன்று கிடைக்கின்ற நூல்களுள் முதல் நூல் என்பது தொல்காப்பியம். அது எழுத்து, சொல், பொருள் என்ற முப்பொருள்களைக் கூறுகிறது. வேறு பெயர்-உலகப்பொது நூல். அது உலகத் தோற்றம், உயிர்களின் வகைப்பாடு, உயிர்களைப் பற்றிய பகுப்பாய்வு, உயிர்களின் இளமை, முதுமைப்பெயர்கள் போன்றவற்றைக் கூறுகிறது. உலகப் பொருள்களை முதல்,கரு,உரி என்று முப்பிரிவாகப் பிரித்து விளக்கம் தருகிறது. இது மொழி இலக்கண நூல் மட்டுமன்று. வாழ்வின் இலக்கணத்தையும் வகுத்துக் கூறும் நூல். வாழ்க்கைக்குத் தேவையான பண்புகள், தேவையற்ற தீக்குணங்கள் போன்றவற்றை எல்லாம் தெளிவாகப் பேசும் நூல்.

தமிழ் மொழியைப் பற்றி ஓர் ஆய்வு

பெயர்:தொல்காப்பியம் சேர்த்தும், வகுத்தும், தொகுத்தும் எழுதப்பெற்ற நூலாகும்.

தொல்காப்பியம்=தொல்+காப்பு+இயம்

தொல்காப்பியம் என்ற பெயர் பழமையைக் காத்து இயம்பும் நூல் என்ற பொருளைக் கொண்டுள்ளது.

3.2. காலம்:

சங்க இலக்கியங்கள், திருக்குறள் போன்றவற்றில் தொல்காப்பியக் கருத்துக்கள் உள்ளன. சொற்களும் உள்ளன. ஆக, அவற்றிற்கு முன்பு தொல்காப்பியம் தோன்றியது என்பதில் ஐயமில்லை. தொல்காப்பிய காலத்தை கி.மு. மூவாயிரம் என்றும் கி.பி. ஐந்தாம் நூற்றாண்டு என்றும் கூறுவோர் உண்டு. தமிழகத்தில் ஏற்பட்ட கடல்கோள்கள் வரலாற்று உண்மை. இரண்டாம் சங்கம் கபாடபுரத்தில் இருந்தது என்பது பொது எண்ணம். இக்காலத்தில்தான் தொல்காப்பியம் தோன்றியிருக்க வேண்டும்.

தமிழ் மொழியைப் பற்றி ஓர் ஆய்வு

"வேறு தக்க சான்றுகள் இடைக்கும் வரையில் தொல்காப்பியர் கி.மு. 4ஆம் நூற்றாண்டினர் என்று கருதுதல் தகும்."

என்று டாக்டர் மா. இராசமாணிக்கனாரின் கருத்தாகும்.

3.3. சிறப்பும் பெருமையும் (தொல்காப்பியம்)

தொல்காப்பியத்திற்கு இதுவரை 150 பதிப்புகளுக்கு மேல் வந்துள்ளன. உலகம் முழுவதும் தொல்காப்பியச் சுவடிகள் 133-க்கு மேல் உள்ளன. தொல்காப்பியத்திற்கு பல உரையாசிரியர்கள் உரை எழுதியுள்ளனர். தொல்காப்பியத்திற்குச் சுவடிவேறுபாடுகள் 2000-த்திற்கு மேல் உள்ளன. தொல்காப்பியத்திற்கு எழுவர் உரை எழுதியுள்ளனர். ஏழு உரைகளும் கிடைக்கின்றன. தொல்காப்பியம் முழுவதற்கும் உரை எழுதியவர் இளம்பூரணர். தொல்காப்பியத்திற்கு உலகத் தமிழாராய்ச்சி நிறுவனமும், மதுரை காமராசர் பல்கலைக்கழகமும் உரை வளங்கள் வெளியிட்டுள்ளன. திருக்குறள் போன்று தொல்காப்பியம் கற்றோரிடையே மிகுதியான பயிற்சியில் உள்ளது.

