# SOME LAMANI SENTENCE TYPES: AN EXPERIMENT IN PEDAGOGICAL RESEARCH

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#### I. INTRODUCTION

There seem to be two near polar philosophies about education. Both are aimed at eventual independent creative work on the part of the student. Both give thorough theoretical orientation prior to practical field work. They differ however, in the means used to transfer the student from dependence to independence. The one expects the student to begin work immediately after theory with little, if any, orientation as to method or heuristic. The other not only gives a thorough orientation on method, but requires the student to work side by side with the instructor on practical field problems before being asked to do independent work. It is this latter technique which has been used in the work reported in this paper. Our purpose is to report on our experiment by recording our procedures and results with the hope that others doing similar research will find it useful.

In early 1974 I was asked to teach a course in sentence analysis to a class of students in the Linguistic Training Course of the Institute of Nepal and Asiatic Studies and the Summer Institute of Linguistics of Tribhuvan University, Kathmandu, Nepal. As I had other work to do besides the teaching, it was necessary to find a way of teaching that would require a minimum of time of outside class preparation on

the part of the instructor. It occurred to me that if we could use class time for research and write-up as well as instruction, we could accomplish this goal. I had been wanting to do some work on the sentence structure of Lamani<sup>1</sup>, and saw that it would be instructive for the students to watch and participate in actual sentence-level procedures in action. If the students could not only be oriented as to theory and method, but could also watch and participate in actual language analysis, their learning would be much more complete and I could finish some much needed analysis as well as teach the course.

The following then were the ground rules used in the course. Class was held for two hours daily and consisted of four students, one Lamani language assistant, and the instructor. All six have been listed as co-authors of this paper. Our class room research procedure is given in eleven steps listed below. Our purpose was to familiarise ourselves with sentence as a semantico-grammatical level, and then to research and write up in class as many sentence types in Lamani as course time would permit. It was understood that initially the instructor would carry the main load of research until the class felt sufficiently familiar with the method to assist, but that from the beginning class would be informal and open to suggestions, comments, and questions by the students.

Class was begun with presentation of a survey of sentence types to be expected in any language and instruction in a means of formulaic display for each type via a four-box tagmeme system (see Trail 1973b. Notes on sentence structure). Time allowed us to cover four sentence types using the following research procedures on each:

- 1) Decide on the sentence type to be investigated.
- Read in the literature about any theoretical discussions of that type and any practical work done on that type in related languages.
- 3) Look for examples of the sentence type in text and/or ask the language assistant to give examples. (If the assistant lacks the sophistication required to do this, other methods of elicitation will be necessary such as asking the assistant to translate examples of the sentence type from national language examples, or making up hypothetical situations which would naturally involve the use of that sentence type, and asking him to retell it in his language.)
- 4) After sufficient examples have been collected (five to ten for a beginning), divide each sentence into its constituent parts and arrange the examples with translation in a systematic manner so as to facilitate observations. That is, if the sentence has three

- constituents, arrange the examples so that similar constituents from example to example fall into the same column.
- 5) Make observations about the sentence recorded, meticulously writing out these observations. These will later provide material for further investigation and final write-up. Typical observations have to do with number of constituents, form of verbs, deletion patterns, form of links or relators, mood restrictions, tense-aspect pairing patterns across the bases, and so on.
- 6) From the observations and the data, form hypotheses about the structure of the type and then proceed to confirm or disprove these by checking with other data and asking questions of the language assistant.
- 7) After all observations have been made about the data, the following check list of questions was found useful to make sure we had covered all important areas of possible fruitful investigation.

  (Some of these will overlap with observations already made.)
  - a) Can we permute (change the order of) the constituent parts?

