LANGUAGE COMPARISON :

By comparing the language of Mizo with other languages like English, Hindi etc., we will see some kind of peculiarities and complexities of Mizo language. Comparative and historical linguistics may be said to have begun in 1786. The date when Sir. William Jones made the famous statement pointing out that Greek, Latin, Sanskrit, Celtic and Germanic appeared to have sprung from a common source. Mizo language which is said to have been mostly originated from what we called the language of Pawi (Lai) (as it is commonly known) who were inhabited in the area of Chindwin valley and Kabow valley which is in the western corner of Burma. Mizo and Pawi are closely related. The style of living, behaviour, culture and tradition, attitude of these two groups are almost the same. As a result, the language of Mizo could not be seperated from the language of Pawi (Lai). They are like the two items of the same pot. Because most of our typical language, folk songs, folklore and folktales are mostly originated from what we call Pawi (Lai). As comparative linguistics traces the evolution of language and by comparing one with another, establishes the relationships between them. In Europe and America, historical linguistics and historically orientated comparative linguistics played a dominant role in linguistic studies during the nineteenth century.

By studying the characteristics of languages, automatically, we are supposed to see the evolution, development and change of a particular language within a certain time. For example, Mizo language which has close relationship with the language of Pawi is changing and developing in its style, form, structure, sound and manner etc. like English which belongs to Indo-European language changes and develops. Mizo language is not so old, even our Alphabet is framed and designed by English Missionaries J. Herbert Lorrain and F.W. Savidge only in the year 1894. So, it is considerably young comparing with the Alphabet of English, Hindi etc.

There is a proverb in Indian villages which says that language changes every six miles. One of the results is that " all grammars leak " because language is not a static entity. It is said that language is ' modifiable, extendable ' and that language changes in time and space. About sixty years ago, Edward Sapir introduced a valuable new concept into linguistics. ' Language ' he wrote, ' moves down time in a current of its own making. It has a drift .... Nothing is perfectly static. Every word, every grammatical element, every locution, every sound and accent is a slowly changing configuration moulded by the invisible and impersonal .... ' (E. Sapir, Language : An Introduction to the study of Speech, New York, repr. 1942. P.g.150).

The truth is that all through the period which we call the old English period, the language was slowly and steadily growing and changing so that it had become materially changed in every aspect by the time it had reached what we generally call the Middle English period. Language changes because of linguistic, social, cultural, psychological, historical and geographical too. According to Saussure, language changes due to the innovations of individuals and of community and historical reasons. Language change may be very broadly divided into two categories - external change and internal change which may be studied under the following heads :

      (i)   Sound change

      (ii)   Grammatical and Lexical change

      (iii)   Semantic change.

(i) **Sound change** : A sound change may be defined as the creation of disappearance of phonemes. A sound change can be said to have occured when the pronunciation by a social unit (town, village or nation) of that sound at a time is different from what

it was at in earlier time. For example, Old English /a:/ (long a) changes everywhere to Middle English /o:/ (and later to /ou/). O.E /a:/>M.E/o:/>Mod.E/ou/. The word ham/ha:m/ for example , became hoom/ha:m/ and later home/houm/. Similarly, the word ban/ba:n/ became boon/bo:n/ and later bone/boun/.

(ii) **Grammatical and Lexical change** : It is the change in grammar and vocabulary. It is most obvious in child language, when children form plurals for example, as mans, mouses, foots, after hearing plurals such as cats, dogs, horses or from Past Tense such as maked, drinked, breaked, sleeped after hearing Past Tense forms such as played, called, cooked, jumped. It is becuase of analogy that many English plurals mostly ending in 'en' have gradually been ousted in favour of S. In the days of Shakespeare, eyen, housen and schoon were normal forms but these have been replaced by eyes, houses and shoes.