3.4. தொல்காப்பியத்தின் அமைப்பு

தொல்காப்பியம் எழுத்து, சொல், பொருள் என்னும் மூன்று அதிகாரங்களையுடையது. ஒவ்வொரு அதிகாரமும் 9 இயல்களைக் கொண்டுள்ளது. மொத்தம் 27 இயல்கள். தொல்காப்பியத்திற்கு

தமிழ் மொழியைப் பற்றி ஓர் ஆய்வு

உரையாசிரியர்களின் எண்ணங்களுக்குத் தக நூற்பாக்கள் கொண்டுள்ளன. அனைத்திற்கும் பொருள்தான் அடிப்படை. பொருளைப் பற்றிப் பேசுவதற்குச் சொற்கள் தேவைப்படுகின்றன. சொற்கள் எழுத்துக்களால் ஆயவை. அதனால் பொருளடிப்படையில் பொருள், சொல், எழுத்து என்ற நிலையில்தான் அதிகாரங்கள் அமைத்திருத்தல் வேண்டும். எளிமை கருதி எழுத்து, சொல், பொருள் எனத் தொல்காப்பியர் தொல்காப்பியத்தை அமைந்துள்ளார் என தெரிகிறது.

3.4.1. எழுத்ததிகாரம்

எழுத்ததிகாரம் 9 இயல்களைக் கொண்டுள்ளது. அவை: நூன்மரபு, மொழி மரபு, பிறப்பியல், புணரியல், தொகைமரபு, உருபியல் உயிர்மயங்கியல், புள்ளி மயங்கியல், குற்றியலுகரப் புணரியல். தமிழ் எழுத்துக்கள் 30. குற்றியலுகரம், குற்றியலிகரம், ஆய்தம் என்ற மூன்றும் சார்ந்து வரும் எழுத்துக்கள். எழுத்துக்களின் ஒலி அளவு 1/4, 1/2, 1, 2 ஆகிய மாத்திரைகளில் அமையும். உயிர் எழுத்துக்கள் 12. மெய் எழுத்துக்கள் 18. குறில் 5. நெடில் 7. வல்லினம்-6, மெல்லினம்-6, இடையினம்-6. முன் காலத்தில் மெய் எழுத்துக்களோடு எ, ஒ குறில்களும் புள்ளிகள் பெறும்.

பிறப்பியல் எழுத்துக்கள் பிறக்கும் வகைகளைக் கூறுகிறது. உந்தியிலிருந்து காற்று மேலே வந்து தலை, மிடறு, நெஞ்சு, இவற்றில் நின்று பல், இதழ், நா, மூக்கு, அண்ணம் இவற்றின் வழி

தமிழ் மொழியைப் பற்றி ஓர் ஆய்வு

வெளிப்படும்போது ஒலி எழுத்துக்கள் பிறக்கின்றன. புணரியல் பொது நிலையில், சொல்லின் இறுதியில் நிற்கும் எழுத்தும், வரும் சொல்லில் முதலில் வரும் எழுத்தும், சேரும்போது ஏற்படும் மாற்றங்களைக் கூறுகிறது.

எழுத்துக்கள் சேரும்போது மெய் பிறிது ஆகலாம், மிகலாம், குறையலாம். இவற்றைப் பேசுகிறது புணரியல். வேற்றுமை உருபுகள் பெயர்களோடு சேரும்போது ஏற்படும் உற்மாற்றங்களைக் கூறுவது உருபியல்.

