LANGUAGE IN INDIA

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The Development of Task-Based Learning to Improve English Writing Skills in English Course 4, Course Code E22102, for Grade 8 Students at Nong Rua Wittaya School, Khon Kaen, Thailand

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Abstract

The purpose of this study was 1) to study the guidelines for the development of Task-Based Learning to improve English writing skills for Grade 8 students 2) to develop the English writing skills exercises based on a Task-Based Learning teaching style for Grade 8 students; the exercises were constructed to exceed the standard criteria of 80/80 3) to compare the students' writing abilities between the test scores before and after learning through the English writing skills exercises based on a Task-Based Learning teaching style and 4) to study student satisfaction with learning by using the English writing skills exercises based on a Task-Based Learning teaching style for Grade 8 students. The population was 35 Grade 8 students which was obtained by using a cluster sampling. The instruments used in this study were 6 stories with the English writing skills exercises based on a Task-Based Learning teaching style, 22 lesson plans, a satisfaction assessment form and achievement test. The statistics used in data analysis were mean, Standard Deviation and dependent samples t-test.

The finding of this study indicated the following:

1) The Development of Task-Based Learning to Improve English Writing Skills was effective. It should be prepared in the form of a skill exercise for ease of use. The teacher should study the content for the preparation of skills exercises, analyze the content to determine its purpose and design the preparation of skills training according to the purpose to have a modern style, interesting, and choosing easy to hard content.

2) The English writing skills exercises based on a Task-Based Learning teaching style for Grade 8 students exhibited an efficiency level at 80.37/80.22

3) The students' writing abilities after learning though the English writing skills exercises based on a Task-Based Learning teaching style were higher than those prior to the commencement of the experiment at the .05 level of significance.

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4) The satisfaction of Grade 8 students towards teaching activities from the English writing skills exercises based on a Task‑Based Learning teaching style was at a high level. ($\bar{X}$= 4.39, S.D. = 0.27)

Keywords: Improve English writing skills, Task-Based Learning teaching style, English writing, Thailand

Introduction

Learning a foreign language in today's global society is very important in communicating for trade, education, seeking knowledge, information, and occupation. Foreign language learning requires thinking processes and language practice in various situations both in the classroom and outside the classroom. So that learners can use the language in real situations with spoken and written language. Considering that English is the international language of the world that is widely used and plays an important role in the way of life of many people due to the influence of progress modern technology and communication make people get information faster using a computer network which must use English as a medium to convey meaning. As a result, the English language is increasingly important in the world society. In addition, English is essential for education, seek knowledge, occupation, relations between different nations, understanding differences in language, thinking, society, economy, politics, government and cultural traditions and able to communicate with other nations, so it is necessary. (Ministry of Education, 2003)

English is an international language that has played an important role in many countries for a long time. Living together as a global community from many countries with differences in race, religion, language and culture. It is essential to have a common language used to communicate with each other. English is defined as a medium of communication and exchange in terms of economy, education, society and culture from various civilized countries around the world. Somkiat Onwimol, (Thai scholar, 2012) discussed the role of English in the world community that "English is now an international language. English is the language of humanity, no matter what language each person uses as their national language when dealing with people from different languages and cultures. Everyone must use English as their primary language. For this reason, every nation has included English as a second language, subordinate to the national language, as the core of all education curriculums from early childhood to lifelong education." It is regarded that English is the language of the world that plays an important role in international communication for economic, educational, political, governance, social and cultural interests in every country. Around the world, besides English, it plays an important role as the world's international language.

English still has an influence on Thailand today because English is an important variable in dealing with international trade business in the east and west, especially with member countries

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in Southeast Asia, 10 countries are Brunei, Cambodia, Indonesia, Laos, Malaysia, Philippines, Singapore, Vietnam, Myanmar, and Thailand, known as ASEAN. ASEAN countries have an agreement to integrate into the same community to be accomplished by the year 2015. From the integration plan of the ASEAN Community, Thailand has awakened and accelerated the development of English language skills, listening, speaking, reading, and writing for students and the public common in the country. This is a consequence of Article 34 of the ASEAN Charter stipulating that "The working language of ASEAN shall be English". The working language of ASEAN is English. It can be seen that English is very important for students to develop. to be able to use English in everyday life. (Ministry of Foreign Affairs, Kingdom of Thailand, 2012)

Basic Education Core Curriculum 2008 stated that in today's world society learning a foreign language is very important and necessary in everyday life because it is an important tool for communication, education, seeking knowledge, occupation. Understanding of the culture and vision of the global community and being aware of cultural diversity and global perspectives brings goodwill and cooperation with other countries, helping to develop learners to understand themselves and others better. Learning and understanding the differences in languages and cultures, traditions, thinking, society, economy, politics, government have a good attitude towards using foreign languages and can use foreign languages for communication as well as having easier and wider access to various knowledge bodies and having a vision of life that is the purpose of learning a foreign language. Foreign language department is intended that learners have a good attitude toward foreign languages, can use foreign languages to communicate in various situations, and seek knowledge. It can make a career and study at a higher level, including knowledge and understanding of stories and cultures. (Ministry of Education, 2003)

To learn English successfully, learners should be able to practice listening, speaking, reading, and writing skills in order to be able to apply these skills to be effective and suitable for various situations, among which all four English language skills are listening, speaking, reading and writing. It can be seen that writing skills are the most difficult skills, but it is necessary to learn writing skills. Because writing skill is an important skill and very beneficial to learners, it helps to enhance learners has applied other knowledge in the English subjects learned, such as taking notes while listening or writing a summary of what they have read. In addition, writing allows students to practice thinking systematically and creatively to convey experiences, thoughts and imaginations which is of great value to language learning and development. (Sumitra Angwattanakul, 1996) In addition, writing also requires gathering information and organizing the content well first. In order to write out in accordance with the principles of the language and for the understanding of the readers. (Wantanee Saengklaicharoen, 2018) In order to write well in English and correct the rules and grammar, it must be practiced. Practicing the process of organizing the content often because writing skills have many components. Whether it is vocabulary, language structure, grammar, which is a challenge for people who use English as a

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foreign language due to the influence of the mother tongue. These are parts that make learning another language difficult.

The researcher, as an English teacher of Grade 8 at Nong Rua Wittaya School, Khon Kaen, Thailand, under the Office of the Secondary Education Service Area 25, surveyed the problem of teaching and learning during the past several academic years. It was found that students had problems with English writing skills more than other skills. We notice that students have writing inability to arrange words according to the positions and functions of different types of words, spelling mistakes, etc. There is a flaw in writing according to the linguistic structure. There is lack of grammatical knowledge, inability to apply vocabulary to the written work correctly and appropriately with the written sentence. The word order in the sentence is incorrect according to the grammatical structure and lack of continuous writing skills practice. It can be seen that English writing skills become a huge problem and obstacle in organizing learning activities. If teachers do not make corrections, it may affect the learners in terms of inefficient use of English writing skills in everyday communication.

English language learning management approach has been widely used and is believed to be a learning management approach that can effectively develop the potential of using English for learners. This is a learning management approach that is consistent with the nature and principles of learning a second or foreign language. It is a task-based approach, a language learning management approach that believes that Language learning occurs when learners interact with each other while performing tasks. Task-based learning management has principles and theoretical frameworks used as the basis for organizing learning activities. Learning will occur through the actual practice of learners (Learning by Doing) and learning principles that learners participate (Active Learning) in the practice of learning activities. It is believed that the learners will learn the target language well when students have the opportunity to practice by using realistic language in a natural way and learners participate in learning activities. It also adheres to the concept of group learning activities in which students have the opportunity to interact with each other. This will encourage language learning and development. Cohen, Manion and Morrison (1996) have confirmed this issue.

Task-based learning is a learning style that requires learners to participate in expressing ideas, discussion, and interaction among learners. It is found that task-based learning has similar concepts and principles to cooperative learning. Teachers have the role of experts who are available to help students when needed. As Willis (1996) noted, the important role of a teacher is simply to be a supervisor, provide assistance (Monitor) and be a facilitator of learning. (Facilitator) is far away, not to interrupt the workload of the learners. In addition, learning management that emphasizes workload also uses the concept of psychological linguistics (Psycholinguistics) about the principle of second language acquisition (Second Language Acquisition: SLA) that learners

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will learn the target language if the learner has the opportunity to participate in activities using the target language (Target Language), if they use it outside of class. They learn the target language better if they have direct experience in using the language they are learning. Task-based learning management helps learners learn languages better. Through communicating with others using the target language learned as they do with their first language. This is in line with the idea of Long (1983) that language awareness in learners is the best when students are involved in the process of negotiation of meaning (Negotiation of Meaning) in communicating with each other. This process will occur all the time in communication between human beings in society. Ellis (2003) proposed the idea that Task-Based Learning is essential to the development of language knowledge that comes from the intuition (Implicit Knowledge) within the learner.

From the background and importance of such problems, thus, the researcher was interested in developing a teaching model that focused on tasks to develop English writing skills for students to help learners using English correctly and to be able to write English correctly. This will result in higher achievement in English subjects of students. This will be useful in studying at higher levels.

Objective

The research aims to 1) study the guidelines for the development of Task-Based Learning to Improve English writing skills for Grade 8 students, 2) develop the English writing skills exercises based on a Task-Based Learning teaching style for Grade 8 students. The exercises were constructed to exceed the standard criteria of 80/80, 3) compare the students' writing abilities between the test scores before and after learning through the English writing skills exercises based on a Task-Based Learning teaching style and 4) to study student satisfaction with learning by using the English writing skills exercises based on a Task-Based Learning teaching style for Grade 8 students.

Research Questions

This investigation suggests answer to the research question:

1. What is the background and importance of such problems the researcher was interested in developing a teaching model that focused on tasks to develop English writing skills?

2. What does an English writing skill practice using a task-based teaching model consist of? Is it effective according to the 80/80 criterion?

3. What are the results of applying Task-based teaching style to develop English writing skills by using English writing skill exercises?

4. How satisfied are students with learning using a task-based teaching model to develop their English writing skills?

Literature Review

Nget, Pansri and Poohongthong (2020) studied the effects of teaching that focused on workload to improve the English-speaking skills because of the difficulty in teaching Cambodian

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language learners to have the English-speaking skills of learners with different abilities. The researchers used task-based teaching with the ninth-grade students, 78 people to study the satisfaction with the use of task-oriented teaching. Quantitative and qualitative data were collected using a speaking test and a questionnaire on student satisfaction. The results showed that students were satisfied with the use of task-based teaching to develop speaking skills, confident in speaking and increased motivation to learn English.

Phosa (2020) studied English writing skills of students learning English as a Second Language through a blended learning method. The objective was to study English writing of Thai students' undergraduates. The researcher designed a framework for teaching English writing in a face-to-face blended learning style and online learning. The results showed that the average score after the test is higher than before. Most students used online sites, online dictionary *English-Thai-English* that supports tools. And the students' satisfaction with the teaching of blended English writing was at a high level.

Halimi (2019) studied the results of using task-based language teaching to improve writing skills. The researcher used task-based language instruction as a guide for conducting the research with students who had learned the skills to write lectures in English on English literature. Writing test results descriptiveness had increased dramatically. In addition, the use of task-based language teaching can motivate students in the learning process. Almost all students agree to use task-based language instruction as a guide to their descriptive writing, and task-based language instruction can improve students' writing skills.

Hanh and Tuan (2018) studied the effect of task-based learning management to develop the ability to write English. The results showed that after studying with a learning management package that emphasized workload, the students in the experimental group had higher proficiency in writing English than before and the students in the experimental group had higher writing abilities in English than the control group.

Sari and Pangaribuan (2018) studied applying a task-based approach to learning to improve students' academic writing skills. From the analysis of qualitative data, it was found that students who learned academic writing focused on tasks had interest and motivation at a high level.

Marashi and Dadari (2012) studied the effect of task-based learning management to develop students' writing and creativity abilities. The samples used in this research were female students learning English as a foreign language. The results showed that the experimental group students had higher writing abilities and creative abilities than the control group students.

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Viriya (2018) studied the effect of using task-based learning for students studying academic English. The study found that the reading-writing and speaking abilities of students by learning focused on the post-laboratory workload are higher and their satisfaction with task-based learning was at a high level.

Methods and Materials
Research Design: The research design of this study was research and development.

Data Collection Tools: The tools used in this research are: English writing skill practice using a task-based teaching model, lesson plan, and achievement test on writing English.

Sampling Method: The population was obtained by using a cluster sampling.

Sample Size: The population was 35 Grade 8 students.

Results
The purpose of this research was to develop a teaching model emphasizing tasks to develop English writing skills, for Grade 8 students at Nong Rua Wittaya School, Khon Kaen, Thailand. The researcher has summarized the research results as follows:

1. A guideline for enhancing English writing skills by using English writing skills exercises using a task-based teaching model can be summarized into three issues: 1) Guidelines for developing English writing skills should manage teaching by emphasizing on the students' participation in the work in a step-by-step manner in order to achieve the goal which requires the use of language. 2) The development of a teaching model emphasizing tasks to develop effective English writing skills should be the prepared material content according to the objectives, and the developer should analyze the content to determine the purpose by designing a modern, interesting format, sorting content from easy to hard. 3) Guidelines for organizing learning activities and evaluating learning with English writing skill exercises using a task-based teaching model should design a variety of workloads and creating interest and practice skills in many areas and practice with teachers to give additional advice when students do not understand.

2. The development of the English writing skill practice using the task-based teaching model found that the scores from the learning activities in the six exercises of the large group experiment had an average score of 310.23 out of a full score of 384, representing 80.37%.
3. Comparing English writing skills between pre- and post-learning test scores with English writing skills exercises using the task-based teaching model showed that the average score before the study was 20.34 points and after the study was 24.60 points. When comparing the scores before and after the study, it was found that the students' post-test scores were higher than before.

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4. The average scores of the students' satisfaction with learning with the English Writing Skills Exercises using the task-based teaching model showed that students were satisfied at a high level.

Discussion

The purpose of this research was to develop a teaching model that focused on tasks to develop English writing skills. The researcher presents a discussion of the research results as follows:

1) English writing skill exercises using a task-based teaching model were more effective than the specified criteria. This is because the English writing skill practice form created by the researcher has gone through a systematic construction process. The researcher has studied the theory course documents related research through expert debugging checks and through the trial process along with bringing the results of each trial to improve and revise in order to get a complete English writing skill practice before applying to the sample with the design of learning management that emphasizes tasks that focus on students to perform tasks based on the principles of learning management, focusing on students to use English for communication. Encouraging students to use relevant language in everyday life helped students' eagerness to learn. There is no concern about the rules or grammar of English that might hinder the student's use of English. This is in line with the task-based learning management principle of Willis (2000), which discusses four key principles in task-based learning management: 1) the language used should be the language used in real life or close to everyday life, 2) should focus on students using or producing language for communication, 3) tasks must be interesting or encouraging students to use the language and 4) teachers should focus on appropriate language rules by encouraging students to use the language. There is no concern about using the language; after students have used the language then gradually correct or develop the work to be better. Parichat Pinitwinyupap and Kotchakorn Thipatdee (2020) developed English writing skills through process-oriented writing for Grade 4 students. The results showed that the index of the effectiveness of writing process-based instruction for developing English writing skills of Grade 4 students was 0.7371. Arthit Petchree (2019) studied the effects of task-based learning management to develop English writing skills for communication of Grade 12 students. It was found that the effectiveness of the learning management that focused on the task to develop English writing skills for communication -- the efficiency was 80.11/82.44, which was higher than the specified criteria. Penpak Phinthunibat, Jiraporn Sano and Apira Chansaeng (2018), studied the results of teaching tasks to develop English speaking, communication strategies and assertiveness of Grade 8 students. Research found the efficiency of learning management was 71.10/73.37 and 74.02/77.32, which were higher than the established criteria.

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2) Comparing English writing skills of Grade 8 students between pre- and post-learning test scores with English writing skills exercises using the task-based teaching model showed that Phosa (2020) studied the English writing skills of students learning English as a second language through a blended learning method. The results showed that the average score before the test was 10.66 and the average score after the test was 17.37. Viriya (2018) studied the effect of using task-based learning in students studying academic English. The study found that the reading-writing and speaking abilities of students by learning focused on the post-laboratory workload are higher. Sari, Tantra and Santosa (2017) studied the effects of task-based learning management to develop English writing skills for communication. The study found that the scores of students' ability to write English for communication were correlated with task-based learning management. Hanh and Tuan (2018) studied the effects of task-based learning management to develop English writing ability. The results showed that after studying with the task-based learning management package the students in the experimental group had higher proficiency in writing English than before. Sari and Pangaribuan (2018) studied the application of task-based learning approaches to improve students' academic writing skills. The results showed that the average student's grades continued to increase from the pre-test increased to 64, 86. In the post-1st trial, mean scores were 74, 71, in the second trial, mean scores were 86, 14. Marashi and Dadari (2012) studied the effects of task-based learning management to develop students' writing and creative abilities. The results showed that experimental group students the students in the control group had writing ability and creativity higher than the control group. Parichat Pinitwinyupap and Kotchakorn Thipatdee (2020) developed English writing skills through process-oriented writing for Grade 4 students. English writing skills through process-oriented writing of grade 4 students after learning higher than before. Kesinee Koolprueksi (2020) studied the results of using practical learning activities to enhance reading skills of business English students. The results showed that the results of the pre-test and post-test of the students who learned by using the practical learning activities had an average score of 38.57 and 44.91, respectively.

3) Assessment of the satisfaction of Grade 8 students towards teaching and learning activities from the English writing skills practice using the task-based teaching model found that the mean scores of student satisfaction at studying with English writing skill exercises using a teaching style that focuses on workload. Overall, the students were satisfied at a high level. Scott (1970) stated that job satisfaction for practical results should be related to personal aspirations. It is planned through an efficient operation and control system by setting goals to create incentives that workers should be involved in setting goals. Practitioners know the results of work directly. Viriya (2018) studied the effect of using task-based learning in students studying academic English. The study found that the students were satisfied with workload-based learning at a high level. Phosa (2020) studied the English writing skills of students learning English as a second language through a blended learning method. The results showed that the students' satisfaction with the teaching of blended English writing was at a high level. Beding and Inthapthim (2019) studied the effects of using a

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task-oriented teaching model on writing skills of Thai students learning English as a foreign language at University of Phayao. The results showed that Learners were satisfied with their learning management using a positive classroom workload-oriented teaching style. Sari and Pangaribuan (2018) studied the application of task-based learning approaches to improve students' academic writing skills. The results showed that Students who learned task-based academic writing had high levels of interest and motivation. Nget, Pansri and Poohongthong (2020) studied the effects of task-based teaching on developing English speaking skills of Grade 9 students were satisfied with the use of task-based teaching to develop speaking skills, confident in speaking and increased motivation to learn English. Kesinee Koolprueksi (2020) studied the results of using practical learning activities to enhance reading skills of business English students. The results showed that the students' opinions on the overall work-based learning activities were at the highest level.

Conclusion

The purpose of this research was to 1) study the guidelines for the development of Task-Based Learning to Improve English writing skills, 2) develop the English writing skills exercises based on a Task-Based Learning teaching style; the exercises were constructed to exceed the standard criteria of 80/80, 3) compare the students' writing abilities between the test scores before and after learning through the English writing skills exercises based on a Task-Based Learning teaching style and 4) to study student satisfaction with learning by using the English writing skills exercises based on a Task-Based Learning teaching style.

This study found that 1) English writing skill exercises using a task-based teaching model were more effective than the specified criteria. 2) Comparison of English writing skills between pre- and post-learning test scores revealed that the points are higher than before. The teaching style that focuses on the task to develop English writing skills developed by the researcher encouraged students to study more and students have more willingness to study and 3) Assessment of the satisfaction towards teaching and learning activities from the English writing skills practice using the task-based teaching model found that the mean scores were satisfied at a high level.

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An Analysis of Romantic Harassment in Contemporary Tamil Movies

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Abstract

Cinema is a reflection of society, and it evolved a great way as a recreational entertainment platform around the world. The popular Kollywood industry has grown in early 20th century and established a strong global presence in contemporary period. This communication helps to educate society with facts, information, and moral values. Cinemas connect different cultures around different society through fictions or reality-based fictionalised stories. Many world, national and regional films talk about the social violence based on targeting a particular gender in the manner of comedy, romantic and emotional.

In South Indian movies, the portrayal of women chased and harassed by ignored 'so-called' lover who stalks around her is not in right path to lead the audience. Urging things will continuously stay and it affects the film industry and reality. The glorifying thing is that it is ultimately accepted, normalised and encouraged by the movie goers.

The contemporary Tamil movies *Love Today, Remo, Tharamani. Kaatru Veliyidai, Iraivi, Paruthi Veeran, Kavan, Idharkku thanea Aasaipattai Balakumara* are challenging, and they offer analytical part to understand the social problems and cultural changes in the society.

The Cognitive theory is used to identify the social problem of the movies and analyse the basic human needs. The descriptive study analyses the movie concepts in the name of modernity which affects and forgets the traditional relationships and abuses the characters

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through cool and sarcastic comedies. Present filmmakers have to learn lessons from the elders to explore the gender equality without spoiling a character's dignity and relationship values.

Keywords: Cinema, Tamil Movies, Culture, Romance, Harassment, Society.

Introduction

Cinema is all about an illusion which is the filmic narrative to explore the 'reality' through selected visuals and audios, which is used as a medium to expresses different aspects of life in society. It indirectly serves as a means for the uplift of a society by setting aside all its defects and drawbacks by the development of scientific technology and skills involved in it and made changes from periods of time. The creative caption, the attractive theme, the excellence of the action, part of actors and actresses, the dialogue, the songs and music, and the photography, etc., inspire the mass audience without any caste, colour, and creed and language disparities. The cinema helps us to educate and entertain the audience. Prominently communication process is used for the evolution of Indian cinema.

The third decade of the twenty-first century has an opportunity to explore the different themes and emerging new trends within Tamil cinema. Tamil cinema faces many criticism because the controversies and the dominance, identity of transformations to determine the impact of tremendous changes in film industry. The earliest forms of structural and societal problems like class, caste, gender, urban and rural, locality, regional and national, political affiliation and ethnicity were the stereotypes in Tamil Cinema (Selvaraj Velayutham and Vijay Devadas 2021).

The contemporary films portray the modern adaptations and offer significant values about social, cultural, and political trends which happen surrounding us. The Classic adaptation of Universal value mirrors the Desire to be identified. The gender adaptation is one of the Classic adaptations in the present world. The feminisation and male protagonists always play a safe and ideal fanciness with his own customs of female counterpart. The contemporary movie displaces the myths of sexual equality and asexuality. In the filmy text masculinisation represents powerful, wild, rule and threatening. Ambiguity - double meaning a term used for film analysis is also applied for characterization, narrative, types of shorts, space, and time. (Susan Hayward, 2002)

Cinema Not Only Reflects Culture, It Also Shapes Culture

The Indian cinema industry focuses on modernisation, urbanization, secularisation, Pan-Indianism, westernisation, etc. The impact of fashion in cinema reflects politics, social and cultural values. The sexuality is conveyed through signs and symbols in the art form of dance and songs. Along with glamour is another undertone of film makers. The huge part of sentiment is a significant aspect of attracting the audience in Indian cinema. (K. Moti Gokulsing and Wimal Dissanayake, Dr. Ranjith Krishnan KR, 1998)

The survey said 90% of film director are men and a few of them were in women. The Indian cinema portraits very much bad role played by women more than good ones. The best

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roles for women include a mother, wife, daughter and sister, the modern cinema breaks the stereotypes of women and portrays them as sentimental, caring, honesty and lovable. In another part of morality, it shows the bad roles of women as single, widowed, Westernized, aggressive (gender equality), and independent. etc. The habit of smoking and drinking are always projected as a characteristic of bad women in Tamil film industry. (Urivashi Butalia, 1984)

Review of Literature

The form of Tamil cinema constructed through production and music brought in new directors. And the new story telling takes us into the next level of Kollywood industry. The realistic movies reflect the social problem of class, caste, and politics in present world. (Stephen Putnam Hughes, 2010)

The mode of realistic spectatorship is associated with the social group of filmic form. The gender desires are debateable, when it changes into film form that became contradictory. The film realism is holding on to different equalization by the film makers and audience. Which is 'real' or 'unreal' which is the argument among viewers about the experience of reality portrayed in the movie. (Constantine V Massive, Melanie A Dean, 2007)

From mid 2000s, the Kollywood industry has been changed into a next level in narration, thematic, content, tone, masala formula and zero centric movies. Since 2011 the commercial movie was strongly placed, and it attracted the audience. Masculinity is shown to be the powerful filmic content and visual style. (Vasugi Kailasam, 2017)

The post-Dravidian movement has a Tamil new wave and a code which is hegemonic Tamil masculinity. (Sreeram Gopalkrishnan, 2019). In the language of Dravidianist politics, gender equality and identity play an important role. Women played a central role and and are shown to be politically courageous. Thus, strong identity is placed for women in contemporary Tamil cinema. (Constantine V Nakassis, 2015)

This present study explores the sexual violence in Tamil movies, identifies the themes of sexual violence, stalking, rape, comedy and blurring lines between sexual violence and pre-marital sex. Another form of sexual violence is part of courtship. Sometimes, rape is showed as comedy scenes; the meaning of portrayal here is different from both. However, this is indeed debatable. The relationship values are identified through their love, care, intimacy, sexual desire, protective, trust and understanding, but the way the respect is shown on their partner should be comfortable and is necessary in a relationship of values. (Premalatha Karupiah, Sundramoorthy Pathmanathan, Bala Raju Nikku, 2022)

The justification of Misogyny is related to sexism which provides that men are naturally superior to women. In Tamil cinema, the misogyny in break-up songs explore the women are cheaters, hurters, and selfish which all heroic lines. Misogyny has received very limited discussion of movie songs against women among the scholars. There are three themes about Mistrust of women: women's body is a sexual object, friendship vs love, vilifying all women. In every film the hyper masculinity of Misogyny is most attractive form of gender

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because women would eventually fall in love with the 'good' man. (Premalatha Karupiah, 2020)

The Audience plays a vital role of Indian cinema, and the film makers understand audience expectation of emotion, love, actions, fights, and songs. All these help them in a different way. Particularly Indian cinema explores the language, politics, religion and culture, these were made in entertainment stands as well as controversial aspects. The cinema adopts every situation on contemporary lifestyles and some films may or may not be accepted by the people in their perception (Danny Bowes, 2013).

Methodology

This section explores a detailed description about the research methods, techniques, and analysis.

Tamil movies are represented as realistic cinemas that portray the society with a wide variety by using different techniques and modes. Mainly this research discusses the contemporary Tamil movies in terms of Romantic Harassment which creates an impact on audience. This qualitative study is used to identify the descriptive analysis which relates to the area of research.

Objective

- To understand the concepts of contemporary Tamil movies.
- To analyse the relationship values portrayed in Tamil cinema.
- To examine the relationship harassment in Tamil cinema.
- To analyse the future cinema and the audience.

Research Question

- How the movies visualise the social and cultural changes though characterisation?
- What are the factors that arouse in the concept of relationship harassment?
- How the movies affect the audience by the heroism?
- Whatl are the socially relevant issues the film discusses?

Hypothesis

- H1- The entertainment of movie changed the mind of the audience and their personal life.
- H2- Cinema is one of the keys to increase the crime rates.
- H3-The audience does not have the knowledge about the criminal laws against stalking, offensive words, etc.
- H4- Cinema influences the audience into a dramatic world.

