



ISSN: 2521-5078

E-ISSN: 2709-8621

For Submissions: erevna.journal@gmail.com
uzma.anjum@mail.au.edu.pk

Website: <http://111.68.96.103:40003/ojserevna/index.php/erevna>
www.au.edu.pk

Copyright Statement

Erevna: Journal of Linguistics and Literature is licensed under CC BY-SA 4.0. This license requires the re-users of particular content to give credit to the original author of that content. It also allows the re-users to adapt and format the material even for commercial purposes.

BY: Credit must be given to the creator.

SA: Adaptations must be shared under the same terms.

EJLL allows the authors to retain the copyright in their articles.

ISSN: 2521-5078

Key-Title: Erevna: Journal of Linguistics and Literature

Title Proper: Erevna: Journal of Linguistics and Literature

Another Variant: EJLL

Original Alphabet of Title: Basic Roman

Subject: Linguistics and Literature

Corporate Contributor: Air University

Frequency: Biannual

Type of Resource: Periodical

Language: English

HEC Recognition: Y-category

Country: Pakistan

Erevna

Journal of Linguistics and Literature

Department of English

Faculty of Social Sciences

Air University, Islamabad

ISSN 2521-5078

Patron-in-Chief

Air Marshal Abdul Moeed Khan, HI (M) (RETD)
Vice Chancellor

Editor

Prof. Dr Wasima Shehzad
Dean
Faculty of Social Sciences

Managing Editor

Dr. Uzma Anjum
Associate Professor
Department of English

Assistant Editor

Mr. Shahid Hussain

Advisory Board

Dr. Joan Baart
SIL International, Holland

Prof. Dr Prashant Pardeshi
Tokyo University, Japan

Dr. Henrik Liljegren
Stockholm University, Sweden

Dr. Benet Vincent
Coventry University, UK

Prof. Dr Swathi M. Vanniarajan
San Jose State University, USA

Prof. Dr Raja Masood Akhtar
University of North Texas, USA

Dr. Ryan Skinnell
San Jose State University, USA

Prof. Dr Krzysztof Stroński
Adam Mickiewicz University, Poland

Prof. Dr Cara Cilano
Michigan State University, USA

Dr. Yoshioka Noboru
Tokyo University, Japan

Dr. Paul Nepapleh Nkamta
North-West University, Mafikeng Campus, Republic of South Africa

Dr. Ahmar Mahboob
The University of Sydney, Australia

Prof. Dr M Safeer Awan
National University of Modern Languages, Islamabad, Pakistan

Table of Contents

Comparative Analysis of Pronouns in English and Urdu: A Cross-Linguistic Study Hari Prasad Tiwari	1-20
Legal Discourse Analysis: Resolving Syntactic Ambiguities in the Legal Practitioners and Bar Councils Act 1973 Aisha Rehman	21-44
A Stylistic Analysis of Robert Frost's poem " <i>The Runway</i> " Isra Mumtaz & Fatima tuz Zahra	45-56
Speech Act Analysis of Oscar Wilde's " <i>The Happy Prince</i> " Mudassar Nawaz	57-72
Language Domain Comparison: Formal and Informal Usage among Seraiki and Urdu Speakers Shafaq Shakil, Afroz Ilyas, & Humera Faraz	73-91

Comparative Analysis of Pronouns in English and Urdu: A Cross-Linguistic Study

Hari Prasad Tiwari
Tribhuvan University, Nepal

Keywords

- Comparison
- English
- Pronouns
- Urdu

Abstract

Pronouns are essential for efficient and coherent discourse. They prevent redundancy and keep sentences concise and understandable. The objective of this study is to compare and analyze the use of pronouns in English and Urdu focusing on their forms, grammatical functions and cultural contexts. The study employed a cross-sectional survey design. The sample population consisted of 107 native Urdu speakers who live in Nepalgunj Sub-Metropolitan City, Ward No. 11, Banke, Nepal. The researcher used self-selection convenience sampling to select the sample. Urdu language data was collected using a structured questionnaire. However, English language data was gathered from secondary sources. The questionnaire consisted of ten close-ended and forty open-ended questions. The questions were written in English and translated into Nepali. The data was analyzed using descriptive methods of quantitative data analysis. The results revealed that the Urdu language has a more wide range of pronouns in second-person and honorific contexts. English pronouns are more uniform across cases but Urdu has gender-neutral pronouns. Urdu also possesses distinctions based on proximity and respect. The study highlights the structural and functional variances in the pronominal systems of the two languages.

1. Introduction

Pronouns play a fundamental role in creating clarity and effectiveness in communication. They avoid the repetition of words and define the relationship that exists between the subjects. They further simplify sentences by replacing nouns and defining the relations that exist between the parts of a sentence. Effective communication depends on simplicity. Language would be awkward and repetitive without pronouns. For example, 'Hari went to his house because he forgot his keys,' is more tuneful than to say, 'Hari went to Hari's house because Hari forgot Hari's keys.'

Pronouns are not only important grammatically but also in ensuring social inclusion. The use of correct pronouns refers to respect when referring to individuals, mainly non-binary or gender non-conforming persons and acknowledges them (Lake Forest College, 2020). Incorrect pronoun usage may result in invalidation and disrespect. Consequently, this can impact communication and relationships negatively.

English has a straightforward pronominal system which helps language users maintain clarity and efficiency in communication (Biber et al., 1999). English pronominal system is quite uniform. It relies heavily on word order and auxiliary verbs (Kroeger, 2004). This reliance helps maintain clarity and precision in communication. It also ensures that the intended meaning is more effective. For example, in the sentence 'She can sing', the auxiliary verb 'can' shows ability and the word order has clarified that 'she' is the subject and 'sing' is the action. (Finegan, 2012).

English pronouns are categorized into several types: personal, possessive, reflexive, demonstrative interrogative and reciprocal forms (Quirk et al., 1985). Personal pronouns are perhaps the most commonly used type of pronoun. They include words such as 'I,' 'you,' 'he,' 'she,' 'it,' 'we,' and 'they.' These pronouns vary based on grammatical case (subject, object) and number (singular, plural) (Finegan, 2012). For example, 'I' is used as a subject pronoun and 'me' is used as an object pronoun. Similarly, 'we' is the subject form for the first person plural and 'us' is the object form. These distinctions help clarify who is performing an action and who is receiving it (Hudson, 2000).

Possessive pronouns, such as 'my,' 'your,' 'his,' and 'her,' denote ownership (Yule, 1998). These pronouns help to indicate who owns or is associated with something. For example, in the sentence 'This is my book', 'book' is associated with me. Possessive pronouns can also stand alone, as in 'The book is mine.' This ability to indicate possession without repeating the noun helps to simplify sentences and avoid redundancy (Leech, 2004).

Reflexive pronouns, such as 'myself' and 'yourself,' reflect actions onto the subject (Huddleston & Pullum, 2002). They are used when the subject and the object of a sentence are the same, as in 'She taught herself to play the piano.' Reflexive pronouns are also used for emphasis, as in 'I did it myself.' This dual function makes reflexive pronouns a versatile tool in English grammar (Swan, 2005).

Demonstrative pronouns 'this,' 'that,' 'these,' and 'those,' specify entities about the speaker's context (Celce-Murcia & Larsen-Freeman, 1999). For instance, 'this' and 'these' refer to something near the speaker but 'that' and 'those' refer to something farther away. Demonstrative pronouns allow speakers and writers to identify specific items or people. This enhances the precision and relevance of their communication (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2014).

Interrogative pronouns are used to form questions and seek specific information about people, objects, or situations (Translateen, 2023). Examples include ‘who,’ ‘whom,’ ‘whose,’ ‘what,’ and ‘which.’ These pronouns help identify or inquire about details, such as in questions like ‘Who is coming to the party?’ or ‘What time does the meeting start?’ By directly addressing the subject or object of the inquiry, interrogative pronouns facilitate precise and targeted questioning in both written and spoken language.

Reciprocal pronouns, such as ‘each other’ and ‘one another’ are used to show that two or more people or things perform an action mutually. For instance, in the sentence ‘The friends support each other,’ the pronoun (each other) indicates that the support is exchanged between the friends.

In contrast, Urdu has a more complex pronominal system (Rauf, 2007). Urdu pronouns include personal forms like main (I), tum (you), woh (he/she/it) and hum (we) (Hussain, 2010). These pronouns show variations based on levels of formality and politeness (Rauf, 2007). Possessive pronouns in Urdu, such as mera (my) and tera (your), change according to the noun they modify and the level of politeness (Hussain, 2010). Reflexive pronouns like khud (self) have different functions compared to their English counterparts (Rauf, 2007; Mitchell, 2019; Sharma, 2020), and demonstrative pronouns such as yeh (this) and woh (that) specify objects relative to the speaker’s position and context (Javed, 2021).

The study, thus tried to answer the following research question:

- a) How do the cultural attitude and self-identity manifest in the usage of first-person personal and reflexive pronouns in English and Urdu?
- b) How do the honorific second-person personal and the reciprocal pronouns differ in conveying a message from that of the English?
- c) What are the structural variations between the indefinite pronouns in English and Urdu and how do these differences affect their usage and meaning?
- d) How do the demonstrative and relative pronouns in both the languages shape the sentence structure and clause connection?
- e) What difference does person and number make in reflexive pronouns of English and Urdu, and what are its implications on self-referential expressions?
- f) What are the differences of Urdu and English interrogative and possessive pronouns in singular and plural forms?

2. Literature Review

Previous studies have examined various aspects of English and Urdu grammar but specific comparative studies focusing on pronominal systems are limited. Research on English pronouns often explores their roles in sentence structure and function (Lee, 2021; Finegan, 2012; Biber et al., 1999). Similarly, most of the studies on Urdu pronouns have explored their morphological and syntactic characteristics (Rauf, 2007; Hussain, 2010). Celce-Murcia and Larsen-Freeman (1999) provide a detailed overview grammatical categories and usage of English pronouns. Finegan (2012) also centered his study on the functional aspects of English pronouns i.e. their role in sentence construction, emphasizing. Hussain (2010) and Rauf (2007) focused their study on variations based on politeness and social

hierarchy of Urdu pronouns. Moreover, Kachru (1994) highlights the role of pronouns in language.

Despite these contributions, there is a significant gap in studies that directly compare English and Urdu pronominal systems. Most existing research addresses the pronominal systems of each language separately without providing a comparative framework that highlights their distinct (Farooq, 2018). Additionally, the social and cultural dimensions of pronominal usage particularly how politeness and social hierarchy are encoded in Urdu compared to English remain underexplored. This study seeks to bridge these gaps by providing a comprehensive analysis of pronominal systems in both languages by examining structural, functional and cultural aspects.

3. Research Methodology

This quantitative study employed a cross-sectional survey design. The sample population consisted of 107 native Urdu speakers who reside in Nepalgunj Sub-Metropolitan City, Ward No. 11 Banke, Nepal. Among the 107 respondents, 78 were males and 29 were females. In terms of education, 91 respondents completed their +2, 14 completed bachelor's degrees, and two completed master's degrees. Among the respondents, 45 were aged 18 to 24, 30 participants were aged 25 to 34, 15 respondents were aged 35 to 44, 11 were aged 45 to 54 and 6 participants were 55 years or older. Among the 107 participants, 2 were fluent, and 24 were proficient in English. But, 81 respondents had basic knowledge of English. In Urdu, all the participants were fluent. The research employed self-selection convenience sampling to select the respondents based on specific demographic criteria of gender and education. Data was collected employing a structured questionnaire. The questionnaire consisted of fifty questions which were initially formulated in English and then translated into Urdu to facilitate understanding among participants. The researcher took help from one secondary-level teacher to translate the questionnaire. The teacher was fluent in English and Urdu and had subject matter knowledge of both English and Urdu language. After translation, a pilot test was conducted to check the reliability of the questionnaire. The final questionnaire was prepared based on the feedback given by the participants who participated in the pilot test. The questionnaire was distributed and collected physically. The researcher personally visited each respondent at their home to administer and collect the completed questionnaires. The collected data was transliterated in English. The researcher took help from one of the registered translators to transliterate the data in English. The data was analyzed using descriptive methods and quantitative data analysis. The study utilized secondary data from Huddleston and Pullum (2002) to analyze English pronouns.

4. Data Analysis and Discussion

The results derived from the questionnaire are presented in the following sections.

Personal Pronouns in the English and Urdu Language

Table 1 presents a comparative overview of first-person pronouns in English and Urdu. It highlights the singular and plural forms across different cases.

Table 1

First Person Pronouns in English and Urdu

Case	English		Urdu	
	Singular	Plural	Singular	Plural
Nominative	I	We	<i>Mein</i>	<i>Hum, Humlog</i>
Accusative	Me	Us	<i>Mujhe Mujko</i>	<i>Hamein, Hamko</i>
Dative	Me	Us	<i>Mujhe Mujko</i>	<i>Hamein, Hamko</i>
Possessive	Mine	Ours	<i>Mera</i> <i>Meri</i> <i>Meain</i>	<i>Hamara, Hamari, Hamarain</i>
Vocative	-	-	-	-

Table 1 displays the first-person pronouns in Urdu across five different grammatical cases. It also shows how these pronouns vary according to number and case. In the nominative case, the terms 'Hum' and 'Humlog' are used to represent the first-person plural. Both 'Hum' and 'Humlog' are linguistically and contextually similar. An example can be used to illustrate their usage.

English

We are players

We have visited zoo.

Urdu

Hum kheladi hain.

Humlog chidiyaghar ghoom chuke hain.

Similarly, 'Mujhe' and 'Mujhko' are used as the first-person singular forms in both the accusative and dative cases. Although there is a phonological difference between the two, they are grammatically and semantically identical. For instance, both can be used interchangeably in sentences to convey the same meaning.

English

Urdu

Ram invited me.

Ram ne mujhe dawat diya.

Similarly, the first person plural in accusative and dative is 'Humein' and 'Hamko'. They have phonological differences but grammatically and semantically same. For example

English

Urdu

They saw us.

Unlogo ne hamko dekha.

Similarly, in the possessive case, 'Mero' and 'Meri' represent the first-person singular. These terms are used to denote possession and vary based on gender: 'Mera' is used for masculine nouns, while 'Meri' is used for feminine nouns. Additionally, these forms differ in the plural possessive case. For example, 'Mere' is used for masculine plural nouns, and 'Meri' is used for feminine plural nouns.

English

Urdu

This house is mine.

Yeh ghar mera hain.

This book is mine.

Yeh kitab meri hain.

Likewise, 'Hamara', 'Hamari' and 'Hamarien' are the first person pronouns of possessive case. They mean differently. For example,

English

Urdu

This school is ours.

Yeh school Hamara hain.

That book is ours.

Woh kitab hamari hain.

A friend of our lives in Canada.

Hamarain ek dost Canada me rahatein hain.

Finally, as indicated in Table 1, there is no established tradition of using the first-person pronoun in the vocative case in Urdu. While there are both similarities and differences between the first-person pronouns in English and Urdu, they do share some common features. Notably, in both languages, the pronominals used in the accusative case are the same as those used in the dative case. Additionally, both English and Urdu lack a distinct pronominal form for the vocative case.

Urdu second person pronouns include 'Tum', 'Tumhe', 'Tumko', 'Aap', 'Aapko', 'Tumhara', 'Tumhara', 'Aapka', 'Aapki', 'Tumlog', 'Tumlogonko', 'Aaplogonko', 'Aaplogke', these Urdu pronouns can be compared with those of English second person pronouns as below.

Table 2
Second Person Pronouns in English

Case	English		Urdu	
	Singular	Plural	Singular	Plural
Nominative	You	You	<i>Tum, tumhe, tumko, aap</i>	<i>Tumlog</i>
Accusative	You	You	<i>Tumko, aapko</i>	<i>Tumlogonko, aaplogoko</i>
Dative	You	You	<i>Tumko, aapko</i>	<i>Tumlogonko, aaplogonko</i>
Possessive	Yours	Yours	<i>Tumhara, tumhari, aapka, aapki</i>	<i>Tumlogonke, aaplogonke</i>
Vocative	You	You	<i>Tum, aap</i>	<i>Tumlog, aaplog</i>

The table 2 above illustrates the second-person pronouns in Urdu across five different cases and two distinct numbers. In the nominative case, the singular second-person pronouns are 'tum', 'tumhe', 'tumko', and 'aap'. When representing the plural number, these singular pronouns take the suffixes 'logonko', resulting in forms such as 'tumlogonko' and 'aaplogonko'. In the accusative and dative cases, the singular pronouns 'tumko' and 'aapko' are used, and when pluralized, they also incorporate the suffixes 'logonko', becoming 'tumlogonko' and 'aaplogonko'. Thus, the forms for the accusative and dative cases are identical. In the possessive case, the singular forms 'tumhara', 'tumhari', 'aapka', and 'aapki' are used. When pluralized, these pronouns also adopt the infix 'logonko', transforming into 'tumlogonko' and 'aaplogonko'. Similarly, in the vocative case, 'tum' and 'aap' represent the second-person singular pronouns. For plural usage, these pronouns take the infix 'log', becoming 'tumlog' and 'aaplog', consistent with the other cases.

English and Urdu second-person pronouns exhibit both similarities and differences. While both languages have distinct pronouns for singular and plural forms, they each possess unique sets of pronouns that do not always correspond directly. A notable similarity is that in both languages, the pronouns used in the accusative case and dative case are the same. Additionally, in both languages, the nominative case and vocative case pronouns often appear similar. However, a significant difference lies in the number of pronouns used. In Urdu, there are multiple pronouns for different contexts that correspond to a single pronoun in English. This is illustrated through various examples where Urdu employs different pronouns for singular and plural forms, as well as for different grammatical cases, while English uses fewer, more consistent forms.

English

You work hard.

You play cricket.

You play cricket.

Urdu

Tum mehnat karte ho.

Tumlog cricket khelte ho.

Aaplog cricket khelte hain.

Another important difference between English and Urdu is that English uses a single pronoun, 'you,' to represent both singular and plural forms. In contrast, Urdu employs distinct pronouns for singular and plural forms. To indicate plural in Urdu, suffixes such as 'logonko' are added to the singular pronouns. This distinction is evident in various examples where singular pronouns are modified to form their plural counterparts using these suffixes. For instance, while English maintains the pronoun 'you' regardless of number, Urdu differentiates between singular and plural pronouns through these specific modifications.

English

Ram will invite you tomorrow (one).

Ram will invite you tomorrow (many)

Urdu

Ram tumko kal bulaiega

Ram tum logonko kal bulaiga.

Another outstanding difference between the two languages is that the presence of honorific pronoun in Urdu which is not. In English, it can be illustrated with the following examples.

English

You sing very well.

You sing very well.

Urdu

Aap bhaut achha gaten ho.

Aaplog bhaut acchha gatein hain.

Urdu third person pronouns include 'who', 'ye', 'winko', 'yinko', 'winko', 'yinko', 'winka', 'yinka', 'wonlog', 'yelog', 'winlogonko', 'yinlogonko', 'winlogonka' and 'yinlogonka'. These Urdu pronouns can be compared with these of English their person pronouns as below,

Table 3

Third Person Pronouns in English

Case	English		Nepali	
	Singular Number	Plural Number	Singular Number	Plural Number
Nominative	He, she, it	They	<i>Woh, ye</i>	<i>Wohlog, yelog</i>
Accusative	Him, her, it	Them	<i>Yinko, yinko</i>	<i>Uinlogonko,</i>

				<i>yinlogonko</i>
Dative	Him, her, it	Them	<i>Uinko, yinko</i>	<i>Uinlogonko, yinlogonko</i>
Possessive	His, her, its	Theirs	<i>Uinka, yinka</i>	<i>Uinlogonka, yinlogonka</i>
Vocative	-	-	-	-

As table 3 presents, the Urdu language has multiple pronouns that are equivalent for single pronouns in English. 'Woh', and 'ye' are third person singular pronouns in Urdu in nominative case. In that, 'ye' is the pronoun that denotes nearness and 'who', is the pronoun that denotes a bit distance. There is no any difference among masculine feminine and neutered genders in the use of above mentioned pronouns in the following examples:

<u>English</u>	<u>Urdu</u>
She (over there) is reading a newspaper.	<i>Woh akbar padh rahee hain.</i>
She (nearby) has a poor eyesight.	<i>Yinkoe ankhain kamjoor hain.</i>
He (nearby) is a cricket player.	<i>Ye cricket kheladi hain.</i>
He (over there) is a science teacher.	<i>Woh bighan ke master hain.</i>
It (nearby) is a school.	<i>Ye madarsha hai.</i>

Similarly, 'log' is added to make those mentioned singular pronouns while making them plural and in the neuter gender, sometimes 'hain' is used to make plural. 'Wohlog' and 'yelog' are the third person plural pronouns showing pronominal relation in nominative case and a little bit distance in the same case. It will be cleared by the given example.

<u>English</u>	<u>Urdu</u>
They are farmers (over there).	<i>Wohlog kissan hain.</i>
They are farmers (nearby).	<i>Yelog kissan hain.</i>

The difference of nearness and farness in Urdu pronominal does not end in nominative and accusative case but affects in other cases also. 'Ye' and 'who' are the third person singular pronouns in Urdu, where the former shows nearness and the latter one shows a little bit distance. 'Yinko' and 'uinko' are the singular pronouns in accusative case and dative case. The same third person singular pronouns become 'uinlogonko' and 'yinlogonka' when they infix the plural marker 'logonko' while making them plural. Here, 'yinlogonko' and 'uinlogonko' both denote nearness and farness. Following examples are given to make them clear.

English

Ram teaches him computer.

Sujata gave him purse.

Read it very fast.

Similarly, in possessive case, 'uinka' and 'yinka' both represent singular third person pronoun. 'Uinlogonka' and 'yinlogonka' are the plural third person pronoun. 'Logonka' is added to make them plural. For example,

'Uinka' becomes 'uinlogonka'

'Yinka' becomes 'yinlogonka'

The result shows that English and Urdu have a comparable number of pronouns, with Urdu featuring a few additional terms due to its use of alternative words. Both languages exhibit a degree of similarity in the forms of personal pronouns in the dative and accusative cases. However, a prominent difference arises in the way pronouns are used: in English, the second-person pronoun 'you' maintains the same form across most cases, whereas Urdu does not. English pronouns are consistent and lack alternatives, while Urdu pronouns have multiple forms depending on context. Additionally, a significant distinction is that English pronouns reflect gender differences, particularly in the singular form, while Urdu pronouns do not differentiate by gender. These differences are illustrated by the following examples.

English

This school is his, not her.

She is reading poem.

He is an Urdu teacher.

Urdu

Ye madarsha uinka hain, yinka nahin.

Ye naat padh rahen hain.

ye Urdu ke ustad hain.

The above mentioned examples show that the same form 'ye' is used to refer to both girl and boy and even to the things. When we analyze pronominal in terms of structure there is difference between Urdu and the English. English does not have ergative marker for expressing verbal actions but Urdu has ergative marker for expressing verbal actions. Urdu speakers use aap for elder ones and tum for the younger ones and there is no difference in masculine and feminine gender. Following examples can clear this concept.

English

Uncle, you should talk to my parents.

bat karne chaheye.

As if, you need not worry about the exam.

me fikar karne ke jaroorat nahi hain.

Urdu

Chacha, aapko mere waludain se

Tumko imtihan ke barein

Urdu has honorific pronominal. It is very common. The Urdu language has 'aap' and 'aaplog' as honorific second person singular and plural pronouns respectively. Such honorific expressions are not found in English. 'Intonation' and nasalization are not marked for the honorific expression. For example,

English

Urdu

Father, you must take this medicine regularly. Abba, aapko ye dawa rojana lena poadega.

Shahid, you must work hard. Shahid, tumko mehnat karna padega.

Another significant distinction between the languages lies on concord with preparatory there. Preparatory 'there' in English is used according to the number of things persons and animals, if they are countable. But the Urdu does not concord with such use of the nouns. The following examples make it clear.

English

Urdu

This is a very good story.

Ye ek achhi kahani hain.

These are books.

Ye sab kitabein hain.

Among the examples presented above, English 'this' concords with 'story' and 'these' with 'books'. On the contrary, this kind of concord is not there in Urdu as 'ye' hain and 'ye' sab hain.

It is similar between the two languages that there are pronouns to express pronominal or nearest relation.

English

Urdu

This is the masque.

Ye masjid hai.

These are mangoes.

Ye sab aam hai.

It is an apple.

Ye ek sab hai.

The main distinction between the two languages is that Urdu has pronouns to express honor for persons who are far or near. But English language has no pronouns to express honor for persons. For example,

English

Urdu

You speak Urdu.

Aap Urdu bolte hain.

You speak Urdu.

Tum Urdu bolte ho.

He (overthere) is a game teacher.

Woh ek khelkood ke ustad hai.

He (nearby) is a doctor.

Ye ek doctor hai.

This grandmother is hers.

Ye uinke dadiamami hain.

In English, the pronouns 'she' and 'he' are used uniformly to refer to individuals, regardless of their proximity or the level of respect associated with them. In contrast, Urdu employs specific forms to convey these nuances. For instance, 'who' is used for individuals who are somewhat distant, while 'ye' is used for those who are near. Additionally, in terms of respect, 'tum' is used for individuals who do not require honorifics, whereas 'aap' is reserved for those who deserve respect. This distinction in Urdu reflects a more nuanced approach to addressing people based on their relative closeness and social status.

Demonstrative Pronouns in the English and Urdu Language

The demonstrative pronoun is named as the four determiners which include this, these, that and those in English. The demonstrative pronoun is one that is used to specify the object which it refers. Urdu demonstrative pronouns include 'ye', 'ye sab' and 'woh', 'woh sab'. These Urdu pronouns can be compared with those English which are as follows.

