Chapter-1

Introduction

1. The Assamese Language

Assamese, an Indo-Aryan language spoken majorly in the Northeastern state of Assam, also acts as the lingua franca for the majority of the area. Assamese is the official language of the state of Assam and one of the 22 official languages recognized by the Republic of India.

According to the latest Census Report, currently the total number of speaker of Assamese stands at 1,53,28,240. Major areas where the language is extensively use includes the state of Assam, Arunachal Pradesh's Lohit and Changlang, Meghalaya's west Garo Hills, Nagaland's Dimapur, Kohima, Mokokchung, Wokha and Zunheboto, West Bengal's Jalpaiguri and Koch Bihar.

Some of the typological features of Assamese includes:

The language follows an SOV word order; however, the word order is flexible because of the use of overt case markers, as seen in the examples below:

1. *rame bʰat kʰale*

   rame   bʰat   kʰa-l-e

   Ram-ERG   rice   eat-PERF-3

   '*Ram has eaten rice.*'

2. *bʰat kʰale rame*

   rice   kʰa-l-e   ram-e

   bʰat   eat-PERF-3   Ram-ERG

   '*It is rice that Ram has eaten.*'

3. *kʰale   rame bʰat*

   kʰa-l-e Ram-e   *bʰat*

   eat-PERF-3   Ram-ERG   rice

   '*Ram has eaten rice.*'

The examples above show that the word order can be changed without a change in the core meaning of the sentence. However, such deviations from the SOV tend to shift the focus. For instance, in (1), the focus is on the subject 'Ram' acting on the object 'bʰat'; in (2), the focus is on the object; while in (3), the focus is rather on the action.

The noun occurs after the major grammatical categories:

4. *tar kitap* (possessive pronoun)
   '*his book*'

5. *beya lora* (adjective)
   '*bad boy*'

There are seven case markers in the language (see section 1.2).

Phonologically, the language consists of eight vowels, twenty-three consonants, and 14 diphthongs (see, e.g., Patgiri (2022). The voiceless velar fricative /x/, as in /*dax*/ (servant), is one of the unique features of the language. The language lacks Retroflex sounds. CCVVC is the maximum size of a syllable. Aspirated consonants are found in labial (/pʰ/, /bʰ/), alveolar (/tʰ/,dʰ) and velar (/Kʰ/, /gʰ/).

Morphological characteristic includes both agglutinating and inflectional features. Derivation is one of the major word formation processes. Nouns are overtly marked for classifiers, case and gender, gender distinction is also found in 3rd person pronouns. The language also consists of bare nouns (see Borah 2008). The language also has distinction in pronouns based on honorificity, which is also co-indexed with the verbal agreement. The occurrence of classifiers is an unique feature, which is due to its close contact with the neighbouring T-B languages, which is usually uncommon in I-A languages (see Borah ibid). The verb is overtly marked for tense, aspect and mood and subject-verb agreement.

1.1. Literature review

Although the linguistic study of the Assamese language is of recent origin, its literary tradition can be traced back to 14th-16th centuries where the language attainted its literary peak under Madhab Kandali and Sankardeva. The linguistic study of Assamese only started during the British era. The initiative was taken by William Robinson's (1838) work

entitled 'A Grammar of the Assamese Language', which was then followed by Nathan Brown's work entailed 'Grammatical Notes on [the] Assamese Language' (1848). Further the first Assamese-English dictionary was compiled by M. Bronson in 1867. The publication of 'Orunodoi' (1846), whose initiative was taken by Dr. Nathan Brown, started a new era in the Assamese literary tradition.

Anandaram Dhekial Phukan published 'A few remarks on [the] Assamese language' (1855), which led to the independent status of the Assamese language, which was then thought to similar to the Bangla language. Later, various linguistics works by indigenous Assamese authors have started to emerge. The first Assamese dictionary 'Hemkox' (1900) was compiled by Hem Chandra Barua. Within the same period various descriptive works on the Assamese grammar emerged, some of which are as follows

'Assamese Grammar and [the] Origin of the Assamese Language' (1988) by Kaliram Medhi. The work presented an historical development and account of the present Assamese language, its origin and evolution over the years. The work also accounts the influence and elements of Sanskrit traces in Assamese. This encompasses the phonology, orthography, morphology and syntax. Etymological information of different grammatical categories has been addressed.

