

## Literary Dimensions of Cross-Linguistic Documentation: A Morphosyntactic Study of Rangri and English

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### Abstract

This research investigates the literary dimensions of cross-linguistic documentation through a morphosyntactic study of Rangri and English. While Rangri remains an under-documented language, its oral literature and folk narratives offer a rich field for linguistic and stylistic exploration. By comparing the morphosyntactic structures of Rangri with those of English, this study highlights how grammar and syntax shape literary expression, narrative strategies, and stylistic creativity. The analysis draws upon oral and written texts from both traditions, emphasizing how linguistic features such as word order, tense, aspect, and agreement contribute to aesthetic choices and cultural representation. Through integrating language documentation with literary analysis, the study aims to bridge the gap between descriptive linguistics and literary stylistics, providing a framework for understanding how structural linguistic features contribute to the formation of literary voices. The findings are expected to enhance scholarship in comparative literature, stylistics, and sociolinguistics while foregrounding the importance of documenting minority languages like Rangri in global literary discourse.

**Keywords:** Literary Dimensions, Morphosyntax, Cross-Linguistic Documentation, Rangri Language, English, Oral Literature, Folk Narratives, Comparative Stylistics, Language and Literature

### Background Study

Viewed through the lens of inflectional morphology, Rangri occupies a liminal space at the interface of Urdu and Punjabi. Its nominal system patterns with Punjabi in two salient respects: the strategies used to form plurals in the oblique case and the morphological devices that yield pejorative or disparaging derivations. Conversely, in the vocative domain, Rangri follows Urdu in the way plural vocatives are formed. Put succinctly, Rangri presents a composite morphosystem, combining Punjabi-like rules for oblique pluralization with Urdu-like treatment of vocatives, while simultaneously exhibiting shared properties with both languages. Rangri (also rendered as Ranghri) is classified as a dialectal variety within Haryanvi [1], and is used by Ranghar Muhajirs throughout Pakistan's Punjab province with smaller, dispersed communities in Sindh [2]. While the variety was historically spoken in Haryana, India, its present-day use is largely restricted to Pakistan [3]. Key centers of usage include Lahore, Sheikhpura, Bhakkar, Bahawalnagar, Khanpur, Okara, Layyah, Vehari, Sahiwal, Phularwan, and Multan, alongside Mirpur Khas and Nawabshah. This study, however, adopts the label Rangri for several interrelated reasons. First, it is the emic designation most commonly

preferred by the community of speakers themselves, a community to which the researcher also belongs. Second, because the majority of its speakers identify as Muslim Rajput Rangars (Madan, 1995; Sohdarvi, 2014), the term Rangri explicitly indexes their Rangar identity. Third, the mass migration of Muslim Rajputs to Pakistan during the Partition of the Subcontinent carried both the Rangri language and Rangar identity across the border; in Pakistan, despite genealogical ties to Haryanvi and cognate varieties such as Khari Boli, the language has maintained a distinct profile and is not confused with these related lects. This sociolinguistic ecology is embedded in broader Pakistani power relations that condition language maintenance, language shift, and patterns of public visibility, rendering the documentation of Rangri particularly urgent (Bhatti, 2024c). Rangri is the label applied to the language spoken by the Muslim Rajput Rangar community that migrated from the Indian state of Haryana. Consequently, it has often been assumed to be simply the Haryanvi language. The present investigation, however, endorses the designation Rangri because it captures the Rangar identity and the social dynamics bound up with it. Opting for the convenient umbrella term Haryanvi would risk erasing identity-specific concerns and perpetuating the stigmatizing, derogatory associations attached to the language and its speakers. Rangri's historical anchoring is in India. As it is spoken by populations that relocated from Haryana in 1947, it is widely regarded as a direct offshoot of Haryanvi. Khan (1987) further posited that Urdu may have developed from Haryanvi, a perspective that situates Rangri within the broader North Indian Indo-Aryan continuum and underscores its relevance for discussions of regional language history and contact.



Figure 1.3 The place of Rangri in the Language Rankings

According to Bauer (2003), morphology is the linguistic subfield that investigates the internal composition of words, detailing how smaller meaningful elements combine to yield complex lexical forms and how such configurations underpin the systematic architecture of the lexicon. Blevins (2014) argues that inquiry into word structure is inherently theory-dependent, with distinct models prioritizing different dimensions such as paradigmatic organization, inflectional regularities, or word-formation mechanisms according to their underlying theoretical commitments. Nida (1949) indicates that morphological analysis can proceed along two complementary paths: it may either focus on identifying morphemes and mapping their combinatory arrangements into words, or it may examine word forms as they vary across contexts of use and grammatical constructions.

Rangri	
रंगरी	
<b>Native to</b>	India
<b>Language family</b>	Indo-European <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Indo-Iranian <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Indo-Aryan <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Western <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Rangri</li></ul></li></ul></li></ul></li></ul>
Language codes	
<b>ISO 639-3</b>	—
<b>Glottolog</b>	<div>rang1263 <a href="#">↗</a> Rangri</div> <div>rang1262 <a href="#">↗</a> Rangari</div>

Figure 1.4 The place of Rangri in the Language Rankings

According to Chomsky and Halle, the interface between syntax and phonology is realized through a system of post-syntactic mapping rules that take the surface-structure representations produced by the syntactic component and transform them into phonologically interpretable formats, thereby supplying the phonological component with the appropriately structured input on which its operations proceed.