உயிர் எழுத்துக்கள் வரும் சொற்களோடு சேரும் நிலைபற்றிப் பேசுவது உயிர் மயங்கியல். மெய்யெழுத்துக்கள் வரும் சொற்களோடு சேரும்போது ஏற்படும் மாற்றங்கள் பற்றிக் கூறுவது புள்ளி மயங்கியல். குற்றியலுகரமுடைய நிலைமொழிச் சொற்கள் வரும் சொற்களோடு இணையும்போது ஏற்படும் வேறுபாடுகளைக் கூறுவது குற்றியலுகரப்புணரியல்.

3.4.2. சொல்லதிகாரம்

1. கிளவியாக்கம் 2. வேற்றுமையியல் 3. வேற்றுமை மயங்கியல் 4. விளிமரபு 5. பெயரியல் 6. வினையியல் 7. இடையியல் 8. உயிரியல் 9. எச்சவியல் என்பன சொல்லதிகாரத்தின் ஒன்பது (9) இயல்கள்.

தமிழ் மொழியைப் பற்றி ஓர் ஆய்வு

கிளவி என்பது சொல்லைக் குறிக்கும். எவ்வாறு சொற்களை ஆக்கிக் கொள்வது என்பதைக் கூறும் இயல் கிளவியாக்கம்.

1. உயர்திணை-உயர்ந்த ஒழுக்கம் உடையவர்
2. அஃறிணை- உயர்வு அல்லாத ஒழுக்கமுடையன.

இவ்விரு ஒழுக்கமுடையவரைப் பற்றிப் பேசுவன சொற்கள்.

-ஓட்டு மொழி குடும்பம்: 'ன்' ஒற்று ஆண்பால் ஒருமையைக் குறிக்கும். "ர்" ஒற்று பலர்பாலைக் குறிக்கும்.

பகர இறுதியும் மார் என்ற சொல்லும் பலர்பாலைக் குறிக்கும். 1) செயற்கைப் பொருளைக் கூறும்போது காரணத்தோடு கூற வேண்டும். சொற்கள் மயங்காமல் பேச வேண்டும். இயற்பெயரைக் கூறிய பின்பு சுட்டுப்பெயரைக் கூற வேண்டும். இவ்வாறு சொற்களைப் பயங்கொள்ளும் முறையைப்பற்றிக் கிளவியாக்கம் கூறுகிறது. வேற்றுமை உருபுகள் பொருள்களை வேற்றுமைப்படுத்துகின்றன. வேற்றுமைகள் எட்டு. அவை: 1. எழுவாய் 2. ஐ 3. ஓடு 4.கு 5.இன் 6. அது 7.கண் 8. விளி

தமிழ் மொழியைப் பற்றி ஓர் ஆய்வு

ஒவ்வொரு வேற்றுமை உருபும் என்னென்ன பொருளில் வரும் என்பதைக் கூறுவது வேற்றுமையியல்.

3.4.2.1. வேற்றுமை மயங்கியல்

பொருளும், உருபுகளும் மயங்கி வரலாம். சில நிலைகள் அவ்வாறு வரும் வாய்ப்பு உண்டு. அவ்வாறு வரும் நிலைகள் என்னென்ன என்பதைக் கூறுவது வேற்றுமை மயங்கியல்.

3.4.2.2. விளி மரபு

எட்டாம் வேற்றுமை விளித்தல், அல்லது அழைத்தலின் பாற்படும். அவ்வாறு விளி கொள்ளும் பெயர்கள் எவை? அவைகளின் தன்மை என்ன என்பதை விளக்குவது விளிமரபு.

3.4.2.3. பெயரியல்

பெயர்ச்சொல்லின் வகைகள், உயர்திணைப்பெயர், அஃறிணைப்பெயர், விரவுப்பெயர் போன்றவற்றை விளக்குகிறார் தொல்காப்பியர். இயற்பெயர், சினைப்பெயர், முறைப்பெயர், தன்மை, முன்னிலை, படர்க்கைப் பெயர்கள் பற்றியும் பேசுவது பெயரியல்.