'Assamese: Its Formation and Development' (1941) by B.K. Kakati is still regarded as the first scientific study and one of most recognized works on the Assamese language. It presents a comprehensive description of the Assamese grammar, through its origin and developments through ages. The description includes all the major branches of linguistics, i.e., from phonological to syntactical description of the language.

While B. Kakati's work was diachronic in nature, 'Structure of Assamese' (1982) by G.C. Goswami presents a synchronic study of the language. From a structuralist point of view, the work devotes a few pages describing the kernel sentences, its parts and the word order of the language.

In 'The Verb Phrase in Assamese: A Constituent Structure Analysis' (1990), an unpublished PhD thesis by Dr. Narnarayan Sarma, gives a brief account of the sentence structure of Assamese from a traditional linguistic point of view. He further looks into the sub-categorization properties of different verbs.

'A Contrastive Study of Assamese and Hindi verbs' (1991) by Satyendra Narayan Goswami, provides a comparative account on the verbal system of the Assamese and the Hindi language. Primarily the work is based on a structuralist point of view.

'Structures of Assamese and Garo: A Comparative Study' (1995) by Anjana Choudhury, looks into the verbs in the two languages with their morphological and syntactical properties.

The 'Assamese Verb' (2022), by Runima Chowdhary, deals with a descriptive account of the verbal construction and its associated grammatical categories from a structuralist point of view. The book deals with the tense and aspect system, complex predicates, causatives and a few syntactic analysis of interrogative and passive constructions.

'Verbs of Motion in Assamese: Predicates, Case Alternations and Causativization' (2024), an unpublished PhD thesis, by Diksha Konwar, deals with the motion verbs, agency, volitionality, control and assignment of different case markers in Assamese. She also points out the fact that Assamese has 'split-intransitivity'.

1.2. Some major works in the core case system in Assamese

From a Cognitive Linguistics point of view, no recorded work has been done, nor has Construction Grammar. However, the basic grammatical descriptions cited above have certain research gaps that can be addressed from the perspective of Construction Grammar. As the thesis aims to investigate the syntax of the Assamese language, hence the case markers need to be addressed.

In 'Assamese: Its Formation and Development' by B.K. Kakati claims that Assamese is basically nominative-accusative, and the subject marker '-e' is the nominative marker. The work claims that in the passive construction '-e' is the instrumental marker which 'might have influenced the habitual use of -e with subjects of transitive verbs (Kakati, 1941:286). Further, he points out that with the intransitive verb the '-e' is dropped. However, no semantic analysis has been provided for this phenomenon.

In the 'Structure of Assamese' by G.C. Goswami states that there are seven types of case markers in Assamese as follows:

Sl no.	Case	markers	Occurrence
i.	Absolutive	∅	Both in Subject (intransitive) and Objects
ii.	Nominative	e,i	Transitive subjects and some intransitive subjects
iii.	Accusative	k/ok	Direct objects of transitive and indirect objects of ditransitive
iv.	Dative	loi/oloi	Destination (goal)
v.	Genitive	r/or	Ownership, ablative with 'r/or+pora'
xi.	Locative	t/ot	at, in on, upon
xii.	Instrumental	re/ere, di/edi, dwara	Instruments

Table 1.1. Case markers in Assamese in G.C Goswami (1982)

In 'The Verb Phrase in Assamese: A Constituent Structure Analysis' by Dr. Narnarayan Sarma also claims that the language has a nominative-accusative alignment.