Theoretical Framework

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Cognitive research tradition of film theory originates in 1980's. The theory focuses on experience and reaction of audience with the relationship of film content and viewing experience, which closely connects with cognitive science and analytic philosophy. The mental activity of audience's brain takes place within particular central objects. The criticism is one of the cognitive perceptions which include a constructive process for developing cognitive conclusion.

Research Design

The study deals with the research design in which the secondary data are collected from the subject matter. The present study is descriptive analytical research that helps to gather already available information, source factors and discuss the subject of critical evaluation. The movies were taken for the analysis and discussed about the theme of the research.

Analysis

This section deals with the competence of technical elements, and underlying meaning of movie concepts about romantic harassment. Understanding the movie concepts determines the reflection of an individual lifestyle in day-to-day life and social changes in contemporary period. The technical elements of dialogue, storytelling and song lyrics are all focused in the study.

Stalker as a Hero

In Indian cinema stalking is a casual and common thing to the audience. In Kollywood movies, the next level of stalking is a romantic deed and is explored in the positive way. From the beginning the stalker-hero decides to follow heroine without her concern which is the starting stage of a relationship. Not only in movies but also in reality, women faced many difficulties through the stalking. The biggest platform of social media is also one of the easy ways of stalking to approach her and torture her. This happened from early cinema but now it takes into the next stage of heroism.

Some of the contemporary movies are taken up for the analysis and discussions.

The movie *Idharkuthane Aasaipattai Balakumara* (2013) is one of the funniest and entertaining movies in recent days. The director Gokul created some weird scenes and unusual characters with strange attitude. This study focuses on the main character Hero Kumaravel who falls in love with Kumudha. The hero's one-sided love was continuously rejected by the heroine. In this movie Hero's relationship is portrayed as a torture. It might be a humorous entertaining movie, but Hero's behaviour about drinking and stalking behind heroine Kumudha is the worst thing in the movie. Most importantly the song lyrics *Pray panuven* fully written against lover Kumudha does not have a life anymore because she rejects him. Finally, the heroine accepts his love which is creating a huge impact on audience mind and the audience also may follow and apply the dramatic movie concept in their personal life.

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In *Rajinimurugan* (2016), some selected dialogues are targeted on a woman who is not accepting a hero's love. Some cheap words and insults on women characters are used in the comedy manner. Another movie *Sattai* (2012) is about young school going student who faced problems through a classmate. He tortures her through stalking, and touching without her permission, and irritates her in the name of love.

In *Vinnai Thandi Varuvaya* (2010), a stalking hero follows a girl, who is not interested in relationship. The movie talks about these kinds of scenes and influences audience with romantic heroism. In *Three (3)* (2012), teenage school going students are attracted by love. A boy attracted by a girl is a normal thing but if continuously follows her and tries to force her to accept his love is not a good manner for school going students.

These kinds of movies create impact on many school going students' mind. They feel these things are enjoyable and pleasurable in their particular age. *Manam Koththi Paravai* (2012) movie creates a false love story, kidnapping her to marry without her permission. *Oru Kal Oru Kannadi* (2012) Stalker hero forces his friend to accept his love and insults women in the manner of body shaming through the comedy.

Women as a Sexual Object

In Tamil cinema the portrayal of women (Mother, Sister, Lover, Wife, Friend, Daughter, etc.) are always presented in the positive way like kind, polite, respect, pure and virgin. The negative role of women represents strong and bold characters like prostitute, widow and single women who are characterised by their desire of sex. The cinema always projects a woman as a sexual object. The glamour songs show heroine's beauty of her structure body which the audience likes. In reality, the reflection of cinema always influences the audience.

The director KV Anand's movie *Kavan* (2017) is one of the Masala movies. It talks about the media and business. Another engaging part of the movie is filled with hero Thilak and heroine Malar relationship. The movie visualises criminal deeds. Hero kisses and hugs another woman intensively in front of his girlfriend, which is a cool and normal thing in male's perspective, but this emotionally and mentally hurts a woman. The value of relationship is always the trust and honesty. Here these kinds of scenes create a big impact on the audience. Is it cheating? Or women can be projected as a sexual object?

In the present days, cheating has become a common thing in the relationship. People should understand the difference between cheating and honesty in love. The modern culture teaches the fake relationship and gives more pleasure than true one which spoils the true bonds. The cinema easily spreads these kinds of activities among audience which spoils all the society's customs.

Adithya Varma (2019) is a romantic abuse movie, and it shows the difference between sex and love. The hero rejected by the lover gets addicted into alcoholic and enjoys the pleasure of sex with another girl who forgets his past love. *Trisha Illana Nayanthara* (2015) visualizes the love exploration through comedy and romantic manner. A hero with two

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heroine and centric problem of sex is the main concept in the movie. An adult film explores the concept of breakup which does not result in ending life, but the characters are ready for next love. Modern society teaches this to the audience. The movie song *En bittu padam di* objectifies women porn, which sung openly about a girl.

Misogynist

In the society, the women's dominance is a debatable topic, and a man wants her girl like a toy. A man hates her freedom, respects, dream, desires which all a common thing to a human. But some people treat a woman as an animal, and she was controlled by a man in the name of caring and protection. Some movies discussed the topics in different themes and characterisation. In the director's perspective a woman character should be created in the positive or negative way. Here the movies are discussed a misogynist hero's relationship with heroine and different aspects of different director's perspective.

Kaatru veliyidai (2017) is one of Mani Ratnam's finest romantic and stylish movies in Tamil cinema. The movie talks about the respects of partner's feeling. The hero VC insults heroine in front of his friends and physically attacked her, push her down and belittles. She tolerates everything and stays with him to the end. A hero's abusive brutal action is called misogynist. The screenplay and narration talk about the relationship of mutual respect and values.

In *Natchaththiram Nagargirathu* (2022), the movie shows talking about love is political. In an uneasy conversation between lovers, they discuss about relationship. And the hero targets her as a person from the Dalit community; she gets anger and breaks up with him. In the relationship, mutual respect is needed from each other. The men's assumption of the stereotypical character of women should be carefully portrayed. They have no inherent right to talk about her feelings or express/discuss her emotions. The director beautifully explores the relationships in contemporary period. In *Katta Kushti* (2022), the movie explores a man's stereotypical character of women – women are always down below him in their education, health, wealth, etc. But the women are strong enough in wrestling and fight for their career.

Using Offensive Words and Brutality

In Tamil cinema, using bad words and brutally hitting women are casual and normalized for man. In a relationship, both women and men may be cheated by their partners. In some relationships men and women get hurt physically by one another. The offensive words are used normally to a girl or boy outside the theatre, and this probably has influenced Tamil cinema.

Ammu (2022) is a girl's unsatisfied married life filled with lies and malice. Controlling cop-husband hit her brutally and after suffering for long, she decides to payback. *Jaya Jaya Jaya Jaya hey (2022)* a male chauvinist, selfish person, short-tempered hero always shows violence on heroine; she suffers a lot because of her husband's violent action. Finally, she decides to fight back. *90ML (2019)*, an adult comedy entertainer movie, explores

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the women's liberation from shackles of society and irritable jokes of body shamming. The film *Amara Kaaviyam* (2014) teaches that true love is tolerating every violent act from the loved ones; but a wrong message is sent out to the audience. It is not a romantic movie, but the viewers understand that the concept of love is to be expressed and understandable. In the movie, finally the heroine was killed by the hero because of their misunderstandings. In *Valakku en 18/9* (2012) the concept of acid attack on girl is a criminal thing, when the movie exposes this kind of action encourages the audience and reminds hoe it hurts. The movie scenes influence the audience to hurt the girl who is not accepting the love. In *Vaanam* (2011), the song *Even di unna peththan* talks about the violence against women and conveys a man's anger on women through the song lines. The lyric sets audience perspective on women in the same way. In another movie *Mayakkam Enna* (2011), the movie song *Adida Avala* is also on violence against women. The hero expresses his anger through the song lyrics. In *Meesaya Moorukku* (2017) the song *Club le Mabbu le* talks about no smoking and no drinking as only applicable to women. The lyrics control a woman by a man's song. The freedom is common to all, and there should be no restriction.

Cheating Relationship

Cheating is the worst thing in the relationships. In the modernized world accepting the concept of **Dating**, if a boy or girl does not a like their partner, they can choose another one for their money, wealth, or physical attraction. Cheating happens but cinema influences the audience into another level of modernized society which accepts cheating as common thing in the present world.

In *Nenjam Marapathillai* (2021), the movie talks about a man who cheats his wife because of his lust for another woman and sexually assaults and kills her. *Super Deluxe* (2019) explores a wife having extra marital relationship with her ex-boyfriend. The Tamil cinema always emphasizes that women should be pure and virgin to a man. That is what the Tamil cinema expected in all women characterization, but men have the power to change their roles -- it may negative or positive. But the Director Thiyagarajan breaks the concepts -- women's desires are welcome and should be respected in the society. In *Iravin Nilal* (2022) which is a non-linear, single short film, a man's sad life cheated by different people surrounds him. In *Kannum Kannum Kollaiyadithaal* (2020), a woman cheating a man is the main concept of the movie. A thrilling movie in which a girl pretends to fall in love with the hero and she cheats him and takes his money and runs away from him. In *Kodi* (2016), the movie concept talks about the murder, vengeance and the political issues are triggering a person to kill their own partner by using the name of love. This movie creates a bad impact on the society about the relationship of love. *Chekka Sivanda Vaanam* (2018) talks about extramarital affair with two women (wife and lover).

Impact of Possessiveness, Caring and Love

In a relationship, love, care, understanding, respect, and possessiveness are needed. When it goes into extreme the relationships are in doubt, causes fights, misunderstanding and

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breakups. The harassment happens in a relationship through several kinds of elements and the cinema glorifies these things in a relationship that influences the audience.

Love with sex is acceptable, but love without sex is debateable (*Pyaar Prema Kadhal* (2018)). The present society created dating concept more importantly physical touch like kissing, hugging, and having sex. These kill the marriage traditions of traditional culture.

Songs in Tamil Cinema

Some movie songs represent women in cheap words and express the violence, love failure, cheating and some other problems in relationship.

Vaanam (2011) - Even di unna peththan, Mayakkam Enna (2011) - Adida Avala, *Meesaya Moorukku (2017) - Club le Mabbu le*, Thiruchitrambalam (2022)- Thai kelavi, *Idharkuthane Aasaipattai Balakumara (2013) - Pray panuven, Varuthapadatha valibar Sangam (2013) - Indha Ponungalea ipditha purinji pochi da, Romeo Juliet (2015) - Adiyea adiyea ivaley, Oru Kal Oru Kannadi (2012) - Venaam Machan venam indha ponunga Kadhal, Kazhugu (2012) - Aambalaikum Pombalaikum Avasaam, Ethir Neechal (2013) - Sathiyam nee enaku thevaiyea ila.*

Item songs, hero feeling songs, beep songs, club songs are mostly express a girl's behaviour, her attitude, and characters. All these got top hits among the audience. The society always welcomes such things and enjoy the song lines.

Interpretation and Findings

Tamil cinema frequently eroticized women's ordinary and natural things exaggerating the action and it creates massive impact towards men. The slow motion shot for heroine is always staple in Tamil cinema. The film makers like Bakkiya Raj and Gautam Menon have given more importance to the heroine shots. In Tamil cinema the representation of love and romance always are portrayed beautifully, and these simultaneously connect with harassment indirectly. All the discussions talk about Tamil cinema's glorification of violence against women and this is continuously propagated in Tamil movie industry.

The meaning of stalking in Tamil cinema refers about a girl from a far distance and a man following her and approaching her in the name of love. A blind belief of these continuous actions changes her mind and then she accepts the love. There is no surprise in Indian cinema that two characters fall in love, but South Indian Cinema takes it into next level of stalking. The image of harassment happens around workplace, public areas, school, colleges, etc. There is more frequent depiction of higher authority harassing women with their power, sophistication and wealth towards their working colleagues or students. Tamil Nadu has reported that many women and young girls are murdered in their homes, classrooms, and public areas for rejecting a man who have stalked them. Stalking is a main part of our Indian culture.

Theatre researcher Iswarya V reported and applied online petition against Tamil film industry to stop the rape, stalking culture in Tamil movies. The petition wanted more

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signatures to attend her report. In another side they received some support from the film industry personalities. In the commercial aspects the cinema lost their reality and creates huge impacts and cultural changes in the society.

The audience must need to know about the laws and the blind acceptance of cinema is the worst culture. Cinema is a covered with knowledge and ideas regarding different culture and people.

Conclusion

Heroism is one of the glorifying trending concepts among the audience. People are worshiping their favourite hero and follow them and accept their thoughts, action, and some other things to take into their personal life. Meanwhile the acceptance of movie characterization affects the audience mind and influences them to behave like a movie hero in the real life after they do the same things as stalking around a girl, torturing her and putting pressure on her to accept his love, even though she is not interested in him. There is lack of awareness about the stalking crime. People need more awareness and education about the crime against women and the society should start realising that it should not blame the victims.

Harassment is not only a physical abuse but also an emotional and mental pressure through using offensive words or action. In relationship, there is a lot more to discuss about the problems of sexual harassment, cheatings, and extra marital affairs, etc. The cinema is one of the best medium to educate and influence the audience to pursue such things.

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Identification and Analysis of Fallacious Argument of Socio-political Discourse: A Case Study of Computer-mediated Discourse on *Quora*

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Abstract

Nowadays, social media content has become one of the main sources of information to feed the mind of social-media users. However, the reliability on social media for information may be problematic due to the doubtful credibility of its content. There are two ways to overcome this problem: fact-checking and fallacy identification of the argument. The paper has attempted to address this problem by identifying the fallacious argument of social media's textual content.

The study has been divided into two parts: fallacious argument identification and its division according to their characteristics. For the fallacious argument identification, the study has adapted the concept of fallacy as a hindrance to the goal of conflict resolution and wrong moves in the communication process.

The study has employed a fallacy taxonomy framework to classify fallacious arguments into different categories. The fallacy taxonomy framework has been prepared based on popular informal fallacies with the help of Walton's pragmatic theory of fallacy. The data for the study has been collected from the social media platform Quora. The data collection process only extracted the textual data related to the discourse of the socio-political domain, which is generated in Hindi.

The study has analysed socio-political discourse to address the following objectives: 1. Identification of fallacious argument, 2. Categorisation of fallacious argument into different types.

Keywords: fallacy, rationality, social media, Hindi discourse, socio-political, argument analysis

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1. Introduction

Argumentation is traditionally known as the process in which two or more interlocutors engage in debate or discussion with each other due to differences of opinion about something. One of the most well-known and influential definitions of argumentation comes from the philosopher Stephen Toulmin. He defined argumentation as "the process of providing reasons for supporting or criticising a claim" in his book "The Uses of Argument" in 1958 (Toulmin, 1958).

Argumentation is a very common and frequent phenomenon that exists in our life. In the process of argumentation, reasoning plays a great role in reaching a conclusion. The role of argumentation in daily life starts even with the early morning of the day, deciding what food should be for today. The sphere of argumentation has broadened from the personal to the public sphere. Argumentation take place among people on personal issues like deciding carrier field, movie selection for watching, where to go on vacation, and public issues like evaluating whether government policy is good or bad, deciding whether education should be free or paid etc. In the age of digital communication, social media provide a platform for people to do argumentation with individuals or many people. When people engage with one another by sending messages via a network of computers, that communication is known as computer-mediated discourse (CMD) (Herring et al., 2015). The age of digital communication has made easy the process of sharing and accessibility of information. It enables us to talk or argue about any topic in order to find common ground. In this sense, the digital revolution makes it easier to communicate with a wide range of audiences to exchange information and knowledge. Yet, it is not just restricted to only casual chats with known and unknown common people. Instead, it enables us to communicate openly and directly with national and international authorities. These are the benefits of computer-mediated communication that we experience. Yet, it has also been used to distribute false information and rumours. The social media platform has also been used to manufacture consent, set a particular narrative, and publish communal posts using logical and argumentative tricks. That raises the possibility of a breakdown in concord and brotherhood, and more crucially, it makes it harder to cultivate a democratic society and logical temperament.

There are two methods to tackle this problem fact-checking and fallacy identification. Examination of factual information confirms the authenticity and truthness of information, but inferential information is produced by employing reasoning in the available information to reach the inferential conclusion. The study has focused on the error in inferential information. The study checks whether the method of inference applied to the conclusion is correct. The discrepancy in the reasoning of argumentation is traditionally known as fallacious argumentation. The study focuses on the identification of fallacious arguments. It examines Hindi socio-political discourse generated on the social-media platform *Quora*.

The analysis of socio-political discourse has been done through the analysis of arguments in the discourse. The study has focused on the pragmatic aspect of the argument for their analysis and

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classification between fallacious and non-fallacious. Further, the study has classified the fallacious arguments into their subtypes. The study used a fallacy taxonomy framework, based on the pragmatic theory of fallacy (Walton, 1995), to categorise the various types of fallacious arguments. Three steps have been taken in the argument analysis: the extraction of arguments, the detection of fallacious arguments, and the classification of those fallacious arguments. In the section under Fallacy, the study also conducted a quick assessment of how fallacies have been studied over time. Then the study treated the fallacy by employing a fallacy taxonomy framework.

2. Understanding Fallacy

The concept of fallacy has emerged in the Indian logic system and Aristotle's organon of Greek. Nyaya Sutra (650 B.C. – 100 A.D.) and Vaisesika were two of the six Indian schools of philosophy that addressed logic and fallacies (Sarma, 1994). Aristotle was one of the earliest philosophers who extensively worked on argumentation, logic and reasoning. He explored persuasive argumentation and fallacy in his work "De Sophisticis Elenchis" (On Sophistical Refutations) in Greek philosophy (Krabbe, 2012; Hasper, 2013). Aristotle takes account of the fallacy in *Sophistical Refutation* in terms of the argument. He said that argument appears to be a refutation, but it is a fallacy, not a refutation (Hasper, 2013). He introduced thirteen mere lists of fallacies in his initial work. Further, he also worked on structuring this list, as he categorized them into two groups: language-dependent and language-independent fallacies. Language-dependent fallacies are homonymy, amphiboly, intonation, combination, division, and form of expression. Language-independent fallacies are accident, consequence, qualification, petitio principii non causa, many questions and ignoratio elenchi (ibid).

The book "Fallacies" by Charles Hamblin is seen as marking the boundary between the conventional and the novel approaches to fallacies. The book questioned the standard approach to handling fallacies and provided a new definition of a fallacy as an argument "that seems to be valid but is not so." However, the definition was still debated and wasn't widely accepted (Hansen, 2002). Three important theories are put out by the new method to address arguments. The first theory offers 10 rules for critical discussion and approaches argument from a pragmatic-dialectic perspective (Van Eemeren & Grootendorst, 1987), the second theory suggests an argumentative scheme and theme for debunking fallacies (Walton, 1995), and the third theory proposes the concept of the "illative centre" and the "two-tier criteria" for recognizing fallacious arguments (Johnson, 2012).

The main purpose of argumentation is to resolve the conflict. In the process of resolution of conflict, interlocutors have to justify their thesis. Moreover, interlocutors want to resolve differences of opinion in their favour. To accomplish these goals, people use various argumentation strategies when presenting their arguments. However, some argumentation strategies distract the audience from the focus of argumentation and irrelevance to the topic. Such cases may result in increased difficulties in resolving the conflict. These obstacles in argumentation are considered as wrong moves, known as fallacies (Van Emeren and Houtlosser, 2008). Fallacies in the debate or discussion cause derailment

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of the argumentation from the path of a topic that randomizes the direction of the discussion. Sometimes it results in the form of endless discussion and never reaches the goal.

The study of fallacy has been done and examined from several angles by philosophers, logicians, and linguists (Zurloni and Anolli, 2013). The idea of a fallacy forms the basis of every comprehensive argumentation theory, and how fallacies are handled may arguably be seen as the litmus test for any given method of argumentation (Hamblin, 1970; Van Eemeren & Grootendorst, 1992; Walton, 1995; Van Eemeren, Meuffels & Verburg, 2000; Tindale, 2007). Walton emphasizes the idea that fallacies are not necessarily obvious mistakes but can often be subtle and difficult to detect. He defined fallacy as "A fallacy is an argument that seems to be correct, but is not, because it has a flaw in it that is not immediately apparent (Walton, 1995)." He says that the definition of a fallacy can be the result of an error in reasoning, but it is limited to simple logical error, however, it is misleading or deceptive in some way, and is often used to manipulate people's beliefs or opinions (ibid).

3. Fallacious Argument in Socio-Political Discourse

Socio-political discourse refers to the discussion and exchange of ideas related to social and political issues within a society. It involves exploring and debating issues such as power, inequality, justice, freedom, democracy, governance, and human rights. Socio-political discourse can take many forms, such as public debates, media coverage, social media discussions, academic research, political speeches, newspaper editorial articles, and textual vlogs. It involves expressing and exchanging diverse opinions, perspectives, and arguments related to social and political issues.

In the age of digital communication, people can participate in debates or discussions with anyone through social media platforms. Social media provide a great platform for debate or discussion. It also allows people to publish their thoughts on the public forum. These processes contribute to shaping public opinion. However, the credibility and authenticity of social media discourse are questionable on socio-political issues. That could be tackled by fact-checking and validity or soundness-checking of the argument.

In order to check the validity and soundness of the argument of socio-political discourse, several studies have been done. The study has analysed the political speeches, interviews, and debates (Al-Duleimi et al. 2015, Al-Hindawi et al. 2015, Hidayat et al. 2020). The analysis of Obama's interviews demonstrates that strategic manoeuvring is the consequence of a variety of linguistic devices, including conversational implicatures, hedges of the cooperative principle, and politeness employed during the interview (Al-Duleimi et al. 2015). David Cameron's speech was examined using the pragmatic technique, and it was found that he uses a linguistic technique that makes the listener feel close to the speaker. He used the principle of influence, deixis, rhetorical devices in the speech, and the standards of a strong argument (Al-Hindawi et al. 2015). The study of political debate among Indonesian political figures examines the dialogue with the intention of identifying fallacies using a fallacy taxonomy framework (Hidayat et al. 2020). The study identified four types of

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fallacious argument: a fallacy through linguistic manipulation, a fallacy through the emotional appeal of fear, a fallacy through the manipulation of red herrings as distractions, and an inductive fallacy through the manipulation of illogical inconsistencies and contradictions (ibid).

4. Fallacy Taxonomy Framework

Fallacious arguments can be categorised in several ways. The broad taxonomy of fallacious arguments is formal and informal. Formal fallacy depends upon the error in reasoning due to discrepancy in the structure or form of arguments like non-sequitur. Informal fallacy depends upon the content, meaning and contextual information of arguments. It is not related to the structure of the argument and is committed due to the flawed content of arguments, either because of faulty reasoning or deceptive rhetoric. Informal fallacies can take many forms and be difficult to identify, as they often rely on common misconceptions or emotional appeals rather than formal logic. Some examples of informal fallacies include ad hominem and ad misericordiam. The fallacy has also been categorised from the angle of logic, ethics, credibility, force, and passion. According to this view, it is categorised into three categories ethos, pathos and logos (Demirdöğen, 2010).

The study has prepared a fallacy taxonomy framework for the classification of fallacious arguments in a different category. Walton's "A Pragmatic Theory of Fallacy" served as the foundation for the study's creation of a fallacy taxonomy framework (Walton, 1995). The study took 16 common fallacies into account when creating a taxonomy framework. Table 1 describes the fallacy taxonomy framework for the identification of subtypes of fallacious argument in CMD.

S.No.	Type of fallacy	Explanation
1.	Ad Hominem	Attacking on person rather argument.
2.	Ad Baculum	Appeal to force to assert or justify a thesis.
3.	Ad Populum	Appeal to popularity to assert or justify a thesis.
4.	Ad Misericordiam	Appeal to sentiment instead of reason.
5.	Ad Ignorantiam	Truthness or falseness of argument based on inability to prove.
6.	Ad Vercundian	Appeal to authority to propose an argument.
7.	Complex Question	Loaded question with the implicit presupposition.
8.	Begging the Question	A premise based on a conclusion and vice-versa, i.e. circular reasoning.
9.	Hasty generalization	Conclusion based on insufficient evidence.

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10.	Slippery Slope	Actions are described as triggers of a chain of bad consequences.
11.	False Cause	Conclusion based on the false cause.
12.	Straw Man	Misrepresentation of facts or persons.
13.	Ad Consequentiam	Arguments are evaluated based on their good or bad consequences.
14.	Faulty Analogy	The wrongful comparison to justify or refute the thesis.
15.	Linguistic Fallacies	Error in reasoning due to language.
16.	Ignoratio Elenchi	Irrelevant conclusion.

5. Data

The data for the identification of fallacious arguments are collected for the present study from the social media platform *Quora*. On this platform, content is mainly generated to answer the asked question by users. However, independent articles are also written on Quora to express an opinion or thought about an event, policy, or principle. The study focuses on the socio-political discourse of computer-mediated discourse. In order to extract data on socio-political issues, the study has selected specific keywords related to the socio-political issues. The rationale behind selecting specific keywords is the frequent occurrence of a certain specific word in the socio-political discourse. The data has been collected manually by entering following keywords: समाजवाद (*Samajwad* - Socialism), साम्यवाद (*Saamyawad* - Communism), धर्मनिरपेक्षता (*Dharmnirpekshtaa* - Secularism), महिला - (*Mahila* - Woman) and राजनीति - (*Rajneeti* - Politics). The study has collected six articles which were written for the purpose of giving answers to asked questions and expressing thoughts on related issues in Hindi. The study has extracted 43 arguments from these articles.

6. Identification and Analysis of Fallacious Arguments

The study has analysed six articles by considering the pragmatic aspects of the argument. In the first step of the analysis, the study extracts the occurred arguments of the articles on the basis of the existence of necessary elements of argument, i.e., conclusion and one or more premises in favour of the conclusion. In this way, the study has extracted 43 arguments employing the strategy. The analysis of arguments has been done by employing the concept of fallacy, which helps to categorise arguments between fallacious and non-fallacious arguments. The study moves to classify the identified fallacious arguments in their subtypes. The fallacy taxonomy framework, which is prepared with the help of Walton's pragmatic theory of fallacy, has been employed to divide fallacious arguments according to their pragmatic nature. The analysis of the argument has been shown through the illustration of sample arguments from the dataset. Since the data has been collected in Hindi language, it is translated into English for illustration. The translation has been done carefully to preserve the original meaning of the arguments.

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1. पूंजीवादी समाज मे ऐसा क्यो है के हर प्रकार की सुख सुविधा से लैस व्यक्ति कुंठित व पतित जीवन जीने लगता है,,, विषय बहुत लंबा है इसलिये हम इस मानसिकता को कारण जौहर की हाई प्रोफाइल ड्रग पार्टी से समझने की कोशिश करेंगे,,, (*Punjiwad samaj me aisa kyo hai ke har prakaar ki such suvidha se lais vyakti kunthit wa patit jivan jine lagta hai,,, visay bahut lambaa hai isliye ham is mansikta ko Karan Johar ki high profile drug party se samajhne ki koshis karenge,,,)*

[Why is it that in a capitalist society, where a person laced with all kinds of comforts and luxuries starts living a frustrated and degenerated life… The subject is very long therefore, we will try to understand this mentality through the high-profile drug party of Karan Johar.]