தமிழ் மொழியைப் பற்றி ஓர் ஆய்வு

3.4.2.4. வினைச்சொற்கள்

செயலை உணர்த்துபவையும் காலம் காட்டுபவையும் வினைச்சொற்கள். தெரிநிலைவினை, குறிப்புவினை இருவகைகள்.

3.4.2.5. வினையியல்

வினைமுற்றுக்களின் அமைப்புக்கள்; விரவுவினைகள், வினைச்சொல்லின் வழித்தோன்றும் பெயரெச்சம், வினையெச்சங்கள், செயப்படுபொருள் போன்றவற்றைக் கூறுவது வினையியல்.

3.4.2.6. இடைச்சொற்கள்

இடைச்சொற்கள் புணர்ச்சியில் சாரியைகளாக வரும். காலம்காட்டும். இடைநிலைகளாக வரும். வேற்றுமைப்பொருளைத் தரும். உருபுகளாக வரும். அசைநிலை, இசைநிறைகளாக வரும். தத்தம் குறிப்பால் பொருள் தரும். ஒப்புமைப்படுத்தும். உருபுகளாக வரும்.

இவ்வாறு வரும் இடைச்சொற்கள் பற்றி விளக்குகிறது இடையியல்.

3.4.2.7. அடிச்சொற்கள்

அடிச்சொற்களைப் பற்றிப் பேசுவது உரியியல். பிற்கால நிகண்டுகள், அகராதிகள் இவற்றிற்கு அடிப்படை இவ்வுரியியல்.

தமிழ் மொழியைப் பற்றி ஓர் ஆய்வு

3.4.2.8. எச்சவியல்

சொல்லிலக்கணத்தில் சொல்லாது விட்ட செய்திகளையும் எச்சவியலில் கூறுகிறார்.

செய்யுளுக்கூரிய சொற்கள், பொருள்கோள்கள், தொகைகள் போன்றவற்றின் இலக்கணமும் இவ்வியலில் உணர்த்தப்பெறுகின்றன.

3.5. பொருளதிகாரம்

தமிழின் உயர்நாடி, முதுகெலும்பு, பொருளதிகாரம் வேறு எந்த மொழிக்கும் இல்லாத இலக்கணம் பொருளிலக்கணம் பொருளிலக்கணம்தான் தொல்காப்பியம் உலகப்பொது நூல் என்பதை உணர்த்துகிறது. பொருளதிகாரம் 1) அகத்திணையியல் 2)புறத்திணையியல் 3)களவியல் 4) கற்பியல் 5)பொருளியல் 6) மெய்ப்பாட்டியல் 7)உவமவியல் 8) செய்யுளியல் 9) மரபியல் என ஒன்பது இயல்களைக் கொண்டுள்ளது.

3.5.1. அகத்திணை

அகம் என்பது உள்ளம், மனம், வீடு போன்ற பல பொருள்களைக் குறிக்கும். திணை ஒழுக்கத்தைக் குறிக்கும். அகத்திணை வீட்டு வாழ்க்கையைக் குறிக்கிறது. தொல்காப்பியம் பொருள்களை முதல், கரு, உரிப்பொருள் என மூன்றாகக் கூறுகிறது.

தமிழ் மொழியைப் பற்றி ஓர் ஆய்வு

3.5.1. முதல்பொருள்

நிலமும் பொழுதும் முதல் பொருள். நிலமும் பொழுதும் இல்லையென்றால் செயல்கள் இல்லை, வரலாறு இல்லை. எல்லாவற்றிற்கும் அடிப்படை நிலமும் பொழுதும் தான்.

அவற்றை time, space and action என்று கூறுவர் அறிவியலார்.

3.5.3. நிலம்

நிலத்தை குறிஞ்சி, பாலை, முல்லை, மருதம், நெய்தல் என்று ஐந்தாக பகுத்துள்ளது தொல்காப்பியம். (நடுவண் ஐந்திணை-பாலை). இந்நிலப்பகுப்பு உலகம் முழுவதற்கும் பொருந்தும்.