    Does the meaning change or remain the same? Are other structural changes necessary in order to permute?
  - b) Must we have same Subject or Actor in both bases? Must we have the same Predicate or same terms in both bases?
  - c) What happens if we add negative to one base?
  - d) Can we make the sentence interrogative?
  - e) Can we make the sentence imperative?
  - f) Can the verb forms of the bases change? If so, what restrictions are there on which forms can occur?
  - g) Are there any cross-referencing particles occurring across the bases like 'if...then', or 'although...yet'.
  - h) Are there any discernible deletion patterns?
  - i) Are there any restrictions on the clause type which may fill either of the bases?
  - j) Are there other ways of expressing the same relationship between the bases?
- 8) Make a workchart of one or two examples according to the pattern given in Notes on Sentence Structure p. 7. (This step may be merged with 9) if it is not found necessary as a separate step.)
- From the workchart or data make a formula or formulae which adequately represent the data covered.
- 10) Write up the results drawing on your observations and examples.

  (For the write-up format that we found useful, see the four Lamani sentence types given below.)

11) Pass out a draft copy of your write-up to interested scholars for their comments before proceeding to make polished copies.

Using this procedure we examined in class four Lamani sentence types: Conditional, Antithetical, Alternative, and Conjunctive. We present them below largely as they were written up in class and later discussed and polished.

One further note should be made. In this paper we are viewing a sentence as a distinctive semantic relationship which exists between two propositions or groups of propositions, correlated with a grammatical relationship — coordinate or subordinate — which exists between two clauses or groups of clauses, and which has definite phonological boundaries of aperture and closure. This means that the traditional simple sentence consisting of only one proposition or clause is beyond the scope of our study.

#### II. SOME LAMANI SENTENCE TYPES

#### A. CONDITIONAL SENTENCE

#### 1. Contrast

# a. Formula

\* This notation refers to the deep structure only and therefore to the value system of the language. Underlying it is the assumption that positive causes give only positive results and vice versa. For the surface structure rules regarding the positive and negative interplay between the bases, see the last paragraph under this type below.

# b. Description

In Lamani the conditional sentence is composed of just two bases the first of which is dependent and the second independent. The first base is made dependent by the obligatory presence of the relator to 'if'. For the pairing of aspect and tense across the bases see Figure 1 below. Semantically the first proposition stands as a conditional cause of the hypothetical result or consequent proposition. The whole sentence is therefore hypothetical or unreal and in this area it

contrasts sharply with the temporal sequence sentence which implies certainty or reality.

#### 2. Variation

THE ASPECT-TENSE PAIRINGS ACROSS THE BASES. In general contingent or subjunctive-like aspects characterise the pairings especially in the consequent proposition. One exception to this is when perfect is paired with perfect in the putative contrafactual sentence yet to be investigated.

Conditional Proposition Aspect/Tense	Consequent Proposition Aspect/Tense	Example	
future	future	1	
future	vb-e-waaL	2	
future	potential		
future	present		
potential	imperative	5	
potential	future		
potential	potential		
potential	vb-er cha	6	
present	present		
perfect	future	7	
perfect	future perfect	8	

Figure 1. Some typical aspect/tense pairings in the conditional sentence.

Although the chart is not exhaustive, it is representative of the kind of pairing which frequently occurs in the language. As has been pointed out, most of the aspects are of the contingent or unverifiable class. Perhaps the most easily understood of these is the pairing of future with future.

1) ye katraa-n maar-i-s to, ma ghar r-i-yũ this dog-obj kill-will-you if, I home stay-will-I If you kill the dog I will stay home.

Another pairing with future is the -e-waal aspect which is translated either, 'about to \_\_' or 'will \_\_'. The example below followed example 1 in a text and can be considered a fair transform of it with perhaps a bit of emphasis added. 2) ye katraa-n maar-l aa-l-s to, ma ghar re-waaL ch-ũ this dog-obj kill-ing come-will-you if, I home stay-er am-I If you kill the dog and return I will stay home.

A note should be added that the morpheme jar 'if', can be inserted in the conditional proposition of any conditional sentence. Its function seems to be to emphasise the to 'if'. It also serves to make a conditional sentence unambiguous with an identical temporal sequence sentence. (Since this analysis, we now have reason to believe that jar is not Lamani but Marathi. If so, though it would have no emphatic function in a pure Lamani sentence, it could still be used to disambiguate a questionable sentence.) Note the following English pair:

- 3) When I come she will be happy.
- 4) If I come she will be happy.