(iii) **Semantic change** : The main sources of Semantic change are vagueness in meanings, loss of motivation, polysemy, ambiguous contexts, the structure of the vocabulary. Semantic change is also caused by foreign languages, e.g. French **'Parlement'** which originally meant **'Speaking'** and then came to denote a 'judicious court', acquired at a later date, under the influence of English Parliament, its modern sense of ' Legislative Assembly '.

Above all, language is changing and developing from period to period. All languages are continually changing their sounds, their grammar, their vocabulary and their meanings for various reasons. A look at the old inscriptions and manuscripts, at Chaucer or Shakespeare shows how many of English sounds and spellings have changed. For example, the final 'e' in numerous Chaucerian words is no more seen in Modern English; the sound phonetically /j/ which occurs before /u/ in words such as tune, duty, muse has disappeared in words such as rute, flute. Sound in Hindi words such as varkha (meaning 'rain') has been replaced by changing varkha into varsha. Hindi once had no terms such as radio. television, train, signal etc. Similarly, Mizo language

had no terms such as radio, television, carpet, chalk, pencil, electrict etc. Once the expression ' It is me ' ·was ungrammatical but now it is quite acceptable.

In studying the history of any language, we have to consider not only the development of its grammatical structure and the additions of new words to its vocabulary, but also the changes which have taken place in the meanings of many words in the language. English language (Old English) for instance which belongs to Indo-European Language is an inflected language which is changing and developing from time to time. The word ' England ' itself came from the word Angle Tribes or Englaland (Land of the Angles), which were used to denote collectively the Germanic peoples in Britain: Angles, Saxons and Jutes alike. The land of these tribes changed into England. The word 'English' itself came from the word spoken by these tribes, 'Englisc'. From the beginning, the language was always Englisc. So, English language is changing slowly in its forms from Old English language to modern used language. As a result, we can see the change and development of every language from time to time or from period to period.

Typology and Universals of Languages :

Typology is really an attempt to provide a formal and systematic way of answering every tiro's question about a language new to him. ' **What is this language like ? '.** Languages are typologically classified according to the similarities of form they exhibit with other languages at any level or levels. Linguists compare languages for several reasons, e.g. to note their similarities and dissimilarities; to form a typology - the classification of languages into different types, to find out what language have developed from what other languages. Different types of typology is shown here like :

(i) Phonetic typology	(ii)	Phonological typology
(iii) Grammatical typology	(iv)	Linguistic typology & Linguistic Universals.

A brief explanation of these different types of Typology is shown below :

Phonetic Typology : At the phonetic level, it is an obvious fact that some groups of languages make use of similar ranges of sounds, while others differ more widely from them in the types of sound they employ. The main articulatory positions, bilabial, dental or alveolar and velar and the main articulatory processes , voice and voicelessness, plosion and friction , oral and nasal release and some other are employed in all or in almost all languages, but within these limits very marked phonetic differences are found. This is part of the difficulty of learning to speak foreign languages and the reason why many people who do, do so 'with an accent'. Standard English does not make any distinctive use of glottalized consonants. Cockney Speakers often have glottalized stops intervocalically (copper /'kɔ p'ɔ /, ripper/'ripʷɔ/, and make frequent use of medial glottal stops in positions where Speakers of standard English have /p/, /t/ or /k/ (what bad luck /'wɔ ? 'baed'lʌ ?/). But several languages in different parts of the world make regular and systematic use of glottalized consonants just as English does of voiced consonants.

Phonological Typology :

Typological classifications based not primarily upon the presence in languages of particular phonetic features, but on the different ways in which the sounds and sound features of languages are organized into phonological systems and syllable structures.

English plosive and nasal consonants fall into a three -place and three-process system, bilabial, alveolar, velar and voiceless, voiced, nasal :

e.g. /p/ /t/ /k/
/b/ /d/ /g/
/m/ /n/ /n/

Ancient Greek had a three-place and four-process system, bilabial, dental, velar and unaspirated, voiced, nasal :

/p/ /t/ /k/
/p^h/ /t^h/ /k^h/
/b/ /d/ /g/
/m/ /n/ /n/

Sanskrit and some modern Indian languages have a system of five contrasting processes; voiceless unaspirated and aspirated, voiced unaspirated and aspirated and nasal - /p/, /p^h/, /b/, /b^h/, /m/. etc.