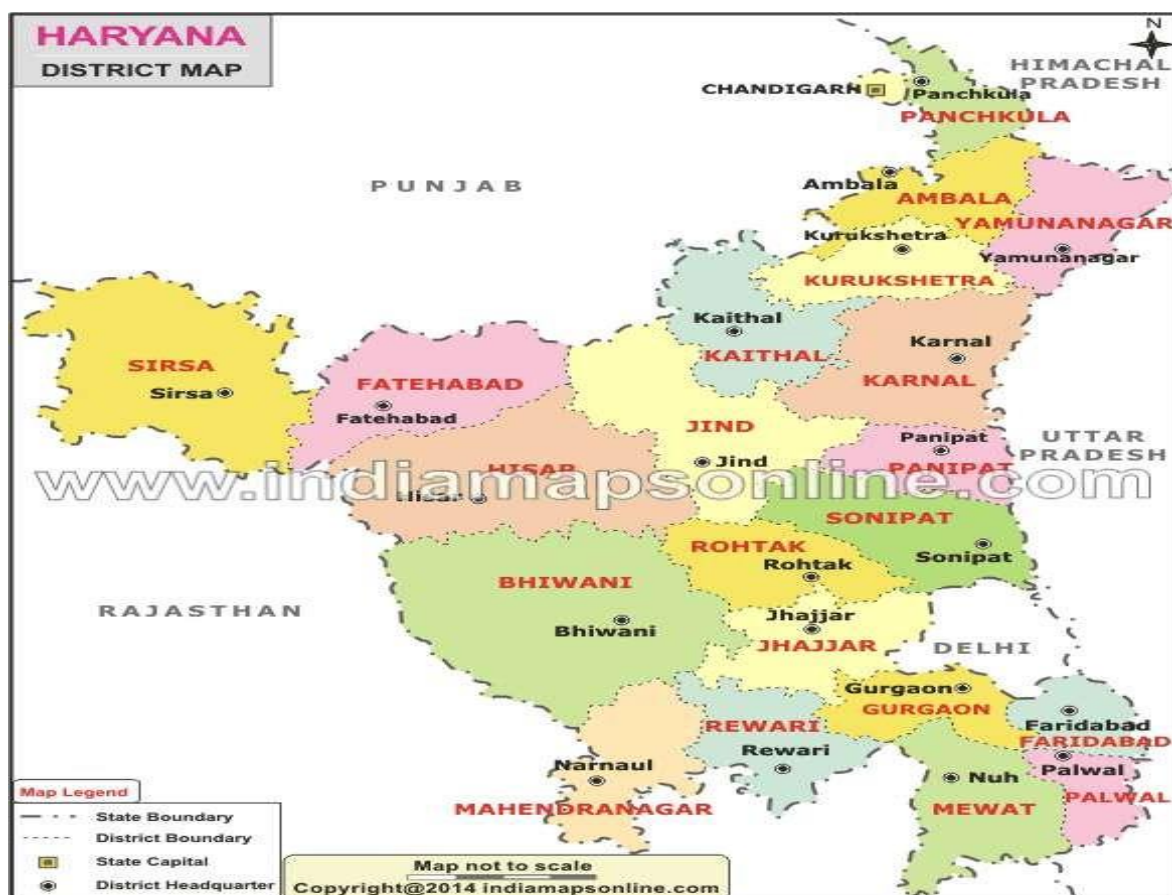


Figure 1.5 A Map of Haryana State (Source: indiamapsonline.com)

Haryana's geographic placement within the North Indian heartland has profoundly shaped its linguistic ecology, with its borders functioning as channels for sustained interaction, diffusion, and contact-induced change across adjacent speech communities. As a result, Haryanvi bears the imprint of neighboring languages, displaying influences that range from lexical borrowing and phonological accommodation to patterns of code-switching that reflect prolonged adjacency with the languages spoken in contiguous states. To the east, the regions of Uttar Pradesh and Delhi are predominantly Urdu-speaking, while to the northwest the political reorganization that separated Punjab from Haryana was undertaken to establish a distinct state for the Punjabi-speaking minority, a restructuring that entrenched Punjabi's institutional and sociolinguistic presence along the inter-state boundary (Brass, 2005; Mann & Mann, 2015).

### **Research Objectives**

1. To document and analyze the morphosyntactic structures of Rangri and English with reference to their role in shaping literary expression.
2. To examine how morphosyntactic features such as word order, tense, aspect, and agreement contribute to stylistic variation in Rangri and English oral and written literature.
3. To compare and interpret the literary dimensions of morphosyntactic patterns in Rangri and English, highlighting their impact on narrative strategies and cultural representation.

### **Significance of the Study**

The present study is projected to exert a substantial and enduring influence on scholarship devoted to Pakistan's indigenous languages particularly under-researched varieties such as Punjabi, Shahpuri, Gojri, and Rangri. Its central aim is to offer a significant contribution to morphosyntactic research across these languages in general, with a specific emphasis on advancing the analysis of Rangri. This imperative is underscored by the limited body of work on the morphology and syntax of regional languages and the near absence of systematic studies on undocumented or indigenous varieties. This investigation seeks to redress that deficit by filling a critical gap in the documentation and analysis of Pakistan's undocumented or indigenous languages. Therefore, it is expected to lay the groundwork for subsequent inquiries into additional facets of this language. Furthermore, the study will support future research endeavors by generating a curated dataset suitable for the development of machine-based applications, including corpus creation and translation systems. Our corpus-building and transcription choices align with established corpus-based practice in Pakistani English, which we adapt to Rangri to ensure reusability and analytical rigor (Bhatti, 2023).

### **Research Questions**

1. How do the morphosyntactic structures of Rangri and English function in shaping literary expression?
2. In what ways do morphosyntactic features such as word order, tense, aspect, and agreement contribute to stylistic variation in Rangri and English oral and written literature?
3. How do the literary dimensions of morphosyntactic patterns in Rangri and English compare, particularly in terms of their influence on narrative strategies and cultural representation?

### **Research Gap**

Whereas the bulk of prior scholarship has tended to isolate and examine single components of the languages in question often limiting attention to discrete domains such as phonology, lexicon, or selected inflectional patterns there has been no sustained attempt to furnish a holistic, systematic account of the full morphological architecture of any one of these languages. The present study, therefore, is distinctive in that it offers a morphosyntactic

investigation of the Rangri and English languages, integrating morphological inventories with their syntactic distributions and highlighting areas of alignment and divergence across the two systems. The present study, therefore, provides a morphosyntactic characterization of an indigenous Pakistani language, bringing to the fore the structure and functioning of Rangri within its grammatical ecology. The study, therefore, furnishes a morphosyntactic analysis of a language that, while documented, remains largely underrecognized in Pakistan, thereby addressing a significant gap in descriptive and analytical coverage.