Argument – Fallacious
Fallacy – Complex question.
Explanation – The claim in this argument has been presented in the form of a question, and the question is loaded with a hidden question. The main question is, "Why do people in a capitalist society with all kinds of comforts and luxuries start living a frustrated and degenerated life?" in this question claim is "People of capitalist society live a frustrated and degenerated life." The question is loaded because it contains the other unanswered question "Do people of capitalist society live a frustrated and degenerated life?" In this argument, the author has presented a loaded question that leads to an error in reasoning. The author, in the question, committed the fallacy of a complex question.

2. इस पड़ाव पर आकर मनुष्य अपनी आदिम अज्ञानी मानसिकता के आगे अपने तमाम ज्ञान विज्ञान मान सम्मान पद प्रतिष्ठा को पीछे छोड़ एकाकी हो अपनी कुंठा को जीने लगता है,, आर्थिक सुरक्षा उसे अमर्यादित कर देती है,, क्योंकि वह अपने को हर प्रकार से सिद्ध कर चुका होता है इसलिये उसके पास अब पाने की कोई उच्च बिंदु बाकी नही होती,,, ऐसे में पूंजीवादी मानसिकता कुंठाओं की शिकार हो ही जाती है ऐसा हमे विश्व के हर विकसित समाज मे नजर आता है,,

(*Is padav par aakar manusya apani aadim agyaani maansikta ke aage apane tamam gyan vigyan maan sammaan pad pritistha ko pichhe chhod ekaki ho apni kuntha ko jine lagta hai,, aarthik surakshaa use amaryadit kar deti hai,, kyoki vah apane ko har prakar se sidha kar chuka hota hai isliye uske paas aba paane ki koi uchh bindu baaki nahi hoti,,, aise me punjiwadi maansikta kunthao ki shikaar ho hi jaati hai, aisa hame visva ke har viksit samaj me najar aata hai,,)*

[After reaching this stage, people start living their frustration in solitude, leaving behind all their knowledge, science, honour and prestige adjacent to their primitive, ignorant mentality. Financial security makes them immoral because they have proved themselves in every way, so they no longer have any higher aspirations to pursue. In such situations, the capitalist mentality becomes a victim of mental agony. We see this in every developed society of the world.]

Argument – Fallacious
Fallacy – False cause

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Explanation – There are five claims proposed in this piece of text: 1. At this stage (stage of economic prosperity), people start living their frustration in solitude, leaving behind all their knowledge, science, honour and prestige adjacent to their primitive, ignorant mentality, 2. Financial security makes them immoral, 3. At this stage, they no longer have any higher aspirations to pursue, 4. In this condition, the capitalist mentality becomes a victim of mental agony, 5. These indications are visible in every developed society of the world. The argument has a reason for the second and third claims. It says that financial security makes them immoral because they have proved themselves in every way and have nothing left for them to achieve. The interlocutor has not presented any evidence or supportive statement that proves the cause of becoming immoral due to financial security. In the third claim, the interlocutor says that financial security is the epitome of achievement, and after that, there is nothing to achieve in life. But besides financial security, many goals could remain untouched in any person's life, like making society equal and abolishing social evil. Apart from these goals, maintaining financial security is also a tough task for anyone if they are in this situation. In this argument, the interlocutor has provided the wrong reason for the claim, which is responsible for the commitment of the fallacy of false cause.

3. यदि अधिकतम महिलाओं को राजनीती में आने का अवसर मिले, तो वो महिलाओं के मुद्दों को जोर शोर से उठाएंगी और तब शायद महिलाओं से जुडी दिक्कतें कम हो सकती हैं."डेबरा डॉड्सन"नामक शोध के मुताबिक अमरीका में महिला स्वास्थय सम्बन्धी बिल सिर्फ इसलिए पास हुआ क्योंकि वहाँ कांग्रेस में महिला उम्मीदवारो ने इसके लिए आवाज़ उठाई।

(Yadi adhiktam mahilao ko rajniti me aane ka avasar mile, to vo mahilao ke muddo ko jor shor se uthayengi aur tab shayad mahilao se judi dikkate kam ho sakti hai, Debra Dodson naamak shodh ke mutabik America me mahila swasthya sambandhi bil sirf isliye paas hua kyoki waha congress me mahila ummidwaro ne iske liye awaj uthayi)

[If maximum women get an opportunity to come into politics, then they will raise the issues of women loudly and then perhaps the problems related to women can be reduced. According to Debra Dodson's research, the women's health bill was passed in America only because their women candidates in Congress raised their voices for it.]

Argument - Non-fallacious
Explanation – The argument has concluded the claim that women will raise women-related issues loudly if they get the opportunity to come into politics. The evidence supports the claim. In this argument, the interlocuter has cited the research of Debra Dodson that says, the women's health bill was passed in America only because of the representation of women in American Congress. From this claim, the interlocutor has reached the inference of argument. Inference has been proposed in an argument on the basis of research evidence. In this argument, the interlocutor did not commit a fallacy.

4. महिला की कमाई की परिवार में ज़रुरत नहीं इसलिए आज भी कई पुरुष अपने घर की औरतों को नोकरी नहीं करने देते।

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(*Mahila ki kamai ki parivaar me jarurat nahi isliye aaj bhi kai purush apne ghar ki aurto ko naukri nahi karne dete.*)

[Women's earning is not needed in the family, that's why even today, many men do not allow the women of their house to work.]

Argument – Fallacious
Fallacy – False cause

Explanation – The argument has given a reason for the question of why women are not allowed to do paid jobs. The interlocuter says that women are not allowed to paid job because their earning is not required in the family. But it is not so. There could be many reasons behind the prohibition of women's jobs, like social, cultural, and religious reasons. Apart from these reasons, the family structure and family work responsibilities like childcare, home care, and food cooking also could be reasons for the prohibition. The requirement of women's earnings in the family could also be one of the reasons for the prohibition from doing paid work for women. The argument committed the fallacy of false cause because the interlocutor has presented a partial reason or cause for the conclusion.

5. पढ़ी लिखी महिलाएं शादी के बाद अपनी इच्छा से काम नहीं कर सकती। अगर आपको लगता है कि अब ऐसा नहीं है तो ज़रा यह सोचिएगा कि आप भारत कि वो 30 प्रतिशत जनसंख्या है जो शहरों में रह रही हैं। अभी भी 70% लोग गांवों में रहती हैं जिन्हें न ठीक से शिक्षा मिलती है न इंटरनेट वाले वायदे पूरे होते हैं।

(*Padhi liki mahilaaye shaadi ke baad apni ichchha se kaam nahi kar sakti. Agar aapko lagta hai ki tab aisa nahi hai to jara sochiyega ki aap bhaarat ki vo 30 pratishat jansankhya hai jo shaharo me rah rahi hai. Abhi bhi 70% log gaavo me rahti hai, jinhe na thik se shiksha milti hai na internet vale vaayde pure hote hai.*)

[Educated women are not allowed to work of their own volition after marriage. If you think this is not the case now, then you are the 30 per cent of India's population living in cities. Still, 70% of the people who live in villages do not get a proper education or internet promises are fulfilled.]

Argument – Fallacious
Fallacy – False cause

Explanation – This argument has two claims: 1. Urban educated women can do paid work/job of their own volition after marriage, and 2. Rural women can not do paid work/job of their own volition. The interlocuter has given a reason for the second claim. It says that rural women can not do paid work because they are not getting proper education and internet facility. The prohibition of women from doing paid work has many reasons, as explained in the illustration of the fourth example. Socio-

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cultural and religious reasons play the main role in the way of women's liberation for their paid work. Patriarchal social systems resist becoming an economically equal society regarding men and women. Lack of access to education and the internet may be a factor, but it is not the whole reason behind the problem. In this argument, the interlocutor has committed the fallacy of false cause because he/she presented only partial cause for the second claim.

7. Conclusion

The study has analysed six articles related to the socio-political discourse of the social media platform *Quora*. The data has been collected only in Hindi. The argument of the article has been extracted on the basis of premise and conclusion in the piece of text. However, sometimes argument only contains a conclusion without a premise. Such arguments are based on universally accepted premises. This way, the study has extracted 45 arguments from the article in available collected data.

The examination of arguments has found that most of the arguments are non-fallacious in the articles. However, the study has also found some fallacious arguments that belong to different categories. The analysis of fallacious arguments has found six types of fallacious arguments. These are the types of found fallacious arguments: False cause, Ad Hominem, Faulty analogy, Ad Misericordiam and Hasty generalisation. The false cause indicates that the conclusion of arguments is based on false or hazy premises. The study has found that articles contain such arguments that target interlocutors rather than their argument, which leads to the Ad Hominem fallacy.

The availability of faulty analogies indicates that interlocutors have tried to justify their thesis on the basis of false comparisons. The study has also found that interlocutors tried to justify their thesis with the help of sentiment rather than valid logic. The article also contains arguments whose conclusions are based on insufficient reason.

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Online, Face to Face (F2F), and Blended Settings in Education: Minimizing To Be or Not To Be Dilemma in EFL Education at Tertiary Level in Bangladesh (BAU, Mymensingh)

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Abstract

The purpose of the present study was to explore the role of different instructional settings at a graduate level across a semester. The focus was on identifying the impact of different instructional settings and the influence of these classroom settings on learners' EFL development. This study also aims to highlight the symmetrical relationship between different instructional settings exposed to the students. In addition, a reflection of the students was also investigated. To measure differences in foreign language classes through online, face-to-face, and blended studies, 60 EFL learners were randomly selected to participate in the current study. Data were collected from 60 students assigned under three instructional groups of three different classroom settings. Data sources included online discussion transcripts, post-discussion surveys of students' engagement in different class environments, and final self-reflective essays in which students described their experiences of the different class environments. Data analysis was inductive, interpretive, and qualitative, aimed at identifying the impact and to minimize the suitability of online, F to F and blended settings exposed by three instructors in each class session. Descriptive statistics were used to calculate the mean number of comments posted by students and mean ratings of student engagement immediately following class sessions. Results showed that the blended and F to F sessions influenced the learning was more subtle than has online been assumed. The students who participated in face-to-face and blended classes stated a high level of EFL proficiency compared to their online group, which was significant compared to their online counterparts. However, through face-to-face and blended learning, the students achieved considerable EFL competency and proficiency. In many ways, F2F and blended settings have almost similar impact on students' development and the teachers' feedbacks were similar to their students.

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Keywords: Online, Face to Face (F2F), Blended, Settings, EFL Education, Tertiary Level and Minimizing

Introduction

Widespread development and advancement of information technology provide a technical platform for education reform and opportunities for innovation in instructional education. The global disaster, COVID-19 pandemic, created a new normal that further springboards such opportunities to a large-scale implementation of online education around the globe. For its ready acceptance as a viable component in teaching and learning, artificial intelligence and online education will co-exist with traditional education to provide more education options, promote education equity, and enhance education innovation.

Several studies (e.g., Bernard et al., 2014; Chigeza and Halbert, 2014; González-Gómez et al., 2016; Israel, 2015; Northey et al., 2015; Ryan et al., 2016; Southard, Meddaug and Harris, 2015) have compared F2Fteaching to online learning and/or blended learning in order to try to define which of the formats provides, e.g., the highest learning outcome, creates the most satisfied students or has the highest rate of course completion. The three different teaching and learning settings will be clarifying how each of them is definable according to studies of the different formats. Although there has not been complete agreement among researchers about the precise definition or meaning of the term 'blended learning' in particular (Bernard et al., 2014; Chigeza and Halbert, 2014), consensus has still built up around a sense of fairly clear distinctions between the three formats. Definitional questions do not, however, seem to haunt the terms 'face-to-face learning' and 'online learning' in the same way as they do 'blended learning' as their meaning appears to be more or less agreed upon.

The F2F learning format is characterized as "traditional" by many of the authors, referring to the fact that this is the format with the longest history of the three formats and in relation to which online and blended learning represent a modern or innovative intervention (e.g., Chigeza and Halbert, 2014; Adams,Randall and Traustadóttir, 2015; Pellas and Kazandis, 2015; González-Gómez et al., 2016). Generally, its meaning derives from an understanding of an instructional format that involves a physical classroom and the synchronous physical presence of all participants (i.e., teachers and students). One study emphasizes that even in-class use of computers and educational technology does not affect the definition of the F2F format so as to change it into blended learning (Bernard et al., 2014).Online learning is commonly defined in contradistinction to F2F learning (e.g., Ryan et al., 2016). Its most prominent feature is the absence of the physical classroom, which is replaced by the use of web-based technologies offering opportunities for out-of-class learning independent of time, place and pace (Bernard et al., 2014; Chigeza and Halbert, 2014; Northey et al., 2015; Israel, 2015; Potter, 2015). Ryan et al. (2016) point out that "in the context of higher education, the phrase

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online learning is often interpreted as referencing courses that are offered completely online; [..]" (p. 286). The terms blended learning and hybrid learning sometimes seem to be used interchangeably (Ryan et al., 2016). According to Bernard et al. (2014), who builds on Graham's definition (2005), blended learning can be defined as "the combination of instruction from two historically separate models of teaching and learning: traditional F2F learning systems and distributed learning systems" (p. 91). In some cases, blended learning is seen as the more effective counterpart to the other two formats used separately (Pellas and Kazandis, 2015; González-Gómez et al., 2016) insofar as it is, e.g., characterized as F2F and online learning being "optimally integrated" (Israel, 2015) or combining their "benefits" (Adams, Randall and Traustadóttir, 2015). Many studies compare the effect on students' learning outcome generated by respectively F2F teaching and/or blended learning. In Bernard et al.'s (2014) meta-study of blended learning in higher education, students in blended programs have turned out to achieve slightly better than students following traditional classroom instruction programs. Similar findings have been made by other studies – e.g., Israel (2015), Northeyet al. (2015), Southard, Meddaug and Harris (2015), González-Gómez et al. (2016) and Ryan et al. (2016).Despite widespread agreement that the blended learning format produces better learning achievement among students, other studies have shown the exact opposite. In a comparative study by Adams, Randall and Traustadóttir (2015) the overall finding is that university students ... were less successful than their peers following the same course in a F2F version. Less interaction with the material or a sense of isolation arising from less class attendance are counted among potential reasons for the hybrid students' lower success. Similar findings are mentioned in Powers et al.'s study (2016)of students' performance in respectively hybrid and traditional sections ... where a significant decrease in exam grades throughout the semester was observed for students in the hybrid section. A better academic outcome for students in a blended education program is precisely attributed to the opportunities given to them for working independently through participation in student-centered asynchronous collaborative learning activities supported by Web 2.0 media such as Facebook (Northey et al., 2015).On the whole, the studies comparing F2F teaching to online and/or blended learning reveal that no inherent features of any of the three teaching formats produce either better or poorer learning outcomes for students. Rather, what leads to either is not the format itself, but is circumstantial and context-dependent. Thus, it is very much essential to identify our contextual category which has emerged as one of the factors that significantly influence online and blended learning in higher education, i.e., the category of spaces, learning community for collaboration and student satisfaction/ learner satisfaction.

Justification
. Applying ICT tools to develop language education has gained much popularity and produced positive results in recent years. WEB 2 technology has the potential to widen the scope of resources available in teaching and to enhance the language learning experience. Face to face

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and online or distance education blended learning, the combining of online and face-to-face learning, is becoming common in many higher education institutions particularly in developed countries without its challenges. Few studies, however, focus on students' perceptions of a learning environment designed to evaluate learning/ learner outcomes and to explore students' perceptions of classroom settings in general. Therefore, the purpose of the current study is to investigate students' perceptions of different learning environment with the orientation of EFL education and its development at tertiary level in Bangladesh.

Research Questions
By adopting the mixed method, this study aims to answer the following questions:

1. Do the EFL learners achieve communicative competency in face-to-face, online, and blended learning classes?
2. What are the students' perceptions regarding learning environment/ settings to achieve EFL communicative competency?
3. How do the students perceive the impact of these three instructional settings on the development of their EFL competency?

Methodology

Participants, Procedures and Materials

The current study was conducted during the first semester of academic year 2020-2021 at BAU, Mymensingh, Bangladesh. In this study, 60 EFL learners in three instructional groups were selected as the study sample through random sampling. The study was carried out in the course of Practical English which is a branch of the comprehensive English course for first-year English as an integrated subject at Bangladesh Agricultural University (BAU), Mymensingh. The 16-week course adopted a learning mode of classroom online, face-to-face and blended settings of learning. These students were studying English in three modes or settings of online, face-to-face and blended settings at BAU, Mymensingh under three teachers. By rotation these three teachers were involved in teaching with all the three groups of different settings to provide similar exposure to the students. The curriculum equals to upper-intermediate of Common European Framework used for this study.

Instruments
To investigate the effect of different settings on learning of EFL learners' and language performance including their attitudes toward these three instructional settings a mixed method study, a quasi-experimental design (pre and posttest) followed by qualitative interviews to clarify student outcomes, was employed.

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In selecting the pre and posttests, the study covered the course contents. At the beginning of the semester, all the participants completed a pretest on different categories of course contents. A posttest containing the same question pattern was given to the learners at the end of the course. After the posttest, data, related issues, ideas, and questions were then prepared for the interviews. As the population was not large, all 30 learners of each group were interviewed to explore their attitudes toward three instructional settings. Utilizing SPSS (Version 15.0), the pre and posttest results were analyzed. Descriptive analyses (means and standard deviation) were conducted to describe the pre and posttest results. Analysis of Covariance (ANCOVA) was then employed to find out which group was significantly different.

Results and Analysis

The findings are presented and discussed in light of the research topics: the learners' EFL performance and their motivation to instructional settings. Table 1 addresses the achievement of EFL learners' communicative competency. The means and standard deviations of the pre and posttest scores were compared to describe the language performance of all three groups.

Table1. Descriptive statistics of pre and posttests.

Group/ Setting	PreTest		Post Test		Adjusted Mean	Std. Error
	M	SD	M	SD		
Online	7.31	3.519	11.46	3.720	11.46	0.685
Face to Face	7.36	2.626	15.54	3.178	15.54	0.736
Blended	7.33	2.628	15.55	3.179	15.55	0.737

Table 1 shows that the posttest means of the face to face and blended groups (15.54, 15.55) were higher than the pretest mean of the online group (11.46). However, the pretest means of all the three groups (virtual 7.31, face to face 7.36 and blended 7.33) were almost alike. The data also shows a difference in the adjusted means (4.08, 4.09) in favor of face to face and blended groups. As illustrated in Table 1, the adjusted mean of the virtual group (11.46) was found to be lower than those of the face to face and blended groups (15.54, 15.55). This reveals that there is a significant difference in the adjusted means of learners' EFL posttest scores, show significant in favor of the face to face and blended groups (p=.000).

Table 2. The Result of the Independent-Samples T-Test for the Satisfaction of online, face to face and blended settings

Satisfactio n	Virtual		Face to Face		Blended	
	Mean	Sum of	Mean	Sum of	Mean	Sum

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	Rank	Rank			Rank	Rank		Rank	of Rank
Negative	25	15.30	302.00	2	0.48	0.37	1	.00	0.25
Positive	3	5.20	39.00	28	14.75	456.00	28	14.75	456.0
Ties	2	-----	---------	--------	----	------	1	--	------

As shown on the table 2 above there is a significant difference between the two tests, because there is no negative ranks and 100% positive ranks where the sum of rank is 456.0 including all thirty students who participated in the face to face and blended settings

Table 3 Comparison: Perceptions of students on online, face-to-face and blended learning.

Statement	Students (n= 90; 30 x 3)			
	Online Mean(±SD)	Face-to-face Mean(±SD)	Blended Mean(±SD)	p-value
Space for interaction	3.61(±0.68)	4.42(±0.60)	4.10(±0.80)	0.000*
Collaboration or pair interaction	3.77(±0.6)	4.32(±0.67)	4.10(±0.86)	0.000
Learner satisfaction	3.90(±0.78)	4.34(±0.73)	4.08(±1.08)	0.001*
Overall	**3.76(±0.89)**	**4.34(±0.77)**	**4.09(±1.05)**	**0.000***
Statisticallysignificant.				

Comparing the perceptions of the students on online, face-to-face, and blended learning regarding the studied domains (space for Interaction, collaboration and learning satisfaction) and the overall revealed consistently higher mean scores for face-to-face and blended learning than online learning. This is especially true when it comes to communication and practical sessions, which is expected as social skills and cannot be acquired without communication between students and real or simulated situations.

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Table 4 Students'preference regarding the mode of learning.

Mode of learning	Students(n = 30)	Chi^2	Sig.(p-value)
Online	(4.0%)		
Face-to-face	(56.0%)	48.8	0.000*
Blended	(52.0%)		
*Statistically significant			

Table (5) Students' perceptions

Achievements of different settings	Online Setting	Face to Face Setting	Blended Setting
Develop competency	*22.0*	67.0	65.0
Focus on learning	*17.0*	78.0	75.0
Provides Scope of practice	12.0	81.0	82.0
Builds collaboration/ peer development	23.0	86.0	88.0
Removes anxiety	18.0	73.0	77.0
Motivates to learning	18.0	68.0	71.0
Space for communication	12.0	77.0	87.0
Learners' involvement	11.0	84.0	85.0
Fear of teacher's presence	88.0	12.0	11.0

Paired samples t-test was used to compare the differences of mean scores of responses of the students regarding online, face-to-face and blended learning. The results indicate that the mean scores of responses of the students were higher for face-to-face and blended learning than that for online learning for all the survey statements. The differences were statistically significant ($p < 0.05$) for almost all the statements.

Discussion

The findings show that EFL learners developed a good level of competency in both face-to-face and blended settings. Learners feel comfortable in both educational settings. Results also indicate that classroom involvement and participation are one of the main features that cause EFL learning in face to face and blended groups. The quantitative results showed that the

students in the Face to face and blended groups outperformed those in the online group. This reflected that blended leaning had a positive impact on students' EFLL and performance. Thus, this study agrees with previous studies, such as by Aslani & Tabrizi (2015), Bataineh & Mayyas (2017), &Fakhir (2015), all of which support the statement that blended learning has an impact on learners in EEL learning. Moreover, the qualitative results showed that the students enjoyed the new experience of blended learning. They were strongly satisfied with and motivated toward learning English using a blended learning method. The majority of the students believed that using blended learning is very important to foster their language competency. Despite some technical issues, the students believed that blended learning could help them to improve their language skills in a flexible and relaxing setting that accounts for all their individual differences. Students agree on the benefits of online learning during emergencies but prefer face-to-face and blended modes for their higher benefits.

Conclusion and Recommendations

The results of this study showed that like the face to face mode, blended setting had a positive impact on the performance of EFL learners. Learners in the blended group engaged in a dynamic, simultaneous, free, joint, and significant learning experience. Based on the results, the researchers recommend that the university should implement the blended learning method in English language lectures. In conclusion, the use of online technology, materials and media in language learning must be skillfully implemented to enhance a course providing the importance of face to face instruction with blended setting in EFL education. Finally, more research should be conducted to examine the effectiveness of blended learning in Bangladeshi universities and its impact on students' performance.

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Case Study Method for Teaching English as a Second Language

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Abstract

　　Learning English language is not merely to score marks and qualify oneself for the job that one is desirous of. Instead, it has to help the learners communicate well with people around them. In addition, English language learning must equip the learners with confidence to articulate their thoughts related to arts, science, business, trade, etc. In this regard, English language teachers hold prime significance in making the students acquire fluency in the second language.

　　While traditional method of teaching focuses on the completion of the prescribed syllabus, innovative method of teaching enhances the communicative skills of the learners to the next level. Hence, through the latter method, teachers provide the students with a chance to apply their English knowledge to real life situations. Using case study method in an ESL classroom not only increases the learning capacity of the second language learners but helps them remember functional grammar.

　　This paper analyses the different aspects connected with the application of case study method to teach English as a second language.

Keywords: ESL Classroom, Case study, TBL – Task-based learning, SLL - Second language learners, Digital Natives, Higher and Lower Socio-Economic Status (SES)

Introduction

　　"Cases are stories with a message. They are not simply narratives for entertainment. They are stories to educate."(Herreid, p. 41)

　　Classroom teaching has become more complicated these days since technology has totally engrossed the attention of 'Digital Natives'. Besides, teachers have to complete the

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syllabus and assess students' performance within the stipulated time. Torn between the pressures from the learners and the education system, teachers quite often fail to get satisfaction from the work that they do. In this scenario, case study method comes to the rescue of both the teachers and the students. Applying case study method to a language classroom not only creates interest among the learners, but helps them learn English language with precision. Also, it helps teachers develop learners' critical thinking skills, which result in the overall development of an individual.

Case Study

Case study, a method used for teaching, refers to a real or an imaginary situation wherein an individual faces problem and tries to find solutions. Teachers can use this method to apply English language to real life situations. Case study was introduced in the fields of law and medicine early in the nineteenth century. Later, other disciplines too adopted this method because it develops "the higher levels of Bloom's taxonomy of cognitive learning; moving beyond recall of knowledge to analysis, evaluation, and application." (Bonney, p.21)

Literature Review

Case studies have been used by English language teachers across the globe since decades. This student-centred method enables the learners to relate themselves to the cases taken up for discussion. Moreover, students remain motivated in this task-based learning, which develops their critical and analytical thinking skills. Johnson opines that, students develop their "robust reasoning" (1999) through this method.Crandall (2000) views that "Teaching case studies provides a means of bridging theory and practice ..." (p.41).

International associations like TESOL – Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages -- has also included case study in the teacher education training materials (Plaister, 1993). This method boosts the skills of both experienced and inexperienced teachers as Ellis (2010) points out, "teachers make sense of their work … through carefully selected case studies of classroom learners and of instructional interventions in language learning." (p.187)

Case study method distances students from their inhibitions and kindles their curiosity to take part in discussions that give them a chance for "probing, evaluating and challenging the contributions of others and arguing one's own position convincingly" (Council of Europe, p.87). Since 1967, teachers teaching subjects like Business English and English for Specific Purposes have included case study method in their teaching methodology. This method makes students practice linguistic skills. Henceforth, learners become competent enough to speak out and write their views about the topics that concern them.

Practicing case study method facilitates the professional growth of teachers. Since this method needs collaborative efforts of the teachers, they can easily dispel the monotony of

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English language teaching. Also, applying case study to classroom teaching turns the teachers to act as "a member of a class of events and to call attention to its value" (Shulman, p.21). Naturally, teachers combine the technical aspects of language teaching with social and philosophical aspects that govern a particular situation in a society. Thus, teachers cement the gap between theory and practice.

Applying Case Studies to Classroom Teaching

Case studies work well with smaller or larger groups of students. It all depends on the teachers' assessment of students' standard.

To start with, teachers have to decide the concept to be taught. And then the learning outcome has to be decided. For instance, when students are expected to fare well in an interview, two different case studies related to successful and unsuccessful attempts of students have to be presented with proper details. This helps students do the discussions effectively.

Teachers can prepare content for case studies on their own or they can select the relevant content from authentic websites. In either case, teachers have to tailor the content according to the requirements of the students. Moreover, teachers have to familiarize the students with the content. They can adopt storytelling format that drives students to understand the context better, analyze the problems and suggest solutions. Preparation or selection of contents can bring maximum benefits to the teaching and learning process because case study method is "learner-centered and is based on the interactions between students and teachers and students within a group." (Vicki Golich, p.3)

Generally, in a classroom situation, case studies focus on reading comprehension and speaking activities. Students tend to read the case studies carefully since their aim is to do the discussion well. Here starts the learning process. Comprehending the content helps learners become thorough with the functional grammar. This makes speaking practice easier and effective. Moreover, learners become confident of using English language.