Grammatical Typology : At the grammatical level, languages may be classified according to the predominant characteristics of their grammatical systems. In one such dimension, Chinese and several languages of South East Asia stand at one extreme, in relying almost entirely on word order and word class membership as the markers of syntactic relationships and sentence structures and are in contrast with languages like Latin and ancient Greek wherein word order is relatively free grammatically and syntactic relationships and sentence structures are mostly marked by the morphological categories of concord and government exhibited by the word forms of different word classes. On this dimension, English, French and German lie somewhere in the middle between the two extremes.

Word order itself provides interesting typological criteria for classification. It has been found that two of the commonest preferred orders in simple sentences are Subject-Verb-Object (SVO) and Subject-Object-Verb (SOV) though other orders VSO for example are found. Modern English, French and German are among examples of the former (SVO) and Japanese and Turkish of the latter (SOV) while Latin, despite its grammatically very free word order, showed a definite stylistic preference for an (SOV) order in sentences not specifically marked for emphasis. The sentence structure/orders of Mizo

language is shown here which is having Object-Subject-Verb (OSV) order which is one of its peculiarities, for example, in English sentence order, I play football (SVO) which is changed into (OSV) form in Mizo language, for example, Football I play. The object Football is spoken of first which is followed by subject and verb For example, Water I drink (OSV).

Linguistic Typology and Universals of Language/ Linguistic Universals :

The concept of linguistic or language universals is very important in Chomsky's generative theory. He views a linguistic theory as ' An hypothesis about linguistic universals '. In other words, the job of linguistics is to establish the universal design-characteristics which define human language.

' A Language Universal ' as defined by Hockett ' is a feature of property shared by all languages or by all language '. All languages definitely share some common features. For example, all languages have duality, all have grammar and meaning and are composed out of sounds produced by human vocal organs; all languages are arbitrary. Even human community has a language. Every human language consists of an infinite set of sentences, each of which manifests, in phonetic form, a conceptual structure. There is no human language in the world which has no syntactic, phonological rules or discrete lexical items.

Dialectology : Dialectology is a very respectable discipline with a long and impressive history and with a well-established methodology and literature. As we (human beings) are living in a different countries, places or different states, we are having different dialects or dialectology - manner of speech. For example, Mizoram (The Land of the Mizos) have different dialects as pointed out in the first page like **Duhlian, Pawi, Hmar, Ralte, Lakher** etc. But these different dialects have linguistic affinities, because of this, the Mizos are not confronted with such linguistic problem within Mizoram (The Land

of the Mizos). The differences of personal styles and of dialects are the summations of large numbers of individual differences of speaking (and writing), discernible at all levels, in pronunciation, grammar and in the meanings of particular words.

One has to admit that every member of some speech community speaks a slightly different dialect, he has his own idiolects. Thus a language is a collection of more or less similar idiolects. Sometimes, it is difficult to decide whether a variant constitutes a dialectal sub-division or a different language, since it may be blurred by political boundaries, e.g. between Dutch and some Low German dialects. Regional dialects (or local or geographical or territorial dialects) are spoken by the people of a particular geographical area within a speech community, e.g. Cockney in London, but due to the increase in education and mobility they are receding probably. The greatest figure in the History of Britist dialectology was Joseph Wrigh who was born in a village near Bradford. He was the Editor of the English Dialect Dictionary (1898-1905) and Grammar (1905). As a dialect, London Cockney is both regional and social.

Language Description :

Linguistics, being a scientific study of language often explains how language works and the linguistic study of language has sometimes been called the study of language ' for its own sake ' (De-Saussure, 1961). In a general sense, the linguistic approach is concerned with the relation between meanings and sounds taking recourse to various levels of descriptions; syntax and morphology, phonology and phonetics, lexis and semantics or more popularly grammar, vocabulary and pronunciation.