### **Literature Review**

Scholarly inquiry into morphology has been both sustained and extensive, and Indo-Aryan languages, in particular, have figured prominently within this body of work. Specific strands of research include Mangrio's (2016) examination of morphological behavior in Urdu loanwords; Iqbal and Muhabat's (2016) treatment of Punjabi nominal morphology; Magier's (1983) analysis of Marwari; Singh and Agnihotri's (1997) account of Hindi; Strand's discussion of Old Hindi; and Ramaswamy's (2011) study of Tamil morphology. As Masica (1991) observes, nearly one-fifth of the global population speaks Indo-Aryan languages, highlighting the family's demographic and typological significance. Nonetheless, despite its relevance, Rangri has attracted scant scholarly engagement beyond a preliminary account by Aslam (2015), who considered it under the rubric of Haryanvi. Methodologically, Matthews (1991) endorsed the Word-and-Paradigm (WP) model of morphology, a framework that provides a useful lens for comparative analysis of the sort advanced here. Given the paucity of focused studies, this project undertakes a comparative morphosyntactic investigation of Rangri and English. In keeping with this orientation, Blake (2001, p. 1) characterizes case as a system whereby dependent nominals are marked to indicate the types of relations they hold with their heads. In tandem with gender and case, number marking particularly plural formation is a key inflectional process that shapes a language's morphological profile. Raza-E-Mustafa et al. (2016), analyzing plural formation in Rangri nouns, conclude that many of the pluralization strategies align closely with those found in Punjabi and Urdu. More broadly, inflectional morphology encompasses those morphological categories that are sensitive to, and conditioned by, the grammatical environments in which they occur. Within this domain, Bukhari (2017) argues that the elements following Urdu pronouns are better analyzed as clitics rather than as inflectional affixes. Inflectional operations yield new word forms while preserving lexical category membership. Aronoff (1994) contends that the notions of stems and inflectional classes are most transparently captured within a lexeme-based approach to morphological analysis. A substantial literature on pluralization exists: Reid (2006) treats plural marking in Northern Luzon languages; the processes in English and French are compared by Newetal; and the architecture of the Arabic plural system is examined by Boudelaa and Gaskell. For English specifically, recent evidence from social-media neologisms shows the same productive morphological mechanisms affixation, compounding, and blending that motivate our cross-linguistic comparisons with Rangri (Bhatti, 2024b). Viewed diachronically, a large proportion of Muslim Rajputs commonly known as Rangars (Madan, 1995) relocated to Pakistan during the 1947 Partition of the Indian Sub-Continent, a population movement that also entailed the transplantation and reconfiguration of their linguistic practices in new sociopolitical settings. In recent decades, research on case systems and plural morphology has been substantially propelled by computational objectives, particularly the needs of syntactic parsing and machine translation, where fine-grained morphological modeling enhances disambiguation, alignment, and surface realization. Within theoretical morphology, Bybee (2001) conceives of paradigms as sets of closely interrelated surface realizations, typically organized around a basic or citation form that functions as the reference point from which other inflected variants are systematically derived. Echoing this line of inquiry, Mangrio (2016) reports that both descriptive surveys and



analytical treatments have been undertaken; in the context of Urdu specifically, plural and case marking have been examined by Schmidt (1999) and Mangrio (2016), providing foundational accounts for subsequent comparative work. From a typological perspective, Rangri aligns with the agglutinative profile characteristic of many Indo-Aryan languages, expressing a two-way number opposition singular versus plural with plurality most commonly encoded through dedicated plural affixation. Alongside its inherited resources, Rangri appears to have integrated plural markers of Persian and Arabic provenance, a transfer plausibly mediated through sustained contact with Urdu and Punjabi; for Urdu, Mangrio (2016) offers a detailed treatment of plural morphology in Persian and Arabic loanwords, illuminating the pathways through which such forms circulate.



Figure 2.1 Language Families Map of Southeast Asia

Despite substantial advances in linguistic science, the Indo-Aryan family particularly its morphological architecture has historically received comparatively limited, targeted scholarly attention. Among the notable exceptions are studies that address specific subdomains: Mangrio's (2016) analysis of morphological behavior in Urdu loanwords, Iqbal's (2016) treatment of Punjabi nominal morphology, and Muhabat's (2016) investigation of exocentric compound formation in Punjabi; collectively, these contributions begin to map the contours of Indo-Aryan morphological structure. Earlier foundational work includes Singh and Agnihotri's (1997) exploration of Hindi morphology and Magier's (1983) study of Marwari morphology, both of which remain influential reference points for the field. More recently, several morphological dimensions of the Rangri language have been examined in Anwar and Rasool (2021), signaling a growing, though still modest, research interest in this variety. Building on these precedents, the present inquiry undertakes a morphosyntactic analysis of the Rangri language, with the aim of deepening empirical coverage and refining the theoretical understanding of its grammatical system.

Indo-Aryan languages are strongly inflecting systems that characteristically blend agglutinative concatenation of morphemes with fusional cumulation of features within single exponents, yielding a mixed typological profile across the family. They exhibit broad commonalities in morphological organization, notably the presence of grammatical gender, systematic agreement across nominal and verbal domains, articulated case-marking, and productive causativization patterns that extend verbal valency. Gender expression is pervasive across these languages, with -a widely serving as a default or frequent exponent for masculine

values and -i functioning as a common exponent for feminine, especially evident in citation noun forms and in adjectival and participial agreement. Hindi tends toward what is often described as a natural-gender default, such that nouns are treated as masculine unless there is explicit lexical or semantic motivation particularly reference to female humans to assign or mark the feminine. Across Indo-Aryan, independent personal pronouns are generally not split into distinct masculine versus feminine lexical forms; nonetheless, pronouns participate in the agreement network, triggering or controlling gender agreement on targets such as adjectives, participles, and, where relevant, verbal morphology. Hindi and other Indo-Aryan languages thus converge in their overall morphological architecture, their gender-marking practices, and the structure of their pronominal systems, reflecting deep genealogical and typological alignment.