In most of the earlier works, the case alignment of the Assamese language is shown to be nominative-accusative alignment. However, in a paper titled 'A Case Distinction between Unaccusative and Unergative Subjects in Assamese' by Amritavalli and Sarma (2002) claims that Assamese has a "mixed" case system, which has ergative, an aboslutive and an accusative case. She thus, claims that the '-e' marker is linked to agentivity, and thus, it is not the nominative case. The paper also shows the differential subject marking in case of intransitive verbs.

Another paper by Saha and Patgiri titled 'Ergativity in Axomiya' (2013) claims that Assamese has a split-ergative case alignment, which is seen in the case of pronouns. The paper claims that only in the second person and third person plural the case is ergative, otherwise the pronoun takes the (unmarked) nominative case:

Pronouns	Singular	Plural
First person	NOM-ACC	NOM-ACC
Second person	NOM-ACC	ERG-ABS
Third person	NOM-ACC	ERG-ABS

Table. 1.2. Case marking in pronouns in Saha and Patgiri (2013)

Bhattacharjya (2014) also claims Assamese has a split-ergative system, with the accusative marked object based on animacy or specific semantic significance. Barbora (2016) claims Assamese has limited split-ergativity

Further, in 'Assamese Case Alignment Shifts in Progress' by Saikia and Camilleri (2019) holds the same view about split-ergativity in Assamese. Further, they establishes the split-intransitivity in Assamese.

'Case and Case-ending of the Bengali and Assamese Language: A Contrastive Study' (2021) by Abdul Mozid Sheikh compares the case system of Bengali and Assamese, where he claims that the subject in both the languages is marked by the nominative case. The '-k', he terms it as 'objective case'.

Chowdhary (2022) also glosses the '-e' as the NOM and the '-k' as ACC, thus claiming the language to follow the NOM-ACC alignment system.

Konwar (2024) claims that the '-e' marker is not an ergative case marker but rather 'agentive case marker', hence glosses the marker as 'A' (agentive). Her claim is based on the phenomena of split-intransitivity, where the subjects are marked based on the instigation or initiation of the action involved. She cites examples like 'the wind whistled', 'the clouds roared' in Assamese where the subjects are marked by the '-e'.

> 'The /ɛ/ marker occurring with the transitive verbs and some of intransitive verbs is, in fact, the agentive case in Assamese and hence, Assamese can be aligned into NOM-ACC patterning of languages and it also exhibits split intransitivity'
>
> Konwar (2024:208)

She too holds the same view as Saikia and Camilleri (2019) about split-intransitivity.

1.3. Research gaps

Majority of the research claims that Assamese is a NOM-ACC language, while some suggest that the language is a split-ergative language. While the '-k' is often cited as the accusative marker.

The thesis claims that Assamese is an ergative language, not split-ergative and the '-k' is not an accusative case, but rather an instance of Differential Object Marking, or object marker.

Linguists differentiate languages based on the core case marking pattern of the subject and the object. The basic reason for marking the subject and the object is to solve the problem of 'who did what to whom'.

> "The speaker has to solve both of these problems at once, of course: identify who did what to whom in the event, and choose which participant(s) will be construed as most salient." (Croft: 2022, 173)

Semantically, humans are typically viewed as 'agents' and (physical) objects as 'themes'. This distinction is based on the fact that how events are conceptualized. An event involving two participants (such as an agent acting on a theme) is considered a transitive event. In syntactic terms, this event is encoded with a 'subject' (the agent) and an 'object' (the theme).

When a human agent interacts with a non-human theme, language often employs the most basic distinguishing features to clarify 'who does what to whom'. This encoding strategy is not limited to transitive events; it extends to mark single-participant events as well. Thus, even for events involving only one participant, language tends to use the same grammatical strategy as it does for transitive events.

This results in two major alignment systems observed across languages of the world: Nominative-Accusative and Ergative-Absolutive alignments. These systems categorize how languages grammatically mark subjects and objects, based on whether they treat the subjects of intransitive verbs similarly to subjects of transitive verbs (Nominative-Accusative) or similarly to objects of transitive verbs (Ergative-Absolutive).

