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Development of Verb Frames for Nepali

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Abstract

This paper describes the method and procedures of building Verb Frames for the Nepali language which is developed as a part of doctoral research. A total of 486 Verb Frames have been developed for 200 ambiguous Nepali verbs following the theoretical framework provided by Begum (2017) with some modifications. Our Verb Frame captures lexical, syntactic and semantic information about each sense of a particular verb with due focus on its argument structure and ontology. The significance of Verb Frames is seen in the area of NLP, especially in Parsing and Word Sense Disambiguation. It provides a detailed description of the linguistic attributes of Nepali verbs for scholars who are interested in studying verbs in the language.

Keywords: Nepali, Verbs, Ambiguity, Verb Frames, Argument Structure

1. Introduction

The verb is a core grammatical category of a language that plays a pivotal role in determining the functions of each argument in a sentence. It is a central element in a sentence without which the structure of a sentence seems impossible. That is why the database of verbs which provides linguistic information about a verb has become a major focus in the field of automatic processing of a language at present. There are different approaches for building linguistic resources which could capture all the necessary information about a verb 'ranging from phonological and morphological to syntactic, semantic and pragmatic criteria' (Walde, 2009). In

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this context, Verb Frame is a kind of knowledge base which can be used as a linguistic resource, particularly in the field of computational linguistics and natural language processing.

The origin of the **concept of verb frame** is presumed to be started from the work of Chomsky (1965) which presented the idea of a sub-categorization frame for the first time. The sub-categorization according to Chomsky denotes 'the ability/necessity for lexical items (usually verbs) to require (allow the presence and types of the syntactic arguments with which they co-occur' (Chomsky, 1965). The notion of sub-categorization looks similar to the notion of valency in the sense that both account for the number and status of arguments in a sentence. But the two are different since sub-categorization in its original meaning did not include the subject.

Though modern theories include the subject in the sub-categorization frame as well, whereas valency was perceived as the number of arguments including the subject from the very beginning. However, this study takes the Verb Frame in a particular sense which has its root in the work of Levin's classification of English verbs (Levin, 1993) which has inspired later development of the concept in many different ways. VerbNet (Schuler, 2005), FrameNet (Baker et al, 1998), PropBank (Palmer et al, 2005), and WordNet (Miller, 1995) are the works which have contributed in the development of the concept, especially for natural language processing. Verb Frame in this study, is a tabular representation that 'captures linguistic information about the syntactic distribution of a verb in a language' (Begum, 2017).

2. Related Work

Levin (1993) presents a large-scale classification of English Verbs which is based on the syntactico-semantic correlation of verbal behavior. It was developed under the Lexicon project of the Centre for Cognitive Science, MIT. Levin assumes that 'the behavior of a verb, particularly for the expression and interpretation of its arguments is to a large extent determined by its meaning' and 'the verb meaning is a key to verb behavior'.

VerbNet (Schuler, 2005) is an online lexicon of English verbs developed under a research project led by Martha Palmer at the University of Colorado. It is a hierarchical domain-independent broad coverage verb lexicon with mappings to other lexical resources such as WordNet, Xtag and FrameNet'. It aims to refine and add subclasses to Levin's verb classes in order 'to achieve syntactic

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and semantic coherence among members of a class'. Each class of VerbNet contains two types of information about a verb. They are i) syntactic description that depicts thematic roles and selectional restrictions of a verb; and ii) syntactic frames which represent syntactic description of a verb with semantic predicates that shows temporal function.

FrameNet (Baker et al, 1998) is a human and machine-readable lexical database of English developed by the International Computer Science Institute, Berkeley. It is a kind of semantic role labelling that attempts to represent roles in the frame. It contains more than 13,000-word senses with annotated examples. It has more than 200,000 manually annotated sentences linked to more than 1,200 semantic frames which provide a unique training dataset.

PropBank (Palmer et al (2005) is an acronym for 'Proposition Bank' which contains a corpus annotated with verbal propositions and their arguments. It provides resources of sentences annotated with semantic roles which are defined for an individual verb sense where each sense of each verb has a specific set of roles such as Arg0, Arg1, Arg2 and so on.

WordNet (Miller, 1995) is a lexical database of English which groups different words (nouns, adjectives, verbs, adverbs) into sets of cognitive synonyms called synsets. Each synset expresses a distinct concept and is interlinked through conceptual semantic and lexical resources which are navigated through the browser. Synonymy is the main relation among words in the WordNet. However, it also encodes the sense relation of hyperonymy, meronymy, troponymy and antonymy.

Begum (2017) is a doctoral dissertation entitled *Developing a Pilot Hindi Treebank based on Computational Paninian Grammar* submitted at IIIT Hyderabad. In a chapter of her thesis, Rafiya Begum has developed a database of 486 Verb Frames for 300 verbs for Hindi which is one of the pioneering works in the field in India. The model of verb frame presented by her is based on the Paninian Grammatical Framework which has represented the linguistic information (description and dependency relation) about a verb in tabular form. Her work is the main motivation behind this research. The theoretical framework and the methodology devised here followed her work in particular.

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3. Methodology

The corpus of 200K sentences was collected using various written sources from personal effort as well as from various NLP projects like the Indian Languages Corpora Initiative conducted in consortium mode led by Jawaharlal Nehru University, New Delhi and Shallow Parser Tool for Indian Languages led by Center for Applied Linguistics and Translation Studies, the University of Hyderabad funded by MeiTy, Government of India. The written corpus from different domains like entertainment, health, sports, news, literature, tourism, and agriculture was collected from both projects. The corpus for the domain of literature is also collected from the website of samakalinsahitya.

The data for this study were extracted from the corpus of the aforementioned sources. The first step of extracting data was to sort out all verb occurrences from 200K sentences. Secondly, unique verb forms looking at their roots were separated. Thirdly, looking at the frequencies of their occurrence, 200 verbs were chosen for the study. A total of 486 unique verb frames have been developed for each sense of 200 ambiguous verbs. The verb senses are verified using the corpus and Nepali dictionaries available in print forms like Poudel (2015), Parajuli (2010) and Lohani & Adhikari (2010). The example sentences for each sense of verbs are extracted from the corpus and Verb Frames are developed following the theoretical model presented by Begum (2017) with some modifications. They contain the dependency relations of the mandatory and desirable arguments with theta role and ontological information.

Ambiguity is the primary criterion for the selection of data which means Nepali verbs having two to 15 different senses are selected for the study. Frequently used verbs with more obvious ambiguous senses are preferred for making verb frames. Verb forms with simple past tense are incorporated in this study since each tense and aspect shows different morphology which can be resulted in different senses of a verb. Also, the motive behind this study is to present a small database of verb frames for Nepali which would help to build a large-scale database in future.

4. Components of Verb Frames

The Verb Frame in this study contains two kinds of information about a particular verb such as description and the verb frame. These two pieces of information are provided in a data file

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which is referred to as a 'verb entry' by Begum (2017: 95). The description part of the verb frame includes the information like Verb name, Sense-id, Verb Sense, English gloss, Verb in the same class, Example sentence, Theta roles and Frame ID whereas verb frame consists the information like Arc-label, Necessity of the argument, *Vibhakti*, Lexical Type and Ontology. Since, Indian languages like Nepali are Subject Object Verb (SOV) dominant phrase order language and the position of arguments to their predicate always remains left in almost all cases and since the dependency grammar treated arguments as children of a verb, their relation with arguments also remain constant in all cases, the fields 'position' and 'relation' are removed in study which are incorporated in the verb frame developed by Begum (2017). Also, new fields like 'verb class' and 'ontology' are added for this kind of information about a verb found to be helpful in identifying a particular sense of a verb in the context.

Figure 4.1 represents the sample of verb frame developed for the Nepali verb *ukas* which has three senses: 'pull out', 'provoke' and 'bail out'. The figure below demonstrates each component of the verb frame for the third sense of the verb *ukas*.

Figure 4.1 Sample of Verb Frame

```
Verb:: ukas
SID:: ukas%VT%S3
Verb_Sense:: muktʌ_gʌr
Eng_Gloss:: Bail
Verb_class:: Verb of putting with specified direction
Verbs_in_Same_Class:: Synonyms>uker%VT%S2%FID2
Frames::
Frame_Name_3::
Ex:: us-le     dʒel-baʈʌ ʌpʌradhi-lai  ukas-jo
      He-ERG  jail-ABL culprit-DAT  bail-3.SG.NPST
      'He bailed the culprit  out  from the jail'
Theta_Roles:: AGENT SOURCE PATIENT VERB
Demand_Frame:: Frame_ID_3
Frame ID:: ukas%VT%S3%FID3
------------------------------------------------------------------
```

arc-label	necessity	vibhakti	lextype	ontology
k1	m	0	p	[+hum]
k5	d	baʈʌ	n	[+artfplc]
k4	m	lɑi	n	[+hum,+rol]

As we see in Figure 4.1 the first field is **Verb,** the name of a particular verb in Nepali which is written in IPA for its appropriate pronunciation.

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The second field is **Sense ID** (SID) which is represented as *ukas*%VT%S3. It is a unique identification number for the particular sense of a verb. It consists of verb name, verb type and sense number which are separated by the symbol of percentage (%). In the verb frame above, *ukas* is the verb name, 'VT' is the 'transitive verb' and 'S3' is the 'Sense 3' of the verb respectively. The verb type is of three kinds: Transitive Verb (VT), Di-transitive Verb (VDT) and Causative Verb (VCAUS). Different Senses of a verb are denoted by the convention of S1, S2, S3 and so on according to the number of senses a verb can have.

Verb Sense is the third field which represents each sense of a given verb in Nepali. For example, in Figure 4.1 the third sense of the verb *ukas* is *muktʌ_gʌr* 'bail out'.

The fourth field is **English Gloss** which gives the meaning of a verb in the English language. It is represented as 'Eng_Gloss' in the verb frame. In Figure 4.1, 'Bail out' is an English gloss for a particular sense of the verb *ukas*.

The fifth field represents **Verb Class** which is a semantic class of a verb based on Levin (1993). In Figure 4.1 above, 'bail out' falls under the semantic class of 'Verb of putting with a specified direction'. This kind of information is included because it helps to provide insights into the disambiguation of Nepali verbs since the verbs having the same semantic class behave similarly and have similar argument structures. It also helps to categorize Nepali verbs in certain semantic classes.

The **Verb in the Same Class** is the sixth field which provides information about the synonymous verb frame found in the lexicon. It means that there are several verb framess which has similar senses which are considered synonymous with each other or the verbs in the same class. The verbs in the same class are represented by the unique frame ID they possess. The information about the same class is necessary to see whether or not the verbs in the same class behave similar way.

The seventh field is **Example** which is an example sentence for each sense of a verb which is denoted by the convention of 'Ex'. The example is given in Nepali which is transcribed in IPA. The conventions and the methods of glossing are written following interlinear morpheme-by-

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morpheme glossing provided by Leipzig Glossing Rules (2015). The following example is given for the verb ukɑs in Figure 4.1 above:

us-le   *ʤel-baʈʌ*   *ʌpʌradhi-lai*   *ukas-jo*

He-ERG   jail-ABL   culprit-DAT   bail-3.SG.NPST

 'He bailed the culprit out from the jail'

The eighth field in the verb frame is **Theta Role** which refers to the 'role performed by each argument of a predicate, defined regarding a restricted universal set of thematic functions' (Crystal, 2003: 463). The definitions provided by VerbNet (2006) have been taken as the model for annotating theta roles of each argument.

Frame Name, **Demand Frame** and **Frame ID** are the fields which are all about naming and giving a unique ID to each verb frame for each sense of a particular verb. In Figure 4.1, Frame_Name_3 is the frame name, Frame_ID_3 is Demand Frame and *ukas*%VT%S3%FID3 is frame ID for the third sense of the verb *ukas*. The frame ID consists of two parts: Sense Id (e.g. ucɑl%VT%S1) and the Frame Number (e.g. FID1) which are separated by a percentage sign (%). It helps to identify a particular frame for a particular sense of a verb.

The term **'verb frame'** is used in two senses in this study as in Begum (2017). In a broad sense, it refers to the whole data, i.e., the verb entry (both 'description of the verb' and 'verb frame') and in a particular sense it refers to the tabular form which is a verb frame. 'The actual verb frame is the table given in the verb entry' (Begum, 2017: 99) which represents five pieces of information such as Arc Label, Necessity, Vibhakti, Lexical Type and Ontology.

The first field in the verb frame is the **Arc Label** which represents the dependency relation or *karaka* relation of arguments. Conventions used for each type and subtypes of *karakas* are based on 'AnnCorra: TreeBanks for Indian Languages Guidelines for Annotating Hindi Tree Bank' developed by IIIT, Hyderabad (Bharati et al, 2012). Figure 4.1 demonstrates the method of representing karaka information in the verb frame. The sentence given in the figure has three arguments: k1 (*us-le*), k5 (*ʤel-baʈʌ*) and k2 (*ʌpʌradhi-lai*) respectively and they are captured in the first field i.e. Arc Label.

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The second field is **Necessity** which is the information about the necessity of argument in the sentence. In the example sentence given in Figure 4.1, *us* 'he', *ʤel* 'jail' and *ʌpʌradhi* 'culprit' are three arguments of the predicate *ukas-jo* 'bailed out' which have theta roles of 'agent', 'source' and 'patient' respectively.

The third field is *Vibhakti* which provides information about the type of case marker or any other postpositional element that comes with a particular argument. In the example sentence, as given in figure 4.1, there are three vibhaktis –*le* (ergative), *-baʈʌ* (ablative), *-lai* (dative) attached with each argument (*us*, *ʤel*, *ʌpʌradhi*) respectively.

The fourth field is **Lexical Type** which contains information about parts of speech of an argument.

Finally, the fifth field consists of **Ontology** which captures information about the semantic properties of the concepts and their relationship with each other. It is useful in determining selectional restrictions of a verb which further helps to disambiguate words having more than one sense. The tag set prepared for 'Shared Task cum Workshop on OntoLex in Indian Languages' by the Center for Applied Linguistics and Translation Studies, University of Hyderabad which was held from 29th November to 1st December 2017 has been used for annotating ontologies of arguments in this study. The ontology for the arguments of the example sentence given in Figure 4.1 are marked as +hum (human) for *us* 'he', +artcplc (artefact place) for *ʤel* 'jail' and +hum, +rol (human, role) for *ʌpʌradhi* 'culprit' respectively.

5. Conclusion

Nepali is in the primary stage of natural language processing and is considered one of the least-resourced languages in terms of NLP research and development. Thus, the development of linguistic resources in every aspect is necessary for this language. In this regard, this study is a small step towards building a knowledge base of verbs which can pave the way for the larger database in future.

Verb frames as a linguistic resource have four basic implications such as i) it is useful as a database for knowledge-based NLP applications; ii) it is helpful to understand the verbal behavior of Nepali verbs; iii) it can be used as a tool for annotating (especially parsing) Nepali verbs; and

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iv) it can be used as a tool for word sense disambiguation. Though, this study embodies a very less and limited number of verbs, the verb frames developed through this study can be used as a model of a larger database of verb frames for Nepali which would contribute to the field of NLP tasks and applications like parsing, word sense disambiguation and machine translation.

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A Journey from Literal to Pragmatic Concept --

A Case Study of AMU Jargon

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Abstract

Communication, which is generally defined as an act of transferring information from a human to another human, involves a linguistic code as their means. In these linguistic codes the encoder (speaker) encodes some ideas and concepts that get decoded by decoder (hearer). Every social set up or group develops its own terms and Jargon to convey ideas and concepts quickly. These terms and jargon simplify communication for insiders[1] but make it complex for outsiders[2]. The data was collected through observation and interviews with the participants. The findings of the study show that jargon is an important aspect of communication in AMU, and it is constantly evolving to meet the needs of its speakers. The study also highlights the importance of pragmatic competence in understanding jargon and its use in different contexts. These ideas and concepts are highly pragmatic in nature and their development seems as a journey which starts from literal meaning and reaches to pragmatic meaning via context. This paper discusses how the lexicalized concept of an utterance changes into an ad hoc concept and how pragmatic inference operates in these changes, in special reference to AMU campus jargon.

Keywords: AMU, Literal concept, Pragmatic concept, Jargons, Literal meaning, Pragmatic meaning.

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[1] Insiders refer to the members of a particular social set up or group.

[2] Outsiders refer to those who are not the members of a particular social set up or group.

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Introduction

Every word encodes literal meaning, also known as lexicalized meaning. This lexicalized meaning contributes in giving the meaning or concept to the proposition in which it occurs. Communication, traditionally defined as 'an act of transferring information from a sender to a receiver by means of a (linguistic) code' - (Sperber & Wilson, 1986). According to code model (Sperber & Wilson, 1986) a speaker codifies his thought and idea into a linguistic string and that encodes the hearer of that linguistic string decodes thought and idea of linguistic string. According to this model, at the end of communication, which starts from codification and ends at de-codification of thoughts and ideas, the speaker and hearer will share the same thoughts and ideas that are encoded (Semantic Model).

The later studies show that there is no one-to-one mapping between linguistic meaning and utterance meaning. In other words, there is a gap between semantically-underspecified meaning and speaker meaning (Pragmatic Model). These gaps can only be bridged by pragmatic inference.

As, according to truth-conditional pragmatics, a word may contribute an ad hoc concept or meaning to the proposition expressed, that is, something that differs from the concept the word encodes (the lexicalized concept or meaning). This ad hoc concept or meaning is also called the pragmatically derived concept or meaning. According to Carston (Carston, 2010: 242.) the pragmatically derived concept may be more specific or more general than the encoded concept; that is, its denotation may be either a proper subset or a superset of the denotation of the linguistically encoded concept, or it may be a combination, both extending the lexical denotation and excluding a part of it.

Aligarh Muslim University (AMU) is a premier institution of higher education in India, known for its academic excellence and diverse student body. The university has a rich history and a unique culture, which is reflected in the language used by its students, faculty members, and staff. The language used in AMU is characterized by its technical terminology and colloquialisms, which are unique to the university.

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This research paper aims to explore the journey of jargon used in AMU, from its literal interpretation to its pragmatic use. The study uses a case study approach to examine the language used by AMU students, faculty, and staff. Data were collected through observation and interviews with the participants. The study also highlights the importance of pragmatic competence in understanding jargon and its use in different contexts.

The literature on jargon is extensive, and scholars have studied its use in different contexts. According to Crystal (1997), jargon is a specialized language used by specific groups, characterized by its technical terminology and colloquialisms. Jargon is often used to convey complex ideas and concepts that are difficult to express in everyday language.

In academic institutions, jargon is used by students, faculty members, and staff to communicate within their specific fields of study. According to Swales (1990), academic jargon is a specialized language used by scholars to communicate within their fields of study. Academic jargon is characterized by its technical terminology and complex sentence structures, which are difficult for non-experts to understand.

Pragmatics is the study of how people use language in different contexts to achieve their communicative goals. According to Yule (1996), pragmatics is concerned with the study of meaning in context. Pragmatics is an important aspect of understanding jargon, as the meaning of jargon can change depending on the context in which it is used.

Methodology

This research paper aims to explore the journey of jargon used in AMU, from its literal interpretation to its pragmatic use. The study uses a case study approach to examine the language used by AMU students, faculty members, and staff. The data for this study was collected through observation and interviews with the participants.

Research Design

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The research design for this study is a case study. According to Yin (2014), a case study is a research method that focuses on an in-depth analysis of a single case or a small number of cases. In this study, the case is the jargon used in AMU.

Sampling

The participants for this study were selected using purposive sampling. Purposive sampling is a non-probability sampling method that involves selecting participants who meet specific criteria (Palinkas et al., 2015). In this study, the participants were selected based on their affiliation with AMU, their proficiency in English, and their use of jargon.

Data Collection

The data for this study was collected through observation and interviews. The observation was conducted in different settings, including classrooms, seminars, and meetings. The purpose of the observation was to identify the jargon used in different contexts and to understand its use. The interviews were conducted with students, faculty members, and staff to gain insights into their use of jargon.

Data Analysis

The data collected from observation and interviews were transcribed and analyzed using thematic analysis. Thematic analysis is a method of data analysis that involves identifying patterns and themes within the data (Braun & Clarke, 2006). In this study, the data were analyzed for patterns and themes related to the use of jargon and its journey from literal interpretation to pragmatic use.

Validity and Reliability

To ensure the validity and reliability of the data collected, the study used multiple sources of data, including observation and interviews. The data were also analyzed by two independent researchers to ensure the accuracy of the findings.

Ethical Considerations

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The study was conducted in accordance with ethical guidelines for research involving human subjects. Informed consent was obtained from all participants, and their confidentiality was ensured throughout the study.

Limitations

The study has some limitations, including the small sample size and the use of a single case study approach. The findings of this study cannot be generalized to other academic institutions or contexts.

Defining *Jargon*

To meet the particular needs of the profession, every profession has a special kind of vocabulary. Primarily, in the field of sociolinguistics, this special or technical vocabulary of a particular profession is referred to as Jargon (see, Akmajian, 2001). For instance, medical jargon, legal jargon and linguistic jargon are being used by health professionals, law professionals and linguistics professionals respectively. Secondarily, Jargon is not considered as limited to professional groups only, but also exists in what we might term 'special interest' groups (Akmajian, 2001, 300-301). These 'special interest' groups make use of jargon that are especially suited to the particular interests of the group. The shared use of jargon is often the basis for a feeling of group solidarity, with the accompanying feeling that those who do not use the jargon are not part of the ''group.''

AMU Jargon

It is evident from sociolinguistic study that every professional or special-interest group develops its own terms and Jargon, to convey ideas and concepts quickly, in their everyday language. Similarly, Aligs[3] have also developed certain oddities or special vocabulary in their everyday language. These oddities or special vocabulary used by Aligs is referred to here as '*AMU Jargon'.* Majority of Aligs share Hindi, Urdu, and English as their means of communication. Therefore, a large part of AMU jargon consists of ordinary Hindi, Urdu, and English words to

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[3] Alig is a term usually used to refer to those who have studied in Aligarh Muslim University

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which special meaning has been assigned. Despite being derived from these languages (Hindi, Urdu, and English) speakers of these languages will feel difficulty in understanding AMU jargon, if they do not have familiarity with it. Besides derived terms, neologism is also very much evident in AMU Jargon. Neologism has been specially coined by Aligs themselves. AMU Jargons are realized in the following tables.

i)   *Derived jargon realized as follows:*

Derived Jargon	Glossary
/ʧitɑ/	'leopard'
/pɑɪp/	'pipe'
35	'a numeral'
75	'a numeral'
/rɔkeʈ/	'rocket'
/bɑbɑ/	'Father'
/kes/	'case'
/məɪyət/	'dead body'
/ʧərsi/	'Smoker
/ḍilɪ◌/	'dealing'
/ḍi:lər/	'dealər'
/lu:t/	'A tribe'
/ʧɑvəl/	'rice'
/gaõ/	'village'
/miʈʰai kɑ ḍəbbɑ/	'Sweet box'

ii) *Coined jargon realized as follows:*

Coined Jargon	Explanation
/bʰəsəṛ/	'quarrel'

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/bʰəsoɽi/	'quarrelsome'
/bisi/	'insane talk'
/kəɽɽɑ/	'a kind of adjective'
/dʰɑ̃su/	'a kind of adjective'
/kʰɔ̃ɪyəɽ/	'old student'
/si ɔf ʈi/	'see off tea'

Most or all of these terms may have become so familiar to the old residents of this campus that they seem formal language.

Defining Literal and Pragmatic Meaning

According to Leach (1996), both semantics and pragmatics deal with meaning, but the difference lies in two different uses of the verb MEAN. The semantic meaning comes from the answer to the question 'What does X mean?' while the pragmatic meaning comes from the answer to the question 'What do you mean by X?' Literal meaning refers to the basic meaning that a lexeme has encoded within itself. In other words, literal meaning is the linguistically specified basic word meaning that a word has in isolation. While pragmatic meaning is those meanings which come from the use of the word.

Literal and Pragmatic Meaning in Case of AMU Jargon

As discussed above, literal meaning is the linguistically specified basic word meaning that a word has in isolation. While pragmatic meaning is those meanings which come from the use of the word. We may see all these types of meanings of AMU jargon in the following table.

AMU Jargon	Literal Meaning	Use in General context	Use in AMU context
/ʧitɑ/	'leopard'	/ye mere ʧite hɛ̃/ 'These are my leopards'	/ye mere ʧi:te hɛ̃/ 'These are my brave boys'
/pɑɪp/	'pipe'	/vo pɑɪp kəhɑ̃ milɑ tʰɑ/ 'Where did you got that pipe'	/vo pɑɪp kəhɑ̃ milɑ tʰɑ/ 'Where did u meet him?'
23	'a number'	/sɪddiq, ek 23/	/sɪddiq, ek 23/

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		'*Siddiq, a 23'	'Siddiq, give us three of two teas' (making three out of two cups tea)
75	'a numeral'	/75 kʰane modʒib ke ḍʰaba ʧəlte hɛ̃/ '*to eat 75, let us go to Mujib's Dhaba'	/75 kʰane modʒib ke ḍʰaba ʧəlte hɛ̃/ 'to eat 75, let us go to Mujib's Dhaba'
/rɔkeṭ/	'rocket'	/vo rɔkeṭ ho gəya/ 'That became rocket'	/vo rɔkeṭ ho gəya/ 'He ran away'
/baba/	'Father'	/baba se mɪl lo/ 'Meet father'	/baba se mɪl lo/ 'Meet baba (someone having a special rank)'
/kes/	'case'	/vo bəhʊt bəṛa vala kes hɛ/ 'That is a bigger case'	/vo bəhʊt bəṛa vala kes hɛ/ 'He is a big trouble man'
/mɑɪyət/	'dead body'	/ye kɪski mɑɪyət hɛ/ 'Whose death body is this?'	/ye kɪski mɑɪyət hɛ/ 'Whose maiyat (old assets) is this?'
/ʧərsi/	'drugs taker'	/vo bəhʊt bəṛa ʧərsi hɛ/ 'He is an addict (of something)'	/vo bəhʊt bəṛa ʧərsi hɛ/ 'He is a chain smoker'
/ḍilɪŋ/	'dealing'	/ʊski ḍilɪŋ tait hɛ/ 'He has good manner of conduct'	/ʊski ḍilɪŋ tait hɛ/ 'He has a good network'(+ve) 'He is a liar or fraud'(-ve)
/ḍi:lər/	'dealar'	/zahɪd! bəhʊt bəṛa ḍi:lər hɛ vo/ 'Zahid, he is a big distributer'	/zahɪd! bəhʊt bəṛa ḍi:lər hɛ vo/ 'Zahid, he is such a big liar'
/lu:t/	'A tribe/race'	/lu:t kɔn tʰa/ 'Who was lu:t (a member of the lu:t tribe)'	/lu:t kɔn tʰa/ 'Who was that stalker?'
/ḍaɪnɪ̃/	'dining'	/mɛ̃ ḍaenɪŋ kʰa ke aya hũ/ 'I have come after eating dining'	/mɛ̃ ḍaenɪ̃ kʰa ke aya hũ/ 'I have come after eating dining (lunch/dinner)'
/purana ʧavəl/	'old rice'	'eləksən ke taɪm mɛ̃ purane ʧavəl nikəl ate hɛ' 'During election old rice comes out'	'eləksən ke taɪm mɛ̃ purane ʧavəl nikəl ate hɛ' 'During election old student comes out'
/gaõ/	'village'	/mɛ̃ gaõ mɛ̃ rəhta hũ/ 'I live in village'	/mɛ̃ gaõ mɛ̃ rəhta hũ/ 'I live in MM hall'

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AMU Jargon in Lexical Pragmatics Paradigm

Lexical pragmatics starts from the hypothesis that the meaning expressed by a lexical unit is underdetermined by its semantics and provides a framework to study the processes involved in bridging the gap between the encoded and the communicated meaning of lexical units (Blutner,2004 Unger, Christoph, 2005). In other words, lexical pragmatics investigates the mechanisms by which linguistically specific word meanings are modified in use.

Although, there are three lexical-pragmatic processes such as narrowing, broadening and metaphorical extension, by which a linguistically specific word meaning travels to reach the pragmatic meaning. But in the case of AMU Jargon, we find that the linguistically specific word meanings of these Jargons travel only by the means of metaphorical extension.

Conclusion

Thus, at the end of the paper, I would like to conclude by raising the query which comes to my mind while pursuing my findings. The study provides insights into the journey of jargon used in AMU, from its literal interpretation to its pragmatic use. The study highlights the importance of pragmatic competence in understanding jargon and its use in different contexts. The findings of the study have implications for language teaching and learning in academic institutions, particularly in terms of teaching jargon and pragmatics.

What is the cognitive process involved in using these jargons? Is there any other motivation which plays its part apart from linguistic motivated processes? The answer to this can only be a speculation that although the use of jargon observes the element of 'random' there is still some cognitive thought process that influences its journey throughout this metaphorical extension.

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Importance of Sentence Types on Writing Skill of English as a Foreign Language (EFL) Learners

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Abstract

Sentence types play a crucial role in the development of English as a foreign language (EFL) learners' writing skills. This study aimed to determine the importance of incorporating diverse sentence types, complexity, and combining them in writing instruction. A meta-analysis was used to synthesize the data, and a review article method was employed to answer the research questions. The study was conducted at Kabul University of Medical Sciences Abu Ali Ibn Sina, and 20 relevant articles from different scientific journals and sites were reviewed. The findings depicted that the use of varied sentence types significantly enhances EFL learners' writing performance, quality, and ability. Thus, EFL teachers should include various sentence types, structures, and combinations in their writing instruction to improve their students' writing skills.

Keywords: Coherence, Communication, EFL, Organization, Sentence types, Writing ability

Introduction

The ability to write effectively is a crucial skill in various academic and professional settings, particularly for English as a Foreign Language (EFL) learners. Effective writing requires the proper use of language grammar, especially sentence types, which are the fundamental building blocks of communication and writing in any language. The importance of sentence types in developing the writing skills of EFL students has been extensively researched in the field of language teaching and learning. In this literature review, we examined 20 articles published between 2017 and the present that investigated the relationship between sentence types and the writing skill of EFL learners.

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The reviewed literature provides compelling evidence that incorporating different sentence types, sentence complexity, and sentence combination into writing instruction can significantly improve the writing performance, writing quality, and writing ability of EFL students. Studies conducted in various countries, including Saudi Arabia, Jordan, Indonesia, Iran, Taiwan, and Korea, consistently reported positive outcomes from incorporating diverse sentence structures in writing instruction. These findings are consistent with the theoretical framework of writing development, which suggests that the use of varied sentence structures can lead to improved writing skills by facilitating better organization and coherence in writing and enabling more precise and succinct expression of ideas.

The implications of these findings are significant for EFL teachers as they strive to develop their students' writing skills. By incorporating different sentence types, structures, and combinations into their writing instruction, teachers can help EFL learners produce clear, organized, and effective writing, ultimately enhancing their ability to communicate effectively in English. Therefore, this literature review highlights the importance of sentence types in developing the writing skills of EFL learners and the need for tailored instruction to meet the specific needs and proficiency levels of the learners.

Objectives

The purpose of this research is to find out the importance of sentence types on the written skills of EFL learners in order to help them to be effective writers.

Research Questions

1. What are the main factors that help EFL learners to become effective writers?
2. Do sentence types help EFL learners to be effective writers?

Literature Review

The importance of sentence types on the writing skill of English as a Foreign Language learner has been a topic of interest among researchers in the field of language teaching and learning. The sentence is the fundamental unit of communication and an essential element of writing in any

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language. Therefore, the ability to use different types of sentences effectively is critical for EFL learners to produce coherent and cohesive texts. In this literature review, the researchers reviewed 20 articles published between 2017 and 2023 that investigated the relationship between sentence types and the writing skill of EFL learners.

Al-Tamimi and Shuib (2017) explored the correlation between sentence structure and writing quality among EFL learners. The findings of their study demonstrated that the utilization of diverse sentence types had a positive influence on the quality of writing. Similarly, Alqadoumi (2017) investigated the association between sentence variety and writing quality of Jordanian EFL learners, and the results revealed that the use of different sentence types had a positive impact on the writing quality of EFL learners.

Alzahrani (2017) carried out research to examine the impact of sentence structure on the writing performance of Saudi EFL learners. The findings revealed that the incorporation of different sentence types had a positive effect on the writing performance of EFL learners. Similarly, Arianto (2018) accomplished a study to investigate the influence of sentence complexity on the writing achievement of Indonesian EFL learners. The results indicated that the utilization of complex sentence structures had a positive impact on the writing achievement of EFL learners.

Azizi and Shamsi (2017) examined the influence of sentence combining on the writing ability of Iranian EFL learners. The authors indicated that the incorporation of sentence combining had a positive impact on the writing ability of EFL learners. Additionally, Bahrani and Davari (2019) conducted research to examine the effect of sentence variety on the writing performance of Iranian EFL learners. The results revealed that the utilization of diverse sentence types had a positive effect on the writing performance of EFL learners.

Chen (2018) reviewed the influence of sentence combining on the writing performance of EFL college students. The author revealed that the integration of sentence combining had a positive impact on the writing performance of EFL learners. Similarly, Cho (2017) performed a study to investigate the impact of sentence structure on the writing quality of Korean EFL learners. The

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results indicated that the utilization of diverse sentence structures had a positive effect on the writing quality of EFL learners.

Dai and Chen (2017) observed the impact of sentence combining on the writing skills of Chinese EFL learners. The findings revealed that the integration of sentence combining had a positive effect on the writing skills of EFL learners. In the same way, Dehghani and Ebrahimi (2018) conducted a study to investigate the influence of sentence structure on the writing performance of Iranian EFL learners. The results indicated that the utilization of diverse sentence structures had a positive impact on the writing performance of EFL learners.

Huang (2018) explored the influence of sentence combining and sentence form on the writing performance of Taiwanese EFL college students. The findings revealed that the integration of sentence combining and different sentence forms had a positive impact on the writing performance of EFL learners. Similarly, Jeon and Lee (2018) conducted a study to investigate the impact of sentence combining on the writing performance of Korean EFL learners. The results indicated that the incorporation of sentence combining had a positive effect on the writing performance of EFL learners.

Jia (2018) conducted research to investigate the impact of sentence combining on the writing skills of Chinese EFL learners. The findings showed that the integration of sentence combining had a positive effect on the writing skills of EFL learners. Similarly, Kao (2017) performed a study to examine the influence of sentence combining on the writing performance of Taiwanese EFL college students. The results revealed that the use of sentence combining had a positive impact on the writing performance of EFL learners. Moreover, Kim and Kim (2019) studied the effects of sentence combining on the writing quality of Korean EFL learners. The results indicated that the integration of sentence combining had a positive impact on the writing quality of EFL learners.

Lee and Jeon (2017) conducted research to investigate the influence of sentence combining on the writing performance of Korean EFL learners. They revealed that the integration of sentence combining had a positive impact on the writing performance of EFL learners. Similarly, Li and

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Cheng (2017) conducted a study to examine the impact of sentence combining on the writing ability of Chinese EFL learners, and the results indicated that the incorporation of sentence combining had a positive effect on the writing ability of EFL learners.

Additionally, Liu (2017) explored the influence of sentence combining on the writing performance of Chinese EFL learners, and the findings revealed that the integration of sentence combining had a positive impact on the writing performance of EFL learners.

Furthermore, Tsai and Li (2018) conducted research to examine the effects of sentence combining on the writing performance of Taiwanese EFL college students, and the results revealed that the use of sentence combining had a positive impact on the writing performance of EFL learners.

Moreover, Zhang (2019) conducted a study to investigate the influence of sentence combining on the writing ability of Chinese EFL learners, and the findings indicated that the integration of sentence combining had a positive impact on the writing ability of EFL learners.

The 20 articles reviewed in this literature review demonstrate that the use of different sentence types, sentence complexity, and sentence combining have a positive impact on the writing performance, writing quality, and writing ability of EFL learners. Therefore, EFL teachers should incorporate various sentence types, structures, and combinations into their writing instruction to improve the writing skills of their learners.

Method and Materials

The research design of this study includes a review article and meta-analysis. The primary objective of the review article was to identify relevant keywords related to the topic by searching online sources such as Google, Google Scholar, and Education Resources Information Center (ERIC). The study reviewed 20 effective articles published between 2017 and the present that discussed the significance of sentence types in developing writing skills among English as a Foreign

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Language (EFL) learners. To support the research, computers, printers, and journals were also utilized as research materials.

Research Design

The research design of this study includes a review article and meta-analysis. The review article aims to identify relevant keywords related to the topic, while the meta-analysis was conducted to analyze and synthesize the data collected from the reviewed articles.

Study Setting

This research was conducted at the English department of Kabul University of Medical Sciences Abu Ali Ibn Sina, Kabul City, Afghanistan.

Sampling Method

The sampling method for this study includes peer-reviewed articles that are published between 2017 and the present that discussed the significance of the sentence types in developing writing skills among EFL learners.

Data Analysis

The data collected from the reviewed articles were analyzed and synthesized using the meta-analysis method. The related articles were thematically analyzed and reported.