Phonetics/Phonology :

The only universal medium of linguistic communication among all normal human beings (i.e. excluding the deaf and dumb, some congenital idiots etc) is speech and the scientific study of speech is known as phonetics. That part of linguistics that deals with the material of speech itself is called phonetics, phonetics

is now a pure science that studies speech processes, including the anatomy, neurology and pathology of speech, the articulation , description, classification, production and perception of speech sounds. The study of phonetics can be divided into three main branches - Acoustic, Auditory and Articulatory.

The International Phonetic Alphabet abbreviated usually (I.P.A) which came to be formulated in 1889, has been devised to indicate various sounds, found in one's utterances. They are either phonetic or phonemic type.

Phonetic Transcription :
It is a permanent and unambiguous record of what goes on in our speech to indicate the pronunciation as actually heard, not necessarily representing the significant features. A pair of square brackets [] indicates a phonetic transcription. We may write pill/pil/or as [p^{h}il] and spil as /spil/ or as [sp=il]. The symbol [p^h] represents an aspirated stop, whereas [p=] represents an unaspirated stop.

Over a century ago, the great English Philologist, linguist and phonetician Henry Sweet described phonetics as ' The indispensable foundation of all study of language - whether that study be purely theoritical or practical as well '.

Phonology :

Phonology is the study of vocal sounds and sound changes, phonemes and their variants in particular language. It is concerned with the patterns and organization of languages in terms of the phonetic features and categories involved. Phonology deals with the phonemes and sequences of phonemes. That is, phonology is concerned with the study of the sound-system of a particular language. According to Bloomfield, phonology is the organization of sounds into patterns. To quote Robins, phonetics and phonology are both concerned with the same subject-matter or aspect of language, speech sounds.

Morphology :

Morphology is the science and study of the smallest grammatical units of language and of their formation into words including inflection, derivation and composition. According to Dorfman, morphology is the study of the ways and methods of grouping sounds into sound-complexes or words of definite, distinct, conventional meaning. Bloomfield calls it the study of the constructions in which bound forms appear among the constituents. Broadly speaking, morphology is the study of the patterns of word-forms. It is a level of structure between the phonological and the syntaxtic. It is complimentary to syntax.

Morphology is the grammar of words. It is not only the synchronic study of word forms but is also the study of the history and development of word-forms. So it is both a synchronic (in a given time) and a diachronic (across time) study of the word-forms. It studies how the words are formed, where they originate from, what their grammatical forms are, what the functions of prefixes and suffixes in the formation of words are, on what basis the parts of speech of a particular language are formed, how the systems of gender, number, plural etc. function, how and why the word-forms change.

So, the morphological analysis is the observation and description of the grammatical elements in a language by studying their form and function. Their phonological variants and their distribution and mutual relationships within larger stretches of speech. It may be either synchronic or diachronic or may be both synchronic and diachronic.

Syntax/Semantics :

The word **Syntax** is derived from a Greek word meaning **ordering together, systematic arrangement or putting together**. It is the study of sentence building, of the ways in which words are

arranged together in order to make larger units. In a language like Greek òr Latin, syntax is mainly concerned with rules or government or concord involving the cases and moods, but in languages like English or Chinese, it tends to become a study of word-order. Aristotle, following the lead of Plato divides the sentence into 'subject' and 'predicate'. The Greek expression which yields our 'parts of speech' really meant 'parts of the sentence'.

However, the chief concern of syntax is the sentence which is the maximal unit of grammatical analysis and the minimal syntactic level is the morpheme. Sentence may be analysed segmentally into phonological units called phonemes and *syllables; into morphological units called morphemes and words* ; and into syntactic units called phrases and clauses.