Table 4

Demonstrative Pronouns in English

Distance	English		Urdu	
	Singular	Plural	Singular	Plural
Near	This	These	Ye	Ye sab
Far	That	Those	Woh	Woh sab

The distinction between Urdu and English demonstratives lies primarily in their use and effects on grammatical structure. In Urdu, alternative forms are used for demonstratives in the plural, such as 'ye' (these) for things near and 'wo' (those) for things far, whereas English demonstratives like 'this' and 'that' do not change form based on number; instead, they are fixed in their singular and plural forms ('this/these' and 'that/those'). Another significant difference is the impact of demonstratives on sentence structure. In English, demonstratives often influence the subject-verb agreement and the overall sentence construction, whereas in Urdu, their effect on the subject and verb is less pronounced. These distinctions are illustrated by the following examples, which highlight how demonstratives function differently in the two languages.

English

This is a book.

These are books.

That book is ours.

Those are mangoes.

Urdu

Ye ek kitab hai.

Ye kitabein hain.

Woh hamari kitab hain.

Woh sab aam hain.

Demonstrative pronouns in English, as illustrated by examples such as 'this,' 'these,' 'that,' and 'those,' agree with both verbs and complements, affecting the overall sentence structure. In contrast, Urdu demonstrative pronouns such as 'ye,' 'who,' 'ye sab,' and 'woh sab' primarily agree with nouns and have less influence on the verbs in a sentence. This is why Urdu demonstrative pronouns are considered to have a more limited impact on other elements of the sentence compared to their English counterparts. In Urdu, these pronouns are positioned before nouns and function similarly to English demonstratives, serving to specify and distinguish objects or individuals without affecting the verb forms.

Indefinite Pronouns in English and Urdu

Urdu indefinite pronouns are 'sab log', 'sab kuch', 'koi', 'koi vi', 'kuch', 'kuch vi,koivinahin', 'kuch nahin', 'koi nahin', 'kuch nahin', 'ek', 'kuch log', 'bahaut log' and 'woh log'. These Urdu indefinite pronouns can be compared with English indefinite pronouns as below

Table 5
English Indefinite Pronouns with Regular Pattern

English					Urdu			
	Every	Some	Any	No	Every	Some	Any	No
One	Everyone	Someone	Anyone	No one	Sablog	Koi	Anyone	Koi (nahin)
Thing	Everything	Something	Anything	No thing	Sabkcu	Kuch	Anything	Kuch vi
Body	Everybody	Somebody	Anybody	No body	Sablog	Koi	Anybody	Koi vi

Note: English indefinite pronouns without pattern: others, few, many, some, all, one, ones, they Indefinite pronouns in Urdu without pattern: Saakisablog, Kuchlog, Bahutlog, Kuchlog or koi, Sablog, Ek, Bahutlog, Wohlog or koi

A comparison of Table 5 reveals that Urdu indefinite pronouns exhibit a unique feature not found in English: the use of 'log' in many of the pronouns. This suffix is added to various indefinite pronouns in Urdu, whereas English lacks such a regular pattern in its indefinite pronouns. For example, in Urdu, 'koi' serves as a fundamental interrogative pronoun used to represent various indefinite pronouns in English. Both English and Urdu share similarities in their use of indefinite pronouns, following a regular pattern without having multiple alternative pronouns for each case. For instance, while English uses 'some' and 'any' in different contexts, Urdu employs a more consistent approach with its pronouns.

English

Everyone is happy.
Everybody is happy.
Everything is good.
Someone is coming.
Somebody is coming.
Something is happening.
Ram did not see anyone.
Ram did not bring anything.
There is nothing on the table.
There is no one.

Urdu

Sab log khush hain.
Sab log khush hain.
Sab kuch achha hain.
Koi aaraha hain.
Koi aaraha hain
Kuch horaha hai.
Ram ne kiseeko nahin dekha.
Ram kuch nahin laya.
Mej par kuch nahin hai.
Koi nahin hai.

Reflexive Pronouns in English and Urdu

Table 6 compares reflexive pronouns in English with their Urdu counterparts, showing how self-referential actions are expressed in both languages. This overview highlights the parallels and distinctions between the two linguistic systems.

Table 6

English Reflexive Pronoun

Person	English		Urdu			
	Singular	Plural	Singular		Plural	
1 st	Myself	Ourselves	Khudh apnaap	or	Khudhi apneaap	or
2 nd	Yourself	Yourselves	Khudh apneaap	or	Khudh apneaap	or
3 rd	Himself	Themselves	Khudh apneaap	or	Khudh apneaap	or
	Herself					
	Itself					

As shown in the above table 6, English reflexive pronouns are distinct for each person and number, with separate forms for the first, second, and third persons. For instance, 'myself,' 'yourself,' and 'himself/herself' are used for singular forms, and 'ourselves,' 'yourselves,' and 'themselves' for plural forms. In contrast, Urdu reflexive pronouns, such as 'khud' or 'apne aap,' are used interchangeably across all persons and numbers. This means that 'khud' or 'apne aap' can be employed for first, second, and third persons regardless of whether they are singular or plural. The following examples illustrate both the similarities and differences between English and Urdu reflexive pronouns, highlighting how English uses distinct forms based on person and number, while Urdu maintains a more uniform approach.

English

I cooked it myself.

You clean your room yourself.

You clean your room yourself.

You have to clean your room yourselves.

Nazish wrote a poem herself.

Asif drives a car himself.

The cooker burst itself.

Urdu

Main ne khudh isko pakaya tha.

Tum apna karma apa saaf karo.

Tum apna kamra khudh saaf karo.

Tumlogonko apna kamara khudh se saaf karna padega.

Nazish ne khudh ek naat likha.

Asif, apneaap gadee chalata hai.

Cooker apne aap fat gaya.

They are painting their home themselves. *Wohlog apna ghar khudh se rangeah hain.*
 We have to clean the room ourselves. *Humlogonko apna karma ko khudh saaf Karna padta hain.*

When comparing the data, it is evident that English reflexive pronouns are built from the root word 'self,' which is inflected for plural forms. In English, reflexive pronouns include prefixes such as 'him,' 'her,' 'them,' 'your,' and 'it,' which are combined with the root 'self' to create forms like 'himself,' 'herself,' 'themselves,' and 'yourself.' In contrast, Urdu reflexive pronouns use basic terms such as 'khud' and 'apne aap' without any prefixes or suffixes. A striking distinction is that English reflexive pronouns involve both inflection and derivation, with various prefixes and inflected forms to indicate different persons and numbers. Urdu, however, does not use prefixes or suffixes in its reflexive pronouns and maintains a simpler, more uniform structure.

Relative Pronouns in English and Urdu

Table 7 shows the relative pronouns in English alongside their Urdu equivalents, highlighting how both languages connect clauses using these pronouns for subjects, objects, and possessives.

Table 7

Urdu Relative Pronouns

English			Urdu		
	Subject	Object	Possessive	Subject	Object Possessive
Persons	Who	Who,	Whose	Jo	Jiske,
	That	whom, that			Jiska, Jisko
Things	Which	Which	Whose	Jo	Jisko,
	That	That			Jiska, Jisko

Table 7 illustrates the use of relative pronouns in Urdu. The pronoun 'Jo' is employed for both subjective and objective cases, while 'jisne' or 'jisko' serves as the equivalent of the English pronoun 'whom' in the objective case. For possessive relationships, Urdu uses 'jiske,' 'jiska,' and 'jisko,' which can refer to both persons and things. Comparing English and Urdu relative pronouns reveals both similarities and differences. The Urdu pronoun 'jisne' aligns with the English 'whom,' and similarly, the English relative possessive pronoun 'whose' is used for both persons and things, a feature mirrored in Urdu with 'jiske,' 'jiska,' and 'jisko.' However, an important difference is that while 'jo' in Urdu functions in both subjective and objective cases for both persons and things, English uses separate pronouns for these roles. Specifically, English employs 'which' and 'that' as equivalents to

the Urdu 'jo,' with distinct forms for subjective and objective cases. The following examples clarify these similarities and differences.

English

Urdu

The lady whom you saw in the market is my mother *Tum ne jisko bazaar me dekha tha woh meri ammy hain.*

The girl who wears a red frock is my little sister. *Ladki jisne lal frock paheno hai woh meri choti bahain hain.*

This is the purse that my brother sent me from Kathmandu. *Ye purse mere bhai ne Kathmandu se bheja hain.*

I sent him a dictionary that I had bought in Lucknow. *Mein ne unko ek logat bheja jo mein ne Lucknow me kharida tha.*

This is the girl whose father is a doctor. *Yehi woh ladki hain jiske abbu doctor hain.*

Reciprocal Pronoun in English and Urdu

Urdu reciprocal pronouns are 'ek dusre se' and 'ekaapas me'. These pronouns can be compared with those of English are as follows.

English

Urdu

Each other *Ek dusara se.*

one another *Ek aapas me.*

In Urdu, native speakers use two reciprocal pronouns: 'ek dusare se,' which is equivalent to the English 'each other,' and 'ek aapas me,' which corresponds to 'one another.' Despite having these two options, Urdu speakers predominantly use 'ek dusare se' in most contexts. A remarkable distinction between English and Urdu reciprocal pronouns is how their usage is determined. In English, the choice between 'each other' and 'one another' often depends on the situation and the specific context of the reciprocal relationship. In contrast, Urdu does not make such distinctions based on context but rather on the speaker's preference. This difference highlights how reciprocal pronouns are employed according to contextual needs in English and personal choice in Urdu.

Possessive Pronouns in English and Urdu

Urdu possessive pronouns include 'mera', 'meri', 'merein', 'hamara', 'hamarein', 'tumhara', 'humharein', 'unka', 'unki', 'unlogonka', 'unsabka', 'inka', 'inki', 'insabka'.

Table 8
English Possessive Pronouns

English				Urdu		
Person	Determiner function		Pronominal function		Pronominal function	
	Singular	Plural	Singular	Plural	Singular	Plural
1 st	My	Our	Mine	Ours	Mera, mere, meri	Hamara, hamare, hamaieen
2 nd	Your	Your	Yours	Yours	Tumhara, tumharien, tumlogonka, tumlogonki	Tumlogonka, tumlonki, tumsabka
3 rd	His, Her, Its	Thiers	Thiers	Thiers	Unka, unki, uska, uski, unlogonka, unlogonki	Unlogonka, unlogonki
Remote	-	-	-	-	Unka, unki	Unsabka, unsabki
Pronimate	-	-	-	-	Inka, inki	Insabka, insabki

The above two tables of possessive pronouns in English and Urdu show some similarities and some differences. There are person and number differences for possessive pronouns in these languages.

Interrogative pronouns in Urdu and English

Urdu interrogative pronouns are 'kaun', 'kaunlog', 'kisne', 'kiya', 'kinka', 'kinlogonka', 'jo', 'jiska'. The pronouns can be compared with English interrogative pronouns as below.

Table 9
Interrogative Pronouns in English

English				Urdu		
	Persons	Things	Possessive	Persons	Things	Possessive
Subject	Who	What	Whose	Kaun		Kinka
				Kaunlog	Kiya	Kinlogonka
				Kisne		
	Which	Which		Jo	Jo	Jiska
Object	Whom, who, where	What, which	Whose	Kaun		Kinka
				Kaunlog	Kiya	Kinlogonka
				Kisne		

Upon analyzing the forms of interrogative pronouns, it becomes clear that English and Urdu exhibit significant differences. In English, the same interrogative pronoun is used for both singular and plural contexts, such as 'who' for both one person and multiple people. In contrast, Urdu employs different interrogative words for plural forms, distinguishing between singular and plural contexts. For instance, while 'kaun' is used for singular questions, 'kaunse' or 'kaun log' is used to refer to plural entities. This contrast highlights how Urdu differentiates interrogative pronouns based on numbers, whereas English maintains a uniform form across both singular and plural contexts. The following examples further illustrate these distinctions.

English

Who called you?
Which is your favorite book?
What did you (younger one) see?
What did you (elder one) see?
Whom did your brother beat?
What are the books you are reading?
Which is your school?
What causes tuberculosis?
She (whose) hair is black is my
best friend?

Urdu

Aapko kisne bulaya?
Tumhara manpasand kitab kaun hai?
Tumne kya dikha?
Aapne kya dekha?
Tumharain bhai ne kisko peeta hai?
Aap kaunse kitab padh raha haun?
Tumhara school kaun hai?
Kaise tuberculosis hota hai?
Woh jiska ba kala hain who
meri pakki saheli hai?

Whose book is this?	<i>Yeh kiski kitab hai?</i>
Who was the person whom you invited yesterday?	<i>Woh kaun admi hai jisko jame kal bulaya hai?</i>
Which is your mother?	<i>Tumari ammi kaun hain?</i>
Which is your house?	<i>Tumhara ghar kaun hai?</i>
Which country you have just visited? aye ho?	<i>Woh kaun sa desh hai jo abhi abhi ghum kar aye ho?</i>

In case of possessive pronouns, the mentioned languages differ from each other. The English has just the word for possessive interrogative pronoun, whereas Urdu has many. Urdu has more alternative words than English in general.

5. Conclusion

The study revealed both distinct similarities and significant differences between English and Urdu pronouns. In English, personal pronouns are simplified with a single set of forms used consistently across different grammatical cases. For instance, the second-person pronoun 'you' remains unchanged regardless of its role as nominative, accusative, or dative. In contrast, Urdu employs a more varied system, with distinct pronouns for singular and plural, and further variations to denote respect or formality. For example, 'tum' and 'aap' are used for addressing individuals, with 'aap' being a formal and respectful form, while 'tum' is informal. This distinction is absent in English, where 'you' serves all functions. Additionally, Urdu differentiates between proximity and respect with pronouns like 'ye' for nearness and 'woh' for distance, a nuance less prominent in English. Urdu also features a rich set of possessive pronouns with gender and number distinctions, such as 'mera' (my, masculine) and 'meri' (my, feminine), compared to English's more simplified system of possessive forms. Reflexive pronouns further illustrate these differences: English uses distinct forms like 'myself' and 'themselves,' while Urdu relies on 'khud' or 'apne aap' for all persons and numbers, indicating a less inflected approach. The treatment of demonstratives also varies; in English, demonstratives like 'this' and 'that' do not change with number, while Urdu uses 'ye' (these) and 'woh' (those) with clear distinctions for singular and plural. Indefinite pronouns in both languages follow similar patterns, but Urdu includes additional forms and variations, such as 'koi' for 'someone' and 'kuch' for 'something.' Lastly, relative pronouns in Urdu, such as 'jo' for both subjective and objective cases, contrast with English's more segmented system, using 'who,' 'whom,' and 'whose.' These linguistic differences underscore the complexity and richness of Urdu's pronominal system compared to English, reflecting broader cultural and grammatical structures inherent in each language. To improve cross-linguistic understanding and teaching of personal pronouns, it is recommended that language learners and educators emphasize these distinctions, using practical examples and contextual exercises to bridge the gap between the languages. This approach will not only enhance proficiency but also deepen appreciation for the unique aspects of each language's pronoun system.

References

- Biber, D., Johansson, S., Leech, G., Conrad, S., & Finegan, E. (1999). *Longman grammar of spoken and written English*. Longman.
- Celce-Murcia, M., & Larsen-Freeman, D. (1999). *The grammar book: An ESL/EFL teacher's course* (2nd ed.). Heinle & Heinle.
- Farooq, S. (2018). *Understanding Urdu grammar*. National Book Foundation.
- Finegan, E. (2012). *Language: Its structure and use* (6th ed.). Wadsworth.
- Halliday, M. A. K., & Matthiessen, C. M. I. M. (2014). *Halliday's introduction to functional grammar* (4th ed.). Routledge.
- Huddleston, R., & Pullum, G. K. (2002). *The Cambridge grammar of the English language*. Cambridge University Press.
- Hudson, R. A. (2000). *Sociolinguistics* (2nd ed.). Cambridge University Press.
- Hussain, R. (2010). Politeness strategies in Urdu and English: A comparative study. *Journal of Language and Linguistic Studies*, 6(1), 45-67. <https://doi.org/10.1080/0950236X.2021.1902261>
- Javed, H. (2021). Demonstratives and deictics in Urdu. *Language Research Bulletin*, 22(3), 58-75. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00376-021-00253-2>
- Kachru, B. B. (1994). *The dialects of English: Studies in grammar and variation*. Routledge.
- Kroeger, P. R. (2004). *Analyzing syntax: A lexical-functional approach*. Cambridge University Press.
- Lake Forest College. (2020). *Pronouns: A guide from the Office of Intercultural Relations*. Lake Forest College.
- Lee, J. (2021). *Comparative grammar of Indo-European languages*. Cambridge University Press.
- Leech, G. (2004). *Meaning and the English verb* (3rd ed.). Pearson Longman.
- Mitchell, T. (2019). *Gender and pronouns in Indo-Aryan languages*. Palgrave Macmillan.
- Office of Equity, Diversity, and Inclusion. (2020). *Pronouns and inclusive language*. University of California.
- Quirk, R., Greenbaum, S., Leech, G., & Svartvik, J. (1985). *A comprehensive grammar of the English language*. Longman.
- Rauf, S. (2007). A comparative study of pronouns in Urdu and English. *Language in India*, 7(7), 1-12. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0261927X04005263>
- Sharma, V. (2020). *Gender and pronouns in Indo-Aryan languages*. Palgrave Macmillan.
- Swan, M. (2005). *Practical English usage* (3rd ed.). Oxford University Press.
- Translateen. (2023). *Understanding English pronouns*. Translateen.
- Yule, G. (1998). *Explaining English grammar*. Oxford University Press.

Citation of this paper

Tiwari, H. P. (2024). Comparative Analysis of Pronouns in English and Urdu: A Cross-Linguistic Study. *Erevna: Journal of Linguistics and Literature*, 8(1), 1-20.

Legal Discourse Analysis: Resolving Syntactic Ambiguities in the Legal Practitioners and Bar Councils Act 1973

Aisha Rehman

Qurtuba University of Science and Information Technology,
Peshawar, Pakistan

Keywords

- Legal discourse,
- Syntactic Ambiguity,
- Tree Diagram,
- Discourse Analysis,
- Law, Prepositions

Abstract

Legal language is complicated for a common man to comprehend. This study aims to resolve syntactic ambiguities in the legal act named Legal Practitioners and Bar Councils Act 1973. The present study is qualitative, and the Discourse Analysis Methodology was applied to this research by using the Tree Diagram Structure. Syntactic categories are also known as parts of speech. They are the group of words for instance, nouns, noun phrases, verbs, verb phrases, adjectives, adverbs, pronouns, prepositions, prepositional phrases, conjunctions, and determiners which identify the rules and restrictions to make a sentence. The result showed that 10 sentences and 2 phrases were ambiguous due to the disarrangement of prepositional phrases in the Act and it caused more than one interpretation. After using the tree diagram and arranging the words it became easy to understand the legal sentences in the Act. To conclude, legal sentences and phrases are full of prepositions. Prepositional phrases are a fundamental part of the legal discourse and legal language has its specialized language which needs to be taught with the help of linguistics. When law and linguistics are combined it will make way for an interdisciplinary approach and it will create scope and further areas to be explored in the field of law.

1. Introduction

You may consume food from any tree in the garden, but you must refrain from eating from the tree of the knowledge of good and evil because doing so will result in your death. (Genesis 2:15-17).

As mankind was created, the Laws started. It is not possible to live in a society without Law. According to Woods (2006), a civilized society is ordered and regulated with the help of Law. For instance, when we travel on any public transport, the moment we enter it we come under the law because we must pay the fare for travelling. Similarly, if a vehicle meets any sort of accident, the Law becomes responsible for compensating the victim and giving punishment to the culprit. Our all life and death matters like relationships, property, jobs, inheritance and even crime are directed and controlled with the help of Law Wacks (2008). Law is considered a high authority and above all of us. We have to respect the Law as we respect our elders. It is usually personified and given the characteristics of a god. If we commit or break any Law, we must face the severe consequences of it. All societies have a legal system through which they protect the rights of their people whether they are social, political, economic or religious and punish those who violate them in order to maintain harmony, freedom and justice in the society.

This research is significant not only in the field of linguistics but also in the field of law because due to linguistic ambiguities in the legal discourse, lawyers and judges misinterpret legal statutes, acts, cases, wills, and other legal documents. They consult dictionaries and thesauruses to get the meaning of the word which often leads to misunderstanding. This approach is highly criticized in linguistics because the meaning of the words should be analyzed based on observation and experimentation. Furthermore, this current research analyzes the legal discourse, and it will make a way for the linguists to explore legal language which is not often explored by the linguists due to its complexity and pompousness.

The current research explores and resolves the following research question:

- How should syntactic ambiguities in the Legal Practitioners and Bar Councils Act 1973 be resolved?

2. Literature Review

Khan (2018) presents in his study that law is defined in different ways by different schools of Law based on nature, sources, effects, and purpose of the law on society. Following are the definitions of law by various jurists: -

Blackstone defined law as all sorts of action, whether animate or inanimate, rational or illogical, must adhere to a law of action. Secondly, according to Justinian, the law is the “king of all mortal and immortal affairs and should be the ruler and leader of all aspects of life, guiding individualism in what they should and should not do”. In addition, Cicerosaw defined law as “the highest reason implanted in nature”. Moreover, Ulpian defined law as “the art or science of what is equitable and good”.

Considering these definitions, jurisprudence, which translates to "study of law," is the term used to describe the structured body of knowledge that has to do with administering justice in line with principles or rules of general character and consistent application. Justice is yet another definition of law.

Law is merely an instrument that regulates and gives justice. Besides justice doesn't need to require Law or rules. Earlier conflicts and disputes were resolved by the order of the priest, king, or any high authority but it was based upon their own opinion and will. This strategy is unacceptable because administering justice by law necessitates the existence of set norms or regulations that guarantee impartial justice for all. If there is no law, the disputes or conflicts will be resolved through personal will which ultimately leads to the destruction of society.

According to the findings of Esudu's (2017) research, the law, as an instrument, possesses rules, policies, and a set of norms that are governed in society to safeguard human beings from being exterminated. Because of their status as a "social animal," humans are notoriously susceptible to being influenced by the lure of material wealth, which can have negative repercussions for society as a whole. To always keep order and peace in the community, it can be difficult to differentiate between the law and society.

According to El Shetewi's (2017) research, Law plays various important functions in society. Law controls the social behavior of people who violate socially acceptable norms. According to Roscoe Pound, that law is considered one of the major forms of social control in a civilized society. Furthermore, according to Lawrence, M. Freedom, there are two ways by which we can socially control those people who disobey the law. Firstly, law consists of socially accepted rules and punishes those who violate them. Secondly, the legal system of any country administers social control. For example, Steven (2003:19) states that burglars are detained by the police, prosecuted, found guilty, sentenced, monitored by prison guards, and released by parole boards. Next, the Law plays a major role in resolving disputes in society either in the court or outside the court by using different sources. Moreover, the law being an instrument, its function is to social change in an ordered way. Law is flexible to any social condition. If a law is unchangeable, it may create violence and rebelliousness among people in society (Biset; 2006).

The origin of the word discourse traces back to the fourteenth century. According to McArthur (1996), discourse is the Latin word "discursus" which means conversation. (Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English, 2001, pg. 388) defines a significant speech or writing on a particular topic is referred to as "discourse." (As cited in Drid, 2010). Discourse is the study of a language that is currently in use. If something is uttered without a purpose, it cannot be a dialogue (Gee, 2010). Fairclough (2003) and Johnstone (2018) describe discourse and its connections to the political, economic, social, and religious spheres of people's interactions with the outside world. (Aurangzaib, Rana, Zeeshan, & Naqvi, 2021).

Hassen (2015) states that when we study a particular discourse it tells us about their values, culture, beliefs, and their use of a specific discourse in their daily lives. Kirby's (2007) research says that the study of law means the study of discourse which is an area of linguistics in particular. Through legal language, law plays a significant role in communication with the people (Berukstiene).

The language of law, whether written or oral, is known as legal discourse. Olsson and Lauchjenbroers (2017) argue that the study of legal discourse examines the language of laws, such as in the nation's constitution, legislative acts, contracts, and treaties, as well as courtroom speech and discourse exchanges between attorneys and non-lawyers. Similarly, according to Cheng & Danesi (2019), legal discourse is a blanket that includes all the legal discourses i.e., written and oral discourses related to Law.

According to Schane's (2002) research, law is a profession that is concerned with words, for example, contracts, statutes, acts, and constitutions are made up of words. These words are sometimes unclear, doubtful and equivocal for a layman which often creates more than one interpretation which leads to "ambiguity".

In the other study conducted by Wydick (2005); Lawyers typically do not write in English. It could have been stated in two syllables, but eight is used instead. To be precise, humans use obscure words to convey commonplace concepts, which leads to repetition, caution, and verbosity. Our use of clause-within-clause phrases distorts the vision and confuses the thoughts of our readers. The consequence is a literary style with four distinguishing characteristics: Wordy; imprecise; arrogant; pompous; and monotonous.

Vystřicilova (as cited in Wiredu, 2016), the law should be clear, unambiguous, precise, and all-inclusive. Legal language is considered a specialized language, having its register with specific meanings because it has its modes of discourse.

Regarding (Olsson & Luchjenbroers, 2017) to resolve ambiguity, judges and lawyers use dictionaries when they are not sure of the meaning of the words in the statutes. This strategy is highly restricted by the linguists because it is limited and imprecise. Nonetheless, as words have a fundamental meaning and a variety of ambiguous interpretations, their meaning should be determined by experimentation and observation of how they are employed to form sentences (as cited in Goddard 1996:254).