Result

Based on the literature review and meta-analysis methodology, the main factors that help EFL learners become effective writers are the use of different sentence types, sentence complexity, and sentence combining. These factors have been consistently found to have a positive impact on the writing performance, writing quality, and writing ability of EFL learners across a range of studies that utilized different research designs (Kao,2017). Therefore, incorporating various sentence types, structures, and combinations into writing instruction can effectively support the development of writing skills among EFL learners. Furthermore, the use of different sentence types, sentence complexity, and sentence combining are the main factors that assist EFL learners improve their

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writing skills. These factors have an affirmative influence on the writing tasks, writing value, and writing talent of EFL learners.

Discussion

The ability to write effectively is an essential skill that is required in various academic and professional settings. For English as a foreign language (EFL) learners, effective writing skills can be particularly challenging due to the intricacies of the English language. Therefore, researchers in the field of language teaching and learning have investigated various factors that can help improve the writing skills of EFL learners. One such factor that has been extensively studied is the importance of sentence types on writing skills.

The reviewed literature provides compelling evidence that the use of different sentence types, sentence complexity, and sentence combining has a positive impact on the writing performance, writing quality, and writing ability of EFL learners. Studies conducted across different countries, including Saudi Arabia, Jordan, Indonesia, Iran, Taiwan, and Korea, consistently reported that incorporating different sentence structures in writing instruction can improve students' writing skills. In particular, the use of diverse sentence types, sentence complexity, and sentence combining has been shown to enhance writing quality, writing performance, and writing ability among EFL learners.

The findings of this literature review are consistent with the theoretical framework of writing development, which suggests that the use of varied sentence structures can lead to improved writing skills. Using different sentence types can facilitate better organization and coherence in writing, making it easier for readers to understand the intended message. Moreover, incorporating complex sentence structures and sentence combining can help students express their ideas more precisely and succinctly, leading to more effective communication.

The implications of these findings are noteworthy for EFL teachers who are involved in teaching writing skills to their students. Teachers should incorporate various sentence types, structures, and combinations into their writing instruction to support the development of writing

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skills among EFL learners. Such instruction should be designed to be appropriate for the learners' level of proficiency and should be tailored to meet their specific needs. Teachers should also provide sufficient practice opportunities for students to apply what they have learned in their writing.

Finally, the finding suggests that the use of different sentence types, sentence complexity, and sentence combining are essential factors that contribute to the development of writing skills among EFL learners. Including these factors into writing instruction can help EFL learners produce coherent and cohesive texts that effectively communicate their intended message (Liu,2017). Therefore, EFL teachers should consider integrating various sentence types, structures, and combinations into their writing instruction to enhance the writing skills of their students.

Conclusion

In conclusion, effective writing skills are crucial for EFL learners to succeed in various academic and professional settings. The reviewed literature strongly suggests that the use of different sentence types, sentence complexity, and sentence combining have a positive impact on the writing performance, writing quality, and writing ability of EFL learners. The consistent findings across different studies conducted in various countries provide compelling evidence that incorporating different sentence structures in writing instruction can significantly enhance EFL learners' writing skills.

The theoretical framework of writing development supports these findings, highlighting the importance of varied sentence structures in improving writing skills. Therefore, EFL teachers should consider integrating different sentence types, structures, and combinations into their writing instruction to support the development of writing skills among their students. Such instruction should be tailored to meet the specific needs and proficiency levels of the learners. Practice opportunities should also be provided to enable students to apply what they have learned in their writing.

Generally, the findings of this literature review have significant implications for EFL teachers as they strive to develop their students' writing skills. By incorporating different sentence types, structures, and combinations into their writing instruction, teachers can help EFL learners produce

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clear, organized, and effective writing, ultimately enhancing their ability to communicate effectively in English.

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An Investigation into the Tasks of V Standard English Textbook of Telangana State for the Identification of Dominant Intelligences with regard to the Gardner's Theory of Multiple Intelligences

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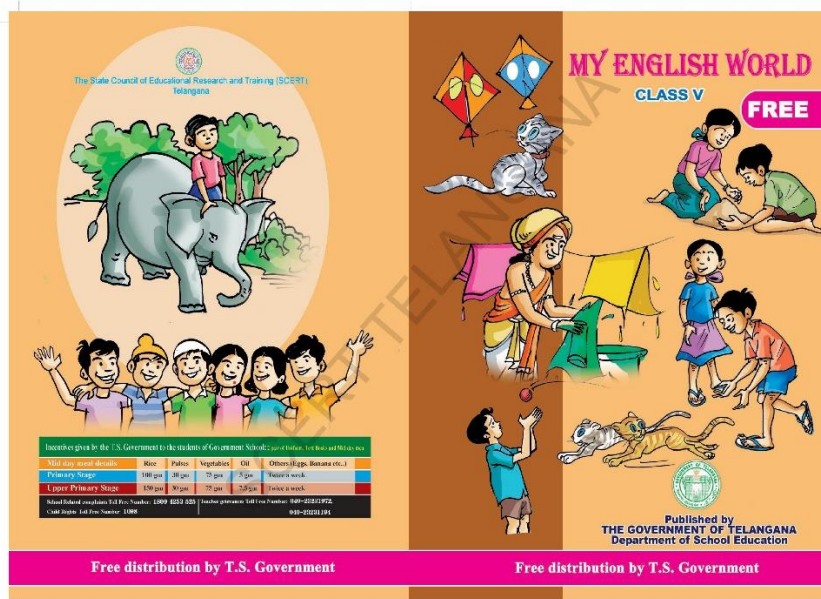
Abstract:

There is a need to understand the structure of a text book to make teaching pleasant and effective. Teaching requires variety of methods and techniques to implement in the classroom based on the level and the complexity of the textbook. The English teachers who are dealing V Class English must have good command over textbook as well as the level of learners to select the appropriate methodologies and techniques to deliver the language. This paper attempts to give a few insights regarding the theory of Multiple Intelligences and the serious investigation of V Standard English Textbook of Telangana State with regard to the classification of language items, tasks, test items and the dominant Intelligence hidden in the test items in each unit.

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Howard Gardner's theory of Multiple Intelligences proposed in his book ***The Frames of Mind*** in 1983 has been model for the past three decades in education field across the globe. This Theory primarily focuses on individual's interest in learning and related methodology to make teaching and learning more effective.

There is a great need of understanding the textbook for any teacher before venturing in to class to make his teaching fruitful. The understanding of the text book includes understanding the units, topics, test items, language items.

However, the understanding of the textbook gives an idea of the theory of multiple Intelligences as there is a dominant intelligence in each language item and test item in each of the unit.

In order to prepare additional tasks to make learners understand the language and usage the understanding of textbook is needed for any language teacher to teach effectively.

Teaching English to primary level students is a big task because they are very young and innocent in terms of intelligence and cannot understand if the teaching is done in a traditional lecture method and students become inactive and show aversion towards English learning.

There are different methods, techniques and approaches evolved to mould primary level students in language acquisition but it is the teacher who thinks about a methodology and technique to deliver that particular content in the classroom by making all learners attentive throughout the class.

Primary level students are generally enthusiastic and like task- based teaching. This the core element to understand for any language teacher before beginning the class and this is the base create lot of activities in English textbook. These activities are very attractive and catch the attention of the learners easily.Students of primary level at some point don't have sufficient consistency in performing tasks provided in the textbook and easily get distracted towards other activities. This is due to lack of realizing the importance of tasks and language.

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At this level teacher has to focus on individual's interest to frame the tasks which regulate their span of attention and create interest towards the given tasks. Tasks which are provided in English class have great impact on language learning and character building. Therefore, the selection of tasks to be made in association with the given tasks and activities in the textbook.

V Class English Textbook consists variety of tasks based on the intelligence levels of the students. If teacher understands that particular intelligence hidden in the tasks, he can prepare similar tasks to help the students improve English language and critical thinking. Teaching with such innovative tasks creates interest among learners.

In order to understand the hidden intelligence in the tasks and activities provided in the text book, English teacher requires the help of the Theory of Multiple Intelligences. Understanding the textbook involves looking at the tasks from the perspective of the Theory of multiple Intelligences to prepare additional tasks and activities to make teaching and learning fruitful. There is an inseparable relation between the Theory of Multiple Intelligences and education field since there is a lot of advantages provided in the theory to assess the intelligence levels of learners in the classroom so as to make tasks to supplement the learning.

An English teacher at primary level classroom should be more like a facilitator to provide opportunities to make learning in a peaceful and tension free environment. Which requires the knowledge of the Theory of Multiple Intelligences. With which English teacher can understand the areas of interests of his students and change his way of teaching to mould them in the tune of his way of teaching. This change requires the analysis of textbook with deeper understanding of activities and tasks and the schema of learners. This elevated methods and techniques usually motivate students to get better results.

There are nine types of Intelligences proposed Howard Gardner in his book **The Frames of Mind** in 1983. Since then, it has been inspiring millions of teachers across the globe in changing the teaching practices and in shaping innumerable techniques to make teaching and learning more effective as it defines the teaching and learning in a novel way of creating intelligence-based teaching platform to enjoy the learning.

The nine types of intelligences promoted by Gardner in his theory of Multiple Intelligences are:

1. Verbal-Linguistic Intelligence
2. Musical Intelligence

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3. Logical-Mathematical Intelligence

4. Visual-Spatial intelligence

5. Bodily-Kinaesthetic Intelligence

6. Interpersonal Intelligence

7. Intrapersonal Intelligence

8. Naturalistic Intelligence

9. Existential Intelligence

The Theory of Multiple Intelligences says that every intelligence is equally important and has potential to create lot of tasks and activities for primary level learners but it requires the base of underlying intelligence of tasks and activities provided in the textbook.
With keen observation of the tasks and activities provided in the textbook it is understood that one or two intelligences covered in each task and teacher is required to target the same intelligences to prepare the similar tasks.

Gardner advocates that "Teachers use only one or two intelligence types in their teaching activities. Necessarily, teachers can integrate four or five intelligence types into their teaching because students will have a unique approach to many of the challenges they encounter during their study" (Gardner, 1983).

Therefore, an investigation of the tasks of a textbook in detail manner is necessary to start teaching at primary level. This investigation should focus on the language items, tasks and topics of each unit from the perspective of the Theory of Multiple Intelligences.

V Standard English Textbook in Telangana State *My English World* published by the Department of School Education, Government of Telangana, is composed of interesting lessons and fascinating tasks.

Eight theme-based units are there in the textbook within the knowledge level of the V Standard students and each unit has a listening passage and two reading texts (A) and (B) along with textual exercises covering Glossary, Comprehensive Questions, Vocabulary, Grammar, Writing Conventions, and Enrich Your English and project work.

Table No:1 Detailed Analysis of All Units of V Class English textbook *My English World* of Telangana State.

Sl. No & Unit	Language Item	Tasks	Topic	Dominant Intelligence

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1.Let's Be Friends	Face sheet	Picture	Questions and Answers	Intrapersonal Intelligence
	A. Reading	Prose	Let's Be Friends	Linguistic Intelligence
	Vocabulary	Glossary	Meanings	Linguistic Intelligence
	Reading Comprehension	Comprehensive Questions	Lesson	Linguistic Intelligence
	Vocabulary Building	Grid	Names of food items	Logical Intelligence
	Grammar	Fill in the blanks	Articles	Linguistic Intelligence
	Writing	Notice	Notice	Intrapersonal Intelligence
	Conventions of Writing	Fill in the blanks	Punctuation	Linguistic Intelligence
	Enrich Your English	Description	Describing People	Intrapersonal Intelligence
	B. Reading	Poetry	The Best of Friends	Linguistic Intelligence
2.Karate Kitten	Face sheet	Picture	Questions and Answers	Intrapersonal Intelligence
	A. Reading	Prose	Karate Kitten	Linguistic Intelligence
	Vocabulary	Glossary	Meanings	Linguistic Intelligence
	Reading Comprehension	Comprehensive questions	Lesson	Linguistic Intelligence
	Vocabulary Building	Match the Boxes	Phrases	Logical Intelligence

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	Grammar	Fill in the blanks	Prepositions	Linguistic Intelligence
	Writing	Description	Describing Things	Intrapersonal Intelligence
	B. Reading	Poetry	Our Kittens	Linguistic Intelligence
	Punctuation	Correction of Sentences	Sentences	Linguistic Intelligence
	Enrich Your English	Pangrams	Examples	Intrapersonal Intelligence
	Writing	Project Work	Framing Questions	Inter personal Intelligence
3.Together We Live	Face sheet	Picture	Questions and Answers	Intrapersonal Intelligence
	A. Reading	Prose	Together We Live	Linguistic Intelligence
	Vocabulary	Glossary	Meanings	Linguistic Intelligence
	Reading Comprehension	Comprehensive questions	Lesson	Linguistic Intelligence
	Vocabulary Building	Write Sentences	Sentences and Collocations	Logical Intelligence
	Grammar	Fill in the blanks	Adjectives	Linguistic Intelligence
	Writing	Write a Story	Story	Intrapersonal Intelligence
	B. Reading	Play	The Three Little Rabbits	Linguistic Intelligence
	Punctuation	Correction of Sentences	Linguistic Intelligence	Linguistic Intelligence

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	Enrich Your English	Idiomatic Expressions	Examples	Linguistic Intelligence
4.A Big Surprise	Face sheet	Poster	Questions and Answers	Intrapersonal Intelligence
	A. Reading	Prose	A Big Surprise	Linguistic Intelligence
	Vocabulary	Glossary	Meanings	Linguistic Intelligence
	Reading Comprehension	Comprehensive questions	Lesson	Linguistic Intelligence
	Vocabulary Building	Word Maze	Fruits and Vegetables	Logical Intelligence
	Grammar	Fill in the blanks	Auxiliary Verbs	Linguistic Intelligence
	Writing	Letter Writing	Modal Letters	Intrapersonal Intelligence
	Writing	Poster Preparation	Modal Posters	Intrapersonal Intelligence
	Punctuation	Writing a small passage	Passage	Linguistic Intelligence
	Enrich Your English	Acronyms	Examples	Intrapersonal Intelligence
	B. Reading	Poem	Five Friendly Farmers	Linguistic Intelligence
5.The Food We Eat	Face sheet	Picture	Questions and Answers	Intrapersonal Intelligence
	A. Reading	Prose	The Food We Eat	Linguistic Intelligence
	Vocabulary	Glossary	Meanings	Linguistic Intelligence

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	Reading Comprehension	Comprehensive questions	Lesson	Linguistic Intelligence
	Vocabulary Building	Fill in the Box	Food Items	Logical Intelligence
	Vocabulary Building	Stepping Stone	Vegetable Names	Logical Intelligence
	Grammar	Fill in the blanks	Connectors	Linguistic Intelligence
	Writing	Advertisement	Modal Advertisement	Intrapersonal Intelligence
	Punctuation	Correction of Sentences	Sentences	Linguistic Intelligence
	Enrich Your English	Wishing Messages	Messages	Intrapersonal Intelligence
	Writing	Project Work	Chart	Inter personal Intelligence
	B. Reading	Poem	Junk Food….Junk Food… Go Away….	Linguistic Intelligence
6.The Witty Nasruddin	Face sheet	Story	Questions and Answers	Intrapersonal Intelligence
	A. Reading	Prose	The Witty Nasruddin	Linguistic Intelligence
	Vocabulary	Glossary	Meanings	Linguistic Intelligence
	Reading Comprehension	Comprehensive questions	Lesson	Linguistic Intelligence
	Vocabulary Building	Fill in the Box	Homophones	Logical Intelligence
	Grammar	Fill in the blanks	Degrees of Comparison	Linguistic Intelligence

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	Writing	Notice Preparation	Modal Notice	Intrapersonal Intelligence
	Punctuation	Correction of Sentences	Sentences	Intrapersonal Intelligence
	Enrich Your English	Describing Emotions	Modal Expressions	Intrapersonal Intelligence
	Writing	Project Work	Collection of Jokes and Stories	Inter personal Intelligence
	B. Reading	Story	The Clever Jackal	Linguistic Intelligence
7.I Was Bad at Cricket	Face sheet	Picture	Questions and Answers	Intrapersonal Intelligence
	A. Reading	Prose	I Was Bad at Cricket	Linguistic Intelligence
	Vocabulary	Glossary	Meanings	Linguistic Intelligence
	Reading Comprehension	Comprehensive questions	Lesson	Linguistic Intelligence
	Vocabulary Building	Fill in the Box	Consulting Dictionary	Logical Intelligence
	Grammar	Choose the correct response	Modals	Linguistic Intelligence
	Writing	Essay writing	Essay	Intrapersonal Intelligence
	Punctuation	Correction of Sentences	Sentences	Intrapersonal Intelligence
	B. Reading	Poem	Our Legacy	Linguistic Intelligence
	Enrich Your English	Prefixes	Examples	Intrapersonal Intelligence

	Writing	Project Work	Our skills diary	Inter personal Intelligence
8.Will Power	Face sheet	Picture	Questions and Answers	Intrapersonal Intelligence
	A. Reading	Prose	Will Power	Linguistic Intelligence
	Vocabulary	Glossary	Meanings	Linguistic Intelligence
	Reading Comprehension	Comprehensive questions	Lesson	Linguistic Intelligence
	Vocabulary Building	Fill in the Box	Antonyms	Logical Intelligence
	Grammar	Choose the right answer	Genders	Linguistic Intelligence
	Writing	Speech	Speech Making	Intrapersonal Intelligence
	Punctuation	Correction of Sentences	Sentences	Intrapersonal Intelligence
	Enrich Your English	Tongue Twisters	Examples	Intrapersonal Intelligence
	B. Reading	Poem	We shall Overcome	Linguistic Intelligence
	Writing	Project Work	Collecting Information about Special kids	Inter personal Intelligence

(Source: Thirupathi, Vennum & Laksmi, N V S N. (2023) worked on Identification of Dominant Intelligences of the Theory of Multiple Intelligences in the units of V Class Textbook of Telangana State and Name of the Lessons in the article "Incorporating the Theory of Multiple Intelligences in the Preparation of Tasks to Teach English for V Class Students". In the present article Language Items, Tasks and Topics were explored in detail.)

While observing the above table, it is understood that there are eight theme-based units in the textbook.

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1. Let's Be Friends, 2. Karate Kitten, 3. Together We Live, 4. A Big Surprise, 5. The Food We Eat, 6. The Witty Nasruddin, 7. I Was Bad at Cricket. and 8. Will Power.

In each unit there are ten major language items apart from listening to the passage. They are 1. Face sheet, 2. Reading Text (A), 3. Exercises on Vocabulary, 4. Reading Comprehension, 5. Exercises on Grammar, 6. Exercises on Writing, 7. Exercises on Punctuation, 8. Language Enriching Item, 9. Reading Text (B) Poem/ Play, and 10. Project.

After completion of all units there are appendices of texts for listening. They are meant for listening comprehension. The teacher has to read loudly to make students listen attentively to understand the pronunciation of certain difficult words and to understand the beauty of language, which develops the linguistic intelligence among the students.

In the beginning of first unit there are bridging gap activities to make the students recollect what they learnt in the previous year. Then it starts with the face sheet. Face sheet may be a picture or notice or a slogan to make the students think and speak for the questions that face sheet follows.

As per the Gardner's Theory of Multiple Intelligences, when students discuss and speak, they will develop multiple intelligences. But the major intelligence is Intrapersonal Intelligence as they seriously think about the face sheet. Face sheet has a connection with the following lesson and the lesson has to be discussed for comprehension.

Next comes glossary along with comprehensive questions. While answering comprehensive questions, students will develop linguistic, logical, and intrapersonal intelligences. But the dominant intelligence is linguistic intelligence.

Each language item has different tasks like multiple choice questions, fill in the blanks, grids, puzzles, etc. Students will improve logical intelligence apart from linguistic intelligence, but logical intelligence can be the dominant intelligence that is being developed.

The major tasks incorporated under each language item has been mentioned in the table. Every task has an objective of improving the certain aspect of language by using the help of at least one intelligence to frame the task and in every task, it is clearly understood that there are more than one intelligence that is used to frame the task. One intelligence as per Gardner's Theory of Multiple Intelligences can dominate the remaining intelligences and this dominant intelligence is being used to frame the task and the dominant intelligence in each task is

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mentioned in the table. For example, the task grid is to improve logical intelligence, linguistic intelligence and spatial intelligence. Yet, its main focus is on logical intelligence.

It is found that the Textbook is prepared based on holistic approach of language learning with a variety of activities and tasks to develop language skills, namely. listening, speaking, reading, and writing, and these skills are integrated in the larger context of the themes which are indirectly interconnected with the theory of Multiple Intelligences. The designed activities under each language item attracts students easily and these activities are up to the knowledge and experience levels of students. So, they participate actively in teaching-learning process which is also the core objective of the theory of Multiple Intelligences.

As the primary objective of teaching English is to improve the learner's autonomy in using English, the task-based teaching will help teachers and students achieve this goal easily if those activities are prepared based on the theory of Multiple Intelligences. Therefore, it is concluded from the above analysis that the prepared tasks under each language item have indirect connection with Gardner's Theory of Intelligences. And this analysis will help the English teachers to make use of Gardner's Theory of Multiple Intelligences in preparing tasks and activities to make learners independent users of English and to conduct teaching-learning process effectively.

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Transitives, Intransitives, Causatives and Sentence Types in Malayalam Speaking Children with Intellectual Disability

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Abstract

Children with Intellectual Disability (CWID) demonstrated an increased performance with increased MA. Higher MA (5-6 years) group produced more sentences per turn and longer sentence length than the lower MA (4-5 years) group. Thus, language performance can be predicted based on what is known about syntax at between 4 and 6 years. It was generally noted that the CWID group produced few spontaneous sentences, i.e., sentences other than what the adult stimuli required. This suggests the possibility that CWID have limitations in the cognitive processing of linguistic input which may occur at the point of decoding, encoding or both. Such difficulties in accessing or recalling information and availability of stored information have been noted previously in the ID population CWID showed delayed development of syntax. The LARSP procedure has been adapted successfully to describe the language of CWID in Kannada (Kumaraswamy, 2021; Subbarao, 1995). The present study followed a similar methodology and described language (in terms of syntax skills) of Malayalam speaking CWID. The objectives of the study were analyzing their expression data on transitives, intransitives, causatives, and sentence types. The description of Malayalam spoken syntactic structures was obtained from two sources, namely Grammar of Malayalam (Nair, 2012) and Malayalam - Descriptive Grammars (Asher, & Kumari, 1997). 60 CWID (4-6 years MA) were studied using natural conversational samples using toys, play materials, pictures. Transitives and intransitive verbs were used equally by CWID groups. Causative forms were used less by CWID groups. This is likely the result of causative forms used less frequently in spoken Malayalam variety of Malayalam sentence types were seen in CWID groups with comparable performance. Wh questions, adjectival use, declaratives were seen in all

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children. Interrogative sentence usage increased in the higher MA group indicating its developing nature. Generally, no complex sentence usage was observed. Syntax proved to be a difficult part of language performance in CWID.

Keywords: ID - Intellectual Disability, TD children-Typically Developing children, CWID- Children with Intellectual Disability, MA- Mental Age, LARSP- Language Assessment, Remediation and Screening Procedure

Language is a systematic and conventional use of sounds (or signs or written symbols) for the purpose of communication and self-expression (Crystal, 1995). The child who learns a language achieves the ability to recognize and produce a set of sounds and learns how these sounds can and cannot be combined into possible words. It is important to understand that language and the expression of the language are two different things. Language exists in the mind, and it exists if it is expressed or not.

The five language domains are phonology, morphology, syntax, semantics and pragmatics. Phonology is the study of speech sounds (i.e., phoneme) of a language, including the rules for combining and using them. Morphology is the study of the rules that govern how morphemes, the minimal meaningful units of language, are used in a language. Syntax is the study of rules that pertain to the ways in which words can be combined to form sentences in a language. Semantics is the study of meanings of words and combinations of words in a language. The final component Pragmatics is the study of language use in conversation and in broader social situations.

Among the five domains of language, syntax is considered as the central component. Knowledge of the syntactic system allows a speaker to generate an almost infinite number of sentences and to recognize which sentences are grammatical and which sentences are not. The parameters/structures of syntax include:

i. Morphophonemic-structures, ii. Plurals, iii. Tenses, iv. PNG markers, v. Case markers, vi. Transitives, intransitives, and causatives, vii. Sentence types, viii Conjunctions, Comparatives and Quotatives, ix. Conditional Clauses and x. Participle constructions.

Intellectual Disability (ID), formerly known as Mental Retardation, is a form of disability characterized by significant limitations in both intellectual functioning and in adaptive behavior, which covers many everyday social and practical skills originating before the age of 18 (The American Association on Intellectual and Developmental Disabilities [AAIDD] 2010).

Syntax has an important role in reading, writing and conversation. Children with Intellectual Disability (CWID) acquire syntax skills in generally the same pattern and order as their MA matched TD children.

Fowler (1990) found that there is no difference in the usage of syntax in children with Down syndrome (DS) in the early stages of development compared to MA matched TD children. However, older children with DS showed phonological morphosyntactic deficits with relatively preserved lexical abilities.

Fowler et al. (1994) also suggested that children with DS have conversational skills beyond their expressive language levels even though syntax is the greatest area

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of deficit, indicating a relative strength in their social communication. Chapman et al. (1998) suggested that when expressive language was measured by mean length of utterance and number of words in conversational and narrative samples, children with DS showed greater impairment in expressive language than in non-verbal cognition.

Grela (2002) analyzed the language transcripts of seven MA matched TD children and children with DS and with comparable MLU levels so they could examine several measures of lexical diversity (percentage of utterances containing lexical verbs, number of verb tokens produced, a mean number of verbs per utterance, number of verb types used, and number of mental state verbs used). Grela's results suggested that the children with DS produced lexical verbs as frequently as TD children. Interestingly, a larger variety of lexical verbs were seen in children with DS compared to their TD counterparts. The results of the study supported other previous findings that children with DS show a relative strength in expressive vocabulary when compared to syntactic development.

Zampini and D'Odorico (2011) compared the lexical and syntactic development of 12 Italian children with DS with that of 12 TD children, considering their spontaneous production. Particular attention was given to the relationships between these linguistic areas and the transition from single-word utterances to multi-word combinations (that is, transitional forms). Results showed children with DS had more difficulties using grammatical sentences correctly even if they combined words. The theoretical relevance of the study lies in the fact that a relationship between lexical and syntactic skills supports the hypothesis of interdependence between these two language domains; the practical relevance of the results lies in the fact that intervening on lexical abilities could have a beneficial effect on syntactic skills.

Sepulveda et al. (2013) studied morphosyntactic skills in DS. An intervention programme was designed and carried out with a total of 20 Spanish-speaking children with DS; half of them composed the experimental group and the other half the control group. The results suggested that the children in the experimental group improved more than the children in the control group in the areas of syntax, morphology and semantics, but not in pragmatics, where both groups improved to the same extent. The study concluded that results which were obtained support the effectiveness of the programme implemented as a clinical and educational tool for intervention in individuals with DS.

Varussa and Rose (2015) examined the writing abilities of individuals with DS and Williams syndrome (WS) and 11 MA matched TD children. Results suggested that the two groups with DS and WS did not differ from TD in writing a list of objects placed in bedroom, in the number of errors in the text composition, in a text copying task and in kind of errors made. However, in a word dictation task, individuals with DS made more errors than individuals with WS and TD children. In a pseudo word dictation task, both individuals with DS and WS showed more errors than TD children. The results also revealed good abilities in individuals with ID in different aspects of writing indicating that the presence of ID does not prevent the achievement of writing skills.

Frizelle et al. (2018) did a study on 33 children with DS, 22 children with cognitive impairment (CI) and 33 TD children who did not differ on raw scores on a test of non-verbal cognitive ability. They used a newly devised animation task to

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examine how well individuals with DS could understand relative clauses, complement clauses and adverbial clauses compared to other two groups. Test for the Reception of Grammar-2, three measures of memory (forward and backward digit recall, visuo-spatial memory) and a hearing screen was administered on all participants. Results suggested that with the exception of intransitive subject relative clauses, children with DS performed poorly on all other complex sentences. They performed at a significantly lower level than children with CI and TD children. Also, children with DS have significant proportion of the variance over and above memory skills. The finding of the study suggests that children with DS have a disproportionate difficulty understanding complex sentences compared to two control groups matched on MA.

Koizumi et al. (2019) investigated conditions of syntactic development in native Japanese speaking CWID and suggested that syntactic development in CWID was significantly delayed in comparison to MA matched TD children. But as MA advanced, syntax abilities improved in CWID.

Wimmer, Witecy and Penke (2020) studied the production of Wh questions in an experimental task eliciting WH questions of 23 German speaking children with DS and 15 TD children matched for nonverbal MA. Results indicated that most of the participants with DS showed significant difficulties producing complex syntactic structures like Wh questions compared to the performance of TD children.

Subbarao (1995) studied natural conversations with 20 Kannada speaking TD children and 60 CWID matched for MA. Results on syntactic analysis presented a varied picture for both TD and CWID. MA matched CWID performed poorly compared to TD children. Overall, a delay in syntactic development was seen. The tense markers: present and past were used by a large number of children in both groups of children. Future/habitual tense was mainly used only by the TD group. Continuous tense was not used by any child. Except for the second person markers, other PNG (Person Number and Gender) markers were seen frequently in TD groups. Only CWID showed some evidence of second person usage. First person and third person markers predominate in the samples probably due to the nature of data collection which involved spontaneous play and conversation, where the children responded to a clinician's stimuli. CWID did not use predicate forms, conjunctions, comparatives and quotatives, conditional clauses or participle constructions. TD children showed some evidence of using some of these syntactic language elements. Certain difficulties in CWID were less obvious; for example, less frequent use of plural markers other than unmarked plurals. CWID produced several sentences with inappropriate use of grammatical markers, e.g. PNG markers and adjectival nouns and generally used simple sentences. The frequently seen sentence types were interrogatives, declaratives and negations and possessives. Tag questions, imperatives and other sentence types were rarely seen in these subjects. TD children produced much more varied sentences and sentence structures. CWID showed delayed development of syntax and uneven performance compared to MA matched TD children. CWID develop syntax in a similar manner as TD children, although development is delayed with respect to their MA.

Aims of the Study

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The present study focused primarily on obtaining selected syntax structures/ parameters in spontaneous language samples of CWID following the previous research of Subbarao (1995) and using an adapted form of Language Assessment, Remediation and Screening Procedure [LARSP] (Crystal et al., 1976 and 1989) in Malayalam speaking with CWID in the MA ranges of 4 - 5 and 5 - 6 years with the objectives of:

Analyzing their expression data on:
1. Transitives, Intransitives, Causatives and
2. Sentence types

Participants in the Study With Inclusive and Exclusive Criteria

Participants included 60 CWID in the age range of 4-6 years Mental age, subdivided as group I (4-5 years MA) and group II (5-6 years MA) who were attending special schools in Kerala. The mental age details were obtained from their school records.

Inclusion Criteria

1. Children who were attending special school for at least 3-4 years were taken for the study.
2. Native Malayalam speakers were taken.
3. Children with mild to moderate intellectual disability as per their school records.

Exclusion Criteria

1) Children with any neurological, physical or sensory handicap were excluded from the study.
2) Children with severe intellectual disability were excluded from the study

Stimuli Used

Selected transitives, intransitives, causatives, and sentence types.were taken from Malayalam – descriptive grammar (Asher & Kumari; 2013), Grammar of Malayalam (Nair 2012).

Data Collection and Analysis

The focus of this study was an analysis of their syntax structures, namely, transitives, intransitives, causatives, and sentence types. The general guidelines provided by the LARSP (Crystal et al., 1976 and 1989) was used for transcription of the sample and analysis of the response patterns. LARSP was developed as a single procedure integrating the clinical operations of screening, assessment, and remediation in the area of grammar. It is based on a description of English grammar. Modifications and adaptations of these guidelines followed those of Subbarao (1995) who studied Kannada speaking children. Children interacted during play for about 25 to 30 minutes. Toys and play materials, common objects, topic of conversation and list of pictures were used to elicit the responses. The presence of parameter was marked as 1 and the absence /inappropriate usage was marked as 0. The entire session was audio /video recorded using a Hewlett-Packard (HP) tablet, model - 7 voice tab.

Results and Discussion

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1.Transitives, Intransitives, and Causatives

CWID

Table: 1 Shows that 100% of both Group I and II CWID used transitives, and intransitive forms of the verb. Causatives were used by 46.7% of Group I and 66.7 % of Group II children. Overall, causatives were found to be less frequent; however, the differences were not statistically significant. The results of the present study support those of Subbarao (1995) who reported that all of the Kannada speaking CWID in both the lower MA (4-5 years) and higher MA (5-6 years) groups used transitive and intransitive forms. Causative forms were used by about 50% of the children in both groups. Kaur (2019) reported that similar to Hindi speaking TD children, CWID also showed a similar pattern in the usage of transitives and intransitives. But the causatives were not all developed in CWID. The results of both Dravidian languages appear to be similar.

Table 1

Transitives, Intransitives & Causatives in CWID with statistical evidence.

Transitives, intransitives & causatives	Group I CWID 4-5 year MA	n= 30 %	Group II CWID 5-6 years MA	n = 30 %	Z Value	P	Significance
Transitives	30	100%	30	100%	-	-	NS
Intransitives	28	93.3%	30	100%	1.44	0.156	NS
Causatives	14	46.7%	20	66.7%	1.56	.123	NS

HS- Highly significant, S – Significant, NS-No significance

3. Sentence types

CWID

Table 2 presents the percentage of CWID using sentence types. All children in both Group I (4-5 years MA) and Group II (5-6 years MA) used the sentence types 'Wh' questions, declaratives, adjectival use and possession sentences. Negation sentences were used by more than 80% in both groups. Sentence types, interrogative tag, quotatives, affirmative and reduplicated sentences were used by nearly 40% of the Group I and 60% of the Group II children. The results indicate that some of these sentences are still difficult for CWID. Further, some sentence types, namely Y/N questions, imperatives and reflexive sentences were not seen in either group. Statistical differences occurred for interrogative tags and affirmative sentences. In general, it can be concluded that CWID showed simple sentences and phrases basically responding to the investigator's stimuli sentences. It was noted that when children could not recall the words to complete the sentence, they pointed to the objects. Although children used words for simple adjectives (e.g., color names) they did not use them in sentences.

Table 2

Sentence Types in CWID with statistical evidence.

Sentence types	Group I CWID	n= 30 %	Group II CWID	n= 30 %	Z Value	P	Significance

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	4-5 year MA		5-6 years MA				
Interrogative y/n	0	0	0	0	-	-	NS
Wh' question	30	100%	30	100%	-	-	NS
Interrogative tag	14	46.6%	22	73.3%	2.11	0.039	Sig
Adjectival use	30	100%	30	100%	-	-	NS
Declaratives	30	100%	30	100%	-	-	NS
Negation	26	86.6%	28	93.3%	0.86	0.393	NS
Affirmative sentences	12	40%	21	70%	2.34	0.023	Sig
Quotatives/Reported sentences	14	46.6%	20	66.6%	1.56	0.123	NS
Imperative sentences	0	0	0	0	-	-	NS
Reduplicated sentences	14	46.65	17	56.6%	0.78	0.441	NS
Possession	30	100%	30	100%	-	-	NS
Reflexive sentences	0	0	0	0	-	-	NS

HS- Highly significant, S – Significant, NS-No significance

The results are in general agreement with studies on Kannada speaking children (Subbarao, 1995). Kumaraswamy (2021) reported a slight variation from the study by Subbarao (1995) that reduplicated 'Wh' interrogative utterances which were not frequently by CWID in his study. A reason for changes could be that language development patterns change with time. Kaur (2019) reported that only simple, affirmative sentences with no occurrence of complexity in sentences were seen in 5-6-year-old Hindi speaking CWID. The language data on Dravidian languages: Kannada and Malayalam appear to be comparable.

Results and Discussion

Transitives and intransitives were used by children in both groups. Higher MA group children performed better than lower MA group children in the usage of causatives. However, significant differences were not found. On sentence types, all children in both groups used the sentence types 'Wh' questions, declaratives, negation, adjectival use, and possession sentences. Sentence types like interrogative tag, quotatives, affirmative and reduplicated sentences were used more by higher MA Group II children when compared to lower MA Group I children. Some of these sentences are still difficult for CWID. Some sentence types, namely, Y/N questions, imperatives and reflexive sentences were not seen in either group. Thus, differences in performance appear to be mainly for interrogative tags and affirmative sentences.

Conclusion

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Syntax proved to be a difficult part of language performance in CWID. Transitives and intransitive verbs were used equally by CWID groups. Causative forms were used less by CWID groups. This is likely the result of causative forms used less frequently in spoken Malayalam. A similar observation was made in Kannada (Mallikarjuna, 1994, quoted by Subbarao, 1995).

A variety of Malayalam sentence types were seen in CWID groups with comparable performance. Wh questions, adjectival use, declaratives were seen in all children. Interrogative sentence usage increased in the higher MA group indicating its developing nature. Kannada speaking children showed a very similar presence of sentence types (Subbarao, 1995). Hindi speaking CWID showed only simple and affirmative sentences (Kaur, 2019). A similarity between sister languages Malayalam and Kannada can be observed. Generally, no complex sentence usage was observed.