குறிஞ்சி- உலக மலைகள் அனைத்தும்

முல்லை-உலகக் காடுகள் அனைத்தும்

நெய்தல்- உலகக் கடற்கரைகள் அனைத்தும்

மருதம்-உலக வயல்கள் அனைத்தும்

பாலை- மணல் சார்ந்த இடங்கள் அனைத்தும்(நடுவண்-desert)

3.5.4. காலம்

காலத்தைப் பெரும்பொழுது, சிறுபொழுது எனப் பகுத்தனர்.

தமிழ் மொழியைப் பற்றி ஓர் ஆய்வு

பெரும்பொழுதுகள்: 1) கார் 2)கூதிர் 3)முன்பனி 4)பின்பனி 5) இளவேனில்
6) முதுவேனில்

சிறுபொழுதுகள்: 1)வைகறை 2)விடியல் 3)நண்பகல் 4) எற்பாடு
5)மாலை 6) யாமம்

ஒவ்வொரு சிறுபொழுதிற்கும் நான்கு மணிநேரம்- $6 \times 4 = 24$ -மணிநேரம்
தெளிவாகப் பொருந்துகிறது.

3.5.5. கருப்பொருள்

கருப்பொருட்கள்: 1) தெய்வம் 2) உணவு 3) விலங்குகள் 4) மரங்கள்
5) பறவைகள் 6) தோற்கருவிகள் 7) நரம்புக்கருவிகள் 8)தொழில்

இவை நம்மைச் சுற்றி இருப்பவை. இவை சுற்றுப்புறச் சூழல்
கல்வியை உருவாக்குகின்றன. இவை சிறப்பாக இருந்தால்தான்
வாழ்க்கை சிறப்பாக அமையும். இப்போது உலகச் சமுதாயம் இதை
உணர்கிறது. இதைக் கி.மு. வில் கூறியுள்ளது தொல்காப்பியம்.

3.5.6. உரிப்பொருள்

(செயல்பாடுகள்: வாழ்க்கையோடு தொடர்புடையன)

தமிழ் மொழியைப் பற்றி ஓர் ஆய்வு

உரிப்பொருள்: 1) புணர்தல் 2) பிரிதல் 3) இருத்தல் 4) இரங்கல் 5) ஊடல்.

இவற்றின் நிமித்தமும் உரிப்பொருளாக அமையும்.

3.5.7. புறத்திணை

புறத்திணை நாட்டு வாழ்க்கையைப் பற்றி பேசுவதுண்டு. பழங்கால போர் வாழ்க்கையைப் பற்றியது. அகத்தை, குறிஞ்சி, பாலை, முல்லை, மருதம், நெய்தல், கைக்கிளை, பெருந்திணை என ஏழாக அமைத்து புறத்துக்கு வெட்சி (கரந்தை), வஞ்சி, உழிஞை (நொச்சி) தும்பை, வாகை, பாடாண், காஞ்சி என முறையே அமைத்து அகத்தையும் புறத்தையும் தொடர்புபடுத்துகிறார் தொல்காப்பியர்.

ஒருமைப்பாடு- pattern

நாட்டு வாழ்க்கை, சமுதாய வாழ்க்கை பற்றி செய்திகள் அனைத்தும் புறத்திணையியல் உள்ளன.

3.5.8. களவியல்

பிறர் அறியாமல் செய்வது களவு.

தமிழ் மொழியைப் பற்றி ஓர் ஆய்வு

அதனோடு தொடர்புடைய நிகழ்ச்சிகள் அனைத்தையும் களவியலில் கூறுகிறார் தொல்காப்பியம்.

3.5.9. பண்புகள்

1) உலக ஆடவர் பொதுப்பண்பு

"பெருமையும் உரனும் ஆடுஉ மேன" (1044) அனைத்து ஆடவர்க்கும் பெருமையும் வலிமையும்தான் சிறப்பு.