In summary, human language tends to use a consistent approach to encode events, focusing on the distinction between agents and themes, which influences the two major grammatical alignment systems observed across different languages.
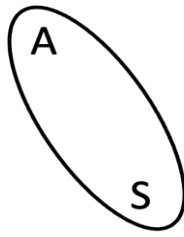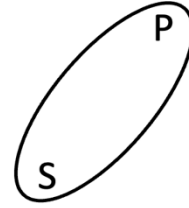
Fig. 1.1 (a) NOM-ACC   (b) ERG-ABS

The figure 1.1 (a) represents the nominative-accusative alignment system where the subject of the transitive (A) is encoded similarly as the single of the intransitive (S). Whereas figure 1.1 (b) represents the ergative-absolutive alignment system where the patient of the transitive (P) and the single of the intransitive (S) is encoded similarly.

Before citing the examples, a point is to be noted that different types of verbs may reflect different encoding strategies for instance, in Assamese:

6. *john*[S] *moril*
    john   mor-il
    John die-PERF
    'John has died.'

7. *johne*[S] *nasise*
    john-e   nas-is-e
    John-ERG   dance-ING.PROG-3
    'John is dancing.'

8. *johne*[A] *bag^htu*[P] *marile*
    john-e bag^h-tu   mar-il-e
    John-ERG   tiger-CLF   kill-PERF-3
    'John has killed the tiger.'

9. *johne*[A] *maryk*[P] *marile*
    john-e mary-k   mar-il-e
    John-ERG   Mary-OBJ   kill-PEF-3
    'John has killed Mary.'

10. *johne[A] kitapkʰon[T] sitak[R] dile*
    john-e   kitap-kʰon   sita-k   di-l-e
    John-ERG   book-CLF   Sita-OBJ   give-PERF-3
    'John gave Sita a book.'

In (6), the subject lacks overt marking, while in (7)-(10), the subject is marked for the ergative '-e'. The object, 'Mary' is marked in (9), while the object 'bagʰ' is unmarked (8). Further, the problem arises when we look into the ditransitive construction, if we consider the object in (9), i.e. 'Mary' as the basic criterion to define the object in Assamese then the recipient [R], i.e. 'Sita' in (10) would be the direct object, based on the '-k' marking. On the other hand, if we consider the object in (8), i.e. 'bagʰ' as the basic criterion to define the object in Assamese, then the theme [T], i.e. 'kitap' in (10) would be the direct object. Hence, a uniform way to test the encoding strategies is required. Hence, Hespelmath (2011, 2015) argues that a single event type is required to define such concepts and for crosslinguistic analysis. Thus, Hespelmath proposes 'die' for the single participant event, the verb 'break' for two participant event[1], and the present work would take 'give' for three participant event, in the analysis.

Thus, to demonstrate the two major alignment systems the thesis takes the Bangla language for the NOM-ACC system and the Assamese language for the ERG-ABS system.

11. *john[S] [mara geche]*
    john   mar-a   ge-ch-e
    John   die-NF   go-PST-3
    'John died.'

12. *john[A] bottleta[P] bhangche*
    john   bottle-ta   bhang-ch-e
    John   bottle-CLF   break-PST-3
    'John has broken the bottle.'

13. *john[A] maryke[P] marlo*
    john   mary-ke   mar-l-o
    John   mary-ACC   kill-PERF-3
    'John has killed Mary.'

---

[1] Prototypical transitive event consists of a human agent and inanimate theme.

Example (11) is the intransitive construction with a single subject 'S'; (12) and (13) are two Bangla transitive sentences with subject 'A' and an object 'P'. The 'S' and 'A' both are unmarked. Hence are encoded similarly, thus nominate-accusative alignment. The object marker 'ke' in (13) is glossed here as accusative (ACC). When both the agent and the theme (patient) is animate, as in (13), either of the one has to be marked to differentiate 'who does what to whom', i.e who is the agent and who is the patient. In Bangla, subjects are typically unmarked, hence nominative subjects, but in the case of human objects, it is required to be differentiated from the agent. Hence the human objects are marked by the accusative '-ke'.