Most individuals understand words' fundamental meanings, but when a term veers outside of its semantic range, problems might occur.

Leech (1981) explains that when there are multiple possible interpretations for a statement, it is said to be ambiguous. (As cited in Ramadani, 2015).

In linguistics, the two basic types of ambiguities are Lexical Ambiguity and Syntactic Ambiguity.

According to Hurford and Heaseley (128), Word ambiguity leads to lexical ambiguity. When a term has many meanings or purposes, ambiguity results because different contexts might yield different interpretations of the same phrase.

Examples

"Each of the ...functions as may be prescribed". (<http://pakistanbarcouncil.org/>)

Function has multiple meanings but Function(s) here act as a lexical ambiguity because it is polysemy.

Function(s) here act as a lexical ambiguity because it is polysemy.

"A member of a Provincial Bar ...Provincial Bar Council [and Islamabad Bar Council". (<http://pakistanbarcouncil.org/>)

Cease is homophone because it sounds like seize that's why it creates lexical.

Syntactic ambiguity is also called grammatical and structural ambiguity. When a statement or phrase has two or more meanings depending on the placement of the words inside the sentence, it is said to be structurally ambiguous.

Examples

"A Vice-Chairman ...addressed to the Chairman". (<http://pakistanbarcouncil.org/>) This sentence creates syntactic ambiguity because it has two interpretations: -

His office by writing under writing his hand (Vice-chairman or the Chairman)

"Any advocate who ...with fine, or with both". (<http://pakistanbarcouncil.org/>)

In this study, linguistics ambiguities in the Legal Practitioners Bar Councils Act 1973 are investigated particularly syntactic ambiguities. The Act has several language ambiguities, each of which makes it more difficult for the typical individual to understand the text.

To become law, a bill must pass through the following procedures in both the houses

First reading: The arrival of the Bill

Second reading: The primary debate on the bill's intent and key provisions

Committee stage: detailed line-by-line analysis of the text with changes (proposed changes). To decide whether to put the modifications into effect or not, there can be a vote. At this point, textual analysis is carried out. To decide whether to apply the changes, other amendments are discussed, and further votes are taken.

Third reading: The member who sponsored the bill may make a motion to pass it (or the bill as amended) after it has been examined clause by clause. At this point, the discussion is solely focused on arguments for or against the Bill, without any mention of its specifics.

Presidential Assent: When both Houses agree on the final content, the Parliament assents to a bill and it becomes a law or "Act of Parliament (Stages, n.d.).

The legislative authority is the Pakistan Bar Council. Its purpose is to safeguard the privileges, interests, and rights of attorneys. It qualifies an advocate to represent clients in High Court or Supreme Court cases. It defends the attorneys or advocates from any wrongdoing or criminal that may be perpetrated against them or by them. The advocates are professionally guided by it. It supports judicial reforms. Provincial Bar Councils are under its administration and supervision. With the assistance of Pakistani universities and provincial bar councils, as well as through seminars, moot court lectures, and conferences, it promotes legal education. It recognizes the Universities that provide legal education and makes them eligible to practice as an advocate in the future. It provides free legal aid. In addition, it recognizes or derecognizes the Supreme Court Bar Association or any Bar Council Association at the national level.

The Pakistan Bar Council has the privilege to accept or reject the enrollment of advocates of the High Court and Subordinate courts along with disciplinary matters of them and the Supreme Court Bar Association or any other Bar Association on a national level.

The Act was approved by Pakistan's National Assembly on February 22, 1973, while Zulfikar Ali Bhutto was the country's president. There are nine chapters in the Act.

3. Research Methodology

The current research is qualitative because it is subjective and descriptive. There are different methods to conduct qualitative research, for instance, Content analysis, Narrative analysis, and Discourse Analysis and Grounded theory. The researcher opted for discourse analysis as a methodology.

Discourse Analysis is a qualitative research approach that analyzes the language beyond the sentence level to understand how it plays a role in a social context. Researchers use this methodology to find out the hidden meaning of what and how people say whether in documents, face-to-face interaction, non-verbal communication, or through Signs and symbols (Delvetool,n.d). It studies both semantic and pragmatic aspects of the language.

As a primary source of information for this study, the researcher will make use of a statute from 1973 titled the Legal Practitioners and Bar Councils Act. This statute may be obtained by visiting the website <http://pakistanbarcouncil.org/act/>. The researcher will download the statute. (Please take note that the article does not include the appendix because it is somewhat lengthy. You can get a copy of the Act by downloading it from the website that was indicated (<http://pakistanbarcouncil.org/act/>), and read it from there). Whereas, to analyze the data the researcher uses all of the material that is readily available on the internet in the form of papers, scholarly journals, and books connected to the issue. This is because Ajayi (2017) explains that secondary data is the interpretation and analysis of the primary data.

Vinz (2022) study says that a theoretical framework supports research through theories presenting that the work is established with ideas. Similarly, according to (Grant &Osanloo, 2014), a theoretical framework is considered as a blueprint of the research process. Moreover, according to the study of Sinclair (2007) and Fulton and Krainovich-Miller (2010), the theoretical framework is just like a navigator or travel plan which guides a researcher so that they cannot diverge from their path and they should be restricted to the theories and bridge the gap of the research study (as cited in Dickson, Hussein, & Agyem, 2018).

2.1 Syntactic Ambiguity

This type of ambiguity is also called grammatical and structural ambiguity. It occurs because the sentence structure or the arrangement of the words in a sentence gives two or more possible meanings. (As cited in Dai, 2021), According to Lyon, if a sentence in Generative grammar recreates more than one parsing it is called ambiguity. In transformative generative grammar theory, each sentence has a surface and deep structure.

2.1.1 Surface structure of the sentence

The surface structure of the sentence means the sentence which is formed with the connection and linear arrangement of the parts.

2.1.2. Deep structure of the sentence

The deep structure represents the grammatical connection which is considered as the principal component of the surface structure which cannot be seen from it. When a surface structure has more than two sentences along with deep structures simultaneously ambiguity occurs.

Examples

I invited the person with the microphone.

This example has two different meanings:

I invited the guy by speaking into the microphone. I invited the individual who (has the microphone).

The turkey is ready to eat.

This example has two different meanings:

The turkey I prepared is now ready for consumption.

The turkey bird itself is geared up and ready to chow down.

To disambiguate the syntactic ambiguity, the researcher used Tree Diagram structure.

2.2. Tree Diagram Structure

According to Carnie (2013), syntactic categories are also known as parts of speech. They are the group of words for instance, noun, noun phrase, verb, verb phrase, adjective, adverb, pronoun, preposition, prepositional phrase, conjunction and determiners which tells us about the rules and restrictions to make a sentence.

- **Noun**

Nouns are the first and the most important part of speech. Nouns can be in the place of a subject or an object. A noun is the name of a person, place, animal, thing or an abstract idea. In language construction, nouns along with verbs create a sentence.

- **Noun Phrase (NP)**

Noun phrases are created by nouns (Countable and Uncountable), Subject and Object personal pronoun, indefinite pronoun or quantifier and Wh-word/pronoun.

- **Verb (V)**

Verbs are those words which modify what a subject does to the object, or their action established on time. Verb changes when a tense changes.

- **Verb Phrase (VP)**

Verb phrases are the set of words comprised of a verb and its complements, objects or other modifiers that function grammatically as a verb. Verb phrase creates a sentence when it is combined with noun or noun phrase which acts as subject.

- **Adjectives (Adj)**

Adjectives are those words which modify a noun, and it is placed before it.

- **Adjectival Phrase (Adj P)**

Adjective Phrase is a combination of words led by adjective which modifies a noun or a pronoun.

- **Adverb (Adv)**

Adverbs are the part of speech which modifies the verbs, adjectives and an adverb.

- **Adverbial Phrase (Adv P)**

An adverbial phrase is the combination of words that functions as an adverb.

- **Pronouns**

Pronouns are those words which are used instead of a noun or the subject of the sentence.

- **Prepositions (P)**

Prepositions are set before a noun or pronoun to show the direction, location or time or to introduce an object.

- **Prepositional Phrase (PP)**

Prepositional Phrase starts with a preposition and ends with a noun, pronoun or a noun phrase.

- **Conjunctions (Conj)**

Conjunctions are used to connect the words, phrases, clauses and sentences.

- **Determiners (Det)**

Determiners are placed in front of a noun to present its quantity or to clarify it. Determiners are the articles (A/An/The), a Demonstrative (this, that, these, those). A Possessive (my, your, his, her, its, our, their) A Quantifier (common examples include many, much, more, most, some).

A study conducted by Ritan in (2018), states that Tree diagram is the suitable way to conduct the analysis of the sentence because it clearly presents the sentence property or syntactic category.

According to the theory composed by following are the syntactic rules: -

- i. **S = NP + VP:** This is the principal rule of forming a sentence. The sentence must contain a Noun Phrase (NP) and Verb Phrase (VP)

- ii. **S= NP (AUX) VP**: This rule is the adjunct of rule no 1. If the sentence consists of an auxiliary verb, it should be drawn in the separate node. It should be considered as a part of Verb Phrase (VP).
- iii. **NP (DET) (ADJ) N**: In this rule Noun Phrase contains determiner, adjective and noun.
- iv. **NP (That S)**: In this rule if a sentence starts with that, it will be placed in the Noun Phrase (NP) node.
- v. **NP (Pronoun)**: In this rule, pronoun is included in the Noun Phrase (NP) Node.
- vi. **VP =V (NP) (PP) (ADV)**: In this rule, Verb phrase may be the combination of Verb (V), Noun Phrase (NP), Prepositional Phrase (PP) and Adverbial Phrase (ADVP).
- vii. **PP =P (NP)**: In this rule, Prepositional Phrase (PP) maybe the combination of Preposition (P) and Noun Phrase (NP) or only the preposition” Fromkin et al; (1991).

The following structures will be used to resolve syntactic ambiguities on sentence level in the Act.

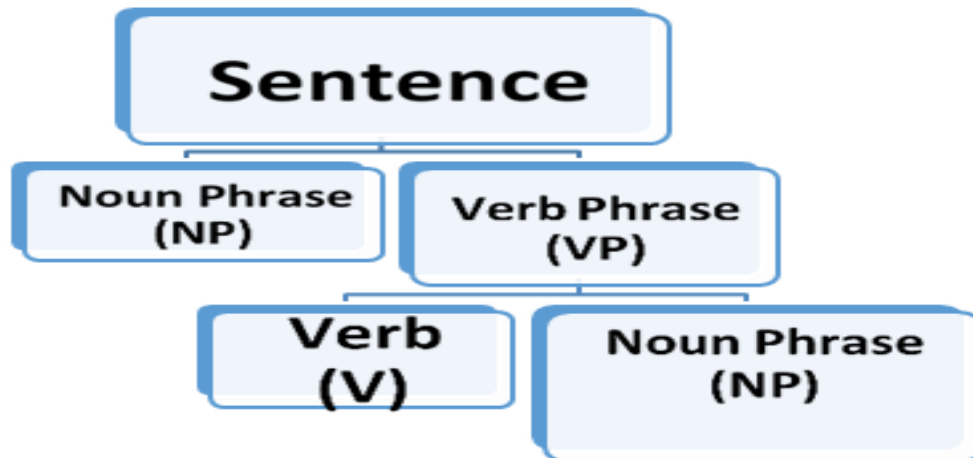


Figure 1: Interpretation 1

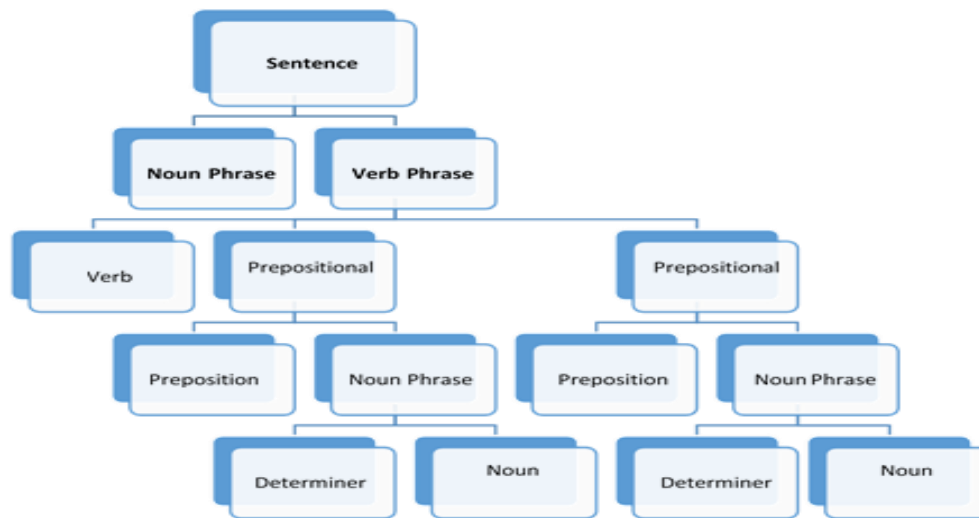


Figure 2: Interpretation 2



Figure 3: Interpretation 3

Whereas phrase disambiguation will be carried out according to the following interpretations (see below):

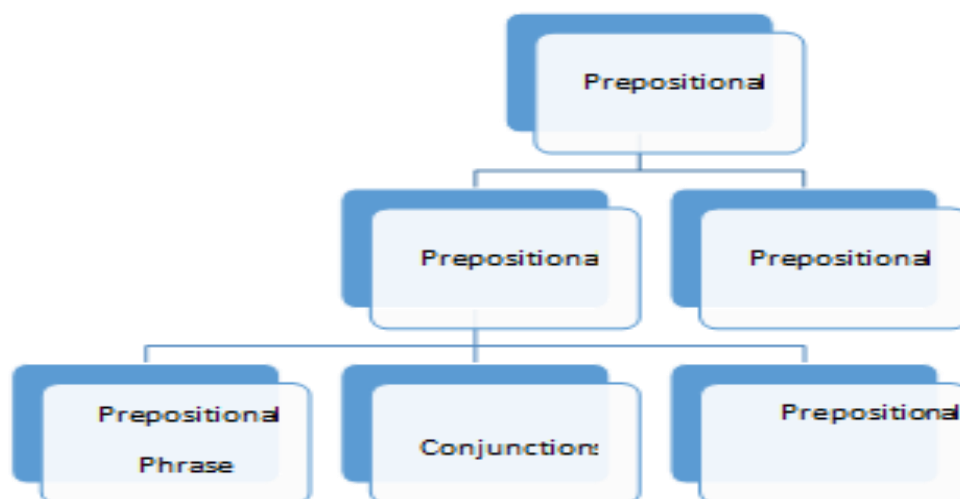


Figure 4: Interpretation 4

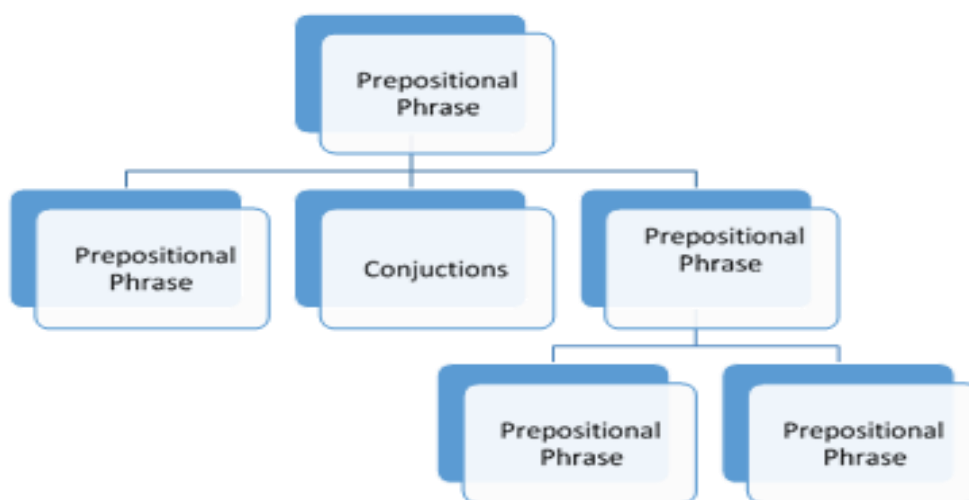


Figure 5: Interpretation 5

4. Data Analysis

1. “The following act ...general information”. (Legal Practitioners and Bar Councils Act, 1973, p. 1)

This sentence has two interpretations i.e. (i) The Act received the assent of the President on 22nd February 1973. (ii) The act received the assent of the President, who was announced on 22nd February 1973. The researcher made the tree diagram of the sentence by following the syntactic rules formed by Fromkin et al. (1991).

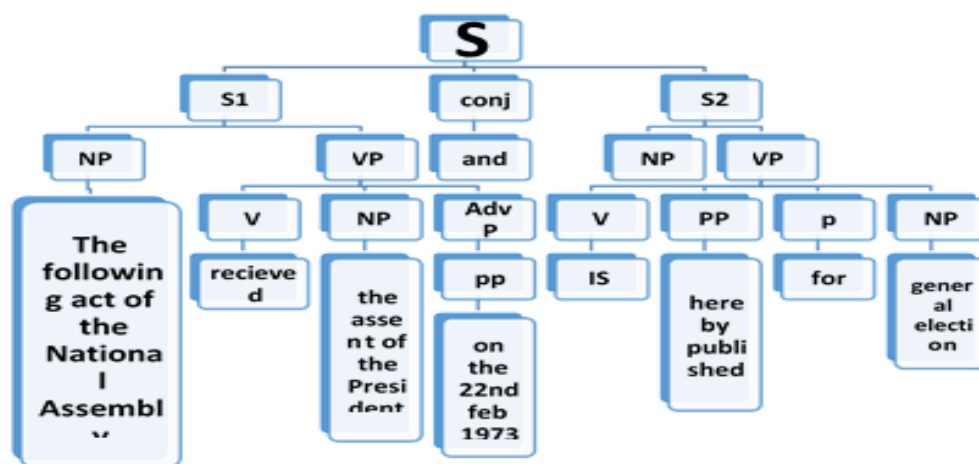


Figure 6: Syntactic Ambiguity in the Act

The (Figure 6) shows that the sentence structure is according to the syntactic rules, but the ambiguity occurs in the Prepositional Phrase (PP) located in the Verb Phrase (VP) of Sentence 1(S1). The Prepositional Phrase “on the 22nd of February 1973” is modifying the Noun Phrase (NP) “the assent of the President” was creating ambiguity.

To disambiguate the ambiguity in the sentence, the researcher changed the position of the phrases and drew a tree diagram according to the sentence structure rules.

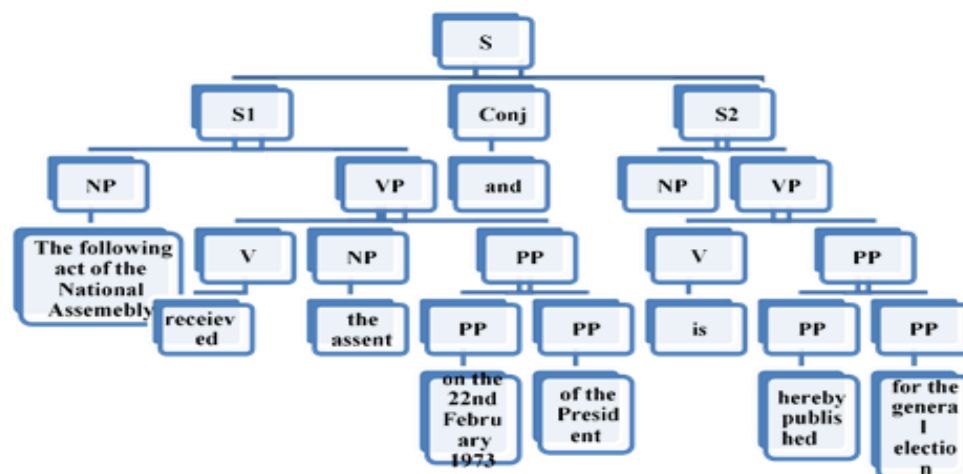


Figure 7: Disambiguated sentence in the Act

The researcher placed “of the President” which was in the Noun Phrase (NP) subcategory located in the Verb Phrase of Sentence 1(S1) and placed it in the Prepositional Phrase (PP) set at the Verb Phrase category of Sentence 1 (S1) to disambiguate the syntactic ambiguity.

2. “Explanation: If any...shall be final”. (Legal Practitioners and Bar Councils Act ,1973, p. 6)

This sentence has two interpretations i.e. (i) either the decision of the Advocate- General or (ii) decision of the province. To resolve the ambiguity of the sentence, the researcher with the help of tree diagram and syntactic rules evaluated the sentence. According to the structure, the sentence was correct, but the ambiguity occurred in the Verb Phrase (VP) subcategory Prepositional Phrase (PP3) “whose decision thereon shall be final”. The researcher disambiguated by rearranging the phrases and by making a tree diagram of the sentence.

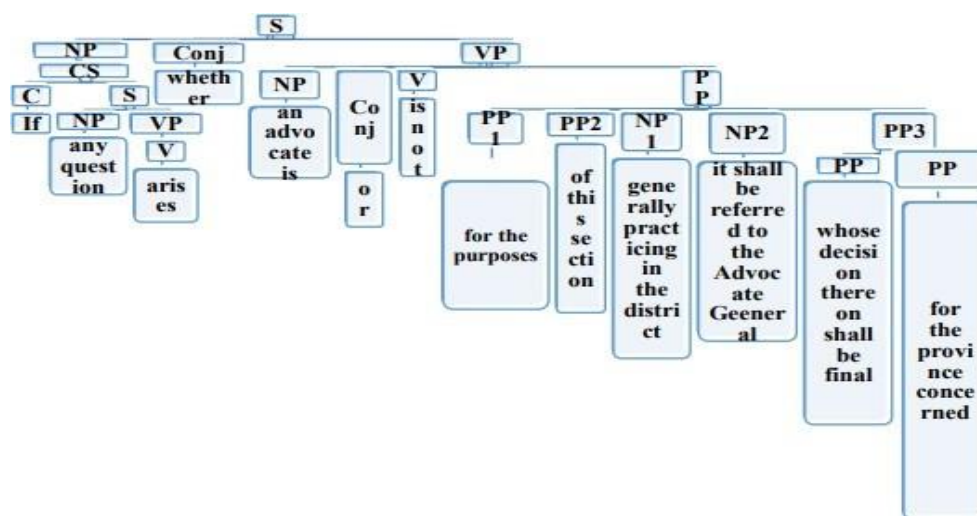


Figure 8: Syntactic Ambiguity in the Act

The researcher placed the Prepositional Phrase (PP) in the same category of Prepositional Phrase (PP) by shifting “Prepositional Phrase (PP) “whose decision thereon shall be final” in place of Prepositional Phrase (PP) “for the province concerned”. Now the Prepositional Phrase (PP), “whose decision thereon shall be final” is modifying the Noun Phrase (NP), “it shall be referred to the Advocate-General”.

3. “A Vice-Chairman may...the Chairman”. (Legal Practitioners and Bar Councils Act ,1973, p. 8)

The above sentence has two interpretations i.e. (i) The Vice-Chairman by his own hand will resign from the office. (ii) The Chairman will resign for the Vice- Chairman. To analyze the ambiguity in the sentence, the researcher used the tree diagram by following the syntactic rules.

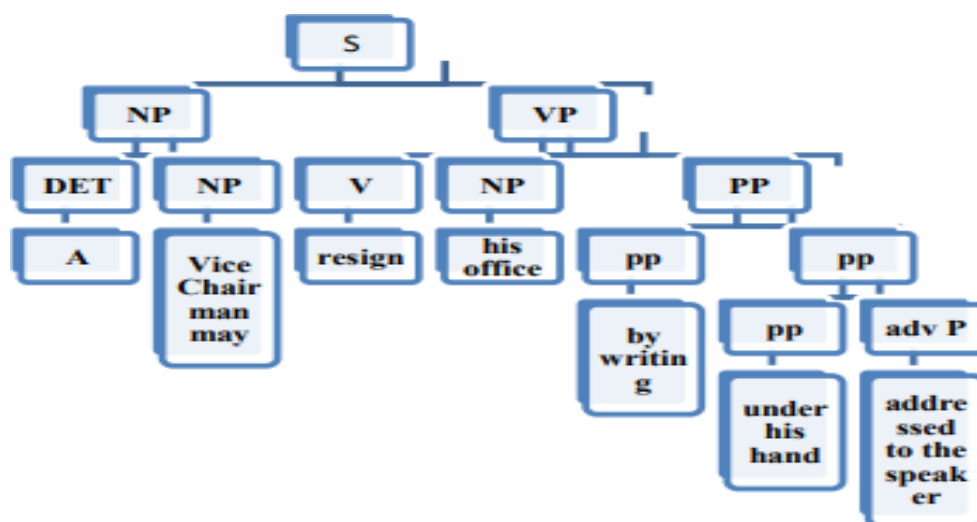


Figure 9: Syntactic Ambiguity in the Act

The Sentence Structure according to the tree diagram (Fig 3) was accurate but the ambiguity lies in the Prepositional Phrase (PP) “under his hand” Through the tree diagram it made it clear that Prepositional Phrase “under his hand” is modifying the Noun Phrase (NP) “Vice Chairman may” placed in the Noun Phrase (NP) category.

4. “One or more enrolment ...amongst its members”. (Legal Practitioners and Bar Councils Act ,1973, p. 10)

This sentence has two meanings i.e. (i) Judge of the High Court for the Province will be its chairman or (ii) The Chief Justice of the High Court will be its chairman. The researcher with the help of tree diagram disambiguated the ambiguity.