CWID showed an inability to shift quickly to the next stimuli and continued to persist answering the previous stimuli. This was particularly observed while using quotatives. In general, even though syntactic structures were used, they were simple. Many instances of starting a sentence and not completing it were seen, probably reflecting difficulties in recalling words.

Limitations of the Present Study

1. Limited sample size
2. The participants were taken from the similar community. i.e. from a single dialectal population in Kerala.

Future Implications

1. To include larger number of participants
2. To include various dialectical communities in Kerala
3. Detailed research work is needed in other disordered population.

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Plural Markers, PNG Markers and Case Markers in Malayalam Speaking Children with Intellectual Disability

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Abstract

Within the field of speech language pathology several attempts at studying language disorders are seen in the past 3 decades. Studies have shown that more than 80% of children with intellectual disability (ID) show language delays and requires professional intervention (Subba Rao and Srinivas, 1989; Bharat Raj, 1987; Prabhu, 1968 and others, as cited in Selvi, K., 1999). CWID showed delayed development of syntax. The LARSP procedure has been adapted successfully to describe the language of CWID in Kannada (Kumaraswamy, 2021; Subbarao, 1995). The present study followed a similar methodology and described language (in terms of syntax skills) of Malayalam speaking CWID. The objectives of the study were analyzing their expression data on plural markers, PNGF markers and Case markers. The description of Malayalam spoken syntactic structures was obtained from two sources, namely Grammar of Malayalam (Nair, 2012) and Malayalam - Descriptive Grammars (Asher, & Kumari, 1997). 60 CWID (4-6 years MA) were studied using natural conversational samples using toys, play materials, pictures. Except regular plural markers, other plural markers (e.g., Suffix/-ar and /-mar//) were not well developed in either group of CWID.

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Except for second person markers other PNG markers like first person, second person and third person singular were seen frequently in both groups of children. First person and third person markers predominate in the samples probably due to the nature of data collection using spontaneous play and conversation. Case markers were generally difficult for CWID. However, nominative and genitive case markers were observed frequently in both groups of CWID.

Children with Intellectual Disability (CWID) are a heterogeneous group having non symbolic or symbolic communication disabilities. They may demonstrate spoken and written language disorders across the components of language previously described. (APA, 2013, cited in ASHA n.d). Unlike Typically Developing (TD) children, the development of language does not occur as expected in CWID. It is generally accepted that in CWID speech and language development is delayed when compared to TD children. This delay hypothesis suggests that developmental sequence of speech and language is similar and the factors underlying are similar. It is observed that CWID children have lower ceiling of speech and language as compared to TD children. Studies have pointed out that more than 80% of CWID show language delays and require professional intervention (Bharat Raj, 1987; Prabhu, 1968; Subbarao & Srinivas, 1989). Some studies (Subbarao,1995; Kumaraswamy, 2021) also emphasized deviance in the language development. Subbarao (1995) has confirmed delay hypothesis, and also reported certain syntactic deviance as compared to TD children.

Among the five domains of language, syntax is considered as the central component. The term syntax is from the Ancient Greek - syntaxis a verbal noun which literally means arrangement or setting out together (Valin, 2001). 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. It specifies the order the words must take and the organization of different sentence types. It allows the individual to combine words into phrases and sentences and also to transform a type of sentence into other types. Syntax describes how sentences are constructed selecting from a variety of possible arrangements of elements in sentences. The parameters of syntax include i. morphophonemic-structures, ii. plurals, iii. Tenses, iv. PNG markers, v. case markers, vi. transitives, intransitives and causatives, vii. sentence types, viii

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conjunctions comparatives and Quotatives, ix. Conditional clauses and x. participle constructions.

The present study attempts to obtain parameters of syntax namely Plural markers, Case markers, PNG markers from language samples in Malayalam speaking children with ID . Broad based, naturalistic samples, descriptive linguistic analyses are important aspects and should be considered in Indian contexts. Language Assessment, Remediation and Screening Procedure [LARSP] (Crystal et al, 1976 and 1989) is one such procedure, which has proved to be clearer in its methodology and has clearer guidelines on using spontaneous language samples. It was developed as a single procedure integrating the clinical operations of screening, assessment, and remediation in the area of grammar. It is based on a description of English grammar. The present study followed the guidelines and modifications provided by Subbarao (1995) who completed a comprehensive language analysis of Kannada speaking CWID, using the overall theoretical guidelines provided by LARSP(Crystal et al., 1976 and 1989).

Aims of the Study

The present study focused primarily on obtaining selected syntactic structures from spontaneous language samples of CWID following the previous research of Subbarao (1995) and using an adapted from LARSP(Crystal et al., 1976 and 1989) in Malayalam speaking with CWID in the MA ranges of 4 - 5 and 5 - 6 years with the objectives of:

Analyzing their expression data on :

1. Plural Markers

2. Case Markers

3. PNG Markers

Participants in the Study With Inclusive and Exclusive Criteria

Participants included 60 CWID in the age range of 4-6 years Mental age, subdivided as group I (4-5 years MA) and group II (5-6 years MA) who were attending

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special schools in Kerala. Their mental age details were obtained from their school records.

Inclusion Criteria

1. Children who were attending special school for at least 3-4 years were taken for the study.

2. Native Malayalam speakers were taken.

3. Children with mild to moderate intellectual disability as per the school records.

Exclusion Criteria

1) Children with any neurological, physical or sensory handicap were excluded from the study.

2) Children with severe intellectual disability were excluded from the study

Stimuli Used

Selected   transitives, intransitives, causatives, and sentence types were taken from Malayalam – descriptive grammar (Asher & Kumari; 2013), *Grammar of Malayalam* (Nair 2012)

Data Collection and Analysis

The focus of this study was an analysis of their syntax structures namely Plural markers, Case markers, PNG markers. The general guidelines provided by the LARSP (Crystal et al., 1976 and 1989) was used for transcription of the sample and analysis of the response patterns. Modifications and adaptations of these guidelines followed those of Subbarao (1995) who studied Kannada speaking children. Children interacted during play for about 25 to 30 minutes. Toys and play materials, common objects, topic of conversation and list of pictures were used to elicit the responses. The presence of parameter was marked as 1 and the absence /inappropriate usage was marked as 0. The entire session was audio /video recorded using a Hewlett-Packard (HP) tablet, model - 7 voice tab.

1. Plural Markers

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CWID

Table 1 shows the performance of children in Group I (MA 4-5 years) and Group II (MA 5-6 years). Both groups show a similar performance. Suffix /kal/ and numerical suffix were used by 70% or above children. Suffix /ar/ was not used by any child in both groups. No statistically significant difference was noted.

Table 1

Plural Markers in CWID with statistical evidence.

Plurals	Group I CWID 4-5 years MA	n = 30 %	Group II CWID 5-6 years MA	n = 30 %	Z value	P	Significance
Suffix /–kal/	21	70.0%	27	90.0%	1.94	.058	NS
Suffix/ –mar/	12	40.0%	18	60.0%	1.55	.127	NS
Suffix /–ar/	0	.0%	0	.0%	-	-	NS
Numeral suffix	22	73.3%	26	86.7%	1.29	.202	NS

HS- Highly significant, S – Significant, NS-No significance

The present study's results align well with previous studies in Malayalam speaking children. Radhika and Kumaraswamy (2010) reported that the frequency of occurrence of all plural markers was found to be less in CWID compared to TD children in the age range 4-6 years. Kaur (2019) showed that by 4 years of MA Hindi speaking CWID used neutral plurals and masculine plural /a/, with other types being acquired by a MA of 6 years. Subbarao (1995) reported that in Kannada speaking children, regular plural marker /galu/ and unmarked were seen by a MA of 4 years. Group II (5-6 years MA) showed improved performance compared to the 4-5 years MA group.

2. PNG Markers

CWID

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Table 2 presents the number and percentages of CWID producing PNG markers. In the lower MA Group, I, all children used singular forms of first, second and third persons for both male and female forms. The difficult PNG markers were first person plural (76.6%), second person plural (40%) and third person plural (50%). Third person plural neutral was not used. In all these markers, higher MA (5-6 years) Group II children performed statistically better. The results in general suggest that by 5-6 years MA, the PNG marker system is established in CWID.

Table 2

PNG Markers in CWID with statistical evidence.

PNG	Group I CWID 4-5 years MA	n= 30 %	Group II CWID 5-6 years MA	n= 30 %	Z Value	P	Significance
I person singular/-ñaan/	30	100%	30	100%	-	-	NS
I person plural /-ñaŋŋal/ naam/ nammaḷ/	23	76.6%	30	100%	2.82	0.007	HS
II person singular /- nii/	30	100%	30	100%	-	-	NS
II person plural /- niŋŋal/	12	40 %	26	86.6%	3.75	0.000	HS
III person singular male /-avan/ivan/	30	100%	30	100%	-	-	NS
III person singular female /-avaḷ, ivaḷ/	30	100%	30	100%	1.01	0.317	NS
III person singular neutral /-atu/itu/	30	100%	30	100%	-	-	NS

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III person plural /-avaṟ/ivaṟ/	15	50%	25	83.3%	2.74	0.008	HS
III person plural neutral /-ava/iva/	0	0	17	56.6%	4.87	0.000	HS

HS- Highly significant, S – Significant, NS-No significance

The results are in general agreement with the Malayalam study by Priyanka and Kumaraswamy (2018), the Kannada study (Subbarao,1995; Kumaraswamy, 2021) and the Hindi study (Kaur, 2019). Language specific issues like honorific markers and III-person plural markers were similar in Kannada and wishful markers /-na/ were difficult for CWID.

3. Case Markers

CWID

On examination of Table 3, it can be observed that uneven performance is seen in both Group I (MA 4-5 years) and Group II (MA 5-6 years), in the usage of case markers. No case marker was used by all children of either Group. Nominative, dative, locative and genitive case markers were used by more than 60% of children in Group I. Group II children used the same markers in a higher percentage of children. The pattern in both groups is similar. The differences were not statistically significant. Mohan and Kumaraswamy (2015) studied the acquisition of case markers in Malayalam speaking children with Downs Syndrome (DS) having an MA range of 3-8 years and reported that there is a general increase in the acquisition as well as frequency of usage of some type of case markers with increase in the MA of the children. The findings support the present study. Similar results are reported in Kannada speaking children (Subbarao, 1995). Hindi speaking children showed case markers usage in their samples after 5-6 years MA. Language specific differences appear to be important (Kaur, 2019).

Table 3

Case Markers in CWID with statistical evidence.

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Case markers	Group I CWID 4-5 year MA	n= 30 %	Group II CWID 5-6 years MA	n = 30 %	Z Value	P	Significance
Nominative	22	73.3%	25	83.3%	.94	.351	NS
Accusative / -e/	16	53.3%	21	70.0%	1.33	.189	NS
Dative /–ku, nu/	21	70.0%	23	76.7%	.58	.562	NS
Sociative /–oṭu/	12	40.0%	19	63.3%	1.81	.076	NS
Instrumental /-aal/	11	36.7%	16	53.3%	1.30	.200	NS
Locative / -il/	20	66.7%	23	76.7%	.86	.394	NS
Genitive – /uṭe, nre/	20	66.7%	25	83.3%	1.49	.141	NS

HS- Highly significant, S – Significant, NS-No significance

Results and Discussion

Plural markers /-kal/, /-mar/ and numeral suffixes were frequently observed in both groups. It is observed that plural markers /-ar/ are not well developed in both groups. This observation confirms a previous study in Malayalam (Radhika & Kumaraswamy, 2010). The consistency of these observations was also noticed in Kannada speaking children (Subbarao, 1995; Kumaraswamy, 2021). Hindi speaking children of similar age groups have shown a wider and frequent use of plural markers (Kaur, 2019). Some similarity of plural development is observed in Dravidian languages.

A wide variety of PNG marker usage is observed in CWID. Lower MA group used first person, second person and third person singular markers. As expected, second person plural (/-niŋŋal/) was difficult for a majority of the children, whereas in the higher MA group almost all children showed the usage of PNG markers; a similar observation was noted for third person plural marker. The Malayalam PNG system appears to be well developed in CWID by 5-6 years MA. Studies in Kannada (Subbarao, 1995; Kumaraswamy, 2021) and Hindi (Kaur, 2019) showed a much less developed PNG system. It is possible that school training emphasizes first person

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markers. Lack of spontaneous responses and communication imitations could also affect PNG use. A previous study by Priyanka and Kumaraswamy (2017) in Malayalam also confirms the observations of the present study.

Case markers were found to be less developed in CWID even in the higher MA group. Nominative and genitive case markers were observed frequently. Kannada speaking children with a MA of 4-6 years used accusative case markers frequently (Subbarao, 1995). It was interesting to note that higher MA (5-6 years) children did not show any significant difference in case marker usage. A study by Mohan and Kumaraswamy (2015) showed that Malayalam speaking CWID reported similar results. The Hindi speaking CWID, however, showed a well-developed case system (Kaur, 2019). Languages appear to present different levels of difficulty to CWID in using the case system.

Conclusions

Except regular plural markers, other plural markers (e.g., Suffix/-ar and /-mar//) were not well developed in either group of CWID. Except for second person markers other PNG markers like first person, second person and third person singular were seen frequently in both groups of children. First person and third person markers predominate in the samples probably due to the nature of data collection using spontaneous play and conversation. Case markers were generally difficult for CWID. However, nominative, and genitive case markers were observed frequently in both groups of CWID.

Limitations of the Present Study

1. Limited sample size

2. The participants were taken from a similar community. i.e., from a single dialectal population in Kerala.

Future Implications

1. To include larger number of participants

2. To include various dialectical community in Kerala

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3. Detailed research work is needed in other disordered populations.

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Conjunctions, Comparatives, Quotatives and Conditional Clauses in Malayalam Speaking Children with Intellectual Disability

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Introduction

The American Association on Intellectual and Developmental Disabilities (AAIDD) in 2009 defines Intellectual disability (ID as a disability characterized by significant limitations in both intellectual functioning and in adaptive behaviour, which covers many everyday social and practical skills. This disability originates before the age of 18. American Speech-Language and Hearing Association (ASHA) in 2012 supported the change from "Mental Retardation" to "Intellectual Disability." ASHA recommended the elimination of classification by IQ and severity level and recommended to use of the AAIDD definition of Intellectual Disability. ASHA strongly urges the use of the term Intellectual Disability in the DSM-V, which would be consistent with the AAIDD definition.

Unlike Typically Developing (TD) children, the development of language does not occur as expected in Children with Intellectual Disability (CWID). It is generally accepted that in CWID, speech and language development is delayed when compared to TD children. This delay hypothesis suggests that developmental sequence of speech and language is similar and the factors underlying are similar. It is observed that CWID have lower ceiling of speech and language as compared to TD children. Subbarao (1995) has confirmed the delay hypothesis, and reported certain syntactic deviance as compared to TD children. Short sentence length, deficits in verb

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types, tense limitations and absent syntactic structures in conjunctions/predicate types etc. were also noted in that study. Language delays are evident in both areas of comprehension and expression. He has further noted that there is a set of bigger deficits in syntactic area, as compared to phonological and semantic aspects.

Syntax has an important role in reading, writing and conversation. The parameters of syntax include i. Morphophonemic-structures, ii. Plurals, iii. Tenses, iv. PNG markers, v. Case markers, vi. Transitives, Intransitives and causatives, vii. Sentence Types, viii Conjunctions, Comparatives and Quotatives, ix. Conditional Clauses and x. Participle Constructions. The present study assesses acquisition of selected syntactic structures in CWID, enabling the speech language pathologist (SLP) for a focused engagement in accurate language assessment, goal setting for intervention and monitoring therapy progress.

Aim of the Study

The present study focused primarily on obtaining selected syntactic structures/ parameters in spontaneous language samples of CWID following the previous research of Subbarao (1995) and using an adapted form of Language Assessment, Remediation and Screening Procedure [LARSP] (Crystal, et al., 1976 and 1989) in Malayalam speaking children with CWID in the MA ranges of 4 - 5 and 5 - 6 years with the objectives of:

Analyzing their expression data on:
1. Conjunctions, Comparatives, Quotatives and
2. Conditional clauses.

Participants in the Study With Inclusive and Exclusive Criteria

Participants included 60 CWID in the age range of 4-6 years Mental age, subdivided as group I (4-5 years MA) and group II (5-6 years MA) who were attending special schools in Kerala. All the children used Malayalam as their major communication medium. A few English words and code mixing were common in these children. All the children selected for the study had no further handicap or illness and were able to participate in play and conversation with others. Standardized language tests were not yet available to assess the language age in children in addition to MA. Gender comparison, percentage and severity of the deficits were excluded.

Stimuli Used

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Selected conjunctions, Comparatives, Quotatives and Conditional clauses were taken from Malayalam – descriptive grammar (Asher & Kumari; 2013), Grammar of Malayalam (Nair 2012)

Data Collection and Analysis

The focus of this study was an analysis of their syntax structures, namely Conjunctions, Comparatives, Quotatives and Conditional Clauses. The general guidelines provided by the LARSP (Crystal et al., 1976 and 1989) were used for transcription of the sample and analysis of the response patterns. LARSP was developed as a single procedure integrating the clinical operations of screening, assessment, and remediation in the area of grammar. It is based on a description of English grammar. Modifications and adaptations of these guidelines followed those of Subbarao (1995) who has studied Kannada speaking children. Children interacted during play for about 25 to 30 minutes. Toys and play materials, common objects, topic of conversation and list of pictures were used to elicit the responses. The presence of the parameter was marked as 1 and the absence /inappropriate usage was marked as 0. The entire session was audio /video recorded using a Hewlett-Packard (HP) tablet, model - 7 voice tab.

Results and Discussion

1. Conjunctions, Comparatives & Quotatives

CWID

The within group comparison shown in table 1 indicates that about 50-60% of children in both groups of lower and higher MA use conjunctions. On using quotatives /-ennu/, higher MA Group II (5-6 years) children show increased usage. However, the differences are not statistically significant. Comparatives were not used by CWID.

Table 1

Conjunctions, Comparatives & Quotatives present in CWID with statistical evidence.

Conjunctions, Comparatives & Quotatives	Group I CWID 4-5 year MA	n= 30 %	Group II CWID 5-6 years MA	n = 30 %	Z Value	P	Significance
Conjunction /–um/	16	53.3%	20	66.7%	1.05	.296	NS
Comparative –	0	.0%	0	.0%	-	-	NS

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/itilum nalla/							
Comparatives/ – eeṟṟavum	0	.0%	0	.0%	-	-	NS
Quotatives /– ennu/	11	36.7%	18	60.0%	1.81	.076	NS

HS- Highly significant, S – Significant, NS-No significance

Kannada speaking CWID did not use Conjunctions, Comparatives and Quotatives structures except for the conjunction/-u/ (Subbarao, 1995; Kumaraswamy, 2021). The present study shows better performance on using Conjunctions and Quotatives. The reason for these differences could be that CWID are better trained by Speech Language Therapists and special educators as the data is of recent origin compared to the Kannada study by Subbarao (1995). The nature of Malayalam language could be another reason.

Findings on Hindi speaking CWID by Kaur (2019) showed that 40% of lower MA group (MA 4-5 years) and 60-80% of higher MA group (MA 5-6 years) used Conjunctions. However, comparatives and quotatives were not used by either group. These differences could be due to natural differences in these languages and require further exploration.

2. Conditional Clauses

CWID

Table 2 shows that only 40% of Group I (4-5 years MA) and 63.3 % of Group II (5-6 years MA) children used the conditional clause /-aal/. Other structures were not seen in the language samples. Gupta (2023) studied the conditional clauses in Malayalam speaking TD children in the age group of 4-6 years (Group I- 4-5 years, Group II - 5- 6 years) and reported that conditional clause /-aal/ was used by all TD children in Group I and II. Clause /-eŋkil/ was used by 30% of 4-5 year olds, but it increased to 60% in Group II (5-6 years).Unfulfilled conditional clause /-eŋkil+ complex verb form/ was not seen in Group I (4-5) TD children, but unfulfilled conditional clause /-eŋkil+ complex verb form/ was used by 50% of the Group II TD children. Subbarao (1995) and Kaur (2019) both reported that conditional clauses were not observed in ID groups of 4-6 years in Kannada and Hindi languages respectively . It is possible that the use of such clauses mainly reflects written or literary expressions. It is possible that Malayalam speakers use more Literary or written forms while speaking as compared to Kannada and Hindi speakers.

Table 2

Conditional Clauses in CWID with statistical evidence.

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Conditional clauses	Group I CWID 4-5 year MA	n = 30 %	Group II CWID 5-6 years MA	n = 30 %	Z Value	P	Significance
Conditional clause /-aal/	12	40.0%	19	63.3%	1.81	.076	NS
Conditional clause/-eŋkil/	0	.0%	0	.0%	-	-	NS
Unfulfilled conditional clause/-eŋkil + complex verb form/	0	.0%	0	.0%	-	-	NS

HS- Highly significant, S – Significant, NS-No significance

Results and Discussion

Conjunction was used by 50-60% of children in both groups of lower and higher MA. On using quotatives /-ennu/, higher MA Group II (5-6 years) children showed increased usage. However, significant differences in performance were not seen. Comparatives were not used by any of the CWID.

Conditional clause /-aal/ was used by only 40% of Group I (4-5 years MA) and 63.3 % of Group II (5-6 years MA) children. Other conditional clause structures were not seen in the samples of both groups of children with ID.

Conclusions

About 50-60% of children in both groups of lower and higher MA use conjunctions. Comparatives and conditional clauses were poorly displayed by CWID. Conditional clauses were rarely used by both groups of CWID .

Limitations of the Present Study

1. Limited sample size
2. The participants were taken from the similar community. i.e., from a single dialectal population in Kerala.

Future Implications

1. To include larger number of participants
2. To include various dialectical community in Kerala
3. Detailed research work is needed in other disordered populations.

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Numerals in Hrangkhol

Nawaf Zahdaan Helmi, Ph.D.
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Abstract

The North-East region of India is known for its linguistic diversity and is home to the densest concentration of languages of the Tibeto-Burman family. More than a hundred Kuki-Chin languages are spoken in and around the seven North-Eastern states. Hrangkhol is a Kuki language of the Tibeto-Burman family spoken in Assam, Tripura, and parts of Manipur and Mizoram. The present paper proceeds from recent, extensive fieldwork and discusses the numeral system of the Hrangkhol language spoken in Assam. Numerals are expressions used in daily interactions to calculate, count objects, make measurements, or transmit data of any kind. Like most Tibeto-Burman languages, Hrangkhol also has a decimal numeral system. Higher numeral values are expressed by combining items of lower numeral values through addition or multiplication. In Hrangkhol, both suffixes and prefixes are added to the basic numerals to form different types of numerals. The numerals in Hrangkhol can be classified into cardinal, ordinal, multiplicative, fractional, distributive, restrictive, and approximate. Syntactically, the numerals usually follow the head noun, as in other SOV languages.

Keywords: Numerals, Hrangkhol, Kuki, Assam.

1. Introduction

Hrangkhol is a Kuki language belonging to the Tibeto-Burman language family of Northeast India. According to Grierson's *Linguistic Survey of India* Vol. III, Part III (1903) and Bradley (1997), Hrangkhol is part of the Old Kuki sub-group of the Tibeto-Burman language family. It is spoken in Assam, Tripura, and parts of Manipur and Mizoram. The Census of India (2000) estimates the Hrangkhol community's population to be approximately 18,700, which is

also cited in the ***Ethnologue*** (2023). According to the EGIDS scale in ***Ethnologue*** (2023), the Hrangkhol language's status is threatened. In Assam, the primary location of the Hrangkhols is in Haflong Circle of Dima Hasao District (previously known as North Cachar Hills). The Hrangkhols are distributed over a wide geographical region. Although they have a noticeable degree of homogeneity, some dialectal differences can be observed within the language. Debbarma (2018) divides Hrangkhol into four major regional dialects: the Barak Valley or Hrangkhol dialect, the Hrangchal dialect, the Sranglong Dialect, and the Hrangkhawl Dialect. This paper will discuss the numeral system of the Barak Valley or Hrangkhol dialect. Historically, like many tribes in North-East India, the Hrangkhol tribe did not have a written script until the arrival of Christian missionaries.

2. Literature Review

Like most of the other tribal languages of Northeast India, Hrangkhol has limited written literature available. Compared to other languages, Hrangkhol is still in its early stage of written literature, and comprehensive linguistic or scientific research has not been conducted on the language. The language has only been briefly described in C. A. Soppitt's (1887) *A Short Account of the Kuki-Lushai Tribe of the North-East Frontier* and Grierson's (1903) *Linguistic Survey of India, Vol. III, Part III*, which provides an overview of the history and socio-cultural life of the community, a grammar sketch, and a list of annotated words and texts. The first linguistic work on the Hrangkhol language was a language primer, *Hrangkhol Nam Chonga Irchuna Lekhabu- A Learner's Book of the Hrangkhol Language* (2017). The book presents an overview of the phonetics and morphology of the language along with annotated words. The first comprehensive work on the Hrangkhol language was a doctoral thesis by Surath Debbarma (2018). His thesis, *The Structure of Hrangkhawl: A Kuki-Chin Language*, was the first exhaustive linguistic study of the language, where he discusses the phonology, morphology, and syntax of the Hrangkhawl dialect spoken in Tripura. However, no such exhaustive study has been carried out on the Hrangkhol dialect spoken in Assam.

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3. Methodology

The paper presents a comprehensive analysis of the numerals in Hrangkhol. The data was obtained through direct and group interviews. To prevent errors in the transcription of sounds from native speakers, questionnaires and voice recorders were used to record the data. The data was collected from informants of varying age groups and genders.

4. Numerals in Hrangkhol

Like other Kuki-Chin languages, Hrangkhol uses a decimal counting system from one to ten. Similar to many Tibeto-Burman languages, compounding is a productive morphological process used to form higher numerals in the language. These numbers have complex or derived lexemes. Numerals in Hrangkhol can be categorized as follows:

1. Cardinal Numerals
2. Ordinal Numerals
3. Multiplicative Numerals
4. Fractional Numerals
5. Distributive Numerals
6. Restrictive Numerals
7. Approximative Numerals

4.1 Cardinal Numerals

Structurally, the cardinal numerals in Hrangkhol can be subdivided into two types: (i) basic number words and (ii) compound numerals.

4.1.1 Basic Number Words

The basic cardinal system in Hrangkhol is straightforward. Hrangkhol has independent lexical entries for the numbers one to ten. Compound numeral formation begins only after ten. The words for one to nine are bimorphemic and the word for ten is monomorphemic. The language has a prefix 'in-' attached to the Proto-Tibetan root from one to three. The numeral four

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has 'ma-' prefixed to the PTB root. The '-n-' in 'minli' four may have arisen as nasal prosody through the influence of the prefix 'ma-'. Five has a liquid prefix 'r-'. With the higher numerals, six and eight forms a discontinuous run in 'ki-', interrupted by the conservative 'sa-' in seven (Matisoff, 1997). Nine does not have any prefix attached and forms the conservative root. The ten in Hrangkhol is different from the Proto-Tibeto Burman root. Instead, the root '*som/*tsom' is a typical Kuki-Chin feature for both the independent numeral for ten and the first constituent in higher multiples. The table below presents a comparative analysis of the basic numerals in several Kuki languages of Northeast India and highlights the differences in affixes across these languages.

Table 1: Basic Numerals in Kuki Languages

PTB	Hrangkhol	Biate[1]	Kom[2]	Anal[3]	Gloss
*kat	inkʰat	kʰətka	inkʰət	əkʰe	*one*
*g-ni-s	inn̥i	inika	inn̥i	ən̥ə	*two*
*g-sum	intʰum	itʰumka	intʰum	ətʰum	*three*
*b-liy = *b-ləy	minli	ilika	mənli	pəli	*four*
*l-ŋa	riŋa	riŋaka	rəŋŋa	pəŋa	*five*
*d-ruk	kiruk	irukka	kəruk	təru	*six*
*s-nis	sari	sarika	səri	təkʰə	*seven*
*b-r-gyat ~ b-g-ryat	kiriet	irietka	kəret	təri	*eight*

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[3] Devi, T. T. (2015). *A descriptive grammar of Anal*. Ph.D Thesis. Assam: Assam University.

*d-kuw = *d-kəw ~ *d-gaw	kuok	ikuakka	ku	təku	*'nine'*
*gip ~ *ts(y)i(y) ~ *tsyay	so:m	somka	som	som	*'ten'*

4.1.2 Compound Numerals

Compound numerals in Hrangkhol are formed by combining two or more numeral morphemes and are highly productive in the language, as in most Tibeto-Burman languages. The compound cardinals can be divided into three groups: (i) additive compound numerals, (ii) multiplicative compound numerals, and (iii) additive cum multiplicative compound numerals.

4.1.2.1 Additive Compounds

The additive compound numerals are formed using the basic numerals from one to nine, along with the numeral ten. In these compounds, the higher numeral comes before the lower numeral, with the head on the left side of the compound word. It is worth noting that the numeral prefixes 'in-' and 'ki-' are dropped when forming the higher numerals from 10 onwards. The morpheme /le/ *and* is added between the two numbers to indicate addition. The numerals from eleven to nineteen are formed as additive compounds in Hrangkhol, as shown in the following examples.

Table 2: Additive Compound Numerals

Basic Numeral	Morpheme	Basic Numeral	Compound Numeral	Gloss
		/kʰat/ *one*	/soml̥ekʰat/	eleven
		/n̥i/ *two*	/soml̥en̥i/	*twelve*

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/som/ ten	/le/ and	/tʰum/ three	/somle̥tʰum/	thirteen
		/riŋa/ five	/somle̥riŋa/	fifteen
		/ruk/ six	/somle̥ruk/	sixteen
		/riet/ eight	/somle̥riet/	eighteen
		/kuok/ nine	/somle̥kuok/	'nineteen'

4.1.2.2 Multiplicative Compounds

In Hrangkhol, the words for multiples of ten are formed by multiplying the basic cardinal numerals by the numeral ten. For example, the word for twenty, 'somn̥i', consists of 'so:m' *ten* with 'in̥n̥i' *two*, and the word for thirty, 'somtʰum', consists of 'so:m' *ten* with 'intʰum' *three*. To form numbers beyond one hundred, the numeral for hundred, /irza'/, or thousand, /saŋ/, is suffixed by the basic numeral. When forming multiplicative compound numerals, the higher numeral always precedes the lower numeral. Examples of such numerals are shown below.

Table 3: Multiplicative Compound Numerals

Basic Numerals		Compound Numerals	Gloss
/som/ ten	/n̥i/ two	/somn̥i/	twenty
/som/ ten	/tʰum/ three	/somtʰum/	thirty
/som/ ten	/riŋa/ five	/somriŋa/	fifty
/som/ ten	/ruk/ six	/somruk/	sixty
/som/ ten	/riet/ eight	/somriet/	eighty

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/irza/ *hunderd*	/kʰat/ *one*	/irzakʰat/	*one hundred*
/irza/ *hunderd*	/tʰum/ *three*	/irzantʰum/	*three hundred*
/saŋ/ *thousand*	/kʰat/ *one*	/saŋkʰat/	*one thousand*
/saŋ/ *thousand*	/riŋa/ *five*	/saŋriŋa/	*five hundred*

4.1.2.3 Multiplicative cum Additive Compounds

These numerals are formed by multiplying the first two digits and then adding the third digit. They follow the mathematical rule of BODMAS to calculate larger numbers, where addition follows multiplication. These numerals range from twenty-one to ninety-nine, excluding multiples of ten. Examples are illustrated below.

Table 4: Multiplicative and additive compound Numerals

Basic Numerals			Compound Numeral	Gloss
/som/ *ten*	/ṇi/ *two*	/inkʰat/ *one*	/somṇiinkʰat/	*twenty-one*
/som/ *ten*	/ṇi/ *two*	/inṇi/ *two*	/somṇiinṇi/	*twenty-two*
/som/ *ten*	/tʰum/ *three*	/riŋa/ *five*	/somtʰumriŋa/	*thirty-five*
/som/ *ten*	/riŋa/ *five*	/sari/ *seven*	/somriŋasari/	*fifty-seven*
/som/ *ten*	/ruk/ *six*	/riet/ *eight*	/somrukriet/	*sixty-eight*
/irza/ *hundred*	/kʰat/ *one*	/somkʰat/ *ten*	/irzakʰat somkʰat/	*one hundred and ten*

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/irza/ *hundred*	/n̩i/ *two*	/somkʰat/ *ten*	/inkʰat/ *one*	/irzan̩i somkʰat inkʰat/	*two hundred and eleven*

When cardinals and adjectives occur as attributes of a noun, they follow the noun, as do articles and all the nominal phrasal components. A cardinal numeral can indicate plurality, and the noun is not overtly marked with the plural affix. However, when the other nominal components are added with the cardinals, the plural marker is suffixed to the noun phrase.

Noun	Noun + Numeral	Gloss	[Noun + Numeral + Adjective]-PL	Gloss
/lekʰabu/ *book*	/lekʰabu inn̩i/ book two	*two books*	/lekʰabu inn̩i ədum-hai/ book two blue-PL	*two blue books*
/nupaŋte/ *girl*	/nupaŋte riŋa/ girl five	*five girls*	/nupanŋte riŋa əsei-hai/ girl five tall-PL	*five tall girls*
/dokaŋ/ *table*	/dokaŋ som/ table ten	*ten tables*	/dokaŋ som əlien-hai/ table ten big-PL	*ten big tables*

4.2 Ordinal Numerals

Like many other Tibeto-Burman languages, Hrangkhol forms its ordinal numerals by means of affixation. The ordinal numerals are created by adding the nominalizer suffix '-na' to the cardinal numerals. Examples of ordinal numerals in Hrangkhol are provided below.

Table 5: Ordinal Numbers in Hrangkhol

Hrangkhol	Ordinal suffix	Hrangkhol	Gloss

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/inkʰat/ *one*		/inkʰatna/	first	
/inn̥i/ *two*		/inn̥ina/	second	
/intʰum/ *three*		/intʰumna/	third	
/minli/ *four*		/minlina/	fourth	
/so:m/ *ten*	'-na'	/so:mna/	tenth	
/so:mn̥i/ *twenty*		/somn̥ina/	twentieth	
/so:mtʰum/ *thirty*		/somtʰumna/	thirtieth	
/irzakʰat/ *hundred*		/irzakʰatna/	hundredth	
/saŋkʰat/ *thousand*		/saŋkʰatna/	thousandth	

4.3 Multiplicative Numerals

In Hrangkhol, multiplicative numerals are derived from cardinal numerals through affixation. The cardinal numerals are prefixed by 'voi-' *a certain number of times* and suffixed by the nominalizer morpheme '-na' to form multiplicative numerals. This process of adding a prefix and suffix is highly productive in Hrangkhol. The multiplicative numerals in Hrangkhol are shown below.

Table 6: Multiplicative Numerals in Hrangkhol

Prefix	Basic Numeral	Suffix	Multiplicative Numeral	Gloss
	/kʰat/ *one*		voikʰatna	once

'voi-'	/n̪i/ two	'-na'	/voin̪ina/	twice
	/tʰum/ three		/voitʰumna/	thrice
	/ruk/ six		/voirukna/	six times
	/som/ ten		/voisomna/	ten times
	/somtʰum/ thirty		/voisomtʰumna/	thirty times
	/somriŋankʰat/ fifty-one		/voisomriŋankʰatna/	fifty-one times
	/irzakʰat/ hundred		/voiirzakʰatna/	one hundred times
	/san̪n̪i/ two thousand		/voisan̪n̪ina/	two thousand times
	/irzakʰat somkʰat inkʰat/ ne hundred and eleven		/voirzakʰat somkʰat inkʰatna/	one hundred and eleven times

4.4 Fractional Numerals

The lexical items for 'half', 'piece', and 'quarter' are the only basic fractional numerals in the language. Fractional numeral in Hrangkhol is very rare as only a few of them exist. It is one of the typical features of the Tibeto-Burman languages also shared by Hrangkhol and its neighbouring languages. The fractional numbers in Hrangkhol are illustrated below.

/acimrip/   *half*

/arl̥ep/   *piece*

/pavakʰat/   *quarter*

Apart from the fractional numerals mentioned above, other types of fractional numerals

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are expressed through multi-morphemic words. The table below describes the fraction as a smaller part of a greater whole. In this formation, the denominator, which is the larger number, precedes the numerator, which is the smaller number.

Table 7: Fractional Numerals in Hrangkhol

Fractional Numerals	Gloss
baːk intʰum ata baːk kʰat *part three from part one*	*one out of three (1/3)*
baːk riŋa ata baːk intʰum *part five from part three*	*three out of five (3/5)*
baːk minli ata baːk kʰat *part four from part one*	*one out of four (1/4)*

4.5 Distributive Numerals

In Hrangkhol, distributive numerals are formed by reduplicating the cardinal numerals. It is observed that not the entire numeral is reduplicated; rather, only the numeral root is reduplicated followed by the morpheme '-in' as shown in the following examples.