Hindi exhibits a preference for natural-gender defaults, whereas in the Indo-Aryan family more broadly, pronominal inventories typically do not differentiate masculine and feminine forms as separate pronouns. The following table shows the masculine and feminine Rangri nouns along with their endings:

**Table 2.1 Gender Marking of Rangri Nouns**

Word	Gender	Gloss
<i>sota</i>	M	Stick
<i>gadhā</i>	M	Donkey
<i>soti</i>	F	Stick
<i>gadhī</i>	F	Donkey

In Rangri, the final segment -a frequently functions as a marker of masculine gender and, in many lexical items, also indexes augmentative nuance, whereas terminal -i commonly signals diminutive sense alongside feminine gender. For illustration, the nouns *sota* and *gadhā* pattern as masculine, while their counterpart's *soti* and *gadhī* are interpreted as feminine diminutives. That said, the surface-final vowel is not an invariant diagnostic: there exist lexical exceptions in which items ending in -a are grammatically feminine, and conversely, forms in -i can bear masculine gender. This variability underscores that gender assignment in Rangri, as in many Indo-Aryan varieties, is partly morphophonological but also strongly lexicalized and historically conditioned, with borrowing and analogy contributing to mismatches between form and grammatical gender. Chomsky, a central figure in modern linguistics, initially treated morphemes as the primitive units of grammatical representation in effect, minimal Saussurean signs linking form and meaning. Subsequent theoretical reflection led him to recognize that this pairing is often many-to-many and more indirect than first assumed, prompting a reconceptualization in which morphemes are better understood as abstract units whose exponents may be realized by a single segmental shape or by a family of alternants distributed across contexts. Even so, in early generative work morphology tended to be subsumed under a "syntax of morphemes," leaving little independent space for a dedicated morphological level. Through the 1980s and 1990s, accumulating evidence demonstrated that word-internal organization differs systematically from phrasal syntax and merits distinct analytical machinery. It took time for generativists to formally incorporate morphology within the overall grammar, but this shift was anticipated in Chomsky (1981), which posited an intermediate

component between S-structure and Phonetic Form (PF) subsequently interpreted as a morphological module that mediates between syntactic representations and phonological realization. As a consequence, morphology consolidated its status as a standalone component of linguistic theory during the 1980s, 1990s, and 2000s, with influential contributions by Bybee, Anderson, Carstairs-McCarthy, Aronoff, Bauer, Booij, and Blevins helping to establish morphology as an autonomous stratum situated between phonology and syntax. Building on Halle’s (1973) notion of a “list of words,” Aronoff advanced a word-based perspective in which lexical items are not assembled from morphemes in a strictly compositional fashion so much as organized into networks of directly related words and lexemes. This approach provides principled solutions to persistent problems in sub-word segmentation and alternation, accommodating syncretism, suppletion, and other non-concatenative phenomena that challenge morpheme-based decomposition.

### Indo-Aryan Languages: Morphological Characteristics

Indo-Aryan languages display a rich inflectional morphology that simultaneously incorporates agglutinative concatenation and fusional feature integration, resulting in a typologically mixed profile. Across the family, one observes parallel morphological architectures systems of grammatical gender, agreement paradigms, case marking, and causative derivation that reflect a shared heritage and recurrent structural motifs. A pervasive trait is overt gender encoding: the suffix “-a” functions prototypically as a masculine exponent, while “-i” regularly signals feminine distinction. In Hindi, however, a natural-gender default prevails, such that nouns are treated as masculine in the absence of clear female reference. By contrast, most Indo-Aryan varieties lack lexically distinct masculine versus feminine personal pronouns; nevertheless, pronouns do enter into the overall gender-agreement network, conditioning agreement on modifiers and predicates. Thus, Hindi and its sister lects converge in their overall morphological blueprints alignment in gender marking, case strategies, and pronominal agreement yet they diverge subtly in the extent to which gender assignment relies on semantic defaults versus lexical specifications. Below is a chart illustrating how Rangri nouns are classified by gender and marked by their final morphemes?

**Table 2.2 Gender Marking of Rangri Nouns**

Word	Gender	Gloss
<i>sota</i>	M	Stick
<i>gaḍha</i>	M	Donkey
<i>soti</i>	F	Stick
<i>gaḍhi</i>	F	Donkey

### Gender Suffixation Patterns

In Rangri, the final vowel –a most commonly functions as a masculine gender marker and often carries an augmentative implication, whereas the terminal segment –i typically indicates a feminine gender value coupled with a diminutive nuance. For example, the nouns *sota* and *gaḍha* are masculine in gender, while their counterpart’s *soti* and *gaḍhi* are interpreted as feminine forms with diminutive force. Crucially, however, this vowel-based heuristic is not exceptionless: there are lexical items ending in –a that are grammatically feminine and forms in –i that remain masculine. Such mismatches reveal that, alongside morphophonemic cues, gender assignment in Rangri is also subject to lexical convention, analogical extension, and historical contingency.



## Clitic Elements

Within the broader Indo-Aryan context, certain “little words” encode essential morphosyntactic information but defy easy categorization as either independent words or bound affixes. These elements often termed clitics lack a standalone morphosyntactic category and may phonologically lean on a host word. In Rangri, a subset of these “little words” functions as pronominal clitics, occupying a positional and functional niche between postpositional markers and case affixes. To distinguish a clitic from a true affix, linguists apply tests such as: whether it participates in agreement paradigms, whether it can be phonologically separated from or must be integrated into a host, and whether it demonstrates autonomy in prosodic phrasing. Such diagnostics help situate each formative on the continuum between fully bound affix and independent word.

## Case Particles

De Hoop and Narasimhan (2005) identify two primary roles for case markers across languages: disambiguating argument structure and indexing or identifying noun-phrase referents. In most Neo-Indo-Aryan varieties, including Rangri, the default argument bears zero marking (nominative or absolutive), while non-core arguments and adjuncts receive overt marking. Indo-Aryan case markers are generally postpositional and serve to flag grammatical relations of both verb arguments and adverbial/adjunct constituents. Ahmad (2007) offers a comprehensive listing of the case particles found in Urdu, Punjabi, and Sindhi, detailing their syntactic distributions and functional distinctions.