Syntactic Processes :

Some of the major syntactic processes are :
(1) *Discontinuous constituents*
(2) Recursion
(3) Conjoining
(4) Embedding

Among these four processes, let me show only one example from :-

Embedding : Embedding generally occurs in the cases where the subordinate clause is said to be embedded in the main clause. For example :
The tiger that killed three men worried the people.

The tiger	worried the people.
That killed	three men.
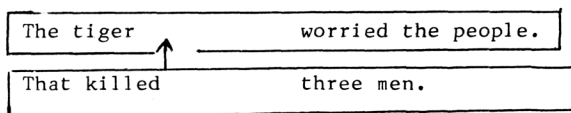
In theory, a sentence can have an indefinite number of sentences embedded in it. A good example of embedding is the Old Nursery Rhyme.

```
┌────────────────┐
│ This is the cat │
└──────────┬─────┘
           ▲
   ┌───────┴─────────┐
   │ That killed the rat │
   └──────────┬────────┘
              ▲
      ┌───────┴────────┐
      │ That ate the malt │
      └───────┬─────────┘
              ▲
         ┌────┴─────────────┐
         │ That lay in the house │
         └────┬─────────────┘
              ▲
         ┌────┴──────────────┐
         │ That Jack built.       │
         └───────────────────┘
```
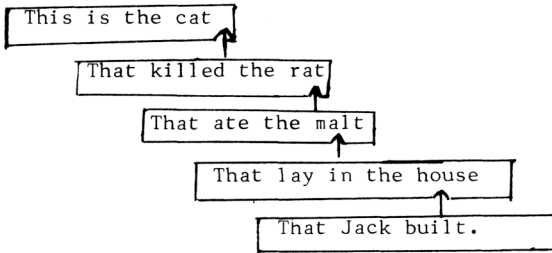
Semantics :

Broadly speaking, the study of meaning is called semantics, which, therefore embraces a wider range than language alone. Semantics can be recognized as a level of linguistic description and as a component of linguistics.

The study of meaning and its manifestation in language is normally referred to as semantic, from the Greek noun sema 'sign' 'signal' and the verb semains 'signal' mean signify. Semantics is that aspect of linguistics which deals with the relations between referents (names) and referends (things) - that is, linguistic levels (words, expressions, phrases) and the objects or concepts or ideas to which they refer and with the history and changes in the meaning of words, diachronic (historical) semantics studies semantic change, whereas synchronic semantics accounts for semantic relationship, simple or multiple. A semantic analysis, for example of English, must also explain antonyms, synonyms, homonyms, polysemy, anomalies, contradictions, paraphrase relations, ambiquities, implications, transformation of the language. It should give an account of semantic properties and relations. Hence to understand the meaning of a sentence and its semantic relations to other expressions, one must know not only the meaning of its lexical elements but also how they inter-relate.

There is a good number of semantic theories. Each of them defines meaning in its own manner. Linguists and earlier scholars of language often had very clear ideas about the importance of meaning and the need for its study. In the study of meaning, there arises some sort of problem or difficulties. For example, difficulties may arise in finding out the essential meaning of the word **table** in **water table, dining table, table of 9, time table, table of precedence, table of amendment** etc. An abstract word like **good** creates even more problem. Nobody can exactly tell what **good** really means. So, the main difficulty is to account facts about essential meanings, multiple meanings and real-word conditions.

There are numerous sentences which are perfectly grammatical, but meaningless. The most famous example is Chomsky's sentence :

✗ Colourless green ideas sleep furiously. Similar other examples are :
✗ The tree ate the elephant
✗ The table sneezed

Language and Related Sciences :

Sociolinguistics :

Sociolinguistics is that part of linguistics which is concerned with language as a social and cultural phenomenon. We can define sociolinguistics as the study of language in relation to society. Sociolinguistics has become a recognised part of most courses at University level on 'linguistics' or 'language'.

Language is a social, cultural, geographical phenomenon. There is a deep relationship between language and society. It is in society that man acquired and uses language.