/inkʰat kʰatin/   *one by one*

/inn̩i n̩in/   *two by two*

/intʰum tʰumin/   *three by three*

/anreŋin/   *all of them/ everyone*

/ansikin/   *each one*

4.6 Restrictive Numerals

Restrictive numerals in Hrangkhol are formed by adding the suffix '-vaih' *only* to the numerals as shown in the following examples

Table 8: Restrictive Numerals in Hrangkhol

Basic Numeral	Suffix	Restrictive Numeral	Gloss
/inkʰat/ *one*	'-vaih' *only*	/inkʰatvaih/	*one only*
/voikʰat/ *once*		/voikʰatvaih/	*once only*
/inn̩i/ *twice*		/inn̩ivaih/	*two only*
/acimrip/ *half*		/acimripvaih/	*half only*
/pavakʰat/ *quarter*		/pavakʰatvaih/	*quarter only*
John		/johnvaih/	*John only*
/ŋa/ *fish*		/ŋavaih/	*fish only*

4.7 Approximative Numerals

In Hrangkhol, the approximative numerals are formed by adding the suffix '-ve:l' to the cardinal numerals. The cardinal numerals may be preceded by a specific item for the numeral as shown in the following examples.

Table 9: Approximative Numerals in Hrangkhol

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Hrangkhol	Gloss
pasal riŋa-ve:l/ boy five-AprxN	*about five boys*
/lekʰabu inṇi-ve:l/ book two-AprxN	*about two books*
/da:rka:r ṇi-ve:l/ hour two-AprxN	*about two hours*
/her tʰum-ve:l/ kilogram three-AprxN	*about three kilograms*

5. Conclusion

Based on the above analysis, it can be concluded that Hrangkhol numerals are of decimal type. The basic cardinal numerals are bound roots that take numeral formative prefixes such as in-, m-, r-, ki-, and sa-. However, numerals ten, hundred, and thousand are free morphemes, meaning that they do not take any kind of affixes. Compound cardinals are formed by compounding basic cardinal numerals. To form additive compounds from 11 to 19, a marker, /le/, is added between ten and basic cardinal numerals. Multiplicative cardinal compounds are formed by compounding basic cardinals to each other. Multiplicative cum additive numerals are formed by multiplying the first two numerals and then adding the third numeral. The plural morpheme /-hai/ cannot co-occur with the numerals, but when other nominal components are added with the cardinals, the plural marker is suffixed to the noun phrase. Ordinal numerals in Hrangkhol are

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formed by adding the suffix '-na' to the basic cardinal numerals. Multiplicative ordinal numerals are formed by prefixing 'voi-' with the ordinal numerals. Fractional numerals in the language are rare compared to other numerals. Distributive numerals in Hrangkhol are formed by partial reduplication of the cardinal numerals. Restrictive numerals are formed by adding the suffix /vaih/ only to the numerals, while approximative numerals are formed by suffixing /ve:l/ to the cardinal numerals.

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Narrative Skills in Tamil Speaking Young Adults

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Abstract

Narratives can be described as natural cognitive and linguistic forms through which individuals attempt to order, organize and express meaning. Through narratives individuals make sense of their experiences and represent themselves to others. Narrative analysis is an approach taken to interview data that is concerned with understanding how and why people talk about their lives as a story or a series of stories. The purpose of the study was to access narrative skills in Tamil speaking young adults. The study was carried out in 20 young Tamil speaking adults which included 10 male and 10 female. The results obtained from trouble source, repair and resolution among male and female cross comparison were nonsignificant.

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1. Introduction

Language can be defined as a socially shared code or conventional system for representing concepts through the use of arbitrary symbols and rule-governed combinations of those symbols. The conventional or socially shared code of language allows listener and speaker or writer and reader of the same language to exchange information. In fact, "communication is the primary function of language" (Muma,1978). Communication is the process of exchanging information and ideas between participants. The process is an active one that involves encoding, transmitting, and decoding the intended message. It requires a sender and a receiver and each communication partner must be alert to the informational need of the other to ensure that messages are conveyed effectively and that intended meanings are preserved.

Narrative is a form of discourse. It is an uninterrupted stream of language modified by the speaker to capture and hold the listener's interest and attention (Owens, 2001). Narratives differ from conversations in a number of ways. When producing a narrative, the speaker produces a monologue throughout and must presuppose the information needed by the listener. In addition, the speaker must present all the information in an organized way by sequencing events so that the elements of the narrative are related and lead to some conclusion.

Constructing a narrative requires an appropriate use of language as a communication tool, which is a question of using language in a given situation and considering the interlocutor and the context of the interaction (Coquet, 2005). Moreover, constructing a narrative requires managing both its coherence, i.e., proposing a story structured in several steps at the temporal, causal and thematic levels (at the level of the overall macrostructure) and its cohesion which is defined by the creation of links between two statements (at the microstructure level) .

Narration has direct influence on social interactions, and it is a good indicator of development of other language abilities and academic achievements. Narrative analysis is a qualitative research methodology that involves examining and interpreting the stories or narratives

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people tell in order to gain insight into the meaning, experience and perspective that underlie them. Narrative analysis can be applied to various forms of communication, including written texts, oral interviews and visual media. The goal is to understand how individuals experience certain events structure them into coherent sequences to give them a subjective meaning.

Hegde, Shruthy and Subbarao (2010) evaluated performance of narrative skills in normal young adults and found that the repair strategies used were higher in young adults than others.

Adhikary and Kumaraswamy (2016) did comparison of narrative skills in Bhojpuri speaking geriatrics and young adults. Result showed that as a comparison of trouble sources, repair strategies, type of resolution and repair sequences geriatrics showed higher score than young adults.

Rollins (2014) analysed narrative skills in young adults with high- functioning Autism Spectrum Disorder (ASD) and found that many high functioning adults with ASD have difficulty in expressing how they feel and often neglect to conclude and make sense of their experiences in a social context.

Biddle, McCabe and Bliss (1996) examined narrative skills following Traumatic Brain Injury (TBI) in 10 children and 10 adults and found that individuals with TBI were significantly more dysfluent than their matched controls. Furthermore, their performance on the narrative task revealed a striking listener burden.

Narrative or storytelling, abilities appear to represent a relative strength in Down Syndrome (DS) . Children and adolescents with DS have been found to include a similar number of plot elements as mental age-matched, typically developing children (Boudreau & Chapman 2000), and more references to plot and theme than language-matched controls (Boudreau and Chapman 2000; Miles and Chapman 2002). Even when matched on mental age alone adolescents and young adults with DS used more evaluation (e.g., references to characters' mental states) in their narratives than typically developing controls in another study (Keller-Bell & Abbeduto 2007).

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Nebu and Kumaraswamy (2014) examined narrative skills in geriatrics Malayalam speakers and found that there is no significant difference between the trouble sources and type of repair strategies in familiar and unfamiliar tasks, while the difference in repair sequences and type of resolutions were highly significant. The comparison of Type Token Ratio (TTR) for familiar and unfamiliar tasks revealed highly significant difference for both open and close class words. So as the age increases there will be deterioration in the communicative skills.

Communicative repair also represents an area of vulnerability for children with William Syndrome (WS) . In an experimental task where an examiner incorrectly responded to a child's request for one of two objects, children with WS were less likely than mental age-matched typically developing controls to vary requests or rejections in response to the communication breakdown (Asada et al. 2010).

Sunny and Kumaraswamy (2015) analysed the repaired strategy and trouble sources in 20 normal geriatrics in the age range of 70-80 years and found that there is a highly significant difference between the trouble sources, type of repair strategies, repair sequences and resolutions in familiar and unfamiliar tasks. The comparison of TTR for both familiar and unfamiliar task revealed that there is a highly significant difference for both open and closed class words and also the unfamiliar tasks have more trouble sources, repair sequences, repair strategies and resolutions. Communication skills are seen to be deteriorated as a function of age.

Aishwarya and Deborah (2020) compared narrative comprehension and inference making ability in 120 native Tamil speakers in the age range 8 to 11 years in monolingual and bilingual context. The scores of the statistical analysis showed a difference of performance only across age. Qualitative analysis of inference types showed literal and coherence inferences were easier to make than simile comprehension and elaborative inferences for all groups.

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Kumaraswamy, Joseph and Rakshitha (2022) researched on narratives in 5-7 years typical Tamil speaking children and found that children had more errors of morphosyntactic and lexical semantics types of trouble sources and used repetitions, reduction and unrelated repair strategies. The most resolutions type used were successful and simple than others, also they used open class words than closed class words frequently.

2. Methodology

Aim and Objective

The present study aimed at evaluating the narratives of young adults speaking Tamil in the age range eighteen years to thirty five years using the guidelines given by Orange, Lubinski and Higginbotham (1996) .

Subjects

The participants chosen were 20 young adults of age range 18-35 years among which 10 were male and 10 were females with no significant history of speech, language, hearing as well as neurological problem participated in the present study. All the participants native language was Tamil. Participant's speech was recorded using standard laptop (MacBook Air) with a standard microphone with the help of PRAAT voice recording and analysis software 6.2.17 version (Boersma & Weenick,2022). Sampling rate was 44100 Hz and quantization level set at 16 bits.

Procedure

The recording was conducted in a room with soundproofing and good lighting. All the young adults who took part in the study were told to sit comfortably and Mic was placed 10 cm away from their mouth. Every participant was required to narrate their good and bad memories of their lives in their native language. The sample's audio recordings typically lasted for 8 minutes at the least and 10 minutes at the most. The collected speech sample was transcribed and used for the purpose of analysis to determine the types of problems that could arise which included trouble

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sources, repairs such as repetition, unrelatedness, elaboration, reduction, substitution and resolution given by Orange, Lubinski, and Higginbotham (1996). The TTR was used to further assess the data. TTR is the total number of unique words divided by the total number of words.
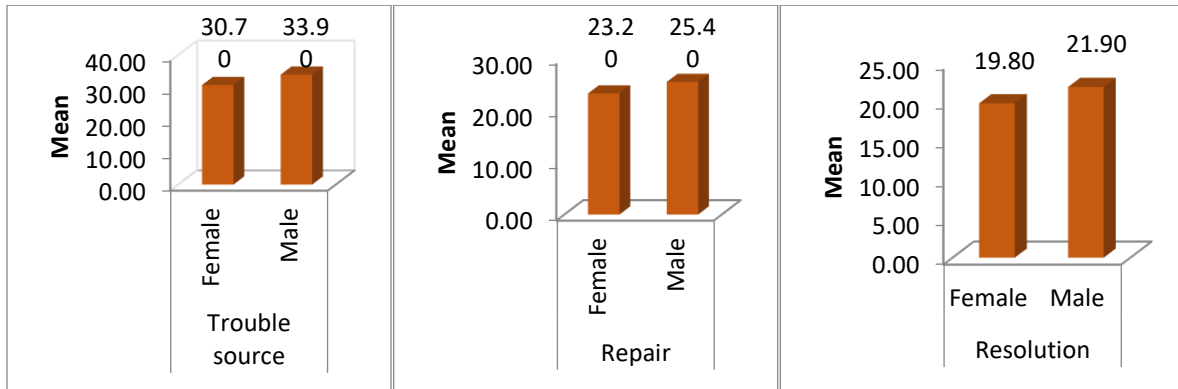
3. Results and Discussion

The objective of the current study was to describe the trouble sources, repair, resolutions, and type token ratio by analysing the narrative sample of 20 typical young adults speaking Tamil. The data obtained was statistically analysed and the results are discussed below.

Table 1 : showing mean scores of trouble source, repair and resolution

Group		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Median	IQR Lower	Upper	Mannwhitey test p value	
Trouble source	Female	10	30.70	6.86	30.50	24.50	34.25	0.684	NS
	Male	10	33.90	10.99	32.00	23.50	42.00		
Repair	Female	10	23.20	6.09	23.50	17.00	27.00	0.912	NS
	Male	10	25.40	10.30	21.50	17.00	34.75		
Resolution	Female	10	19.80	6.30	20.50	12.75	24.00	0.796	NS
	Male	10	21.90	9.92	18.50	13.75	30.75		

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Figure 1 : showing mean scores of trouble source, repair and resolution .

From Table 1 and Figure 1 it is evident that the mean scores for trouble source were 30.7 and 33.9, repair were 23.2 and 25.4 and resolution were 19.80 and 21.90 for female and male respectively. On cross comparison the results were non-significant for all trouble sources, repair and resolution.

Table 2 : showing mean scores for repair strategies (repetition, unrelated, elaboration, reduction and substitution)

		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Median	IQR Lower	IQR Upper	Mannwhitey test p value	
Repetition	Female	10	8.10	3.21	7.50	6.00	11.00	0.280	NS
	Male	10	10.30	4.16	9.50	6.75	14.50		
Unrelated	Female	10	2.20	2.04	2.00	0.00	4.00	0.393	NS
	Male	10	1.70	2.71	1.00	0.00	2.00		
Elaboration	Female	10	8.50	1.35	8.50	7.75	10.00	0.796	NS
	Male	10	9.00	3.33	9.00	5.00	12.25		
Reduction	Female	10	0.80	0.63	1.00	0.00	1.00	0.579	NS
	Male	10	1.40	1.78	1.00	0.00	2.00		
	Female	10	4.10	3.03	3.50	1.75	6.00	0.436	NS

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Substitution	Male	10	3.00	2.31	2.50	1.00	5.25		

From the above figure, it can be observed that the mean for the repair strategies was 8.10 and 10.30 for repetition, 2.20 and 1.70 for unrelated, 8.50 and 9.00 for elaboration , 0.80 and 1.40 for reduction and 4.10 and 3.00 for substitution on cross comparison with male and female respectively provided non-significant data.

The objective of the current study was to assess the narratives of young, Tamil-speaking adults between the ages of 18 to 35. The participants chosen were 20 young adults among which 10 were male and 10 were females with no significant history of speech, language, hearing as well as neurological problem participated in the present study.

The results of the present study concluded that the number of trouble source and repairs were higher than resolution in both males and females. The present study is in accordance to the study done by Hedge, Sruthy and Subbarao (2010) that the number of trouble sources and repair strategies used were higher in Kannada speaking young adults than the middle aged and older adults.

From the results it is inferred that on cross comparison among Tamil speaking young males and females yielded no significant difference. The present results was in accordance with Adhikary and Kumaraswamy (2016) researched on comparison of narrative skills in Bhojpuri speaking geriatrics and young adults and found no significant difference for repairs, resolution and trouble sources for both familiar versus unfamiliar task when compared between young adults and geriatrics .

Summary and Conclusion

The purpose of the current study was to assess narratives in Tamil speaking young adults in the age range eighteen years to thirty-five years with no significant history of speech, language, hearing as well as neurological problem. The speech samples were elicited, and the audio recordings of the samples ranged in duration from 8 to 10 minutes. The collected speech sample

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was transcribed and used for the purpose of analysis to determine various types of trouble sources, repair strategies such repetition, unrelated, elaboration, reduction, and substitution, as well as the resolution proposed by Orange, Lubinski, and Higginbotham in 1996.

The results of the present study revealed that the number of trouble source and repairs were seen higher than resolution on cross comparison and no significant difference were obtained on repair strategies (repetition, unrelatedness, elaboration, reduction, substitution) among female and male.

Narratives and stories enable us to make sense of them, to identify their significance, and even, when they are painful or unpleasant, to accept them and live with them. Narratives and stories feature prominently as sense-making devices, through which events are not merely infused with meaning, but constructed and contested. Personal narratives serve an important function in virtually all societies (Peterson & McCabe, 1991). This study draws us an idea of how the narrative skills can be profiled in normal young adults. Thus the present study would serve as a reliable tool to predict the narrative skills in Tamil speaking young adults, also provides detailed information about the repair strategies.

Limitations of the Study

1. Video recording could not be done.

2. Study was not compared between other age groups.

3. Resolution types were not mentioned.

Future Directions

1. Study could be done for a greater number of subjects.

2. Study can be done for other age groups as well

3. Video recording can be done while collecting data. It will add value in nonverbal aspects of narration.

4. Familiar and non-familiar tasks can be included.

5. Complexity of resolution can be assessed

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6. Can compare open set and closed set words.

7.Detailing on trouble source such as phonological, morphological-syntactic, semantic, discourse can be performed.

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A. W. Schlegel on Romanticism in *Lectures on Dramatic Art*

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Abstract

This paper aims at analysing the perspectives of A. W. Schlegel's famous work *Lectures on Dramatic Art*. With the advent of science, literary artists and professors began to write the principles of writing and an urgency to work it out in an objective and scientific manner. Schlegel aims at tracing the way poetic styles shifted from classicism to Romanticism during the 19th century. European writing came under the influence of the Greeks and Latin works, later took influences from Christianised writings of various nations in Europe, inspired by Shakespeare's writings that broke away from the Greek and Latin model and again met with the Sanskrit texts from India. A great transformation took place amalgamating all these varied influences into a new type of writing, later termed as 'romantic' in nature.

Keywords: A. W. Schlegel, *Lectures on Dramatic Art,* Shakespeare, Romanticism.

August Wilhelm von Schlegel (1767-1845) was a German "translator, philosopher, and poet" who is "considered to be one of the founders of the German Romantic Movement" which was conceived by him "as a European movement" and also he was "one of the most prominent disseminators of its philosophical foundational ideas" in Europe, "most notably in Britain" with his "outstanding knowledge of art, history, literature, architecture, anthropology, and foreign languages" that contributed to the "development of comparative literature and modern linguistics;" he launched "the journal *Indische Bibliothek*" and thus "inaugurated the domain of Sanskrit studies in Germany". He was a critic and was famous for "his brilliant translations into German of Shakespeare, which are still used today" (Hay).

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"Friedrich Schlegel and his circle" hearkened "back to the old use of *romauns* as a term distinct from "Latin," for one of the emergent meanings in contrast with "classic," that is, Greek and Latin literature" and Friedrich Schlegel recognised classicism in contemporary writers and found qualities of romanticism in Shakespeare, Cervantes and in Italian poetry; in his circle, "*romantisch*" came to be "identified with modern or Christian"; there were occasions when "it was narrowed to a sense connected to *Roman* as novel and meant *novelish* or *novelic*, the novel being a characteristically modern genre" (Ferber 2).

"We owe some of the best Shakespearean criticism ever written to the Romantics. Between 1808 and 1818, August Wilhelm von Schlegel, Samuel Taylor Coleridge and William Hazlitt" brought in "character criticism" into the analysis of Shakespearean plays and thus the Romantics ushered in "practical criticism;" they introduced "close reading of texts" and aimed at understanding "textual structures as organic wholes, centred and unified in a germ that had only to be laid open to give meaning to the entire work of art;" these essays and lectures initiated "modern criticism and the emergence of a new hermeneutics" that "became almost identical with the history of Shakespeare interpretation through Romanticism" (Grundmann 29).

In 1771 Johann Wolfgang Goethe (1749-1832) wrote an essay "*Zum Shakespeares Tag*" (On Shakespeare Day). Dickson quotes Goethe:

> The first page of his I read put me in his debt for a lifetime, and once I had read an entire play, I stood there like a blind man, given the gift of sight by some miraculous healing touch. I sensed my own existence multiplied in a prism – everything was new to me, unfamiliar, and the unwonted light hurt my eyes. (Goethe as quoted by Dickson)

Romantic writers, especially, Goethe's friend Friedrich Schiller (1759 - 1805) "exalted" Shakespeare; by 1860s, "the *Deutsche Shakespeare-Gesellschaft* (German Shakespeare-Company Society) was founded in Weimar;" in 1864, Friedrich Max Muller (1823 - 1900) celebrated Shakespeare as a poet on par with "Goethe and Schiller" (Dickson).

The Germans welcomed Shakespearean plays; they felt "the belatedness and lack of a great national literature of their own;" it "induced in German writers an enthusiastic Shakespeare cult, which exceeded the bardolatry of the other countries on the continent and from the start combined admiration with identification and appropriation;" the nineteenth century "Germans regarded

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Shakespeare as exemplary of the democratic and progressive liberal cultural life of England and tried to incorporate him as a third 'German classic' into their own culture" (Grundmann 34).

Christoph Martin Wieland (1733-1813) translated 22 plays of Shakespeare which "appeared between 1762 and 1766" and from this period "Shakespeare became the common property of all educated Germans;" slowly Shakespeare's evocative power began to be appreciated by "a new generation" of writers and academics called as "*Sturm und Drang* (Storm and Stress), comprising Gerstenberg, Klinger, Lenz, Herder, Goethe, and Schiller" who "worshipped" him; Johann Gottfried Herder (1744-1803) wrote his famous essay "Shakespeare in 1773; in this essay Herder argued that Greek drama is a product of the "geographical position of Greece and its national culture and tradition, while Shakespeare is the product of the north and of entirely different cultural conditions" (Grundmann 35).

Herder can be located within "the periods of Enlightenment… and Weimar Classicism;" in 1773 he wrote "*Auszug aus einem Briefwechsel über Ossian und die Lieder alter Völker* (Voices of the People in their Songs; Extract from a Correspondence about Ossian and the Songs of Ancient Peoples);" he believed that "a poet is the creator of the nation around him… he gives them a world to see and has their souls in his hand to lead them to that world;" he laid a lot of emphasis on "Germanic origins" of contemporary literary works "as against the then still current dominance of Classical Greek culture" and "inspired Jacob and Wilhelm Grimm in their collection of German folk tales;" Herder went in search of stories from "mediaeval European traditions" comprising "folk literature, fairy tales, mediaeval epics and poetry, and non-Christian texts" like "Scottish Ossian, the Icelandic Edda, Chanson de Roland, the Middle High German Nibelungen, the Old Russian Igor;" his interest in native literatures resembled the interests of Jean Jacques Rousseau (1712-1778) (Witzel 13).

Herder put Shakespeare on a high pedestal and created an image of him as a great writer and genius who was a product of his country, its geographical and political circumstances and argued how the Greeks wrote their literature and literary laws reflecting their topography and traditions, and claimed that these Greek laws need not become a compulsory framework and stylesheet for the other writers from other parts of Europe. He located literary works as products of time and space.

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> If any man brings to mind that tremendous image of one "seated high atop some craggy eminence, whirlwinds, tempest, and the roaring sea at his feet, but with the flashing skies about his head," that man is Shakespeare! Only we might add that below him, at the very base of his rocky throne, there murmur the multitudes who explain, defend, condemn, excuse, worship, slander, translate, and traduce him— and all of whom he cannot hear! (Herder 1)

If a nation chooses to write its drama, it need not follow the principles of writing as decided by another country. Seminal questions to ask in this perspective are: "When? Where? Under what conditions? Out of which materials should it do so?" If a drama of a particular country has not evolved from chorus and dithyramb, then it need not add these features. A country's "history, tradition, and domestic, political, and religious relations" have complex mechanisms to be operated, and art will be drawn "out of its history, out of the spirit of the age, manners, opinions, language, national prejudices, traditions, and pastimes, even out of carnival plays and puppet plays (just as the noble Greeks did from the chorus);" art, produced in this manner, responding to the qualities of the people, "achieves its dramatic purpose" amidst the concerned people, as it is created by them and for them. A famous example of art and its genesis out of the nation's needs and expectations is "the *toto divisis ab orbe* (completely separated from the world) *Britannis* and their great Shakespeare" (Herder 24-25).

Shakespeare had completely liberated himself from the grammar of playwriting established by the classical theorists and Herder celebrated Shakespeare's originality and the ability to be different from other styles of writings that duplicated classical models.

Historical background to art is an emphatic argument put forward by Herder. In 1774, he wrote his treatise on "the philosophy of history, *This Too a Philosophy of History for the Formation of Humanity* (1774);" another important work longer in size was "the *Ideas for the Philosophy of History of Humanity* (1784–91);" interpretation has to take the historical background into consideration; Sophoclean tragedy has to be interpreted in a different manner from a Shakespearean tragedy; literary works are guided by certain linguistic and social rules of the lands that produce them; books have to be interpreted as a whole and not in parts. In his "Essays *On the Ode* (1764) and *Attempt at a History of Lyric Poetry* (1765) he argued that early Greek poetry, especially Homer, communicates a very different set of moral values," different from Christianised European values (Forster).

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"A. W. Schlegel fought for productions of Shakespeare" and his 17 translations of Shakespeare's plays "between 1797 and 1810" which "broke new ground in attempting to reproduce Shakespeare's blank verse and idiom in a German close to the English original as possible;" these translations "met with some opposition at the time," but "have attained canonical status" in Germany, and "most people still read, know and perform" these German translations even now (Grundmann 37).

Ludwig Maximilian University of Munich owns the Shakespeare Research Library that holds the first edition of A. W. Schlegel's translations. Schlegel collaborated with the writer Ludwig Tieck and his daughters.

> As early as 1789, August Wilhelm Schlegel had begun translating Shakespeare. The first play he turned to was *A Midsummer Night's Dream*. By 1810, Schlegel had translated seventeen of Shakespeare's plays and had begun publishing the plays in German to great acclaim. In 1819, under pressure to complete and publish further translations, Schlegel contacted the poet and writer Ludwig Tieck and asked him to undertake the translation of the remaining Shakespeare plays. Tieck agreed and shared this task with his eldest daughter Dorothea and the diplomat and writer Wolf Heinrich von Baudissin. The Schlegel-Tieck translation thus became a collaborative effort with four different translators involved in the project. During the 1820s, Ludwig Tieck also began to make changes and revisions to Schlegel's existing translations. (Shakespeare Research Library)

Later, Schlegel wrote to the publisher Georg Andreas Reimer "that he had not been aware of the changes and revisions Tieck had made to his translations." Hence, Reimer "removed many of Tieck's revisions from subsequent print-runs of the work." Therefore, "literary critics trace and assess the complex textual and editorial history of the work" as "the first edition held at the LMU Shakespeare Research Library is of particular value;" scholars agree that "it is the only edition that contains Tieck's alterations in full." (Shakespeare Research Library)

The German translations of Shakespeare's plays brought forth a new tradition of writing referred to as Romanticism. It was "often presented in terms of the ideals of its spokesmen, such as the brothers August Wilhelm and Friedrich Schlegel, emphasising its coherence, strengths, positive contributions, and importance" (Soros 12).

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The term Romantic was first popularised and disseminated through the scholar, translator, and critic August Wilhelm Schlegel's *Lectures on Dramatic Literature* from 1808. August Wilhelm and his brother the philosopher Friedrich Schlegel were among the primary founders of the Romantic movement, first at Jena and later Berlin. They and other Romantic theorists were partly reacting against the predominance of French culture, artistic theory, and language, including at the court of the Prussian King Frederick the Great… The German Romantics partly turned against the French and toward their own Germanic and other mediaeval traditions, including Dante and Shakespeare, dismissed in the neoclassical period, yet the Romantics were also inevitable heirs of the Enlightenment, and in some regards its further unfolding. This ambiguity played an important part in the uncomfortable relation to Romanticism of both Goethe and Heine, as adherents of many Enlightenment ideals. (Soros 12)

Kant argued in his *Critique of Judgment*, to evaluate and be inspired by beauty in art and life, one applies the cognitive and the rational ability. Romanticism is intertwined with Classicism at this colliding point.

A. W. Schlegel interpreted classical literary works as products of "neoclassical period and the enlightenment" as these works laid an emphasis on "harmony, symmetry, totality, and perfection of ancient art;" he defines the "Romantic ideal" as an expression of humanity that possesses an "yearning for the invisible, extremes, the incomplete and sublime, as irrational, imperfect, and ugly;" Schlegel opined "that Shakespeare far surpassed ancient as well as modern French tragedy in originality and represented the true counterpart of the ancient tragic poets" which can be considered to be "a revolutionary judgement;" the age also witnessed "the aesthetics of the philosopher Immanuel Kant, who had discussed the sublime as opposed to the beautiful, elaborating on prior essays by David Hume and Edmund Burke." (Soros 13)

The principle of aesthetics or assessing the beauty of a literary work requires the ability to judge, according to Kant. It requires cognitive abilities and we tend to apply the schema of reason in judging the beauty of a literary text. Beauty of a work has to be assessed based on a cognitive yardstick. It is different from the sublimity of a work or the seriousness of a work. Romanticism falls under the category of beauty as it involves the principle of aesthetics. An instinctive understanding and appreciation or *priori* plays a major role in appreciation of a text.

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This perplexity about a principle (whether it is subjective or objective) presents itself mainly in those judgments that we call aesthetical, which concern the beautiful and the sublime of nature or of art. And, nevertheless, the critical investigation of a principle of judgement in these is the most important part in a critique of this faculty. For although they do not by themselves contribute to the knowledge of things, yet they belong to the cognitive faculty alone, and point to an immediate reference of this faculty to the feeling of pleasure or pain according to some principle *a priori*; without confusing this with what may be the determining ground of the faculty of desire, which has its principles *a priori* in concepts of Reason. (Kant)

Burke refers to beauty as a social quality as it inspires us in social relationships and he gets into an explanation of how we are inspired by beauty in real life.

I call beauty a social quality; for where women and men, and not only they, but when other animals give us a sense of joy and pleasure in beholding them (and there are many that do so), they inspire us with sentiments of tenderness and affection towards their persons; we like to have them near us, and we enter willingly into a kind of relation with them, unless we should have strong reasons to the contrary. (Burke)

A utility product like a piece of furniture also can be presented as a work of art as the beauty in it can be captured by the artist and can be expressed in an aesthetic manner, Hume says.

A machine, a piece of furniture, a vestment, a house well contrived for use and convenience, is so far beautiful, and is contemplated with pleasure and approbation. An experienced eye is here sensible to many excellencies, which escape persons ignorant and uninstructed… A ship appears more beautiful to an artist, or one moderately skilled in navigation, where its prow is wide and swelling beyond its poop, than if it were framed with a precise geometrical regularity, in contradiction to all the laws of mechanics. (Hume)

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The nineteenth century witnessed these thinkers who gave a lot of importance to the concept of beauty which had its echoes in creative writing and other areas of art. As a historical critic, A. W. Schlegel explores how classicism slipped into romanticism.

During the fifteenth century "the new European stage sprung up." Europe created "allegorical and religious pieces called Moralities and Mysteries" which were original in themes and "uninfluenced by the ancient dramatists" that "lay the germ of the romantic drama as a peculiar invention" (A. W. Schlegel).

> The attempts at romantic drama have always failed in Italy; whereas in Spain, on the contrary, all endeavours to model the theatre according to the rules of the ancients, and latterly of the French, have from the difference of national taste uniformly been abortive …The romantic poets take the liberty even of changing the scene during the course of an act…In all Art and Poetry, but more especially in the romantic, the Fancy lays claims to be considered as an independent mental power governed according to its own laws. (A. W. Schlegel)

The nineteenth century philosophers and thinkers viewed art as an element that went above mere representation of life or imitation of reality. Accordingly, art had "the power to elevate" people "above" their "ordinary encounters with the world, above the sorrows and daily troubles of life;" Schlegel argued "that the purpose of art could not be a mere imitation" and opined that "the best works of art would be the ones that deceive the most" and would involve human fantasy and creativity; art's purpose is not only "to replicate nature (understood as an object rather than a subject)" as "the aesthetic objects would evoke no particular interest beyond mere ornamentation;" the contemplating and designing part of art and its actual "production" have to be "seen as the result of creative activity" (Hay).

Art has its laws that govern its production. After the advent of science into academia, thinkers began to investigate the principles of art too in a scientific manner. "Every art… has its own special theory, designed to teach the limits, the difficulties, and the means by which it must be regulated" and hence "scientific investigations are indispensable to the artist" and a "man of thought and speculation" understands the importance of such a study (A. W. Schlegel).

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A. W. Schlegel recommends reading literary works of various lands to open minds and break away from the fetters of conventions. We have to train our minds to appreciate art from other countries and cultivate our minds and avoid discrimination.

"No man can be a true critic or connoisseur without universality of mind" and "renouncing all personal predilections and blind habits." A critic has to "adapt himself to the peculiarities of other ages and nations" and try to assimilate other cultures and values. Poetry cannot be claimed only by certain languages and cultures. "Despotism in taste" would end up as "a vain and empty pretension." For A. W. Schlegel "poetry … is a universal gift of Heaven." Thoughts spring up from the roots of human nature and every such creative work is invaluable (A. W. Schlegel).

The culture and civilisation of Greece created a strong impact on European art and culture after the renaissance. The establishment of universities across the continent solidified the prestige of classical languages and their languages. After colonialism, Europe came across Asian languages and literary works, and in a way this has facilitated a new way of writing incorporating various genres of writing.

Also, the printing press revived Greek literature and "this powerfully excited the human mind, and formed a decided epoch in the history of human civilisation." Scholars possessed knowledge of classical languages and literature and "claimed for the ancients an unlimited authority." These men of letters "valued what resembled…those of the ancients. Everything else they rejected as barbarous and unnatural." On the contrary, poets "were compelled by their independence and originality of mind, to strike out a path of their own, and to impress upon their productions the stamp of their own genius." An example of this originality was "Dante among the Italians, the father of modern poetry" who acknowledged "Virgil for his master" but "produced a work" that was different from "*Aeneid*" and Dante's *Divine Comedy* excelled "in power, truth, compass, and profundity." In art, one has to be original under all circumstances. "In the fine arts, mere imitation is always fruitless." Art can be influenced by other forms of art but still if it has to acquire a "true poetical shape" it has to "be born again within us." A. W. Schlegel perceives classical art as a foreign agency and asks: "Of what avail is all foreign imitation?" Art has to be born from one's own experiences and it "cannot exist without nature, and man can give nothing to his fellow-men but himself." Ancient art gave a lot of importance to metre as it produced melody. "Rousseau" was a modern writer who "acknowledged the contrast in music, and showed that rhythm and melody were the prevailing principles of ancient, as harmony is that of modern music."

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A. W. Schlegel concludes: "the spirit of ancient art and poetry is *plastic*, but that of the moderns' *pìcturesque*." (A. W. Schlegel)

> The second half of the eighteenth century in England, and also largely in Germany and France, has long been a victim of a tug-of-war between the classical and the Romantic, between the Enlightenment and Romanticism. English letters has had no ''Storm and Stress'' period, no established name to give to a long transition between periods that appear so different in nature. As a result, there has been a tendency for Romanticism – already so voluminous and variable that the term can hardly bear its own weight – to swallow half of the eighteenth century as well, through the term ''PreRomantic,'' a term that stems from observations made in the 1930s of conspicuous parallels between European music and literature of the 1740s to the 1790s. (Brodey 10-11)

The stress between the classical and the new romantic or spontaneous writing was very volatile in Germany. Schlegel and Herder recommended Shakespeare's original type of writing reflecting local needs and philosophies. They welcomed Germanic art to classical art.

The old German architecture ought to have been called so instead of 'Gothic.' After the revival of Greek art and architecture, old German architecture which sprung responding to the climatic needs of the land came to be condemned, and called "tasteless, gloomy, and barbarous." From hindsight "the Gothic architecture displays not only an extraordinary degree of mechanical skill, but also a marvellous power of invention" and one recognizes "its profound significance", and its "complete and finished system." A. W.Schlegel doesn't want to "quarrel" with any man "for his predilection either for the Grecian or the Gothic" as the "world is wide, and affords room for a great diversity of objects" and "narrow and blindly adopted prepossessions will never constitute a genuine critic or connoisseur, who ought… to possess the power of dwelling with liberal impartiality on the most discrepant views, renouncing the while all personal inclinations." The Greeks' "religion was the deification of the powers of nature and of earthly life" which brought forth "a mild, grand, and a dignified form." The Greeks gave free play to superstition and it "cherished the arts by which it was adorned, and its idols became the models of ideal beauty." Their civilization was "of a refined and ennobled sensuality." Exceptions are there to this general structure in the form of "a few philosophers, and the irradiations of poetical inspiration." Art is controlled by "religion" which "is the root of human existence."   Religion carries the

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unconsciousness of man and one cannot disturb this system of thought in human minds. Christianity has dominated the unconsciousness of Europe and "this sublime and beneficent religion has regenerated the ancient world from its state of exhaustion and debasement" and "it is the guiding principle in the history of modern nations." People may not be aware of the power of Christianity that has thoroughly influenced their perceptions and attitudes. (A. W. Schlegel)

Christianity emerged as a very strong social institution that influenced European thinking and approaches to life. It became the main theme of art at unconscious and conscious levels. Motifs and symbols of texts came to be drawn from Christianity.

The Teutonic tribes of Europe "who infused new life and vigour into a degenerated people" welcomed Christianity" with "honest cordiality" and "it penetrated more deeply into the inner man, displayed more powerful effects, or become more interwoven with all human feelings and sensibilities." The mixture of the "honest heroism of the northern conquerors" with "the sentiments of Christianity, gave rise to chivalry." Assimilation of the tribal roughness "with the virtues of chivalry was associated a new and purer spirit of love" as "Christianity did not, like the heathen worship, rest satisfied with certain external acts, but claimed an authority over the whole inward man and the most hidden movement of the heart." This social change introduced "chivalry, love, and honour, together with religion itself" which became "the subjects of that poetry of nature which poured itself out in the Middle Ages with incredible fullness, and preceded the more artistic cultivation of the romantic spirit." People began to weave tales "consisting of chivalrous tales and legends; but its wonders and its heroism were the very reverse of those of ancient mythology." The Greeks conceived nature as "all-sufficient" and did not see any "defects, and aspired to no higher perfection." Christianity trained people "by superior wisdom that man, through a grievous transgression, forfeited the place for which he was originally destined." The purpose of mankind, accordingly, is to "struggle to regain" the "lost position" which it cannot accomplish on its own. The old Greek religion was a religion "of the senses" which "sought no higher possession than outward and perishable blessings." (A. W. Schlegel)

> The very reverse of all this is the case with the Christian view: everything finite and mortal is lost in the contemplation of infinity; life has become shadow and darkness, and the first day of our real existence dawns in the world beyond the grave. Such a religion must waken the vague foreboding, which slumbers in every feeling heart, into a distinct consciousness that the happiness after which we are here striving is

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unattainable; that no external object can ever entirely fill our souls; and that all earthly enjoyment is but a fleeting and momentary illusion. (A. W. Schlegel)

Europe amalgamated multiple influences into its thinking processes. It took up Greek, Roman, Christian, Shakespeare's English, and Sanskrit ideologies and writing styles and a new kind of approaching life began to be reflected in its art that was spontaneous in nature.