The second important aspect of using case study method in a classroom is to assess the performance of the learners. Because, it guides the learners on how to do the discussion, present their views, examine the problems, and suggest solutions. But, prior to the discussion or role play performance, teachers must explain to the students how rubrics decide the assessment of their performance. Teachers can give this task as class work or homework. In both the contexts, teachers have to train the students to complete the tasks successfully.

Case Study Topics

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Teachers have to select the topics based on interest, standard and requirement of the students. Moreover, the selection of topics must attract the students to relate themselves to the situations taken up for discussion. It is quite easier for language teachers to create original case studies, which may be connected with the current issues. Or else, teachers can also rely on authentic websites that offer case studies on a wide range of general topics like "Choosing the best college, Planning a vacation, Adopting a healthier lifestyle, Arranging an inter-collegiate meet, Selecting the right smart phone", etc.

Teaching business English is rather effective when case studies included topics like "Marketing a product, Choosing a location for opening a new company, Enhancing the existing facilities for the employees, Improving the accessibility of the newly opened show room, Organizing a trade fair to show case the company's products" etc. This case study practice in the words of Uber Grosse, "carries multiple benefits for students, such as providing opportunities to read, speak, listen, and write. Moreover, vocabulary and grammatical structures are introduced and practiced in the context of the case, instead of traditional drills." (p.134)

Methodology

Involving second language learners in spoken activities is the biggest challenge to English language teachers all over the globe. However hard the teachers try to motivate the learners, fear of making errors in the foreign language prevents them from speaking. Hence, when case study method is introduced, it builds the right ambience for the learners to speak out their ideas. Using proper content can help the students practice English speaking skills.

Initially, teachers have to introduce the topic, explain background information, discuss vocabulary and linguistic components related to the content in detail. This process familiarizes the students with the topic to be discussed. In addition, teachers have to divide students into groups, discuss how to analyze the case and the steps involved in highlighting the problems and suggesting methods to find solutions. After this, the case study in printed or digital form has to be given to the students. This pre-learning process assists students in comprehending the content well.

Case study method can bring maximum benefits to the students when teachers follow certain steps. First of all, teachers have to be facilitators. Their focus must be solely on imparting English knowledge to students and thereafter examine their skills. This approach motivates the learners largely and makes them more expressive. Furthermore, teachers have to observe the discussion, give feedback and offer suggestions to improve students' performance. When teachers are methodical, this process helps remove the inhibitions of second language learners. In fact, this method aids teachers in teaching English for Specific Purposes (ESP) as well.

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Assessment

Assessing the performance of students drives them to participate in the activities with more involvement. Assessment kindles the competitive spirit among the learners. Further, it leads to a faster learning rate. Teachers have to assess individual and group performance. Individual assessment makes learners practice linguistic contents well and group assessment encourages the learners to have collective efforts.

Every work atmosphere requires employees to have team spirit. In fact, assessment develops team spirit among the students. If teachers want to have optimum conditions for learning, it is necessary to explain the rubrics used for assessing students' performance. This makes students to be cautious about their efforts. And they learn functionalities of the language with precision.

Scheduling Case Study

Teachers can use case study method in the classroom when students have gained sufficient knowledge of grammar and vocabulary. In fact, it will be apt to use this method at the close of the semester. Also, announcement has to be given at the beginning of the course that there will be case study discussion for awarding marks. Hence, students try to grasp syntax and try to perform all the speaking activities with great attention.

Case study method will be absolutely beneficial to the students when they realize the importance of eloquence needed for doing a discussion, which will form a part of the job that they may be doing in their future. In turn, even the recalcitrant students show keenness on taking up the tasks assigned to them. Above all, introducing this method at an apt time depends on the teachers' understanding of their students' standard and rate of their acquisition of English knowledge.

Advantages

The merits of using case study method in an English classroom are manifold. Firstly, the task-based approach removes the flatness of English language teaching. As Jelena rightly points out that this method has "the application of theoretical non-linguistic knowledge and concepts into language learning."(p.555) Secondly, this student-centered approach encourages group communication and interaction among the participants. Thirdly, it develops students' personal, interpersonal, problem solving, critical thinking and analytical skills. Fourthly, their exposure to different media enhances their social and business outlook making them fit for the job that they plan to do in their future. Ultimately, this method changes the total personality of the second language learners.

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Challenges

Teachers and students face few challenges in this method. To begin with the difficulties of teachers, choosing the right case for the learners is a task since it is associated with the use of content and linguistic features that best suit the learners. It is a time-consuming process as Lundeberg feels that this method takes "a longer time to cover compared to the traditional, lecture-based ones" (p.10). Having to meet academic and personal demands, time factor is a rare commodity to teachers. Unless teachers aim at revolutionizing English language teaching and direct the interest of the learners towards learning English with precision, this method may not bring the desired outcome.

The next problem is about explaining the assessment pattern and training the students to meet the rubrics. Getting students' cooperation is partially effective as teachers have to motivate the heterogeneous group of students. Coupled with this issue is the noisy atmosphere created in the classroom since this method focuses more on discussion and exchange of ideas. Obviously, English language teachers develop misunderstanding with the other subject teachers.

Speaking about the difficulties of students, the first and foremost one is connected with the intricacies of English language. Picking the right usage might be beyond the non-native speakers' capacity. Alongside, efforts to use English language effectively may at times lower the interest and confidence level of the learners. In general, when students are bent on acquiring language skills through this method, they can ignore the problems as well.

Learning is a life-long process be it to the teachers or the students. Educational and socio-economic background of the teachers and the students expand or ruin their performance. Especially, the teachers and the students from lower socio-economic status along with rural educational background struggle to perform better than those who are from higher socio-economic position. Yet, the repeated training programs and the performance appraisal result in the paradigm shift in the growth of these teachers. Naturally, they become empathetic to students from lower SES and they figure out the ways to improve their learning capacity. These teachers are successful in their attempts, because they are fully aware of the difficulties and the means to become successful.

Though the merits outweigh the demerits, teachers can easily overcome the challenges through their dedication and devotion to English language teaching.

Model Case Study
Situation: Who is the best candidate for the job?
A private school advertises vacancy for recruiting a language teacher to work in a rural area. Thousands of applications are received. Four candidates are shortlisted from the applicants. The

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first candidate possesses higher qualifications with no teaching experience. The second candidate is less qualified but has experience of teaching children in urban areas. The third candidate has poor qualifications but possesses more years of teaching experience in rural areas. The fourth candidate holds the required qualification with a rural educational background. Now choosing the right candidate becomes a dilemma for the management.

Candidate Assessment Form
Use the following parameters to rank the candidates:
1. Suits all of the requirements
2. Suits some of the requirements
3. Suits one of the requirements
4. Suits none of the requirements

Candidate 1

Education				Experience				Interpersonal skills				Strengths/Weaknesses
1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4	
Remarks				Remarks				Remarks				Remarks

Candidate 2

Education				Experience				Interpersonal skills				Strengths/Weaknesses
1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4	
Remarks				Remarks				Remarks				Remarks

Candidate 3

Education				Experience				Interpersonal skills				Strengths/Weaknesses
1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4	
Remarks				Remarks				Remarks				Remarks

Candidate 4

Education				Experience				Interpersonal skills				Strengths/Weaknesses
1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4	
Remarks				Remarks				Remarks				Remarks

Teachers can give such a task to the students and monitor how the discussion progresses. This task has to be supplemented with the candidate assessment forms. It simplifies the discussion process to the students and enhances the desired learning outcome. While learners participate in this activity enthusiastically besides using their reasoning abilities, teachers act as facilitators thereby enabling the learners to use language precisely.

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Conclusion

To conclude, the case study method makes second language acquisition interesting as it is learner-centered and task-oriented. It encourages collaborative learning, helps retain information, builds rapport between students and teachers, harnesses students' abilities to analyze, judge and make decisions thus preparing them to fit into their future positions well.

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The Use of Code-switching in Teaching Asian Tertiary-Level EFL Students Writing Skill

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Abstract

The dispute over code-switching (CS) dates back to the 19th century. Numerous studies have been carried out to investigate how code-switching functions, the perception toward code-switching and the motive behind the use of code-switching. However, the use of code-switching in teaching writing skill has yet to be explored deeply, specifically for tertiary-level students in Asia. Therefore, in order to fulfil the gap in the current existing literature, this paper looks into how code-switching is employed so as to teach writing skill to Asian EFL tertiary-level students.

Keywords: Code-switching, Functions, Perception, Writing skill, Asian EFL students.

Introduction

Using the native language in foreign language classes has generated controversy since the 19th century (Hall & Cook, 2012). In other words, in terms of language education, code-switching is one of the most contentious issues (Ellis, 2013). Because of this, more studies have been carried out by linguists on the topic of code-switching in pedagogical settings (Macaro, 2001; Moore, 2002; Reini, 2008; Üstünel, 2004; Üstünel & Seedhouse, 2005; Cancino & Diaz, 2020). Undoubtedly, the findings of these studies will lead to varied standpoints.

Concerning the use of code switching, there are two main perspectives. While one side is against code-switching and advocates for teaching entirely in the target language, the other is in favor of code-switching and advocates using CS to some extent.

On one hand, there is much opposition against the L1 use in classes, especially in EFL

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classroom. Ellis stated that excessive native language use may hinder students absorbing the target language (1997). According to many teachers and researchers, code-switching in the classroom is a counterproductive behavior and indicates that students will not be able to absorb the target language (Willis, 1981; Cummins & Swain, 2014). According to Macaro (2001), codeswitching is the mother tongue's disruption of the acquisition of the target language. Cook (2001) backed up his claims and pointed out that the input of the target language would be impacted by the use of the mother tongue. They all question how learners will be able to fully grasp target language conversations if they are always using their mother tongue.

On the other hand, it has been claimed and demonstrated time and time again that using a target language exclusively in the classroom restricts students' potential and their rate of language acquisition (Levine, 2003; Polio & Duff, 1994; Kim & Elder, 2005). Some researchers claim that moderate and strategic code-switching to the mother tongue may bring about numerous advantages (Rezvani & Rasekh, 2011; Levine, 2011; Kang, 2008; Kim and Elder, 2005; Macaro, 2001; Cook, 2001). In support of this assertion, Hall & Cook (2012) contend that professors should not discourage students from utilizing code switching because it occurs naturally in language classrooms. He contends that maximizing the target language does not require that the mother tongue be completely disregarded during lessons (Bilgin, 2016). Sampson (2012) further claimed that ceasing to utilize a first language entirely would be equivalent to ending classroom interaction. He rejected the idea that students should speak while using their target language, arguing that studies have shown that code-switching might have an impact on classroom instruction.

There have previously been numerous studies that focus on the purposes and motivations of code-switching as well as perception of CS (Cahyani & Barnett, 2018; Bilgin, 2016; Ahmad, 2009; Song & Lee, 2019; Rezvani & Rasekh, 2011; Ibrahim et al., 2013; Nabifar & Khalilzad, 2017; Temesgen & Hailu, 2022). However, the use of code-switching when teaching language skills, particularly writing skills, to EFL tertiary-level students in Asia has not yet been thoroughly investigated, which motivates me to obtain a deeper understanding of this topic. Existing studies and papers on the different kinds and functions of code-switching in EFL teaching as well as teachers' attitudes toward code-switching will be reviewed in order to identify any gap and possibly answer the research questions. It will also be examined as to what extent code-switching is used to teach tertiary-level EFL learners writing skill. The suggested research questions are listed below:

1) What are the types of code-switching and the functions of code-switching in EFL English language teaching?
2) How do teachers perceive the use of code-switching in teaching Asian EFL tertiary-level students?
3) To what extent is code-switching implemented in teaching Asian EFL learners writing skill?

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The study's findings are important from theoretical and practical standpoints. From a theoretical standpoint, the results will add to the current existing literature on the use of code-switching in the instruction of English language skills to tertiary-level EFL learners, specifically writing competence, as this is a topic that has yet to receive much in-depth and thorough research. Practically speaking, the findings can help EFL practitioners, educators, or teachers reevaluate how they teach writing to EFL tertiary-level students in the classroom. As a fellow English instructor who teaches tertiary-level EFL students, the discovery will undoubtedly assist me in developing appropriate teaching discourse as I develop my students' writing skills.

As it gives a greater knowledge of the forms, roles of code-switching and its advantages in enhancing language acquisition, this paper is equally useful for policymakers. This research would also add to the existing literature already available on code-switching, particularly with regard to its application in speaking classrooms. The results of this study's findings would also provide more profound understanding of the use of code-switching in English language skill classes and its purposes as a linguistic tool in EFL classrooms. Finally, this work will serve as a foundation for future scholars to investigate new facets of code-switching as a crucial linguistic method.

The scope of the study will revolve around EFL students at tertiary level and focus on Asian EFL tertiary-level students only. Therefore, studies outside of Asia or studies concentrating on students from different age groups will not be the focus.

Definition of Key Terms

There are several definitions of code-switching created by scholars and linguists.

Code-switching, for instance, was defined as a phenomenon of switching from one language to another in the same discourse (Nunan & Carter, 2001), whereas classroom code-switching is also defined as the use of more than one linguistic code by the teacher and students alternately during lessons (Lin, 2008). It is also further defined that CS is the systematic alternation of two or more languages in a single statement or discourse for communication related reasons (Levine, 2011; Gardner-Chloros, 2009). Lin's definition will serve as the definition of reference for this investigation.

Writing allows authors to communicate with others by putting their ideas and thoughts in writing. Writers must find, organize, and explain their thoughts through a mental process (Wingersky, 1999, p.4). Therefore, it is important to consider writing-related aspects such as grammar, vocabulary, mechanics, theme, and organization while teaching writing skills (Hartfiel et al., 1985, p.89). However, just two sub-skills, namely grammar and vocabulary, will be investigated in this study.

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Literature Review and Analysis

Comparing Types of Code-switching

There are two main kinds of code-switching discussed in most studies linked to it, which are inter-sentential code-switching and intra-sentential code-switching. For instance, intra-sentential code-switching and inter-sentential code-switching are two types that Myers-Scotton (1993) categorizes when discussing codeswitching. Kashi (2018) solely looked at the impacts of inter- and intra-sentential code-switching when examining the effects of code-switching on learning the past tense.

Nonetheless, tag or extra-sentential code-switching is a different kind of code-switching (Muysken, 2011). As a result, there are three main types of code-switching from a grammatical standpoint.

A study by Ataş & San-Simşek (2021) found that discourse markers and phrase/sentence level shifts were the most frequently used code-switching types, suggesting that intra-sentential code-switching is the most prevalent type of code-switching. This is also in line with research that indicated that inter-sentential switching was less common than intra-sentential switching (Rezvani, 2011; Rahimi & Jafari, 2011). In a similar class pattern, the study by Yong & Fong (2020) also shows that novice teachers have the tendency to use intra-sentential switching whereas experienced teachers have the tendency to use inter- sentential switching. In contrast, Bhatti & Said (2018) discovered that inter-sentential code- switching and tag were the most prevalent patterns noticed when watching the lectures.

When it comes to the purpose and also effect of types of code-switching on learning, Kashi (2018) found that there is a substantial difference between learning the past tense when intra-sentential and inter-sentential code switching are utilized. More specifically, it was discovered that inter-sentential code-switching has a greater impact on learning past tense in comparison with intra-sentential code-switching. This is in line with Novianti's study (2003), of which findings asserted that inter-sentential switching is a more effective kind of code-switching for grammar training. The results of these studies, however, are at odds with those of Kebeya (2013), who came to the conclusion that students who are often exposed to intra-sentential code-switching had much better performance than those who are frequently exposed to inter-sentential switching.

Functions of Code-switching in EFL Classroom

According to Cahyani & Barnett's (2018) study, teachers primarily switch codes for educational, managerial, and social purposes. Also supporting this are research by Temesgen & Hailu (2022), Ataş & San-imşek (2021), Ferguson (2009), Grant & Nguyen (2017),

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Ferguson (2003) and others. It is acceptable to assume that the knowledge construction, classroom management, and interpersonal relations are the three major purposes why teachers use code-switching in the classroom.

Knowledge Construction

When it comes to the purpose of knowledge building, teachers primarily use code-switching to vividly explain, translate, and illustrate the knowledge. The results of the studies by Duff & Polio (1994), Bashir & Naveed (2015), Bhatti & Said (2018) and Rezvani & Rasekh (2011) are consistent with the finding of Yong & Fong's study (2020), which revealed that for EFL classrooms in which English is considered as the target language, both novice and experienced teachers use the native language during the lessons mainly for explanation and translation of lexical items and grammar. However, this study differs with Yao's (2011), which discovered that the primary knowledge-constructing functions for code-switching are interpretation, translation, and questioning. This discrepancy may be caused by the viewpoint of various class kinds, each of which uses code-switching differently in their classrooms.

Code-switching is a method that teachers utilize to better clarify instruction during class (Yao, 2011; Grant & Nguyen, 2017), stress points, and cite others' words to aid students' learning in addition to explaining, translating, and questioning the topic (Gulzar, 2010; Ibrahim & Armia, 2013). This is consistent with research by Bhatti & Said (2018) and Ataş & San-Simşek (2021), whose study found that code-switching is employed when translating new terms, clarifying challenging ideas, restating crucial details, providing extra information, and changing the subject. Additionally, according to their study, teachers primarily employed L1 when tutoring students after lessons. Similarly, it is also discovered that teachers utilized code switching as a means of instruction to provide explanation, an introduction to a new topic, or an additional comment (Camilleri, 2001).

Classroom Management

A vast majority of studies relating to the functions of code-switching mention the classroom-managing function of it (Yong & Fong, 2020; Yao, 2011; Duff & Polio, 1994; Alrabah & Aldaihani, 2016). Bhatti & Said (2018) claim that teachers often utilize code-switching to capture students' attention as well as uphold discipline with them prior to, during, and after lessons. According to studies by Bashir & Naveed (2015), Ferguson (2003), Grant & Nguyen (2017), and Ferguson (2009), code-switching is used to maintain disciplinary rules and control learners' behavior through praise and criticism.

Interpersonal Relations

In addition to the previously mentioned two purposes, the interpersonal aspect is

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another important reason why teachers choose to code-switch. It is recommended that professors use their native tongues to motivate and involve students in the course, offer praise or criticism, and encourage learning (Yao, 2011; Yong & Fong, 2020; Ataş, & San-imşek, 2021; Bashir & Naveed, 2015). This will help students acquire a second language.

The widespread usage of code-switching is due to the importance for EFL teachers to give students a successful classroom experience with less stress. According to Istifci's study (2019), code-switching is used to foster a positive environment and express one's personality. Furthermore, according to Ferguson (2003; 2009), the use of CS helps to humanize the educational setting. Rezavni & Rasekh's (2011) findings support earlier researchers' findings (Duff & Polio, 1990; Hobbs & Payne, 2010) that language teachers commonly use the native language to perform a variety of pedagogical and social tasks that could all improve interaction between teachers and learners within classroom.

Additionally, code-switching is utilized to improve interaction between instructors and students. According to Grant & Nguyen (2017), rather than pedagogical considerations, the teacher's CS may occasionally be heavily influenced by affective factors. Their research indicates that CS is used to establish rapport with students and share identities. Similar to this, professors allegedly code-switched to foster solidarity and close ties with the students before, during, and after the lessons, according to Bhatti & Said (2018). Furthermore, code-switching is utilized to demonstrate sympathy and solidarity with other students, according to Gulzar (2010). In summary, it may be argued that the thoughtful and skilful use of CS can promote more open and effective teacher-student communication in the classroom.

The Correlation between Teacher's Level of Experience and Their Perception of Code-switching in Teaching EFL Tertiary-level Students

Despite having different levels of teaching experience, it seems that both experienced and novice teachers typically have a favorable attitude toward code-switching in the field of language educating. For instance, it is discovered that both novice and experienced teachers have a favorable opinion of code-switching despite their differences in experience (Yong & Fong, 2020). This finding also coincides with previous studies (Istifci, 2019; Goh & Hashim, 2006; Bhatti & Said, 2018; Lehti-Eklund, 2013; Makulloluwa, 2013; Alrabah & Aldaihani, 2016; Bilgin, 2016).

However, some educators continue to have a slightly unfavorable attitude regarding code-switching. For instance, Cheng (2013) found that professors still have a negative attitude toward code-switching even though code-switching is frequently used in classes. Although teachers claimed they did not code-switch, an investigation by Ibrahim & Armia (2013) revealed they did so for pedagogical reasons. Even though teachers reported negative attitudes toward using L1 in L2 instruction, Alrabah & Aldaihani (2016) also came to the conclusion that they did so for pedagogical and management goals. Moreover,

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it is stated in some studies that teachers do have some guilt and uncomfortable feelings over using the mother tongue in the setting of foreign language classroom (Wang & Kirkpatrick, 2013;Kirkpatrick, 2014).

The Correlation between Teacher's Perception of Code-switching in Teaching EFL Tertiary-level Students and the Frequency of Usage

Code-switching is more likely to be used in lessons by experienced teachers than by newer ones. For instance, the study by Yong and Fong (2020) revealed that experienced EFL teachers employed code-switching with higher frequency than novice teachers, which is consistent with earlier papers, despite the fact that both novice and experienced teachers perceive code-switching favorably (Duff & Polio, 1994; Puspawati, 2018; Bilgin, 2016; Songxaba et al., 2017).

Although teachers regularly code-switch, this does not necessarily indicate that they are incompetent in terms of English proficiency. For instance, Moghadam (2016) claimed that the more EFL teachers employ code-switching during lessons, the higher their educational level actually is.

How frequently teachers utilize code-switching is also determined by their own personal perspectives and the personality of the teachers. For instance, Istifci's research (2019) found that while both novice and experienced teachers had favorable opinions toward the use of code-switching in the classroom, they rarely used it in the courses that were observed. This is largely because of the study's context—the teachers who took part in it work in an international school where English usage is given top priority. Furthermore, it is also revealed that some teachers code-switched frequently while others did so much less (Grant & Nguyen, 2017; Istifci, 2019).

Using Code-switching in Teaching EFL Tertiary-level Students Vocabulary

When it comes to developing writing skills, vocabulary learning should be given careful consideration because second language learners must have a sizable vocabulary because this aspect of language is seen as central to it and of crucial importance to language learners (Cook, 1992; Nation, 2001).

When teaching vocabulary to EFL students, switching codes is frequently used. To give an example, it is stated that most teachers code-switch when teaching vocabulary (Istifci, 2019; Levine, 2014; Gulzar, 2010; Macaro, 2009).

Teachers commonly use students' native languages while teaching lexical items because code-switching is viewed as a beneficial teaching approach due to its high effectiveness. Students that received lexical knowledge with L1 counterparts reportedly

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performed better than those who solely received L2 material (Lee & Macaro, 2013; Lee & Levine, 2020; Zhao & Macaro, 2016; Tian & Macaro, 2012; Blair & Morini, 2022). According to Macaro (2009), teachers' code-switching provided assistance for students to acquire concepts more quickly since it activates both native language and target language lexical items in the long-term memory, which allows better comprehension. As a result, the learning progress and students' understanding rate can both be enhanced by a balanced usageof the native language in EFL classes.

The frequent use of code-switching during vocabulary teaching is also attributable to students' favorable response to it as opposed to English-only instruction. According to Song & Lee (2019), it was discovered that when it came to vocabulary education, the students overwhelmingly preferred to have pictures and get instruction in their first language, whereas for English-only instruction, their objection was highly significant. As a result, it is proposed that English teachers should take code-switching into account while introducing new terms or phrases to their students rather than attempting to thoroughly explain their meanings in the English-only mode.

Overall, these results imply that code-switching could be intentionally utilized as a tactic to inform and explain word meaning, leading to higher learning performance. Comprehending the effects of code-switching on foreign language vocabulary development begins with this work.

Using Code-switching in Teaching EFL Tertiary-level Students Grammar

According to Larsen-Freeman & Celce-Murcia (2016), grammar is thought of as the foundation for learning a second language, hence it cannot be eliminated from language instruction. In a similar spirit, Ellis (1989) places a high value on learning a new language with a focus on grammar. According to Purpura (2004), understanding grammar is crucial to learning a second language. Considering both the use and effects of code switching on grammar learning is crucial because the aim of this paper is to provide a more profound insight of the use of code-switching in teaching writing to EFL learners.

There are very few sources that discuss using code-switching to teach grammar to EFL tertiary students. There is evidence that when teaching sub-skills like grammar, teachers frequently code-switch (Istifci, 2019; Sert, 2005; Yao, 2011; Bilgin, 2016; Levine, 2014; Gulzar, 2010; Bonyadi & Bonyadi, 2021). Code-switching is frequently employed by both novice and experienced teachers while teaching students in sub-skills like grammar, vocabulary and language skill such as writing (Yong & Fong, 2020).

Numerous studies have proven that code-switching is useful in providing assistance to EFL students in acquiring grammar (Hinkel & Fotos, 2002; Kashi, 2018; Norris & Ortegga, 2000; Chandler, 2003; Ellis, 2001; Ferris, 2004; Cook, 2001; Kebeya, 2013). For instance,

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Cook (2001) argues that teachers can use code-switching to teach grammatical rules explicitly and assist students in better understanding them. He also acknowledges that code-switching can reduce the amount of time and effort teachers need to spend teaching grammar structures and rules.

Kashi (2018) found that there is a substantial difference between learning the past tense between when inter-sentential code-switching and intra-sentential code switching are utilized when examining the effects of various types of code-switching on grammar acquisition. More specifically, it was discovered that inter-sentential code-switching, in comparison with intra-sentential code-switching, has a greater impact on learning past tense. The results of these studies, however, contradict those of Kebeya (2013), who came to the conclusion that students when exposed to intra-sentential code-switching have much better academic performance than those who are exposed often to inter-sentential code-switching.

Conclusion

All in all, the aforementioned findings are significant and useful for the investigation as they have provided some supporting information and evidence which can help answer the research questions to a certain extent.

To begin with, it can be concluded from the findings that there are 3 types of code-switching, which include intra-sentential, inter-sentential and tag or extra-sentential code-switching. It is revealed that most teachers tend to utilize and focus on intra-sentential and inter-sentential code-switching more than extra-sentential code-switching. Regarding the functions of code-switching, there are three main motives behind teachers' code-switching, namely knowledge construction, classroom management and interpersonal relation.

Moreover, when it comes to a teacher's perception towards code-switching, a vast majority of both novice and experienced teachers react positively towards code-switching. Experienced teachers seem to have a higher frequency of using code-switching during their lessons.

Finally, code-switching is also revealed to be highly effective in terms of teaching vocabulary and grammar for EFL students, as the findings revealed that students received better results when teachers code-switch than when teachers provide English-only instruction.

Implication

Numerous implications can be suggested from the results of the present investigation. To begin with, it is crucial to boost teachers' understanding of how useful code-switching is in terms of improving student comprehension. Instead of blindly following the English-only

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policy and feeling guilty of code-switching, teachers need to be more open-minded and have more awareness of code-switching in order to use it as a helpful technique for teaching English. The government should also allocate more funding towards staff-training programs for EFL teachers to help them become more conscious of their own use of CS, understand its value as a teaching technique.

The findings of this paper can also be used to assist teachers, teacher trainers, practicing teachers, teaching assistants and policy makers who work in the pedagogical field. According to the study, code-switching is a normal phenomenon and a useful technique that improves student learning and aids teachers in making their points more clearly. Code-switching is not always something that should be avoided in EFL classes. Contrarily, the results show that effective and deliberate use of code-switching can improve language acquisition, aid students in expressing ideas more clearly, and assist teachers in avoiding misconceptions throughout the entire process of presenting instructional content. As a result, methods for educating candidates to use code-switching as a conscious teaching tactic in particular pedagogical settings should be included in teacher-training programs. The use of code-switching in EFL classes may be beneficial if done so sensibly in particular circumstances.