Socio-linguistics is a fascinating and challenging field of linguistics. It studies the ways in which language interacts with society. Broadly speaking, however, the study of language as part of culture and society has now commonly been accepted as Socio-linguistics. The scope of socio-linguistics therefore, is the interaction of language and various sociologically definable variables such as social class, specific social situation, status and roles of speakers/hearers etc. As J.B. Pride says, socio-linguistics is not simply **'An amalgam of linguistics and sociology (or indeed of linguistics and any other of the social sciences)'**. It incorporates, in principle atleast, every aspect of the structure and use of language that relates to its social and cultural functions. Socio-linguistics, as the term itself suggests, is a discipline that is capable of combining linguistic and societal concerns in varying degrees. The kinds of problems which are faced by the socio-linguist are : the problem of communities which develop a standard language and the reactions of minority groups to this (as in Belgium, India, Pakistan, Bangladesh or Wales), the problems of people who have to be educated to a linguistic level where they an cope with the demands of a variety of social situations (for example, the problem of learning Hindi by the people of Tamil Nadu if they want to have a communication with the common people of North India); the problems caused by bilingualism or multilingualism (for example in India and Canada) or another different problems can be successfully handled by socio-linguistics. But the success of socio-linguistics ultimately depends upon **'pure linguistics'**.

Psycholinguistics :

The word 'Psycholinguistics' denotes a composite of the two discipline, **'psychology'** and **'linguistics'**; if psychology is concerned with the nature and working of the human mind and with the individual's mental phenomena, it is clearly a discipline related in a number of ways to linguistics, thus studies on the relations between language and the individual's behaviour and capabilities are known as **psycholinguistics.** This is a field of considerable activity at the present time, more expecially since several linguists see language as our best key to an understanding of the human mind in general. ˅

The psycho-linguistic revolution inspired by Chomsky's theory of transformational grammar is a true revolution, in the sense that it establishes relationship between stimuli and responses – that verbal responses are directly attached to stimuli without any need for intervening variables such as meaning, ideas or grammatical rules. Psycho-linguistics indicates a concern with linguistic methods to describe the output of language users in child's acquisition of language. Both socio-linguistics and psycho-linguistics are fairly recent development. Much of psycholinguistics has been influenced by generative theory and the so called mentalists. Psycholinguists argue that imitation is not enough, it is not merely by mechanical repetition that children acquire language. They also acquire it by natural exposure. Both nature and nurture influence the acquisition of language in children.

So, linguistics being " Language Studied
Scientifically " has many interrelationships with various
aspects of human life, studied in terms of Psychology,
Anthropology, Sociology, Geography, Philosophy, Physics,
Theology and finally Literature, each of which in its turn
studies human life and surrounding in its own ways.
Basically, a Linguistic Science is a body of knowledge and
understanding concerning the nature and functioning of human
Language, which indicates the ethos and dianoia i.e. ethical
and intellectual qualities in a man and thus, it makes
Linguistics related to psychology at the very outset.

Modern psycholinguistics began as a cooperative
between Linguists and Psychologists during the early 1950's.
Linguistics and psychology had each been strongly influenced
by the logical positivist tradition in philosophy. According
to this doctrine, the only meaningful statements were those
that derived from logic or those that could be directly
tested through empirical observation.

Psycholinguistics is concerned with three
somewhat distinct questions : (1) how language is acquired
during development; (2) how people comprehend language;
and (3) how people produce language. The study of language
comprehension and production forms one field, experimental
psycholinguistics and the study of language acquisition
forms a seperate field, ' developmental psycholinguistics '.

Pragmatics :

The quandary of pragmatics as a subdiscipline
within (or overlapping with) linguistics is illustrated by a

recent circular announcing the foundation of the international pragmatics association. 'Today', the pamphlet begins by conceding, 'Pragmatics is a large, loose and disorganised collection of research effort'. Like other branches of linguistics of undoubted legitimacy, pragmatics has both its 'pure' theoretical side (although the notion 'hardcore pragmatics ' may strike some as an oxymoron) and its applications. A good deal of recent and current work on language development has focussed on the acquisition of pragmatic rules (cf. Ochs & Schieffelin, 1979).