There was a harmonious relationship with "human nature" and all the "powers" of nature; the Europeans "have arrived at the consciousness of an internal discord which renders such an ideal impossible"; the poetry of modern Europeans attempts to "reconcile these two worlds between which" they "find ourselves divided, and to blend them indissolubly together." (A. W. Schlegel).

> In like manner the battles of the human mind, if I may use the expression, have been won by a few intellectual heroes. The history of the development of art and its various forms may be therefore exhibited in the characters of a number, by no means considerable, of elevated and creative minds. (A. W. Schlegel)

Romantic writings gave freeplay to emotions and creativity, enjoying the freedom from rigid metric expectations of the reading public. They blended various emotions and styles of writing, creating works of art closer to the people and their traditions.

European writers after Roman writings began to be delighted "in indissoluble mixtures; all contrarieties: nature and art, poetry and prose, seriousness and mirth, recollection and anticipation, spirituality and sensuality, terrestrial and celestial, life and death"; and these elements are "blended together in the most intimate combination" (A. W. Schlegel).

> Romantic poetry…is the expression of the secret attraction to a chaos which lies concealed in the very bosom of the ordered universe, and is perpetually striving after new and marvellous births; the life-giving spirit of primal love broods here anew on the face of the waters. (A. W. Schlegel)

The universe is a place of multiplicities and texts romantic in nature, reflected varieties and diverse cultures - ranging from folk tales to works with Christian themes- and celebrated human nature breaking away from the rigidities of metre and formal structures.

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Negation in Sambalpuri: A Typological Study

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Abstract

The present study attempts to provide a descriptive analysis of negation in Sambalpuri language. Since Sambalpuri is a lesser-known language, the prime purpose of the current investigation is to document and analyse the linguistic properties of negation and its function in different environments. Sambalpuri is an unscheduled Indo-Aryan language with SOV typology. It is spoken in the western part of Indian state of Odisha. It is interesting to note that Sambalpuri has more than one variant of negative markers. However, the variants are used in different parts of western Odisha, but one that is used for non-clausal negation is different from the clausal negation. The position of the negative marker in this language is preverbal. Moreover, the language shows partial loss of some grammatical features as tense marker, person, number and agreement. So, this paper undertakes to illicit the data on negation in different syntactic areas namely, standard negation, negation in imperative, negation and honorific, agreement features, negation in question, and issues of negative polarity items (NPIs), deletion of different categories and scope of negation etc. and later on it provides an exhaustive description.

Keywords: Negation, Sambalpuri language, Odisha, Indo-Aryan language, SOV typology, clausal negation, non-clausal negation, NPIs.

1. Introduction

Negation, as perceived by many linguists, is a universal linguistic feature among the world languages. It can be defined as an aspect to oppose the sense of affirmation. Miestamo (2017) defines negation as "in propositional logic, negation can be defined as an operator changing the truth value of a proposition p to its opposite ¬p. In natural languages, things do not look quite so simple as negation is marked in a multitude of ways and enters into intricate interaction with various other functional domains; this interaction may result in complicated semantic and pragmatic effects that make the analysis of the meaning of negation quite a bit harder than simply noting the difference in truth value." Payne (1997), Drayer et.al (2005) and Miestamo (2013) studied different language samples and established the fact that there are two types of negation found in a language: clausal negation and non-clausal negation. Being a universal property of natural language, it is present in all languages. However, they differ in form and

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structure while expressing negation. Some languages have different negative particles for different linguistic environment, but some other have only one to express all types of negation. In Sambalpuri language, there are three negative particles used to negate the sentences: 'ne/nei/nɑi/ni', 'nihe/nuhe', 'bin/binɑ'. The last two negative particles are context sensitive. The negative particle 'nihe/nuhe' is used in the non-verbal clauses whereas 'bin/binɑ' is used only in the context of conjunct participle constructions. The standard negator has four different variants which can be used interchangeably. Further, these are dialectal variations of negative particle in Sambalpuri. Like most Indo-Aryan languages, the negative particle in Sambalpuri is used in preverbal position. Hence, the present research work undertakes to examine the negation in Sambalpuri language.

The paper is organised as follows. Section 1 gives an introduction with language overview, methodology and literature review on the typology of negation. Section 2 discusses clausal negation in Sambalpuri language focusing on standard negation, negation in tense, aspect and mood; negation in non-declaratives: imperatives, questions; negation in non-verbal clauses and non-main clauses. It broadly explains the nature of negation with respect to symmetric and asymmetric dichotomy in all cases as well as negative marker and its position in the sentence whether preverbal or post-verbal. It also examines how a dedicated negative marker is used especially in the negation of non-verbal clauses. Section 3 includes non-clausal negation which discusses negative replies to polar interrogatives, negative indefinite pronouns and quantifiers. It mainly concentrates on how the polar interrogatives are replied in negative whether with a single negative morpheme like English or it uses more than that. Section 4 deals with other aspect of negation like the scope of negation, negative plarity items (NPIs), negation in coordination, negation in conditional clauses, double negation. The main focus of the section is on the scope of negation and negative polarity items.

1.1 Language Overview

Sambalpuri is a mother tongue of people living in the Western part of Odisha in India. Sambalpuri falls under the Indo-Aryan language family (*Ethnolgue*) having SOV typology. It is also known as Koshli[1] or Kosli (Tripathy 1992, Tripathy 1993, Dash 1994, Patel 2000, and Pradhan 2016). The term Kosli and Sambalpuri has been a controversial term among the Sambalpuri speakers especially in political spheres. People in the western part of Odisha uses Sambalpuri language in their social, political, and cultural interaction. It is also used as a mode communication in the field of trade and commerce. The speaking area comprises of 11 districts of western Odisha, viz. Bargarh, Bolangir, Kalahandi, Sonepur, Sambalpur, Jharsuguda, Sundargarh, Deogarh, Boudh, Nuapada; and Athmallik sub-division of Angul district (given in the map). It is noted that Sambalpuri is being used by the people in their home and public domains in the border areas of Chhattisgarh and Jharkhand states. However, their official mother tongue is different.

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[1] Kosli owes its origin after the name of the region Koshal, the Eastern Hindi speaking region. (Tripathy 1992, Tripathy 1993, Dash 1994, Patel 2000 and Pradhan 2016)

As it is observed that "the Sambalpuri-speaking people of Western Odisha face a dual linguistic situation because they generally use Sambalpuri for oral communication among themselves and Oriya for formal communication" (Patel 2000). It is worth noting that Sambalpuri language has gained a very poor attention by the linguists, in comparison to its cognate languages. By observing the linguistic features of the language, it can be stated that it shares genetic affinity with Indo-Aryan language family. Sambaluri is often considered to be a dialect of Odia. But this may have been a diachronic status; however, in present such opinion would not hold any merit, especially when languages (i.e., Sambalpuri and Odia) are so different from the point of view of the linguistic features, although there is certain amount of mutual intelligibility (Tripathy 1992, Tripathy 1993, Dash 1994, Patel 2000, Chhuria, 2013 and Pradhan 2016). But when one looks deeper into the language, one would find that the language is different in many linguistic aspects in phonological level, morphological level, syntactic level and semantic level.

The script used by Sambalpuri writers for the literary production is Odia. Currently, Sambalpuri language is used widely for the production of literature and other written materials, films, songs, news, etc. Recently, some writers, singers and producer of Sambalpuri language were awarded Padma Shri, the second highest civilian awards of India to recognise the literary and cultural richness in the language. In the year 2016, Dr. Haldhar Nag, a renowned Sambalpuri poet and writer, was awarded Padma Shri and in the next year, Shree Jitendra Haripal, a legendary Sambalpuri singer and composer, was conferred with Padma Shri. In 2020, Shree Mitrabhanu Gauntia, composer of 'Rangabati' was awarded Padma Shri for his contribution to the music world of Sambalpuri. Dr. Krishna Patel another renowned musician and vocalist has been conferred with Padma Shri Award in 2023.

As the language is widely being spoken by the different districts of Odisha, it has its dialectal variations among the speakers of Sambalpuri, Bargadia (spoken in Bargarh), Bolangiri/a (spoken in Bolangir district), Sundargadi/ia (spoken in Sundargarh), Deogarhia (spoken in Deogarh region) etc. Patel (2000) gives a brief description of this dialectal difference of Sambalpuri language- the negative morpheme 'nɑɪ' 'no' becomes 'nɪ' in Bolangiri and Sandargarhi; same morpheme becomes 'nuhe' and 'nɪhe' in Bargarh and Sambalpur districts. The Sambalpuri adverb 'ɪhaḏe' 'now' becomes 'ɛkʰɛn' and 'ɪgʰəḏɪ' in Sundargarh and Subarnapur districts respectively. Sambalpuri 'ḏəuḏɪba' 'to run' becomes 'bəḏkɪba' in Sundargarhi and 'nərḏɪba' in Bolangiri and Kalahandi variety.

Map: The shaded areas indicate Sambalpuri speaking districts of Western Odisha
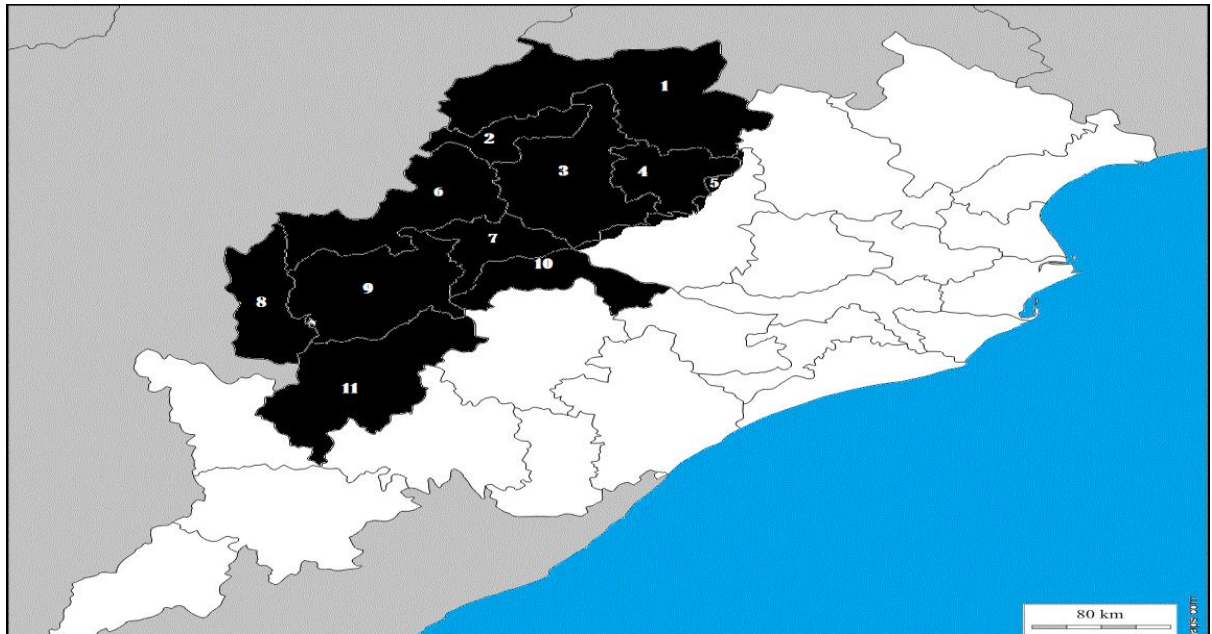
1. Sudargarh, 2- Jharsuguda, 3. Sambalpur, 4. Deogarh, 5. Athmallick subdivision of Angul district, 6. Bargarh, 7. Subarnapur (Sonepur), 8. Nuapada, 9. Bolangir, 10. Boudh, 11. Kalahandi

1.1 Methodology

The aim of current study is to describe the linguistic features of negation formation and its usage in different environments in Sambalpuri language. Since the language itself is comparatively paid less attention and therefore lesser known in terms endangerment index, the negation is definitely an undiscovered area for many linguists. However, some recent scholars have drawn their attention for the documentation and description of different features of the language. So, the present endeavour is to bring out the negation, negative particles and its morphosyntactic operation in the language.

The methodology that I have adopted for the research paper is deductive by nature. While collecting data for the said work, observation, interview, consulting documents etc. as techniques have been kept in mind. As I am the native speaker of the language, I used the observation method to collect the data on the basis of the questionnaire prepared by Miestamo (2016). Besides this I have also referred Bhatia (1993), Masica (1991), Abbi (2001). The interview method is also used for cross checking of data. I chose some fluent native speakers of the language belonging to different districts of the Sambalpur region excluding me for the wider acceptability of the data.The Leipzig glossing rules are used for glossing. Finally, I analysed the collected data according to the descriptive model of linguistic analysis and tried to finalize the findings.

1.2 Literature Review

The typology of negation has drawn the attention of many linguists where they have focused their interest especially on the construction of negative structure out of declarative sentences (Dahl 1979; Huddleston 1984; Payne 1985; Dryer 2013a, b, c; Miestamo 2005, 2013, 2017). In addition, some linguists focused on some specific areas to examine the operation of negation. Such areas are negation in imperatives (van der Auwera & Lejeune 2013), the negation of stative (nonverbal, existential, etc.) predications (Croft 1991; Eriksen 2011; Veselinova 2013), the negation of indefinite pronouns (Haspelmath 1997, 2013; Van Alsenoy 2014), abessives (Stolz et al. 2007), the effects of negation on the marking of NPs (Miestamo 2014), and negative replies to questions (Holmberg 2015).

Dahl (1997) studies negation providing a distinction between morphological and syntactic nature of negation and further he divides the negative markers as prefixal, suffixal, circumfixal, and prosodic and reduplicative negative.

Payne (1985) discussed four different types of negative markers in the languages of the world.
> a) Morphological (affixal) negatives
> b) Negative particles
> c) Negative verbs
> d) Negative nouns

Miestamo (2000, 2003, 2005a) develops his typological approach on the paradigmatic contrast between the symmetric and asymmetric negation in languages. Further, he identifies different subtypes of asymmetric negation.

Dryer (2013a [2005]) deals with the geographical distribution of the three main types of negators identified by Dahl and Payne and double negation.

Eriksen (2011) focuses on non-verbal predicates negation and its strategies in languages which are different from standard negation for them.

Dixon's (2012: 89-137) gives a rich typological overview of the domains and subdomains of negation.

On the position of negative markers in a sentence Jespersen (1917), Dahls (1979), Dryer (1992), Horn (2001), play crucial role in theorising its basic nature.

Auwera and Lejeune's 2013(2005) works on the negation of imperative which is instrumental presenting four different types of negative imperatives or prohibitives.
> Type1: The prohibitive uses verbal construction of the second singular and the negative strategy in both declarative and imperative is identical.
> Type2: The prohibitive uses the second singular but the negative strategy is not found in declarative.

Type 3: The prohibitive uses a verbal construction other than the second singular positive imperative and a sentential negative strategy found in (indicative) declaratives.

Type 4: The prohibitive uses a verbal construction other than the second singular positive imperative and a sentential negative strategy not found in (indicative) declaratives.

Croft (1991) explored a typological relationship between verbal negators and negative existential forms and presented three types of functions in world's languages.

- The verbal negator negates the existential predicate in some languages.
- Both verbal negator and negative existential predicate are present in some languages.
- In some language, the negator and negative predicate are similar in form.

However, negation is discussed by some linguists dividing it in different ways which is given below:

- Huddleston (1984): Syntactic scope, affirmative and non-affirmative, semantic scope of negation
- Payne (1985) divides negation as sentential negation and non-sentential negation.
- T.E Payne (1997) divides as clausal negation and non-clausal negation.

Kachru (1965) Bhatia (1978), Mohanan (1994), and Dwivedi (1991) describe the negation in Indo-Aryan languages, especially Hindi, Urdu and Punjabi. In Sambalpuri language, Tripathy (1992), and Tripathy (1993) mention about negation in the chapter syntax and Patel (2000) mentions about the dialectal variation of negation.

2. Clausal Negation

In this section, the paper discusses about the constructions of standard negation in TAM categories. Further, it gives a description of the change occurs in the verbal form, in different person and number, after the standard negator is used. It includes the negative construction in standard negation (2.1) non-declarative (2.2) particularly imperatives (2.2.1) and question (2.2.2), negation in non-verbal clauses (2.3) and negation in non-main clauses (2.4).

2.1 Standard Negation

The fact is that all human languages possess the distinction between negation and affirmative. Standard negation, as defined by many linguists, is the basic process of expression of negation in natural languages around the world. Standard negation is used, especially to negate the declarative verbal main clauses. (Miestamo 2005: 42) "A standard negation construction is a construction whose function is to modify a verbal declarative main clause expressing a proposition p in such a way that the modified clause expresses the proposition with the opposite truth value to p, i.e., ~p, or the proposition used as the closest equivalent to

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~p in case the clause expressing ~p cannot be formed in the language, and that is (one of) the productive and general means the language has for performing this function."

Languages around the world follow certain processes to express negation. In their study Dahl (1979) and Payne (1985) identify three different types of negative markings in different languages, namely negative affixes, negative particles and negative verbs. At least one of these three forms of negative expression can be seen in human languages. The system of negation in Indo-Aryan language, as Masica (1991) says, is 'neither straightforward nor simple'. However, most of the Indo Aryan languages have different types of analytical morphemes to express the negation. Like many Modern Indo-Aryan languages, Sambalpuri also employs negative particles to express negation which can be illustrated in the following examples of standard negation.

(1a)   tukel-ṭa   nɑc-u-cʰe
          girl.3SG.NOM-CLASS   dance-PROG-AUX.
                                   PRS.3SG
          'The girl is dancing.'

          ṭukel-ṭa   ne/nei/nɑi/ni   nɑc-bɑr
(1b)   girl.3SG.NOM-CLASS   NEG   dance-
                                                           PRS.PROG
          'The girl is not dancing.'

(2a)   ṭukel-ṭa   nɑc-lɑ
          girl.3SG.NOM-CLASS   dance-3SG.PST
          'The girl danced.'

(2b)   ṭukel-ṭa   ne/nei/ni/ni   nɑci
          girl.3SG.NOM-CLASS   NEG   dance-PST
          'The girl didn't dance.'

It can be observed that the above sentences are examples of clausal negation or standard negation with a highly analytical morpheme 'ne/nei/nɑi/ni' used as negative marker in Sambalpuri language. It is also interesting to note that there are possibilities of dialectal variants of negative particles as illustrated in (1b) and (2b). Again, we can notice that the position of negative particle is preverbal like most Indo-Aryan languages such as Hindi, Marathi, Punjabi (Bhatia 1978, Kachru 1965, Masica 1991). As per the symmetric and asymmetric paradigm (Miestamo, 2005a), the structure of the sentences behaves quite differently if we look into the affirmative and negative. The construction (1b) and (2b) are asymmetric as they differ from their corresponding affirmative structures. In Sambalpuri, the negative marker is not simply added to the affirmative structure like English rather, it somehow brings about change in the structure of verb. The verb in standard negative sentence (1b) and (2b) lost some grammatical features— person and number, though it retains the tense and aspect. The same negative marker is used to form standard negation construction all TAM categories and PNG categories except the symmetric and asymmetric distinction which can be seen below.

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2.1.1 Negation in Present Tense

This section describes the operation of negation in present tense. The standard negative particle is used in present tense. When negative particle is used to negate the said proposition, some grammatical features disappear in present progressive, present perfect and present perfect progressive. It loses person, number and agreement. But interestingly all the grammatical features remain intact in simple present (3b, 4b, 5b) except the tense marker. The standard negator is always used in preverbal position in all cases.

(3a)   muĩ   bʰat̪   kʰaɛsi
         I.1SG   rice   eat.PRS.1SG
         'I eat rice.'

(3b)   muĩ   bʰat̪   ne   kʰẽ
         I.1SG   rice   NEG   eat.1SG
         'I do not eat rice.'

(4a)   ɑmẽ   bʰat̪   kʰaɛsũ
         we.1PL   rice   eat.PRS.1PL
         'We eat rice.'

(4b)   ɑmẽ   bʰat̪   ne   kʰəũ
         we.1PL   rice   NEG   eat.1PL
         'We do not eat rice.'

(5a)   t̪uĩ   bʰat̪   kʰaɛsu
         you.2SG   rice   eat.PRS.1SG
         'You eat rice.'

(5b)   t̪uĩ   bʰat̪   ne   kʰəu
         you.2SG   rice   NEG   eat.2SG
         'You do not eat rice.'

The examples given above are in simple present tense in affirmative with their corresponding negative. It is clearly noticeable that when the negative structure is constructed from the affirmative sentences, the structure of verb is perceptibly changing (3-5) and in all these cases (3-5) the position of negative marker is preverbal. As a result of such change in verbal structure, the negative sentences show asymmetric negative construction because there is no one to one correspondence between affirmative and negative clauses except the negative marker 'ne' and the morpheme '-ɛs-. The morpheme '-ɛs-' is tense marker and it is lost in the negative sentences. Further, it can be noted that with the change in verb form the behaviour of negative structure becomes asymmetric as in (3-5). But there is no loss of grammatical features particularly person and number. Although the verbal structure in negative sentence alters, still

it triggers agreement retaining all grammatical features namely, person and number, intact as in the example (3-5). It agrees with person and number in the same way as its affirmative counterparts. But in the next two examples, the story is entirely different (progressive and perfect) as in the following examples.

(6a)   muĩ   bʰaʈ   kʰə-u-cʰe
        I.1SG   rice   eat-PROG-AUX.1SG
        'I am eating rice.'

(6b)   muĩ   bʰaʈ   ne   kʰaɛbɑr
        I.1SG   rice   NEG   eat.PROG
        'I am not eating rice.'

(7a)   se   bʰaʈ   kʰɑ-i-cʰe
        he.3SG   rice   eat-PRF-AUX.3SG
        'He has eaten rice.'

(7b)   se   bʰaʈ   ne   kʰei
        he.3SG   rice   NEG   eat.PRF
        'He has not eaten rice.'

Verb inflects when the negation is used. The above examples are in present progressive and perfect in both affirmative and negative (6-7). The negative sentences demonstrate the asymmetric nature of negation in the same way as in the present simple, but the verbal structure loses some grammatical features like person and number. It changes into an infinitival form which does not trigger agreement. The predicate in corresponding affirmative sentences agrees with number and person of the subject but their negative counterparts does not agree with the subject. The tables below show the below the asymmetric negative paradigm of verb 'kʰɑ' (to eat) in simple present (Table No. 1), present progressive (Table No.2), present perfect (Table No.3), present perfect progressive (Table No.4).

Table No. 1: Present Simple

Person	Number	Affirmative	Negative
1st Person	SG	kʰaɛsĩ	ne kʰẽ
	PL	kʰaɛsũ	ne kʰəũ
2nd Person	SG	kʰaɛsu	ne kʰəu
	PL	kʰaɛsə	ne kʰə
3rd Person	SG	kʰaɛsi	ne kʰe
	PL	kʰaɛsən	ne kʰɑ:n

Table No. 2: Present Progressive

Person	Number	Affirmative	Negative
1st Person	SG	kʰəucʰẽ	ne kʰaɛbɑr

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	PL	kʰəucʰũ	ne kʰaɛbɑɾ
2nd Person	SG	kʰəucʰu	ne kʰaɛbɑɾ
	PL	kʰəucʰə	ne kʰaɛbɑɾ
3rd Person	SG	kʰəucʰe	ne kʰaɛbɑɾ
	PL	kʰəucʰən	ne kʰaɛbɑɾ

Table No.3: Present Perfect

Person	Number	Affirmative	Negative
1st Person	SG	kʰaicʰẽ	ne kʰeĩ
	PL	kʰaicʰũ	ne kʰeĩ
2nd Person	SG	kʰaicʰu	ne kʰei
	PL	kʰaicʰə	ne kʰei
3rd Person	SG	kʰaicʰe	ne kʰei
	PL	kʰaicʰən	ne kʰei

Table No.4: Present Perfect Progressive

Person	Number	Affirmative	Negative
1st Person	SG	kʰaiasucʰe	ne kʰaiasbɑɾ
	PL	kʰaiasucʰu	ne kʰaiasbɑɾ
2nd Person	SG	kʰaiasucʰu	ne kʰaiasbɑɾ
	PL	kʰaiasucʰə	ne kʰaiasbɑɾ
3rd Person	SG	kʰaiasucʰe	ne kʰaiasbɑɾ
	PL	kʰaiasucʰən	ne kʰaiasbɑɾ

2.1.2 Negation in Past Tense

There is a description of negation in the different forms of past tense. In the similar way, negation in the past tense precedes the verb as in the present tense. The verb loses grammatical features like person and number and as a result of such loss the agreement is lost between the subject and verb. It also triggers agreement with person and number. The negator is used in preverbal position. There is no one to one correspondence between the affirmative and negative construction. Let's see the following examples.

(8a)   muĩ   bʰaʈ   kʰa-ɛli
        I.1SG   rice   eat-PST.1SG
        'I ate rice.'

(8b)   muĩ   bʰaʈ   ne   kʰɛi
        I.1SG   rice   NEG   eat-PST.1SG
        'I didn't rice.'

(9a)   ame   bʰaʈ   kʰa-ɛlu

we.1PL   rice   eat-PST.1PL

'We ate rice.'

(9b)   ɑme   bʰɑt̪   ne   kʰei

              we.1PL   rice   NEG   eat-PST.1PL

              'We did not eat rice.'

Like the sentences in present tense, the above simple past sentences demonstrate asymmetric negation. As explained earlier, the examples show that the negator precedes verb; and the agreement with number and person is not established like it does in the corresponding affirmative structures. Therefore, the negation is asymmetric since it has not one to one correspondence between negative and affirmative structures. One more thing to observe in these examples is that the tense marker is lost. As result of absence of tense, the verbal form resembles with the present perfect verbal form (7b & Table no.3). But in the past progressive and perfect sentences, the asymmetric negation can be seen as in the following instances.

(10a)   se   bʰɑt̪   kʰə-u-t̪ʰilɑ

              he.3SG   rice   eat-PROG-AUX.PST.3SG

              'He was eating rice.'

(10b)   se   bʰɑt̪   ne   kʰə-u-t̪ʰei

              he.3SG   rice   NEG   eat-PROG-PST

              'He was not eating rice.'

(11a)   se   bʰɑt̪   kʰɑ-i-t̪ʰilɑ

              he.3SG   rice   eat-PRF-PST.3SG

              'He had eaten rice.'

(11b)   se   bʰɑt̪   ne   kʰe-i-t̪ʰei

              he.3SG   rice   NEG   eat-PRF-PST

              'He had not eaten rice.'

As it is seen in the above examples of past progressive and perfect, the asymmetric negation with preverbal negative marker is clear (10b and 11b). Further, the agreement phenomenon and loss of grammatical features are observable in the negative counterparts of affirmative structure. The following tables show the asymmetric negative paradigm of 'kʰɑ' (to eat) verb in past tense.

Table No.5: Simple Past

Person	Number	Affirmative	Negative
1st Person	SG	kʰɑɛli	ne kʰeĩ
	PL	kʰɑɛlu	ne kʰeĩ

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2nd Person	SG	kʰɑɛlu	ne kʰei
	PL	kʰɑɛlə	ne kʰei
3rd Person	SG	kʰɑɛla	ne kʰei
	PL	kʰɑɛle	ne kʰei

Table:6: Past Progressive

Person	Number	Affirmative	Negative
1st Person	SG	kʰəut̪ʰili	ne kʰəut̪ʰei
	PL	kʰəut̪ʰilu	ne kʰəut̪ʰei
2nd Person	SG	kʰəut̪ʰilu	ne kʰəut̪ʰei
	PL	kʰəut̪ʰilə	ne kʰəut̪ʰei
3rd Person	SG	kʰəut̪ʰila	ne kʰəut̪ʰei
	PL	kʰəut̪ʰile	ne kʰəut̪ʰei

Table.7: Past Perfect

Person	Number	Affirmative	Negative
1st Person	SG	kʰait̪ʰilĩ	ne kʰeit̪ʰei
	PL	kʰait̪ʰilũ	ne kʰeit̪ʰei
2nd Person	SG	kʰait̪ʰilu	ne kʰeit̪ʰei
	PL	kʰait̪ʰilə	ne kʰeit̪ʰei
3rd Person	SG	kʰait̪ʰila	ne kʰeit̪ʰei
	PL	kʰait̪ʰile	ne kʰeit̪ʰei

Table.8: Past Perfect Progressive

Person	Number	Affirmative	Negative
1st Person	SG	kʰaiasut̪ʰili	ne kʰeiasut̪ʰei
	PL	kʰaiasut̪ʰilũ	ne kʰeiasut̪ʰei
2nd Person	SG	kʰaiasut̪ʰilu	ne kʰeiasut̪ʰei
	PL	kʰaiasut̪ʰilə	ne kʰeiasut̪ʰei
3rd Person	SG	kʰaiasut̪ʰila	ne kʰeiasut̪ʰei
	PL	kʰaiasut̪ʰile	ne kʰeiasut̪ʰei

2.1.3 Negation in Future Tense

Similarly, the structure in future tense uses the negative particle in the preverbal position. The negative paradigm present in this case is uniformly similar with the present and past with identical negative marker. The interesting fact is that there is no loss of grammatical features. It behaves quite similarly as the simple present tense. It shows loss of tense marker in the negative sentence. Consequentially, the verbal forms of simple future and present (3-5) are similar in structure.

(12a)   muĩ   bʰɑt̪   kʰɑ-ɛmi
           I.1SG   rice   eat-FUT.1SG

'I shall eat rice.'

(12b)   muĩ   bʰaʈ   ne   kʰẽ

              I.1SG   rice   NEG   eat.1SG

              'I shall not eat rice.'

(13a)   se   bʰaʈ   kʰə-u-ʈʰibɑ

              he.3SG   rice   eat-PROG.FUT.3SG

              'He will be eating rice.'

(13b)   se   bʰaʈ   ne   kʰə-u-ʈʰe

              he.3SG   rice   NEG   eat.PROG-FUT.3SG

              'He will not be eating rice.'

The examples (12b & 13b) given above show the change of verbal structure after the use of negative marker in affirmative structure like the past and present tenses. Hence, the asymmetric negative paradigm can be exemplified in future tense. Like all verbal forms in asymmetric paradigm, here also the form is not identical with affirmative. There is no dissimilarity in the position of negation. It behaves similarly with present and past. Moreover, in the future tense of Sambalpuri an interesting fact is noticeable. Somehow, the agreement and grammatical features that disappear in all forms of present tense except simple present and all forms of past tense, it remains present in future in all examples illustrated in the table below. The asymmetric negative paradigm of the verb 'kʰɑ' (to eat) is given below in the tables.

Table No.9: Future Simple

Person	Number	Affirmative	Negative
1st Person	SG	kʰaɛmi	ne kʰẽ
	PL	kʰaɛmu	ne kʰəũ
2nd Person	SG	kʰaɛbu	ne kʰəu
	PL	kʰaɛbə	ne kʰə
3rd Person	SG	kʰaɛbɑ	ne kʰe
	PL	kʰaɛbe	ne kʰɑ:n

Table No.10: Future Progressive

Person	Number	Affirmative	Negative
1st Person	SG	kʰəuʈʰimi	ne kʰəuʈʰẽ
	PL	kʰəuʈʰimu	ne kʰəuʈʰəu
2nd Person	SG	kʰəuʈʰibu	ne kʰəuʈʰəu
	PL	kʰəuʈʰibə	ne kʰəuʈʰə
3rd Person	SG	kʰəuʈʰibɑ	ne kʰəuʈʰe
	PL	kʰəuʈʰibe	ne kʰəuʈʰɑn

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Table No.11: Future Perfect

Person	Number	Affirmative	Negative
1st Person	SG	kʰaiṭʰimi	ne kʰeiṭʰẽ
	PL	kʰaiṭʰimu	ne kʰeiṭʰəũ
2nd Person	SG	kʰaiṭʰibu	ne kʰeiṭʰəu
	PL	kʰaiṭʰibə	ne kʰeiṭʰə
3rd Person	SG	kʰaiṭʰiba	ne kʰeiṭʰe
	PL	kʰaiṭʰibe	ne kʰeiṭʰan

Tabe No. 12: Future Perfect Progressive

Person	Number	Affirmative	Negative
1st Person	SG	kʰaiasuṭʰimi	ne kʰeiasuṭʰe
	PL	kʰaiasutʰimu	ne kʰeiasuṭəu
2nd Person	SG	kʰaiasuṭʰibu	ne kʰeiasuṭʰəu
	PL	kʰaiasutʰibə	ne kʰeiasuṭʰə
3rd Person	SG	kʰaiasuṭʰiba	ne kʰeiasuṭʰe
	PL	kʰaiasuṭʰibe	ne kʰeiasuṭʰan

In all tenses, asymmetric paradigm can be seen. But asymmetric paradigm is prevalent in Sambalpuri negative construction. It is very peculiar to mark that the concord between the subject and predicate in Sambalpuri standard negation disappeared in some cases. In present and past, the loss of grammatical features like agreement, number and person is very common. But in future tense, it is an exception. There is no loss of such grammatical features despite change of verbal form. Similarly, the negative marker is placed in preverbal position in all tenses. In Sambalpuri, future perfect progressive in both affirmative and negative is very rare in use.

2.1.4 Negation and Aspect

In this point of discussion of negation, the paper presents a description of negation in different aspects viz. perfective and imperfective aspect. The perfective aspect is described with '-i-', '-ɑ' which indicates the completion of an action or process.

(14a)   suḏeb   gʰər-ke   jɑ-i-cʰe
         sudev.3SG   home-LOC   go-PRF-AUX.PRS.3SG
         'Sudev has been to home.'

(14b)   suḏeb   gʰər-ke   ne   jeĩ
         sudev.3SG   home-LOC   NEG   go.PRS
         'Sudev has not been to home.'

(15a)   suḏeb   gʰər-ke   gəlɑ

| | | | sudev.3SG | home-LOC | go.PST.3SG |

sudev.3SG   home-LOC   go.PST.3SG

'Sudev went to home.'

(15b)   su̱deb   gʰər-ke   ne   jeĩ

            sudev.3SG   home-LOC   NEG   go.PST

            'Sudev did not go to home.'

The negation in perfective aspect in the above examples is illustrated with morphemes attached to the verb and the negative marker precedes the verb as usually. With respect to agreement, person and number, the affirmative sentences (14a & 15a) show all three grammatical features but when it is turned into negative with insertion of negative particle, the sentences (14b & 15b) change its verbal structure. Consequently, the agreement between subject and predicate is lost as well as person and number features in verb are lost. But the perfective marker remains intact. Further, the verbal structure in both negative structures looks alike.

The imperfective aspect deals with habitual action and action that is in progression. The former denotes an action being performed as part of daily routine and latter an action or process that is going on at moment speaking at particular given time. And the negation in this aspect behaves quite similarly as the perfective aspect with particular reference to asymmetric paradigm.

(16a)   muĩ   jogə   kərsi

            I.1SG   Yoga   do.PRS.1SG

            'I do Yoga.'

(16b)   muĩ   jogə   ne   kərẽ

            I.1SG   Yoga   NEG   do.PRS.1SG

            'I don't do Yoga.'

(17a)   muĩ   jogə   kər-u-cʰe

            I.1SG   Yoga   do-PROG-AUX.PRS.1SG

            'I am doing Yoga.'

(17b)   muĩ   jogə   ne   kərbɑr

            I.1SG   Yoga   NEG   do.PROG

            I am not doing Yoga.'

As it can be noticed in the above examples that the negative marker is preverbal in the same way like other cases. It has only asymmetric negative structure. But in the example (16b) the agreement, person and number are present whereas in the next example (17b) the features are missing (for more details refer present tense).

2.1.5 Negation and Mood

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Mood is a type of grammatical category which functions as marking 'the manner' on verbs. It shows the relationship of an activity, or state, with the reality as determined by the speaker. Mood also expresses negation in the same way as others which can be illustrated in the following examples.

(18a)   muĩ   səbuḏin   kʰɛlsi
          I.1SG   everyday   play.PRS.1SG
          'I play every day.'.'

(18b)   muĩ   səbuḏin   ne   kʰɛlẽ
          I.1SG   everyday   NEG   play.PRS.1SG
          'I do not play every day.'

(19a)   bʰəgban   ṭəṭe/ṭəke   kʰus   rəkʰun
          God   you.DAT   happy   keep.HON
          May God keep you happy!