These two could have the same surface structure in Lamani, but jar could only be added to the second meaning.

Not unexpected is the pairing of potential and imperative — both unrealised aspects.

5) ek dan taar kan aaTo na ra to, maar kan-ti le-n kho one day your near flour not is if, my near-from tak-ing eat!

If one day you do not have enough flour, take from me and eat!

Potential also pairs with obligatory aspect which is semantically related to imperative.

6) naaNkyaa bhaai-n k-ũ to, aad gaThDi de-r cha ma-na younger brother-obj say-I if, ½ bundle giv-ing is me-to If I tell my younger brother, I will have to give him half of the treasure.

Unexpectedly the perfect aspect pairs with the future. At first it seemed that there must be some mistake until it was realised that the future needed to be translated 'would' rather than 'will' in this context. Future then doubles for both 'will' and 'would' in Lamani.

7) jar wo gaThDi haat lagaaD-i to, gaanjyaa wo-na cunD jaa-i-ya if that bundle hand placed-she if, wasps her-to sting go-will-they If she placed her hand on that bundle, the wasps would sting her.

It helps in translating this sentence to preface the sentence with 'supposing' rather than 'if'.

8) Jar daal khaar we g-i \_\_\_\_to, khaar we g-i w-i-ya if dal salty we went-it if, salty be went-it be-will-it If the lentils were salty, they would/will have been salty.

The conditional idea is closely related to the temporal sequence idea. Because of this, there can be ambiguity when both sentence types use the same relator to 'if/when'. We therefore felt it important to show how these two contrast so that given an example which is ambiguous, we could by applying certain tests, determine which one was intended. Figure 2 lists six ways in which the two are distinct.

	Conditional		Temporal Sequence
1)	The conditional relator is to $'if'$ .	1)	The temporal relators are: to 'if', janaa 'when', -er paca 'after', etc.
2)	Aspect/tense pairings are mostly hypothetical.	2)	Aspect/tense pairings are mostly declarative.
3)	Sentence can be trans- formed to interrogative without structural change.	3)	Sentence can be transformed to interrogative but a structural change is required.
4)	Bases may be permuted without loss of meaning or structural change.	4)	Bases may be permuted with- out loss of meaning, but to must be replaced by janea and occur between the bases.
5)	Accepts jar 'if'.	5)	Rejects jar 'if'.
6)	The condition can be expressed negatively by the formula na to 'if not', following the sentence.	6)	The prior proposition cannot be expressed negatively by na to following the sentence.

Figure 2. Conditional-Temporal contrast chart.

surface Positive-Negative Pairings. By surface structure negative we insist on the presence of a negative morpheme like 'no' or 'not'. If one of these is absent from the clause we will label that proposition a positive proposition. Keeping this in mind, the following rule applies: If the consequence proposition is in the declarative mood, then the surface pairings of positive-negative, negative-positive, positive-positive, and negative-negative across the bases, require that if a change is made in one base a reciprocal change be made in the other. That is,

with the positive in the first base and a negative in the second, the changing of positive to negative in the first base requires a corresponding change of negative to positive in the second if the truth value of the sentence is to remain unchanged. Similarly, negative-positive becomes positive-negative; and positive-positive becomes negative-negative and vice versa. This was noted in our attempt to add negative to one base of the conditional sentence, Example 9 below. The informant insisted that negative be added to both bases as in Example 10.

- 9) jar tũ aa-is to, ma aa-i-yũ if you come-will if I come-will-I If you come then I will come.
- 10) jar tũ koni aa-is to, ma koni aa-i-yũ if you not come-will if, I not come-will-I If you do not come then neither will I.