2) உலகப் பெண்டிர்க்குரிய பண்பு

இயல்பாகப் பொருந்தும் அச்சம், நாணம், மடம் என்று மூன்றும் உலகப்பெண்டிர்க்குரிய பண்புகள். தலைவிக்கு தோழி, செவிலி போன்றோரின் துணை இவ்வியலில் கூறுகிறது. களவுக்காலம் முடிந்தவுடன் கற்புக்காலம் ஆரம்பிக்கிறது. திருமணம் ஆனவுடன் கற்பு தொடங்குகிறது.

களவு, கற்பு

தலைவிக்கு தோழி செவிலியுடைய துணை உள்ளது. களவுக் காலம் முடிந்தவுடன் கற்புக் காலம் தொடங்குகிறது.

திருமணம் ஆனவுடன் கற்புக் காலம் தொடங்குகிறது. பழங்காலத்தில் திருமண நிகழ்ச்சிகள் மிகவும் குறைவு. நிகழ்ச்சி தேவைப்பட்டது.

தமிழ் மொழியைப் பற்றி ஓர் ஆய்வு

- 1)கணவன், மனைவி வாழ்கின்ற வாழ்க்கை கற்பு வாழ்க்கை ஆகும்.
- 2)மனவேறுபாடு- ஊடல்
- 3)கல்விக்காக தலைவன் தலைவியைப் பிரிகின்ற மூன்று ஆண்டுகள் வரை பிரியலாம்

இவ்வாழ்க்கைக்குத் துணையாய் இருப்போர் 12 பேர்: 1)தோழி 2)தாய் 3)தோழன் 4)பார்ப்பான் 5) பாணன் 6)பாடினி 7) இளையர் 8) விருந்தினர் 9)கூத்தர் 10) விறலியர் 11) அறிவர் 12) கண்டோர்.

3.5.10. பொருளியல்

பொருளதிகாரத்தின் ஒழிபியல் போன்று ஏனைய (மற்ற) இயல்களில் கூறாதவற்றைப் பொருளியலில் கூறுகிறார்.

எல்லா உயிர்களும் இன்பத்தை விரும்புகிறது. இது இயற்கையின் நியதி.

பெண்பாலுக்குரிய சிறப்பான பண்புகள்:

"செறிவும், நிறையும், செம்மையும் செப்பும்,

அறிவும் அருமையும் பெண்பாலான"

இறைச்சி-பழங்கால இலக்கியத்தில் கூறப்படாத உணர்த்தப்படும் உணர்ச்சி.

இலக்கியத்தின் சிறந்த வெளியீட்டுக் கொள்கை இறைச்சி என்பதாகும்.

தமிழ் மொழியைப் பற்றி ஓர் ஆய்வு

மனைவிக்கு உயர்வு, தலைவனுக்குப் பணிவு; நுண்பொருள்கள்: கற்பு, ஏர், எழில், சாயல், நாண், வேட்கை போன்றவை.

3.5.11. மெய்ப்பாடு

உணர்ச்சிகளின் வெளியீடு மெய்ப்பாடு. உணர்ச்சிகளின் வெளியீடுகள்/மெய்ப்பாடுகள்: 1) நகை(சிரிப்பு)(மெய்ப்பாடுகள் எட்டு), 2)அழுகை (அழும் செயல்), 3)இளிவரல், 4)மருட்கை, 5)அச்சம், 6)பெருமிதம், 7) வெகுளி, 8) உவகை (மகிழ்ச்சி).

3.4. முடிவுரை

எத்திசையும் புகழ் மணக்க இருந்துவரும் தமிழ் மொழி தமிழகத்தின் தாய்மொழி. தமிழகத்தைத் தவிர ஆந்திரம், கேரளம், கர்நாடகம், பாண்டிச்சேரி, அந்தமான் தீவு, மகாராஷ்டிரம், ஒரிசா, வங்காளம், டெல்லி முதலிய மாநிலங்களிலும் தமிழ் மொழியைத் தாய் மொழியாகக் கொண்டவர்கள் குடியேறி இருக்கிறார்கள் அல்லது தங்கி இருக்கிறார்கள்.