With these findings, we are much closer to knowing the answers to the questions concerning the utilization of code-switching when teaching writing skill to Asian EFL tertiary students, but much more research is still required to confirm the use of code-switching in teaching writing skill to Asian EFL tertiary students. Before academics and policymakers can make clear recommendations, more research is required.

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Grammatical Gender: An Overview of Gender Assignment in Garhwali

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Abstract

This paper examines the grammatical gender assignment system in Garhwali using both phonological and semantic principles. In the semantic assignment rules, nouns for sex-differentiable male humans, male animals, and male deities in Garhwali are masculine, while the nouns for sex-differentiable female humans, female animals, and female deities are feminine. The assignment of all the nouns in the language to the two grammatical genders cannot be explained by these semantic assignment rules alone and results in a large residue of nouns which are also analyzed through the phonological assignment rules. Based on an empirical analysis, the author concludes that most nouns ending in front unrounded vowels in Garhwali are feminine except those ending in /i/. In contrast, the majority of those ending in back rounded vowels and the back unrounded vowel /a/ are masculine.

Keywords: Grammatical Gender, Gender Assignment, Indo-Aryan, Central Pahari, Garhwali.

Introduction

According to Hockett (1958:231), grammatical gender is defined as classes of nouns that are mirrored in the behaviour of related words. As stated by Corbett (1991: 1), this categorization of grammatical gender often, though not always, correlates to a real-world biological sex distinction, at least in part. Kramer (2020: 46) defines grammatical gender as the categorization of nouns into two or more classes based on criteria such as animacy, humanness, social gender for people, and/or biological sex for animals, or both, for at least some animate noun and reflected by agreement patterns on other elements in the clause. Therefore, agreement is a crucial concept in grammatical gender. The existence of grammatical gender and the number of genders in a language are proven by evidence of agreement, implying that grammatical gender depends on the form. However, grammatical gender has a "semantic core" (Aksenov 1984 cited in Corbett 1991) and is not solely dependent on form. As a result, even though their precise functions vary from language to language, gender is concerned with both form and meaning. Grammatical gender can be determined in certain languages solely by meaning, whereas in others, it can be determined by a combination of both meaning and form.

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Gender Assignment

How do native speakers of a language determine the grammatical gender of hundreds of Nouns? Both linguists and non-linguists have always considered this subject to be intriguing. Corbett (1991: 7) states that native speakers are able to assign nouns a grammatical gender systematically. He offers three justifications for this. First, it is acceptable to presume that native speakers do not remember the nouns individually since else they would make more mistakes in gender usage. Second, words that have been acquired from other languages take on gender, demonstrating that gender may be assigned and not only remembered. Third, speakers assign invented words gender and do so with a high degree of precision. Native speakers are, therefore, able to assign grammatical gender to nouns in a systematic way.

In this paper, I will attempt to analyze the system of grammatical gender assignment in Garhwali in two ways- through its semantics and formal aspects. Traditional grammars of Garhwali and other linguistic works on the language simply state the existence of two genders, masculine and feminine, based on biological sex and as evident by their morphology and not through their agreement with other elements in the clause. This paper attempts to study the assignment of grammatical gender as defined in the previous section, including both semantic and formal aspects.

Semantic Assignment in Garhwali

As noted above, all languages have a semantic core to their gender assignment system, even if they may not always be conclusive. On analysis of Garhwali nouns, it becomes amply clear that semantic assignment rules alone are inconclusive to account for the assignment of all the nouns in the language. Based on my analysis, the semantic assignment rules in Garhwali may be described as follows:

> *Semantic Assignment Rule in Garhwali*
> 1. All sex-differentiable nouns denoting male animates (male humans and male animals) and male deities are masculine.
> 2. All sex-differentiable nouns denoting female animates (female humans and female animals) and female deities are feminine.

Thus, words for male humans, male animals, and male deities are masculine in Garhwali, whereas those for female humans, female animals, and female deities are feminine. In addition, some inanimates, such as the sun and earth, are assigned a gender based on their mythological treatment as gods and goddesses. Accordingly, /sʊrɟ/ 'Sun' is masculine, and /pɪr̪t̪ʰɪ/ 'Earth' is feminine.

These semantic rules leave us with a sizeable semantic residue of nouns whose assignment cannot be accounted for by strict semantic criteria. This residue consists of all inanimate nouns. The neuter gender is absent in Garhwali, unlike some other Indo-Aryan languages, which have preserved the three-gender system of their ancestral language Sanskrit.

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All these nouns in the semantic residue are assigned one of the two genders in Garhwali, and their assignment criteria are based on formal rules, as we shall explore ahead.

Table 1: The semantic assignment of nouns in Garhwali

Masculine gender	Feminine gender
male humans E.g., /nɔnʊ/ 'boy' /mɛ̃s/ 'man'	*female humans* E.g., /nɔnɪ/ 'girl' /kəɟʲaɳ/ 'woman/wife'
male animals/birds/insects E.g., /bəl̪d̪/ 'bull' /kʊkʊr/ 'dog'	*female animals/birds/insects* E.g., /gʰʊgʰʊt̪ɪ/ 'Dove' /bakʰrɪ/ 'she-goat'
male deities E.g., /bʰɛ̃ro/ 'Bhairav' /sʊrɟ/ 'Sun'	*female deities* E.g., /ləcʰmɪ/ 'Lakshmi' /kəlĩka/ 'Kali'
Residue	
all non-sex differentiable nouns E.g., /cɔk/ 'Courtyard' /kʊʈʰar/ 'Grain house' /sarɪ/ 'field' /kʊɽɪ/ 'house'	

The residue in both these classes cannot be classified based on an additional semantic criterion, primarily because of the presence of 'Variable Gender' in Garhwali. Many animates (and inanimates) have words in both genders, irrespective of their biological gender. For instance, 'Cow' which is biologically female, has two words in Garhwali-/gɔɽʊ/ (grammatically masculine) and /gɔɽɪ/ (grammatically feminine). It is not possible through semantic criteria to account for the gender assignment of such words. It, therefore, requires a formal system based on morphological or phonological criteria to account for the assignment of all nouns comprehensively.

Formal Assignment

As we saw above, sex-differentiable nouns are assigned gender according to their semantic roles. However, in many languages, it is not possible to account for the assignment of all the nouns into genders solely on the basis of their meanings. Nouns that are not sex-differentiable are assigned gender on the basis of form resulting in a large number of nouns that fall outside the semantic assignment rules, and in such languages, it is imperative to identify those formal assignment rules (Corbett 1991). Corbett (1991) divides these rules into

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morphological and phonological, the latter referring to just the segment and the former to the morphemes.

Phonological Assignment in Garhwali

It is generally known that in Indo-Aryan languages, phonological rules play a significant role in gender assignment, but this study aims to study it empirically.

To study the phonological assignment system of Garhwali in a limited time, I have employed the random sampling method by studying every tenth page of a dictionary written by native speakers (Purohit & Benjwal 2007) and classified all marked nouns on the basis of their last vowel. It is to be noted that Indo-Aryan languages have two types of nouns: nouns that have overt markers (suffixes) and nouns that have lost their suffixes in the course of the development of Modern Indo-Aryan languages from Old Indo-Aryan via Pali/Prakrit/Apabhramsa (Masica 1991). The latter end in a consonant, and the former usually has the same suffixes as their qualifiers in agreement. However, the gender assigned to certain nouns in the Modern Indo-Aryan languages is not the same as in Sanskrit.

To systematically analyze the assignment of nouns to grammatical genders in this study, I classified and analyzed all nouns that appear on every tenth page of this dictionary. As the dictionary labels every noun as masculine or feminine, I have used that as a benchmark to differentiate between them. I have omitted all the nouns that are marked as borrowed (usually from English and Persian) in the dictionary. This dictionary also includes, albeit with labels, words from the Jaunsari and Bhotia languages due to the authors' perception of these being varieties of Garhwali only. For the present study, I have omitted them since Bhotia is a group of Tibeto-Burman languages, and the claim of Jaunsari being a variety of Garhwali is disputed by some linguists, including Grierson (1904) who had classified it under West Pahari languages. Many borrowed Hindi-Urdu words have not been labelled as such in the dictionary. I have tried to identify and omit many such words from the data, but some might have been included in the data and can, thus, affect the results.

I separated the nouns ending in different vowels and listed them according to their endings. This gave me an actual breakup of the percentage of each such class representing masculine and feminine nouns ending in different vowels. It is to be noted that while classifying the words, I constantly marked the nouns with variable gender differently but did not segregate them from other nouns for the study of the assignment. They are easily identifiable in the dictionary since nouns with masculine and feminine forms are found nearby.

Although this method involves only ten percent of all nouns in the dictionary, it gives a fair idea of the language's assignment system, which can be further analyzed by studying all nouns in the dictionary, including those that end in a consonant, in the future.

The resulting data, segregated into masculine and feminine words with different endings, give an exact number of words that end in each vowel, which is shown below in the table and the chart:

Table 2: Distribution of Nouns ending in a vowel.

Final vowel	Total number	Number of masculine nouns	%Masculine	Number of feminine nouns	%Feminine
/u/	03	03	**100**	-	**-**
/o/	04	04	**100**	-	**-**
/ʊ/	144	142	**98.61**	02	**1.39**
/ɔ/	11	10	**90.91**	01	**9.07**
/a/	84	72	**85.72**	12	**14.28**
/i/	10	07	**70**	03	**30**
/ɛ/	15	02	**13.33**	13	**86.66**
/ɪ/	120	15	**11.54**	105	**80.76**
/e/	00	-	**-**	-	**-**

The resulting data shows a pattern of phonological assignment in this language. As the above table and chart show, all nouns that end in the vowels /u/ and /o/ are masculine, and a majority of nouns ending in /ʊ/, /a/, /i/, and /ɔ/ are also masculine. On the other hand, a majority of nouns that end in /ɪ/ and /ɛ/ are feminine, and no nouns end in /e/.

It is suitable to make generalizations about the Garhwali gender assignment on the basis of the above data. However, it has its limitations and may be better enforced by a detailed study involving all nouns in the dictionary in the future.

Almost all nouns ending in a back rounded vowel (/ʊ/, /u/, /o/, and /ɔ/) are masculine, with just three feminine exceptions. With 85.72%, most nouns ending in back unrounded vowel /a/ are also masculine, although the demarcation here is less sharp; the exceptions are 14.28% which are feminine. A majority of nouns ending in front unrounded vowels (/ɪ/ and /ɛ/) are feminine, although those ending in /i/ are exceptions to this pattern. 70% of nouns ending in /i/ are masculine as opposed to 30%, which are feminine. I did not encounter any noun ending in the consonant /e/. Also interesting is the fact that masculine nouns end in almost all the vowels; the space of feminine nouns is limited since there is no feminine noun ending in the vowels /u/, /e/, and /o/ in the data and only two of them end in /ʊ/ and just one ends in /ɔ/. Thus, almost no noun ending in back rounded vowels is feminine, making it the exclusive space of masculine nouns. In concrete numbers, a significant number of all nouns end in the three vowels /a/, /ɪ/, and /ʊ/- 144 alone in /ʊ/, 130 in /ɪ/ and 84 in /a/.

In the case of feminine nouns, it is clear that their dominant form is with the ending /ɪ/, as very few nouns (in concrete numbers) end in /ɛ/. Nouns that end in /a/ may occur in either

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masculine or feminine, even though a majority of them are also masculine. The distribution of feminine nouns ending in a vowel is represented as a pie chart in Figure 1.
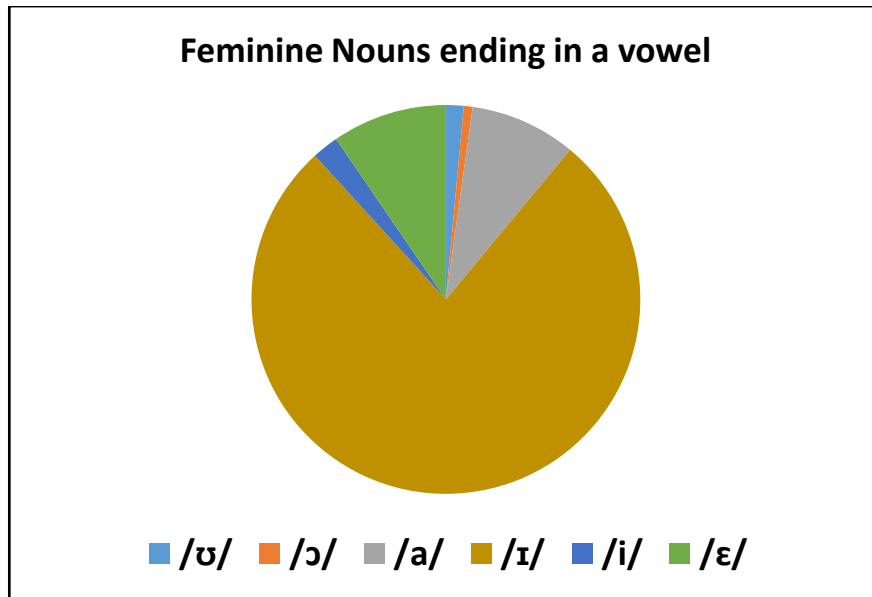
Figure 1: Distribution of feminine nouns ending in a vowel in Garhwali

In the case of masculine nouns, the form ending in /ʊ/ seems to be the dominant pattern. That this pattern is indeed the dominant pattern is also reinforced by the study of foreign words, which are adapted into Garhwali by adding/ʊ/ in the masculine and /ɪ/ in the feminine. Also, as the previous section shows, most sex-differentiable masculine nouns end in /ʊ/. The distribution of masculine nouns ending in a vowel is represented as a pie chart in Figure 2.
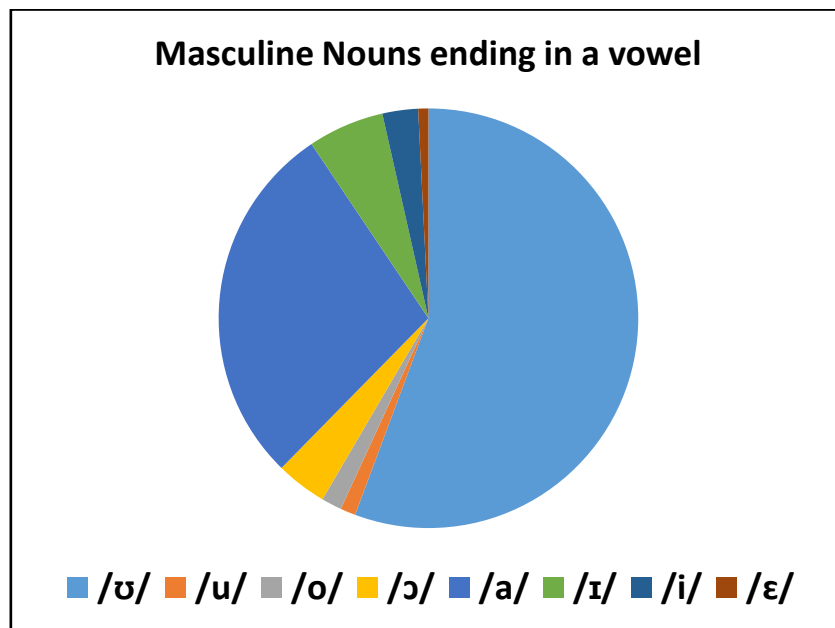

Figure 2: Distribution of masculine nouns ending in a vowel in Garhwali

Thus, the dominant pattern frequently attested is the masculine noun usually ending in /ʊ/ and the feminine noun ending in /ɪ/. Such words form around 63.17% of all nouns ending in vowels. In masculine nouns, 55.68% end in /ʊ/, whereas 44.32% end in other vowels. In feminine nouns, a whopping 77.20% end in /ɪ/, and just 22.80% end in other vowels. I call this basic form of masculine words ending in /ʊ/ and feminine words ending in /ɪ/the dominant pattern. 63.17% of all nouns ending in a vowel are regular, i.e., confirm the dominant pattern.

Thus, on the basis of the above results, the complete assignment system in Garhwali can be generalized by the following phonological rules, albeit with some exceptions:

Phonological Assignment in Garhwali
1. All nouns ending in back rounded vowels are masculine.
2. Most nouns ending in the back unrounded vowel /a/ are also masculine.
3. Most of the nouns ending in front unrounded vowels are feminine except those ending in /i/.

A limitation of this study is that these phonological rules are not exhaustive and have some exceptions. Nevertheless, they give an idea about the system of grammatical gender assignment in Garhwali. A more detailed study involving a more extensive data set can shed more light on this system. Since the Garhwali speakers are almost certainly bilingual in Hindi, it is difficult to segregate native and borrowed words, many of which are frequently used by the speakers. Another factor that I believe limits the result of this study is the regional variation; a dictionary collects words from various varieties of the language, and some varieties on the periphery may have more borrowed words from their neighbouring languages. Nevertheless, this study presents interesting empirical evidence to analyze the system of grammatical gender assignment in Garhwali.

Conclusion

In this paper, I have analyzed the system of grammatical gender assignment in Garhwali in two ways- through semantic rules and phonological rules. The semantic assignment rules in Garhwali that we have arrived at are that nouns referring to sex-differentiable animates (male humans, male animals) and male deities are masculine, whereas the nouns referring to sex-differentiable animates (female humans, female animals) and female deities are feminine. The semantic assignment rules alone are inconclusive to account for the assignment of all the nouns in the language. Based on this study, the phonological assignment rules in Garhwali are that all nouns ending in back rounded vowels are masculine; most of the nouns ending in back unrounded vowel /a/ are also masculine; and most of the nouns ending in front unrounded vowels are feminine except those ending in /i/.

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Consonantal Phonemes in Lotha:
A Study of Inventory, Realization, and Distribution

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Abstract

The phonemic inventory of Lotha consonants, a Tibeto-Burman language spoken by the Lotha people in Nagaland, India offers a remarkable inventory of consonants in Lotha. The study focuses on the inventory of consonants in the language, their phonetic realization, and their distribution in different phonological contexts. Lotha has thirty-seven consonantal phonemes that can be further classified based on their manner of articulation and place of articulation. Lotha consonants are divided into two classes: obstruents and sonorants. The obstruents consist of plosives, fricatives, and affricates, and are predominantly voiceless, whereas the sonorants comprises of nasals, liquids, and approximants, and are generally voiced. The study reveals that Lotha exhibits a sizeable inventory of obstruent sounds, with twenty-three consonantal phonemes, and fourteen sonorant phonemes. The work examines the voicing properties of these consonantal phonemes, with seventeen voiceless obstruents, six voiced obstruents, eight voiced sonorants, and six voiceless sonorants. The paper provides an in-depth analysis of Lotha consonants and their distribution of sounds in the language.

Keywords: Lotha, Naga, Tibeto-Burman, Phonology, Consonants, Voicing, Articulation

1. Introduction
1.1. Brief background of the Language

Genetically Lotha belongs to the central Naga group of the Tibeto-Burman sub-branch of the Sino-Tibetan language family, which is spoken by an estimated population of 179,000 individuals, as per the Census of India, 2011. Lotha is spoken all over Nagaland, with the majority of speakers residing in the Wokha district. Lotha does not possess its own script, and instead utilizes the Roman script introduced by the British and American Missionaries during the late 19th century.

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Despite having various dialectal variations, linguistic variation in Lotha is primarily observed at the lexical variation, specifically in the accent of the speakers, which may vary from village to village due to regional differences. Literary works in Lotha are predominantly composed in the variety spoken in central villages, specifically in and around Wokha town.

The study focuses on the standard variety of the Lotha language spoken in and around Wokha Town. By examining this variety, the study aims to provide a comprehensive analysis of the language's sound system, with a particular focus on the consonantal phonemes. Through this analysis, we hope to contribute to a deeper understanding of the Lotha consonantal phonemes.

Earlier works on the sound system of Lotha is limited and one of the earlier works was that of Acharya's (1973) 'Lotha Grammar' and Acharya's (1975) 'Lotha phonetic reader' where he provides a description on the phonetics of Lotha. His work includes a description on the segmental sounds and tones. He listed thirty-three consonantal phonemes and on the basis of the point of articulation Lotha has seven ways opposition which are bilabial /p, p^h, pf, f, m, m^h, w/, labiodentals / f, v /, alveolar /t, t^h, ts, ts^h, s, z, n, n^h, l, l^h, r, r^h/, palatal /c, c^h, š, ž, ñ, $ñ^h$, ŋ, $ŋ^h$, y /, velar/ k, k^h/ and glottal / h /.

On the basis of the manner of articulation, Lotha has seven ways opposition which are stops /p, p^h, t, t^h, c, c^h, k, k^{ly}/, affricates /p, pf, ts, ts^{ly}/, Nasals /m, m^h, n, n^h, ñ, $ñ^h$, ŋ, $ŋ^h$/, laterals /l, l^{ly}/, trills/r, r^h/ and glide /w, y/.

Bruhn (2014) on the other hand, in his work *'A Phonological reconstruction of Proto-Central Naga'* listed 30 consonantal sounds in Lotha /m, m̥, n, n̥, ŋ, ŋ̊, p, p^h, t, t^h, k, k^h, ʔ, ts, ts^h, tʃ, $tʃ^h$, f, v, s, z, ʃ, ʒ, h, l, l̥, r, r̥, j, j̥/.

1.2. Methodology

The methodology employed in this research study is a qualitative approach that draws on primary data collected from language consultants, who are native speakers of Lotha, through field work. The sample of language consultants comprised of eight individuals, both male and female, from various age groups, including both educated and illiterate individuals to provide a diverse range of perspectives. Data elicitation was conducted through interviews with language consultants, utilizing techniques such as word-lists and oral traditions. The collected data was subjected to thorough analysis using linguistic methods to examine the features of consonants in Lotha. This qualitative approach allowed for a deeper understanding of the consonantal sounds in the language and provided insight into the sound system of Lotha, consonants in particular.

The tools used for elicitation of data include methods of interviews, questionnaires and audio recorders like Zoom H4n, were used for recording and analyzing the data.

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2. **Consonantal Phonemes in Lotha**

The consonant table is presented in the conventional form, where the place of articulation is on the horizontal axis and the manner of articulation on the vertical axis. When there is a voicing contrast, the left sound shown in the table is voiceless and the right sound is voiced. Based on the above definitions, Lotha has thirty-seven consonantal phonemes: /p, pʰ, t, tʰ, c, cʰ, k, kʰ, m, m̥, n, n̥, ɲ, ɲ̊, ŋ, ŋ̊, f, v, s, z, ʃ, ʒ, h, ʔ, pf, bv, ts, dz, tsʰ, tʃ, dʒ, l, ḷ, r, r̥, w, j/. Based on the manner of articulation, Lotha has a total of nine stops, eight nasals, seven fricatives, seven affricates, two laterals, two trills and two approximants. Each of these series can be further classified into bilabial, labio-dental, alveolar, alveo-palatal, palatal, velar and glottal on the basis of their place of articulation. The consonant phonemes in Lotha have been identified to have allophonic variants. The allophonic variants of the consonant phonemes in Lotha are illustrated below:

The bilabial */p/* has three allophonic variants *[p], [p̄]* and *[b].*
The alveolar */t/* has two allophonic variants *[t]* and *[d].*
The palatal */c/* has two allophonic variants *[c]* and *[ɟ].*
The velar */k/* has three allophonic variants *[k], [k̄]* and *[g].*

Table 1 illustrated below represents the inventory of consonantal phonemes in Lotha:

	Bilabial	labio-dental	Alveolar	Post-alveolar	Palatal	Velar	Glottal
Stop	p pʰ		t tʰ		c cʰ	k kʰ	ʔ
Nasal	m m̥		n n̥		ɲ ɲ̊	ŋ ŋ̊	
Fricatives		f v	s z	ʃ ʒ			h
Affricates		pf bv	ts dz tsʰ		tʃ dʒ		
Lateral			l ḷ				
Flap			r r̥				
Approximant	w				j		

Table 1: Consonantal phonemes of Lotha

Lotha has a large inventory of obstruent sounds consisting of twenty-three consonantal phonemes belonging to the obstruent class comprising of plosives (oral stops), fricatives and

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affricates. The rest fourteen consonantal phonemes belong to the sonorant class comprising of nasals, liquids and approximants. Prototypically obstruent sounds are mostly voiceless; however voiced sounds are also common. Lotha has seventeen voiceless obstruent sounds: /p, pʰ, t, tʰ, c, cʰ, k, kʰ, ʔ, f, s, ʃ, h, pf, ts, tsʰ, tʃ/ and six voiced obstruent sounds: /v, z, ʒ, bv, dz, dʒ/. On the contrary, sonoront sounds are prototypically voiced and rarely voiceless. Lotha has eight voiced sonoront sounds: /m, n, ɲ, ŋ, l, r, w, j/ and six voiceless sonoront sounds: /m̥, n̥, ɲ̊, ŋ̊, l̥, r̥/ which made up a unique characteristics of Lotha consonants.

2.1. Contrastive Pairs Between Phonemic Consonants

The importance of understanding the phonetic and phonemic aspects of a language is to accurately describe and analyze its sound system. The data presented exhibits the contrastive pairs of phonemic consonants in Lotha, which have been identified to have allophonic variants. The phonemic contrasts are exemplified by a set of minimal pairs and near-minimal pairs of words.

The illustrations below showcase the contrast between voiceless aspirated and voiceless unaspirated stops that occur initially at the bilabial, alveolar, and velar locations of articulation. This contrast is illustrated by the following minimal pairs and sub-minimal pairs of words, which differ solely in the presence or absence of aspiration at these specific places of articulation:

/p/	vs	/pʰ/
/puŋa/ 'puffy'		/pʰuŋa/ 'smokey'
/t/	vs	/tʰ/
/tena/ 'to pluck'		/tʰena/ 'sour'
/k/	vs	/kʰ/
/tsoki/ 'to skip'		/tsokʰi/ 'mosquito'
/c/	vs	/cʰ/
/cəma/ 'to boil'		/cʰəma/ 'to plant'

The phonemic contrast between voiceless aspirated and voiceless unaspirated affricates is illustrated through the following minimal pairs of words: /ts/ versus /tsʰ/. These pairs exemplify the difference in aspiration between the two sounds.