# B. ANTITHETICAL SENTENCE

### 1. Contrast

#### a. Formula

IB	I CL	+	LINK	Сj	paN	+	IB	I CL
Thesis Prop	P		Adver- sative Conn	٨	'but'		Anti- thesis Prop	Ω

# /b. Description

The antithetical sentence in Lamani is composed of three grammatical constituents — an independent base, a link, and a second independent base. Semantically these function respectively as thesis, adversative connector, and antithesis. Opposition characterises this sentence type. The adversative connector in each case signals either contrast, frustrated expectancy, a counterbalancing consideration, or a thwarting reason to the concept of the thesis proposition. These semantic areas of opposition are illustrated below. Although they contrast semantically, there has been insufficient grammatical difference to warrant separate types.

# 2. Variation

CONTRAST. This domain requires a two-fold opposition across the bases. That is, two clause constituents of one base must contrast with

two corresponding constituents of the other. The three types of contrast may be symbolised as follows:

- a) Pa A Pb
- b) Pa A P"b
- c) Pax A Pby

In which  $\Lambda = 'but'$ ; P = predicate; a,b = terms of predicates; x,y = terms of predicates with spatial or temporal functions;  $\bar{P}$  = negation of P; and P" = antonym or situational opposite of predicate P. Note that either two terms of one proposition contrast with two terms of the other, or the predicate plus a term of one contrasts with the predicate plus a term of the other. These are illustrated in Examples 1, 2, 3 below corresponding to a, b, c above.

- 1) yaaDi se kes paN i waat mat ka woman all tell! but this matter don't tell! Tell everything, woman, but don't tell about this one thing! Note the double contrast: a versus b, that is, 'all' versus 'this matter'; and P versus P, that is, 'tell!' versus 'don't tell!'.
- 2) premer jyot sadaa bal cha paN bekaarer jyot jaldi love's flame always burns -- but evil's flame quickly khatam wa cha finished is --

Love's flame never goes out but evil's flame is quickly extinguished. Here 'love's flame' is opposed to 'evil's flame', and 'always burns' to 'is quickly finished'.

3) tũ to maare goDe par so go paN ma ker goDe par soũ you then my knee on slept but I whose knee on may sleep You have slept on my knee, but on whose knee shall I sleep?

Now our predicates remain the same, so the double contrast is between 'you' and 'I', and between 'on my knee' and 'on whose knee?'.

There remains the distinct possibility that a Q proposition could substitute for either  $\bar{P}$  or  $P^{*}$ , and thereby contrast with P. If so, it would add a further category to the above three.

FRUSTRATED EXPECTANCY. As Longacre (1972:68) has pointed out, this type of antithesis is built on the concept of expectancy chains such as 'start out...arrive', and 'serach for...find'. In the antithetical sentence, the expectancy chain is broken. In Example 4 the expectancy chain which is broken is, 'spend money...obtain an audience'. Whereas Contrast required a two-fold difference between the propositions, this

and the following two domains require only a single contrasting or opposing idea.

4) laakosi rapiyaa ma karac kido paN maare darsan din-i koni 100,000 rupees I squander did but my audience gave-she not I squandered 100,000 rupees but she did not give me an audience.

COUNTERBALANCING CONSIDERATION. In this type, the first proposition presents an idea whose situational value is either positive or negative. That is, it either raises or lowers the expectancy of the audience. The second proposition then serves to counterbalance this expectancy by presenting an opposite or mitigating consideration which has an opposite effect on the expectancy of the audience. In Example 5 the negative value of 'small' of the first proposition is opposed by the positive value of 'very wise' of the second.

5) sasyaa jaat naaNkyaa cha paN phaar capaL cha rabbit class small is but very wise is The rabbit is small but very wise.

Note the deletion of the subject from the second proposition because it is shared by both.

THWARTING REASON. In this type the reason which thwarts or obstructs the accomplishment of the logical outcome of the thesis proposition is presented as the antithesis proposition. The logical outcome is not explicitly stated but is left to the audience to supply. Note the following extended example in which the logical outcome is put in parentheses.

6) I wanted to go to the cinema but (I didn't because) I didn't have any money.

We have symbolised this by P  $\wedge$  ( $\overline{P}$ ) P"', in which P"' = a thwarting or obstructing predicate to predicate P.