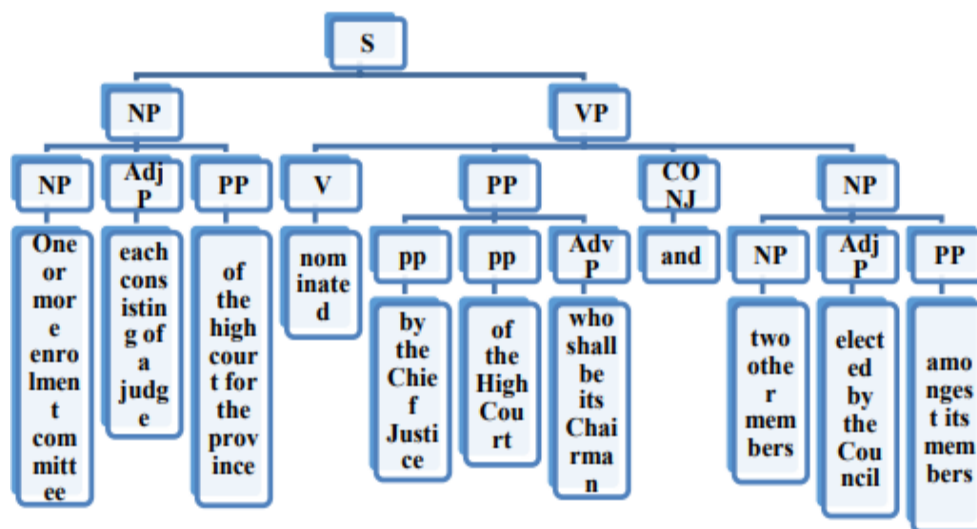


Figure 10: Syntactic Ambiguity in the Act

According to the tree diagram, the structure of the sentence is accurate, but the ambiguity is caused by the Adverbial Phrase (ADV P) “who shall be its chairman” placed in the category of the Prepositional Phrase (PP) located in the Verb Phrase. So, the researcher shuffled the phrases and made a new structure of the sentence by using tree diagram.

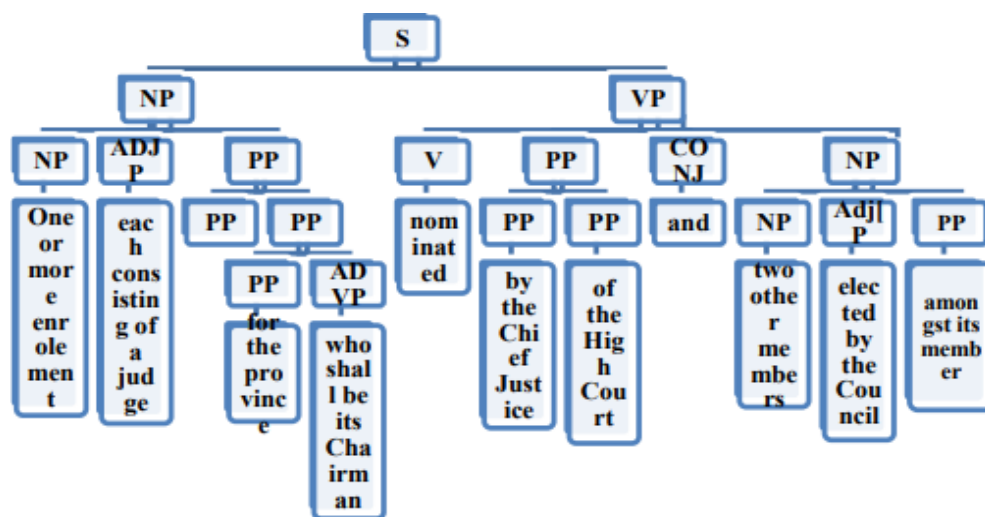


Figure 11: Disambiguated the syntactic Ambiguity of the sentence

In this structure (Figure 11), we can see, that the Prepositional Phrase is placed in the category of the Noun Phrase (NP) which is further divided into Subcategories Prepositional Phrase (PP) and Adverbial Phrase (ADVP). The Adverbial Phrase “who shall be its

Chairman” is modifying the Adjectival Phrase (ADJP) “each consisting of the judge”. It made clear that the Judge of the High Court will be the Chairman.

5. “Provided further ...under this sub-section”. (Legal Practitioners and Bar Councils Act ,1973, p. 19)

This phrase has two interpretations i.e. (i) Advocate will undertake the file to document or (ii) Accused in custody will undertake the file to document. To analyze the ambiguity in the phrase the researcher used the tree diagram by following syntactic rules by Fromkin et al, (1991).

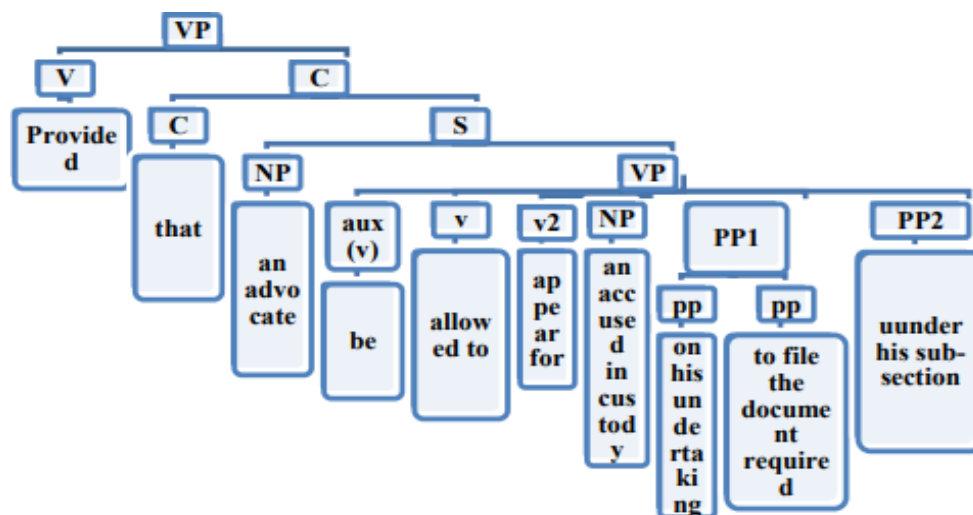


Figure 12: Syntactic Ambiguity in the Act

According to the tree diagram (Figure 12), the Prepositional Phrase (PP) “on his undertaking” is modifying the Noun Phrase (NP) “an accused in custody” so it became clear that the accused in custody will take the undertaking.

6. “The enrolment ...granting the application”. (Legal Practitioners and Bar Councils Act ,1973, p. 23)

This sentence is analyzed in two ways i.e. either (i) The enrolment committee may record its reasons or (ii) The Bar Council will record its reasons. To examine the ambiguity, the researcher made a tree diagram according to the syntactic rules by Fromkin et al. (1991).

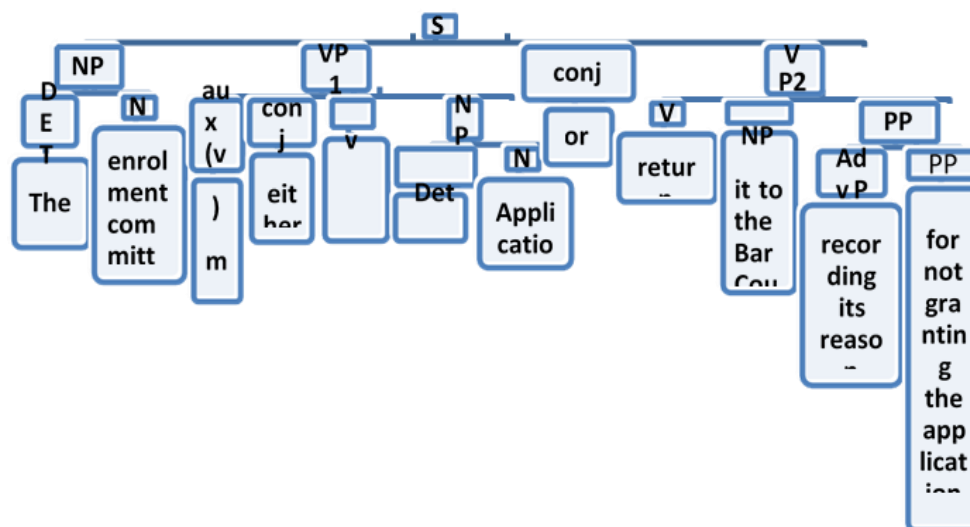


Figure 13: Syntactic Ambiguity in the Act

The structure of the sentence in (Figure 13) is correct but the ambiguity was caused by the Adverb Phrase (ADV P) “recording its reason” placed in the subcategory Prepositional Phrase (PP) located in the Verb Phrase of the Sentence.

In this sentence, it was not possible to shuffle the phrases and the researcher draw a tree diagram, the exact meaning of the sentence was not forming so the researcher took the nearby phrase, Noun Phrase (NP) “it to the Bar Council”, and through that it became clear that the Adverb Phrase (ADV P) modified the Noun Phrase (NP).

7. “The Pakistan Bar Council ...shall be the Chairman”. (Legal Practitioners and Bar Councils Act ,1973, p. 32)

This sentence gives us two meanings i.e. (i) the judge of the Supreme Court will be the Chairman (ii) The Chief Justice of Pakistan will be the Chairman. To examine the ambiguity, the researcher by following syntactic rules made a tree diagram.

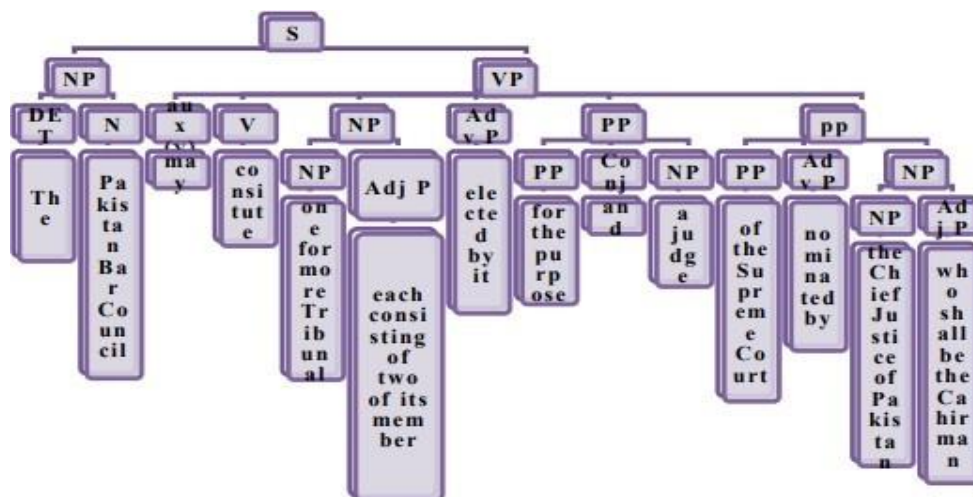


Figure 14: Syntactic ambiguity in the Act

The structure of the sentence in (Figure 14) was presented by the tree diagram was correct because it was according to the syntactic rules, but the ambiguity arose due to Adjective Phrase (AdjP) “who shall be the chairman” placed in the category of Prepositional Phrase (PP) located in the Verb Phrase (VP).

The researcher changed the position of the phrases by using the tree diagram.

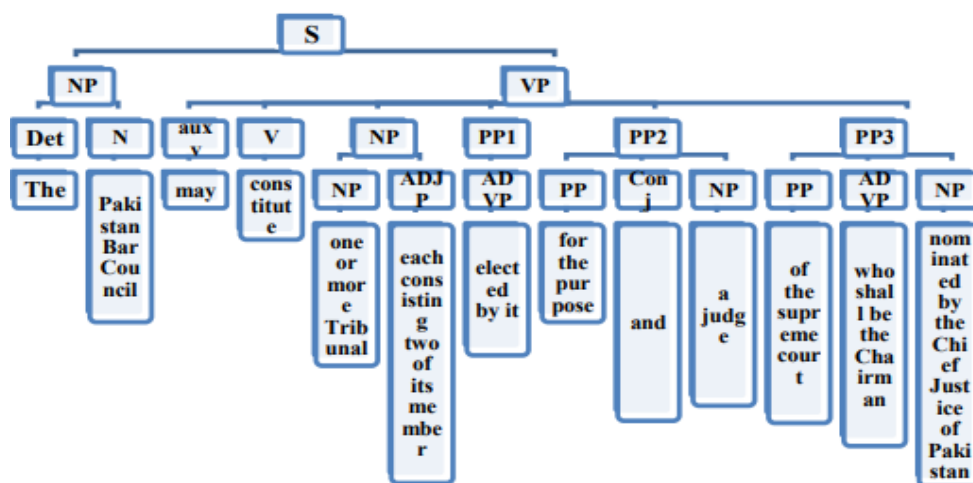


Figure 15: disambiguated the syntactic ambiguity in the sentence

According to this structure in (Fig 8), the Adverbial Phrase (ADVP) “who shall be the Chairman” modified the Noun Phrase (NP) “a judge” placed in the Prepositional Phrase

Category located in the Verb Phrase (VP). Through this phrase's adjustment, the ambiguity was cleared that the Judge of the Supreme Court will be the Chairman.

8. “Any Advocate who ...or with both”. (Legal Practitioners and Bar Councils Act, 1973, p. 42)

This sentence has two interpretations i.e. (i) either the Advocate will be suspended (ii) or any other person will be suspended. To disambiguate the ambiguity, the researcher used the tree diagram by following the syntactic rules.

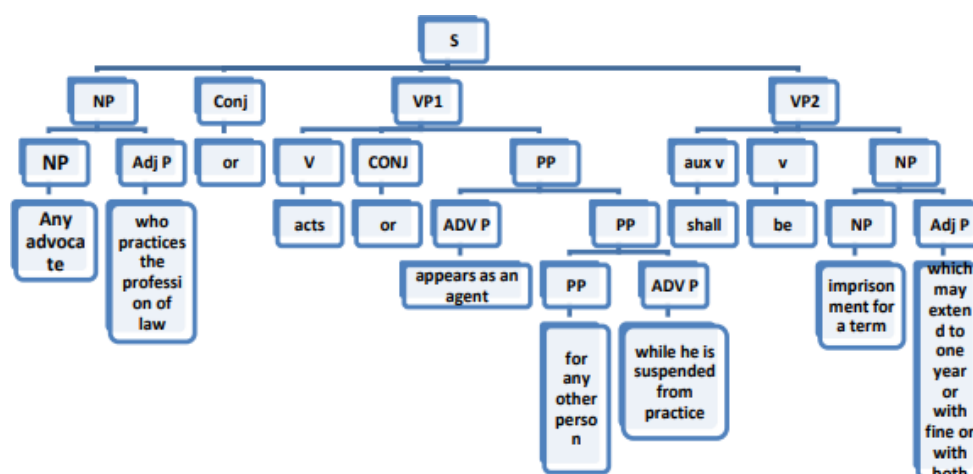


Figure 16: Syntactic Ambiguity in the Act

The structure of the sentence in (Fig 8) is accurate but the Adverbial Phrase (ADVP) “while he is suspended from practice” which is placed in the category of Prepositional Phrase (PP) located in the Verb Phrase 1 (VP1) category.

To disambiguate the ambiguity, the researcher changed the position of the Adverbial Phrase (ADVP) to Prepositional Phrase (PP) “for any other person” by using the same tree diagram.

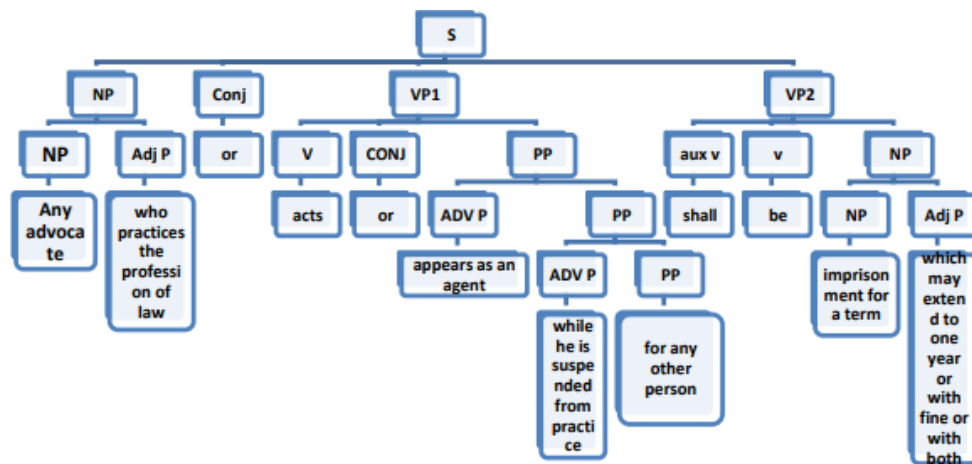


Figure 17: Syntactic Ambiguity in the Act

According to this rearrangement in (Figure 17), it became clear that the Adverbial Phrase (ADVP) is modifying the Noun Phrase (NP) “Any Advocate who practices the profession of law”.

9. “Provided that such ...desires to be heard”. (Legal Practitioners and Bar Councils Act ,1973, p. 43)

This phrase is ambiguous because it gives us two meanings i.e. (i) either the authority desires to be heard (ii) or any such person desires to be heard. To disambiguate the ambiguity, the researcher used the tree diagram by following the syntactic rules by Fromkin et al. (1991).

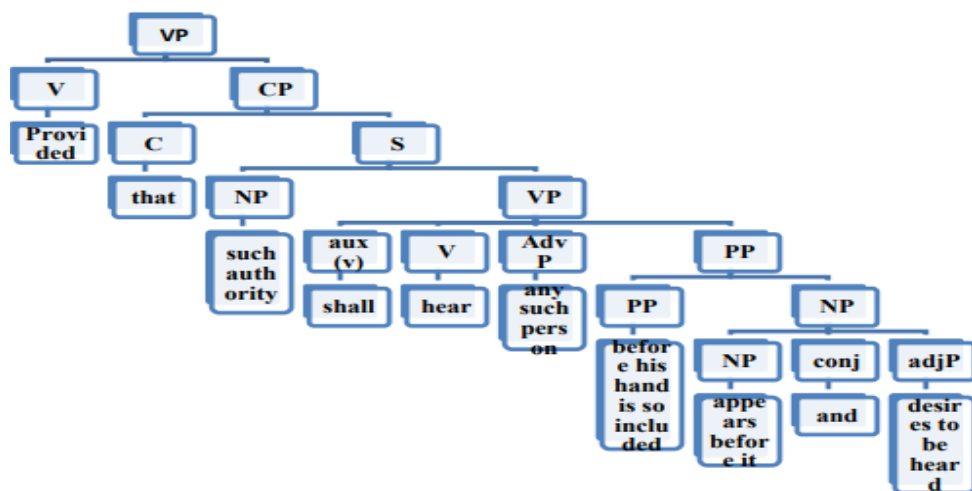


Figure 18: Phrasal Ambiguity in the Act

According to the structure in (Figure 18), the structure of the phrase is correct, but the ambiguity is formed by the Prepositional Phrase “before his hand is so included” placed in the category of Prepositional Phrase (PP) located in the Verb Phrase (VP) category.

Through tree diagram, it made clear that the Prepositional Phrase (PP) is modifying the Adverbial Phrase (ADVP) “any such person” which makes it clear that any such person desires to be heard.

5. Results and Discussion

Syntactic ambiguity occurs when a sentence structure or the order of the words in a sentence gives two or more possible meanings. The researcher found 7 sentences and 2 Phrases in the Act which were ambiguous. The ambiguity was resolved with the help of Tree Diagram.

In sentence 1 (Pg.1) of the Act, the ambiguity occurred due to Prepositional Phrase (PP) located in the Verb Phrase (VP) of Sentence 1(S1). In Sentence 2 (Pg.06) of the Act, the ambiguity occurred in the Verb Phrase (VP) subcategory Prepositional Phrase (PP3). In sentence 3 (Pg.08) of the Act, the ambiguity was caused due to Prepositional Phrase (PP). In sentence 04 (Pg 10) of the Act, the ambiguity lay in the Adverbial Phrase (ADV P) placed in the category of the Prepositional Phrase (PP) located in the Verb Phrase. In sentence 4 (Pg. 23) of the Act, the ambiguity was produced by the Adverb Phrase (ADV P) placed in the subcategory Prepositional Phrase (PP) located in the Verb Phrase of the Sentence. In sentence 5 (Pg. 32) of the Act, the ambiguity arose due to Adjective Phrase (AdjP) placed in the category of Prepositional Phrase (PP) located in the Verb Phrase (VP). In sentence 6 (Pg. 42) of the Act, the ambiguity occurred due Adverbial Phrase (ADVP) which was placed in the category of Prepositional Phrase (PP) located in the Verb Phrase 1 (VP1) category.

In Phrase 1 (Pg19) of the Act, the ambiguity was produced by Prepositional Phrase (PP) as it was modifying the Noun Phrase (NP). In Phrase 2 (Pg. 43) of the Act, the ambiguity was formed by the Prepositional Phrase placed in the category of Prepositional Phrase (PP) located in the Verb Phrase (VP) category. The researcher resolved the ambiguity with the help of a tree diagram. The researcher found that both in sentences and phrases the ambiguity was caused due to the Prepositional Phrases. A study conducted by Putri (2017) on syntactic pattern of the verses of the Surah Al-Qiyamah by applying the tree diagram. The result depicted that 16 were sentence patterns and 8 were phrase patterns i.e noun phrase, verb phrase, adjective phrase, prepositional phrase and complement phrase.

The result showed that 12 were structural ambiguity based on noun phrase. In contrast to these studies, Ritan (2018) conducted a search and presented ambiguous sentences along with their tree diagram from the movie Home. The result showed that the main cause was lexical ambiguity. Most of the sentences were grammatically correct despite being lexical ambiguous and they fit in the tree diagram whereas some were grammatically incorrect, and they didn't fit in the tree diagram.

To conclude this discussion, the syntactic ambiguity in the Act was caused due to disarrangement of the prepositional phrases in the legal sentences and phrases and that is why they had more than one interpretations which was reason of ambiguity but with the

help of a Tree Diagram it became easy to understand the correct interpretation of the legal sentences.

5. Conclusion

In legal discourse, legal sentences and phrases are lengthy and complex which often leads to ambiguity and difficulty to understand. This complexity is due to the excessive use of the prepositions which are an integral part of the legal discourse. In this study with the help of tree diagram the ambiguous sentences and phrases revealed that it was caused from the positioning and layering of the prepositional phrases making the sentence structure more complicated and harder to interpret the accurate and intended meaning. Legal writing heavily relies on the prepositions, therefore careful consideration of their placement should be implemented to avoid misunderstanding and to maintain the clarity of the sentences.

Recommendations

- i. In the light of these findings, legislative bodies ought to give some thought to the possibility of selecting those terms that confer a certain meaning upon the word, a meaning that is simple to comprehend and that a layperson is only capable of interpreting singly.
- ii. Secondly, instead of using complex sentences, they should use simple or compound sentences.
- iii. Thirdly, prepositions are an integral part of the legal language so they must be taught in detail to the legal students and scholars.
- iv. Fourthly, it is recommended that while designing a legal curriculum they should add Applied Linguistics in the syllabus because it will give an experimental approach to the language and while drafting the documents for the future it will be comprehensible for a layman. In addition, it will be beneficial for both the linguist and the lawmakers.
- v. In conclusion, combining the study of Linguistics and Law will result in an interdisciplinary approach to both fields of study, as well as an increased understanding of the relationship between the two fields.

References

- Ajayi, V. O. (2017). Primary sources of data and secondary sources of data. *Benue State University, 1*(1), 1-6.
- Ali, S. W. (2023). Syntactic tree diagram: Students' problems and the causes. *International Journal of English Linguistics, Literature, and Education (IJELLE)*, 5(1), 68-76.
- Aurangzaib, D. A. M. K. R., Zeeshan, A., & Naqvi, S. A. H. (2021). A comparative discourse analysis of Pakistani English and Urdu newspapers' headlines. *PalArch's Journal of Archaeology of Egypt/Egyptology*, 18(4), 6699-6711.
- Carnie, A. (2021). *Syntax: A generative introduction*. John Wiley & Sons.
- Change in bar membership criteria challenged. (2020, July 26). *DAWN*.
- Dai, W. (2021). A Tentative approach to ambiguity in English sentences. *Open Access Library Journal*, 8(9), 1-8.
- Adom, D., Hussein, E. K., & Agyem, J. A. (2018). Theoretical and conceptual framework: Mandatory ingredients of a quality research. *International Journal of Scientific Research*, 7(1), 438-441.
- Grant, C., & Osanloo, A. (2014). Understanding, selecting and integrating a theoretical framework in dissertation research: Creating the blueprint for your "house". *Administrative Issues Journal*, 4(2), 12-26.
- Khan. (2018). *English jurisprudence as expounded by Sir John Salmond*. Lahore: PLD Publishers.
- Lin, X. A. (2023). Syntactic complexity in legal translated texts and the use of plain English: A corpus-based study. *Humanities and Social Sciences Communications*, 10(1), 1-9.
- Olsson, J., & Luchjenbroers, J. (2017). *Forensic linguistics*. Bloomsbury.
- Purnomoadjie, W., & Mulyadi, M. (2019). A syntactical analysis on sentence structure used in two of Adele's songs. *PANYONARA: Journal of English Education*, 1(1), 57-70.
- Putri, A. I. (2017). A Syntactic analysis on the English translation of Surah Al Qiyamah using tree diagrams. *LET: Linguistics, Literature and English Teaching Journal*, 7(1), 17-39.
- Ritan, Y. C. G. (2018). Ambiguity and tree structure of sentences in home movie. Santa Dharma University Yogyakarta.
- Schane, S. (2002). Ambiguity and misunderstanding in the law. *Thomas Jefferson Law Review*, 25, 167-193.
- Sirait, A., & Lingga, T. R. (2021). Applying tree diagram programs in teaching syntax during online learning. 3. *ICONNECTS 2021*, 138.
- Vinz, S. (2022, October 14). Articles by Sarah Vinz. *Scribbr*. <https://www.scribbr.com/author/sarah/>

- Wiredu, J. F. (2014). The complex sentence in legal English: A study of law reports. *Unilag Journal of Humanities*, 2(1), 1-22.
- Wydick, R. C. (2005). *Plain English for lawyers* (5th ed.). Durham, NC: Carolina Academic Press.

