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

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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 sen-
tence structure of Lamani[1], and saw that it would be instructive for
the students to watch and participate in actual sentence-level proce-
dures in action. If the students could not only be oriented as to
theory and method, but could also watch and participate in actual lan-
guage 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.

2) Read in the literature about any theoretical discussions of that
   type and any practical work done on that type in related lan-
   guages.

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 ex-
   amples 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 observa-
tions have to do with number of constituents, form of verbs, dele-
tion 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 follow-
ing 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 struc-
tural 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 restric-
tions 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 be-
tween 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.)

9) From the workchart or data make a formula or formulae which ade-
quately 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
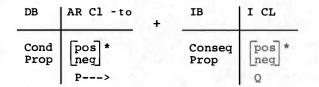sentence types given below.)

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 grammat-
ical 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*

DB	AR Cl -to		IB	I CL
Cond Prop	$\begin{bmatrix} pos \\ neg \end{bmatrix}$ * P--->	**+**	Conseq Prop	$\begin{bmatrix} pos \\ neg \end{bmatrix}$ * Q

* 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 condi-
tional 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-i   aa-i-s   to, ma ghar re-waaL ch-ŭ
   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 func-
tion 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 disambi-
guate 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 un-
realised 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-ŭ   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 con-
text. 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 transformed 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 without loss of meaning, but to must be replaced by janaa 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 ap-
plies: 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 corre-
sponding 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	Cj	paN		IB	I CL
Thesis Prop	P	+	Adver- sative Conn	∧	*'but'*	+	Anti- thesis Prop	Q

   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, frus-
trated 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 semantic-
ally, 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 ∧ P̄b**

b) **Pa ∧ P"b**

c) **Pax ∧ Pby**

In which ∧ = *'but'*; P = predicate; a,b = terms of predicates; x,y = terms of predicates with spatial or temporal functions; P̄ = 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 P̄, 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 P̄ 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 ∧ (P̄) 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 rũ 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:

IB	I CL		LINK	Cj	ka		IB	I Cl
Alter Prop	P	+	Alter Conn	$\neq$	*'or'*	+	Alter Prop	Q

Inclusive Alternative Sentence:

IB	I CL		LINK	Cj		IB	I CL		LINK	Cj		IB	I CL
Alter Prop	P	+	Alter Conn	v	$\pm$ (	Alter Prop	Q	+	Alter Conn	v	) +	Alter Prop	N

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

(≠ = exclusive alternation — 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 pre-
dicate 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 in-
clusive 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 jaaũ, ka tũ 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 restric-
tions 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 al-
ways paired with Event clauses and State clauses with State clauses.
Until further data disproves this, we present it as one of the restric-
tions 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 pro-
positions is exceedingly awkward if allowed at all.

D. CONJUNCTIVE SENTENCE

1. Contrast

a. Formula

DB	Cj D Cl		DB	Cj D Cl		IB	I Cl
Initial Conj Prop	A	$\pm$	Conj Prop	B	... $+$	Final Conj Prop	N

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 to-
gether in a conjunctive relationship to each other with a possible se-
quential 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

SINGLE MAIN PARTICIPANT REQUIREMENT. One of the most distinct
characteristics of this type is the requirement that the main parti-
cipant 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'*.

1) u dhā̃ãsan, wo-na cakar   aa-i
   he running, him-to dizziness came
   Having run he became dizzy.

2) to   shangkar shangkar ke-taaNin, dhā̃ãs-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 re-
mains 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 de-
pendent bases in Example 4 which become interrogative because of the
final interrogative base.

4) waaT jhaL-taaNin, aangga maLe   maai jaa-taaNin, kããi 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 pur-
poses: it preserved thoughts in a form which could be recalled; it
built confidence in the students in that every observation was con-
sidered a definite contribution; and it formed the basis on which
hypotheses could be made and further research carried out.

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 ∨ Q   Either P or Q with the possibility of a third
          choice.

P ∧ Q   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.

±   Optional.

P̄   Negation of predicate P.

P"   Antonym or situational opposite of predicate P.

P"'   Thwarting or obstructing predicate to the
          logical outcome of predicate P.

a"   Antonym of term a.

(___)   Constituent enclosed in parenthese may be
          repeated indefinitely.

Alter   Alternative

AR   Axis-Relator

Cond   Conditional

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SYMBOLS AND ABBREVIATIONS — CONT.

Conj/Cj	Conjunctive/Conjunction
Conn	Connector
Conseq	Consequence
D Cl	Dependent Clause
DB	Dependent Base
IB	Independent Base
Prop	Proposition
neg	negative
pos	positive
obj	object marker

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.

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