(19b)   bʰəgban   ṭəṭe/ṭəṭe   kʰus   ne   rəkʰun
          God   you.DAT   happy   NEG   keep.HON
          May God not keep you happy!

According to Miestamo (2005), there are different subtypes of asymmetric negation as A/Fin, A/Non-Real, A/Emph and A/Cat. And in Sambalpuri, it is the fourth type of asymmetric negation i.e., A/Cat can be exemplified. In A/Cat asymmetric negation, 'the marking of grammatical categories is affected in other ways.' (Miestamo: 2005). In some languages the negative marker changes the TAM marker which is labelled as A/Cat/TAM and in some other languages, it affects the person and number markers in verb labelled as A/Cat/PNG, where both positive and negative possess different markers. Further, in language like Sambalpuri, asymmetric negation process involves in loss of grammatical categories, especially person and number as the examples given above.

2.2 Negation in Non-Declarative

The section gives a description of negation in imperatives, questions, non-verbal clauses and non-main clauses.

2.2.1 Imperatives

Imperative is a type of sentence structure or forms of verb which is used as request or command. In Sambalpuri the imperative construction uses the root form of verb and generally the 2nd person singular and plural is understood as its subject. And the negative imperative can be explained according to van der Auwera & Lejeune (2013[2005]) who presented 4 different

types of prohibitive in the world's languages. The first type of prohibitive, in which the negative imperative is expressed in the same way as the positive imperative, is used in Sambalpuri language. This type of negative imperative constructions are used in circumstances like politeness, humbleness, to address the hearer. There are some other cases where it is used to command.

For example,

(20a)   sun
               listen.2SG
               'Listen.'

(20b)   ne   sun
               NEG   listen.2SG
               'Don't listen.'

(20c)   ɑmẽ   ne   sun-u
               we.1PL   NEG   listen-1PL
               'We don't listen.'

In the examples given above, it can be noticed that the examples follow the first type of negative imperative in which all the grammatical features remain intact. It means there is no perceptible difference between the positive and negative imperative structures (20a-b) except the negative marker in (20b). The identical negative marking is used in preverbal position with negative imperative as the declarative in standard negation in (20c). So the structure is symmetric which has one to one correspondence between both positive and negative. In an interesting manner, languages vary while conveying politeness (Aikhenvald 2010) as in Hindi. Let's see how it operates in this language.

(21a)   ne   kʰɑ
               NEG   eat
               'Don't eat.'

(21b)   ne   kʰə
               NEG   eat.HON
               'Don't eat.'

(21c)   ne   kʰəun
               NEG   eat.HON
               'Don't eat.'

In the above examples, we can discuss that the sentence (21a) is a case of informal imperative whereas the sentences (21b) and (21c) are formal and formal with extra politeness respectively. In this regard, the same negator is used in preverbal position as it is used in the declarative. But the only difference in the structure of imperative verb, despite being the same second person subject in all three instances, is the verbal form. The difference in verbal form

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is mainly because of various level of honorific otherwise, there is uniformity in the structure between the negative and positive except the negative marking. In all imperative types available in Sambalpuri language, the negator 'ne' is used in all environments. It is not distinct from the standard negation and most importantly, it is symmetric in construction.

2.2.2 Questions

This section discusses about the nature of negation in non-declarative type sentences, especially question—both yes/no questions and wh-word question. The interrogative in Sambalpuri is formed using a question morpheme obligatorily in the finite verb of the affirmative sentence and the same question morpheme is used in the negative sentence which can be illustrated in the following examples.

(22a)   ʈui   ɑm   kʰɑɛsu   kɛ̃
         you.2SG   mango   eat.PRS.2SG   Q
         'Do you eat mango?'

(22b)   ʈui   ɑm   ne   kʰəu   kɛ̃
         you.2SG   mango   NEG   eat.PRS.2SG   Q
         'Don't you eat mango?'

(23a)   se   ɑm   kʰɑɛsi   kɛ̃
         he.3SG   mango   eat.PRS.3SG   Q
         'Does he eat mango?'

(23b)   se   ɑm   ne   kʰɑɛ/kʰɛ   kɛ̃
         he.3SG   mango   NEG   eat.PRS.3SG   Q
         'Doesn't he eat mango?'

As other non-declarative construction, the interrogative also uses the negator 'ne' in the preverbal location. The examples (22a and 23a) are yes/no type of question which obligatorily take question morpheme 'kɛ̃', particularly at the end of sentence. Similarly, the examples (22b and 23b) are their negative counterparts which have the question and negative marker as interrogative sentences. The negative marker is placed before the finite verb of the sentence. Moreover, these are asymmetric in structure.

The negative construction of wh-questions in this language shows similar structural process like the yes/no type of question—the same negator, same preverbal position for instance (24 & 25). However, the wh-question does not have question morpheme in the finite verb.

(24)   kie   ne   kʰei
        who   NEG   eat.PRS.PRF
        'Who has not eaten?'

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(25)   kaɛ̃   ne   kʰei
        why   NEG   eat.PRS.PRF
        'Why haven't you eaten?'

We can mark in the above examples that the negator is used in the preverbal position but without question morpheme. With particular reference to the negative particle and its position, the interrogative shows similar structural behaviour with the standard negation with same negative marker and same position.

2.3 Negation in Non-Verbal Clauses

Miestamo (2017) says non-verbal clause in clausal negation is formed differently from the standard negation in many languages. Non-verbal predicate refers to those verbs which are not lexical in nature.

Non-verbal clauses are divided into different types (Payne 1997) as equation, proper inclusion, attribution, location prediction, existential prediction and possessive prediction. The first three non-verbal clauses behave differently from the last three. They take different negative particles which can be noticed in the following examples.

Equation
(26a)   se   mor   mɑ   ɑɛ
         she.3SG   my   mother   is.3SG
         'She is my mother.'

(26b)   se   mor   mɑ   nu-he/nuhe-se
         she.3SG   my   mother   NEG-is
         'She is not my mother.'

Proper inclusion
(27a)   kukur   pəsu-ṭe   ɑɛ
         dog.3SG   animal-INDF   is.3SG
         'Dog is an animal.'

(27b)   kukur   pəsu-ṭe   nuhe/nuhese
         dog.3SG   animal-INDF   NEG-is
         'Dog is not an animal.'

Attribution
(28a)   se   kəɳɑ   ɑɛ
         he.3SG   blind   is.3SG
         'He is blind.'

(28b)   se   kaɳɑ   nuhe/nuhese
          he.3SG   blind   NEG-is
          'He is not blind.'

Locative predication
(29a)   bilei-ṭɑ   kʰəṭ   ṱəle   əcʰe
          cat.3SG-DEF   cot   under   is.3SG
          'The cat is under the cot.

(29b)   bilei-ṭɑ   kʰəṭ   ṱəle   ne   nə
          cat.3SG-DEF   cot   under   NEG   is
          'The cat is not under the cot.'

Existential predication
(30a)   jəŋgle   bɑgʰ   əcʰe
          forest.LOC   tiger.3SG   is.3SG
          'There is a tiger in the forest.'

(30b)   jəŋgle   bɑgʰ   ne   nə
          forest. LOC   tiger.3SG   NEG   is
          'There is no tiger in the forest.'

Possessive predication
(31a)   mɑnəsi-r   kɑr   əcʰe
          manasi-POSS   car-3SG   has.3SG
          'Manasi has a car.

(31b)   mɑnəsi-r   kɑr   ne   nə
          manasi-POSS   car   NEG   is
          'Manasi has no car.'

As discussed above, these are different types of non-verbal clauses found in Sambalpuri which have a dedicated negative construction, although not in all cases. The negation construction in these non-verbal predicates is partially different from standard negation with respect to its form. The examples (26b, 27b & 28b) are marked with a different negative marker which is not similar with standard negation marker, whereas the examples (29b, 30b and 31b) are expressed with the same type negator as the standard negation but with an obligatory morphological feature as the copula of the sentence. The negator used in first three cases is 'nuhe/nuhese' (26b, 27b & 28b) and in last three instances 'ne (29b, 30b & 31b). All these non-verbal constructions show special behaviour which can be labelled as asymmetric in their very nature.

Let's look at the following examples.

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(32a)	ṭukel-mane	pəḍia-re	əcʰen		
	girl-3PL	field-LOC	is.3PL		
	'The girls are in the field.'				

(32b)	ṭukel-mane	pəḍia-re	ne	nə	
	girl-3PL	field-LOC	NEG	is	
	'The girls are not in the field.'				

(33a)	siṯa	tukel-ṭe	αɛ		
	sita.3SG	girl-INDF	is.3SG		
	'Sita is a girl.'				

(33b)	siṯa	ṭukel	nuhe/nuhese		
	sita.3SG	girl	NEG.is		
	'Sita is not a girl.'				

As explained above that the non-verbal clauses exhibit special behaviour in negation with respect to standard negation construction. So, we can see it in the examples (32b) and (33b). In the former, although the negator remains same but there is another obligatory element attached to it in which the deletion of that morpheme leaves the sentence totally ungrammatical and unacceptable to the native speakers; and in the latter, the existential is not negated by the standard negator rather it has a different form. Considering the relation between verb and negator, Croft (1991) pointed out three types of negative markers in non-verbal clauses. In Sambalpuri language, we can exemplify only two types: Type A (Standard negator with existential predication marker) and Type B (separate negative existential marker different from standard negator). So, in the first type the standard negative marker is used with the existential predication marker as in (32b) and the next type the negative existential predication marker is distinctly different from the standard negator as in (33b). The negation of possessive and locative predicates is considered to the very common function of such negators.

2.4. Negation in Non-Main Clauses

In some languages, the negative particle that is used to negate the subordinate clause or dependent clause is different from the standard negation. But in Sambalpuri, the same negator which is used for standard negation is used to form negation of subordinate clauses.

(34a)	mor	biswas	je	se	αsba	
	I.1SG.GEN	Belief	that	he.3SG	come.3SG.FUT	
	'I believe that he will come.'					

(34b)	mor	biswas	je	se	ne	αse
	I- 1.SG.GEN	belief	that	he.3SG	NEG	come.3SG.FUT

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'I believe that he will not come.'

The above example (34a) is an instance of finite dependent clause without negation and the next in (34b) is the negative of its corresponding positive finite dependent clause. As we have already discussed in earlier sections that the standard negation takes the negator 'ne' to negate the affirmative structure. So, in this case as in (34b) the similar negator is used to form negation of subordinating structure. In reality, such structures are not used by the native speakers either in spoken or written form. Rather, the preferred structures are (34a & 34b)

Unlike the subordinating marker 'je' in (34a and 34b), there are some constructions in which the subordinator is not mentioned overtly as in the following examples (35a and 35b).

(35a)   muĩ   janicʰe   se   pəɖʰbɑ
         I.1SG   know.1SG.PRS   he.3SG   study.3SG.FUT
         'I know that he will study.'

(35b)   muĩ   janicʰe   se   ne   pəɖʰe
         I.1SG   know.1SG   he.3SG   NEG   study.3SG.FUT
         'I know that he will not study.'

Until now we discussed above in the set of examples (34 and 35) about the negation of finite dependent clauses with and without subordinator. Now it is to explain whether Sambalpuri language allows negation of non-finite dependent clauses or not. The following sentences will exemplify the case.

(36a)   muĩ   t̪ar   aɛbɑr   ɖɛkʰlĩ
         I.1SG   he.3SG.GEN   come.INF   see.1SG-PST
         'I saw him coming.'

*(36b)   muĩ   t̪ar   ne   aɛbɑr   ɖɛkʰlĩ
         I.1SG   he.3SG.GEN   NEG   come.INF   see.1SG-PST
         'I saw him not coming.'

In Sambalpuri, the structure in (36b) may sound pleasant and grammatical but it is confirmed by the native speakers of the language that such sentence is not spoken. Hence, the sentence is ungrammatical and unacceptable because the non-finite clauses cannot be negated in Sambalpuri.

3. Non-Clausal Negation

This section gives a description of negative replies in polar interrogatives, negative indefinites pronouns, and negative quantifiers.

3.1. Negative Replies to Polar Interrogatives

"A polar interrogative (henceforth PI) can be defined as a construction that has the expression of questions eliciting a 'yes' or 'no' answer from the addressee as (one of) its primary function(s)." (Miestamo 2009) Languages with respect to negative replies differ while replying to the polar interrogative—some languages have one-word negative reply while some other repeat the verb or the whole sentence of polar interrogative in order to reply the question (Miestamo:2017). In Sambalpuri language both the one-word negative reply and repetition of verb can be noticed.

(37a) kukur-ṭa   bʰuk-u-cʰ-e   kɛ̃?   (37b)   nei
      dog.3SG-   bark-PROG-PRS-   Q   NEG
      DEF   3SG
         'Is the dog barking?'   'No.'

(37c) nei,   ne   bʰukbɑr
      NEG   NEG   bark.PROG
      No, not barking.

As observed in the above examples, the negative reply in polar interrogative uses both ways described earlier in this section.

3.2 Negative Indefinites Pronoun

Negative indefinite pronouns are defined as nominal or adverbial expressions that directly translate 'nobody', 'nothing', 'nowhere', 'never' etc. in sentences, independently of whether they co-occur with predicate negation.' (Haspelmath 2013). It is an important area among the linguists who discussed the negative indefinites and devised four main syntactic ways to express it (Dahl 1979; Bernini and Ramat 1992:109-10; Kahrel 1996: 36).

But in Sambalpuri like all Indo-Aryan languages, there is no negative indefinite pronouns rather the indefinite pronouns co-occur with clausal negator and further the omission of clausal negator result in ungrammaticality of the construction as in the following examples.

(38)   kihe   ne   ɑsi
         nobody   NEG   come.PST
         'Nobody came.'

(39)   se   kicʰi   ne   neĩ
         he.3SG   something   ne   take.3SG.PST
         'He has taken nothing.'

(40)   se   kɑhɑkũ   ne   bʰɛʈlɑ

he.3SG   no one   ne   meet.PST

'He met nobody.'

The examples above (38, 39 and 40) are indefinite pronouns in negation that function as to explain negative indefiniteness of the construction. In the negative structure, the indefinite pronouns [kihe], 'kicʰi' and 'kahakũ' are used side by side with the standard negator in sentences (38), (39) and (40) respectively. It can be noticed that there are indefinite pronouns along with a verbal negation as in the examples (38) and (40) which seem to be inherently 'negative indefinite pronouns' (Haspelmath 1991) but, without additional verbal negation, the structure will become ungrammatical and illogical. Hence, they do not qualify to be negative indefinites pronouns as they cannot convey meaning without verbal negation. It is quite problematic to set this under the criterion (Bernini and Ramat 1992)[2] developed to define negative indefinite pronouns. In case of sentence (39) it is structurally different from other two indefinite pronouns. The indefinite pronoun 'kicʰi' in (39) bears a positive meaning. The same pronoun can be used in both affirmative and negative with similar meaning as in (41) the corresponding affirmative of (39).

(41)   se   kicʰi   neicʰe
            he.3SG   something   take.PRF.1SG.PRS
            'He has taken something.'

The same indefinite pronoun 'kicʰi' is used in both negative (39) and the affirmative structure (41). In Sambalpuri, the following indefinite pronoun in (42a) affirmative sentence changes when the verb is negated (42b).

(42a)   kie   gut-e   gʰərke   ḍʰuk-lɑ
            someone   one-INDF   house   enter-PST
            'Somebody entered the house.'

(42b)   kihe   gʰərke   ne   ḍʰuki
            somebody   house   NEG   enter.3SG.PST
            'Nobody entered the house.'

As observed earlier, the indefinite pronoun in (42a) 'kie' is used with an obligatory quantifier which together fulfil the indefiniteness of construction. And when the verbal negation is used in the second example (42b), the form of indefinite changes with deletion of quantifiers. The indefinite pronoun used in (42b) is only used with negative structure.

Conclusively, as Sambalpuri shares linguistic affinities with other Indo-Aryan languages with respect to negation, it lacks inherent negative form of indefinite pronoun as other Indo-Aryan languages. Rather, it uses indefinite pronoun along with an obligatory clausal negator to express negation of sentences with indefinite pronouns.

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[2] Bernini and Ramat (1992:115) adopts a criterion to distinguish between negative and non-negative pronouns.

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3.3. Negative Quantifiers

Like any other Indo-Aryan languages, Sambalpuri also has no negative quantifier. It is required to add a standard negation to express the function of negative quantifier.

4. Other Aspects of Negation

This section deals with the scope of negation, negative polarity items, negation in coordination and conditional, and double negation.

4.1 The Scope of Negation

In the syntactic and semantic domains, the scope of negation has been studied to a considerable extent (Horn 2001). Negation in this concern is viewed as internal and external negation. The scope of negation can be understood as a feature which pertains to a specific constituent in a clause, and it is indicated differently in different languages. It is related to the negation either a focused constituent in the sentence or the sentence as a whole. 'It is a popular phenomenon in Indian languages to move the scope of negation. (Abbi: 2001)" Let's see how the scope negation in Sambalpuri language operates.

(43)   se   ne   rɑnɖʰi
         s/he.3SG   NEG   cook.PRFT
         'S/He has not cooked.'

(44)   se   muɡ ɖɑɛl   ne   rɑnɖʰi
         he/she.3SG   moong dal   NEG   cook.PRFT
         'S/He has not cooked moong dal (but cooked some other variety of dal)

We can notice in the above examples that the whole proposition is negated as in (43) or a specific constituent as in (44). In the example (43) the whole proposition 'rɑnɖʰi' (to cook) is negated but in the next (44) only the specific constituent 'muɡ ɖɑɛl' (moong dal) is negated.

Let us try to understand the nature of negative particle and its possible interpretation when it is moved to different position in a given sentence with the help of following examples.

(45) mɑnəsi   əu   mɑnəs   kəʈʰɑ   həuʈʰile   ne   pədʰ-u-ʈʰei
      Manasi   and   Manas   talk   be.AUX.PRG.PST.3PL   NEG   study-PROG-
                                                                             PST
      'Manasi and Manas were talking, (but) not studying.'

(46) mɑnəsi   əu   mɑnəs   ne   kəʈʰɑ   hə-u-ʈʰei   pədʰ-u-ʈʰile
      Manasi   and   Manas   talk   NEG   be-PROG-PST   study.PRG.PST.PL
      'Manasi and Manas were not talking, (but they were) studying.'

(47) mɑnəsi   nei   mui   kət̪ʰa   hə-u-t̪ʰili
      Manasi.3SG   NEG   I.1SG   talk   be-PRG-AUX.PST.1SG
      'I was talking, not Manasi (Manasi was studying).'

(48) nei,   mɑnəsi   əu   mɑnəs   pəɖʰut̪ʰile
      NEG   Manasi   and   Manas   study.PRG.PST.PL
      'No, Manasi and Manas were studying (not talking).'

The negative particle in the above sentences can be moved across the sentence to negate different constituents. It is always used before the constituent it scopes and negates. In the example (45) it is used before 'pəɖʰut̪ʰei' (studying) and it negates that particular constituent of this sentence. If we move it further left and use it before the verb 'kət̪ʰa həut̪ʰila' (talking) as in (46) it negates this particular constituent. Interestingly, when we move the negative particle further left and position it between 'mɑnəsi' and 'muĩ' in (47), it scopes over the preceding constituent rather than the following one (45 and 46) . If we move the negator further left to the beginning of the sentence (48), it can be interpreted as 'No, Manasi and Manas were studying, not talking.'

It is interesting to note that the following instances can be interpreted differently without any movement of negative particle. In such cases the role of intonation and stress is indispensable. If we shift the stress from one constituent to the other, the scope of negation changes, although the negative particle remains in the same position.

(49) mɑnəsi   əu   mɑnəs   kət̪ʰa   ne   hə-u-tʰei
      Manasi   and   Manas   talk   NEG   be-PROG-PST
      'Manasi and Manas were not talking (doing something else).'

(50) mɑnəsi   əu   mɑnəs   kət̪ʰa   Ne   hə-u-tʰei
      Manasi   and   Manas   talk   NEG   be-PROG-PST
      'Manasi and Manas were not talking (some others were talking)'

In the sentence (49), the stress is placed on the constituent 'kət̪ʰa' (talk) as a result it negates the stressed constituent. But in the next sentence (50) the stress is shifted and placed on the subject which is negated in turn. Apart from this, one another aspect can be also marked in the above sentences that the negator can be placed within such compound verb.

The scope of negation can be checked in conjunctive participle constructions or converbs of Sambalpuri language.

(51) muĩ   gurəs   pi   kəri   Ne   sui
      I.1SG   milk   drink   CP   NEG   sleep.PST
      'After drinking milk, I didn't sleep.'

(52a)	mui	gurəs	ne	pi	kəri	suili
	I.1SG	milk	NEG	drink	CP	sleep.PST.1SG

I slept without drinking milk. / Without drinking milk, I slept.

It is to note that the scope of negation in the sentence (51) is the finite verb whereas in (52) it is the conjunctive particle. But the following construction is more preferable among the native speakers instead of the construction in (52a).

(52b)	muĩ	gurəs	bin/binɑ	pi	kəri	suili
	I.1SG	milk	without	drink	CP	sleep.PST.1SG

'I slept without drinking milk.'

4.2. Negative Polarity Items

Negative polarity item is 'a word, etc. whose sense is possible in negative sentences but not, or not normally, in positive sentences.' (Matthews 2007: 240). As proposed ((Bhatia 1978, Mahajan 1990a, Vasishth 1997 and 1998, Bhandari 1998, and Lahiri 1998) negative polarity items (NPIs) are formed with an indefinite pronoun and a particle 'bi/bʰi:' (even/also). This Typologically NPIs are very common aspects and present in every language (Haspelmath 1997 reports data from forty languages). Like any other Indo-Aryan language, the polarity items exist in Sambalpuri language as in the following examples.

(53)	kihe	bi:	bhuji	kʰɑi	ne	ɑsle
	anybody	even	feast	eat.PRTP	NEG	come.PST

'Nobody came to attend the feast.'

(54)	jənɛ	bi	iskul-ke	Ne	ɑsi
	someone	even	school-LOC	NEG	come.PRS

'Not even one has come to school.'

(55)	se	kɛbʰe	ne	pədʰe
	he.3SG	sometime	NEG	study.PRS

'He never studies.'

As it is noticed that the words 'kihe bi', 'jənɛ bi', 'kɛbʰe' are sensitive to the scope of negation. These words are Negative Polarity Items (NPIs) and used only in this environment. Hence, they are grammatical, with a particular interpretation, only within the scope of negation.

4.3. Negation in Coordination

Languages in the world possess special negative coordinators, like English 'neither....nor' which is negative by itself or special coordinators which are not negative by itself to express coodinating constructions. The special coordinating negator negates the proposition without

negative morpheme of standard negation whereas the special coordinators obligtorily require negative morpheme to express negation in coordination as in the following examples.

(56) əji̱t   əu   bikɑs   iskul-ke   ne   jei
      Ajit   and   Bikas   school-LOC   NEG   go.PRS.PRF
      'Ajit and Bikash have not been to school.'

(57) muĩ   ne   pəɖʰẽ   əu   iskul-ke   ne   jẽ
      I.1SG   NEG   study.1SG.FUT   and   school-   NEG   go.1SG.FUT
                                             LOC
      'I will not study and will not go to school either.'

(58 mɑnəsi   sikɑ   ne   kʰae   əu   t̪ar   bʰai   jʰuri   ne   kʰae
)   r   i
     Manasi.3S   mea   NE   eat.PR   an   he   brothe fish   NE   eat.PR
     G   t   G   S   d   r   r   G   S
     'Manasi does not eat meat and his brother does not eat fish.'

As it is given in the above examples that the negative particle in coordinating structure in Sambalpuri language always occurs preverbally whether two subjects joined by a coordinator with common predicate as in (56) or the same subject with two predicates joined by coordinators (57) or two diffrent simple sentences joined by coordinator (58). There is no special negative coordinator like English. The same negator used in standard negation is used in this construction to express negation.

4.4. Negation in Conditional Clause

In Sambalpuri the conditional clause is expressed using an overt conditional marker as correlative and particiapial. The negative morpheme in both cases is used preverbally as in the following examples.

(59) se   ne   ɖɑk-le   mui   ne   jẽ
      he.3SG   NEG   call-if   I   NEG   go
      'If he does not invite, I will not go.'

(60) jəɖi   mɑnəsi   ne   kʰɑɛ   muĩ   bi   ne   kʰɛ̃
      if   Manasi   NEG   eat.PRS   I   also   NEG   eat.
                                                                    PRS
      'If Manasi does not eat, I will also not eat.'

In the negative of conditional sentences in Sambalpuri, the same negative morpheme is used as in the standard negation and it is placed preverbally in both if-caluse and matrix clause. Although the sentence in (60) is grammatically possible and used in some rare cases, still the preferred and widely used structure is the example (59).

4.5. Double Negation

Double negation like English is allowed in Sambalpuri, it only allows single negative in one clause as in the following examples.

61.   muĩ   kicʰi   ne   ɖɛkʰi
       I   something   NEG   see.PST
       'I saw nothing.'

62.   *muĩ   ne   kicʰi   ne   ɖɛkʰi
       I.1SG   NEG   something   NEG   see.PST
       I didn't see nothing.'

In the above examples it is clear that double negative construction in Sambalpuri is not possible.

5. Conclusion

Conclusively, it can be summed up that the negation is a very important linguistic phenomenon present universally in all natural languages of the world. However, there may be difference in the negative markers while expressing the notion of negation, either using a negative affix or negative particles or negative verb. Bu it is to note that there is typological variations in the position of negative markers in a particular given environment in the world's languages. In some languages, the negative marker precedes the verb and in some others it succeeds.

In Sambalpuri language the position of negative marker is preverbal to negate any positive structure. As it is observed in the very first section of this paper on standard negation, there is a set of four negative markers which are identically phonological variants of same negative marker. And it can be interchangeably used without affecting the semantic of the construction. The only perceptible difference in such varieties of negative markers among the speakers of Sambalpuri is their regional variations. The variants are used in different parts of western Odisha. Most importantly, as the preverbal use of negative marker is found in Hindi, Urdu, Punjabi, Gujrati, and Assamese, so it is also found in Sambalpuri language. With regard to symmetric and asymmetric dichotomy of negation, it is very often seen in different instances of clausal and non-clausal negation that both symmetric and asymmetric systems can be exemplified. But symmetric negation is rarely found in the structure. The non-verbal clauses use a different type of negative marker which is usually not identical with standard negator. Lastly, this typological survey of negation can be considered as a preliminary analysis which may serve linguists to explore more in this field.

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Mother Tongues in Mysore

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"A census is when the state connects to every individual… Finding out age, gender, economic status, religion and languages spoken yields information of another order, making it a treasure trove of findings…"

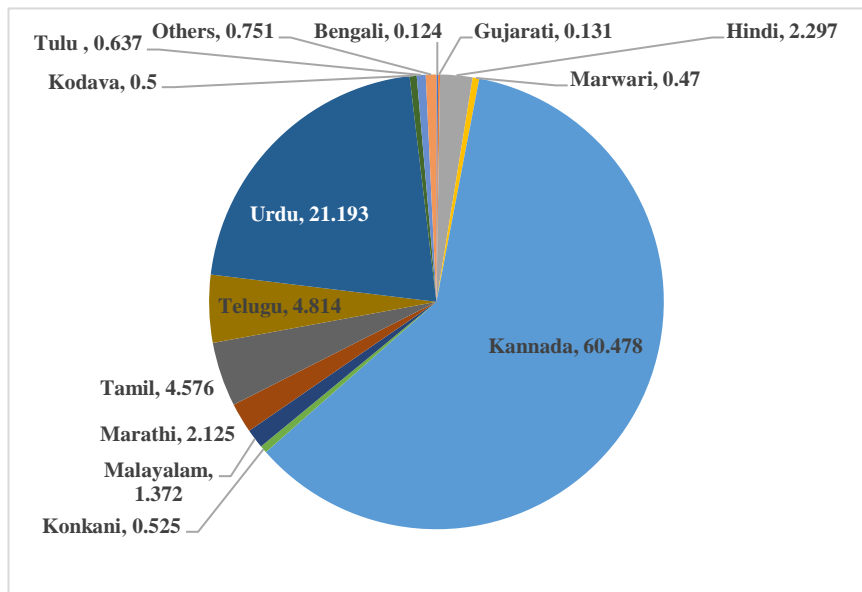Seema Chishti, *The Hindu*, Sep. 23, 2022.

Karnataka, one of the states of India, has 5.05% of the population of the country. According to the 2011 Census, 38.67% of them live in urban areas and 61.33% live in the rural areas. The 2001 Census recorded 31.54% as the urban population. There is an increase of 7.4% in 2011. The state has five metropolitan regions. They are - Bangalore: T-85,20,435 (M-44,33,855; F-40,83,580); Mysore: T-9,90,900 (M-4,97,138; F-4,93,762); Mangalore: T-6,23,841(M-309380; F-314461; Belgaum: T-6,10,350 (M-308905; F-301445) and Gulbarga / Kalburgi- 5,43,147 (M-2,96,552; F-2,66,595). The Census of 2021 was not conducted. However, the Census has made a projection of population of Mysore Metropolitan region for 2023 as 13,65,000 and Mysore city as 12,29,000. The projection for metropolitan region in 2031 is 17,25,000 and for Mysore city, it is 15,52,000.

This paper intends to document and analyze the linguistic demography of one of the culturally and historically important cities of Karnataka. In the absence of actual mother tongue data for 2021 we have to bank upon 2011 census data only. It fairly provides a clear picture of mother tongue composition of Mysore. Here it is to be recorded that, Mysore Metropolitan Areas include - Alanahalli, Belvata, Bhogadi, Chamundibetta, Dattagalli, Hebbalu, Hinkal, Hutagalli, Lingambudi, Metagalli, Mysore, Sathagalli, and Srirampura. Table-1 and the chart illustrate the linguistic composition of Mysore.

Table-1

Mother Tongues in Mysore

Mother tongue	%
Bengali	0.124
Gujarati	0.131
Hindi	2.297
Marwari	0.470
Kannada	60.478
Konkani	0.525
Malayalam	1.372
Marathi	2.125
Tamil	4.576
Telugu	4.814
Urdu	21.193
Kodava	0.500

Tulu , 0.637 Others, 0.751 Bengali, 0.124 Gujarati, 0.131 Hindi, 2.297
Kodava, 0.5 Marwari, 0.47
Urdu, 21.193
Telugu, 4.814
Kannada, 60.478
Tamil, 4.576
Marathi, 2.125
Malayalam, 1.372
Konkani, 0.525

Tulu	0.637
Others	0.751

Here 60.478% of the population has Kannada as their mother tongue, the Official Language of the State; 2.297% of the population has Hindi, an Official Language of the Union of India. Kodava and Tulu are the indigenous mother tongues of the State, and they are spoken by 0.500% and 0.637% of the population respectively. Karnataka is surrounded by Kerala, Telangana, Goa, Maharashtra, and Tamil Nādu. The Official languages of these states are minority mother tongues in Karnataka. They are spoken by Malayalam-1.372%, Telugu-4.814%, Konkani-0.525%, Marathi-2.125%, Tamil-4.576% speakers. It must be recorded here that the second major mother tongue of Mysore is Urdu, and it has 21.193% speakers.

Table-2

Mysore-Mother Tongues and Gender

MYSORE-MOTHER TONGUES AND GENDER

■ Male ■ Female

	Male	Female
All	50.083	49.916
Bengali	58.479	41.52
Gujarati	52.026	47.973
Hindi	55.083	44.916
Marwari	52.999	47
Kannada	49.969	50.03
Konkani	48.263	51.736
Malayalam	46.348	53.651
Marathi	50.373	49.626
Tamil	49.464	50.535
Telugu	49.953	50.046
Urdu	50.164	49.835
Kodava	46.778	53.221
Tulu	49.497	50.502
Others	52.717	47.282
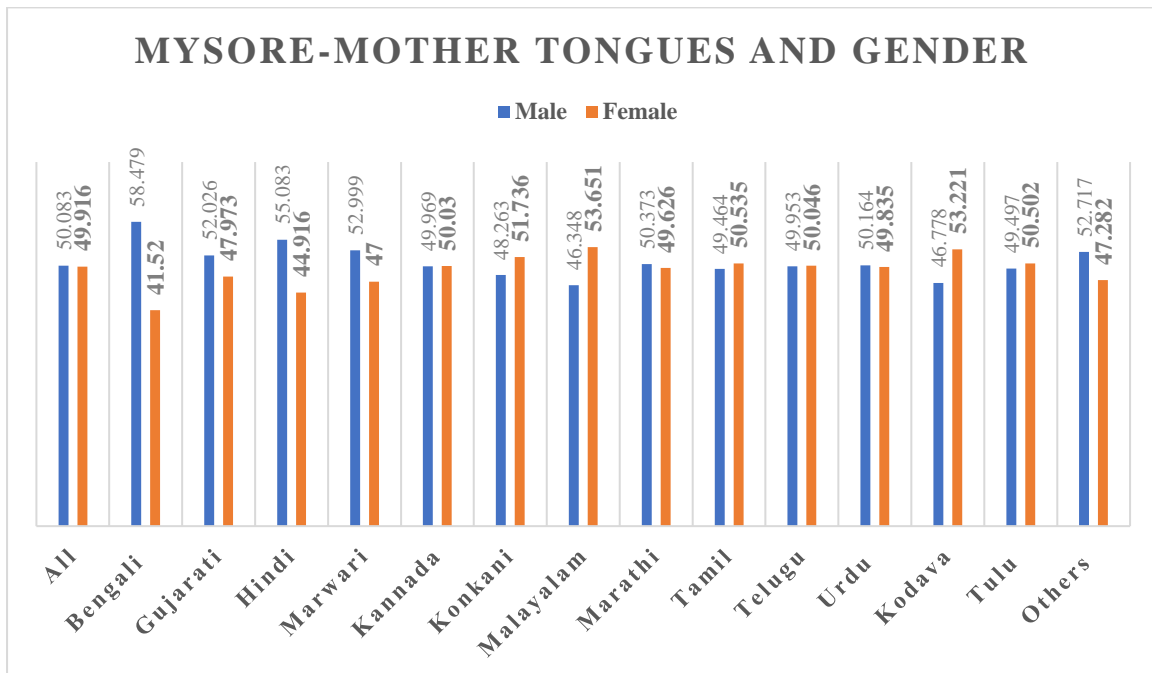
Mother tongue	Male	Female	Mother tongue	Male	Female
Bengali	58.479	41.520	Malayalam	46.348	53.651
Gujarati	52.026	47.973	Marathi	50.373	49.626
Hindi	55.083	44.916	Tamil	49.464	50.535
Marwari	52.999	47.000	Telugu	49.953	50.046
Kannada	49.969	50.030	Urdu	50.164	49.835
Konkani	48.263	51.736	Kodava	46.778	53.221
			Tulu	49.497	50.502
All	50.083	49.916	Others	52.717	47.282

The Table-2 and the chart there on mother tongues and gender illustrate the details of distribution of mother tongue speakers between male and female categories. In the case of Kannada (50.030%), Konkani (51.736%), Malayalam (53.651%), Tamil (50.535%), Telugu (50.046%), Kodava (53.331%) and Tulu (50.502%), the female speakers outnumber the male speakers, whereas in the case of Bengali (58.479%), Gujarati (52.026%), Hindi (55.083%), Marwari (52.999%), Marathi (50.373%) and Urdu (50.164%) male speakers outnumber the female speakers.

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The Impact of Multilingualism on Personality Development

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Abstract

Due to rapid technology improvements, more individuals are travelling in this multicultural world, where they encounter other cultures and linguistic divergences. Up to the past ten years, English was a widely used language. From that moment forward, languages started to offer the hotel industry unparalleled value by improving managers' and front-line staff members' comprehension of other cultures. Because they describe people with varying degrees of intercultural competency, the terms monolingualism, bilingualism, and multilingualism have grown in prominence. attempt has been made to show how the multilingualism affect personality profile why being bilingual has advantages for persons working in the hospitality industry, sometimes known as the "people business.

Keywords: Multilingualism; Monolingualism; Personality development; Employment, Opportunities.

1. Introduction

India is known as a large sociolinguistic nation. Multilingualism is this giant's nervous system. With around 1600 mother tongues that can be reduced to about 200 languages for a population of 1.27 billion, India has a massive amount of multilingualism, with the populations of several linguistic minorities being larger than many European nations (Annamalai, 2001).

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Language is a human capacity that "coevolves with us," according to Li Wei (Wei, 2000),

Most of the population in India is bilingual. Speaking a second language is widespread in this nation, Even so, it is possible that there may not be a significant personality change, which may be related to cultural factors. The majority of India's cultures, if not all of them, do, in fact, differ very slightly from one state to another and from one region to another. But, even then, frequently using a second, third, or in some unusual cases, four or more languages may alter how you view or understand various situations.

1. Literature Review

Research has shown that bilinguals and multilinguals have a small but significant effect on personality traits. Additionally, individuals who know more languages usually have easier communication in different languages. Additionally, higher knowledge of multiple languages is linked to higher levels of Openness, which is beneficial for multilinguals in the hospitality workforce. Additionally, people knowing more languages are prone to scoring higher in levels of cultural empathy, which can be used to improve the understanding of customer needs and wants in tourism.