Citation of this paper

Rehman, A. (2024). Legal Discourse Analysis: Resolving Syntactic Ambiguities in the Legal Practitioners and Bar Councils Act 1973. *Erevna: Journal of Linguistics and Literature*, 8(1), 21-44.

A Stylistic Analysis of Robert Frost's "The Runway"

Isra Mumtaz

Minhaj University, Lahore, Pakistan

Fatima tuz Zahra

Minhaj University, Lahore, Pakistan

Keywords

- Stylistic analysis,
- Phonological level,
- Graphological level,
- Model of Reality,
- Writer and reader domain

Abstract

The aim of the present study is to analyse the stylistic features of Robert Frost's "The Runway." This article seeks to identify the poet's aesthetic choices by examining the text's use of various literary devices and stylistic elements. The theoretical framework used for the present study is the "Model of Reality" by Leech & Short (1981). Leech and Short identify four basic levels for analyzing text, but the present study focused on only two phonological and graphological levels. Thus, in this article, the researcher has done a stylistic analysis of "The Runway" by Robert Frost. This research addresses three research questions. The study investigates how to analyse the meaning of the poem through the use of language features, what aspects of reality are highlighted in the poem, and how to find out the reader and writer domains. Because of the poet's adaptable writing style and creative use of language, Robert Frost's poetry stands out from the crowd and is able to capture readers' attention. There is not any research on the stylistic analysis of this poem; that's why the researcher chose it. The text's combination of phono-graphic elements soothes the senses of sight and sound while also appealing to readers' aesthetic senses. The stylistic analysis explains the reader and writer domains, how the poet encodes the language by using several punctuation and repetitions of sounds, and how the reader decodes the language to trace out the truth in the poem.

1. Introduction

According to Pretorius and Swart, "Style is a way in which a writer utilises the tools of language at his fingertips to produce a certain impact on the reader" (Pretorius, 1982). Short and Leech (1981) said that authors and writers use style for a reason, and that purpose depends on the context in which it is applied. Lawal (2004) possesses opinions on style. He claims that linguistic expressions like "style" encompass a wide range of linguistic qualities. Style is a distinctive method of using language appropriately to convey the intended message. Stylistics is the study of the distinctive expression of language. (Sharma 2018).

Stylistics is the study of literary style. It investigates the language used in literary works. (Widdowson, 2004). Different authors, poets, and writers all employ unique and creative writing styles in their works. Leech (2014) explains that a literary text's spoken and written style is its manner of expression. The study of linguistics demonstrates how the author's perspective is reflected in literary works. The study of stylistics involves examining various linguistic expressions (Verdonk, 2002). It is a science that investigates each essential component of language. Stylistics' main objective is to underline the significance of function in reading texts rather than just a literary work's formal features. (Latif, Ajmal & Maqbool, 2022).

Robert Frost's poem is an intriguing study subject for two different reasons. The primary reason is Frost's style's fundamental components. Frost occupies a unique position with regard to using stylistic tools. Abdul Bari and Summara (2014) determined that Frost is unique in his use of style devices including imagery, simile, metaphor, hyperbole, and sound devices to express the theme of his poem after doing a stylistic analysis of one of Frost's poems, "the onset." The secondary reason is that there has not been any research done on the stylistic analysis of Robert Frost's poem "The Runway," despite the fact that stylistic analysis of poetry is an increasingly popular subject in linguistics research. Therefore, the goal of the current study is to decode and illuminate the poem's symbolic implications.

The present study will analyze Frost's poem "The Runway" through the language features to uncover the hidden meaning of the poem. Therefore, this researcher uses a particular study as a theoretical background. The Stylistics approach is used in the present study. Stylistics analysis is used in this research to show the language features used in the poem "The Runway" and investigate how those features are used to reveal the meaning of the poem. The current study demonstrates that when linguistics and stylistics are applied to the literature then it enriches the meaning of literary text. In this research, the poem is analysed through two stylistic levels phonological and graphological level.

1.1. Levels of Stylistics Analysis

Phonological Level: Ofuya (2007) states that phonology is the study of a language's proper sound order. According to Lodge (2009), the linguistic organization of words is called phonology. It involves analyzing the numerous sound components of words, phrases, and sentences in a language. It entails sound research.

Graphological Level: Leech (2014) believes that graphology is more than just orthography. It alludes to the writing process as a whole, including paragraphing,

spacing, and punctuation. Additionally, according to Alabi (2007), among all other characteristics of a graph, the foregrounding of quotation marks, full stops, colons, semicolons, commas, hyphens, ellipses, capitalization, spacing, question marks, etc.

1.1. Purpose of study

To advance our understanding of literature, linguistics, and stylistics is the aim of the current study. Between linguists and literary critics, there has been a discussion about whether it is appropriate for literary critics to use linguistic techniques and methods when analyzing literature. The difference between literary art and linguistic science was clarified by Lodge (1972), who asserted that neither discipline could ever completely replace the value of literary criticism or the fundamental idea that literary art benefits people. Both linguistics and literary art have important roles to play as scientific disciplines. The results of the current study thus demonstrate that when used in literary texts, linguistic and stylistic features enrich the meaning of the text.

1.2. Research Questions

- i. How does the poet's use of linguistic devices express the poem's meaning?
- ii. What aspects of reality are represented in poem "The Runway" by Robert Frost?
- iii. How does Leech and short (1981) framework explains writer and reader domains in Robert Frost "The Runway"?

1.3. Significance of study

The results of the current study may be useful to literature students who want to learn more about stylistic analysis and the ways in which authors present the construction of meaning through the use of various stylistic devices. It can provide help in comprehending the underlying themes and symbolic meanings of these texts. The study might stimulate further research in this field and advance scholarly conversation.

2. Literature Review

The first research study is conducted by Aulia Putri (2018) with the title Stylistic Analysis of the Poem "During Wind and Rain" by Thomas Hardy. This study has two basic purposes. The first one is to highlight the language features used in Thomas Hardy's During Wind and Rain. The second purpose is to analyze how the use of Language features uncover the meaning of the poem.

The second research study is conducted by Maha Sarfrz (2022) on the topic of Stylistic Analysis of Coelho's novel The Alchemist. Three fundamental goals are the focus of the research. The first step is to highlight the key stylistic elements that the chosen novels use to help readers understand the author's style. Analyze how the author's linguistic choices have portrayed the fundamental intrigues of the novels in the second step. In the third place, let's call attention to the grammatical groups that help to define the writer's style.

The third research study was conducted by Hira Ali (2016) on the topic of stylistic analysis of the poem Hope is the Thing with Feathers. The researcher used grammatical, lexical, phonological, and graphological levels of language as well as stylistic techniques. The researcher also paid attention to the poem's style, structure, and themes. The poem has a

positive tone. The bird and hope are contrasted. She illustrates how hope enriches everything.

The fourth research study is done by Esa Yoland Putri (2011) on the topic of “An analysis of stylistics in Dear John by Nicolas Sparks”. In this study the researcher's main focus is to analyze the style used by Nicholas Sparks in his novel Dear John. To analyze the style researcher's main focus on the types of figurative language in Dear John's novel and the use of figurative language in the phrases and sentences which are selected by the writer.

The fifth research study is done by Yazan Shaker Almahmeed (2015). The research study's primary focus is on the analysis of the poem The Little Match Girl. Four linguistic levels are used to analyse this study: phonological, syntactic, semantic, and graphological levels. The author uses interesting and distinctive language. The researcher has worked on word choice, sentence structure, and word arrangement.

The sixth study was conducted by Mugair & Mahadi (2014). Style and stylistics are two broad concepts that are the subject of his research. The first section deals with style. In this section, stylistics is introduced as a linguistic tool. It displays linguistic characteristics that are connected to stylistic elements, such as word choice and figurative language. The second section focuses on the idea of style and the writings of some well-known authors on the subject.

The seventh study is conducted by Kartika Nova Furya Anggadewi (2020) on Robert Frost's 'Mending Wall'. The primary goal of this study is to identify the language devices utilised in Robert Frost's "Mending Wall" and to examine how these devices help to convey the poem's meaning.

Another study was carried out by Khan and Khan (2015) on Anna Swell's "Black Beauty". By examining how various literary devices and writing styles are used in the text, this study seeks to determine the author's aesthetic preferences for this particular novel. It demonstrates how Swell used phonic and graphic language devices to achieve a specific theme and literary style.

3. Research Methodology

A quantitative research approach was used by the researcher to examine the qualities of language and its levels. Syntax, phonology, semantics, and graphology are the four levels Leech and Short (1981) identified for analyzing text. To organize meanings, which is semantics' main focus, syntax and phonology form the framework of expression. According to them, graphology can take the place of phonology. Despite being distant, phonological features are not unimportant. When text is read aloud, it will stand out more if spellings are used to their full advantage or sounds are prolonged. Leech and Short describe the degree of organization in both writing and speech.

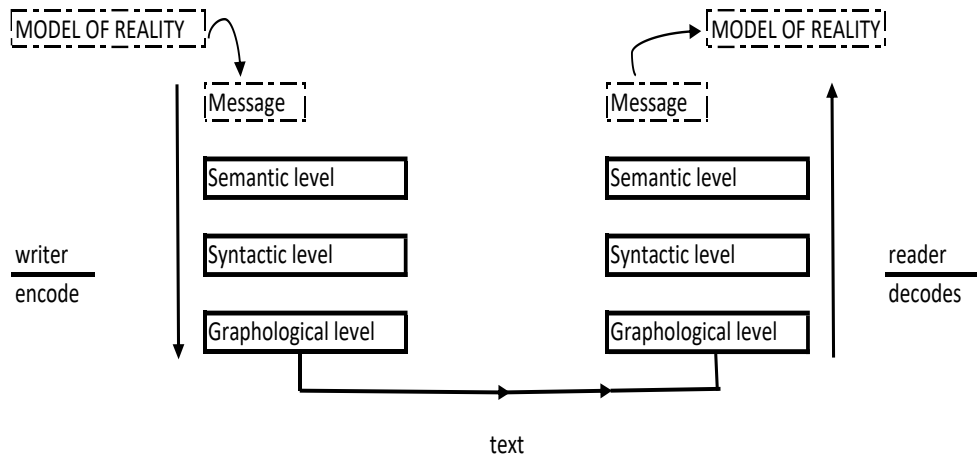


Figure 1: (Leech and Short, 1981, p 121)

In speech and writing, encoding occurs at the top level. To convey meaning, a speaker or writer must place his or her words in a clear and distinct framework that is distinguishable by sounds or letters. Due to the fact that it begins with sounds and letters arranged in a conventional format and works its way down to the level of meaning, decoding is a down-top approach. The level of language organization in fiction was defined by Leech and Short (1981, p. 126) in relation to its analysis as follows:

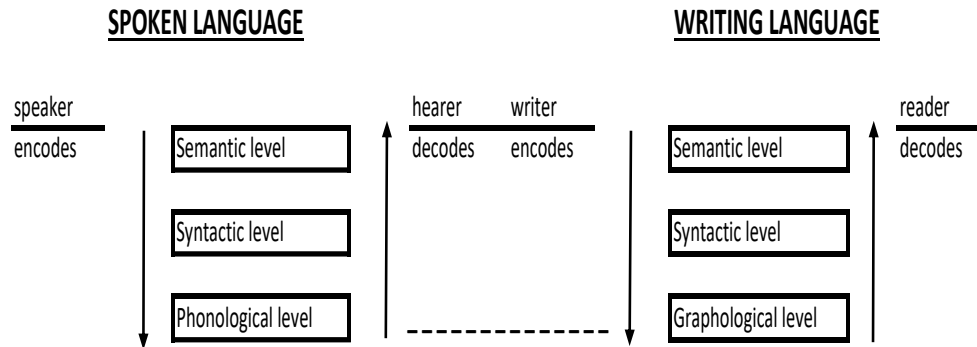


Figure 2: Leech and Short's "The Model of Reality"

"The Model of Reality" by Leech and Short is a linguistic framework that describes how language is used to construct a model of reality. In this framework, language is seen as a tool for constructing and conveying meaning, rather than simply reflecting reality. This model can be applied to the poem "The Runaway" by Robert Frost.

4. Data Analysis

4.1. Graphological level

Table 1

Graphological Levels

	Type	Total	Percentage
a)	Exclamation points (!)	1	2.32%
b)	Periods (.)	14	32.56%
c)	Coma (,)	11	25.58%
d)	Questions (?)	2	4.65%
e)	Hyphens (-)	1	2.32%
f)	Direct speech	3	6.98%
g)	Quotation marks (“”)	1	2.32%
h)	Contraction (‘)	10	23.26%
	Total	43	100%

4.2 Phonological level

a. Rhyme Scheme

Frost use an irregular and varied rhyme pattern for "The Runaway." It has three couplets and several instances of alternate rhyme. Poem has ABACBCDEFDDEFGGHHIIJJ pattern.

b. Sound devices

Table 2

Sound devices

	Type	Total	Percentage
a)	Alliteration	18	19.35%
b)	Assonance	21	22.58%
c)	Consonance	54	58%
	Total	93	100

5. Results and Discussion

5.1. Graphology level

This poem consists of eighteen lines in one block text. Several punctuations are used in these lines. The text's distinctive graphological features include the use of quotation marks, capitalization, hyphenation, dashes, and other punctuation in multiple places within a single sentence.

a. Comma (,)

A comma is used to indicate that the sentence is not yet complete. Comma used to give the reader a moment to pause or to separate their thoughts.

Line 1: Once when the snow of the year was beginning to fall, 1
 Line 2: We stopped by a mountain pasture to say, 2 'Whose colt?'
 Line 3: A little Morgan had one forefoot on the wall, 3
 Line 6: We heard the miniature thunder where he fled, 4
 Line 7: And we saw him, 5 or thought we saw him, 6 dim and grey, 7
 Line 12: I doubt if even his mother could tell him, 8 "Sakes, 9
 Line 19: Whoever it is that leaves him out so late, 10
 Line 20: When other creatures have gone to stall and bin, 11

b. Period (.)

Period used to indicate that sentence is completed.

Line 4: The other curled at his breast. 1 He dipped his head
 Line 5: And snorted at us. 2 And then he had to bolt. 3
 Line 8: Like a shadow against the curtain of falling flakes. 4
 Line 9: 'I think the little fellow's afraid of the snow. 5
 Line 10: He isn't winter-broken. 6 It isn't play
 Line 11: With the little fellow at all. 7 He's running away. 8
 Line 13: t's only weather. 9" He'd think she didn't know!
 Line 14: Where is his mother? He can't be out alone. 10'
 Line 15: And now he comes again with a clatter of stone. 11
 Line 17: And all his tail that isn't hair up straight. 12
 Line 18: He shudders his coat as if to throw off flies. 13
 Line 21: Ought to be told to come and take him in. 14'

c. Question: (?)

Line 2: We stopped by a mountain pasture to say, 'Whose colt? 1'
 Lined 14: Where is his mother? 2 He can't be out alone.'

d. Contradiction (')

In order to create a literary effect that appeals to readers' aesthetic senses, writers frequently omit a sound unit or even a whole syllable during this process. Frost has taken advantage of this audio tool to further his aesthetic objectives.

Line 9: 'I think the little fellow's 1 afraid of the snow.

Line 10: He isn't² winter-broken. It isn't³ play
Line 11: With the little fellow at all. He's⁴ running away.
Line 13: It's⁵ only weather." He'd⁶ think she didn't⁷ know!
Line 14: Where is his mother? He can't⁸ be out alone.'
Line 17: And all his tail that isn't⁹ hair up straight.

e. Exclamation (!)

Line 13: It's only weather." He'd think she didn't know!¹

f. Hyphens (-)

Hyphenation has been used to add new vocabulary to the text, giving the poem's literary expressions, color and adding to the text's aesthetic appeal for readers.

Line 10: He isn't winter-1broken. It isn't play

g. Direct speech (‘’)

Frost uses an apostrophe in his poem "The runaway" to denote direct speech. Usually used at the start and end of sentences, the apostrophe serves as a quotation mark. It demonstrates how Frost ignores the direct speech rule in order to convey the poem's main idea.

Line 2: We stopped by a mountain pasture to say, 'Whose colt?'¹

Line 9: 'I think the little fellow's afraid of the snow.

Line 14: Where is his mother? He can't be out alone.'²

Line 19: 'Whoever it is that leaves him out so late,

Line 21: Ought to be told to come and take him in.'³

h. Quotation mark (“”)

Line 12: I doubt if even his mother could tell him, "I Sakes,

Line 13: It's only weather."¹ He'd think she didn't know!

5.2. Phonological level

a. Rhyme scheme

The Pattern of the poem is ABACBCDEFDDEFGGHHIIJJ.

In the poem, Rhyme A comes from fall and wall while rhyme B comes from "colt" and "bolt". Rhyme C is formed from the words "head" and "fled" rhyme D is formed from "grey", "play", "away". "Flakes" and "Sakes" are shaped rhyme E and "snow", "know" shapes rhyme F.

Rhyme G is taken from the words "alone" and "stone" on the other hand rhyme H is shaped from "eyes", "flies". "straight", "late" make the rhyme I and in the last "bin", "in" form the rhyme J.

b. Sounds devices

One of "The Runway's" standout qualities is the repetition of sound. There are multiple instances of repeated sounds almost everywhere you look. Alliteration and assonance can be seen in this. The presentation will include at least one example from each page. The poem has a very special effect on the readers' minds because it uses the same sounds repeatedly in various names. However, this text has a musical quality thanks to the repeated sounds.

Table 3

Sounds devices

Alliteration	Consonance	Assonance
when, was	once, when, snow, beginning	year, beginning
the, the	stoped, mountain, pasture, colt	little, morgan, when
Stopped, say	little, forefoot	other, curled
his, he,	morgan, forefoot	breast, head
his, head	little, wall	dipped, his
he, had	morgan, one	as, and
we, where	and, snorted, had	heard, miniature, thunder
he, heard	snorted, at bolt	where, fled
we ,we	snorted, then	we, we
saw, saw	heard, thunder, fled	see, see, out, thought
him, him	miniature, thunder	him, him, dim
the, the	miniature, thunder, where, heard	little, of
his, him	like, flakes	winter, broken
his, he	against, falling	even, his
comes, clatter	against, flakes	he , be
wall, with, whited	against, curtain	comes, clatter
his, hair	against, custain	whited, eyes
he, his	think, snow	tail, straight
leave, late	little, fellow	coat, throw
to, told, take	only, think, didn't, know	other, creatures
	where, mother	gone, stall
	is, his	
	can't alone	
	can't, out	
	and, again, stone	
	and, mounts, again	
	mounts, eyes	
	mounts, whited	
	and, whited	
	all, tail	
	straight, isn't	
	isn't, his	
	hair, straight	
	shudders, his, as, flies	
	if, off	
	shuders, throw	

whoever, leaves
it, that, out, late,
when, goen, bin, and
other, creature,
creature, stall
and, told
and, in
come, him

In response to first research question, the current study demonstrates that linguistic elements, such as phonological and graphological devices, can help to expose a poem's meanings, which is a direct solution to the original research topic. The poet may have added a musical character to the poem by using alliteration, rhyme, or repetition, which would have improved its meaning. A poem's underlying meaning can also be understood by how certain words or phrases are used to establish a particular mood or tone. To emphasize a point or deliver a particular message, geographic elements like typeface, space, and punctuation are also utilized. Overall, the poem "The Runway" use of linguistic devices contribute in illuminating its deeper themes and implications.

In the answer of second research question, the present study shows that in the poem "The Runway" by Robert Frost, the "Model of Reality," also known as the subjective model, is used to reflect parts of reality in phonological and graphological properties. Based on the notion that reality is created by our perception of it, and that perception is subjective and impacted by our unique experiences and emotions, is the subjective model of reality. Frost conveys the speaker's subjective experience through the sounds and rhythms of the words in the poem. Line length and spacing, among other graphological elements, can be applied to emphasise certain points or deliver a certain message. Overall, the usage of phonological and graphological elements in "The Runway" can be helpful in demonstrating the speaker's subjective experience and the ways in which each person's perception affects how they perceive the world.

In response to third research question this research reveals that The "Model of Reality" framework by Leech and Short (1981) can be employed to clarify the writer and reader domains in Robert Frost's poem "The Runaway." According to this theory, language is employed to create a model of reality, and the writer's and reader's perspectives influence this model. In the case of "The Runaway," the author's domain refers to Robert Frost's viewpoint when he composed the poem. Frost creates a model of reality through his use of words that highlights the horse's anxiety and fragility as well as the speaker's care for the horse. This is clear from the physical characteristics of the horse, which are described as having "whited eyes" and "shuddering his coat," both of which evoke anxiety and doubt. Frost's use of metaphors, such comparing the horse to a "shadow," further emphasises the horse's frailty. The reader's domain, on the other hand, describes the reader's viewpoint as they approach the poetry. The experiences, opinions, and biases that readers bring to the reading process can affect how they interpret the poetry. A reader with horse experience, for instance, might perceive the behaviour of the horse differently from a reader without such experience. The speaker's presumptions on the requirements of the horse may also be questioned by a reader who is more sceptical of authority. In general, the "Model of Reality" framework helps in demonstrating how language is used to build meaning and how this meaning is changed by both the writer's and the reader's views.

6. Conclusion

Our understanding of Frost's poetry's careful construction comes from stylistic analysis. Studying style, which is important at various language levels, is known as stylistics. It aids readers in developing a more accurate interpretation and understanding of literary texts. The Graphological and Phonological levels of language are the main topics of this study. Both vowels and consonant words repeat sounds at the phonological level of language. The use of different punctuation in text develops the aesthetic sense in the poem. The text's combination of phono-graphic elements soothes the senses of sight and sound while also appealing to readers' aesthetic sense. Stylistic analysis explains the reader and writer domains, how poet encode the language by using several punctuation and repetition of sounds and how reader decode the language to trace out the truth in poem.

References

- Ali, H., Bhatti, I. A., & Shah, A. H. (2016). Stylistics analysis of the poem 'Hope is The Thing with Feathers'. *World Journal of Research and Review (WJRR)*, 3(5), 18-21.
- Anggadewi, K. N. (2020). Stylistic analysis in Robert Frost's "Mending Wall". *Faculty of letters. Universitas Sanata Dharma. Yogyakarta*.
- Aslam, S., Aslam, B., Mukhtar, P., & Sarfaraz, A. (2014). Stylistics analysis of the poem Bereft by Robert Frost. *European Journal of Research and Reflection in Arts and Humanities*, 2(1), 1-5.
- Bader, Y. (1992). John Haynes, "Introducing Stylistics" (Book Review). *IRAL: International Review of Applied Linguistics in Language Teaching*, 30(2), 161.
- Lawal, R. A. (2004). Meaning without mean-ness. *University of Ilorin, Ilorin, Nigeria*.
- Leech, G. N. (2014). *A linguistic guide to English poetry* (Vol. 4). London, New York: Routledge.
- Leech, G., & Short, M. (2007). Style in fiction: New directions for research. *Style*, 41(2), 115.
- Lodge, K. (2009). *A critical introduction to phonetics*. A&C Black.
- Ofuya, A. (2007). English phonetics and phonology." critical perspectives on English language & literature, the department of English, university of Ilorin.
- Putri, A. (2018). Stylistic analysis of the poem "During wind and Rain" by Thomas Hardy. *ANGLO-SAXON: Jurnal Ilmiah Program Studi Pendidikan Bahasa Inggris*, 9(2).
- Putri, E. Y. (2011). An analysis of stylistics in Dear John novel by Nicholas Sparks.
- Sarfraz, M. (2022). Stylistic analysis of Coelho's novel The Alchemist. *International Journal of Linguistics, Literature and Translation*, 5(3), 58-66.
- Short, M & Leech, G. (1981). *Style in Fiction*. New York. Routledge.
- Simpson, P. (2004). *Stylistics: A resource book for students*. Routledge
- Verdonk, P. (2002). *Stylistics*. Oxford University Press.

Citation of this paper

Mumtaz, I, & Zahra, F, T. (2024). A Stylistic Analysis of Robert Frost's "The Runway". *Erevna: Journal of Linguistics and Literature*, 8(1), 45-56.

Speech Act Analysis of Oscar Wilde's "*The Happy Prince*"

Mudassar Nawaz

Quaid-i-Azam University, Islamabad

Keywords

- Speech Act Theory,
- Illocutionary Speech Acts

Abstract

The study aims to analyze how illocutionary speech acts were used contextually to create meaningful expressions in the short story "The Happy Prince" written by Oscar Wilde. The study's sample contains all the data from the selected short story. Searle's speech act theory was used as a theoretical framework to examine the data. Discourse analysis was used to analyze the data to point out illocutionary speech acts used in the story. In this study, the illocutionary speech acts used in Oscar Wilde's "The Happy Prince" have been identified, discussed, and evaluated to determine how the author effectively uses language to explicate his intended themes of love, giving, and the harshest truth that is the division of classes. The paper also analyses different types of illocutionary acts, including directive, commissive, and expressive, regarding their role in the development of the story and the central characters. Depending on the type of discourse, the results show a significant focus on representative and directive speech acts concerning power relations and the problem of saving lives.