**Table 2.4 Case Markers in Urdu, Punjabi and Rangri**

Case	Urdu	Punjabi	Rangri
Nominative	∅	∅	∅
Ergative	<i>ne</i>	<i>Ne</i>	<i>naN</i>
Accusative	<i>ko</i>	<i>nuN</i>	<i>ta</i>
Dative	<i>ko</i>	<i>nuN</i>	<i>ta</i>
Instrumental	<i>se</i>	<i>Naal</i>	<i>ta, geiloN</i>
Ablative	<i>se</i>	<i>-oN, toN</i>	<i>ta</i>
Genitive	<i>ka</i>	<i>Da</i>	<i>ka</i>
Locative	<i>meN, par</i>	<i>-ich, vich</i>	<i>maN</i>

(Adapted from Ahmad, 2007)

## Ergative Alignment

Within Neo-Indo-Aryan (NIA) languages such as Urdu, Hindi, and Punjabi, ergativity constitutes a central mechanism for marking agenthood and distinguishing core arguments in transitive clauses. Hindi and Urdu manifest split-ergative patterns, wherein ergative marking appears conditionally. In Rangri, the ergative case is signaled by the “nasalized -naN” rather than the prototypical “-ne.” De Hoop and Narasimhan (2008) observe that prototypical subjects namely, animate and semantically specific noun phrases are more consistently overtly case-marked than nonprototypical arguments (e.g., pronouns or inanimate subjects).

## Investigations into Pakistani Language Morphology

The institutionalization of linguistics departments across Pakistani universities has catalyzed a surge of morphological research on the country’s languages. Although earlier scholarship concentrated on phonology and syntax, recent decades have witnessed intensive study of word-structure phenomena. Investigations have addressed topics such as Persian and Arabic loan-morphology in Urdu, nominal inflection in Punjabi, pronominal systems in Pashto, patterns of

reduplication, and the morphosemantic properties of Punjabi compounds. Key research areas include:

1. **Morphological Typology** Scholars classify Pakistani vernaculars according to their morphological architectures, distinguishing agglutinative systems where serial affixation transparently encodes grammatical relations (e.g., Urdu, Punjabi) from fusional or isolating profiles, thereby mapping typological variation within the region.
2. **Word Formation Mechanisms** Analyses focus on derivational strategies (the addition of prefixes, suffixes, or infixes to generate new lexemes), compounding (the concatenation of independent roots to form complex words), and reduplication (the partial or full repetition of a base form to signal plurality, intensity, or other semantic and grammatical effects).
3. **Morphophonological Alternations** This line of inquiry examines phonological processes triggered by morpheme concatenation such as vowel harmony, consonant assimilation, deletion, and insertion that ensure morphotactic well-formedness and account for surface alternations in inflected and derived forms.
4. **Morphosyntactic Interface Studies** Researchers explore how inflectional morphology interfaces with phrase structure, documenting how features like tense, aspect, mood, number, case, and gender are morphologically encoded and how these markers interact with syntactic operations.
5. **Language Documentation and Description** Descriptive projects aim to preserve linguistic diversity by compiling lexicons, producing comprehensive grammatical sketches, and creating dialect atlases for under-documented languages, thereby supporting revitalization and educational initiatives.
6. **Computational Morphology** With advances in natural language processing, efforts have intensified to develop morphological analyzers and generators for Pakistani languages, enhancing applications in machine translation, text-to-speech systems, information retrieval, and computational lexicography.
7. **Contact-Induced Morphological Change** Investigations probe how language contact particularly with Urdu and English alters native morphological systems, introducing borrowed inflectional markers, calques, and hybrid paradigms into regional dialects.
8. **Diachronic Morphological Research** Historical studies trace the evolution of morphological systems over time, analyzing shifts in inflectional paradigms, pathways of lexical borrowing, and emergent grammatical patterns, thereby illuminating broader processes of language change and convergence.

## **Methodology**

The present study adopts a qualitative research design. Empirical data will be obtained through systematic fieldwork conducted during successive visits to the districts of Okara, Sahiwal, Khanewal, Multan, and Pakpattan. A purposive sample of thirty native Rangri speakers carefully stratified across age cohorts will be recruited, with particular emphasis on eliciting linguistic intuitions and usage patterns from elder informants, whose extended language experience renders them especially authoritative custodians of traditional morphosyntactic norms. All interactions will be audio-recorded (with informed consent) and subsequently transcribed in full, ensuring the preservation of subtle morphophonological and syntactic details. The core analytical task involves identifying, cataloguing, and contrasting the range of morphosyntactic configurations attested in the corpus encompassing inflectional paradigms, clitic distributions, case-marking alternations, and word-formation processes to produce a richly detailed descriptive account of Rangri's grammatical system. By foregrounding both shared regularities and intra-community variation, this approach aims to yield a comprehensive linguistic profile that faithfully reflects the structural complexity and dynamism of the Rangri

speech community. The present investigation adopts Thomas E. Payne's *Describing Morphosyntax: A Guide for Field Linguists* (1997) as the primary analytical scaffold for a comparative morphosyntactic examination of Rangri and the English language. Designed expressly for documenting under-described systems, Payne's framework specifies a comprehensive methodology from data gathering through analysis for producing rigorous descriptions of morphology and syntax in languages lacking prior documentation. Treating morpheme boundaries and word-formation patterns as central analytic units is further motivated by findings that morphological awareness measurably supports vocabulary development and linguistic processing (Bhatti, 2024a). In line with this orientation, Klammer (2000) emphasizes that by foregrounding the language's own structural properties, this approach allows a description to be formulated on the language's terms rather than forcing it into externally imposed categories. The framework equips researchers to work directly with native speakers, enabling the collection and analysis of precise, reliable primary data. In addition, the guide provides practical procedures for descriptive linguists to identify grammatical phenomena and to label them using widely intelligible, cross-linguistically transparent terminology. It supports the full workflow required in low-resource contexts transcription, elicitation, data organization, and structural analysis especially where first-hand descriptions are not yet available. As Payne (1997) outlines, uncovering a language's distinctive features and assessing its relatedness to or divergence from other languages depend on primary data elicited through structured questionnaires, narrative texts, and visual stimuli (e.g., drawings), complemented by periods of immersion within the speech community. The framework further clarifies how and why languages vary, and it accommodates patterns that do not align neatly with standard theoretical expectations, thereby ensuring that the resulting description of Rangri considered alongside English remains empirically grounded and theoretically informed (Payne, 1997; Klammer, 2000).