/ts/	vs	/tsʰ/
/tsóa̅/ 'to work'		/tsʰòa̅/ 'hot'

The phonemic contrast between the initial nasal sounds that occur at the bilabial, alveolar, palatal, and velar points of articulation is demonstrated by the following minimum pairs:

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/m/	vs	/n/
/òmɔ̀/ 'uncle'		/ònɔ̀/ 'aunt'

/n/	vs	/ŋ/
[ēvā̃ʔ] 'seat'		/èvèŋ/ 'neck'

The illustrations presented depict the phonemic differentiation between palatal nasals with voicing and without voicing, occurring at the beginning and middle of words, and are demonstrated using minimal pairs of words:

/ɲ/	vs	/ɲ̊/
/ɲána/ 'to bawl'		/ɲ̊àna/ 'nearby'

The illustrations provided depict the phonemic differentiation between velar nasals with voicing and without voicing that occur at the beginning and in the middle of words, using minimal and near-minimal pairs of words:

/ŋ/	vs	/ŋ̊/
/enəŋa/ 'now'		/eŋ̊əna/ 'to smell/sniff'

The illustrations provided depict the phonemic differentiation between fricatives with voicing and without voicing that occur at the beginning and in the middle of words, using minimal and near-minimal pairs of words:

/f/	vs	/v/
/ofe/ 'skin'		/ove/ 'frog'

/s/	vs	/z/
/sɔ́sə́ʔ/ 'dragon fly'		/zɔ̀zə̀ʔ/ 'snail'

/ʃ/	vs	/ʒ/
/èʃə̄/ 'raw'		/èʒə̄/ 'air'

/s/	vs	/h/
/soka/ 'to slide'		/hoka/ 'to hook'

The illustrations provided demonstrate the phonemic distinction between affricates that are articulated at different points of articulation; labio-dental, alveolar, and palatal points. This distinction is highlighted through the use of minimal pairs of words:

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/pf/   vs   **/bv/**
/pfə̄pfə̄/ 'hay bud'   /bvə̀bvə̀/ 'trumpet'

/ts/   vs   **/dz/**
/tsə́ró/ 'slice it'   /dzəro/   'weaving instrument'

/ts/   vs   **/tʃ/**
/otsəŋ/   'kernel'   /otʃəŋ/ 'bunch'

The phonemic contrast between lateral and trill is shown in the following minimal pairs:

/l/   vs   **/r/**
/ōlí/   'sheep'   /ori/   'enemy'

The phonemic contrast between the voiced and voiceless laterals is shown by the following minimal pairs:

/l/   vs   **/l̥/**
/oləp̚/ 'fish scale'   /ol̥əp̚/ 'grave'

The phonemic distinction between the voiced and voiceless trills is shown by the following minimal pairs:

/r/   vs   **/r̥/**
/eroa/ 'sharp'   /er̥oa/ 'to growl'

The phonemic distinction between the bilabial and palatal approximants is shown by the following minimal pairs:

/w/   vs   **/j/**
/woa/   'go'   /joa/   'drink'

2.2. Distribution of Phonemic Consonants and Their Allophonic Distributions

Lotha employs nine stops articulated in five different places of articulation- bilabial /p, pʰ/, alveolar /t, tʰ/, palatal /c, cʰ/, velar /k, kʰ/, and glottal /ʔ/.

The voiceless bilabial stop /p/ in Lotha exhibits three distinct allophones: *[p], [p̄],* and *[b]*. The sound *[p]* is exclusively found in word-initial positions, while *[p̄]* appears only in word-final positions. The allophone *[b]* occurs between voiced segments within a word. In contrast,

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the aspirated voiceless bilabial stop /pʰ/ is consistently realized as *[pʰ]* in all positions, occurring both word initially and medially.

The voiceless alveolar un-aspirated stop */t/* has two allophones: *[t]* and *[d]*. The sound *[t]* is used at the initial position of a word, while *[d]* occurs in between voiced segments. Meanwhile, the aspirated voiceless alveolar stop */tʰ/* is present in both initial and medial positions of a word.

Lotha's voiceless palatal stop */c/* manifests in two allophones: *[c]* and *[ɟ]*. *[c]* is employed in word-initial and word-medial positions, while *[ɟ]* appears between voiced segments within a word. The aspirated palatal stop */cʰ/* occurs in the initial and medial position of a word.

The voiceless un-aspirated stop */k/* displays three allophones: *[k], [k̄],* and *[g]. [k]* is found in both initial and final positions of a word, while *[g]* occurs in between voiced segments. On the other hand, the aspirated voiceless sound */kʰ/* occurs exclusively in the initial and medial positions of a word. The glottal stop */ʔ/* exclusively occurs in the final position of a word in Lotha.

Lotha has eight nasal sounds articulated in four different places of articulation- bilabial */m, m̥/,* alveolar, */n, n̥/,* palatal */ɲ, ɲ̥/* and velar */ŋ, ŋ̥/.*

The bilabial nasal */m/* is found in the initial, medial, and final positions of a word in Lotha. Conversely, the voiceless bilabial nasal */m̥/* is found exclusively in the initial and medial positions. The alveolar nasal */n/* occurs in the initial and medial positions of a word, while the voiceless alveolar nasal */n̥/* is also present in the initial and medial positions. Both the voiced palatal nasal */ɲ/* and the voiceless palatal nasal */ɲ̥/* occur at the beginning and in the middle of words. The voiced velar nasal */ŋ/* appears in the initial, medial, and final positions of a word, while the voiceless velar nasal */ŋ̥/* is found only at the beginning and in the middle of words.

Lotha has seven fricatives articulated in four different places of articulation- labio-dental */f, v/*, alveolar, */s, z/,* post- alveolar */ʃ, ʒ/* and glottal */h/*.

In Lotha, the voiceless labiodental fricative */f/* can be found in both initial and medial positions of a word. Similarly, the voiced labiodental fricative */v/* is present in the initial and medial positions as well. Both the voiceless alveolar fricative */s/* and the voiced alveolar fricative */z/* occur in the initial and medial positions of a word. These sounds are produced by bringing the tongue near the alveolar ridge while expelling or vibrating air. The voiceless post-alveolar fricative */ʃ/* and the voiced post-alveolar fricative */ʒ/* are also found in the initial and medial positions of a word in Lotha. These sounds are produced by raising the back of the tongue

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towards the post-alveolar region while creating a turbulent airflow. The voiceless glottal fricative /h/ occurs in both initial and medial positions within a word. This sound is produced by forcing air through a partially constricted glottis.

Lotha has seven affricates articulated in three different places of articulation- labio-dental /pf, bv/, alveolar, /ts, dz, tsʰ/, and alveo-palatal /tʃ, dʒ/.

Both the voiceless labiodental affricate /pf/ and the voiced labiodental affricate /bv/ occurs in the initial and medial position of a word. The voiceless alveolar affricate /ts/, the voiced alveolar affricate /dz/ and the aspirated alveolar affricate /tsʰ/ all occurs in the initial and medial position of a word. The voiceless palatal-alveolar affricate /tʃ/ and the voiced palatal-alveolar affricate /dʒ/ occurs in initial and medial position of a word**.

Lotha has two lateral sounds and its manner of articulation is alveolar /l, l̥/. The voiced alveolar lateral /l/ and the voiceless alveolar lateral /l̥/ occurs in the initial and medial position of a word. Lotha has two trills and its place of articulation is alveolar /r, r̥/**. The voiced alveolar trill /r/ and the voiceless alveolar trill /r̥/ occurs in the initial and the medial position of a word.

Lotha has two approximants and two places of articulation bilabial /w/ and palatal /j/. The voiced bilabial approximant /w/ and the voiced palatal approximant /j/ occurs in the initial and medial position of a word.

The distribution of these consonantal sounds across different positions in Lotha illuminates the phonetic patterns and structures of the language, contributing to its distinctive phonological characteristics.

The distributions of the phonemic consonants and their allophonic distribution are illustrated in Table 2 below:

Consonants	Initial		Medial		Final	
/p/	[penɔ]	'fly'	[bvə̀bə̄m]	'flower bud'	[ntsəp̚]	'bolt'
/pʰ/	[pʰārə̄]	'garden	[là̤mpʰē]	'mushroom'		
/t/	[tēnā]	'to pluck (a leaf)	[ò̤də̀mtʰi]	'local fruit'		
/tʰ/	[tʰēnā]	'sour'	[tsəŋtʰi]	'fruit'		
/c/	[cakʰəʔ]	'toad'	[hacaŋ]	'sand'		
	[ɟə̄mā]	'to watch quietly'	[lə̄ŋɟə̄m]	'fermented soyabean'		

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/cʰ/	[cʰəma] 'to plant'	[tʃoncʰea] 'to open'	
/k/	[kɔ̀ŋkʰḗ] 'orange	[kàgɔ̄] 'book'	[kitʃɔḱ] 'brain'
/kʰ/	[kʰēnɔ̄ʔ] 'nose'	[kìkʰɔ̀] 'crown'	
/ʔ/			[èŋzeʔ] 'sun watch'
/m/	[màkəʔ] 'husk'	[òmí] 'fire'	[ǹkʰɔ́m] 'pillow'
/m̥/	[m̥rə] 'bread'	[hom̥a] 'yawn'	[oʔm̥] 'flour'
/n/	[nrə] 'snake'	[ʃantʲɔ] 'star'	
/n̥/	[n̥əŋra] 'short'	[en̥əŋa] 'to smell'	
/ɲ/	[naɲa] 'goat'	[eɲa] 'morning'	
/ɲ̥/	[ɲ̥ɔna] 'to knead'	[eɲ̥a] 'crumbs'	
/ŋ/	[ŋarɔ] 'child'	[jiŋrɔ] 'finger'	[evəŋ] 'neck'
/ŋ̥/	[ŋ̥aʔ] 'to dry up (liquid)'	[eŋ̥əna] 'to smell/snifff'	
/f/	[fəli] 'lungs'	[ofə] 'skin'	
/v/	[vami] 'spring'	[ovə] 'frog'	
/s/	[səŋrəkaʔ] 'rainbow'	[osɵ] 'cloth'	
/z/	[zəvotʰi] 'fig'	[azəm] 'glutton'	
/ʃ/	[ʃarə] 'sowbug'	[eʃəʔ] 'raw'	
/ʒ/	[ʒəməʔ] 'whale'	[oʒə] 'rope'	
/h/	[hacaŋ] 'sand'	[ohɔʔ] 'tooth'	
/pf/	[pfɔ̀kì] 'ceiling'	[tʃɔnpfə] 'earthen pot'	
/bv/	[bvəcɔ] 'umbrella'	[ebvə] 'shoulder'	
/ts/	[tsá] 'walk'	[etsəŋepḗʔ] 'broom'	
/dz/	[dzɛ̄rō] 'weaving instrument'	[èdzə́] 'to measure'	
/tsʰ/	[tsʰakidʒə] 'honey'	[otsʰəŋ] 'firewood'	
/tʃ/	[tʃənti] 'ligament' (joint)	[matʃə] 'chilly'	
/dʒ/	[dʒōkʰə́p] 'shoe'	[bvádʒɔ̄] 'umbrella'	
/l/	[limo] 'leaf'	[ləpli] 'cockroach'	
/l̥/	[l̥oa] 'pluck'	[ol̥əp] 'grave'	
/r/	[rəso] 'half'	[pʰenrə] 'spices'	
/r̥/	[r̥əcak] 'bamboo shoot'	[tsər̥ə] 'trap'	
/w/	[woa] 'to go'	[ajiwe] 'left side'	
/j/	[jokɔ] 'necklace'	[ejuk] 'cover'	

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Table 2: **Distribution of Consonantal Phonemes and Their Allophonic Distributions**

In Lotha, the consonants found at the beginning of a word are limited to the voiceless stops */p/* and */t/* while the voiced stops *[b], [d],* and *[g]* occur in the medial position of a word. The nasals *[m], [m̥],* and *[ŋ]* can occur at the initial, medial, and final position of a word. However, the voiced nasal alveolar *[n]* appears only at the initial and medial position of a word and not at the end. This is because it undergoes a phonological process where it is deleted at the end of a word if it is preceded by a vocalic phone. The remaining consonants, including the aspirated stops, fricatives, affricates, certain nasals, laterals, trills, and approximants, can occur at the initial and medial positions of a word in Lotha.

Summary and Conclusion

Lotha has a remarkable inventory of consonantal phonemes, consisting of thirty-seven consonantal phonemes: */p, pʰ, t, tʰ, c, cʰ, k, kʰ, m, m̥, n, n̥, ɲ, ɲ̊, ŋ, ŋ̊, f, v, s, z, ʃ, ʒ, h, ʔ, pf, bv, ts, dz, tsʰ, tʃ, dʒ, l, l̥, r, r̥, w, j/.* These sounds were classified into two groups: obstruents and sonorants. The obstruent sounds in Lotha are mostly voiceless, with seventeen voiceless obstruents including oral stops, fricatives, and affricates */p, pʰ, t, tʰ, c, cʰ, k, kʰ, ʔ, f, s, ʃ, h, pf, ts, tsʰ, tʃ/.* The remaining six obstruents are voiced, comprising of a combination of fricatives and affricates */v, z, ʒ, bv, dz, dʒ/.* In total, Lotha has twenty-two obstruent sounds that have allophonic variations, making them a unique feature of this language.

On the other hand, the sonorant sounds in Lotha are predominantly voiced, with only six voiceless sounds */m̥, n̥, ɲ̊, ŋ̊, l̥, r̥/* among the fourteen sonorants. The sonorant class includes nasals, liquids, and approximants. Among the sonorant sounds, Lotha has eight voiced sounds */m, n, ɲ, ŋ, l, r, w, j/* which are considered prototypical for this class of sounds.

Furthermore, Lotha's consonantal phonemes exhibit a wide range of manner of articulation. There are nine stops, eight nasals, seven fricatives, seven affricates, two laterals, two trills, and two approximants. This diverse range of sounds contributes to the richness of the language.

The inventory of consonantal phonemes in Lotha is complex and diverse. The contrast between the voiceless obstruents and the predominantly voiced sonorants, along with their allophonic variations, contributes to the richness of the language. The allophonic variations of consonantal phonemes in Lotha bring out an interesting feature of the language.

This study examining the inventory of consonantal phonemes in Lotha serves as a gateway for future research into the language's sound system. For researchers intrigued by this language, may look into the patterns of allophonic variation which offers valuable insights into the production and perception of sounds in Lotha. By exploring these variations, a deeper

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understanding of the language can be attained, paving the way for further exploration and discovery.

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Transitivity as the Grammatical Tool to Explore the Representation of Reality

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Abstract

The present paper is a theoretical study of the system of transitivity which is an analytical tool in Functional Grammar under Systemic Functional Linguistics, a novel approach to language study offered by Michael Halliday. Although, transitivity as a system has been comprehensively dealt by Michael Halliday and others in various studies, still the literature on the subject is not widely available and needs attention. Further on, despite the availability of the limited studies on transitivity many minor topics under it are underexplored and, therefore, vague.

The present paper has attempted to make a contribution in filling up deficiency in the transitivity studies. The sections related to the explanation of

- the causative and permissive agents,
- the subtypes of relational processes
- and the relationship between Circumstance of matter and Phenomenon of matter

have often been found indistinct in the extant literature on the subject and therefore these topics have been investigated with special clarity, system and lucidity which are the hallmark of all scientific inquiry and a prerequisite for all scientific discovery.

Keywords: Systemic Functional Linguistics; Functional Grammar; Experiential metafunction; Transitivity.

Introduction

Systemic Functional Linguistics (Eggins, 2004; Halliday, 1998; Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004; Halliday, 1978, p. 212; Thompson, 2014; Butt, 1995; Fontaine, 2013) as an approach to language is a paradigm shift from the other dominant linguistic approaches which consider language as an abstract set of generalized rules detached from its context of use.

The focus of such approaches is the abstract structure and the syntagmatic rules of combination. SFL, on the other hand, argues that language is a social semiotic system used by a community of people to make meanings. The linguistic forms or the utterances are not random

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or abstract, rather they are motivated by the purpose or the meaning which the user wants to convey and, further, meanings are bound in the socio-cultural context of the users. Therefore, any attempt to study a linguistic text cannot be divorced from the societal network of relations that underlie such use of language. Thus, the functions of language are the determinants of the structures of language. The Systemic Functional approach, therefore, shows that functionality is an inherent trait of language, and the complete architecture of language is built around its functional roles. This accounts for the word *functional* in the name Systemic Functional Linguistics.

Thus, Systemic Functional Linguistics as a theory begins at the social context in which language evolves as a system of lexical and syntactic choices motivated by meaning and, therefore, it gives theoretical priority to paradigmatic relations. These paradigmatic choices are captured through systems, i.e., the linguistic structures, which are further captured through realizational statements. This leads to the term *systemic* present in the name Systemic Functional Linguistics. Thus, language as a conventionalized coding system is organised as sets of choices such that every structure of language, lexical or syntactic is chosen against a backdrop of various probable options and leads to another set of probable options from which the choice is made. In other words, in this system, each set of choices leads to another set of choices and so on and, thus, a network of choices is created.

Thus, SFL deals with language in actual use and focuses on the texts in their contexts. The context here refers to both the *context of the culture* and the *context of the situation*. While the context of culture deals with the aspect of appropriacy and inappropriacy, the context of situation is specified through *field*, *tenor,* and *mode*. In a text, the tenor and mode are realized by the interpersonal and textual dimensions of the meaning respectively, while the field is represented by the representational dimension.

In Systemic Functional terminology, these three dimensions of meanings are called the three *metafunctions* of the text. They are called metafunctions to distinguish them from ordinary functions or purposes which are just ways of using language and have no significance for the analysis of language itself. In addition to context of situation and context of culture, SFL also deals with meaning in reference to *ideology* which is a higher level of context. Citing the importance of ideology, Suzanne Eggins (2004) says,

> Whatever *genre* we are involved in, and whatever the *register* of the situation, our use of language will also be influenced by our ideological positions; the values we hold (consciously or unconsciously), the perspectives acquired through our particular path through the culture (Eggins, 2004, p. 10).

Further, every clause, in a text, has all of these three metafunctions mapped on it and, therefore, offers a three-dimensional meaning of the text. Among the three metafunctions, the Textual metafunction refers to the organisation of the text as a well-connected, coherent, and

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meaningful piece of writing or speech, the Interpersonal metafunction expresses the attitudes and the role relationships between the interactants in a linguistic event while the Ideational metafunction focuses on the representation of reality, both the physical reality outside and around the user and the inner reality of his consciousness. The Ideational metafunction further consists of two components: Experiential and Logical types. While the Logical aspect pertains to the type of relationships between the clauses within a clause complex, the Experiential metafunction which is the concern of the present study deals with the constituents within the clause and is concerned with the representation of content i.e., meaning. In consonance with the three metafunctions, Halliday has also incorporated three analytical systems in his theory. While the Textual meaning is explored through theme choices and the Interpersonal through mood and modality choices, the Experiential meaning is realized through the transitivity choices.

Discussion

Under the transitivity system of analysis, a clause is taken as a proposition representing events and processes of different kinds and transitivity aims to make clear that how the action is performed, that by whom it is performed and on what it is performed. In terms of functional labels, we can express what we have said about the content of clauses in terms of *processes* which involve certain *participants* and occur under certain *circumstances*. The processes are the core elements of the clause from the experiential perspective. A process is typically realized by the verbal group in the clause. In some cases, the process can be seen as including another constituent apart from the verbal group proper; this can be seen in the case of phrasal verbs. Further, every major clause normally includes at least one participant, which is normally realized by a nominal group. There can be up to two other participants in a clause. The circumstances which are the additional elements to enhance the meaning of the clause are typically realized by adverbial groups or prepositional phrases.

i.   Processes and Participants

The processes are of six basic types: *material*, *mental*, *relational*, *behavioural*, *verbal,* and *existential* and there are corresponding participants for each process. The material processes encode the actions of 'doing' while the mental processes encode the actions of 'sensing' and the relational processes cover the different ways in which 'being' can be expressed. Further, while material, mental, and relational processes are clearly mutually exclusive, the behavioural, verbal and existential processes, to a certain extent, are extensions of them. On the borderline between material and mental are the behavioural processes. These processes represent the outer manifestations of inner working of the consciousness and the physiological states of a person or a personified participant. On the borderline of mental and relational processes is the category of the verbal processes which encode the symbolic relationships constructed in human consciousness in the form of 'saying'. On the borderline between the relational and the material processes are the existential processes by which phenomena of all kinds are simply recognized to 'be' i.e. to exist or to happen. Thus, this completes the circle of the six process types.

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Different types of processes are described below in terms of their associated configurations of participant roles:

i) Material Processes

The material clauses are clauses of doing and happening. A material clause construes a quantum of change in the flow of events as taking place through some input of energy. The source of energy bringing about the change is typically the *Actor*. The unmarked present tense for material processes is the present in present rather than the simple present. The Actor brings about the unfolding of the process through time leading to an outcome that is different from the initial phase of the unfolding. The outcome may be confined to the Actor itself, in which case there is only one participant inherent in the process. Such a material clause represents a 'happening' activity and, using the traditional terminology, may be called an intransitive clause. Alternatively, the Actor may bring about the unfolding of the process thereby impacting another participant. This other participant is termed as the *Goal*. In other words, the participant affected by the material activity of the Actor is called the Goal. Such a material clause represents a 'doing' activity and can be called a transitive clause. The number of participants associated with the material processes can be one, two or three depending upon the nature of the material process (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004, p. 180). If there is only one participant, the material process is *intransitive* and can be probed as 'what did x do?' The transitive processes, on the other hand, have minimum two participants and are probed as 'what did x do to y?' where x and y are the two participants. For example,

> He walked up to them… (Lessing, 2012, p. 12). (intransitive)
> She wrote letters…(Lessing, 1999, p. 212). (transitive)

Further, the transitive material clauses may be represented by either of the two forms: the *operative* (active) or the *receptive* (passive). In the operative type, the doer of the action is also the subject of the clause and both the roles are mapped on to the same constituent. In the receptive, however, the subject of the clause and the doer of the action are different (cf.: Halliday 2004: 179). Also, the operative processes are probed by 'what did x do to y?' while the receptives are probed by 'what happened to y?' For example,

> They snapped the handcuffs on him… (Lessing, 2012, p. 12). (operative)
> He was pursued by bad luck (Lessing, 2012, p. 47). (receptive)

Further, material processes do not necessarily represent concrete physical actions, they may represent abstract events too. Thus, they may be classified as *concrete processes* and *abstract processes* (cf.: Halliday 2004: 196). For example,

> …and he <u>straightened</u> himself after setting down the tray (Lessing, 2012, p. 154). (concrete)

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…and <u>accepted</u> her often unjust rebukes without even lifting his eyes off the ground (Lessing, 2012, p. 142). (abstract)

In addition, material clauses may be recognised in terms of two more subtypes based on the nature of the outcome affecting the Actor of an intransitive clause and the Goal of a transitive clause. If the Actor or the Goal is construed as being brought into existence by the unfolding of the process, the clause is termed *creative* while if a pre-existing Actor or Goal is construed as being transformed as the process unfolds, the clause is labelled *transformative* (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004, p. 184). For example,

A thick weal <u>pushed up</u> along the dark skin of the cheek as she looked… (Lessing, 2012, p. 119). (creative)
So, I <u>beat</u> the veal flat… (Lessing, 1999, p. 323). (transformative)

Finally, material processes may also be of *intentive* or *superventive* types. In intentive type, the Actor performs the action willingly while in superventive type the action is performed without the will of the Actor (Burton, 1982, p. 199). For example,

I ate the pie. (intentive)
I cut my finger while chopping the onions. (superventive)

Though, the two most frequent participants in material clauses are the Actor and the Goal, there are other less frequent participants also associated with the material processes. One among these is the *Scope* or *Range*. Often there are transitive material processes which do not have the Goal in the usual sense. Rather the second participant, in such cases, is a continuation of the process itself and is not affected by the material action. There is a close relationship of dependence between the *process* and this second participant. Halliday terms this Goal-like participant, Scope or Range. The Scope clause can be probed by the question 'what did x do to y?' Halliday suggests that a Scope must specify one of the following two things:

• Either it should be restatement or continuation of the process itself. Here, the Scope is derived directly from the verbal meaning itself, and just one verbal element can substitute both the process and the Goal. Like in 'do a dance' or 'sing a song' only 'dance' or 'sing' can suffice. Also, it may be created by the use of dummy words like 'do', 'have', 'give', 'take', 'make' etc. For example,

Meanwhile Molly, talented in so many directions, danced a little -but she really did not have the build for a ballerina; <u>did a song and dance act in a revue</u>… (Lessing, 1999, p. 16)

• The second type of Scope expresses the domain or extent of the process. For example,

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As I went past he instinctively <u>assumed the 'mensch-pose'</u>…(Lessing, 1999, p. 529)

In certain cases, when the material process is 'give' or a semantic equivalent of 'give', it has three participants and it may be probed as 'what did x do to y to z?' Thus, in addition to the Actor and the Goal, these material clauses have one more participant which, kind of, benefits from the process. This is called the *Beneficiary*. For example,

He now impatiently handed <u>Molly</u> the key that was loosely bundled inside her scarlet scarf (Lessing, 1999, p. 14). (Beneficiary)

Further, at times, the outcome of the material activity is a change in the attributive state of the Actor and the Goal. This outcome is used to construe the resultant qualitative state of the Actor or Goal after the process has been completed and is called *Resultative Attribute*. There is also a non-resultative variant of the Attribute called the *Depictive Attribute* which specifies the state in which the Actor or Goal is when it takes part in the process (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004, p. 195). In other words, Depictive Attributes refer to the qualitative state of the Actor or the Goal which is not a result of the process. Thus, it may be said that while Resultative Attribute construes the state of 'becoming', the Depictive Attribute refers to the state of 'being'. See the examples given below:

At this he stopped <u>still</u>… (Lessing, 2012, p. 119). (Resultative Attribute)
The strawberry man served her, <u>non-committal</u> (Lessing, 1999, p. 13). (Depictive Attribute)

ii)   **Mental Processes**

The mental processes are the processes concerned with the experience of the world of consciousness. They include verbal elements enacting the activities of thinking, feeling, perceiving and inclining and are therefore divided into the following classes:

• *Cognitive-* verbs of thinking, knowing or understanding
• *Emotive-* verbs of liking, fearing
• *Perceptive-* verbs of seeing, hearing, etc.
• *Desiderative-* verbs of wanting or desiring

The unmarked present tense for mental processes is simple present tense and this forms the significant difference between mental and material processes. The other important difference is that while material processes may have one or more participants, a mental process must always have two participants. Intransitive mental process clauses are not possible. Moreover, unlike a material process, the mental process must have a conscious human participant. This participant which feels thinks or perceives must be either a human or an anthropomorphized non-human. This participant is called the *Senser* (Eggins, 2004, p. 227).

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The second participant in a mental process clause is called the *Phenomenon*. The Phenomenon is that which is thought, felt, perceived or desired by the Senser. For example,

> She could see his great shoulders, the shape of his head, the glistening of his eyes (Lessing, 2012, p. 204). (Phenomenon)

The Phenomenon may also be an embedded clause. When embedded, the Phenomenon is either an *act* or a *fact*. The Phenomenon: act is typically restricted to the mental activity of perception and is grammatically realized by non-finite clause, functioning as simple noun. For example,

> I hear <u>him walking up and down overhead, or coming halfway down the stairs</u>… (Lessing, 1999, p. 543). (Phenomenon: act)

> She allowed <u>him to do as he liked, remaining quiet under the warmth of his hands, smiling at him</u> (Lessing, 1999, p. 208). (Phenomenon: act)

The second type of embedded Phenomenon is what Halliday calls the Phenomenon: fact. A fact is a finite clause and is usually introduced by 'that' and occurs in the functional role of a simple noun. For example,

> Tony realized <u>that she was trying to assert herself: she was using his presence there as a shield in a fight to get back a command she had lost. And she was speaking like a child challenging a grown-up person</u> (Lessing, 1999, p. 188). (Phenomenon: fact)

The feature of reversibility further distinguishes mental processes from the material processes. This is different from variation in terms of active and passive voice. For example, 'I hate injections' and 'Injections piss me off' are reversible clauses (Eggins, 2004, p. 229). Further, in case one of the two participants of a mental clause is apparently absent, it must be retrieved from the context in order for the clause to make sense. Else, in case the Phenomenon is completely absent, the mental clause must project and all mental processes, except those of perception, can project. The perceptive clauses project under rare circumstances. For example,

> Anna heard, 'so why should we pay just what we would in the shops?' (Lessing, 1999, p. 12).