In the case of inanimate object, i.e. 'bottle', as in (12), is left unmarked. Typically, when a human entity is the subject, it is quite obvious that he is the agent; the inanimate object is the patient. Hence, there is no requirement to mark the object or the subject to denote 'who does what to whom'. Hence, both the subject and the object are left unmarked.

However, in Assamese, the subject of transitive are always marked and typical objects are unmarked. Consider the examples below:

14. *john*[S] *morile*

    john   mor-il-e

    John   die-PERF-3

    '*John has died.*'

15. *johne*[A] *bottletu*[P] *bʰangile*

    john-e   bottle-tu   bʰang-il-e

    John   -ERG   bottle-CLF   break-PST-3

    '*John has broken the bottle.*'

16. *johne*[A] *maryk*[P] *marile*

    john-e   mary-k   mar-il-e

    John-ERG   mary-OBJ   kill-PERF-3

    ' *John has killed Mary.*'

Example (14) is an intransitive sentence in Assamese, where the S is marked differently from the A, in the transitive (15) and (16). In other words, the S of the intransitive and the

P of the transitive are encoded similarly, i.e. left unmarked. Thus, Assamese is an ergative-absolutive language. The '-k' in example (16) is not glossed as accusative, in contrast to Bangla. This is because, in Assamese the subject is already marked by a core case marker, hence marking the object with another core case does not seem to be necessary. However, there are languages like Korean and Japanese, where both the subject and the object are marked by core case markers. However, this does not apply to Assamese.

The analysis provided above is thus a furtherance of the observation made in Borah (2011), the 'k' in Assamese is not an accusative case marker; it serves rather as an animacy hierarchy and psychological distance as is clear from his examples in (17) and (18) below. On the other hand, the Subject in Assamese is marked (by '-e') so that he claims Assamese to be an ergative-absolutive case system with only split intransitivity (as is clear from (17) and (18) below), not an accusative-nominative system as has usually been shown in the existing literature.

17. *johne kukurtu marile*

    john-e　　　　kukur-tu　　　mar-il-e

    John-ERG　　　dog-CLF　　　beat-PERF-3

    '*John has killed the dog.*'

18. *johne kukurtuk marile*

    john-e　kukur-tu-k　　mar-il-e

    John-ERG　　　dog-CLF-OBJ　beat-PERF-3

    '*John has beaten the dog.*'

In (17) above, the direct object 'kukur' (dog) is unmarked for '-k'; on the other hand, the same object is marked by '-k' in (18). Thus, (17) and (18) are different in meaning as is shown in Borah (ibid). While the dog is killed in (17), it is beaten in (18) as a pet, i.e. an animal that is treated like a member of the family. In other words, the dog as a pet in (18) is higher in the animacy hierarchy compared to the dog in (17) which is not a pet, or not treated like a pet. Again, killing a man and beating a man does not reflect the same psychological distance so the same object is marked by '-k' in (19) and is left unmarked in (20) as is shown in Borah (ibid).

19. *johne manuhtuk marile*

   john-e   manhu-tu-k   mar-il-e

   John-ERG   man-CLF-OBJ   beat-PERF-3

   '*John has beaten the man.*'

20. *johne manuhtu marile*

   john-e   manuh-tu   mar-il-e

   John-ERG   man-CLF   beat-PERF-3

   '*John has killed the man.*'

Apart from the role of animacy, the '-k' also denotes specificity as pointed out by Saikia (2022). Consider her examples below.

21. *nitue surtu dʰorile*

   nitu-e   sur-tu   dʰor-il-e

   Nitu-ERG   thief-CLF   hold-PST-3

   '*Nitu caught the thief.*'   (Saikia, 2022:29)

22. *pulise surtuk dʰorile*

   pulis-e   sur-tu-k   dʰor-il-e

   police-ERG   thief-CLF-ACC   hold-PST-3

   '*Police caught the thief.*'   (Saikia, 2022:29)

According to her, (21) denotes an unspecific object, which is definite by being suffixed by a classifier, i.e. '-tu'. On the other hand, the same object, under being suffixed by '-k', is both specific and definite in (22). However, she glosses the marker as accusative.