7) holi ramen jaa ro to paN baaper parwaaNgi koni maLi
Holi to play go -ing was but father's permission not gotten
I was going to play Holi but my father didn't give permission.

Notice how the proposition  $'I\ didn't\ go'$  is left implicit and how the prohibition of the father thwarted the original intention.

8) ma M.A. padwir pariksha den jaaewaalo rü paN wele par I M.A. degree exam to give going was but time on bimaar paD go sick fell

I was about to take my exam for my M.A. degree but just then I got sick.

#### MISCELLANEOUS OBSERVATIONS AND RESTRICTIONS

- a) Unlike the imperative and declarative moods, interrogative can only be added to the second base where it serves to make only that base interrogative.
- b) No stateable patterns emerged in the study of aspect/tense pairings across the bases. There were three instances of pairing of the same aspect in one base with the same in the other perfect with perfect, imperative with imperative, and present with present.

#### C. ALTERNATIVE SENTENCE

#### 1. Contrast

#### a. Formulae

#### Exclusive Alternative Sentence:

# Inclusive Alternative Sentence:

The exclusive alternative sentence turns on an 'or' which permits no third choice. The conceptual universe of the sentence is divided into two polarised choices typically positive versus negative of the same predicate, or the use of antonyms between predicates or corresponding terms in opposing propositions. Inclusive alternation on the other hand, permits a third choice. Here the alternation turns on different predicates or different main participants of the propositions. (We use the term 'main participant' as meaning the participant most closely associated with the action of the verb whether that participant is Actor or Undergoer).

Grammatically these sentences are coordinate structures with obligatory links between the bases. The final base, although potentially independent, often undergoes heavy deletion leaving it dependent both semantically and grammatically on the first.

# 2. Variation

## a. Exclusive Alternation

We have observed five subtypes of exclusive alternation which are as follows:

- a) Pa ≠ Pa (Examples 1 & 2)
  - b) Pa ≠ Pb (Example 3)
  - c) Pa ≠ P"a (Example 4)
  - d) Pa ≠ Pa" (Example 5)
  - e) Pa ≠ Qa (Example 6)

 $( \not\equiv = \text{exclusive alternation} - \text{no other choice permitted.} )$ 

- 1) chori-n da cha ka de-ni
   girl-obj give -- or give-not
   Will they give the girl or not?
- 2) se jiwan surusti, maNkyaa, praaNi-ti budiwaan cha ka cheni all created life man animals-than wise is or is not In all of created life is man wiser than the animals or not?

Note in these two examples the complete deletion of everything except the negative form of the verb in the second base.

3) yaaDi-baaper saamaLNo aaco cha ka dusre lokur parents' teaching good is or other people's What is best, your parents' instruction or that of others?

Note the deletion in the second base leaving it both semantically and grammatically dependent. Note also that the alternation is between the two terms — 'parents' teaching' and 'the teaching of others' — the predicate remaining the same in both bases.

4) jiwaNe maai keti prem karNo aaco cha ka bekaar life in anyone love to do good is or evil In life is it good or evil to love someone?

Here the alternation is between antonymical predicates - 'is good' and 'is evil'.

5) chorir jaat maa-baape par jerer puDi ka ijater puDi cha girl's class parents on poison's packet or prestige's packet is Are girls an asset or a deficit to their parents?

Depending on how we analyse this sentence, this alternation can either be alternation between antonymical terms or full propositions. The surface structure seems to illustrate the former. However, both terms can be expanded to full propositions and the sentence will remain well-formed.

- 6) ab-er duniyaa, kalaa premi ka sahityaa premi now's world art lover or literature lover Is today's world a lover of art or literature?
  - b. Inclusive Alternation

The two subtypes of inclusive alternation are symbolised as follows:

- a) Pa v Qa v Na (Example 7)
- b) Pa v Pb v Pn (Example 8)

In each formula, n or N indicates the last in a series; v indicates inclusive alternation, that is, a third choice is permitted.