Research has been carried out on the effect of multilingualism on personality in the year 2003 by Tokuhama-Espinsona, by Kemp 2007, and by Jessner 2006, which focused on the sociolinguistic issues. The majority of the study in this nascent topic has concentrated on the issue of whether knowing more than one language is advantageous while acquiring other languages. It is considered that the knowing more language is generally advantageous.

2. Data Collection and Methodology

This research paper will explore how multilingualism shapes individuals' personality profile. Qualitative data will be collected through research articles, and books to gain insights into individuals' multilingual experiences.

2.1. Quantitative Analysis

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Statistical analysis will be conducted to compare personality traits between multilingual and monolingual individuals.

3.2 Qualitative Analysis

Thematic analysis will be employed to identify patterns and themes in gathered data, providing a deeper understanding of the impact of multilingualism on personality development.

3. Discussion

3.1. The Effect of Multilingualism on Personality

"Language is a personality as well. People are different when they speak different

languages."   -David Bezmozgis.

Multilingualism is a common and increasing phenomenon that has experienced an increased interest in the last decade. It increases opportunities for employment, creates a network of business people and enables a much easier access to successful business cooperation and economic welfare.

Kids who have been introduced to various languages from an early age are better at understanding other people's viewpoints and were significantly better at communication, according to a study by Cornell University's department of psychology and human development.

3.2.The Multilingualism in the Modern Time

Monolingualism and *bilingualism* are two terms used to describe intercultural competence and intercultural communication. Monolinguals have the hardest time of all three language groups when it comes to learning a new language, while bilinguals are fluent in their second language and can manage the acquisition of the third foreign language better than monolinguals. Multilinguals are experienced language learners who excel at motivation,

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attitudes, and self-confidence. According to Kemp (2007), multilinguals are better at learning new languages if they previously mastered foreign languages, and use various strategies as tools for effectively learning foreign languages. According to Pace (2015), learning several foreign languages is deemed to be the new social requirement in education and personal development. Multilingualism is a necessity for businesses in the hospitality industry, as it allows them to communicate and trade in multiple languages. Knowing how to use a language in certain situations and for certain goals gives people a strong bargaining power. Additionally, people in the tourism industry who are service providers or intermediaries in the channel of distribution have to effectively communicate a message to the tourist. Foreign language skills play a fundamental part in the supply of high-end services in the hospitality industry. As Lily (2015) states, all tourism stakeholders such as tourists, service providers, and intermediaries have to understand guests' needs and anticipate their wants to ensure that the quality can be consistently delivered. Lily (2015) states that all tourism stakeholders must have their content translated in different languages to overcome language barriers of their guests. Intercultural competence is the ability to see and understand the differences between cultures, accept them, converse, behave and treat people with respect. It is important for employees in the hospitality industry to communicate with colleagues and guests from different cultures successfully in order to acquire theoretical and practical cultural knowledge. According to Byram (2000), intercultural competence encompasses attitudes, interpretation, knowledge, interaction skills, awareness of a foreign culture and political education. When developing intercultural competence, hospitality managers should include training and intercultural exchange of ideas for the benefit of their employees.

4. European Projects on Multilingualism

According to (Schröder 1999), the European Union wants its citizens to be able to speak their home tongue together with two other languages. Several projects supported by the European Commission or other European institutions have a multilingual learning component

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as a response to this social need. The EuroCom (European Comprehension) initiative, which may be found online at www.eurocom-frankfurt.de aims to give European individuals a strong linguistic foundation for communicating with one another, at least within their own language family. In order to aid in the development of at least receptive abilities in the new language, optimal inferencing strategies have been devised in typologically similar languages. The pioneering work was finished as EuroComRom in the Romance languages (e.g. Klein and Stegmann 2000; Stoye 2000). Other programmes which are under development are EuroComSlav (e.g. Zybatow 2003) and EuroComGerm, which is the directed by Hufeisen which focus on comprehending Germanic languages.

Several initiatives to promote multilingual learning, funded by European institutions like the European Centre of Modern Languages in Graz, have been undertaken in addition to the EuroCom projects (Austria). For instance, Hufeisen and Neuner (e.g., 2003) in their study on fostering linguistic synergy advocated a cognitive approach to language instruction.

The European Union (EU) has prioritised language learning as part of its efforts to foster intercultural understanding and mobility, and it funds numerous initiatives in this field, such as the Erasmus+ Programme, the Creative Europe Programme, the European Day of Languages, the European Language Label, and Juvenes Translatores.

The comprehensive policy on multilingualism has been acknowledged by the European Parliament. The European Parliament reiterated its support for EU policies in the area of multilingualism in its resolution from 24 March 2009, "Multilingualism: an asset for Europe and a shared commitment" (OJ C 117E, 6.5.2010), and urged the Commission to develop initiatives aimed at fostering linguistic diversity. In this framework, the Commission introduced the Civil Society Platform in 2009 to Promote Multilingualism and support the spread of multilingualism in society and the improvement of citizens' multilingual and intercultural skills.

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2013 witnessed the enactment by the European Parliament of a resolution titled "Endangered European Languages and Linguistic Diversity in the European Union" (OJ C 93, 9.3.2016, p. 52), which urged the Member States to pay closer attention to endangered European languages and pledge to safeguard and promote the variety of the Union's linguistic and cultural heritage.

2016 (23 November): A resolution on sign languages and qualified sign language interpreters was adopted by the European Parliament (OJ C 224, 27.6.2018, p. 68). Its emphasis is on the necessity of providing sign language interpretation, subtitles, speech-to-text, and/or alternate kinds of communication, such as oral interpreters, allowing deaf, deaf-blind, and hard-of-hearing persons to have access to the same information and communication as their peers.

The movement for linguistic awareness has undoubtedly sparked other initiatives in several European nations, particularly those pertaining to primary and secondary education. For instance, in Austria, the cutting-edge idea of language education known as Sprach- und Kulturerziehung obviously goes beyond conventional language study in the classroom. Foreign languages and mother tongues, both majority and minority, are suggested to be vital aspects of this sort of education, and as a result of the metalinguistic knowledge synergistic effects will arise (Huber-Kriegler 2000).

5. Conclusion

Languages are an important asset and means for development and economic growth The area of employment is where multilingualism as an adult has the most obvious benefits. the ability to speak many languages will open up additional job opportunities for us. French, Spanish and German are historically popular languages to study. These provide doors to all parts of the world, while Arabic and Chinese, two increasingly important languages, are

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essential for reaching new markets. Speaking a language, however, gives the speaker insight into entire civilizations and serves as a tool for communication. Multilingual employees increase a company's chances of success in a globalised economy, which is why recruiters desire them. Because you are not limited to looking for employment solely in your nation of residence, being multilingual makes seeking a career much more fascinating.

A report released by Geneva organisation about the contribution of multilingualism in the economy of Switzerland which states that Switzerland's multilingual heritage gives it a competitive advantages worth 46 billion Swiss franc which is estimated 9% of gross domestic product and it further states that 11% of European small and medium-sized enterprises (SMEs) were losing export business through lack of language skills and intercultural skills.

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Foucault, Discourse, Knowledge, Culture and Archeology

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Abstract

The paper will mainly focus on Foucault's discussion on his notion of 'discourse' and his dynamic conceptualization of knowledge, which has such an enormous influence in cultural analysis. He refutes the 'fons et origo' of discourse and calls for treating it as and when it occurs. He says that forms of continuity and unity are just the result of a construction following the rules with its own justification. He suggests that there is no 'human essence' but what a given society understands human beings to be at any given point is a product of the kind of discourses that it produces about itself. This can be seen as an anti-essentialist claim. This notion of man is also not in the line with humanism. It marks a break with humanism inasmuch as it de-centres the individual as the prior agent in creating the social world, rejecting subjectivity as something essential, and prior to discourse, which power acts against. What will be further discussed is his dynamic conceptualization of knowledge and his attention to thresholds of knowledge.

Keywords: Foucault, Discourse, Knowledge, Archeology, Epistemic break.

Epistemic Break, Criticism and Modern Thought

Foucault's major work *Order of Things* talks about the radical break between Classical and modern thought which occurred towards the end of the eighteenth century. Further in his work *Discipline and Punish,* he talks about how the norms of discourses helped in the operation of disciplinary power. In *The Birth of the Clinic*, Foucault says that modern medicine emerged in the form of a clinical science[1] which offered a plentitude of new

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[1] Foucault, 1963/2003: xvii.

experience of disease. This new experience of disease made it possible to have a historical and critical understanding of the old experience. It made it possible to have a new and different understanding of the madness in the light of new experience, helping remove the Classical treatment of mad people and thus the rational methods to which the mad people were subjected in the Classical age. Thus the medical rationality has now the access to the copious amount of perception, which enabled one to get to the very grain of things offering the first glimpse of truth. So, now to perceive is no longer just the matter of just seeing. This inseparability or the oneness of to see and to perceive was what was preached by rationalist philosophers like Descartes and Malebranche.

Foucault says that the modern age is an age of criticism. We now have the reign of criticism because now only criticism matters and it also indicates its fatality as is subjects everything to criticism. The heralding of the age of criticism found growing acceptance among positivists and also exhorted them as it supplied appropriate conditions for the nurturing of their practices. Nietzsche has also already emphasized the importance of criticism in modern time. He calls even philosophy criticism[2] and critical science. He says it is critics who do a tremendous job to mankind as they take everything that has happened till now and render it distinct, intelligible and manageable and subdue the whole past. The philosophical labourers and men of science have to do the formal assessments of value which over a period of time establishes itself as truths. Even actual philosopher himself has to first don the task of critics as they are used as instruments by them before becoming a man of tomorrow and the day after tomorrow and the promoters of mankind. They reach for the future with creative hands and their knowing is their will to truth[3].

So, criticism and positivism came on the scene in the modern age as the age of representation declined. At the same time there is the metaphysics of the object. This is the metaphysics of non-objectifiable depth of objects. It is from here objects rise up towards human's superficial knowledge. Foucault in 'The Order of the Things' says that criticism,

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[2] Nietzsche, 1886/2003: 141.
[3] ibid., p. 143.

positivism and metaphysics formed the triangle. They formed the triangle of the object. This criticism-positivism-metaphysics triangle constituted modern European thought from the beginning of the nineteenth century, marking the break from the Classical thought.

Classical Thought, Archeology and Discourse

In Classical thought, the problem consisted in discovering a nomenclature that would be a taxonomy. The Classical thought's major problem to lay bare the relations between name and order arise from Classical age ontological standing that being is offered to representation without interruption. But as the new thought emerged in the modern age, it now became evident that it is possible to know only phenomena and its laws and not substances and essences. So it not the ideal essences that determine the order of concrete things but rather the hidden historical forces inside it determine the order of things. A new concept of the sign emerged under the new conception of order.

As now human delved the depths of life, critical thinking made the way for the phenomenal realm to take the centre stage. The phenomenal realm now became the only area of concern for the human's epistemological endeavor, which led to the synthetic notion of life. It helped give rise to the modern conception of knowledge, which created the conditions of possibility of modern discourses of biology, philology, and economics. The positivism, which indicates a reversion to the classical thought, owes its genesis to the importance which now gets attached to the phenomenal world. Man now emerges as a strange empirico-transcendental doublet[4] as the empirical contents of man served to reveal the conditions of knowledge.

In *The Archeology of Knowledge*, Foucault describes discourses such as biology, medicine, psychiatry as discursive formation. He sees discursive formation as a system of dispersion for the elements of discursive formation. It acts as the space in which various objects emerge and get continuously transformed. A discursive formation is a collection of statements which observes the rules of formation. He does not hold a discursive formation to

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[4] Foucault, 1966/2002: 347.

be defined by any unity of objects, manner of statement, concepts, or method. Rather it functions as a system of dispersion for its elements. It is the rules of formation that govern the formation of statements that define the unity of a discursive formation.

Traditional historical inquiry and Foucault's archeology both need documents or the collections of statements to commence with. But the way they treat documents differs in a significant way. Conventional history of ideas uses documents to get to the intention, thoughts and beliefs of the author who produce it. Documents were used to understand the synthesizing operations of a psychological kind. They were seen as the language of a voice which is no longer present, thus document is just the way to reach that voice. The linguistic data of statements acts as an object to revive the inner life of constituting subjects in this case. Foucault's archeology on the contrary treats statements as objects of study in their own right, without paying any attention to what was the author's thought. For him, statements need to be treated as monuments. Thus he seeks to do away with the constituent subject[5].

Foucault says that archeology's concern lies in paying attention to discursive formation or positivity that makes possible the existence of disciplines and sciences, further explaining the changes in the discursive formation by looking at the relations of thought and discourse to the factors that lie outside them. He says that it is the episteme of the epoch that archeology seeks to reveal and it defines the conditions of possibility of all forms of knowledge.

Discursive Formation, Archeology and Thresholds

Discursive formations may be mapped by scientific disciplines, but they go way beyond the boundaries of any scientific disciplines, and these discursive formations that archeology seeks to describe. These all diverse and dispersed elements need to figure in the genealogy of modern biology and not just natural history which is linked only to the theory of signs and to the project of a science of order. The autonomy and rigid enclosure of natural history excludes the elements which can legitimately contribute to the constitution of biology.

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[5] Foucault, 1977: 117.

The same can be said about other established sciences of classical period. It is also true that positivities and sciences do not always exist in an exclusive relation and that there is always the possibility of a science where there is a positivity. This raises the question of the relation between the positivities and the sciences. This puzzle can be sorted out by drawing the distinction between what Foucault calls *savoir* and *connaisance*.

Here we see Foucault's formulation of dynamic conception of knowledge. He calls epistemic knowledge savoir[6] and scientific knowledge or accumulated, refined, deepened, adjusted knowledge connaisance. The elements of a scientific discourse are made available by the savoir of a discursive formation. It is savoir that provides critical knowledge. Foucault sees objects which the discourses talks about as emerging in the space offered by savoir. It is in this space the subject speaks of the objects of his discourse. Thus the occurrence of discursive formations and the objects made possible by it is coeval. There is no one permanent, delimited object to refer to. This underpins the nominalist streak in Foucault's archeological approach.

Foucault says that connaissance remains in the clutches of subjectivity or connaissance is the subjective enterprise. So subject plays the key role in achieving the scientific knowledge and for this subject depends on savior. On the other hand, it is savoir that concerns archeology, so archeology explores the discursive practice/knowledge (savoir)/science axis. Foucault suggests that we should distinguish between scientific domains and archeological territories. Those texts or propositions that do not meet the accepted norms of the period are not seen as belonging to the scientific domain.

Literary and philosophical texts are excluded from any domain of scientificity as they do not observe the established scientific norms of the period. But an archeological territory extends not only to scientific texts but also to literary and philosophical texts that do not observe to a great deal the scientific norms of the period.

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[6] Foucault, 1969/2002: 200.

Foucault says that it is possible to isolate four distinct stages or thresholds that a discursive formation crosses. Threshold of positivity and threshold of epistemologization come prior to the threshold of scientificity and threshold of formalization. The first threshold is crossed by a discursive practice when it becomes an individual and autonomous system and start operating to govern the formation of statements. The second stage is reached when a group of statements is formed following the epistemic norms of verification and coherence through which to verify knowledge. The threshold of scientificity is crossed when the statements of the epistemological figure comply with archeological rules and certain laws.

Different thresholds and the attention to the threshold of interest make it possible to do different types of historical analysis. This kind of history of science was practiced by G. Bachelard and G. Canguilhem, when they dealt only with connaissance or took only the current scientific disciplines and accepted these fully constituted sciences as the norm of its historical analysis to write the history of how the concepts and standards of these sciences developed freeing itself from pre-scientific stuffs.

But the archeological history which Foucault practices does not accept norms of fully constituted sciences in an uncritical way and subject them to archeological analysis, which shows that their emergence is rooted in contingent historical processes and archeological or epistemological structures. The presence of the set of relations among different discursive practices is possible because this set of discursive practices is tethered to common non-discursive domains and its practices which make possible the occurrence of different discursive practices at a given period.

Foucault says that scientific norms originate at the interaction point of discursive practices and non-discursive systems, which has the effect of removing the role of subject in the formation of norms by showing that norms originate beyond the domain of subjectivity. The norms, which govern the formation of discourses, are essentially attached to the social practices with shows the nature of our engagement with the word. So the practical

engagement of human with their world at a given period of time serves as the basis for the emergence of the norms of the sciences.

The norms of the sciences played a very critical role in the functioning of modern society. Medical discourse performed specific social functions as individuals were judged and categorized according to its scientific definitions. Administrative and judicial decision making took recourse to it and so it helped in running prisons. Scientific discourses now came to be used in disciplining individuals and thus in the exercise of power.

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Research on Current Situation and Countermeasures of English Vocabulary Teaching in Junior High School — A Case Study of Qiming Middle School of Guangzhou, Baiyun

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Abstract

This study examines vocabulary instruction and learning at Qi Ming High School. It addresses issues and offers practical suggestions. Two key questions are explored: the current situation of English vocabulary learning in middle school and current situation of English vocabulary teaching in junior high school.183 students and 13 English teachers participated in the survey. Findings reveal that traditional teaching methods prevail due to time constraints and exam pressure. Students heavily rely on memorization techniques like word lists, hindering practical use. Teachers should teach effective memory techniques, such as recognizing vocabulary and using roots or affixes.

Around 50% of students improve vocabulary through extensive reading, emphasizing its importance. 86% of students use vocabulary in listening, speaking, and writing, underscoring its relevance to language skills. Teachers should leverage this method to enhance lexical competence. Students lack initiative and depend on textbooks. Teachers should guide them to employ diverse methods. Control strategies for autonomy are rarely used, indicating a need for teacher guidance. Students primarily use textbooks for vocabulary, limiting their resources.

Teachers should encourage the use of diverse materials like reading resources. Communication strategies vary among students, with some active and others lacking confidence. Teachers should promote communication both in and outside the classroom to enhance speaking skills and develop communication habits.

Keywords: English Vocabulary Teaching; Junior High School; Current Situation; Countermeasures.

Introduction

English vocabulary is vital for language learning, playing an increasingly important role in education, work, and daily life. However, vocabulary teaching in junior middle schools in

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China often falls short, lacking effective strategies. Students face difficulties in memorization and fail to grasp contextual meanings.

The new curriculum standards require students to acquire a substantial number of words and develop comprehensive language proficiency. Language skills and knowledge are essential for achieving this goal.

Many teachers still rely on traditional methods, teaching words in isolation without considering context or cultural background. This hampers students' mastery of vocabulary. Students struggle with memory and make errors in word tasks. Equipping them with effective learning strategies is key to improving their English proficiency. Vocabulary learning should encompass structural changes and word functions. In order to better study the difficulties faced by junior middle school students in vocabulary learning, the author compiled a questionnaire on junior middle school students' English learning in Baiyun district based on the current situation.

In order to test the validity and reliability of the characteristics of vocabulary learning difficulties, different methods are adopted, such as listening to lectures, consulting teaching plans, tracing and understanding the cases of teachers and students, and describing the learning process of students with learning difficulties. The first and second sections highlight the significance of the paper and the related literature review.

The third chapter briefly introduces the current situation of junior high school English vocabulary teaching and learning. The fourth section introduces the research methods, and describes the research questions, participants, tools and analysis in detail. The fifth section reports the results and discussions of this study. It is carried out by questionnaire to show the teaching status of teachers and students, and further points out the main problems of teaching and learning. The English vocabulary of Qiming middle school was analyzed and the main reasons were analyzed. The sixth section summarizes the whole thesis, and summarizes the research by literature review, questionnaire survey and data analysis.

Review of the Literature

Vocabulary Learning Theories

From the philosophical point of view, knowledge is the understanding of the attributes and connections of things. From the psychological point of view, knowledge is a state of the mind. Famous contemporary cognitive psychologists believe that "knowledge is a subject to their environment or thinking and object exchange in consciousness. General knowledge can be divided into declarative knowledge and procedural knowledge. (Ballantyne, 2021). Declarative knowledge refers to the knowledge that an individual can directly state by providing meaningful clues, mainly answering "what is the world". It is static knowledge. Procedural knowledge refers to unconsciousness of the extraction of clues, and only by means of some kind of operation methods to indirectly infer its existence form, mainly a set of operating procedures, to answer the

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"how to do" . Modern cognitive psychologists believe that declarative learning can be divided into three stages. In the first stage, new information enters the short-term memory, and establishes the connection with the related knowledge activated in the long-term memory, thus emerging the new meaning construction.

In the second stage, the meaning of the new construction is stored in the long-term memory. If there is no review or new learning, the meaning will be forgotten as time goes on. The third stage is the extraction and application of meaning. (Cui,2007) The study of procedural knowledge can also be divided into three stages. The first stage is the learning of declarative knowledge. The second stage is to transform the declarative form of rules into the procedural form by applying the rule's variation practice. The third stage of procedural knowledge learning is the highest stage of procedural knowledge development. As a special procedural knowledge, the learning of strategic knowledge also has such three stages. First to know what strategy is to learn and to practice, by applying the relevant strategies to make rules about learning, memory, or thinking which dominate their own cognitive behavior and it can smooth apply the relevant rules under changing conditions, control and adjust their own cognitive behavior, improving the effect of learning and memory. (Zhou,2017)

Memory and Information Processing Theory

In vocabulary learning, memorizing words is very important. Memory is an important component of IQ.To a large extent, it can determine the success or failure of learning. This is especially true in foreign language learning. Memory is the reflection of past experience in the human brain and the process of imprinting, retaining, and function of the experience. Memory can be divided into intention Memory and unintentional memory. Intentional memory is intended for a predetermined purpose of knowledge, and is sometimes required by certain methods. (Zhang ,2014)

Unintentional memory refers to the memory that has no predetermined purpose, does not require any method, or effort. According to the information processing and retention time of the memory process, it can be divided into instantaneous, short-term, and long-term memory. The basic elements of memory are memorization, retention, re-recognition or recall. Memorization is the first part of memory, retention is the second part of memory, and recognition or recall is the third part of memory. These three steps influence, depend on and have close connection each other. (Zhang, 2014)

Second Language Acquisition Theory

As an independent subject, the study of second language acquisition was formed in the late 1960s and early 1960s. This led this study systematically explore the nature and process of second language acquisition describing how learners acquire a second language and explain why learners acquire a second language. Second language acquisition is not built on the basis of mother tongue,only when we put the second language acquisition as a relatively independent

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phenomenon to explore and analyze the inherent law of the acquisition process and the external factors which affect the development of it, it is likely to be understood the process of second language acquisition.

Krashen strictly distinguishes the concepts between acquisition and learning. He pointed out that language acquisition can only be achieved through the unconscious acquisition of language, and language acquisition cannot be achieved under the conscious condition. He believed that the language acquisition would be completed through language input and teaching should be focused on providing students with as much as language input. (He, 2003）

According to the' input theory', Swain proposed 'output theory', He thinks that language acquisition cannot succeed only input without output. He emphasized the role of output in language learning, if students fail to get knowledge preparation or internalize the complex structural rules of the language, they will feel monotonous under this kind of parrot-like mechanism. (He,2003）

Vocabulary Learning Strategies

Since the beginning of the 20th century, many researchers in the field of foreign language education have done a lot of foreign language learning strategies. A reliable theory is to use effective foreign language learning strategies. It can not only improve the way of foreign language learning, improve the learning effect and quality, but reduce the burden. In addition, the cultivation of learning strategies should be penetrated into teaching so as to reduce the difficulties of students' learning. The results also show that less successful foreign language learners can learn from successful foreign language learners' learning strategies. Autonomous learning is the prerequisite for lifelong learning, and the formation of effective learning strategies is the only way to develop autonomous learning ability. The study strategy of teachers can promote and adjust their teaching strategies and methods. Additionally, Teachers should guide and help students develop learning strategies in teaching. (Zhou, 2017)

Research Methodology

In order to understand the current situation of vocabulary teaching and learning in junior high school better, the author carried out a variety of investigations including questionnaires and interviews in Qiming middle school from January, 2023 to May,2023. This school can basically represent the comprehensive level of teachers and students in junior high school in Baiyun district.

Research Questions

The purpose of research addresses the following questions through questionnaires and interview in order to make a deeper survey into the present condition of English vocabulary teaching and learning in middle school.

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(1)   What is the present condition of English vocabulary learning in middle school?

(2)   What is the current condition of English vocabulary teaching in junior high school?

Research Participants

The author took teachers and students as the research participants so as to make the survey more comprehensive and show the current situation of vocabulary teaching in junior high school from different angles. The participants involved in this research are from Qiming middle school in Baiyun, Guangzhou city. The author chose 13 teachers in total, of which 4 are from Grade seven, 4 are from Grade eight and 5 are from Grade nine. The teachers are of different teaching ages and genders. Only two teachers are males while the rest are all females. One teacher has been teaching for 15 years while one teacher has just been teaching for one year. There are also 183 students involved in the research. They are all from Grade seven and helped to do student questionnaire.177 questionnaires were returned and the returning rate reaches 97%. 174 questionnaires are valid. and the questionnaire-reclaiming efficiency reaches 95%. 172 tests are returned, and the returning rate reached 94%. 169 are valid and the reclaiming efficiency reached 98%. The research participants are selected randomly and have strong willingness to cooperate, which enhances the validity and credibility of the research so that the research is more objective to reflect the real situation of English vocabulary teaching and learning in junior high school.

Questionnaires

To investigate the current situation of vocabulary teaching and learning in junior high school, two questionnaires are compiled from two aspects. One is from the perspective of English teachers in junior high school and the other is for junior high school students. Each questionnaire involves two parts. One part is about the basic information of participants and the second part is the body of the questionnaire. The teacher questionnaire includes teachers' strategies of vocabulary teaching used by teachers in junior high school. There are ten multiple-choice questions, and the teachers get the meaning of each question as well as make a choice. As for student questionnaires, methods and strategies of vocabulary learning and factors affecting vocabulary learning are compiled into questions. Meanwhile, there are thirty multiple-choice questions.

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Research Findings

Table-1.1 Teaching Method and strategies

Always	Often	Sometimes	Occasionally	Never
13%	60%	27%	0%	0%

Table1.2 Occasion of Vocabulary teaching

At the start of each new unit	Before each learning item	After each learning item	In the process of exercises	Others
26%	38%	5%	5%	26%

Table1.3Time Proportion of Vocabulary Teaching in One Class

Less than 30%	30%--40%	40%--50%	More than 50%
66%	24%	10%	0%

Table1.4Frequency of Reviewing Vocabulary

Every day	A week	A month	Mid or end term
40%	38%	12%	10%

Table1-5Way to Check Students' Vocabulary Learning

Dictation	Making a dialogue	Writing	Translation
30%	18%	21%	31%

Table1-6Approaches to Vocabulary Teaching

Read the word list	Read the text	Create situation	Translation
30%	30%	21%	19%

Table1-7 Methods of Vocabulary Teaching

Direct method	Contextual Method	Dictionary Method	Word--guessing Method	Game Method	Translation Method
25%	17%	10%	16%	10%	22%

Table1-8 Content of Vocabulary Teaching

Pronunciation	Part of speech	Meaning	Phrase or collocation	Synonym or antonym	Specific meaning
19%	18%	18%	18%	14%	13%

Table1-9 Means of Vocabulary Teaching

Blackboard	Multimedia	Both
0%	10%	90%

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Table2-1 Pragmatics Usage

	Always	Often	Sometimes	Occasionally	Never
Extensive reading	14%	19%	31%	31%	7%
Word-formation Or context	24%	28%	28%	15%	4%
Listening ,Speaking and Writing	26%	37%	23%	10%	4%

Table2-2 Use the dictionary

	Always	Often	Sometime	Occasionally	Never
Frequency	16%	26%	27%	26%	5%
Phrase or collocation	16%	21%	32%	22%	9%

Table2-3 Choice of dictionary

English-Chinese dictionary	Chinese-English Dictionary	Learner's English-Chinese	No dictionary
36%	8%	46%	6%

Table2-4 Strategies of Vocabulary Learning

	Yes	No
Clear vocabulary learning objectives and plans	63%	47%
Fixed vocabulary learning time	46%	54%
Relevant strategies	52%	48%
Booklets of vocabulary accumulation	42%	58%

Table 2-5 Regular Check or Test

Always	Often	Sometimes	Occasionally	Never
12%	25%	35%	18%	10%

Table 2-6 Resource Strategy

Word list	Reading material (newspaper,magazine	Dictionary	Internet, Television Medium
55%	15%	14%	16%

Table2-7 Communication strategy

	Always	Often	Sometimes	Occasionally	Never

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In the classroom or outdoor activity	12%	19%	34%	30%	5%
Communicate with classmates	11%	19%	35%	25%	10%
Ask teacher questions	13%	16%	35%	23%	13%

Responses

Reveals that traditional vocabulary teaching approaches still dominate, driven by time constraintsand the pressure of senior high school entrance exams. Consequently, vocabulary learning becomes tedious and inefficient. Students heavily rely on traditional memorization methods like word lists, which hinder practical use and lead to shortterm retention. To address this, teachers should provide instruction on effective memory techniques, such as recognizing vocabulary and memo rizimg based on roots or affixes

Around 50% of students enhance their vocabulary through extensive reading, highlighting the importance of prioritizing vocabulary learning and assessing mastery. Furthermore, 86% of students utilize vocabulary in listening, speaking, and writing, emphasizing the significance of integrating vocabulary into language skills development. Teachers should leverage this effective method to improve students' lexical competence.

The findings also indicate that students lack initiative in learning and overly depend on textbooks. To master a wide range of vocabulary, learners need to employ various learning methods. Control strategies, essential for autonomy and self-management in vocabulary learning, are rarely employed by students, underscoring the need for guidance and encouragement from teachers.

Students primarily rely on textbooks for vocabulary resources, demonstrating limited resource strategies. Teachers should guide students in utilizing diverse resources, such as reading materials, to strengthen vocabulary learning.

Communication strategies vary among students, with some actively using vocabulary in daily life while others lack confidence. Teachers should encourage students to communicate both inside and outside the classroom to enhance speaking skills and develop English communication habits.

Conclusion and Implications

Through the investigation into the current situation of vocabulary teaching in junior high school for almost one month, the author found out that vocabulary still plays an important part in

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English teaching. the author summarizes the research and put forward implications to provide reference for English teachers engaged in vocabulary teaching.

First, teachers should place much emphasis on teaching methods and strategies of vocabulary learning and encourage students to use them. Teachers should spare no effort to provide as many methods and strategies of vocabulary learning for students as possible. Under teachers' assistance, students will feel it easy to access the approaches and strategies of vocabulary learning and make good use of them. At the same time, teachers should pay great attention to students' autonomous learning. Teachers are supposed to learn how to cultivate and encourage students' learning initiatives and passion because students in middle school hold the independent learning ability such as self-check, self-control. The fundamental approach to improve the quality of English teaching is to teach students effective methods and strategies of learning.

Second, teachers should improve the means of inputting vocabulary knowledge. The main aspect of language learning is language input. According to the present situation of vocabulary teaching in junior high school, correct ways of vocabulary input are indispensable to make students master more comprehensible vocabulary input. Teachers should create as many as chances for communication in English as they can in order to expose students to various ways of comprehensible vocabulary input. Teachers should often communicate with students in English. Teachers should encourage students into communicating in English with each other.

Last, teachers should learn how to cultivate students' vocabulary consciousness. According to the SLA, the effective way to teach learners vocabulary is to create their vocabulary awareness rather than vocabulary exercise. Because the junior high school is the most important period for students to lay a solid foundation of English learning, teachers are supposed to show students to nourish their own English vocabulary consciousness positively and assist students break through the dominant mode of Chinese vocabulary sense to form the habit of using English vocabulary awareness to address whatever they want to deliver. （Wang Jianli, 2014, 62-63）

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Pronouns in Simte

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Abstract

Simte is one of the Kuki-Chin languages spoken mostly in Churachandpur and Pherzawl districts of Manipur. This paper attempts to investigate the forms of pronouns and its types in Simte. Data has been collected through elicitation from four Simte elders aged around 50-55. Pronouns in Simte are free forms that function alone to fill the position of a noun phrase in a clause. Since it is a pro-drop language, the pronoun dropping is evident extensively in the reflexive pronoun and reciprocal pronoun. It is realized by the reflexive prefix 'ki-' added to the main verb. The emphatic pronouns, which is a common feature in Kuki-Chin languages, in this language is realized by the suffix '-maʔ' added to the subject pronoun. For demonstrative pronouns, Simte employs 'hi' for a proximal distance which is near to a deictic centre while the morpheme 'hu' is employed for a distal one denoting a referent that is located at some distance from the deictic centre.

Keywords: Pronouns, Simte, deictic centre, emphatic.

Introduction

Simte is one of the Kuki-Chin languages spoken mostly in Churachandpur and Pherzawl districts of Manipur. According to Ching (2012), most of the Simtes are confined to the Churachandpur district, which is located in the Southern Part of Manipur. To be precise, the Simte speaking community can be found in Thanlon sub-divison, Singngat sub-division and Churachandpur Town. Hangluah (2019) states the term "Sim" means "South", and 'Te' means the "People", and thus, "Simte" literally means "The people of the South". They live mainly in Manipur, Assam, Mizoram, Nagaland, Meghalaya and Myanmar.

Grierson (1904) asserts Simte is one of the indigenous tribe groups under the central Chin sub-group of the Kuki-chin group of the Tibeto Burman family. Lewis, Simons and Fennings (2013) also classified Simte under the Northern Kuki-Chin groups along with Paite, Vaiphei and Zou. According to 2001 census Reports, the total Simte population of Manipur is around 11,651. And 2011 census report shows the population of Simte falls down to 6728. (Census Report, 2011). Simte is a tonal language, with a R-less languages unlike Mizo and Hmar languages.

1. **Literature Review**

According to the general understanding, pronoun is a word used in place of a noun. Huddleston and Pulum (2005) agree pronouns as unit of grammatical features which constitutes a small class of nouns where it can be distinguished syntactically from common nouns or proper nouns. According to Christophersen and Sandved (1969:52) pronouns is a sub category of nouns. It can be established on the bases of the classification of inflectional suffixes of pronouns. Notably, the inflectional classification of pronouns includes the subject form like *i, you, he, she.* The object form such as *me, you, him, her;* the 1st genitive form includes *my, your, his, her* and the 2nd genitive form such as *mine, yours, his, hers* etc. Radford (2004) argues personal pronouns encode the grammatical properties of persons, number, gender and case. They are known as personal pronouns because they deal not only with people but also the grammatical property of a person. Morenberg (1997) agrees possessive pronouns are formed with the nouns they precede. He explains the pronoun 'my' as referring to the possession as in the phrase 'my book'. In matters concerning reflexive, reciprocal and indefinite pronouns, Morenberg (1997), reflexive pronouns bounce back to the subject of the clause they are in. In fact, the reflexive and the reciprocal are bound by the antecedent. Whereas indefinite pronouns such as somebody, nobody are something that don't refer to any specific nouns. Rijal (2012) explains demonstrative pronouns are used to indicate specific persons or things. Dixon (1982) argued that demonstrative pronoun is distinct from the personal pronoun in that the demonstrative have a pointing or deictic reference. Rijal (2012) further defines interrogative pronouns as pronouns used in asking questions. The pronouns such as who, what and which are used as interrogative pronouns.

3. Data Analysis

3. 1. Personal Pronouns

Personal pronouns are the pronouns that are associated primarily with a particular grammatical category-first person, second person or third person. Pronoun make three distinctions of person as first person, second person and third person; and two distinction of number as singular and plural. One important feature of the Kuki-Chin languages is the presence of 'clusivity'. Clusivity is the distinction between first person inclusive pronoun and first person exclusive pronoun. La polla (2005) & DeLancey (2018) states that clusivity is a common phenomenon in Kuki-Chin and Naga languages. The singular paradigm of the first person, second person and third person in Simte are 'kei', 'naŋ' and 'amaʔ' respectively. The plural form of the first person, second person and the third person can be formed by the addition of first persons singular along with the particle 'uʔ.' (Singh, 2006 & Champeon, 2019). The inclusive 'ei' is a plural pronoun in itself. When attached to the particle 'ei', it becomes 'ei uʔ'. The plural form may be represented as below.

kei 'i'   + uʔ   >   kei uʔ

naŋ 'you'   + uʔ   >   naŋ uʔ

amaʔ 'he/she'   + uʔ   >   amaʔ uʔ

Person	Singular	Plural	Contracted form
First	kei 'I'	kei uʔ	kou (exclusive)'we'
		ei uʔ	ei ' (inclusive) we'
Second	naŋ 'you'	naŋ uʔ	nɔu 'you'
Third	amaʔ 'he/she'	amaʔ uʔ	amau 'they'

Champeon (2019) on her 'Simte writers' Handbook' argues that the above plural pronouns are used in writing and in formal situation. However, seeing from the native use of the language this finding may be incorrect. The contracted form is used as much as the full plural pronoun forms in writing as well as in speaking.

The personal pronouns in Simte also encode the grammatical properties of persons, numbers and case. The singular forms possess no morphological markings but the plural forms are reflected by the plural marker '-uʔ'. Unlike English, Simte exhibits the same form in the nominative case as well as the accusative case. It may be listed in the table below.