Pragmatics itself may be viewed as internally modulator and interactionist, in the sense that the conceptually distinct subcomponents (suborientations ?) of pragmatic analysis may be simultaneously called upon within a single explanatory account of a given phenomenon, just as autonomous but interacting grammatical systems may interact to yield the simplest, most general and most comprehensive treatment of some linguistic phenomenon (cf. the deconstruction of passive in Chomsky, 1982).

Pragmatics is ' the science of the relation of signs to their interpreters dealing with '. The psychological, biological and sociological phenomena which occur in the functioning of signs '. That pragmatics has developed half a century later into a large, loose and disorganized enterprise should perhaps come as no surprise, given the breath and vagueness inherent in this early definition.

If we adopt either Morris's definition or Stalnaker's succinct characterization (1972:383) of pragmatics as ' the study of linguistic acts and the contexts in which they are performed ' (See Levinson 1983: 1-35 for other attempts of definitions and their inherent difficulties) it follows that the study of pragmatics

antedates the term by centuries if not millennia (the same point can obviously be made about semantics). The interaction between the context of utterance of an expression and the formal interpretation of elements within that expression constitutes a central domain within pragmatics.

NeuroLinguistics :

The past fifteen years have seen an increasing interest by Linguists in the field of neurolinguistics. Broadly construed, neurolinguistics is the study of language and brain relations. Its primary goal is understanding and explicating the neurological bases for language and speech and the nature of the mechanisms and processes implicated in language use. Roman Jakobson was probably the first linguist to realize the potential importance of such a field of study.

Jakobson focussed his attention on the adult aphasias, particularly addressing the primitives and structural properties of language. Their hierarchy and organization (Jakobson 1968, 1971). He provided one of the first indications that language dissolution indeed reflects structural principles inherent in the language system.

Jakobson stressed the major issues in the field of neurolinguistics, particularly with respect to the study of language impairments in adult aphasia.

Much as Linguistics research has been guided by considerations of the structural levels of the linguistic grammar as Phonetics, Phonology, Lexicon, Syntax and Semantics, so have linguistic investigations of aphasia.

In particular, studies have largely attempted to determine whether impairments at a particular level of representation can best exemplify the nature of the language deficit and within a particular level, whether particular structural principles provide an explanatory basis for the language patterns of the patient. For example, much research has focussed on whether the language comprehension impairments of Wernicke's aphasics reflect a deficit in phonological processing and in particular, in 'phonemic hearing' (Luria 1966; Blumstein, Baker and Goodglass 1977; Baker, Blumstein & Goodglass 1981). This deficit is characterized by an inability to perceive the phonological attributes of words correctly. As a result, words which are distinguished by minimal phonological contrasts may be misperceived. For example, the word bee might be misperceived as pea or D.

EthnoLinguistics :

It is the specific study of the interdisciplinary links or relations between ethnology and Linguistics. It is the study of language in relation to the culture of a community.

Language exists mainly through speech and thus only a cooperative effort of the various disciplines such as communications, engineering and physics, medicine and physiology, psychology and linguistic can achieve the solution of the problems of human speech. Language is neither a mechanism nor an organism, neither a dead nor a living thing.

It is language, a very specific human activity, not describable in terms of physics, chemistry or biology.

The best and most laconic expression of this fact was given by W.V. Humboldt, when he declared that language is not an ergon, but an energeia.

In brief, anthropologists, culturists, psychologists and sociologists look to the linguist for basic cooperative effort towards solving cultural problems. They welcome the development of the new science of ethno-linguistics.

As this symposium invites, the study of Language and Linguistics is brought out in this way which shows the complexities and peculiarities of our language which plays a very important role in our day to day life.

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