7) maar baap naagar hangkaal ro cha ka haaTe-m go cha ka sikaar my father plow driving is -- or market-in gone has or hunt

ramen go cha to do gone has

My father is either ploughing the fields, or he's gone to market, or he's gone hunting.

8) ma jaaŭ, ka tŭ jaawa chi, ka u jaawa cha, bhagwaaner darsan karen I go or you go -- or he goes -- God's audience to do Shall I or you or he go to pray to God?

#### c. General Discussion

EVENT-STATE RESTRICTIONS. There seemed to be some kind of restrictions on the pairing of bases in this sentence type. This was not a restriction in clause types since we found transitive clause paired with intransitive. We did notice however, that Event clauses were always paired with Event clauses and State clauses with State clauses. Until further data disproves this, we present it as one of the restrictions of the alternative sentence.

Another pattern noticed was the tendency to match tense with tense, aspect with aspect, and mood with mood across the bases.

PERMUTATION. Permutation of the bases is allowed, but a change of order of the constituents was frequently required to bring together contrasting constituents.

CONTRASTING TERMS. Alternation in the Lamani sentence is built on either opposing predicates, Actors, or Undergoers. Our hunch is that

whenever temporal or other peripheral terms are alternated, they are alternated within the phrase only. To expand these terms to full propositions is exceedingly awkward if allowed at all.

#### D. CONJUNCTIVE SENTENCE

#### 1. Contrast

#### a. Formula

# b. Description

Grammatically the conjunctive sentence in Lamani is a series of at least two bases, the first of which is dependent and the second of which is independent. If more than two bases occur, only the final base is independent. Semantically it is a series of propositions linked together in a conjunctive relationship to each other with a possible sequential relationship sometimes included as well. Though this is not necessarily true, some situational contexts require stricter sequence among the bases than others. For an example of strict sequence see Example 6 below.

# 2. Variation

characteristics of this type is the requirement that the main participant remain the same throughout the series. The main participant may switch roles from base to base but it cannot change to another person. Note in Example 1 the change in role of the main participant 'he', from Actor of the dependent clause to Undergoer of the independent clause. Note also the strict sequence requirement of the situational context, that is, that the 'running' precede his 'dizziness'.

- u dhããsan, wo-na cakar aa-i he running, him-to dizziness came Having run he became dizzy.
- 2) to shangkar shangkar ke-taaNin, dhããs-an, aa-taaNin, then Shankar Shankar say-ing run-ning come-ing

raD baD-an, wor munDiyaanga aa-n paD g-i trip-ping his face before com-ing fell-she

Then saying Shankar, Shankar, she ran, tripping as she came and fell before him.

Note that in this example, 'she' is the main participant and she remains the Actor of each clause throughout the series. The sequence of the bases is not strict in that we could conceivably switch some of the bases within the series without change of meaning. In addition, some of the bases seem to be simultaneous with others. However, there is a definite sequence between the dependent bases as a group and the final base, as there is between the first four dependent bases and the fifth. The amount that sequence is involved then seems to be determined by the situational context and not by the surface structure.

MOOD OF SENTENCE. It was also noted that the mood of the sentence could be declarative, imperative, or interrogative, and that mood was determined entirely by the final independent base. The dependent bases are neutral as to mood and take their mood from the final base.

3) Raame-n le jaa-n, wata jo Ram-obj tak-ing there go! Take Ram and go there!

Note that Raamen le jaan 'taking Ram' by itself is not imperative. However, because it is linked with an imperative independent base, it also becomes imperative in mood as well. The same is true of the dependent bases in Example 4 which become interrogative because of the final interrogative base.

4) waaT jhaL-taaNin, aangga maLe maai jaa-taaNin, kääi ka cha u road go-ing ahead garden in go-ing what says he After going along the road and entering the garden, what does he say?

NUMBER OF BASES. The second base in the formula is open-ended. The exact number of times it can be repeated is unknown but Example 5 is a natural sentence taken from text in which the second base is repeated five times. These plus the first and final bases give a total of seven different verbs in the one sentence.