Consider my examples, (23) and (24), below:

23. *johne bialoi bohut manuh matise*

   john-e   bia-loi   bohut   manhu   mat-is-e

   John-ERG   marriage-DAT   many   people   call-ING.PROG-3

   '*John has called many people for the marraige.*'

24. *johne bialoi bohut manhuok matise*

john-e	bia-loi	bohut	manhu-ok	mat-is-e
John-ERG	marriage-DAT	many	people-OBJ	call-ING.PROG-3

'*John has called many people for the marraige.*'

The example in (23) denotes a 'mass', which is not definite, hence unmarked for the classifier nor is it specific, hence unmarked for '-k'. However, in example (24), the object is indefinite but specific because of the presence of the object marker '-k'.

As stated above, the role of the core case marker is to differentiate between the agent and the patient. Being the core case marker it focuses on a salient participant of an event. If the '-k' is considered to be an instance of the accusative case, then it should not have been marked alongside an oblique case as in:

25. *johnor ramokloi sinta hoise*

john-or	ram-ok-loi	sinta	ho-is-e
John-GEN	ram-OBJ-DAT	worry	happen-ING.PROG.3

'*John is worried about Ram.*'

26. *johnor kotʰatuloi sinta hoise*

john-or	kotʰa-tu-loi	sinta	ho-is-e
John-GEN	fact-CLF-DAT	worry	happen-ING.PROG.3

'*John is worried about the fact.*'

Examples (24) and (26) belong to the class of transitive non-canonical construction (see section 4.3). The non-canonical (oblique) object 'Ram' is marked by the '-k' because of specificity and animacy, alongside the dative case '-loi'. Whereas the non-animate oblique object 'kotʰa' is not marked by the '-k'. This clearly shows that '-k' is not a core case, hence marking it as accusative would not be appropriate. Hence, the present work claims it is an instance of DOM, and can be glossed as OBJ (object) marker. Further, a similar case is also seen in Hindi, where the objects are marked based on animacy and specificity. Hence,

"The label 'accusative' has been applied because *ko* frequently appears with a nominal in the position of direct object. The incidence of *ko* with direct objects is 'optional' in the sense that it depends on inherent semantic properties of the object noun itself, and is not tied, as an obligatory case marker, to the syntactic slot. Thus, in this position, *ko* marks or reflects non-relational information about the nominal itself, and is not a case marker. In this sense, 'accusative' is a misnomer."

(Magier,1987:192)

Further, comparatively recent research claims that Assamese is a split-ergative language, which is based on the differential subject marking in the case of pronouns. That is, only in the case of second-person plural and third-person plural subjects are marked with the ergative marker, while in other case it is unmarked. Thus, it is claimed that unmarked pronouns are an instance of NOM-ACC, as in the examples below:

27. *moi/ami/tumi/xi/tai sokikʰon bʰangilu/a/e*

    moi/ami/tumi/xi/tai   soki-kʰon   bʰang-il-u/-a/-e

    I/we/you/he/she   chair-CLF   break-PERF-1/-2/-3

    '*I /we/you/he/she has broken the chair.*'

28. *tumaluke/xihote/rame sokikʰon bʰangila/e*

    tuma-luk-e/xihot-e/ram-e   soki-kʰon   bʰang-il-a/-e

    you(pl)-ASSO.PL-ERG/they- ERG/ram- ERG   chair-CLF   break-PERF-2/-3

    'You/they/ ram have/has broken the chair.'