This segment outlines the systematic procedures employed for collecting linguistic data, applying coding schemes, verifying authenticity, and producing standardized

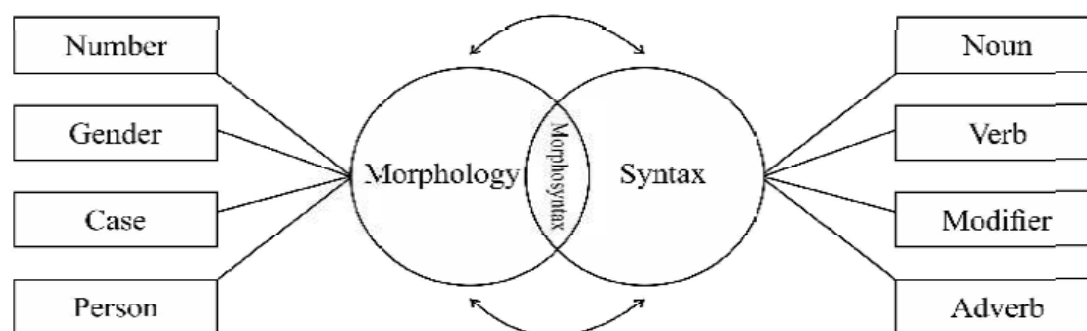
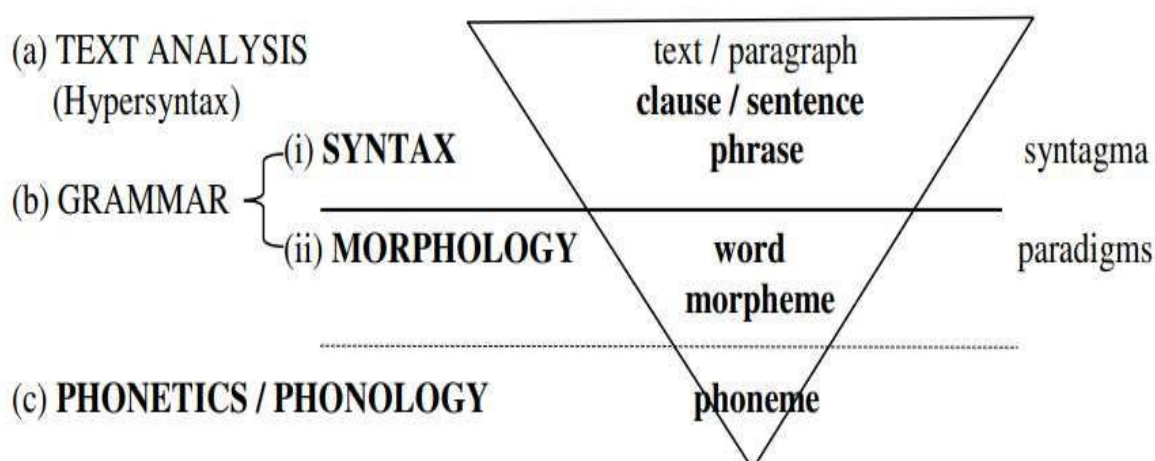


Figure: Derived from Thomas E Payne (2018)

transcriptions. Initially, sixteen spontaneous speech recordings were obtained from senior male and female Rangri speakers residing in rural locales of Okara, Sahiwal, and Jhang districts in Punjab. These informants were selected on the basis of their advanced age and deep familiarity with traditional morphological and syntactic patterns, ensuring the capture of conservative language features. Subsequently, the raw recordings underwent a rigorous validation phase: five local key informants drawn from diverse social and occupational backgrounds within the same communities reviewed each sample to confirm accuracy, naturalness, and representativeness. Following this peer-validation process, fourteen recordings met the criteria for inclusion in the analysis dataset. The vetted audio

files were then meticulously transcribed in accordance with “Leipzig Glossing Rules (2015),” yielding a carefully aligned mini-corpus totaling 4,326 lexical items. This corpus provided the foundation for fine-grained morphosyntactic scrutiny, enabling identification of inflectional paradigms, clitic placements, case-marking patterns, and other grammatical phenomena characteristic of Rangri.



This study employs a qualitative design to conduct an in-depth morphosyntactic investigation of Rangri across the districts of Okara, Sahiwal, Khanewal, Multan, and Pakpattan. Drawing on the methodological scaffolding provided by Thomas E. Payne’s “Describing Morphosyntax: A Guide for Field Linguists” (1997), the research undertakes a parallel analysis of Rangri and English grammatical architectures. A purposively selected cohort of thirty native speakers serves as the primary data source, with priority given to elder informants whose extended exposure to Rangri yields the most robust exemplars of its traditional morphosyntactic patterns. All elicitation sessions and naturalistic conversations are audio-recorded and subsequently transcribed in strict accordance with “Leipzig Glossing Rules (2015),” resulting in a finely curated mini-corpus of 4,326 tokens. The analytic focus centers on cataloguing and comparing distinct morphosyntactic constructions such as inflectional paradigms, clitic integrations, case-marking alternations, and word-formation processes thus producing a comprehensive linguistic description that highlights Rangri’s idiosyncratic features and delineates its divergences from English.

The current research primarily draws its data from rural areas of Sanghar district, home to the largest population of Rangri speakers, where in some villages, Rangri-speaking migrants even outnumber the local Sindhi population, giving them notable political influence as evidenced by the election of a Rangri-speaking MPA in the 2008 General Elections. Additionally, Okara District, located along the Radcliffe Line, holds historical significance dating back to the Indus Valley Civilization, boasts fertile lands, a strong agricultural base, and a rich cattle-breeding tradition. Known for its peaceful environment, the district features parks, educational institutions, health services, and is connected by railway since 1892, with nearby cities including Sahiwal, Pakpattan, and Renala Khurd.