Projection is one kind of Logical relationship that may exist between two adjacent clauses. Projection describes the relationship conventionally known as direct or quoted thought and indirect or reported thought. In other words, mental processes with projection either quote or report ideas. It is important to note that projection is not same as embedding or rank shifting. It does not depend on any fact noun, instead, there is a Logical dependency between two clauses. The projecting clause is the clause which contains the mental process verb and it may

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occur before or after the projected clause. The two clauses which are in a projection relationship may be dependent upon each other or they may be independent. In case, the relationship is that of dependency, the *projected clause* is reported, else it is quoted. With most mental processes of cognition both reporting and quoting is possible while with mental- emotive processes, only reporting is possible. The example of a mental clause with projection is given below:

> She thought: <u>While I stood here with my eyes shut he was looking into my face and imagining it under him</u> (Lessing, 1999, p. 373). (Projected Idea)

iii)   Relational Processes

The relational processes construe the state of being, with the static location in space, unfolding inertly without any input of energy (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004, p. 211). These processes construe both the outer experience of the material world and inner experience of the consciousness but unlike the material and mental processes, they construe the experience as 'being' rather than 'doing' or 'sensing'. The relational processes are typically realized by the verb 'be' or its semantic variants. The unmarked tense for these processes is simple present and past. In relational clauses, there are inherently two aspects to the state of being. These are realized by two participants and a relationship of being is set up between two separate entities. In simple words, there is always something which describes something in terms of some attribute or some identity. These two distinct modes of being are respectively called- *attributive* and *identifying*. For example, 'She is pretty' is attributive while 'She is the prettiest girl in the town' is identifying.

In the attributive mode, an entity has some class ascribed or attributed to it. Structurally, we label this class the *Attribute*, and the entity to which it is ascribed is the *Carrier*. In case of identifying mode, the entity which is defined is called the *Identified* and its descriptive identity is called the *Identifier*. Across the attributive-identifying axis, the relational processes are also classified as intensive, circumstantial, and possessive. The two systems intersect to define sub-categories of relational clauses. These different sub-categories are further elaborated in the grammar of relational clauses.

• In the *intensive type* of relational clauses, the most typical verb is 'be' which establishes either the relationship of attribution or identity. Further, the nominal group realizing the function of Attribute is indefinite and construes the class membership while the Identifier is typically definite and the lexical verb of the verbal group realizing the identifying process is equative.
In the case of *attributive-intensive* type, the Attribute is realized in two ways- Attribute as an 'entity' realized by a nominal group with a common noun as the head word preceded by an indefinite article and Attribute as a 'quality' realized by an adjective. It cannot be a proper noun or a pronoun since these do not construe classes. Refer to the examples below,

> The boy Tommy was <u>a product of this marriage</u> (Lessing, 1999, p. 7). (Attribute-Entity)

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She was <u>stunned and outraged</u>; (Lessing, 2012, p. 41). (Attribute-Quality)

In case of *identifying-intensive* type, the Identified is the holder of an identity and the processes are distinguished to be reversible. Refer to the example given below,

Molly was <u>the product of what she referred to as 'one of those 'twenties marriages</u>' (Lessing, 1999, p. 7). (Identifier)

• In the *circumstantial type*, the relationship between the two terms is one of time, place, manner, cause, accompaniment, role, matter, or angle. In the *attributive-circumstantial*, the circumstantial element is an Attribute that is being ascribed to some entity. This is generally construed in the form of Attribute or else, in rare occurrences, the circumstantial relation is construed in the form of process so that the circumstantial sense is included in the process. (For example, the word 'occupies' has both the sense of 'being' and 'location'). In the former case, the Attribute is realized by a prepositional phrase and in the latter, it is construed as realized by a verb (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004, p. 240). Further, unlike Intensive Attributes, Circumstantial Attributes frequently have a definite nominal group. An example of attributive-circumstantial clause is given below:

I was still <u>in my dressing-gown</u>… (Lessing, 1999, p. 532). (Circumstantial Attribute)

In *identifying-circumstantial mode*, there is an equative relationship between two entities and, similar to attributive- circumstantial-type, this pattern may be organized semantically in either of the two ways i.e., as a feature of the participant or as a feature of the process. In case, the circumstantial information is encoded in the participants, both the entities i.e., Identified and the Identifier encode certain feature of time, place or manner, etc while the verbal element remains intensive, i.e., a form of 'be'. For example,

That day was the first day he raised his voice…

On the other hand, in case of circumstantial process, verbs such as 'take up', 'follow', 'cross', 'resemble', 'accompany', etc. are used (Eggins, 2004, p. 246). These verbs include the circumstantial information also. For example,

The concert took three hours.

But all said, it must be admitted that the line between attributive and identifying is less clear in the circumstantial than in the intensive type of relational clause (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004, p. 243).

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• *Possessive processes* encode meanings of ownership, part-whole relations, containment, involvement etc. between the participants of the relational clause such that one entity possesses another. Unlike the intensive-relationals, the criterion of definitiveness is not distinctive in the case of possessives. Also, they are distinctive for not being reversible. In *attributive-possessives*, possession is generally encoded through the *process*, though it is also possible through the participants. In the example given below, the possession is through the process.

> He had had a cottage in the country for years… (Lessing, 1999, p. 14). (Attributive-possessive)

In *identifying-possessives*, possession may again be expressed either through the participants, or through the process. When possession is expressed through the participants, the intensive verb 'be' is used and in case the possession is encoded in the process, it is generally realized by the verb 'own'. The other commonly occurring verbs in this function are 'contain', 'include', 'involve', 'comprise of', 'consist of' and 'provide'(Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004, p. 246). Refer to the example given below:

> The house was <u>her sister's</u>. (Identifying-possessive through participants)
> Her sister <u>owned</u> the house. (Identifying-possessive through process)

iv) Behavioural Processes

Halliday describes these processes semantically as a halfway house between mental and material processes. They realize meanings which have characteristics of both material and mental process. Behavioural processes typically realize the physiological and psychological behaviour like laugh, smile, cough, look, listen, watch etc. Behavioural processes have a close relationship with mental processes. At times, this difference is minimal, e.g. 'look at' is behavioural but 'see' is mental, 'listen to' is behavioural but 'hear' is mental. But, unlike mental processes, behavioural processes generally have only one participant. The obligatory one participant of behavioural processes is called the *Behaver* and just like the Senser in the mental process clauses, it is typically a conscious being. In case there is a second Scope-like participant, it is called the *Behaviour*. The example of a behavioural process with a Behaviour is given below:

> I watched <u>his face put on that mask of bluff, good-natured tolerance which is the mask of corruption in this particular time</u>…(Lessing, 1999, p. 57) (Behaviour)

v) Verbal Processes

They are the processes to realize spoken action. A verbal process typically contains three participants: *Sayer, Receiver* and *Verbiage*. The Sayer is the participant which initiates

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the verbal activity. It should not necessarily be a conscious human being but anything capable of releasing a verbal signal. The Receiver is the one for whom the verbal activity is initiated and reminds of the Beneficiary of the material process. It may occur with or without a preposition depending on its position in the clause. For example,

> …she was speaking <u>to him</u> with exactly the same flirtatious coyness with which she had spoken to himself (Lessing, 2012, p. 177) . (Receiver)

The Verbiage is a nominalised statement of the verbal process, a noun expressing some kind of verbal behaviour. For example,

> She would burst into exuberant tears, say <u>unforgivable things</u>…(Lessing, 1999, p. 10). (Verbiage*)*

In addition to these three, there may be a fourth participant in case of verbal clauses called the *Target*. The Target occurs only in a sub-type of verbal clause and construes the entity that is targeted by the process of saying. For example,

> The farmers about him he knew called <u>him</u> 'Jonah'(Lessing, 2012, p. 47). (Target)

Like mental processes, verbal processes also have the distinctive capacity to project a second clause by either quoting or reporting. In their case, quoted or reported clauses are called *Projected Locutions*. A relationship of independence between the two clauses is called quoting while that of dependency between projected and projecting clause gives reported speech. The projecting clause may occur before or after the projected clause. For example,

> '<u>Boss has keys</u>,' he explained…(Lessing, 2012, p. 59) (Projected Locution)

vi)   Existential Processes

The other type of 'being processes' are existential processes. They construe the Ideational meaning of 'simply existing'. Thus, they are different from the relational processes as in the case of relational processes, things always exist in relation to other things and are assigned attributes or identities while existential processes represent experience by positing that there was / is something. The structural use of 'there' is the identification marker of the existential processes. It does not carry any Experiential meaning and must be distinguished from the adverb of location and, therefore, is not assigned any functional label in the transitivity system. Thus, there is just one participant in an existential process which is called the *Existent*. For example,

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Everywhere there was <u>evidence of breakdown in will (Lessing, 2012, p. 157)</u>. (Existent)

ii.   Causative Agents

In certain syntactical constructions, there is an additional nominal element which superimposes over the action such that it 'causes', 'makes' or 'leads' the action. This nominal element is called the *Agent*. The verbal element realizing the causation and acting as the superimposing process in such constructions is called the *causative*. The causatives do not form an independent category of processes but they may be present in all processes except the existential processes. The main action is present in the embedded clause following the causative verb. Thus, alternately, if causation is considered a material action, this might be considered a case of embedding in material clauses. The examples of such causative Agents are given below,

<u>The mere idea of being without him</u> causes a black cold fear to enclose her…(Lessing, 1999, p. 196). (Agent causing material action)

<u>The knowledge that the man still followed her, grinning unpleasantly</u>, made her want to break into a run of panic (Lessing, 1999, p. 374). (Agent causing desiderative action)

iii.   Permissive Agents

Another similar type of syntactical construction is observed when an Agent 'allows', 'permits' or 'lets' a doer do something. These types of superimposing processes may be called *permissive type*. These syntactic constructions are also possible with all kinds of processes except the existential processes. In the example given below, the Attribute of the relational clause has been ellipted and can be retrieved from the context (mentioned in clause i).

- He was off his head, talking crazily to himself, wandering in and out of the bush with his hands full of leaves and earth (Lessing, 2012, p. 12).
- <u>They</u> let him be…(Lessing, 2012, p. 12). (Agent allowing relational process)

Further see,

<u>She</u> allowed him to do as he liked, remaining quiet under the warmth of his hands, smiling at him (Lessing, 1999, p. 208). (Agent allowing material process)

iv.   Circumstances
The last type of structures, in a clause, is the circumstantial element. As the name suggests, they give additional information regarding the type of circumstances under which the

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action takes place like 'when', 'where', 'how', 'with who' etc. They may occur infinitely in a clause. The circumstances can be best identified by considering what probe is used to elicit them. They are typically realized by adverbial groups or prepositional phrases and, in rare instances, by nominal phrases. Also, when the embedded structures, in the clause, provide circumstantial information about the process, they may be analysed in their transitivity role of circumstances. For example,

'Then come up and have some coffee and tell us,' said Molly, <u>her face vivid with challenge (Lessing, 1999, p. 12)</u> . (Circumstance of Accompaniment-Comitative)

Yet I was also sad, <u>knowing it would not last long (Lessing, 1999, p. 577)</u>. (Circumstance of Cause-Reason)

The brief description of the circumstantial elements of various types is given below:

i)   Extent

The *Circumstance of Extent* locates the extent of the occurrence of the Experiential activity in space or time or as number. It may occur with or without preposition, the most usual preposition being 'for'. There are three types of Extent*: Distance*, *Duration* and *Frequency*. The typical interrogative probes to elicit them are 'how far?', 'how long?' and 'how many times?' respectively. See the examples given below,

On his big chest another red drop fell and trickled down <u>to his waist(Lessing, 2012, p. 119)</u>. (Extent- Distance)

She fought to control her voice, and spoke <u>after a few minutes</u> in a half whisper…(Lessing, 2012, p. 165). (Extent- Duration)

She <u>hardly</u> saw him…(Lessing, 2012, p. 35). (Extent- Frequency)

ii)   Location

The *Circumstance of Location* construes the location of the occurrence of the *process* in space or time. Thus, the Circumstance of Location is divided into two categories- *Location-Spatial* and *Location-Temporal*.

The interrogative probes of Location are 'where?' and 'when?'

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• Space includes not only the concrete space but also the abstract space. The place dimension includes not only static location in space, but also the source, path and destination of movement. The Circumstance of Location-Spatial is illustrated below:

Her limbs sagged <u>under her</u>…(Lessing, 2012, p. 205). (Location- Spatial)

• Similarly, Time includes not only the static location in time, but also the temporal analogues of source, path, and destination. The example of the Circumstance of Location-Temporal is given below:

<u>When she sat down again</u> she shook out her hair…(Lessing, 2012, p. 185). (Location- Temporal)

Manner

The circumstantial element of *Manner* construes the way in which the process is actualized. Manner comprises four subcategories: *Means, Quality, Comparison* and *Degree*. They are one of the most widely occurring circumstantial elements. The general probe to elicit the Circumstance of Manner is 'how?'

• Means refers to the mode whereby a process takes place. The interrogative forms are 'how?' and 'what with?' to elicit this type of circumstantial element. Refer to the example given below:

She was speaking <u>in a new voice for her, a voice she had never used before in her life (Lessing, 2012, p. 79).</u> (Manner- Means)

• Quality is expressed by an adverbial group with -ly adverb typically as the Head. The interrogative probe to elicit Circumstance of Quality is 'how?' Less commonly, Quality is realized by a prepositional phrase. The general type is one where the preposition is in or with and the Head word of the nominal group is the name of Manner. The Circumstance of Manner-Quality is exemplified below:

He replied <u>gently</u>, to everything she said…(Lessing, 2012, p. 68). (Manner- Quality)

His lank hair had for once achieved grace, and lay across his forehead <u>in a full springing wave (Lessing, 1999, p. 110)</u> (Manner- Quality) .

He went to Nigeria <u>with unexpected suddenness</u> (Lessing, 1999, p. 212). (Manner- Quality)

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• Comparison is typically expressed by a prepositional phrase with like or unlike or an adverbial group of similarity or difference. The interrogative probe for it is 'what..like?'. Refer to the example given below:

> The trees advanced in a rush, <u>like beasts</u>…(Lessing, 2012, p. 205). (Manner-Comparison)

• Degree is typically construed by an adverbial group with a general indication of degree and is probed by the interrogative 'how much?' The example given below illustrates the Circumstance of Manner-Degree:

> Being alone in the world had no terrors for her <u>at all</u>…(Lessing, 2012, p. 35). (Manner- Degree)

iii) Cause

The circumstantial element of *Cause* construes the reason for which the process is realized. It includes the reason which leads to the actualization of the process and the purpose which is supposed to be met for which the process is actualized. Also, in addition to the reason and the purpose, both of which tend to be eventive, there is another kind of cause that tends to denote a person on whose behalf the action takes place. Thus, the Circumstance of Cause comprises of three sub-categories- *Reason, Purpose,* and *Behalf*. The interrogative probes for them are 'why', 'what for' and 'who for?' respectively.

• Since, the Circumstance of Reason represents the reason for which a process takes place, it includes the sense of 'because'.

> Her childhood had been disastrous, <u>since this marriage only lasted a few months</u> (Lessing, 1999, p. 7) . (Cause-Reason)

• The Circumstance of Purpose represents the purpose for which the action takes place so it conveys the sense 'in order to'. For instance,

> Jackson bent down <u>to raise him</u>… (Lessing, 1999, p. 139). (Cause-Purpose)

• *The* Circumstance of Behalf represents the entity, typically a person, on whose behalf or for whose sake the action is undertaken. For example,

> ..it was all right <u>for real men</u> to drink and not to shave and disregard their looks (Lessing, 1999, p. 138). (Cause-Behalf)

iv) Contingency

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The *Circumstance of Contingency* specifies an element on which the realization of the process depends. It is categorised as *Condition, Concession* and *Default.*

• The Circumstance of Condition construes the circumstances which must be fulfilled in order for the process to be realized. It conveys the sense of 'if'. It is generally expressed by prepositional phrases with complex prepositions like 'in case of', 'in the event of', 'on condition of' etc. For example,

> There is a type of mind, like Willi's, that can only accept ideas <u>if they are put in the language he would use himself</u> (Lessing, 1999, p. 87). (Contingency-Condition)

• The Circumstance of Concession construes the sense of 'although'. It is expressed by prepositional phrases with the prepositions 'despite', 'notwithstanding' or the complex prepositions 'in spite of', 'regardless of' etc. For instance,

> Richard was delighted, <u>although he still blamed Molly's life for his son's blindness</u> (Lessing, 1999, p. 618). (Contingency-Concession)

• The Circumstance of Default has the sense of negative condition i.e., 'if not', 'unless'. It may be expressed by prepositional phrases with the complex prepositions 'in the absence of', 'in default of' etc. This is illustrated below:

> But never played unless for business reasons (Lessing, 1999, p. 14). (Contingency-Default)

v) **Accompaniment**

Accompaniment is a form of joint participation in the process and probes the question 'with whom?' and 'who/what else?' but not 'who/ what?' It is of two types- *Comitative* and *Additive*.

• The Comitative involves two entities occurring together while the accompanying element may be even a process. It is expressed by prepositional phrases with prepositions such as 'with' or 'without'. For example,

> She invited Richard's sons to stay <u>with her</u> (Lessing, 1999, p. 618). (Accompaniment-Comitative)

• In case of Additive, out of the two entities, one is represented circumstantially for the purpose of contrast and it is expressed by prepositional phrases with prepositions such as 'besides', 'instead of' etc. (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004, p. 273). For example,

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And <u>instead of feeling angry, or contemptuous</u>, she knew she was looking self-conscious (Lessing, 1999, p. 372). (Accompaniment-Additive)

vi)   **Role**

This circumstantial element construes the meanings 'be' and 'become'. *Role* includes the subcategories of *Guise* ('be') and *Product* ('become').

• Guise corresponds to the interrogative 'what as?' and construes the meaning of 'be' in the form of a circumstance; the usual preposition is 'as'. The other complex prepositions with this function are 'by way of', 'in the role of', etc. For example,

The incident had been served up <u>as party fare</u>… (Lessing, 1999, p. 169). (Role-Guise)

• Product corresponds to the interrogative 'what into?' For example,

At the sight of my tears his voice changed <u>into a triumphant tenderness</u>,.. (Lessing, 1999, p. 558). (Role-Product)

vii)   **Matter**

Matter is generally related to verbal and mental processes (especially of the cognitive subtype). In case of verbal clauses, it is the circumstantial equivalent of the Verbiage, something which is described, referred to, narrated etc. The interrogative probe for it is 'what about?' It is expressed by prepositions such as 'about', 'concerning', 'with reference to' etc. For example,

They never cease complaining <u>about their unhappy lot</u>…(Lessing, 2012, p. 76). (Circumstance-Matter)

In case of mental processes, if a prepositional phrase follows a mental process, it acquires the role of the Phenomenon of the process. This prepositional phrase in the role of Phenomenon is called *Phenomenon-Matter* as it has features of both a circumstance and a participant. Due to their structural form, these prepositional phrases are considered circumstantial elements but unlike the circumstances they do not provide mere additional information about the process rather they are integral to the process like participants. See the example given below:

Anna learned <u>to stand up for herself</u> (Lessing, 1999, p. 9). (Phenomenon-Matter)

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In certain instances, Circumstance of Matter may also occur in case of other process types when such processes construe the sense of the verbal or mental process. Refer to the relational and behavioural clauses below:

> To this, Ella had no answer… (Lessing, 1999, p. 186). (Matter)
> To each of these bits of information… Paul Tanner nodded… (Lessing, 1999, p. 176). (Matter)

viii)   **Angle**

The Circumstance of *Angle* is related either to the Sayer of the Verbal clause with the sense of 'as…. Says' or to the Senser of the mental clause with the sense of 'as… thinks'. It is called *Angle-Source* and *Angle-Viewpoint* respectively. It is often expressed by complex prepositions such as 'according to' or 'in the words of' (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004, p. 276). The examples of both types of Angle are given below:

> …from him had originated this concern for her, this belief in her essential innocence, this absolution from guilt (Lessing, 2012, p. 203). (Angle-Source)

> …but it sounded cruelly malicious to Mary (Lessing, 2012, p. 41). (Angle-Viewpoint)

Conclusion

This study is limited in its scope to examine only the transitivity system as an investigative tool to study experiential choices of a text. The study can be further enhanced by probing the ergativity system. Further, the study focuses only on the experiential meaning while the logical meaning has not been referred to whereas a complete picture of the representational meaning of the text involves the Logical exploration as well. Nonetheless, this study expects to contribute towards building up SFL literature for academic purposes of the students and scholars alike.

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Identity Negotiation Among Minorities: Case of the Nepali Community and Their Linguistic Landscape in Darjeeling

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Abstract

Linguistic landscape (LL) is a display of written language in public spaces. Observation of existing research in LL reflects the minimum manifestation of the study of the interplay between LL and ethnic identity negotiation. Whereas in the Indian context, the realization of identity negotiation instrumentalizing LL of a geographical location is yet to be empirically mapped. In this context, Darjeeling, a multilingual and multicultural district as well as a tourist hotspot becomes a potential site for exploration of identity negotiation from the perspective of LL. The present paper tries to reconceptualize LL while reemphasizing the sociocultural significance of written language. Moreover, the paper empirically examines the part of LL as a linguistic tool in the process of identity negotiation among the Nepali speech community in Darjeeling.

Keywords: Identity, linguistic landscape, Darjeeling, Nepali community, negotiation

Introduction

We are surrounded by languages of different types where written language has become one among several tools for conveying some substances to those who can read it. It impacts the thought process of the patron. For instance, when a passer-by sees a poster written *danger* in front of a building it creates certain inner hesitation in the person who wants to go inside the building. The poster about *no smoking* in petrol pumps suggests us some kind of warning. A glimpse of the nameplate on the door while entering the room creates an unequivocal impression on the interlocutor. Language (written) not only influences cognitively but also holds domination in every society having a (written) tradition of language. It is to be mentioned that according to Shohamy and Gorter (2009), today language (written) has become an integral part of our physical environment. In this context, linguistic landscape (LL, henceforth) is the visual display of written language in public spaces.

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The concept of LL has a brief history while having a long past.

According to Landry and Bourhis (1997), one can trace the notion of LL first in the language planning of Belgium and Quebec. As a result, one can claim that the origin of the concept of LL is trussed in the Belgian case (Landry & Bourhis, 1997). Therefore, it is not an entirely new field of study at least outside India. Interestingly, few academicians produced sociolinguistic studies of language choice in multilingual contexts in the late 1970s (Blackwood et al., 2016, p.xvi).

Studies on the use of multilingualism and global English in advertising came to light in decades of the 1980s and 1990s (Troyer, 2016). Later on in the early 2000s, this emerging field of study was starting to consolidate around the term *Linguistic Landscape* (Blackwood et al., 2016). It must be stated that the publication of the book *Linguistic Landscape: A New Approach to Multilingualism (2006)* by Druk Gorter laid a stronger groundwork for LL studies.

Nonetheless, LL research is still in its embryonic stage in terms of growth and development in India despite the country being hugely multilingual and multicultural. Although it was not an empirical work one can consider the research conducted by Itagi and Singh (2002) as the initiation for the LL study in the Indian context. Additionally, there are only a few significant studies that have been conducted in India in the field of LL in recent years (see Singh & Chimirala, 2018; Begum & Sinha, 2018; Bharadwaj & Shukla, 2018; Singh & Sinha, 2019). Nonetheless, the state-wise coverage of such studies was found to be confined to very few Indian states such as Himachal Pradesh, Meghalaya, Maharashtra, Bihar, and Assam. While the research showing the interplay between LL and identity in the Indian context is still not even in the embryonic stage.

It is to be mentioned that a multilingual Indian state like West Bengal is home to several languages and ethnicities. Bengali, English, Hindi, Nepali, Santhali, Urdu, Kurukh, Munda, Gurumukhi, and Kamtapuri are some of the languages spoken in the state. Similarly, the Darjeeling district of West Bengal has the highest concentration of languages and cultures, making it a viable location for LL study. Nevertheless, Bengali is the dominant language in the state yet one cannot undermine the significance of minority languages such as Nepali, Hindi, Santhali, Sadari, and other tribal languages in day-to-day communication in public spaces as well as private spaces.

It is to be mentioned that the minority linguistic group especially those who are vulnerable in terms of their identity (in this study the Nepali community) utilizes LL as a tool (among many other tools) for identity negotiation. They manifest identity through LL of a particular territory reflecting and asserting their identities in the public spaces. The present paper delineates the process of identity negotiation among the Nepali community in the Darjeeling district of West Bengal while emphasizing the tenor in studying the LL of Darjeeling.

Conceptualizing Linguistic Landscape

Scholars have conceptualized LL varyingly. For instance, LL according to Cenoz and Gorter (2008), is written facts available in language signs of a specific area. Similarly, Lanza and Woldemariam (2009); Sloboda (2009) define LL as a site of production and reproduction of an

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ideology through linguistic artifacts. Whereas, as per Rafael and Shohamy (2006), LL can be defined as the linguistic objects marking the public space. Nonetheless, the most popular, as well as the widely cited definition, is given by Landry and Bourhis (1997, p.25) as 'the language of public road signs, advertising billboards, street names, place names, commercial shop signs, and public signs on govt. buildings combine to form the LL of a given territory, region, or urban agglomeration'. Gorter (2013) has included an electronic flat-panel display, Light Emitting Diode (LED) neon light, foam board, electronic message centers, digital signage, interactive touch screen, inflatable signage, and, scrolling banners under the purview of LL.

Blommaert (2013, p.ix) mentions that three linguists Alastair Pennycook, Brian Morgan, and Ryuko Kubota write that in recent years, linguistic landscape study has exploded due to a growing interest in urban multilingualism as well as a focus on language policy concerning public signs. The linguistic signs in public spaces can be categorized into two categories, private signs, and government signs.

Landry and Bourhis (1997) in their widely celebrated article included commercial signs on storefronts and business institutions such as retail stores and banks, commercial advertising on billboards, and advertising signs displayed in public transport and on private vehicles under the private signs. Insomuch as they have included public signs used by national, regional, or municipal governments in the domains of road signs, place names, street names, and inscriptions on government buildings such as ministries, hospitals, universities, metro stations, and public parks under the category of government signs. Notwithstanding, their classification of private and government signs suffers certain ambiguities. They have narrowed down the scope of private signs while solely emphasizing commercial signs. Private signs can be seen not only in commercial advertisements but also in different political propaganda such as demand for employment generation issues in the country and demand for reservation of quota in different domains to mention a few. Likewise, they have confined the government signs within the road signs, place names, and street names. Government signages may also contain advertisements on billboards, for instance, advertisements for family planning and maternal health. Hence, private signs refer to the signs that come from private domains such as private offices, shops, restaurants, associations, and institutions whereas government signs refer to the signs that come from government offices, institutions, and agencies. Both government and private signs comprise the LL of a geographical territory (Leclerc, 1989 cited in Landry & Bourhis 1997, p.27).