The subjects of example (27) are instances of pronouns which are unmarked for the ergative case, while in example (28), the subjects are marked for the ergative case. This is actually a case of animacy hierarchy, where the first person and second person is ranked higher than the third person and proper nouns. Dixon (1994:85) introduces the Nominal Hierarchy, which states:

"Most discourse, in any language, is oriented to the people involved in the speech act -preeminently to the speaker, then to the addressee, then to other specific people, referred to by demonstratives or third person pronouns, or by proper names,

or just by common nouns with human reference. Put very roughly, a speaker will think in terms of doing things to other people to a much greater extent than in terms of things being done to him. In the speaker's view of the world, as it impinges on him and as he describes it in his language, he will be the quintessential agent".

Thus, the first person and the second person are ranked higher across languages, than the third person, and the third person is ranked higher than other NPs. Along this line Dixon (1994:85) provides the nominal hierarchy:
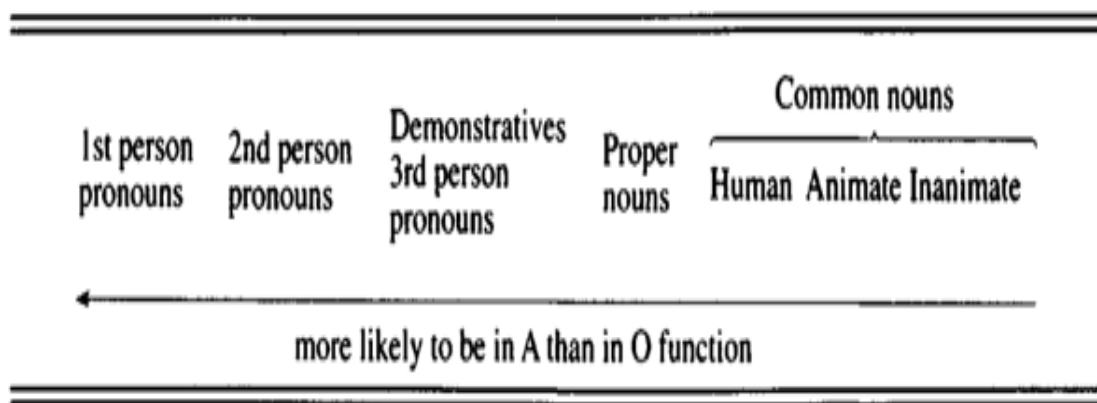

Fig. 1.2. The nominal hierarchy in Dixon (1994:85)

Thus, the unmarked ergative pronouns in the language are based on the principle of economy, as these are inherently agentive, hence marking them would be a case of redundancy. Further, the pronouns almost always refer to humans, which are again inherently agentive.

However, another point to be noted is that in Assamese, the second person and third person plural are marked for ergative (see Saha and Patgiri, 2013). This is due to the fact of specificity. The singular entities are always more specific than plural. Specific entities are more easily accessible to the speaker and hearer and hence are unmarked, while this is not the case for plural entities. Thus, in Assamese, the grammatical marking on the subject and the object is based on the role of animacy and specificity of the referents involved.

Turning to tense and aspect in Assamese, in most descriptions of Assamese, *-il* has been designated as the past tense marker. But this is not true, as accurately pointed out by Borah (2010). In the work, it is shown that *-isil* is the past tense, while *-il* is the perfect marker.

The current work is in line with Borah's (2010) claim. Consider the following examples:

29. *xihat parahi ahisil. alop agatei gol*

xihat	*parahi*	*ah-isil.*	*alop*	*agetei*	*go-l*
they	*day before*	*come-Past.*	*little*	*just*	*leave-Perf*

'They came yesterday and have just left.'   (Borah, 2011)

The example above demonstrates the distinct functions of these morphemes in Assamese.

The second chapter will discuss the theoretical framework that has been adopted in the thesis, i.e., the Construction Grammar theory. The Third chapter deals with the family of Intransitive constructions in Assamese. The Fourth chapter deals with the family of Transitive constructions and the Fifth chapter deals with all the constructions that have been dealt with in the previous chapters and their relation with different event schemas. The thesis concludes with the major research findings in the concluding sixth chapter.