1. Introduction

The primary purpose of this study is to explain the numerous ways speakers use language to convey different behaviors and actions. The study aims to illustrate the pragmatic uses of language in Oscar Wilde's "The Happy Prince" and how representative acts convey the message of social injustice, directive acts share the message of selflessness, and expressive acts emphasize the feelings of togetherness. Finally, this work was meant to advance the ongoing discussions of the artistic output of Oscar Wilde and the ways languages are used in "The Happy Prince".

This research focuses on the analysis of the pragmatic aspect of the language used in "The Happy Prince" by Oscar Wilde as the set of illocutionary acts performed in the story. Previous research investigated the illocutionary acts in different texts, such as 'Onward' by Kumala and Rohmah, 2021, and political speeches, but studying how the particular language features help to develop the theme and depict characters in Wilde's famous story. Investigating the representative, directive, and expressive discourse will help shed light on the relationships between language and literary components in Wilde's study, consider the author's artistic decisions, and apply deeper comprehension of the artwork and its message.

This research will give readers a better understanding of contexts and Speech Acts used in studying pragmatics. It can be beneficial for readers and upcoming researchers who have an interest in speech act theory. The pragmatic approach of Speech Act Theory implicitly proposes a link between form and function. This link might or might not appear in the utterances of "The Happy Prince," an English short story.

The notion of speech act was initially introduced by John Langshaw Austin, a prominent figure in pragmatics, in 1962. It was further expanded by John R. Searl, another philosopher of language, in 1969. Both scholars argue that language serves to convey information or describe objects and is a tool for performing actions. Speech acts typically refer to actions carried out using verbal expressions.

A locutionary act produces a sequence of sounds that carries a conventional meaning, without any external help. An illocutionary act encompasses the act of expressing, asking, or directing something, and the speaker's expectation implies the illocutionary force of the act. Illocutionary activities refer to the actual actions that are carried out through speech. Perlocutionary actions refer to speech's ultimate impact on the recipient, which can be persuading, amusing, or depressing. People construct a statement with a specific purpose in mind. The communicative impact of a speech is referred to as its illocutionary force. A perlocutionary act refers to the impact or influence generated in the listeners due to hearing a locutionary act; in other words, it is the response elicited from the hearer. Language philosopher John R. Searle expanded on it in 1969. They both believe that language is frequently employed "to do things" or carry out actions rather than just to inform or describe things. Put differently, speech acts are activities that are carried out through utterances. When someone speaks, he creates sentences with proper grammar and vocabulary and carries out a task with the speech. The following three related acts are associated with acting by speech.

The possibility of a discourse demonstration is based on the notion that by employing a higher level of scientific categorization to analyze speech acts (as proposed by Austin and Searle), these speech acts can be viewed as sequences of smaller units (individual speech acts) that, when combined, significantly contribute to a comprehensive context representing

a significant final speech act (as discussed by Murphy and Neu, 1996). Researchers tend to discuss the apparent emergence of this language set as a speech act, even as more people participate (Scollon and Scollon, 2001).

The potential for employing language as a form of action has revealed a significant source of inspiration for contemporary thought. Linguistic expressions are not just an approach to portraying conditions of undertakings but can be utilized to perform different exercises, such as promises, apologies, and guarantees, among numerous others. So, there are activities, for example, wagering, pronouncing, and censuring, which can only be done if certain words are articulated. The speech act hypothesis offers a method to analyze the underlying aspects of the conversation and organize the content of verbal communication (Cook, 1992). The speech act theory aims to explain the process by which listeners perceive speakers' utterances and how speakers employ language to achieve specific objectives.

Discourse demonstration questions have their roots in dialectic reasoning, even if they are currently seen as a subfield of multidimensional pragmatics. For a very long time, rationalists assumed that an "announcement" had to "depict" a situation or "express some reality," which it may accomplish incorrectly or correctly. Many of the words that the two scholars and grammarians would have accepted without question as "statements" have now been carefully analyzed. It is now widely accepted that many statements that resemble proclamations are either completely unplanned or just partially planned to document or provide transparent information about what happens. (Austin, 1962, p.1)

Examining illocutionary speech acts in literary texts can shed light on the deeper intentions and sentiments an author addresses through their characters. This research paper will analyze illocutionary speech acts in Oscar Wilde's "The Happy Prince." Illocutionary speech acts, as defined by linguistic scholar John Searle, are utterances that convey information and, at the same time, perform an act (Kumala & Rohmah, 2021). In the text "The Happy Prince," research can demonstrate instances of illocutionary speech acts that focus on advancing themes and developing characters.

This study will be useful for the development of linguistic and literary study. The study serves to mediate the relationship between Speech Act Theory and textual analysis for Oscar Wilde's story by providing deep understanding of how the characters' spoken and performed words comprise deliberate enacted messages. The study facilitates the examination of more speech acts, including assertions, commands, and promises, and how they add to character development, storyline, and thematic meaning. It is interdisciplinary because it combines pragmatics and literary studies by enforcing higher analysis of linguistic problems in stories. Besides, it also reveals how the processes of characterization and interaction present moral and social concepts and values, like sacrifice and inequality, to enrich accounts of language as the medium for presenting ethical messages. Finally, it promotes genre-specific fields, especially in the area of fairy tales, by revealing how speech acts operate across cultural and historical domains and enhancing the knowledge of language use in narrative around the world.

It is still possible to identify several gaps in the current research regarding the application of the speech act theory in literature, especially considering short stories. First, speech act theory, even though originating from linguistics and being introduced into law and communication sciences, is not frequently applied in the analysis of literary texts. Little

research examines the ways in which speech acts function to convey characters' goals, desires, sentiments, or affiliations within a story. Second, the correlation between speech acts and emotion is still not discussed in detail, and their connection could be more insightful to interpret the affective aspect of narrative such as "The Happy Prince". Lastly, there is a lack of cross-cultural or genre-specific speech act studies, especially within fairy tales or moralistic stories. Studying how these speech acts operate and what cultural values they index, or what didactic purpose they serve in these contexts could perhaps shed light on further aspects of their linguistic and cultural nature. These gaps indicate that there is more work to be done in this area concerning interdisciplinary research with reference to the question of literary speech act.

1.1. Research Questions

- i. How speech acts are used in text to convey meaning within context?
- ii. What are the goals of using speech acts in *The Happy Prince*?

2. Literature Review

It takes a multidisciplinary perspective to account for insights from different fields, such as language structure, human comprehension, social cooperation, and language rationality. Pragmatics is a discipline that has been developed over the last fifty years to address these issues.

The connection between language and action has been apparent in earlier works. However, in recent decades, scholars have gained a more comprehensive understanding of the distinction between the meaning of an expression (semantics) and its practical uses (pragmatics). Hypothetical structures that propose precise methods for connecting and acknowledging the relationship between linguistic items and relevant situational variables have been well-received. Contemporary Spanish linguistics has embraced the mainstream American English tradition in this area, following the revisions put out by Austin (1962), Searle (1969), Grice (1975), Sperber and Wilson (1986), and Dark coloured and Levinson (1987). Sanchez de Zavala (1997) is perhaps the most remarkable exception to the general rule that innovative and creative hypothetical propositions are uncommon. In this case, significant promises were made in the form of exact recordings of the actual sorts of speech acts and their adequacy levels.

Various forms of conduct express linguistic expressions (Austin, 1962). Existing literature on speech actions has predominantly emphasized the illocutionary aspect, even though these can be identified in any utterance. Language offers structures that encode different illocutions in a standard manner. Revelation sentences often serve as statements, interrogatives as questions, and imperatives as orders.

Leech (1983) and Brown and Levinson (1987) have greatly influenced studies on politeness in Pragmatics. Leech (1983) proposes using new proverbs as symbolic representations of social interaction, expanding upon Grice's conversational norms and principles. Brown and Levinson (1987) employ Goffman's notion of face, which refers to the shared social reputation that individuals are obliged to uphold. The preservation of social ties justifies the inclination to deviate from conventional behaviour, particularly when employing possibly toxic speech acts (such as disagreeable requests); nonetheless,

strong language can still be acceptable when communicating with intimate acquaintances. Affection is perceived as a method of controlling social interactions. Therefore, a productive investigation was initiated to explore how social classes influence language usage, especially those with authority and division. This led to the discovery of a compelling connection between discourse analysis research and societal concerns.

The level of politeness associated with each illocutionary kind is heavily influenced by the speaker-recipient connection and the context. To evaluate the societal influence of a specific expression, it is essential to employ a cost-benefit scale for the recipient. While orders are generally considered unfriendly, it is essential to note that expressive and commissive statements are not. Therefore, employing good manners is necessary to minimize any adverse consequences of speech. When someone engages in a speech act that could be seen as negligent or inconsiderate, such as making a request that could potentially harm the recipient's reputation, it activates the unconscious process of seeking linguistic strategies to alleviate the burden. The primary objective of using indirect speech acts is now recognized as politeness, with the level of indirectness in communication being directly proportional to the level of politeness.

Tsohatzidis (1994) agrees with Searle that essential criteria can be employed to build a logical framework for understanding the success and satisfaction of illocutionary acts. Each illocutionary force can be categorized into four distinct elements:

- A- The illocutionary intention, the method employed to achieve that objective, the prerequisites of preparation and sincerity, and the level of excellence.
- B- The illocutionary powers are organized recursively.
- C- The components of their power and propositional essence determine the states of achievement of fundamental illocutionary acts.
- D- The propositional content and the course of fit determine the states of fulfilling basic illocutionary activities.

These requirements allow speech acts to recognize the connection between words' meaning and the real world, which allows us to figure out the correspondence between words and things. Regarding the four levels, this direction can be unequivocally recognized (Searle, 1979; Leech, 1983; Mey, 1993).

(1) The terms "direction of fit" and "world-to-word" refer to the relationship between a statement and the state of affairs in the world. Once the illocutionary act is finished, its content aligns with the existing circumstances in the world. This demonstrates manipulating language to align with the speaker's objectives and bestowing the speaker with authority for assertions, such as claiming, disclosing, advising, concluding, responding, desiring, etc.

(2) The concept of "direction of fit" refers to the relationship between words and the world in commissives and directives. The universe is modified based on the propositional content at the time that the illocutionary act is completed. All forms of speech serve as commissive and directing acts, meaning that promises, demands, and requests possess the authoritative power of legal obligations. Commissives not only express an anticipation, but also consider the speaker's dedication to engaging in a plan by, for instance, providing, inviting, vowing, and assuring.

(3) The dual direction of correspondence (declarative): If an illocutionary act is successful, the speaker's actions have caused changes in the world that align with the propositional content. This can be observed through the way the speaker acknowledges this modified environment. Therefore, speech acts like baptizing, declaring war, denouncing, and others do not communicate any mental state by aligning words with the world to alter (institutional) reality.

(4) The null direction of correspondence (expressive): If a specific mental state is conveyed and a diverse array of mental states can be expressed, there is no inherent alignment between mental states and reality. Consequently, the council provides the speaker or listener with guidance on expressing qualities or actions, such as apologizing, showing gratitude, applauding, welcoming, and more. In addition, Searle made a distinction between the "illocutionary point", the "illocutionary act", and "illocutionary force". He subsequently discovered the five fundamental illocutionary forces, which are mentioned below and represent the most straightforward forces that can exist:

A- The word "state" is a performative verb that refers to attesting or affirming something. It is typically used in declarative statements to express this power of attestation.

B- The verb "commit" refers to the fundamental commissive illocutionary act.

C- The verb "directive" refers to the basic illocutionary force.

D- Performative phrases refer to the authority of making a statement.

E- The grammatical structure of exclamatory sentences refers to the fundamental expressive intention. Austin's taxonomy of speech acts is flawed due to its irregularity and inadequacy. As a result of these limitations, Searle specifically concentrated on the illocutionary point, direction of fit, mental state, and content. These four aspects were chosen among the twelve speech act classificatory system criteria.

Searle (1979) enhanced Austin's taxonomy of speech acts by categorizing them into five distinct groups (Searle, 1985; Leech, 1983; Leech and Thomas, 1985, Mey 1993; Yule 1996):

A- Representatives: These speaking acts, such as asserting, disclosing, instructing, and concluding, give the speaker a sense of reality.

B- Directives: The speaker's role is to convince the listener to take a specific action or move towards a particular objective.

C- Commissives: Seale explains that their commitment is "unexceptionable," indicating that it stems from the speaker rather than the listener. Therefore, they compel the speaker to engage in a forthcoming action, such as extending an offer, issuing a threat, making a commitment, and so forth.

D- Expressives: These communicate the speaker's emotional and psychological state. Their inherent inclination is to exhibit politeness by extending warm greetings, expressing gratitude, and offering praise. However, it is also true that they can also engage in blaming and accusing behavior.

E- Declarative: The speech act through which we change the world through utterances is called a declarative act.

In particular, the prior literature on illocutionary speech act analysis of literary texts has established a theoretical framework for this research. This paper examines illocutionary speech acts in “The Happy Prince,” and it emerges that representative, directive, and expressive speech acts dominated the story, hence supporting the earlier research findings of other scholars concerning speech acts in literature.

For example, Kumala and Rohmah (2021) have analyzed the illocutionary speech from the book “Onward” by Dan Scanlon, and in the movie released based on the book they found that there were many directive illocutionary acts evident which were driving the central plot and the characters. In the same vein, the study of illocutionary acts in the speech delivered by President Rodrigo Duterte showed that the speech consisted of assertive (representative) illocutionary acts that were aimed at expressing the beliefs and claims of the speaker (Wardana et al., 2019).

A study conducted by Sakti (2022) examined to identify the different forms of speech acts that are used by the main character in the movie “Onward”. The method used in this research was qualitative research that adopted a pragmatic research approach and the study showed that all the types of speech acts were portrayed in the film. Further, Sintamutiani et al. (2019) which suggests four types of speech acts in the movie “Beauty and the Beast” with directive speech acts being most used. Nonetheless, the researchers could not identify any type of expressive speech acts in the entire movie. Similarly, the current-scenario-of-the-Happy-Prince analysis shows how illocutionary speech acts contribute to the story-telling, the narration of themes, and the development of the main characters.

3. Research Methodology

The Speech Act Theory proposed by Searle (1969) is used as a theoretical framework for this analysis. According to Searle, every utterance has some actions, either implicit or explicit, which can be categorized into three major categories. This study aims to investigate the short story to understand the implications of Searle’s proposed theory. The study examines what speech acts Oscar Wilde used in the short story “The Happy Prince.” Discourse Analysis is a research method used to analyze the text of a selected short story. A textual technique is used to investigate the speech acts found in the text. The analysis was guided by Searle’s taxonomy of illocutionary acts, which categorizes speech acts into five primary types. The five major speech acts are offer, request, promise, apology, and thank you. This study is delimited to illocutionary acts used in “The Happy Prince,” a short story by Oscar Wilde. While analyzing the story’s dialogue and narrative, the researcher focused on when characters performed illocutionary speech acts. The isolated acts were then grouped using Searle’s taxonomy while the functions of the acts in the story were analyzed.

The research paper employs qualitative and quantitative research paradigms. The qualitative analysis involves understanding of the complexities of language used in the dialogues and the forces that the characters are performing while the latter involves sorting and counting the kinds of speech acts done in the narratives. Altogether these methods provide a view of the pattern of speech acts in the stories on a daily basis smoothly with other activities.

This qualitative analysis adopts Speech Act Theory by Searle's taxonomy in identifying characters' dialogues, expressions and actions. It analyses how the particular speech act forms (representatives, directives, commissives, expressives, declaratives) can help in character evaluation of story course and themes determination. The entire text of "The Happy Prince" was collected. All the dialogues and narrative speech interactions between all the main characters were observed. Classifying dialogues using Searle's framework: statements of assertion, commands, promises, feelings, and utterances that result in change.

In this research paper both quantitative analysis and qualitative analysis supports the findings. The qualitative assessment gives a richer picture of the contextual and semiotic aspects of communicative routines, explaining how characters' utterances relate to intentions including commands or requests. On the other hand, the quantitative analysis provides statistical numbers on the occurrence and the kind of speech acts which provides evidence to the findings that was observed qualitatively. Altogether, the two of them give comprehensive and sound realization of the use of the speech acts in the story.

Step-by-Step Analysis

1. Going through the story and identify speech acts in outline form.
2. The researcher analyzed separate each of them and characterize them – and recognize the context in which it used.
3. Subdividing speech acts by the character and divide by the type and intention of a speech act.
4. The role, such as blossoming of character relationships or motifs and themes (for example, sacrifice, compassion, inequality).

The researcher examined the effects of speech acts on the overall meaning of the story and the characters' feelings and the social issue portrayed. Furthermore it is useful to analyze how speech acts work as meaningful and plot-shaping actions, and how they contribute to the supporting of themes.

4. Data Analysis

4.1. Representative:

The representative speech act demonstrates the frequent occurrence of several types observed in the story "The Happy Prince" through data analysis. Ninety-three assertions have been shown to have a maximum impact of 30% on the total, which is 307. The instance of assertive illocutionary forces shown below is observed in 65 cases, which accounts for 70% of the total occurrences (93). It has been found that when the Happy Prince attempted to utilize his means, specifically the Swallow, to act in the best interest of his nation's poor citizens.

Example: "Far away, far away in a little street, is a poor house. One of the windows is open, and I can see a lady at a table through it."

He is crying because her face looks tired and malnourished. Different forms of the representative speech act occur at different times. The reacting illocutionary force, which consists of 19 articulations and accounts for 20% of the total, is followed in role (93); in

contrast, the desiring and reacting illocutionary powers are less common in isolation. The last kind only appears twice with 2% of the total, while the prior kind occurs in seven expressions with 8% (93). Take a look at the following example:

Example: “As he is no longer beautiful, he is no longer useful.”

In the example above, the mayor of the city is making a representative speech by discussing his opinions on how the Happy Prince monument seems.

Example: “Death is the brother of sleep”

Swallow is using the example above to discuss his beliefs regarding the reality of death, which is why it is a representative speech act.

Example: “In Egypt, the sun is warm on the green palm tree”

The example above illustrates that the speech act is indicative of Egyptian weather by using the warm sun on palm trees in Egypt as evidence. The compilers' choice to eliminate the valuable components made of gold and the precious stone eyes from the statue of the Happy Prince and give them to the needy citizens of the region serves as a final illustration of the impactful intention of their actions.

4.2. Directives:

Twenty-three expressions, or 7.4% of the total (307), have been recognized according to the Directive Speech Act. In 9 cases or 39% of the total, illocutionary forces are questioned and requested (23).

Although there are no examples of reacting illocutionary force in the text being examined, the presence of ordering illocutionary force has been detected in 5 expressions, making up 22% of the overall numbers (23).

The narrative “The Happy Prince” also acknowledges directive terms.

Example: “Pluck out my other eye and give it to her”.

Happy Prince is asking Swallow to do something in the scenario above, which is why it is a directive speech act.

Example: “Fly over my city little Swallow and tell me what you see there”

The directive speech act in the example above is Happy Prince asking Swallow to take off above the city and inform him what is happening there.

4.3. Commissive:

There are eight occurrences in the content, which accounts for 3% of the total, that acknowledge the Commissive Speech Act (307). The primary example of a commissive speech act in the text is the unambiguous commitment made with absolute certainty (8). One of these occurrences involves the Swallow, who, on that chilly night, made a promise and commitment to remain with the Prince, expressing:

Example: “It is very cold here, but I will stay with you for the night, and be your messenger”.

In the example above, Swallow is engaging in a commissive speech act by pledging to remain with the Happy Prince statue.

Example: “I will wait with you one night longer, said the Swallow”.

In the above example, Swallow promises to wait with Happy Prince, which is why it is a commissive speech act.

Example: “Dear Prince I must leave you but I will never forget you”.

In the above example, Swallow makes a promise to Happy Prince not to forget him forever, which is why it is a commissive speech act.

4.4. Declarative:

The speech act through which we change the world by utterances is called a declarative speech act.

For example,

He got married yesterday.

He became blind in a car accident.

In the story “The Happy Prince,” declarative expressions are also acknowledged.

Example: “His friends had gone away to Egypt six weeks before”.

In the above example, the writer talks about Swallow’s friends who have travelled to Egypt. Through this sentence, he is changing the outer world, which is why it is a declarative speech act.

Example: “So he plucked out the Prince’s other eye”.

In the above example, the writer talks about Swallow’s action of plucking out Prince’s other eye. Through this sentence, he is changing the outer world, which is why it is a declarative speech act.

Example: “You are blind now, he said”.

In the above example, Swallow talks about the blindness of Happy Prince, and through this sentence, he changes the outer world, which is why it is a declarative speech act.

Example: “Then the snow came, and after the snow, frost came”.

In the above example, the writer talks about the arrival of snow and frost, and through this sentence, he changes the outer world, which is why it is a declarative speech act.

4.5. Expressive:

Based on the examination data, 12 expressive speech act articulations were found, which make up 4% of the total (307). Three illocutionary elements independently fluctuate in frequency during an expressive speaking performance.

Regarding shock illocutionary force, 9 instances account for 75% of the total (12). The councillors’ surprising comment regarding the ruler’s worn-out appearance is as follows:

Example: Dear me! How shabby the Happy Prince looks!

The examined content includes two occurrences of the illocutionary force statement expressing remorse, which makes up 17% of the sum of all (12), and one occurrence of the illocutionary force statement expressing appreciation, which makes up 8% of the overall (12). In the following scenario, the Prince conveys his gratitude to the Swallow for the assistance rendered at a later time:

For example: Thank you, Swallow.

Example: Thank you, Swallow.

Example: "Alas! I have no ruby now, said the Prince".

In the above example, the Happy Prince expresses his bad feelings about not having any more rubies to give poor people, which is why it is an expressive speech act.

Example: "I am glad that you are going to Egypt at last, little Swallow".

In the above example, Happy Prince expresses his nice feelings for Swallow's visit to Egypt, which is why it is an expressive speech act.

Example: "What a lovely bit of glass, 'cried the little girl;"

In the above example, the little girl expresses her feelings for beautiful glass, which is why it is an expressive speech act.

Example: "But you must kiss me on the lips, for I love you".

In the above example, Happy Prince expresses his love for little Swallow, which is why it is an expressive speech act. It is important to note that the data analysis does not reveal any instances of announcement speech acts.

5. Results and Discussion

The illocutionary speech act analysis of "The Happy Prince" shows that Wilde employed language to reveal the themes, propel the plot, and create characters. This analysis of the short story made it possible to define that there are more representative and directive illocutionary speech acts than expressive speech acts. The perlocutionary acts, where characters perform a given act, matter because they demonstrate how characters could employ directions to advance stories and rebuild the sort of relationships seen with other characters.

The first noble action enacted by the happy Prince is arguably a directive one because it involves the Happy Prince directing the Swallow to take off the ruby from his sword and donate it to a low-income family, setting the course of events within the story, all in a bid to be altruistic. While the expressive illocutionary acts that mean characters exhibiting their affective stance were less frequent, but they perform a significant function in the narrative. The function of the expressive speech acts cannot be overestimated because emotions demonstrated in the story and expressed through the characters are on center stage and engage the central components of the story. Representative and directive speech acts are, of course, used most frequently, but expressive speech acts are equally important for the expressive specifications of the characters' feelings and emotions which drive the story.

The Happy Prince, a speaking statue made of gold that was placed to commemorate a monarch, is a perfect illustration of how performative language can enrich fiction. For the whole time readers witness an incredible transformation of the Prince which is caused by his own remarks and sad contemplations about the issues that his mankind faced. Later in the story, the Prince provides the basis for action, cursing selfish people to prompt Swallow to be selfless and bring the destruction of the statue. Likewise, dialogues between the Prince and the Swallow use various forms of the expressives in terms of how deep the Prince is interested in her and how caring he is. Primarily the Swallow refuses to stay with the Prince gradually as feelings of thankfulness and request by the Prince to which the Swallow transforms from the greedy bird to selfless. This expresses the narrator's appreciation of the Happy Prince as he sings his praises, which is an enactedinium that relates directly to the value of the story.

Consequently, the illocutionary speech act analysis of "The Happy Prince" reveals the textual practices through which Wilde employed language to offer an outlook on the story, and put forward the plot and the characters' performances. This conforms with a predominant of representative and directive acts informed by the author's preoccupation with social inequities and the latent urge to assist others, as well as the expressive acts that portray the affectionate connection between the two main characters. When used, directive acts were more often than not a means that advanced the plot and relationships between characters. This comes out clearly in cases like the Happy Prince's instructions to the Swallow to spread his possessions, which advances the plot and depicts his generosity.

Where expressive acts were less frequent, dramatic significance could not be overemphasized because it served as the ingredient that highlighted the loving relationship between the Happy Prince and the Swallow. The expressions of thanks and appreciation manifested by the Swallow uphold the spirit of willingness to give and willingness to serve. Therefore, an analysis of the illocutionary speech Act of "The Happy Prince" is suggestive and worthwhile due to the light it casts on the broad ideas of the story, the characters' progress, as well as the purposes of the author.