Figure 3.1 Map of Punjab (Okara)

([https://www.google.com/search?q=google+map+okara&sca\\_esv=956d3d9e5d35c29](https://www.google.com/search?q=google+map+okara&sca_esv=956d3d9e5d35c29))

The study gathered data from 16 participants, selected with reference to Chambers and Trudgill's dialectology criteria, prioritizing non-mobile, older, rural males (NORM) and women born in India before partition to preserve valuable linguistic insights. Participants ranged from farmers, housewives, and retired schoolmasters to businessmen and politicians, with varied travel histories and degrees of language enthusiasm. Data collection took place over fifteen days, mainly in rural Sanghar, through unstructured, recorded interviews using a Sony IC Recorder ICD-PX312, resulting in 23 samples totaling over six hours. The researcher, a native Rangri speaker, conducted informal conversations covering migration, political, social, and personal topics, ensuring ethical practices through informed consent, privacy assurances, and minimal personal bias. The researcher conducted a study on Rangri speakers using a systematic recording process, first verifying whether participants spoke Rangri or another language through a checklist; only recordings where at least three out of five key informants agreed on Rangri usage were included for analysis, with two participants (P3 and P7) identified as Urdu speakers. Data coding involved reviewing the verified recordings to identify words distinct from Urdu and Punjabi and determining whether they were Rangri roots or Sindhi/Urdu loanwords, resulting in a list of 173 words, which key informants rated on a semantic differential scale, retaining only those with a minimum rating of 3 out of 5. For transcription, the researcher and an associate followed the Leipzig Glossing Rules (2015) in part, focusing solely on words rather than paralingual features, and established conventions for representing Rangri sounds absent in the Roman script, such as using "r" for /r/ and /ɾ/, "l" for /l/ and /ɭ/, "t" for /t/, "n" to indicate nasalization on vowels, and "h" after a sound to mark aspiration; transcription was completed within three minutes after each conversation to avoid repetition. Interlinear translation glossing also partially followed the Leipzig Glossing Rules, omitting Rule 2's requirement for morpheme-by-morpheme correspondence due to the word-based nature of the morphological analysis, while adhering to the remaining guidelines and standard abbreviations, after which the prepared data proceeded to the analysis stage presented in later chapters.

Analysis

Rangri, like other Indo-Aryan languages such as Urdu, Punjabi, and Bagri, has two genders masculine and feminine divided into animate and inanimate categories. Many inanimate nouns are mono-gender, inherently masculine or feminine, with endings such as -a for masculine and -i for feminine (Table 4.1). Animate mono-gender nouns also exist, where gender assignment is inherent and not linked to biological sex, e.g., ka:g “crow” (M) and pirandʰ “wasp” (F) (Table 4.4). Masculine consonant-ending nouns form feminine by adding -nĩ (Table 4.8). Number marking in Rangri shows both marked and unmarked plurals. Feminine nouns ending in -i pluralize with -jã, applying to both animate and inanimate nouns (Tables 4.13 & 4.14), while some masculine nouns are unmarked, with singular and plural forms identical (Table 4.17), and their number is determined through agreement with verbs and adjectives.

Table 4.1 Regular Inanimate Mono-Gender Nouns in Rangri

Masculine	Gloss	Feminine	Gloss
khʌg.ga	Hive	ɾʌ.dʒaɪ	Quilt
bʌd̪ h.na	Ewer	põ.ŋɪ	Sieve
geh.ŋã	Bracelet	əl.ma.ɾɪ	Cabinet
lfa.fa	Envelope	kʌʃ.ɿ	Boat

Table 4.4 Animate Mono-Gender Nouns

Noun	Gloss	Gender	Noun	Gloss	Gender
ka: g	Crow	M	pirandʰ	Wasp	F
sãmp	Snake	M	ku.gɪ	Dove	F
bugʰ. la	Crane	M	ma.tʃʰɪ	Fish	F
ma. tʃʰər	Mosquito	M	la.lɪ	Golden sparrow	F

If you want, I can also **merge** both into one big table with an extra column showing "Type" (Inanimate / Animate). That could make it more consistent for research presentation.

Perfective

Perfective form marks the tense and perfective aspect showing completed and finished actions. Unlike imperfective forms, perfective forms mark the non-habitual nature of actions. In Rangri, perfective forms are made by adding -a, -i, -e, -iyan to the stem. The perfective forms agree in number and gender with nouns and pronouns. Perfective morphology in Rangri serves to encode event boundedness and completion across the tense system. This aspectual category encompasses the simple past, the remote/historical past, the conditional past, and the presumptive past. In each of these tense forms, perfectivity is uniformly marked by the suffix –a attached to the verb stem. Moreover, Rangri perfective paradigms are not limited to bare roots: they extend to verbs formed through the simple causative and related derivational processes of double causative forms. The following figure represents the word-schema of the perfective forms of Rangri verbs.



**Table 5.14 Paradigm of Rangri Perfectives**

	<b>Stem</b>	<b>Gloss</b>	<b>MSG</b>	<b>F.SG</b>	<b>M.PLU</b>	<b>F.PLU</b>
<b>Class1</b>	<i>bol</i>	Speak	<i>bol-ja</i>	<i>bol-i</i>	<i>bol-er</i>	<i>bol-iã</i>
<b>Class2</b>	<i>dʒa</i>	Go	<i>gə-ja</i>	<i>gə-ji</i>	<i>gə-jeɪ</i>	<i>ge-ijã</i>
<b>Class3</b>	<i>d e</i>	Give	<i>d i-ja</i>	<i>d e-i</i>	<i>d ɪ-je</i>	<i>d e-ijã</i>