It is therefore to be mentioned that the domain (private or government) in which the signs are placed is not as important as from which part (private or government) they have been placed. It is noteworthy to mention that no scholars have classified linguistic signs of civil society in LL. In light of this, a key question is: Which category (private or government) best describes the linguistic signs from the part of civil society in LL? LL (including both private and government signs) of a particular geographical territory serves three functions; manifest, latent, and dysfunctional (see Merton, 1962, p.73-138). The manifest functions of LL are expected or intentional and apparent functions for which the institution, association, firm, or individual creates the signs. It includes territorial limit, language boundaries, language vitality, and language preferred, whereas latent functions of LL refer to

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unintentional or unexpected functions for which the signs are not created in public spaces. It includes the status of the linguistic group, the social identity of an ethnolinguistic group in the territory, and the power of a particular language or linguistic group.

Except for its two major functions, LL has a dysfunctional aspect as well. The dysfunction of LL is a kind of latent function that has a negative consequence. When the linguistic signs of LL would create some conflict and contestation between two or more linguistic groups dysfunction of LL becomes apparent. As a written language, LL of a geographical territory always communicates certain ideas to the public or wider society. Moreover, it can also be a means for a particular minority community for negotiating their ethnolinguistic identity in a multilingual society. The present paper empirically examines the identity negotiation process through LL among the Nepali community in Darjeeling.

Surveying Previous Research

So far as empirical research in the field of LL is concerned it has been observed that the primary focus of LL research has been limited to certain specific areas other than identity in general and particularly ethnolinguistic identity. The foci of LL research have been on linguistic vitality (see Barni & Bagna, 2010; Landry & Bourhis, 1997), the religious LL (see Coluzzi & Kitade, 2015), language visibility and power relation (see Begum & Sinha, 2018; Landry & Bourhis, 1997), differences between top-down and bottom-up signs (see Li, 2021); LL and language policy, language attitude (see Aiestaran et al., 2010; Begum & Sinha, 2018; Garvin, 2010; Raga, 2012; Wang, 2015), and LL of the landscape (see Kumar & Yunus, 2014).

Moreover, it was observed that the dichotomy of top-down and bottom-up signs has received more attention in LL research so far. As a result, it is noted that the connection between LL and ethnolinguistic identity has received the least attention in the previous research until the publication of the book namely *Negotiating and Contesting Identities in Linguistic Landscapes edited* by Blackwood et al. (2016). The book was the first collection of articles that explicitly focused on the issue of identities from the perspective of the LL, in a multilingual context. Even though the study of ethnolinguistic and cultural identities from the perspective of LL is still an under-researched area so far as the LL research field in the Indian context is concerned. In this context, Lanza and Woldemariam (2016, p. xvii) mention that the study of the LL of a particular territory inevitably involves the interweaving of language, culture, and identity. Consequently, more attention is needed to explore the identity negotiation process through LL where the linguistic tools act as expressions of communities facing identity crisis.

Methods and Data

The paper is based on previously researched literature as well as empirical data. Keywords such as identity, language, linguistic landscape, identity crisis, Nepali community, and linguistic identity among others have been useful for discerning articles on several academic platforms. Whereas to fetch the primary data, the researchers selected the location of the study based on the availability of the majority of people from the Nepali community in the Darjeeling district. The selection of the study area was done through the purposive sampling method based on the background

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understanding of the region from the research literature. Thus, Tindhury, Purba Karai Bari under *Champasari* Gram Panchayat, Darjeeling was selected as a location of the study.
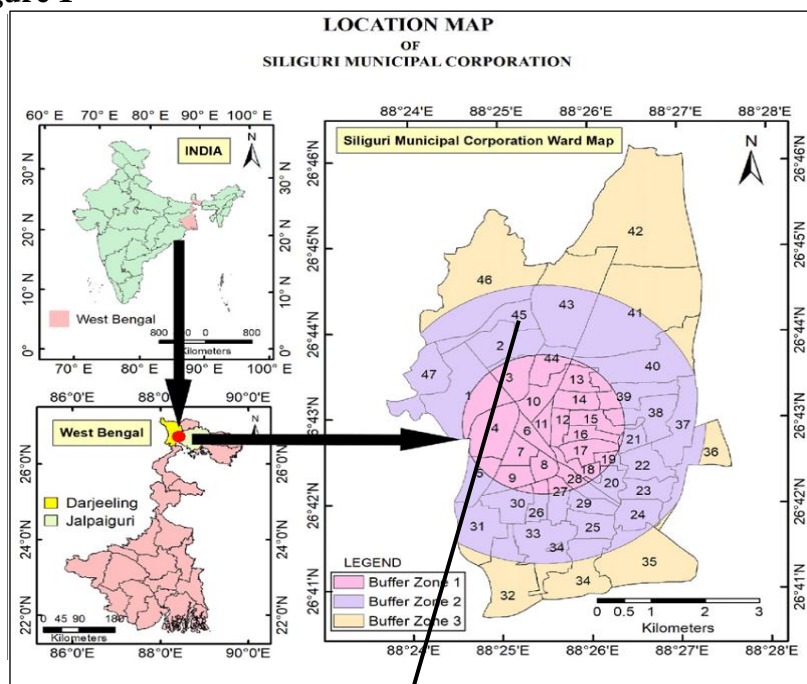
A total number of (available) 31 digital photographs (both bottom-up signs and top-down signs) were collected. Bottom-up signs comprising signs of the shops (owned by the members of the Nepali community) were purposively captured (all kinds of shops such as fast food and grocery to name a few) as the unit of analysis. The digital pictures of the top-down signs of the locality were also captured by the camera of a mobile phone (Vivo Y53, 8 megapixels). Furthermore, data were also collected through the unstructured interview method. The respondents of the study were the owners of the shops.

The qualitative interpretation of the data was accomplished from the subjective perspective of the community members for which the narratives (taken in their native language Nepali of which the authors have mentioned only the English version in this paper) of the respondents were collected.

Thus, it is to be mentioned that the present paper in the very first place presents language (the written) as a tool for excavating social realities. Then, it presents the complex relationship between identity and written language. Also, the paper contextualizes the LL of Darjeeling and its cruciality in the contemporary period presenting a case study of the Tindhury, Purba Karai Bari (urban agglomeration in Siliguri city) of the district followed by a conclusion. The primary argument of the paper has been in appropriating the LL of Darjeeling as a potential location for understanding the process of identity negotiation through the linguistic tool: LL. The authors have analyzed both the top-down and bottom-up signs prevailing in the linguistic landscape of the study area considering each establishment a unit of analysis.

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Map of the Study Area

Figure 1

Source: Adhikary, 2021

Tindhury Purba Karai Bari (study area)

Language and Meaning

We use language (a system of signs) to communicate with one another. Communication involves the expression of what we think about something. It is conceivable to go back to the ancient Greeks to trace the history of interest in languages. Notwithstanding the discourse of language among most philosophers was about the nature of language and its functions (Bahadoran-Baghbaderani & Zarei, 2018) until the beginning of the twentieth century. In this context, Baykent (2016) mentioned that language was a subject for discussion among philosophers if only it was necessary for pursuing epistemological or ontological questions. In simple words, language was taken for granted by philosophers (Bloomfield, 1984).

It was the *linguistic turn* in the early twentieth century led by Gottlob Frege and Bertrand Russell (Baykent, 2016) that proved to be the cornerstone in establishing language as a tool for understanding realities. The linguistic turn according to Slavkovsky and Kutas (2013), is a part of analytical philosophy. Analytical philosophy emerged from the effort of the scientific quest for philosophical interpretation of the world (Slavkovsky & Kutas, 2013). Put simply linguistic turn refers to the understanding the reality focusing on the language. It means that language was considered to be a tool for knowing realities. According to Baykent (2016), after the linguistic turn Language became the main area of philosophical study for its own sake. This particular turn for Rorty (1992) was responsible for the view that language could resolve the problem of philosophy. It is to be mentioned that in the history of philosophy, the role of language in knowledge production has

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been emerging since the historical period. However, it has become widespread only at the turn of the nineteenth and the early twentieth century. Thus, language has become a tool for arriving at the truth. In other words, "meaning is produced *within* language rather than reflected *by* language" (Baxter, 2016, p.36).

Yet the bias of logocentrism was found to be rampant among the great Western philosophers in favor of speech against written language. Later on, this bias influenced most linguists including the founder of linguistics, Ferdinand de Saussure (see Saussure, 1966). The influence according to Reed (1965) was conspicuous throughout the decades of the thirties to the fifties of the twentieth century. Saussure stressed spoken words instead of written texts (Ghosh, 2016) which according to Jacques Derrida is phonocentrism (see Derrida, 1998). Thus, spoken language was prioritized over written language (Mendie & Udofia, 2020) considering written signs merely the representation of spoken sounds (Coward, 1991; Reed, 1965). The linguist Saussure (1966) stated his viewpoint on written language, claiming that the only purpose of writing is to represent speech (Aaron & Joshi, 2006). Regarding logocentrism among linguists Reed (1965) mentions that several fresh pursuits among linguists (recording and analyzing unwritten language, comparative study of dialects of living languages, etc.) came together to make speech more popular than writing.

The dualism of speech and writing among linguists could be found based on a variety of reasons. Firstly, based on the origin of the traditions (speech and writing). Secondly, an underdeveloped writing system compared to available spoken dialects, and thirdly, based on the level of complexity in acquiring. However, Mendie and Udofia (2020) claimed that the priority is based on the ability of explicit meaning production. The audience is closer to the essence of the *meaning* in the case of speech (Mendie & Udofia, 2020). In other words, the sign of *presence* is present in speech. While a sign of *absence* is present in the written text. We speak (do not write) with someone face to face when they are with us.

Consequently, the speech version of the language has no issue of ambiguity as per the ideology of logocentrism. It produces an objective and universal meaning contrary to the written form of language. Therefore, meaning is singular, frozen, and has a structure. Written language is out of the purview of such objective meaning production according to the assumption of logocentrism (see Derrida, 1998). This kind of philosophical and methodological perspective was considered to be fashionable during the decade of the 1960s. This particular perspective came to be known as structuralism. Structuralism has conveyed a large current of logocentric thought that goes back to Plato's time (Mendie & Udofia, 2020). Derrida challenges the Western philosophical tradition by employing *deconstruction* and liberates the meaning (Yegen & Abukan, 2014) from the hegemony of the speech. Derrida strikes logocentrism denying the notion of the primacy of speech over writing.

In fact, as per Derrida (1998), writing not only symbols spoken words but also continually represents language. Moreover, the notion of homogeneity, singularity, stable, foundational, definitive nature of reality was no more entertained. Because there is no center, structure, or definite meaning. In this context, it is to be mentioned that text can be interpreted variously and produce different meanings. In this context of the dualism of speech and writing linguists from the Prague

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Circle according to Aaron and Joshi (2006), believe that spoken and written languages are distinct systems that should be treated equally, whereas, unlike linguists from the Prague Circle, Bloomfield (1984) does not consider writing a *language* instead for him written language is merely a way to capture speech.

Despite the demoted written language to a lower rank, not all modern scholars share the belief that written language exists only to embellish spoken language (Aaron & Joshi, 2006). In this context, rather it can be claimed that LL advocates the view that spoken and written languages are distinct representations of language. LL as already mentioned comprises written language in public spaces. Interaction and communication take place among people through LL of different kinds. LL is thus, based on the principle of social constructionism as Garcia (2015) mentions that the social world is shaped by conversation, conceived as patterns of joint activities similar to games. Now, after positioning the significance of (written) language for the production of genuine knowledge and presenting the cruciality of the written language the authors discuss the correspondence between language and identity in the following section.

Language and Identity

Identity is a complex multidimensional term to define explicitly. It has become a prominent buzzword among social scientists as well as laymen. Explaining the commonness of the word Coulmas (2019) says that today identity has become a household word. According to the *Australian National Dictionary Centre 2015,* the word identity was considered the word of the year (Coulmas, 2019). Identity is not something that one can possess rather it is something that one does (Jenkins, 2008, p. 5).

The word **identity** has a Latin root – *identitas*, from idem, meaning, 'the same' (Jenkins, 2008; Coulmas, 2019). Therefore, identity is all about sameness and difference (Coulmas, 2019). It is to be mentioned that in the context of identity, the question of who we are is crucial. Because, as per Llamas and Watt (2009, p.1-8), although the individual sense of self is an important element of identity, locating identity inside the mind discounts the social ground for it.

Smith (2016) argues that identity can be understood by posing two simple questions who we are? And how the world is related to us? Furthermore, several aspects of ourselves such as race, gender, class, occupation, sexual orientation, age, and language among others help us in understanding who we are (Kanno, 2003). Smith (2016) asserts that many more aspects make up one's identity. For Jenkins (2008) Identity is rooted in language to know who is/are who? Reinforcing the importance of language in the context of identity, Joseph (2014, p.19) contains that language manifests categories to which people affix themselves and indexes ways of their utterance, and conduct to cue their belonging. Language is both exclusive as well as inclusive.

Language as exclusive demarcates every speaker from all others and binds together the speakers of the same language to form a linguistic community. In this sense, one can claim that through language, identities are constructed (Baxter, 2016), the identity of a group of people speaking the same language i.e., ethnolinguistic identity. Advocating the cruciality of the linguistic dimension

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of cultural formation Kennedy (2019) advocates for the positive role of language in the construction of cultural identity by strengthening community connection, whereas, identifying the significance of language in identity construction, Peters (1999) argues that people develop a sense of community 'we feeling' through language as a form of communication.

Moreover, based on linguistic similarity scattered individuals come together to create real or imagined relationships among themselves (Chiang, 2010). It is observed that there is an explicit paradigm shift in understanding identity from an essentialist perspective to a non-essentialist perspective in contemporary identity discourse. Identity is not a fixed entity rather it is always in a state of flux. It is not all about being but a process of becoming. Jenkins (2008) has rightly pointed out that identity is sociocultural in its origin, somewhat negotiable, and flexible. The very nature of identity is fluid as a result it is subject to contestation. In other words, identity according to Norton (2000, p.25), is a "site of struggle". Similarly, there is no existence of a homogenous or unchanging form of language. Language is no longer a possession of a particular group or community rather it is circumstantial. Moreover, it is also a site of struggle as people construct their linguistic associations based on time and space. It is no longer appreciable to identify people based on what language they speak. Because perhaps they originally belong to a linguistic group but they project differently belonging to a particular linguistic group. It is common-sense knowledge to associate a person with a particular linguistic group or community (or particular territory sometimes outside the nation-state) based on the language he or she speaks.

However, commonsensical knowledge is not always lawful. For instance, a person can speak the Bengali language perfectly despite the fact the person is not originally from the Bengali linguistic community. Therefore, like identity, language is also constructed and not static. However, the construction is not free from negotiation. This negotiation process is eternal. People always engage in negotiation in terms of circumstances. Identity is a reciprocal process as it is not important what perception we have about who we are. But it is most important that what we want to project our identity is. Moreover, what others have a perception about who we are is most important in identity construction. Identity is constructed in an interaction respective of time and space between self (agent/agency) and other (society/structure). In the ongoing interaction between agency and structure, the process of negotiation occurs in which the agents utilize several tools including linguistic tools: LL. In this context, it is to be mentioned that linguistic landscape (LL) as a linguistic tool has its cruciality in the process of identity negotiation.

Contextualizing Darjeeling as a Field of LL Research: History and Biography

Darjeeling is a multicultural, multi-ethnic, and multilingual (Booth, 2009) landscape. Present-day Darjeeling was *Dorje-ling* (in the Lepcha language). It means 'Place of the Thunderbolt'. Lepcha people were indigenous to the territory (O'Malley, 1999). Historically the territory of Darjeeling was under the dominance of different power. Due to the political instability of this geographical territory, the territoriality of the collectives was not permanent rather it changed with the change of dominance. The region of Darjeeling was under the dominance of *Chogyal* (King) of Sikkim until 1788 (Pradhan, 2009). It is to be mentioned that from the year 1780 till 1816 the territory of Darjeeling was under the Gorkhas. During the Gorkha conquest the formation of Nepal was in progress. Consequently,

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Nepal was not Nepal then). Due to the treaty of Sugauli, 1815-16, the Gorkhas had to return Darjeeling to Sikkim as a result of the Anglo-Gorkha war (1814-1815). Hence, Darjeeling was under the dominance of Gorkhas for almost thirty-six years. As a result, ethnic groups (Tibeto-Burman language family) such as Rai, Limbu, Tamang, Gurung, Magar, Sunwar, and Thami to name a few, and Bahun (Brahmin), Chhetri (Kshatriya), Kami, Damai, and Sarki (Indo-Aryan family speakers) had already been sparsely settled in the territory with the local Lepchas of then Darjeeling. It is noteworthy to mention that such ethnic groups had distinct languages that differed from each other.

In the year 1835, the region became a part of British Indian domination (Sarkar, 2008) to become a sanatorium as well as to serve as a strategic hub for Europeans (O'Malley, 1999). Until the British acquired the region, it was under a dense forest (O'Malley, 1999, p.35). Contrary to the argument of O'Malley (1999), Pradhan (2010) claims that there was already an existence of distinct ethnic groups especially the *Kirati* tribes in the region who were driven out by the oppressive administration of the Chogyal of Sikkim in post-Sugauli treaty. This might be the reason why O'Malley (1999) found only a few people as the population of the region. Later on, when Darjeeling started growing tea successfully in 1848 (Griffiths, 1967) Kirati tribes such as Khambu, Sunwar, Mukhiya, Tamang, Yakkha, Limbu, and other related ethnolinguistic groups added more ethnolinguistic flavor (as tea plantation laborers) to the society in Darjeeling. In this context, it is also to be mentioned that between the years 1840 and 1860, almost twelve percent to fifteen percent of the total Kirati population of then Eastern Nepal existed in colonial Darjeeling (Pradhan, 2009, p.192). Consequently, the territory became culturally and linguistically more diversified. Later on, the heterogenous ethnolinguistic groups united as a culturally homogenous group in Darjeeling instrumentalizing a common language i.e., the Nepali language.

This internal homogeneity was a stipulation for surviving in the oppressive and difficult colonized environment of tea plantations. Nonetheless, the Sanskritisation process can be assumed to be a motivation among several tribal groups in doing away with their linguistic and cultural practices. But the collective solidarity was a more powerful force for them to protect their interest under an umbrella term of the Nepali community bounded by a common language and culture associated with the language. The speaker of the Nepali language culturally came to be known as (an umbrella term) the Nepali community in Darjeeling. Thus, linguistically and culturally distinct ethnolinguistic groups become integral elements of the culturally homogenous Nepali speech community.

In contemporary periods ethnolinguistic revivalism movement has been observed among the Nepali ethnic groups in Darjeeling. Each ethnic group is being encouraged to the usage of their original (forgotten) dialect, rituals, and customs under the banner of several ethnic associations. One can sense such ethnolinguistic and cultural revivalism as a bedrock for the demand for tribalism (see Chhetri, 2017; Sarkar, 2014; Shneiderman &Turin, 2006; Tamang, 2018) which can be a reason for inter-ethnolinguistic contestation in Darjeeling (Sarkar, 2014).

The contemporary state of affairs in Darjeeling as a multicultural and multilingual society may urge the emergence of a distinct linguistic landscape that needs a serious empirical investigation. Besides, currently, Darjeeling is an abode of several speech communities such as Nepali, Hindi,

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Bengali, Bihari, and Tibetan (Booth, 2009). It also witnesses the increasing domination of the global English language for being one of the most visited tourist spots in the country. Consequently, the dynamic LL of Darjeeling has been a distinguishing feature of the multilinguistic society in the district.

Besides time and again occurring identity movements among the Nepali community make Darjeeling a peculiar LL. One can easily observe the public spaces full of billboards, hoarding, graffiti, and mural appealing and asserting their ethnolinguistic identity.

Therefore, an empirical study of Darjeeling is imperative in the present context. An empirical case study of an urban agglomeration, namely *Tindhury Purba Karai Bari* of Siliguri under the Darjeeling district is presented in the following section showing how the ethnic communities assert ethnolinguistic identity through their LL.

Findings

Tindhury Purba Karai Bari, an urban agglomeration comes under the Darjeeling district in Siliguri city of North Bengal. Most of the population of the study area is from the Nepali community which was why the present researchers selected the study area. Of the total 31 signs in the study area, no single name was found written in the Nepali language using Devanagari script. Instead, almost all of the names were found written in the English alphabet if not in the English language. It is noteworthy to mention that all of the bottom-up signs were found written in the Nepali language using the Roman script or in mixed code of Nepali and English language using Roman script, whereas, top-down signs were found written in Nepali language using Devanagari script in the study area.

Figure 2: Name of the Shop Written in Nepali
Language/mixed code, using the Roman Script

The owner of the shop *Doko*[1] Café & Restaurant, Ram Chhetri (name changed), 32 years old a B. A graduate (see figure. 2) says:

"I love my language (Nepali) very much. I thought of writing the name of the shop in the Nepali language (Devnagari script) because I know the language carries our culture and therefore if the language dies our culture also dies for sure. But this shop is for

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[1] The term Doko refers to a hand-woven basket made of bamboo in in the Nepali language.

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people who come from different parts of Siliguri or North Bengal who may not understand the Nepali (written) language and I am a businessman. I had to compromise in this case. Therefore, I kept the name of my shop in Nepali language but using the roman script which on the one hand carries the essence of Nepali culture as well as business purpose on the other hand". (Source: Fieldwork, 18/08/2022, Tindhury Purba Karai Bari).

Figure 3: Top-down Sign Written in
Nepali Language

Although every respondent was not educated as Chhetri, most of the respondents were having the same anecdote as Chhetri behind using English/roman script and not using the Nepali language particularly using Devanagari script in writing the name of their shop.

It can be depicted from the above narrative that economic reason has been the prime factor for them to abandon the Nepali language scripted in Devanagari for writing their shop names. It must be noted here that no single name of the shops was found written in Bengali despite the fact Bengali is a dominant language in West Bengal in general and North Bengal particularly. Merely one bottom-up sign was found written in Hindi language using the Roman script in the LL of the urban agglomeration. As already mentioned, that top-down signs were found written in Nepali language scripted in Devanagari (see figure 3). The major reason for this is that the Nepali language is also an official (second) language of West Bengal. However, in the same top-down sign besides the Nepali language, it was also found written the English alphabet signifying the short form of what was written in the Nepali language as G.T.A (Gorkhaland Territorial Administration) (see figure 3).

Figure 4: Sign Written in Hindi language using Roman scrip

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Kailash (name changed), a 35 years old owner of a restaurant (class 10th passed) says –

"Today the world is dominated by the English language. English is a must if one wants to do well in the future. No matter how fine we are in the Nepali language we cannot do much in the future. Almost everyone knows the English alphabet if not proper English. They understand English greater than the Nepali language or way of Nepali writing. It is not that I am rejecting the importance of our mother tongue. Only I am saying that the scope of the Nepali language is narrow. Therefore, we should accept the demand of the situation". (Source: Fieldwork, 18/08/2022, Tindhury Purba Karai Bari).

More than two respondents have the same narration regarding the scope of the Nepali language and its utilitarian value. The English language was given more importance over their mother tongue, and the dominant language (Bengali) which was quite surprising. It shows the increasing utilitarian value of the English language among Nepalis. Moreover, one specific trend was found among them in naming their shops signs. Most of them have kept the name of their shop reflecting the identity of their specific ethnic group, (see figure 5 and 6). As already mentioned above the ethnolinguistic revivalism motivates ethnic members in asserting their identity through signs in LL.

Figure 5: Shop Sign Reflecting ethnic (Thapa) Identity of the owner

Karma Thapa (name changed) 40 years old (literate) owner of a grill shop kept the name of the shop as *Thapa Grill Works*. He (sarcastically) interprets the reason behind keeping his shop name emphasising his ethnic identity as:

"In this place, almost everyone keeps the name of their shop reflecting their ethnic group such as Rai, Kulung, Thapa, et cetera. Then, why should not I? I also have my own ethnic identity as they have. Many of them have stopped celebrating *Dasain*[2] and *Tihar*[3] considering themselves not belonging to the Nepali community. However, I follow all

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[2] It is a festival among the Hindu Nepalis in India celebrated on the eve of Vijayadashami. During this festival, they take blessing of the elderly people of the family. It is also a kind of get-together of family members.
[3] A festival of light which is also known as Deepawali celebrated among Hindu Nepalis. It is celebrated for five days. On the last day of Tihar the sisters offer a respectful ritual to the brother and pray for their long lives for them. Also, the brothers promise sister for providing protection in their thick and thin periods. It is similar to Bhai Dooj.

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our festivals unlike them because we had been celebrating them since our great grandfathers". (Source: Fieldwork, (18/08/2022, Tindhury Purba Karai Bari).

Figure 6: Shop Sign Reflecting ethnic (Rai) Identity of the owner

It is to be mentioned that the Nepali language is not visible in the LL of Tindhury neither because they have a negative attitude towards the language nor using the Nepali language in public space is a shame for them. It is because of the nature of the place and the purpose of the signs. Basically, Tindhury is a small domestic tourist spot. Therefore, making the tourists understand/ recognisable the name of the shop the usage of English or roman script (even if they use the concept of the Nepali language) is rampant. Nevertheless, they use the Nepali language in their day-to-day communication. In fact, the language is a lingua franca even among those people who emphasised their specific ethnic identity. In fact, except for a few exceptional cases, they are unknown to their ethnic (original) language.

It must be mentioned that during the field survey the researchers came across a program in the study area. The program was on the occasion of *Bhasha Diwas* (the day the Nepali language was included in the eighth schedule of the constitution). It was organised by the Nepalis to celebrate their Nepali *language day*. Interestingly during the program all of them irrespective of their original ethnicity such as Rai, Thapa, and Chhetri collectively celebrated the *Bhasha Diwas* enthusiastically. This shows a contestation in claiming their specific ethnic identities.

Discussion and Conclusion

The linguistic landscape is composed of written signs in public spaces. LL is more concerned with written language (signs). It is an emerging field of research in sociolinguistics. Nevertheless, the major focus of the research is other than identity in general. Moreover, so far as the LL research in the Indian context is concerned no research has been found dealing with the interplay between LL and identity negotiation despite its peculiarity of multicultural and multilingualism. Moreover, the Darjeeling district is characterized by its multi-ethnicity and resulting in multilinguistic features and dynamism of the LL of the region. The region can be termed a cultural museum of West Bengal for its diversified ethnolinguistic feature. Furthermore, Darjeeling is a growing urban agglomeration as well as a dynamic site of LL because of its inheritance movement for identity issues. In addition to this, it is a tourist spot for both domestic and international tourists. Therefore, the dynamism of its LL should be understood empirically. Identity negotiation through LL is one of the aspects of LL research. Although it has been established as a distinct research field, not before the present century,

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it is rapidly gaining relevance in contemporary urban studies. One of the reasons for its expanding scope is the phenomenon of mass migration and diaspora formation in urban areas. Multiethnicities, multilingualism, and multiculturalism have become some of the concurrent features of every urban area. Consequently, silent conflicts, contradictions, antagonism, and frictions have also become inherent to the urban lifestyle. As a result, the dominant ethnic, and linguistic groups play the *game of history* (distorted history) and socially stigmatize their existence to subordinate the minorities. The identities become confused for the minorities, once their history gets politicized. Consequently, the process of assertion, modification, manifestation, and reflection of identities takes place as a reaction to politicized history and social stigmatization. To establish their legitimization, the marginalized minority communities not only utilize the available authenticated history but also emphasize producing legitimate knowledge. Besides, they negotiate identity using linguistic tools such as LL. In this whole identity negotiation, social scientists are fascinated to understand the *process* of negotiation.

Darjeeling - both as an urban agglomeration and a district- as a multilingual, multicultural, and multi-ethnic region should be examined from the perspective of LL to understand the process of identity negotiation among the Nepali community.

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