The representative illocutionary acts, where characters make assertive statements about the world, were used mainly to show a sharp contrast between riches and poverty within the city (Kissine, 2016). Sustaining the opposite themes of wealth and poverty in urbanity, the major representative illocutionary acts of the characters—the assertions—were employed in the following manner. For instance, there is a moment when The Happy Prince says, "I am covered with fine gold; I would feel miserable, but I don't know why"; this is just a representative utterance concerning his state, which reveals inequality in this town (Riezka & Basri, 2020). This use of representative illocutionary acts creates a vivid contrast between prosperity and suffering with broader implications of social injustice. On the other hand, directive illocutionary acts in which characters give commands or instructions are displayed for plotting purposes and to dictate relationships among them.

Consider when the Happy Prince says he sees misery in the city; the Prince is making assertive claims about the state of affairs. (see, Asykin et al. 2021 Assykin, Oka, Tenaya, Rahman, Yunus, Hadi, Pratama, Moris, Gusto, Rumbita, Ali, Bhimo, 2019). The text mentions several directive illocutionary speech acts that identify directives toward others or utterances that involve the command, request, or invitation for action (see Wardana et al., 2019). For example, when the Happy Prince asks the Swallow to take the ruby from the sword and bring it to a poor family, the Swallow develops the Prince's historical goodwill.

Furthermore, the paper locates Wilde's stylistics in the context of his overall literary production, focusing on how his journalistic, editing, and criticism experience made him a unique narrator. Lastly, in addition to earlier features of representatives and directives, the text describes several expressive illocutionary acts, where interlocutors identify an emotional state or refer to an attitude toward something expressed linguistically.

When the Swallow expresses his thanks, the attitude toward or emotional response to the Happy Prince is evident, further engaging themes of charity, selflessness, and kindness (see references Wardana et al., 2019). The study of illocutionary speech acts in "The Happy Prince" also offers insight into characterization-related aspects. The reader is deepened by the various representative, directive, and expressive acts expressed by the characters within the story. For example, the Happy Prince often makes representative illocutionary acts to portray the plight of people experiencing poverty, demonstrating his concern and desire to help others, which is fundamental to his character. (Kumala & Rohmah, 2021) (Asykin et al., 2021) (Wardana et al., 2019) (Santosa, 2017)

It can be observed that Swallow uses expressive acts of gratitude and admiration toward the Happy Prince to emphasize the near companionship of their relationship. The Swallow shifts its character from a selfish being to one who has a sense of selflessness. In closing, the analyses of the illocutionary speech acts of "The Happy Prince" present a unique perspective into the author's themes, characterization, and resulting messages. The study analyzes the different illocutionary speech acts between the characters to gain perspective far beyond the story's complexity and the author's intent. (Akmal et al., 2020) (Santosa, 2017) (Asykin et al., 2021) (Kumala & Rohmah, 2021)

This research paper is a way of supporting the big field of pragmatics especially the theory in the speech act in the way characters in the story use different speech acts. In comparison to the studies by Mubarak et al. (2021) that investigate directive speech acts in school slogans or Suryanti & Afriana (2020) that focuses on identifying and categorizing the speech acts with reference to the movie "Cinderella", the present study moves from the perspective of the more prominence to a literary text. It offers a fresh look at the use of speech acts when the conversation is not face-to-face and written instead. In addition, like Sakti (2022) who analyzed "Onward" for the different speech act, this paper also identifies various types of the speech act, not limited to film, slogans, and even folk literature. Therefore, the study continues previous research with an emphasis on a new medium to add to the body of literary analysis and pragmatics.

5.1 Recommendations

Upcoming researchers can analyze the illocutionary acts in relation to the story's symbolism, themes, and historical context to determine their role in the work's overall theme, "The Happy Prince."

The researchers can investigate how these illocutionary acts shed light on the characters, their goals, relations, and changes during the story. For instance, how does Swallow's speech evolve as the character becomes more loyal to the Prince?

Researchers can examine how social criticism can be established through illocutionary acts in Wilde's works. They should pay attention to the expressions of the dominant classes and the oppressed classes.

Assessing the illocutionary acts presented in “The Happy Prince” about other Oscar Wilde’s works or other fairy tale literature would be helpful. This may bring certain stylistic elements and everyday themes to the fore.

Such inquiry looks to understand how illocutionary acts of the particular work may act on readers or spark their feelings. What is being asked is more about the sustainability and relevancy of the story to its readers in the present times.

6. Conclusion

The present research is in line with the prior studies concerning the illocutionary speech act analysis of literary texts. Representative and directive illocutionary acts dominate in “The Happy Prince” due to an orientation on the problem of social injustice and altruism with the help of language, as well as the expressiveness of the significant characters’ relationships (Akmal et al., 2020) (Santosa, 2017) (Asykin et al., 2021) (Kumala & Rohmah, 2021)

Some of the representative acts depict the aspect of holding richness in the city, while other acts of the play are directive and show the kind aspect of the Happy Prince in sharing his wealth. Whereas narrative acts occur more regularly, stylistically expressed acts are less frequent, nevertheless, they are much more indicative of the affective connection shared between the two characters. Solving the research questions, the overall conclusion of the study will be that the choices of illocutionary acts used by Wilde are strategic, and these can help build the narrative, paint themes, and even contribute to the development of characters. Identifying the illocutionary speech acts in “The Happy Prince,” this paper has demonstrated how Wilde engaged in language to guide the text, enforce themes and narrate protagonists’ traits.

People must understand how distinctive expression patterns serve as the vehicles of diverse instructive expectations if they are to become good communicators in the long term. To accurately explain the expression, a communicator must consider the following:

1. The linguistic resources required to assign syntactically and semantically related structure to the articulation
2. The sophisticated and genuine device that handles the assigned meaning of mental states
3. A system of social concepts, including social status and expertise
4. A system of higher-level representations that determine how linguistic structures are appropriately used in specific contexts

Short stories might be pragmatically studied like other forms of theatrical and novel writing. The appropriate use of speaking acts is erratic, and the chosen narrative needs to be represented by a notable pattern. It does not have any significant pattern. So, despite the stylistic differences between novels and short stories, narrative/story discourse fits itself well into speech act analysis. According to the findings of this research, if readers know how illocutionary speech acts are used in the short story, they can quickly come to accurate interpretations of the text by relating it with context.

References

- Akmal, S., Fitriah, F., & Zafirah, H. (2020). Illocutionary acts in religious discourse: The pragmatics of Nouman Ali Khan's speeches. *Langkawi: Journal of the Association for Arabic and English*, 6(2), 130-142.
- Asykin, B. A. P., Suyadi, S., & Silfia, E. (2021). An Analysis of Illocutionary Act in "Ratatouille" A Movie by Brad Brid. *JELT: Journal of English Language Teaching*, 5(2), 175-179.
- Austin, J. L. (1962). *How to do things with words*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Basri, I. (2020, August). Speech act of Pasambahan Mananti Marapulai at the wedding reception. In *1st Progress in Social Science, Humanities and Education Research Symposium (PSSHERS 2019)* (pp. 59-61). Atlantis Press.
- Bates, E. (1976). *Language and context*. New York: Academic Press.
- Brown, G. & Yule, G. (1983). *Discourse analysis*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Cook, G. (1992). *Discourse*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Della, L., & Sembiring, R. (2018). Directive speech acts in "Sleeping Beauty" movie script. *Journal of Language Studies*, 7(3), 102-110.
- Dixon, J. and Massay (1969). *Introduction to statistical analysis*. New Delhi: Mc Graw – Hill.
- Eckersely, C.E. (1959). *Brighter English: A book of short stories, plays, poems and essays*. London: Longman.
- Green, C. M. (1975). How to get people to do things with words: The whimperative question. In *Speech acts* (pp. 107-141). Brill.
- Leech and Short. (1981). *Styles in fiction: a linguistic introduction to English fictional prose*. London: Longman.
- Leech, G (1983). *Principles of pragmatics*. London: Longman.
- Leech, G., & Thomas, J. (1985). Pragmatics: The state of the art. *Lancaster. University: Lancaster Papers in Linguistics*.
- Mubarok, H., Rahman, F., & Putra, A. (2021). Directive illocutionary acts in school slogans at MTS Negeri 3 Tangerang. *Journal of Language and Education Research*, 5(1), 45-55.
- Kissine, M. (2016). *Non-Assertion speech acts*. Oxford University Press.
- Kumala, Z. E. I., & Rohmah, Z. (2021). Directive acts in Onward film by Dan Scanlon. *CALL*, 3(2).
- Sakti, F. (2022). Speech act analysis of the main character in the movie "Onward": A pragmatic approach. *Journal of Pragmatics*, 12(1), 12-21.

- Santoso, R. B. (2017). An Analysis of Illocutionary Speech Acts in the Book: “Paparaton: Legenda Ken Arok dan Ken Dedes”. *Kawalu: Journal of Local Culture*, 4(1), 1-22.
- Sintamutiani, A., Ramadhani, S., & Fadilah, N. (2019). Analyzing speech acts in the movie Beauty and the Beast. *Journal of Pragmatic Language Research*, 6(2), 90-100.
- Suryanti, N., & Afriana, L. (2020). An analysis of directive speech acts in the movie “Cinderella”. *International Journal of Applied Linguistics and English Literature*, 9(2), 25-31.
- Wardana, M. K., Roy, S., & Ariska, J. (2019). Illocutionary acts in President Rodrigo Duterte’s speech. *International Journal of Cultural and Art Studies*, 3(1), 40-46.
- Wu, H. (2020, December). The Writing Art of Wilde’s Fairy Tales: the Reshaping of Love and Kindness Under the Cloak of Aestheticism. In *7th International Conference on Education, Language, Art and Inter-cultural Communication (ICELAIC 2020)* (pp. 289-292). Atlantis Press.

Citation of this paper

Nawaz, M. (2024). Speech Act Analysis of Oscar Wilde’s ‘The Happy Prince’. *Erevna: Journal of Linguistics and Literature*, 8(1), 57-72.

Language Domain Comparison: Formal and Informal Usage among Seraiki and Urdu Speakers

Shafaq Shakil

Quaid-i-Azam University, Islamabad

Afroz Ilyas

Air University, Islamabad

Humera Faraz

Air University, Islamabad

Key Words

- Endangerment
- vitality
- Domain Analysis
- Informal domains
- Formal domains

Abstract

CD Existing Communicative Domains are very crucial indicators of language vitality and endangerment ((Brenzinger, et al, 2003). This particular theoretical framework is linked to the multilingual context and selection of an appropriate language in this regard, 'who speaks what language to whom, when, where and even why?' (Fishman, 1971). The aim of the present study is to compare existing communicative domains of Seraiki and Urdu and also to investigate the language domain choices of native Seraiki speakers against the language domain choices of Urdu L2 speakers. This comparative study has been based on Fishman's model (1971). The tool for the study was a domain analysis checklist, which was a four-point likert scale for determining a variety of choices and linguistic behaviour of informants in the case of an indigenous language (L1) and a (L2) dominant language. This study demonstrates that the context impacts upon preferences of domains. The locale of the study was Quaid i Azam University, Islamabad. The total sample size was N=110. A purposive sampling technique was used in the present study, ages of the participants ranged from 18 to 28 years. Both males and female were included in the study. Results of the independent sample t-test revealed that there was a non-significant difference between Urdu informal and Seraiki informal domains but there was a significant difference between Urdu and Seraiki formal domains. Urdu is a language of the formal domain (employment, administration, education, transaction and government) as compared to Seraiki with trends towards an informal domain (family, friendship and neighbourhood).

1. Introduction

Language use across formal and informal domains varies significantly, particularly for speakers navigating between their first language (L1) and a second language (L2). In multilingual societies like Pakistan, individuals often switch between languages depending on social context, with distinctions evident in formal and informal speech. Native Seraiki speakers, for instance, tend to use their mother tongue in informal settings, while Urdu, the national language commonly learned as an L2, is often reserved for formal domains. Research suggests that such code-switching and domain-specific language use can reflect varying degrees of linguistic competence and adaptation to social norms (Fishman, 1972; Holmes, 2001).

Formal language is typically characterized by structured syntax, a wider vocabulary, and adherence to grammatical norms, often used in professional, educational, and governmental settings (Trudgill, 2000). In contrast, informal speech tends to be more colloquial, featuring contractions, slang, and context-specific phrases, often shaped by personal relationships and familiarity (Holmes, 2001). For Seraiki speakers learning Urdu, the contrast between these two domains highlights key sociolinguistic factors such as language prestige, identity, and communicative function (Gumperz, 1982). This study seeks to explore how these speakers navigate formal and informal language domains, identifying patterns in their L2 Urdu usage and contrasting it with their L1 Seraiki.

Language is not only a tool for forming interactions and identities (Geertz 1973; Toft 2003; Fenton 2003) but also a means for establishing a power matrix in a multilingual context. It shows the power differentials and ideological deliberations of such context (Bourdieu 1986; Fairclough 1989; Philipson 1992; Joseph 2006; Rahman 1996; Rahman 1999 and Khan 2009). Domain study is an attempt to differentiate between frequently constructed, exaggerated and inflated preoccupations of a dominant language variety as against understated and apparently stable indigenous languages and their respective roles and status in a multilingual context. As we understand a dominant language represents the exploitation of major capital resources of a dominant group to construct, maintain and replicate the power dynamics of a group thus marginalizing lesser privileged languages. According to Mesthrie and his colleagues (2009, 265-270), this dominance is part of the dangling coexistence of majority languages and dominated native, aboriginal and indigenous languages throughout the world. This study is an endeavour to understand the status and roles of two different languages in the Pakistani multilingual context by comparing language choices of the functional domain of Urdu and Seraiki Language.

Language vitality and endangerment of indigenous languages have been major concerns of the different researches: Dorian 1982; Kruass 1992; Adebija 1994; Pandharipande.1992; Crystal 1997; Skutnabb-Kangas 2000; Nettle and Romaine 2000; Bhatt et al 2002; Derhemi 2002; Brenzinger, 2003 et al; and Weinreich 2010; Most of the literature on the Indigenous languages worldwide indicates an impending threat of language loss to the most of the languages. Most of the languages of the world are expected to be lost by the next century (Krauss 1992, Crystal 1997; Romaine 2002; Krauss 1992; McConvell 2001). The Indigenous languages, particularly, in a multilingual context suffer as they have a less or marginal functional load, as these languages have few or no functions in public (Pandharipande 2002, 213) and Domains of power (Rahman 1996, 8-9) such as education, media, transaction, economy, legislation, government and administration. These languages and their speakers are marginalized as they are restricted to a few limited domains

(Derhemi, 2007, 150) such as family, neighbourhood and friendship. The functional domains are essential indicators of vitality and endangerment. The other seven important indexes are the number of speakers, the mean age of the speakers, intergenerational transmission, the attitude of the native speakers and neighbouring speech communities, policies of the government, the official status and role of a language in multilingual context and resources available for literacy and education and documentation. The theoretic frameworks to gauge the vitality and endangerment provide not only a general picture of a language but also offer possibilities for revitalization. (Fishman 1991) (Brenzinger et al 2003) and (Lewis and Simons 2010). Language vitality and endangerment have been generally measured on the scales. The sustenance and deficiency are measured to varying degrees. Its highest level on this scale starts from sustained developed and institutionalized languages (EGIDS 0-4) to an extinct and dead language (EGIDS 10). Different coloured dots on these scale EGIDS point out the varying degrees of vitality and endangerment on the level scale. Functional domains have been a major area of sociolinguistic studies throughout the world: Fishman 1971, 1977, 1992; Pandharipande 2002; Hallberg 2003; O'leary 2003; Hohenthal 2003; Ravindranath 2009; Lothers 2010; Rehman 2010; Dyud and Radoff 2011.

1.1. Research Objectives

- To examine the linguistic variations between informal and formal speech in Urdu as a second language (L2) among native Seraiki speakers.
- To compare the use of linguistic structures and patterns in formal versus informal contexts among L1 Seraiki speakers when using Urdu as their L2.

1.2. Research Questions

- i. How do native Seraiki speakers differ in their use of linguistic features when speaking Urdu in informal versus formal contexts?
- ii. What linguistic structures and patterns are most commonly employed by L1 Seraiki speakers in formal and informal domains of Urdu as an L2?

1.3. Significance of the study

This study holds significant value for both linguistic theory and practical applications in multilingual contexts, particularly in Pakistan, where language plays a crucial role in social identity and communication. By comparing the formal and informal domains of language use among L1 Seraiki speakers and L2 Urdu speakers, this research provides insights into how bilingual individuals navigate different linguistic environments. Firstly, the findings will contribute to sociolinguistic theory, particularly in the areas of domain analysis and code-switching. Understanding how Seraiki speakers adjust their linguistic choices depending on the context will enrich current models of language variation and shift, particularly in regions where multiple languages coexist (Fishman, 1972; Gumperz, 1982). Additionally, it will deepen our understanding of the relationship between language prestige, identity, and social function, helping to explain how linguistic hierarchies influence language use in formal versus informal settings.

Secondly, this research has practical significance for language education and policy-making in Pakistan. By highlighting the differences in language use across formal and informal domains, educators can better tailor their teaching strategies to meet the needs of

bilingual or multilingual students, particularly those learning Urdu as an L2. Furthermore, this study can inform language planners and policymakers by providing empirical data on language preference, promoting strategies to support linguistic diversity and proficiency in both Seraiki and Urdu. This is especially relevant in formal educational and governmental contexts, where mastering both languages is essential for social mobility and communication.

1.4. Rationale of the study

The status of Indigenous languages has been a serious point of deliberation as various linguists have worked on depleting languages (Krauss, 1992; Mackey, 1991; Moseley 1994; Wurm, 1996). Languages can be brought back to a viable state and there are many such instances like a revival of Hebrew in Israel (Fellman 1973), French in Quebec, and Catalan in Spain (Fishman 1991) these languages have been revitalized and set examples for language planners in the rest of the world. This has shown that after language planning on these languages, their domains were extended which has boosted the self-esteem of the language community and created an environment of cultural pluralism and minimized cultural assimilation. Domain Analysis has different items testing informal and formal domains of Urdu and Seraiki. The scale is 4 point Likert scale which computed the choices of L1 Seraiki and L2 Urdu speakers. This scale has already been used in a similar study (Anjum 2007). Using Bourdieu's framework (1986) formal domains are related to social power and informal domains are related to power deficit.

2. Literature Review

A domain choice is a consequence of the institutionalization of a variety of language functions which makes interlocutors choose one of the available choices habitually. The domain can be described in the institutional context of harmoniously concurrent linguistic behaviour (Fishman 1971, 586). Domains provide the basic undercurrent in the nature of language contact (Weinreichian 1968). Domains are closely related to choices operated in a multilingual context when a speaker knows "who speaks what language to whom and when and why". Domain analysis presupposes a community's choices and norms of language function. Fishman suggests that one language is more appropriate in some explicit milieu than another. Domain study has a direct implication on the maintenance or loss of languages in a community on linguistic distinction and variability, policy-making, language planning, and the coexistence, viability, loss and of different languages in a society (Fishman 1972). Domains generate an option for us to recognize language alternatives and themes in the context of socio-cultural norms and expectations. The domain can be recognized variously: intuitively, theoretically or empirically. They may possibly be characterised by the background of socio-psychological and societal-institutional levels. Socio-psychologically domains may be defined as intimate, informal, formal and inter-group domains (Fasold 1984, 183) Fishman defines a list of five domains which include family, friendship, religion, employment and education.

There are countries in the world where English is spoken as a native language, and it also performs various other functions, on the other hand in countries, where English is a second language or a foreign language, it is limited to the informal domains only, which are defined as the domains of administration, law education, media, and a few types of

literature, while the other functions of language are fixed for the mother tongue (Görlach 1991, 29). Indigenous languages are used: for traditional life, regional activities, within the community, in domestic and private affairs, inside the family, in intimate and close circles, for solidarity within a group, and for prayers; on the other hand dominant language and the formal domains represent modern life, national unity, outside family life, formal life, power and authority and secure approach (Tsoumada, 2006, p, 59).

A study has been conducted to investigate the usage of English in different domains of Indian informants. This study probed into formal and informal domains, such as family, friendship, neighbourhood, transactions, education, government and employment domain. The results of the study suggested that English has dominated the formal domains in India; however, the informal domains mother tongue and Hindi are prevalent (Hohenthal 2003).

The Hungarian language is also investigated in the context of Oberwart, Austria which is encircled by German-speaking villages. In this region, German and Hungarian are used in different domains. Hungarian is a language of informal domains here. It is the language of group solidarity and is related to past, agrarian backgrounds and minority populations. It is targeted by the majority of German monolinguals. On the other hand, German is the language of power and prestige. It is identified by upward social and financial mobility (Tsunoda 2006, 59)

Ensuring permanence in the intergenerational transmission of a language is a vital element for its maintenance and future viability. However, it is very difficult to plan informal social domains. The formal domains: home, family and neighbourhood are considered as the centre of mother tongue transmission and are not easily reachable to social planners. The oral interaction between grandparents, parents and children is essential to the maintenance of a language. The family is a basic unit for such transmission and most importantly it provides a deep bond with development of language and language activities. It shares and shapes personal, social, cultural and linguistic identity (Fishman 1991, 67)

Without transmission of mother tongue maintenance and protection of a language is unattainable. Many of the speakers of the indigenous or an indigenous language decide to give up their language and not pass on their linguistic heritage to the next generations. As they consider it more advantageous to speak only a mainstream language and not the indigenous language. It is because of the high prestige of the mainstream language that parents tend to look down upon the indigenous language. Such attitudes can have serious consequences for the destiny of a language. Lack of family language progression is a prime and direct reason for language shift. In the described scenario, an indigenous language may diminish within two or three generations. Bilingual education might create language speakers who may find everyday interactions in that language. However various language planners have been cautioning against putting too much reliance on the native language in relation to media, schools, and government. The Policies given in the Native American Language Act of 1990 in relation to native languages are helpless. The media and radio stations may create a congenial environment for Indigenous languages, but they are no substitute for rudimentary efforts focused on the use of the mother tongue in homes (Fishman 1991, 67).

It is the native speakers of a language who suffer when their language is lost. Languages are the carriers of varied human experiences, and the loss of even one of these deprives us all. In America, Africa, Australia, and Southeast Asia the gravest language decay has

occurred among indigenous communities. This is a very serious problem. For these languages, there are no language reinforcements. If a language vanishes, it certainly cannot be regained as a mother tongue for the speakers of Indigenous and lesser acknowledged Languages (McCarty, 2006).

2.1. The Present Study

Pakistan is a multilingual and multiethnic society (Rahman 2006, 73). Ethnologue (2006) has described Urdu as one of the 72 living languages spoken in Pakistan. It is the national language of Pakistan. According to Ethnologue (Lewis 2009) 11 million people speak it as a mother tongue which is 7.57 of the total population in Pakistan. However, it is L2 of 104,000,000 (1999) Pakistanis. Ethnologue (Lewis 2009) characterized it as a fully developed language. On EGIDS (see Appendix B) it is shown as purple, which is designated as Institutional. It lies on a scale from 1-4, which indicates Urdu as a highly vital and developed language. On the other hand, Seraiki is spoken by 15,795,000 people as a native language in Pakistan, which is 10.53 per cent of the total population. Ethnologue shows Seraiki on EGIDS 5. This is also represented in blue colour. This indicates it as developing language; however, its standardized form is not 'widespread and sustainable'. The Literacy rate among the native speakers of this language is below 1 per cent. This shows that it is not used in power domains, particularly in education. Although it has a standardized orthography and bodies of rich literature, but majority of its native speakers are not literate in this language (Lewis et al, 2013).

Language planning is 'to change an already developed code, whether in the name of efficiency, aesthetics, or national or political identity' (Rahman 1989, 154). According to Rahman Urdu enjoyed this official patronage and symbol of Muslim identity even before independence in British India (2006, 74). In the 19th century, Urdu became a symbol of Muslim identity. Although linguists see Hindi and Urdu as one language the ideological considerations of the two different choices of politically driven orthographies, lexicon cultural allusion termed them as two distinct languages (Rai, 1984). As these highly politicized languages have been used in the domains of power, such as judiciary, administration, offices education and media. LP efforts have been made on the level of government and individuals such as language activists, the institution of poetry besides official language planning. In Pakistan State-sponsored language planning and language policy was imposed upon the federating units. In the early years of independence, Urdu was made the national language and English was stated as an official language leaving all other indigenous languages aside on the grounds of national integrity and modernization (Rahman, 2011).

Table 1

Languages of Pakistan

Language	Percentage of Speakers	Number of Speakers
Punjabi	44.15	66,225,000
Pashto	15.42	23,130,000
Sindhi	14.10	21,150,000
Seraiki	10.53	15,795,000
Urdu	7.57	11,355,000
Balochi	3.57	5,355,000
Others	4.66	6,990,000

Source: Census 2001 (Rahman 2004)

Urdu is one of the dominant languages of our society as compared to the indigenous languages which are predominately the languages of the informal domain, especially of the family domain. It is important to enlarge the domains of indigenous languages. It is proved that efficient language policy and legislation may increase the domains of a language, as it can be used in early education, local and district government and district administration. This would help in the empowerment of the local population but it would also safeguard local cultures and languages. Urdu is the national language that has been a beneficiary of extensive status and corpus planning that has curtailed the domains of other language and exposed them to language shift and attrition (Rahman, 1999 261-290). Literature on dying demonstrates that all these languages were not employed in government and education (Nettle and Romaine 2000, ix)

The present study highlights the importance of language sustenance and vitality in a language situation where the ecological survival of indigenous languages is threatened by predator languages. Moreover, there is no awareness of the protection of such precious and valuable cultural and linguistic heritage in Pakistan. Linguistic History of Pakistan features volatile language movements since its inception. Proto elites of different regions have been voicing not only dissatisfaction with the maintenance of the status- quo against the dominant Punjabi establishment but also claimed their share of the resources of the country under the pretext of ethnic and linguistic identity (Rahman, 1999 224-234). Bangladesh was also a manifestation of severe linguistic conflict (Alam, 1991, 469). Literature on Seraiki (Rasoolpuri 1976; Shackle 1977, 1978, 1979; Rahman 1999) gives a comprehensive account of the ethnic and cultural movements of Seraiki's proto elite for giving it an official status. The present study shows its negotiated uses and emerging linguistic realities, as this language is not used in the power domains. It is considered to be the language of informal interactions only. Although this particular speech community has been one of the most ethnocentric speech communities in the country (Rahman 1999, 230).