## Conclusion

The corpus evidence clearly demonstrates that Rangri exhibits an exceptionally rich morphological system. Consistent with other Indo-Aryan varieties, its grammar deploys an extensive array of inflectional paradigms alongside a productive suite of derivational processes. On one hand, Rangri displays agglutinative tendencies: many words are constructed through the linear concatenation of discrete morphemes, each of which can bear a specific semantic or grammatical function and, in principle, be segmented from the base. On the other hand, the language also shows fusional characteristics, since certain affixes fuse multiple features into a single exponent or resist clean separation from the root morphophonologically. This hybrid profile defies allocation to a single neat typological slot purely agglutinative or purely fusional and complicates the application of a strictly morpheme-centric analytic model (which typically fares best with transparent concatenation). Accordingly, this study adopts a Word-and-Paradigm framework, enabling us to capture both the segmentable and the fully integrated morphological patterns that coexist within Rangri's verbal and nominal systems. Adverbs in Rangri manifest a remarkably broad functional distribution and a high degree of morphological sophistication. They range from simple manner, time, or place modifiers to elements that intensify or attenuate the force of a clause. Crucially, certain particles and reduplicative adverbial forms serve as key emphatic markers, strategically placed to highlight or contrast particular sentence components. Reduplication whether full repetition of the base or partial stem echoing often signals intensification or iterative nuance, while discrete particles may combine with core adverbial stems to produce layered emphatic readings. Taken together, these phenomena underscore that adverbial categories in Rangri are not only lexically varied but also morphologically elaborate, functioning as integral tools for discourse-level modulation and pragmatic shading.

## Implications and Recommendations

The examination of our corpus data reveals that Rangri manifests an exceptionally intricate morphological system. In alignment with the broader Indo-Aryan family, it displays an extensive array of inflectional paradigms alongside a robust set of derivational mechanisms. On one axis, Rangri behaves like a prototypical agglutinative language: numerous lexical items are constructed through the concatenation of discrete morphemes, each bearing an identifiable semantic or grammatical function and, in principle, detachable from the root. Conversely, certain affixes in Rangri fuse multiple features within a single exponent or resist clear segmentation, imparting a fusional character to the grammar. This entanglement of agglutinative and fusional traits complicates any attempt to pigeonhole Rangri into a narrow typological slot and limits the efficacy of strictly morpheme-by-morpheme analytic methods tools better suited to transparent concatenative systems. Accordingly, this study adopts a Word-and-Paradigm framework, which accommodates both the segmentable and the fully integrated morphological patterns that coexist within Rangri's lexicon. Within Rangri's grammatical repertoire, adverbial forms constitute a particularly morphologically rich

domain. They range from simple modifiers of manner, time, and place to specialized particles that manipulate focus and discourse prominence. Reduplicative processes whether involving full repetition of the base or partial stem echoing serve to heighten intensity or convey iterative nuance. Discrete adverbial particles, in turn, can be deployed at various syntactic junctures to emphasize or de-emphasize constituent elements. Collectively, these adverbial mechanisms provide speakers with a finely graded toolkit for discourse-level modulation, underscoring the functional and formal sophistication of Rangri's adverb class.

**Foundational Descriptive Scope and Prospects for Future Inquiry** The present investigation constitutes a foundational descriptive account of Rangri's morphological architecture, designed to introduce the language into the broader field-linguistic consciousness. It establishes a baseline from which future scholars can launch specialized inquiries across multiple subfields. Potential avenues include in-depth analyses of Rangri's phonological system, comparative typological studies within the Indo-Aryan continuum, syntactic investigations of its case and postpositional alignments, and sociolinguistic or variationist research into community usage and dialectal differentiation. By mapping out this research agenda, the study aims to stimulate a sustained scholarly engagement with both Rangri specifically and the morphology of Indo-Aryan languages more generally.

**Urgency of Documentation and Standardization Efforts** Given the near absence of written records or institutional recognition, Rangri urgently requires systematic documentation and formal codification. Developing a comprehensive descriptive grammar, lexicon, and annotated text collections will demand significant time and resources but is indispensable for safeguarding the language's legacy. Moreover, standardization initiatives such as orthography design, dictionary compilation, and pedagogical materials will provide the tools necessary for community-driven revitalization efforts and for integrating Rangri into academic and governmental language planning frameworks.

**Assessing Language Vitality through GIDS and EGIDS Frameworks** Following the model of Zaidi (2011) for Punjabi, Rangri's sociolinguistic health can be evaluated using the GIDS and EGIDS scales. Current observations indicate a shift among educated, middle-class speakers toward Urdu as the preferred medium of familial and formal communication, thereby undermining intergenerational transmission. Initially perceived as confined to Punjab, this trend has been documented in Sindh as well, with numerous Rangri-heritage parents conversing with their children exclusively in Urdu. Such patterns signal a critical phase in the language's vitality profile and underscore the need for targeted language maintenance policies. **Analysis** Although this study foregrounds inflectional processes, several morphological domains remain underexplored. Paradigm economy, the architecture of defective paradigms, gender and number assignment, and the full inventory of case-marking strategies all warrant closer scrutiny. A more granular examination of derivational mechanisms prefixation, suffixation, infixation, and compounding would further enrich our understanding of Rangri's word-formation dynamics and contribute to a cohesive theoretical model of its morphology. A comprehensive phonemic inventory for Rangri is still lacking. It is imperative to document phonological variants across regional dialects, investigate contact-induced prosodic and segmental changes from neighboring languages, and undertake a comparative phonetic study between Pakistani Rangri and its genealogical progenitor, Indian Haryanvi. Such work will illuminate the degree of phonological divergence and provide empirical foundations for historical reconstruction and dialectology. Rangri's syntactic system remains virtually unexplored in formal terms. Key topics for future research include detailed mapping of its case and postpositional array, analysis of causative constructions and their interaction with verb valency, and a comparative study of its clause-structural properties relative to other North Indian

languages. Given the apparent typological affinities, Rangri presents a promising arena for testing and refining syntactic theories developed for Indo-Aryan. Despite the language's rich structural profile, scholarly attention to Rangri has been sparse. Only two monographic treatments exist: Aslam (2015), which surveys Rangri's contemporary sociolinguistic situation under the rubric of Haryanvi in Pakistan, and Raza-e-Mustafa et al. (2016), which investigates noun pluralization processes. Beyond these, Rangri remains virtually absent from the Pakistani linguistic literature. This study thus seeks to catalyze further investigation, inviting researchers and language enthusiasts both within Pakistan and internationally to engage with Rangri's complex linguistic tapestry.

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