5) gaddaa manggaa-n, maato samraa-n, cuno copar-an, raajaar golNi-n donkey send-ing for, head shav-ing, lime rub-bing, king's wife-obj hangkaal de-n, wor beTi-n le-n, raajeki kar-an, khaad-o driv-ing away, her girl-obj tak-ing, kingly rule do-ing, ate-he He sent for a donkey, had the queen's head shaved, rubbed on lime, drove her away, married another one's daughter, ruled his kingdom and ate his food.

VERB FORMS. The form of the independent verb is static in that it takes either of two participial affixes, -an or -taaNin. Which one is used seems to be completely optional or determined by the speaker's style. In Example 5 both forms are used with the same verb - aa-n (aa + -an), and aa-taaNin. Both forms have the same meaning. In contrast to this, the form of the verb of the independent clause is dynamic, depending only on the choice of the speaker.

DELETION PATTERNS. The main participant is typically deleted from all but one base and may not occur at all except in the verb morphology of the final base. Example 5 does not name the main participant. Example 6 names the main participant in the first base only.

6) Sonaa wata bes-an, loTaa-n aaco ghas-an, aaco Sona there sit-ting, water jug-obj well rub-bing, good

paaNi laa-i water brought-she

Sona sat there, gave the jug a good polishing, and brought back fresh water.

ORDER OF THE BASES. The preferred order of the bases is dependent-independent but this can be reversed without loss of meaning or structural change. Note Example 7.

7) paaNi pi, dhaap-an water drink, fill-ing Drink until you are full!

EVENT-STATE PAIRING. In the majority of examples studied there was a decided preference for Event clauses as against State clauses. However, State and Event clauses were found in the same series together but seldom more than one State clause in any one series. The number of Event clauses in a given series on the other hand is open-ended.

# III. CLOSING REMARKS

My personal enthusiasm for this experiment is great. We all enjoyed the course immensely and felt that much was learned by the students, language assistant, and instructor alike. What was a rather sketchy, indefinite research procedure at the beginning developed into a more definite, detailed procedure as the course progressed. Student participation and confidence increased as familiarity with the procedure increased. Another plus for this type of research is that it keeps the

instructor on his toes and to the point of the research being done. The meticulous writing out of all observations served three useful purposes: it preserved thoughts in a form which could be recalled; it built confidence in the students in that every observation was considered a definite contribution; and it formed the basis on which hypotheses could be made and further research carried out.

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# SYMBOLS AND ABBREVIATIONS

P>Q	If P, then Q (where P and Q are different propositions).
P ≢ Q	Either P or Q but no third choice allowed.
P v Q	Either ${\tt P}$ or ${\tt Q}$ with the possibility of a third choice.
PΛQ	P and/but Q.
N	The last predicate in a series of predicates.
n	The last term in a series of terms.
a,b	Terms of propositions which may be either Actor or Undergoer.
x,y	Terms of propositions which have temporal or spatial reference.
+	Obligatory.
<b>±</b>	Optional.
₽	Negation of predicate P.
P <sup>11</sup>	Antonym or situational opposite of predicate P.
P" 1	Thwarting or obstructing predicate to the logical outcome of predicate P.
a"	Antonym of term a.
<u></u>	Constituent enclosed in parenthese may be repeated indefinitely.
Alter	Alternative
AR	Axis-Relator
Cond	Conditional

# SYMBOLS AND ABBREVIATIONS - CONT.

Conj/Cj Conjunctive/Conjunction

Conn Connector

Consequence

D Cl Dependent Clause

DB Dependent Base

IB Independent Base

Prop Proposition

neg negative

pos positive

obj object marker

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# NOTE

1. The Lamani language is spoken by over one million speakers in several States of Central India. The particular dialect described in this paper is spoken in eastern Maharashtra State near Yeotmal. The language has several other names by which it is known, the chief ones of which are: Banjari, Lambadi and Lambani. It is a dialect of Rajasthani closely related to Marwari and Gujarati. Our language assistant, Harisingh Tarasingh Rathod, comes from Umri, Maharashtra.

#### SOME LAMANI SENTENCE TYPES

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