The present study has been drawn upon Hohenthal's (2003) domains and included both formal and informal domains of language usage in multilingual backgrounds. This study investigated domains, such as family, friendship, neighbourhood, transactions, education, government and employment domain. It was assumed that Indigenous languages are languages of informal domains on the other hand dominant language, Urdu which is a lingua franca functioned in formal and informal domains.

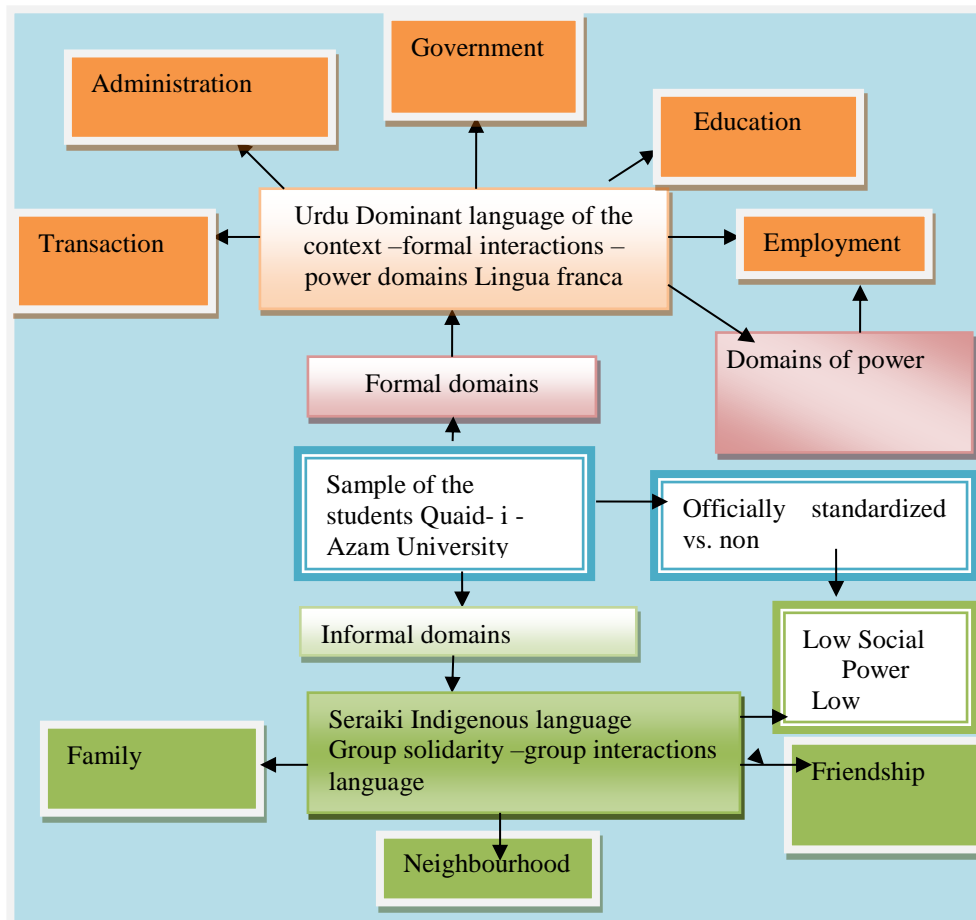


Figure 1: Conceptual framework of the study

3. Research Methodology

3.1. Research Tool

The primary instrument used in the study is a four-point scale attitude measuring checklist, designed to assess participants' attitudes towards language use across formal and informal domains. The checklist includes items that require respondents to rate their agreement or disagreement with various statements about their use and perceptions of Urdu (L2) and Seraiki (L1) in different settings. The responses are scored on a four-point Likert scale,

where 1 represents strong disagreement and 4 represents strong agreement. This scoring system allows for a clear distinction between positive and negative attitudes toward language use. Responses are analyzed quantitatively to compute overall attitude scores. A higher score (closer to 4) indicates a more positive attitude toward using a particular language in a specific domain, while lower scores suggest a negative attitude. This tool helps to measure the participants' perceptions of the appropriateness and comfort of using Seraiki or Urdu in formal versus informal contexts.

3.2. Operational Definition of the Variables

In this study, the main variable under investigation is the attitude toward language use in different domains—formal and informal. These domains were measured using the scores obtained from the checklist mentioned earlier. The checklist items reflect participants' language preferences, fluency, and comfort in both formal and informal settings when using Seraiki or Urdu. Each domain is evaluated by calculating the mean score for the responses. A mean score between 1 and 2 indicates a negative attitude toward using the language in that domain (i.e., discomfort or inappropriateness in using the language), while mean scores between 3 and 4 suggest a positive attitude, indicating participants feel the language is appropriate and comfortable to use in that domain. This operational definition allows for a clear and measurable way to assess language attitudes across different contexts.

3.3. Sample of the Study

The sample for this study consists of 120 participants, all of whom are native Seraiki (L1) speakers who use Urdu as their second language (L2). The participants were selected using a purposive sampling technique, ensuring that the individuals selected met specific criteria relevant to the research objectives. The sample includes participants from Quaid-i-Azam University, Islamabad, and spans three levels of education: graduate, post-graduate, and PhD students. The age range of the participants is between 18 and 28 years, providing a young adult demographic that is likely to have consistent exposure to both formal academic and informal social contexts in which both Seraiki and Urdu are used. The study also ensures gender representation, with a near-equal distribution of 52 male and 58 female participants. This balanced representation enhances the generalizability of the study's findings across different gender experiences in language use.

4. Data Analysis

After data collection data was tabulated and analysed using statistical computer software SPSS version 18. For this Independent sample t test was done.

Table 2

t statistics of informal and formal domains of Siriaki and Urdu language

	Urdu		Siraiki		t(88)	p	CI 95%		Cohen's d
	M	SD	M	SD			UL	LL	
Informal	8.73	.276	9.85	.350	1.83	.07	-2.2	-2.32	n.a
Formal	13.13	.27	6.00	.27	18.3	.000	6.35	7.91	3.90

UL = upper limit LL= lower level

Table 2 reveals that Seraki is non-significantly higher on informal domains as compare to Urdu; on the other hand Urdu is significantly higher on formal domain. Mean Values show 9.55 that Seraiki is higher on informal domains. Cohen's d does not computed on informal domain because of non-significant result. Cohen's d reveal the difference between two groups, for example, values from .1 to .3 indicate fair difference between the two groups. Values from .4 to .5 indicate moderate difference between the two groups. Values from .6 to above indicate high difference between the two groups. The mean value of informal Urdu domain is 8.73 and the mean value of Seraiki informal domains is 9.85 these values are very close and the t value indicates the mean value difference, p indicates significant level. CL is the class interval and class boundaries.

4.1. Descriptive statistics of main study and pilot study

Table 3

Mean and standard error mean of different formal & informal domains of Urdu LI speakers.

Groups	Mean	Std. Error Mean
Family	1.00	.000
Friendship	2.10	.069
Neighbourhood	1.90	.143
Transaction	2.20	.156
Education	3.00	.192
Government	3.15	.209
Employment	3.25	.190

The detailed analysis of the domains showed that Urdu is higher on formal domains. The results show that there is a significant difference between informal and formal domains of Urdu. Employment is the highest in all formal domains of Urdu 3.25 and transitions is the lowest domain of Urdu 2.20. Friendship is the highest in all informal domains of Urdu 2.10, next is neighborhood 1.90 and family is the lowest informal domain of Urdu 1.00.

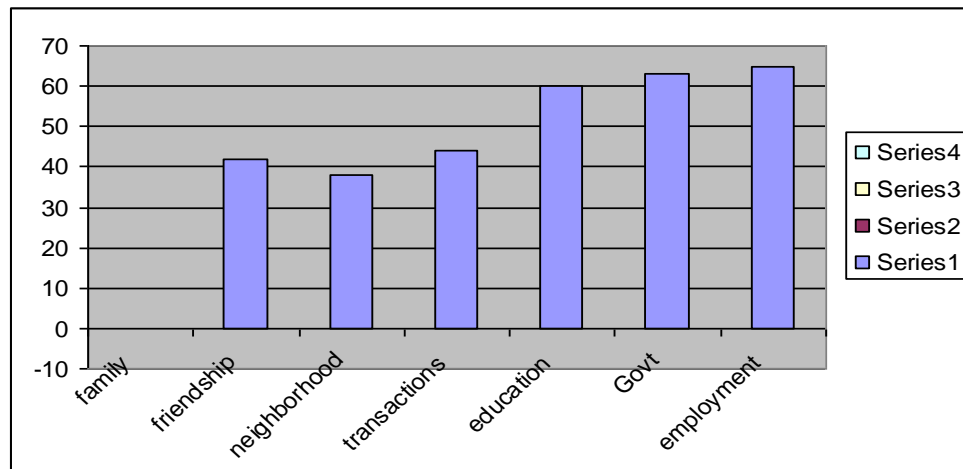


Figure 2: shows that Urdu is higher on informal domains which make it a language of power domains.

Table 4

Mean and standard error mean of different formal & informal domains of Seraiki language

Groups	Mean	Std. Error Mean
Family	3.60	.184
Friendship	2.60	.169
Neighbourhood	3.35	.233
Transaction	2.25	.239
Education	1.35	.167
Government	1.20	.138
Employment	1.20	.138

The detailed analysis of the domains showed that Seraiki is higher on informal domains. The results show that there is a significant difference between informal and formal domains of Urdu. Family is the highest in all informal domains of Seraiki 3.60 and transitions is the lowest domain of Urdu 2.20. Friendship is the highest in all informal domains of Urdu 2.10, next is neighborhood 1.90 and government and employment are the lowest formal domain of Siraki 1.20.

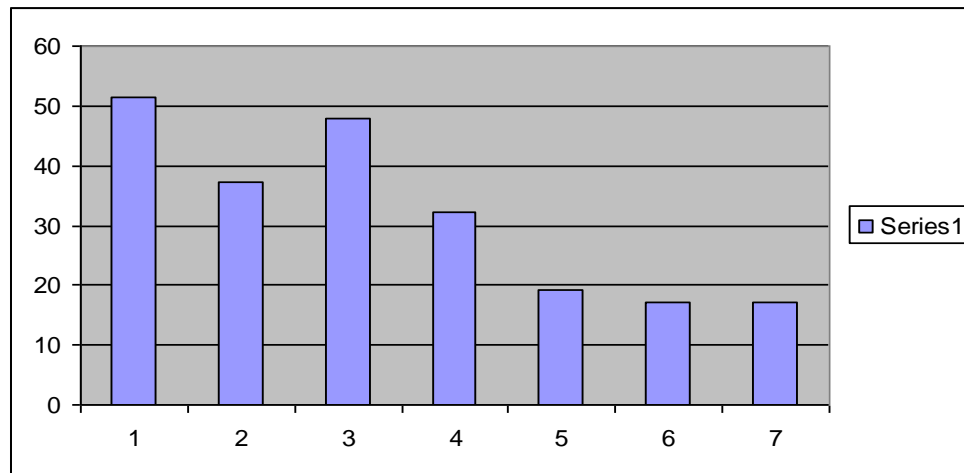


Figure 3: Siraki domains

The figure shows that Siraki is higher on informal domains which makes it more of a language of on group interactions.

5. Discussion and Conclusion

The present study aims to study the domain analysis of L2 Urdu and LI Seraiki languages. The mean value of Urdu informal domains (8.73) and the mean value of Seraiki (9.85) are non-significantly different. The results of Table 2 do not support our first hypothesis fully, as the mean values of Urdu informal domains (8.73) are not significantly different from the mean value informal domain (9.85) of Seraiki informal domains. If we increase the sample the mean value may become significantly different, however, this is also consistent with the fact that Urdu is the language of wider communication, as only in Pakistan it has L2 speakers 104,000,000. It is also consistent with the EGIDS graph (Lewis 2013) (See **Appendix C**) showing it on the first four levels of vitality. This shows that Urdu is expanding its domains and infringing upon the domains of indigenous languages. It is essential to provide the appropriate safeguards such as legislation, bilingual education, and expansion of language domains and above all it is required to have a strong will of the society to materialize the idea of empowering local cultures (Fishman 1991). In this regard, MNA Marvi Memon presented a bill in the National Assembly proposing to amend Article 251 of the Constitution. The main aim was to give official status to the other six regional languages: Balochi, Punjabi, Pashto, Sindhi, Shina and Seraiki. This bill was rejected on the basis of its being so-called anti-Pakistan (Wasim, 2011). Results of the study and mean differences as mentioned in Table 2 supported the second hypothesis as it shows that

Urdu is significantly higher in formal domains (13.13) as compared to Seraiki (13.13). It is also validated and confirmed by Dyrud and Radloff (2011) as in their sample Urdu was also higher in formal domains. Fishman (1971) has stressed the importance of mother tongue literacy in bilingual education in the case of indigenous languages. A recent and significant development in this regard is the Regional Languages Authority Bill, 2011 in the province of KPK. According to this bill regional languages are introduced as a medium of instruction at schools (Khan 2013).

Findings of the study also present similar results and show that employment has the highest mean value ($M=3.25$) which confirms that Urdu is a dominant language as it is used in the power domain (Table 3). Results are consistent with Hohenthal (2003). This trend shows that Urdu is the language of power domains and Seraiki is the language of domains with power (political) deficit and is used for group interactions. The most important factor in this regard is that the sample of the study consisted of Seraiki L1 speakers and Urdu L2 speakers.

The present research has also identified that Seraiki is higher in informal domains (Table 4). The mean values $M=9.55$ indicate that it is the preferred language of the group interactions, however, the next table which presents the detailed results indicates that it is significantly low in formal domains which shows the power deficit of the said language. Thus in light of these results, our second hypothesis is also validated.

The interesting part of the study is indicated in the results shows a comparison between the domains of these languages. Although the sample of Urdu consisted of L2 speakers as compared to the sample Seraiki L1 speakers Urdu is improving in some of the formal domains as the results of Table 5 show that in the friendship domain, the mean values are 2.10 which is fairly closer to the friendship domain of Siraki 2.60. This shows increasing the infringement of this dominant language. According to Ethnologue (Grimes 2000) Urdu is the L2 of almost 105 million people and approximately 11 million people speak it as a mother tongue. On the other hand, Seraiki is the language of almost 10.53 per cent of the people. Urdu is the lingua Franca of the country and is a beneficiary of substantial institutional support as compared to Seraiki (Rahman 1999:238-293) so the results are validated on the basis of the data analysed and the literature available. It is important to note that the location of the present study is Quaid i Azam University where students from all the regions of Pakistan are admitted on a quota system as per the policy of regional representation assured in 16 amendment of clause(1) of Article 27 of the constitution. The special feature of this university is the regional councils for the promotion of regional cultures and the Seraiki council, in this regard, is one of the most active cultural iconic representations of the distinct Seraiki linguistic and cultural identity. Moreover, the time period, in which this particular study has been undertaken, is also very crucial in the political history of Pakistan as the prime minister of the country Yousaf Raza Gilani was from Multan, which is considered the centre of Seraiki language and culture. The demand of Seraiki province was the most highlighted part of his political speeches (Jafri, 2012). Despite all these factors, our data show Seraiki as a language of informal domains. The result is also consistent with the EGIDS scale (Lewis 2013) (**See Appendix C**) where Seraiki is a scale of 5 which indicates its lower status because it is not included in the powerful formal domains.

5.1. Limitations and Recommendations

The present study has certain limitations for which some recommendations have been offered:

1. The sample of the study is small, for a more inclusive sample size has to be enlarged for or valid conclusion.
2. Present study is based upon the data collected from an educational institution which may not be representing the real phenomenon fully
3. It is recommended to include all the groups in this regard
4. The current research tested only two hypotheses this area has room to be further explored.
5. It can be done with mixed method to overcome the limitations of both quantitative and qualitative paradigms of research.

References

- Adegbija, E. (1994). English and indigenous languages in Kwara State (Nigeria): The bottom-line attitudinal factors.
- Bell, A. (1998). The discourse structure of news stories. *Approaches to media discourse*, 64-104.
- Alam, S. S. (1991). Language as political articulation: East Bengal in 1952. *Journal of Contemporary Asia*, 21(4), 469-487.
- Anjum, U., Aqeel, M., Rauf, N. K., & Rehman, K. A. (2013). Depleting Cultural Heritage: A Study of Pothwari Family Domain and Intergenerational Transmission. *Journal of Asian Civilizations*, 36(2), 127-139.
- Baker, C. (1988). *Key issues in bilingualism and bilingual education* (Vol. 35). Multilingual matters.
- Brenzinger, M., Yamamoto, A., Aikawa, N., Koundioubu, D., Minasyan, A., Dwyer, A., & Zepeda, O. (2003). Language vitality and endangerment. *Paris: UNESCO Intangible Cultural Unit, Safeguarding Endangered Languages*.
- Cooper, R. L. (1989). Language planning and social change. *Cambridge University Press*.
- Crystal, D. (2003). *English as a global language*. Cambridge university press.
- Dorian, N. C. (1982). Language loss and maintenance in language contact situations. *The loss of language skills*, 44-59.
- Dyru, L. O., & Radloff, C. F. (2011). *A Sociolinguistic Survey of Punjab, Pakistan*. National Institute of Pakistan Studies, Quaid-i Azam University.
- Fairclough, N. (1989). Language and power. London: Longman Group.
- Fellman, J. (1973). *The revival of a classical tongue: Eliezer Ben Yehuda and the Modern Hebrew language* (No. 6). Walter de Gruyter.
- Fishman, J. A. (1991). *Reversing language shift: Theoretical and empirical foundations of assistance to threatened languages* (Vol. 76). Multilingual matters.
- Fishman, J. (1972). The sociology of language: An interdisciplinary social science approach to language in society.
- FISHMAN, J. (1977). In *The Spread of English: The Sociology of English as an Additional Language*.
- Geertz, C. (1973). The Interpretation of cultures, New York: Basic Books pg.259-260.
- Görlach, M. (1991). *Englishes: Studies in varieties of English around the world. 1984-1988*. Amsterdam/Philadelphia: John Benjamin's publishing Company.
- Grimes, B. F. (2000). *Pakistan in ethnologue: Languages of the world*. Dallas, Texas: Summer Institute of Linguistics.
- Gumperz, J. (1982). *Discourse strategies*. Cambridge UP.
- Holmes, J., & Wilson, N. (2022). *An introduction to sociolinguistics*. Routledge.

- Joseph, J. E. (2006). *Language and politics*. Edinburgh University Press.
- Khan, M. S. (2009). The politics of identity: Ethno-political identity in local political structure with emphasis on the role of ethnic groups. *Pakistan Journal of History and Culture*, 30(2), 147-168.
- Krauss, M. (1992). The world's languages in crisis. *Language*, 68(1), 4-10.
- Krauss, M. (1995). Language loss in Alaska, the United States, and the world. In *Alaska Humanities Forum* (Vol. 6, No. 1, pp. 2-5).
- Mackey, W. F. (1991). Language diversity, language policy and the sovereign state. *History of European Ideas*, 13(1-2), 51-61.
- McConvell, P., & Thieberger, N. (2001). *State of indigenous languages in Australia-2001*. Canberra: Department of the Environment and Heritage.
- Mesthrie, R. (2009). *Introducing sociolinguistics*. Edinburgh University Press.
- Mufwene, S. (2002). Colonisation, globalisation, and the future of languages in the twenty-first century. *International Journal on Multicultural Societies*, 4(2), 162-193.
- Nettle, D. (2000). *Vanishing voices: The extinction of the world's languages*. Oxford University Press.
- Pandharipande, R. (1992). Language shift in India: Issues and implications. *Maintenance and loss of minority languages*, 1, 253.
- Pandharipande, R. (2002). Minority matters: issues in minority languages in India. *International Journal on Multicultural Societies*, 4(2), 213-234.
- Paulston, C. B. (1994). Linguistic minorities in multilingual settings.
- Phillipson, R. (1992). *Linguistic imperialism*. Oxford University Press.
- Rahman, T. (1999). *Language, education and culture*. Karachi: Oxford University Press.
- Rahman, T. (1996). *Language and politics in Pakistan*. Oxford University Press.
- Rai, A. (1984). A house divided: The origin and development of Hindi/Hindavi. (*No Title*).
- Ravindranath, M. (2009). Language shift and the speech community: Sociolinguistic change in a Garifuna community in Belize. *Publicly accessible Penn Dissertations*, 33.
- Rehman, K. (2011). Language shift in the Neelam Valley: A case study of the Kundal Shahi language. *Unpublished doctoral dissertation*. Quaid-i-Azam University, Islamabad.
- Sasse, H. J. (1990). *Theory of language death*. Institut für Sprachwissenschaft, Universität zu Köln.
- Sasse, H. J. (1990). *Theory of language death*. Institut für Sprachwissenschaft, Universität zu Köln.
- Shackle, C. (2023). Rival linguistic identities in Pakistan Punjab. In *Rule, Protest, Identity* (pp. 213-234). Routledge.

- Skutnabb-Kangas, T. (2013). *Linguistic genocide in education--or worldwide diversity and human rights?* Routledge.
- Toft, M. D. (2010). *The geography of ethnic violence: Identity, interests, and the indivisibility of territory*. Princeton University Press.
- Trudgill, P. (2000). *Sociolinguistics: An introduction to language and society*. Penguin UK.
- Tsunoda, T. (2006). *Language endangerment and language revitalization: An introduction*. De Gruyter Mouton.
- Weinreich, M. (2010). Language Shift in Northern Pakistan: The Case of Domaakí and Pashto. *Iran and the Caucasus*, 14(1), 43-56.

Appendix – A

Questionnaire.

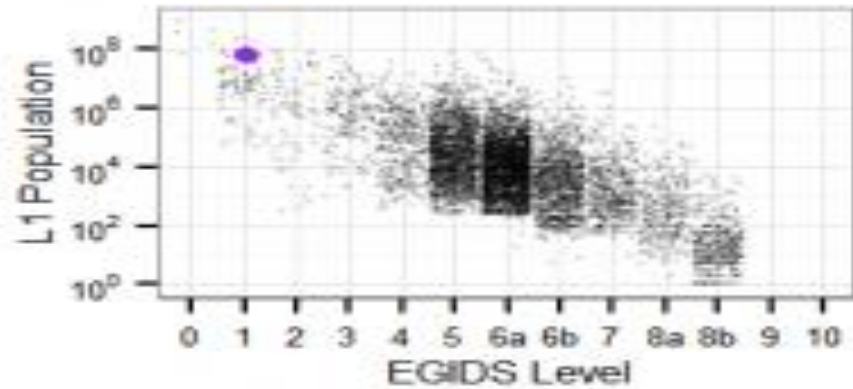
The present research is related to Urdu and Seraiki language. The data collection in this regard will be a part of an academic study only. Thank you very much for your cooperation.

- What is your mother tongue?
- Name
- Your age:
- Gender: Male
- Female
- Area where you Live: City/ village
- Your native village or town
- Occupation
- Highest Qualification (level of education
- List all the other languages you can communicate (speak, read, and write) in
- Where do you speak Potohari Please tick the appropriate number from 1 to 4.
- Domain 1. Never 2. Sometimes 3. Often 4. Always

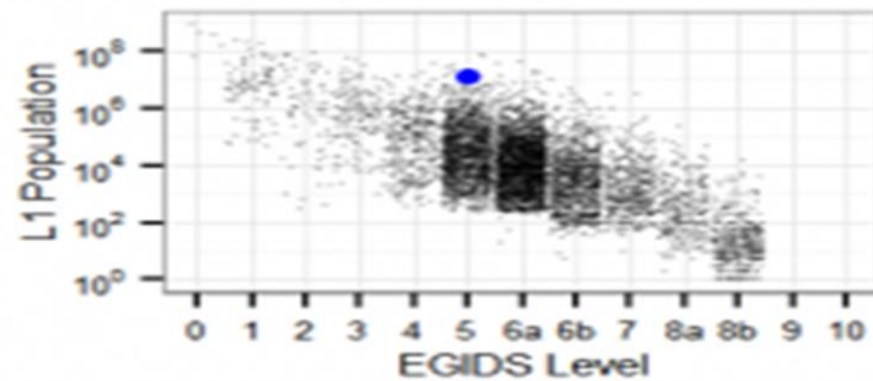
Please tick the appropriate number from 1 to 4

Domain	1. Never	2. Sometimes	3. Often	4. Always
Family				
Friendship				
Neighbourhood				
Transactions				
Education				
Government				
Employment				

Appendix-B



Appendix-C



Citation of this paper

Shakeel, S., Ilyas, A. & Faraz, H. (2024). Language Domain Comparison: Formal and Informal Usage among Seraiki and Urdu Speakers. *Erevna: Journal of Linguistics and Literature*, 8(1), 73-91.

Erevna

Journal of Linguistics and Literature

Published by

**Department of English
Faculty of Social Sciences
Air University, Islamabad**

Tel: (+92-51) 9153606

Fax: (+92-51) 9260458

Web: www.au.edu.pk

Portal: <https://portals.au.edu.pk/erevna>

Margalla Road, Sector E-9, Islamabad.