Person	Number	Nominative	Accusative
First Person	Singular	kei	kei
Second Person	Singular	naŋ	naŋ
Third Person	Singular	amaʔ	amaʔ
First Person	Plural	kei -uʔ ei -uʔ	kei -uʔ ei -uʔ
Second Person	Plural	naŋ -uʔ	naŋ -uʔ
Third Person	Plural	amaʔ -uʔ	amaʔ -uʔ

3.2 Possessive Pronouns

The possessive pronouns in Simte can be formed into two ways. First, it is formed by suffixing a morpheme '-a' (which is also a genitive marker) to the personal pronoun. Examples may be given as below.

(1) hi   lukʰuʔ kei   -a   ahi
    This   cap   1SG POSS   DECL
        'This cap is mine'

(2) hi   leʔkʰabu   nɔu   -a   ahi.
    This   book   2PL   POSS DECL
        'This book is yours'

Second, the possessive occupies the pre-head modifying position in a noun phrase. Possessive pronouns cannot stand alone; it modifies the noun or a noun phrase. The possessive markers in Simte are formed by using the pronominal clitics such as 'ka', 'na' and 'a' for first, second and third person respectively. Interestingly, the possessive markers for

exclusive and inclusive first person plurals are 'kou' and 'ei'. The possessive pronouns may be listed in the following table below.

Person	Singular	Plural
First Person	ka 'my'	kou 'our' (exclusive)
		ei 'our' (inclusive)
Second Person	na 'your'	nɔu
Third Person	a 'his/her'	amau

In example (3) and (4) possessive marker in Simte 'ka' and 'ei' precede the head noun 'puanaʔ' and 'in', and both the possessive pronoun occupies the initial position in a sentence. However, the occurrence of the possessive marker can be altered depending on the sentential construction.

(3) ka   puanaʔ sakʰau aʔ mitʰai um
  1SG.POSS shirt pocket LOC sweet EXIST
  'There are sweet in my shirt's pocket.

(4) ei   in maʔ hoiʔ pen
  1PL (incl) house one   good SUPERL
   'Our house is the best one' [Lit. The house that is the one we one is the best]

3.3 Demonstrative Pronouns

The demonstrative pronoun in Simte is used with reference to point out something from the rest of the entity. There are two demonstrative markers in Simte. They are 'hi' and 'hua'. The demonstrative functions exclusively to identify a referent, either deictically in relation to the speaker and hearer in the specific speech situation or anaphorically in terms of preceding discourse. The determiner 'hi-' refers to the proximate reference, while 'hu-' refers to the distal reference. In other words, the demonstrative pronoun markers are the spatial deixis. The demonstrative pronoun occupies the head thereby acting as a pre-head modifier in a noun phrase in example (5). Example (6) the nominalized verb form "touna' is preceded by a demonstrative pronoun 'hi' but succeeded by the verb serialization.

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(5) hua   naʔtaŋ   lei   xu   kou   -a   ahi

    That   banana   land/farm   DEF   1 PL(EXC) .POSS   DECL.

          'That banana farm is ours'

(6) hi   tou   -na   huŋ   toi   in

    this   seat   NMZ   come   bring   IMP

       'Bring me this chair'

There are instance where the demonstrative pronouns 'hi' and 'hua' are attached with 'kʰu' thereby producing the words 'hikʰu' and 'hukʰu'. 'kʰu' refers to the person or that being spoken of at the time of uttering a speech. Notably, 'hikʰu' and 'hukʰu' are used to refer a thing or a person in interrogative speech. It does not necessarily come along with the noun. The examples may be shown in (7) and (8)

(7) hikʰu   baŋ   ahiai

    this   what   Q.MKR

      'What is this?'

(8) huakʰu   na   keŋkoʔ   amo

    that   2SG   shoes   Q.MKR

      'Is that your shoes?'

The plural forms are formed in the sequence of singular demonstrative pronoun, followed by the main noun and the plural marker '-te'. There is no morphological marking for plural demonstrative pronouns. Thematically, it can be represented as : Singular demonstrative pronoun- Main noun-plural marker '-te'. They are illustrated in examples (9) and (10) as below.

(9) hi- guta- te   na   he   viai

    this thief PL.MKR   2SG   know   Q.MKR

      'Do you know these thieves?'

(10)   hua-   hai   -te   huŋ   tɔi   un
        That   mango PL.MKR come   bring IMP

'Bring those mangoes'

3.4 Reflexive Pronouns

Reflexive pronouns are formed by repeating a pronoun which is glued together by the conjunction 'leʔ'. Another significant marker in reflexive pronouns is that, the reflexive prefix 'ki-' is attaches to the main verb. It serves as an anaphoric element to an antecedent referent in the same clause. The reflexive pronouns in Simte may be listed as below.

Person	Singular	Plural
First	kei leʔkei 'myself'	kɔu leʔ kɔu 'ourselves (excl.) ei leʔei 'Ourselves' (incl.)
Second	ŋaŋ leʔ ŋaŋ 'yourself'	nɔu leʔ nɔu 'yourselves'
Third	amaʔleʔamaʔ'himself/herself	amau leʔamau 'themselves'

In English, reflexives are bound by the antecedent pronoun. So, the pronoun has to be intact with the reflexives, thus omitting the subject pronoun results in ungrammaticality of a sentence. However, the case is different in Simte. Like other Kuki-Chin languages, Simte is a pro-drop language. The presence of subject pronoun in the initial position along with the reflexives results in the ungrammaticality of a sentence. The reflexive 'kɔu leʔ kɔu' in example (11) is sufficient enough to know that the pronoun is reflexive. Hence, the presence of 'kou' in the subject postion seems like a double pronouns, making the sentence absurd or inconsistent.

(11)   *kɔu   kɔu leʔ kɔu   ka   ki-   nial   u-   hi
         We   ourselves (excl.) 1SG   REFL   quarrel PL.MKR DECL
                'we quarrel among ourselves'

In examples, (12) and (13) the agent in the subject position is omitted as the reflexive pronoun itself expresses the subject to be of the 3rd person and 2nd person respectively. The reflexive pronoun agrees the subject in person and number. The pronominal which is omitted in the subject position can be retrieved from the reflexive element (pronoun).

(12)	amaʔleʔamaʔ	a-	ki-	tʰat	hi
	himself/herself	3SG	REFL	kill	DECL

'He/she kills himself/herself

(13)	leʔkʰabu	nɔu leʔ nɔu	ki-	sim	un
	book	Yourselves	REFL	do/make	IMP

'Read book by yourselves'.

3.5 Reciprocal Pronouns

Reciprocal pronouns in Simte can be formed by the repetition of numeral 'kʰat' meaning 'one' joined by the conjunction 'leʔ' thereby forming 'kʰat leʔ kʰat' (one after another). The morpheme 'tuaʔ' (each) is also employed, perhaps optionally, to ascertain the reciprocality of a sentence construction. The reflexive marker 'ki-' is attached to the verb to express its reciprocal meaning. In examples (14) and (15) though the subject pronoun is dropped, it can be retrieved from the pronominal clitics 'a-' and 'i-' respectively.

(14)	nam	kʰat leʔ kʰat	ki-	tua - louʔ	-na	a-	piaŋ
	tribe	one after anoter	REFL	peace NEG	NMZ	3SG	born

'There exists an enmity between one tribe after another

(15)	ei leʔei	I	ki-	kɔ	tuaʔ	u-	hi
	ourselves (incl).	IPL	REFL	point	each	PL	DECL

' we point at each other'

3.6 Interrogative Pronouns

Interrogative pronouns in Simte are used to ask questions about person, place, time or situation. The interrogative pronouns such as 'baŋ' (what), kʰɔi (which), kɔi (who/whom/whose), 'baŋci' (how)' are employed.

Examples (16) and (17) employ the interrogative pronoun 'baŋ'. The presence of both the question markers 'hiai' and 'diai' show evidence of the sentence as an interrogative sentence.

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(16) jon   baŋ   bɔl   na   hiai
     John   what do   2SG   Q.MKR
     'what are you doing, John?

(17) bazar   aʔ   hoʔ diŋ, baŋ   ka   huŋ   lei   diai
     market LOC go FUT what 1SG   Come   buy   Q.MKR
     'I am going to the market, what shall I buy?'

In Simte, there is no exact lexical term for the interrogative pronoun 'where', however they can be understood based on the directional reference as given in examples (18) and (19). In these examples, the interrogative pronoun 'where' is explained by the presence of the locative marker '-lam' attaches to 'kʰɔi', forming 'kʰɔilam' literally means 'which way' or 'which direction'.

(18) kʰɔi   -lam   pai   diŋ   na   hiai
     which way   go   FUT   2SG   Q.MKR
     'where are you going?

(19) nehu   zotna   lampi   kʰɔi   -lam   aʔ   hiai
     NEHU   connecting   road   which way   LOC   Q MKR
     'Where is the bypass road connecting towards NEHU?

Examples (20) and (21) explain the interrogative pronoun 'which' is realized by the presence of 'kʰɔi' in the sentence initial position.

(20) kʰɔi   pen   na   luŋsiat , luni   maw mɔi
     which DEF   2SG   love   Luni   or   Mawi
     'Which one do you love, Luni or Mawii?

(21) kʰɔi   gam   na   faŋ   -ut
     Which country 2SG   explore   like
     'Which country do you like to explore?'

In example (22) the interrogative pronoun 'kɔi' refers to 'who' and is singular in nature. But the insertion of '-teŋ' indicates that the pronoun not only refers to one person, but more than one. Reversely, in example (23) the interrogative pronoun 'kɔi' is only employed referring to one person. In fact, this pronoun is used to refer only to human beings.

(22)   kɔi   -teŋ   khompi   a   hɔʔ   diŋ
        who   all   conference   3SG   go   FUT

        'Who all will go for the conference'

(23)   ka   in   koi   suʔsiat   ahiai
        1SG   house   who   destroy   Q MKR
        'who destroyed my house?'

The interrogative pronoun 'kɔi' also possesses the meaning 'whose' as seen in example (24). However, example (25) is a case of plural reference, the plural marker '-te' is attached with 'kɔi'. Both the examples are also indicated by the presence of the question marker 'ahiai'.

(24)   hiakʰu   kɔi   nasep   ahiai
        this   whose   work   Q MKR
        "whose work is this?'

(25)   kɔi   -te   kʰut -nuŋ   ahiai
        who   PL.MKR   hand behind   Q.MKR
        'whose handiwork is this after all?

The interrogative pronoun 'whom' is realized by the presence of 'toʔ' 'accompany or with', attached to 'kɔi' meaning 'who', making the pronoun 'kɔitoʔ'. Its literal meaning is 'with who' or 'who do you accompany with?'.

(26)   tuni   kɔi   -toʔ   pɔt   na   hiai
        today   who   accompany   roam   2SG   Q.MKR
        'With whom do you roam today?'

(27) kɔi -toʔ   sem na   hiai
     who accompany   work 2SG   Q.MKR
     'Whom do you work with?

Examples (28) and (29) provide the interrogative pronoun 'when' in Simte. It is composed of two morphemes 'baŋci' literally means 'what happen' and 'ciaʔ' talks about the time reference. Thus, the combination of both morphemes 'baŋci ciaʔ' produces the interrogative pronoun 'when'.

(28) baŋci -ciaʔ damdɔi   in   aʔ   hoh   diŋ
     what   time medicine   house LOC   go   FUT

     'when will you go to the hospital?'

(29) baŋci -ciaʔ exam nei   diŋ
      what   time exam have/possess FUT
      'when will you have your exam?'

3.7 Indefinite pronouns:

 Simte possesses a morphological pronoun which refers to an object that is not specified. The Indefinite pronouns are 'kɔimaʔ' (no one/ nobody),   'kɔiakʰat' (someone/somebody), 'baŋmaʔ' (nothing), 'kʰatpɔuʔ' (anyone/anything), 'baŋakʰat' (something) etc. An indefinite pronoun which starts with 'kɔi' , which is an interrogative prounoun 'who' by itself, refers to a human object or human being. Those starting with 'baŋ' , which is also an interrogative pronoun 'noun', is used to refer to non-animate object.

The indefinite pronoun 'no one/ no body' in Simte is indicated by the combination of two morphemes i.e kɔi 'one' and 'maʔ'. In its occurrence the indefinite pronoun occurs in the subject position, and the negation '-siʔ' or 'lou' are attached to the main verb. They are illustrated in examples (30) and (31) in the following.

(30) kɔi -maʔ   van   gu   -siʔ   un
      one EMPH   property   steal NEG   IMP
      'Do not steal others (Lit.no one) property

(31) kɔi -maʔ   hoi   bukim   um- lou
      One EMPH good perfect   Exist NEG
      'No one is perfect' (Lit.No one is perfectly good.)

In examples (32) and (33) the indefinite pronoun 'someone' is evidenced by the presence of kɔia 'someone' and kʰat 'one'. The subject (agent) is marked by the presence of the ergative marker '-in'.

(32) kɔia   -kʰat -in   ei   bɔŋnoi   a   huŋ   pia   hi

      someone one ERG   us(incl) milk   3SG come give   DECL

      'Someone has given us (incl.) milk.

(33) tʰautaŋ   -in   kɔia   kʰat kap   kʰa   hi
      bullet   ERG   someone one shoot happen   DECL
      'The bullet had hit someone'

Examples (34) and (35) indicate that there is no proper word for the indefinite pronoun 'nothing' but it is realized by the presence of ' baŋ -maʔ' and the negation '-siʔ' attaches to the verb.

(34) baŋ maʔ   luŋhimɔʔ   -siʔ   un
      what EMP   anxious   NEG   IMP
      'Do not be anxious for nothing'

(35) ka   tʰuhilʔ   -na   baŋ maʔ   -n   ŋai   siʔ
      1SG   advice   NMZ what EMPH ERG   listen   NEG
      'He takes no heed to my advice'

The indefinite pronoun 'everyone' is formed by the combination of two morphemes. That is the combination of the numeral 'kʰat' 'one' and pɔuʔ 'any'

(36) kitena aʔ diŋ puanaʔ siaŋ kʰat pɔuʔ silʔ mai   in
      marriage LOC FUT cloth   clean one any   wear just   IMP
      'For marriage, just wear any cloth that is clean.'

(37) mi   kʰat pɔuʔ -in   deiʔtel   -na   i   nei   hi
      people one any   ERG   freewill   NMZ   1PL posess DECL
          'Everyone has a right to free will'

The indefinite pronouns 'something' in Simte does not possess any lexical term. It is
formed by the combination of 'baŋa' which means 'something', and 'kʰat' which is the
numeral 'one'.

(38) baŋa   kʰat bɔl diŋa   kisa,   ka bɔl diŋ   ka   maŋhilʔ
      something one do CONJ   prepare 1SG do FUT   1SG   forget
      dimdem
      completely

      'I was about to do something, but I completely forgot'

(39) baŋa   kʰat   gen   tum   ka   hi
      something one   say   about   1SG   DECL

          "I was about to say someting'

3.8 Emphatic Pronouns

Emphatic pronouns are used to intensify the given referent pronoun. Emphatic
pronouns in Simte are marked by 'maʔ' carrying the semantic notion of a reflexive pronoun
'self'. It is suffixed to the personal pronouns. Fundamental to this analysis is that the
emphatic marker 'maʔ' is applied to both the singular and plural pronouns. And the reflexive
marker 'ki-' is attached with the verb to accentuate the reflexivity of the sentence.

In Example (40), the emphatic marker '-maʔ' is suffixed to the 1SG pronoun, along
with the ergative marker '-in' thereby occupying the subject (agent) position of a sentence.

'ki-' is also attached with the verb to explain that the verb reflects back to the person in reference. The same notion implies in example (41). However, the presence of 'u-' indicates the plurality of the referent pronoun.

(40) kei   -maʔ   -in   ki- bɔl   niŋ
      1SG   EMPH   ERG   REFL do   COP. IRREAL
      'I will do it myself'

(41) amau -maʔ   -in   ki-   bɔl   u-   hi
      They EMPH   ERG   REFL do   PL.MKR   DEF
      'They themselves do it'

6. Conclusion

Pronouns in Simte are free forms that function alone to fill the position of a noun phrase in a clause. The personal pronouns encode the grammatical properties of persons and number, but no distinction in the nominative and accusative case. The demonstrative markers in Simte 'hi' refers to an entity near to the deictic centre, while 'hu' denotes the distal reference that is quite far from the deictic centre. Concerning the reflexive and reciprocal pronouns, the reflexivity is realized by the morpheme '-ki', and reciprocal pronouns are realized by the repetition of the numeral 'kʰat' clued together by the conjunction 'leʔ'. There is no exact lexical term for the interrogative pronoun, but it is realized by the locative marker '-lam' attached to the form 'kʰɔi', thereby producing 'kʰɔilam', which means 'which way' or 'which direction'. Interestingly, the emphatic pronoun is evidenced by the presence of '-maʔ' attached to both singular and plural nouns.

5. Abbreviations

1PL (INCL):   First Person Inclusive

1PL: First Plural

2 PL (EXCL.):   Second Plural Exclusive

1 SG: First Singular

2SG:	Second Singular
CONJ:	Conjunction
COP. IRREAL:	Copular Irrealis
DECL:	Declarative
DEF :	Definite
EMPH:	Emphatic
ERG:	Ergative
EXIST:	Existential
FUT:	Future
IMP:	Imperative
LOC:	Locative
NEG:	Negative
NMZ:	Nominalization
PL.MKR:	Plural Marker
POSS:	Possessive
Q.MKR:	Question Marker
REFL:	Reflexive
SUPERL:	Superlative

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Cultural Reminiscence and Values in Children's Literature

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Abstract

Social values are commonly found in Children's Literature in all languages. Malayalam and Tamil are two important languages in Dravidian family of languages. Although different from other Indian languages, the two languages have many similarities in the language and culture of the surrounding areas. It is in its back-story that such an idea become relevant. But in contemporary children's literature, there are very few presentations that evoke old memories of our culture. The resulting loss is the pledge of a generation. It is this common sense that keeps the works of early childhood writers alive today. Those works are timeless.

Keywords: Cultural Identity, Cultural reminiscence, Child domain, Malayalam, Tamil.

Malayalam and Tamil are two important languages of the Dravidian linguistic family. Researchers observe that Kerala was a part of Tamilnadu and that the antiquity of Malayalam belonged to Sangam Literature. There have been many acquisitions in the literature and culture of these two languages belonging to the same family. It continues to be so even in this day. It is not possible to calculate exactly when such linguistic combinations began. It is clear, however that it is more conveyed through literary works. The genres of short stories, novels and poetry are at the forefront. However, this study examines some of the trends in children's literature that are largely ignored in literary works today.

Childhood is said to be the most basic stage in personality development. Studies show that a child who adjusts his mind to his surroundings and social changes will gradually become a citizen. The child should automatically identify such social 'spaces', and the adult should create the conditions for it. It is in this context that children's literature becomes important.

We have to change our thinking and style of life and do self-examination as to whether we are doing something according to their mental enjoyment/cognitive ability. There is a need to change the

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public spaces of the children in such a way that they stand out from the social environment and connect their thinking with the love of the world. What is needed from the family is conscious interventions to develop children's view that the family does not consist only of father and mother, and that life is about taking social responsibilities and fulfilling those responsibilities by relating them to life.

Nowadays children have all the possibilities for their holistic development at their fingertips. But the lesson of how to engage with the external world should be learned from nature. Today, the child has become a social being alienated from such interactions. Writers have a good role to play in correcting these. Looking back at the extent to which we have such cares as the writers of the past have reserved for us today testifies to the extent to which we fulfill our responsibility for future generations.

Today, the eminent writers and others longed for the upliftment of children. M.T. Vasudevan Nair, ONV Kurup, Karur Neelakandapillai, G. Sankarakkuruppu, Kumaranasan and Ulloor S Parameswara Iyer are all familiar with the children's literature of Malayalam. The works of Subramanya Bharathiyar, Kavimani Desiyavinayakam Pillai, Kuzha kathiresan and Azha Valliayappa are also famous in Tamil. All of them are not looking for the subject of creative work but are clearly exposing the children to the "spaces" around them.

When we search for the roots of any literature in India, we come to the folk tradition. Oral stories and poems reveal the culture of folklore. As in Malayalam, the story tradition of Tamil begins with the 'Panchathantra stories', the Aesop stories and later the 'Thenaliraman stories'. 'Vikramadithya stories' and folk tales are also available in Tamil. Such stories, borrowed from various sources are still perpetuated by each language, giving each language its own cultural identity. Apart from this, there are many stories in Tamil today based on Ramayanam and Mahabaratham.

The message of love in all works is to treat and help all our fellow human beings around us with love. Early writers in their writings convey all the values that need to be inculcated in children at an early age. In addition, they were committed to imparting the elements of God, love, patriotism, religion, education, and adulthood.

'Keep in Mind the Purity of the Village'

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The line 'Keep in Mind the Purity of the Village' is taken from famous Malayalam poet Vailoppilli Sreedharamenon's 'Vishukkani'. It reveals that we should always be a part of nature in all aspects. Non-mythological stories such as *Sumangala* in Malayalam, E. Santhosh Kumar's '*Kakkaradeshathe Urumbukal*', Subhsah Chandran's "*Akkudumuyal Appam Chuttu*', K. Sreekumar's '*Pattuthoovala*' touch on the depth and breadth of rural holiness in contemporary children's literature. Sumangala's stories strongly portray the home atmosphere. In each case, they have seized it, despite obstacles we come across and imagine. At the same time, they offer us an opportunity to experience the abilities of each animal and their limitations, behaviour and qualities. Recently, she focused mostly on mythological stories.

All the talents of Gajaveeran (Elephant) are explained in the collection of stories 'Unnikalkkoru Anappusthakam' by Sippi Pallippuram. Subhash Chandran's 'Akkudumuyal appam chuttu' has a narrative style that entertains all children. Children are not made part of the story or the situation. R.S. Lal's 'Kunjunniyude yathrapusthakam' is a modern work but a return to the tradition, it literally means return to the nature. It has a narrative style that children can enjoy, and it amazes them with.

Sumangala (1934-2021)

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The uniqueness of Sumangala's stories from the new writers is that all the elements of the region are the subject to the stories. Stories that focus on the region, house, trees, birds, animals, beliefs, superstitions, domestic issues, place names, conflicts, celebrations and also spiritual matters are presented for children to enjoy.

The story 'Nadavu' written by Shankar Aswin in Tamil is completely reminiscent of folklore. The plot is about seedlings. It is a story about how children can experience the reality of rice and paddy. Originating in a social atmosphere, this story touches on the emotional areas of children in the developmental stage of children. The story 'Cuckoo' deals with qualities of the bird. They are often performed in songs and children's poems. But this story presents a different kind of human interaction. The story 'Raasaathi' tells the life of a village girl. Narrative language and culture give all the colours and happiness of the village.

In Tamil, one of the highlights in this area is the story 'Sanjeevi maamaa' by Ko. Ma. Ko Elango. In Malayalam, the theme reminiscent of Takazhi Sivasankarapilla's 'Thottiyude makan'. Sanjeevi maman is like Gandhiji to those natives as it is to India. Sanjeevi is the uncle of all locals because of the greatness of his work. Ayisha Natarajan's famous story 'Ayisha' is reminiscent of Shankar Aswins story 'Raasaathi'. It is the story of family struggling to make ends meet. In the stories of Vishnupuram saravann 'Vathurja' and 'Vithaikara sirumi', the region is indescribable.

Only a handful of new stories like this deal with rural beauty and the social environment. Most of the stories, like in Malayalam, are adapted to the changes of new age. Ko.Ma.Ko Elango's 'Jeemavin kaipesi', Balabharati's 'Aamai kaattiya arputha ulakam' , Marappachi sonna rahasyam', and Ramesh Vaidya's 'Iruttu enakku pidikkum' are the forefront of this field.

Women's Contributions

It can be said that we have only a few women writers in children's literature in Malayalam and Tamil. Although women are making their own contributions in all other fields, it is necessary to investigate why they are not many in this field. If we look at the list of recent Malayalam children's literature award winners, you will understand the seriousness of this situation. Every year in Malayalam, Children's Literature Institute announces the awards in different categories. In 2020

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women were awarded for Story/Novel by Maina Umaiban, Science - Sandhya, Narration - Sheeja E N and Cognitive Science - Dr. TR Jayakumari. There has been creative work only in the story/novel genre. In 2021, women received the award only in the retelling category. (Saga James- Birbal Tales). And in Tamil, Salai Selvam, N Kalaiyarasi and Sarita Jo are currently writing in this field. The fact that Tamil does not have a Children's Literature Institute like in Malayalam also exposes the seriousness of this issue. Moreover, the awards are given in ten categories in Malayalam: story/novel, science, poetry, drama, cognitive science, biography/autobiography, illustration, picture book, book design and retelling. But the absence of such twists and turns in Tamil is also a hindrance to the growth of children's literature. It is worth mentioning that Devi Nachiappan received the Sahitya Akademi Award (2019) for the total contribution in Tamil Children's Literature.

Divergence of Children's Literature

In the field of literature, children's literature is growing with all other fields. But their growth is subject to a variety of abnormalities and thematic variations. With the advent of science and technology, children's literature is also subject to such topics. Today, things like mobile phones and the internet are becoming more and more popular. Most of them are myths that tell the story of how they do good, harm, and subjugate man. Due this tendency, the enjoyment of topics that are intertwined with one's own culture decreases and along with it frequency and opportunity for reading decrease. Stories about adventure, the world of magic, travel, animals, treasure hunts, jungle, pirates and overcoming danger are generally alien to children today.

Conclusion

It is undisputed that we, as social beings are inextricably linked with society. It is this consciousness that enabled early writers to engage in their creativity by engaging with society. Children of the new age are losing similar experiences. The inadequacy of tacit knowledge given to children by tradition and norms can even undermine their socio-historical construction. The current trend of cultural extinction needs to be taken seriously. In modern society, children are slowly drifting away from practical knowledge and wealth of experience. It is important to examine the extent to which children are using its potential in this age of e-reading. Children's literature is a question mark for future culture, just as children are separated from the primary things of environment, culture, local knowledge, games, love of nature and love of the world. The cultural similarities found in these two languages belonging to the Dravidian family are two manifestations of the same culture.

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Phonological Awareness in Typical Children Speaking English

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Abstract

Phonological awareness is an individual awareness to the sound structure or phonological structure of a spoken word in contrast to written word. Phonological awareness to be examined in the broader scope of phonology because we find that long before a child become aware of the phonological structure of words, he or she has specialised phonological knowledge. The purpose of the study is to describe the phonological awareness in 3-7 years old typical children speaking English. Twenty typical children speaking English were randomly picked up from various schools in Kerala in the range of 3-7 years. Three subtests syllable blending, phoneme blending, rhyme from the Phonological Awareness Test was adapted with modification to suit Indian population was used as stimuli. Statistical analysis revealed high significant difference across age groups for all the subtests.

Introduction

Phonology is the ability to hear the differences between sounds in spoken words. Children that lack phonological awareness are unable to comprehend alliteration, the meaning of rhyme, or the fact that some words are longer than others.

Phonological awareness describes awareness of how spoken language consists of smaller components and ability to identify and manipulate these. Torgerson, Brooks, Gascoine and Higgins (2019), Ehri & Flugman (2018).

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The International Literacy Association (2020) confirms that phonological awareness particularly at the phoneme level has a direct role in many components of literacy development including decoding and spelling. (The International Literacy Association 2020)

Phonological awareness is the ability to recognize and manipulate the spoken parts of sentence and word. Examples include being able to identify words that rhyme, recognize alliteration, segmenting a sentence into words, identifying the syllables in a word and blending and segmenting onset-rhymes.

Phonological awareness is concerned with the sounds of spoken language and has nothing to do with the letters of our alphabet. Phonological awareness relates to the child's understanding of whether spoken words are made up of sounds, other words may exist within a word, or that word may be made up of syllables made up of phonemes.

Phonological awareness is an umbrella term that includes four developmental levels:
- Word awareness
- Syllable awareness
- Onset-Rhyme awareness
- Phonemic awareness

Moats (2010) reported that Phonological awareness is essential for reading because written words correspond to spoken words. Readers must have awareness of the speech sounds that letters and letter combinations represent in order to move from a printed word to a spoken word (reading) or a spoken word to a written word (spelling).

Varghese and Kumaraswamy (2012) investigated the phonological awareness skills (isolation and deletion tasks) in 5-8 years old typically developing English speaking children and she concluded that at the age of 8 years the isolation and deletion tasks were easier than at the age of 5 years.

Moyle, Heilmann and Berman (2013) evaluated the assessment of early developing phonological awareness Skills: A Comparison of the Preschool Individual Growth and Development Indicators and the Phonological Awareness and Literacy Screening, the results suggested that the PALS-PreK (Phonological Awareness and Literacy Screening–Pre kindergarten) was more advantageous than the IGDIs (Individual Growth and Development Indicators) in terms of providing meaningful data for this group of children. The IGDIs appeared to be more appropriate for developmentally advanced pre-schoolers in this population.

Chacko and Kumaraswamy (2015) investigated a few phonological awareness skills in 6–8-Year-old typically developing English speaking children and found that within and across the age groups, younger children (6 years) were sensitive to larger linguistic units but

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less so to smaller linguistic units and older children (8 years) were sensitive to both larger and smaller linguistic units.

Need for the Study

English is considered to be the main mode of education and used from age of 3 years when children enter play school. In spite of being a successively learnt second language, English is the primary language of official teaching and medium of education. Considering this point, it can be anticipated that comprehending phonological awareness skills in Indian English using children will assess in dealing with later literacy and language issues. Hence, the current study highlights the importance of phonological awareness in Indian English Context with the objective of describing of phonological awareness skills in typical children speaking English in the age range of 3-7 years.

Methodology

Aim: The aim of the study was to describe the phonological awareness in 3-7 years old typical children speaking English.

Participants: Twenty typical children in the age range of 3 to 7 years was randomly picked up from various schools of Kerala.

Selection Criteria
Inclusion Criteria:
- ➢ All the children were attending English medium school.
- ➢ Parents were also using English at home.
- ➢ No history of speech language and hearing impairment
- ➢ No neurological impairment
- ➢ Subject did not have otological, psychological or ophthalmic problems.
- ➢ Language profiling of the subjects were evaluated using LEAP-Q

(*LEAP-Q: Language Experience and Proficiency Questionnaire, Marian. V, Blumenfeld, K.H and Koushanskaya, 2007).

Exclusion Criteria:
- ➢ Children with history of speech, language and hearing impairment and other neurological problems are excluded.
- ➢ Children who does not have any exposure to English Language.

Test Materials

Three subtests syllable blending, phoneme blending and rhyme from the Phonological Awareness Test 2 (Linguist, 2010) was adapted with modification to suit Indian population was used as a stimulus.

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1) <u>Syllable Blending</u>: For syllable blending the child had to blend the syllables pronounced by the experimenter to form a word.
(For example: biscuit=bis-cuit)
2) <u>Phoneme Blending</u>: When pronouncing phonemes, the child has to leave a 1 second gap between each phoneme. After that the child has to blend each phoneme. (For example: m-u-m=mum, d-o-g=dog)
3) <u>Rhyme</u>: The child has to pronounce the words with equal emphasis at 1 second interval. (For example: PEN-HEN-BUG=BUG)

Test Procedure

Every child was tested independently. The test was conducted in a silent room along with proper lightings. Each child was positioned at length of 1 foot distance in front of the laptop microphone. Before recording of the sample, the clinician had an informal interaction with every child in order to build rapport. The study consists of three subtests that derived from phonological awareness test with adequate alteration. All children were instructed to blend the syllables, phonemes and to pronounce the words with equal emphasis on the stimuli presented. Parent's consent was taken before the test procedure.

Recording

The PRAAT version 6.3.03, (Paul Boersma, 2022), software was used for recording responses. Sampling rate of 44100Hz and quantisation level set at 16 bits. For every correct response a score of 1 was given and for incorrect response a score of 0 was given. The results obtained are discussed below.

Results and Discussion

The study aimed at describing the phonological awareness skill in typical children speaking English. The obtained data were statistically analysed and discussed.

FIGURE 1: COMPARISON ACROSS 3 PHONOLOGICAL AWARENESS

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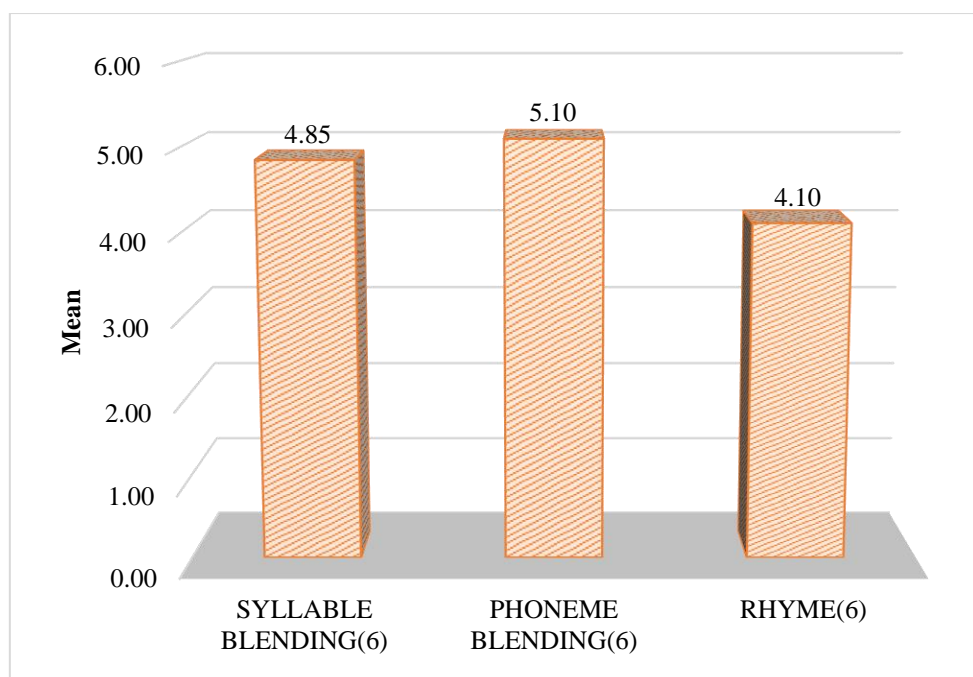
Table 1: Comparison across 3 PHONOLOGICAL AWARENESS

| | N | Mean | Std. Deviation | Median | IQR | | Wilcoxon signed rank test p value (adjusted) | | |
					Lower	Upper	SYLLABLE Vs PHONEME	SYLLABLE Vs RHYME	PHONEME Vs RHYME
SYLLABLE BLENDING (6)	20	4.85	1.954	6.00	4.00	6.00			
PHONEME BLENDING (6)	20	5.10	1.683	6.00	4.25	6.00	0.261, NS	0.030, Sig	0.005, HS
RHYME (6)	20	4.10	2.174	5.00	2.25	6.00			

It can be seen from the above table and figure (FIGURE 1 & TABLE 1) children in the age range of 3-7 years had developed phonological awareness skills. Syllable blending showed a mean value of 4.85, Phoneme Blending mean value of 5.10, Rhyme mean value of 4.10. High significant difference was seen for Phoneme Blending and Rhyme. Significant difference was seen for Syllable Blending and Rhyme. No significant difference was seen when the data was cross compared across the age. Statistical analysis revealed high significant difference across age groups for all three subtests.

Phonological awareness is a strong predictor for a child's reading success. Phonological awareness is an umbrella term which covers basic awareness of speech sounds (knowledge that sounds make up onset-rimes, onset-rimes make up syllables, syllables make

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up words) and the advanced skills such as manipulation (substituting, deleting, reversing) of words.

High significant difference across age groups for all the 3 subtests were noted and it is accordance with the study done by Chacko and Kumaraswamy (2015) few phonological awareness skills in 6–8-Year-Old Typically Developing English Speaking Children it is concluded that children at the age of 8 years are easier to segment the syllables than the age of 7 years. From the present study it is also evident that as age increases, children were able to improve phonological awareness skills.

Summary and Conclusion

Phonological awareness is a key early indicator of emergent and proficient reading, including an explicit awareness of the structure of words, syllables, onset-rime, and individual phonemes. Together with phonics, phonological awareness (in particular phonemic awareness) is an integral component of reading instruction (Torgerson et al., 2019)

The present study attempt to describe the phonological awareness skills in English speaking Indian children. 20 typically developing English speaking Indian children who are in the age range of 3-7 years were taken as subjects.

Three subtests (syllable blending, phoneme blending and rhyme) from phonological awareness test 2 (Linguist, 2010) was taken for the present study.

The obtained data was subjected to statistical analysis. The results showed that high significant difference was seen in phoneme blending and rhyme whereas significant difference was seen in syllable blending and rhyme. The statistical data showed high significant difference across age group. Within the age group 3-7 years, elder children performed better in all 3 subtests than younger children. These skills are prerequisites for learning to read and spell. So, it is significant to know the development of these skills in the age range of 3-7 years.

Limitations
- ➢ Sample size was less hence validity of the result was less reliable.
- ➢ Only 3 subtests have been adapted.
- ➢ The study does not categories the age group from 3-7 years.

Future Directions
- ➢ Test can be administered on other languages too.
- ➢ Sample size can be increased.
- ➢ The study could be done with more subtests.

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