இயல் 4:

4.0. முடிவுரை

வடவேங்கடம் தென்குமரி ஆயிடை தமிழ் கூறும் நல்லுலகம் என்று தமிழ்நாட்டின் எல்லையைக் குறிக்கின்றனர். அதனையே தமிழ் இலக்கிய வரலாற்றில் லெமூரியா கண்டம் என்பர். இவண் கூறப்பட்டுள்ள

தமிழ் மொழியைப் பற்றி ஓர் ஆய்வு

குமரிமுனையினைக் கடல் கொண்டது. உலகின் மூத்த மொழியாக விளங்குகின்ற தமிழின் பழமையை மண்தோன்றாக் காலத்தேயே தோன்றியது என்பது புறப்பொருள் வெண்பா மாலை. "வானம் அளந்ததனைத்தும் அளந்திடும் வன்மொழி" என்று பாரதியால் போற்றப்பட்ட தமிழ்மொழி மனிதன் முதன்முதலில் பேசிய பழம்பெருமொழிகளில் ஒன்றாகும்.

கற்றறிந்த புலவர்களையும், சான்றோரையும் போற்றிப் பாரட்டுவது பண்டைத் தமிழ் அரசர்களின் பணியாக இருந்தது. கற்றறிந்த புலவர்கள், அரசர்களாக, குறுநில மன்னர்களாக, பொது மக்களாக விளங்கினர். ஆண்டி முதல் அரசன் வரை, ஆண்பாற்புலவர்களோடு பெண்பாற்புலவர்களும் சிறப்புடன் வாழ்ந்தனர் என்பதை அறிகிறோம். அரசர்கள் புலவர்களைப் பெரிதும் போற்றினர் என்பதைச் சங்கப் பாடல்கள் நமக்கு உணர்த்துகின்றன.

"கதநபம எனும் ஆவைந்தெழுத்தும்
எல்லா உயிரொடும் செல்லுமார் முதலே"
"சகரக் கிளவியும் அவற்றோரற்றே
அஐஒள எனும் மூன்றங் கடையே"

தமிழ் மொழியைப் பற்றி ஓர் ஆய்வு

எனவரும் நூற்பாக்களில் 'சகரம்' மொழிக்கு முதல் வாரா என்று கூறுவதால் 'சங்கம்' என்ற சொல் தமிழ்ச் சொல் அன்று என்று கருதுகின்றனர். 'சங்கம்' என்ற சொல் இல்லையாயினும் அவைக் கழகம், கூட்டம் என்ற சொற்கள் சங்கம் என்ற பொருளில் வழங்கியிருந்தன என்பதை உணர்கிறோம்.

தமிழ் மொழியைப் பற்றி ஓர் ஆய்வு

புத்தகக் கட்டத் தளங்கள்

இயல் 1: 1) டாக்டர் ஆ. இராமகிருட்டினன்-தமிழக வரலாறும், தமிழின் பண்பாடும்-பக்கம் 7

2) சென்னை பதிப்பகம், பாரதியார் பாடல்கள், பக்கம் 47.

இயல் 2: 1) கலிங்கத்துப் பரணி- சிறைப்பட்ட பெண்களின் பக்கம், பாண்டியர் பக்கம், சென்னை பதிப்பகம்.

2) 21st Century Science, பக்கம் 94, பத்தி 1- Cambridge CIE Book

இயல் 3: 1) en.m.wikipedia.org/wikipedia-Tholkappiyam

2) நல்ல தமிழ் எழுத வேண்டுமா? அ.கி.பரந்தாமனார்-எம்.ஏ.