
UNIT 2 LANGUAGE, LINGUISTICS AND TRANSLATION

Structure

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2.0 OBJECTIVES

In this Unit we shall try to analyse the relation between language and the science of language called linguistics and see how the translator can benefit from a knowledge of both.

After you have read this Unit, you should be able to :

- define language and linguistics;
- describe the nature of language as a code system, as social behaviour and as structure;
- give an account of the theory of linguistics pertaining to the functions of language;
- analyse how a scientific knowledge of language can help the translator in his/her task.

2.1 INTRODUCTION

The art of translation (or the science of translation as others might like to call it) deals with transferring the message from one language to another. It is possible that the more gifted translator who has a masterly command of both the source language and the target language may perhaps not need any training in translation. But in the modern world where translation has been developed as a profession or skill, it would be necessary to formulate a theory of translation and to give training in the method of translation. The training in translation would entail practice in the process of translation; and would also require a knowledge of the language and its structure and the use of other tools of translation viz. dictionaries, encyclopaedias etc.

Linguistics is a science of language. Earlier philologists devoted most of their time to the study of the evolution of language and the changes brought about by the passage of time. Modern linguistics views language as a significant aspect of the modern social structure. Language is used in human societies for communication in various fields. Society develops a language for day-to-day communications and for fostering and communicating the knowledge gained over thousands of years to future generations.

The science of language called linguistics deals with the organization of language *per se*. As you know, languages are built up of the basic material called words which are combined into sentences to express many complex ideas. The science called linguistics studies in depth the organization of language using sounds and words.

We hope that the knowledge of the functions of language as well as its structure would be helpful as background knowledge for translators in accomplishing their work satisfactorily. In this Unit we shall discuss the three major aspects of language—language as communication, language as social product, and language as structure.

2.2 LANGUAGE AS COMMUNICATION

Communication is a basic need of all living beings. Every living being has to communicate with other members of their community. The communication of bees about the location of a field of flowers where enough honey can be procured, is called dancing. A bee which locates some such flowerbed comes back to the beehive and flies in circles. The very circumference of the circles as well as the number of circles in its flights communicate to the other members of the beehive the location of the flowerbed, the probable amount of honey available etc. On getting the information required a number of bees make a beeline for the flowerbed. This is visual communication. Ants are known to communicate with their fellow-beings by emitting chemicals from their body. Only the higher order animals i.e. mammals, bird's etc. communicate orally. They utter sounds to denote varying moods or intentions. For example, the whimpering of a dog signifies its docility. The growl of a dog denotes its anger. Dolphins use about 40 different sounds for communication with their fellow beings. This means that a dolphin is capable of conveying 40 different messages to fellow-dolphins. We call this a one-to-one correspondence for communication. To elaborate this we can say that animals can only communicate as many messages as the number of sounds they make.

Human-beings communicate mainly through speech sounds. The number of speech sounds that the languages in the world have varies from 25 to about 55. Let us consider for a moment that Hindi has about 52 sounds. If each sound were to denote one message then human beings speaking Hindi would be capable of conveying only about 52 messages. But this does not happen as we are capable of conveying thousands of messages as can be witnessed from the number of words contained in a Hindi dictionary. How is it that the language of animals is not capable of conveying many messages whereas we, using similar speech sounds, are capable of doing so? To understand this, we must try to find out what a code system is.

You have often seen the traffic signal at a traffic junction. These signals are three in number. The red indicates that the vehicles have to stop. The green signal suggests that the vehicles can move and the orange light suggests that the vehicles have to be in a state of readiness. In this system we have a one-to-one correspondence because the three signals can only give three messages. Is there a way of giving more messages by combining these three different signals? For example, green plus orange might mean a message like 'go slow'. **The combination of signals to produce more messages is called a code system.** In languages we do the same thing. We combine sounds (vowels and consonants) in different orders to produce thousands and thousands of words.

In fact the signs used in language for conveying messages is not the sound but the words created by combining messages. By using different sounds in the same kind of word structure we get different words signifying different messages (meaning). As an example you can see three different words in English in which the first letter (sound) is different and we have three different words:

pin
kin
tin

In any language signal (i.e. the word) we use sounds as features to distinguish one word from another. The different words thus produced denote different sounds. So human beings are capable of producing millions of words in their languages by using the mere 30 or 40 sounds that they have.

We talked about the three different words : /pin,/kin/tin/. How exactly do the words denote different meanings? Is there anything inherent in the sounds which

distinguish the words and allot a meaning to words of which they are a part? The words of a language are linguistic signs that have been ascribed a meaning by society. The sounds that form a part of the word do not have any meaning in themselves. For example 'T' in English does not have a meaning of its own. Though some scholars have tried to find some semblance of meaning in the combination of letters in some languages. We do not have any concrete evidence to prove that sounds have meanings in languages. One such example is the word for 'mother' in most languages of the world. The majority of words denoting mother have the M sound. The reason for this perhaps is that it is the first sound that the child is capable of producing for the very nearest person that it has by its side. Similarly in English words like: fluid, fly, flow, flee etc. seem to connote a meaning of slow movement. But such occurrences cannot be generalized for all words in all languages. This characteristic of words being assigned a meaning in languages is called **arbitrariness**. Languages pick up or create any word to denote a specific message in the community in which it is spoken. Thus we have differing words for the same concept in different languages. What we call a mango in English is आम in Hindi. The word mango or आम do not have any intrinsic meaning emerging out of the sounds used therein. It is only an arbitrary assigning of meaning. If in English the word mango changes and some other word replaces it to denote the same meaning then the original word loses its meaning. We have evidence of such change of meaning in words in many languages due to historical development. Thus it is the society which decides the meaning of words and most of the meanings assigned to words are arbitrary.

Exercise I

- 1) State whether each of the statements is True or False.
 - i) The road signals have a one-to-one correspondence with their meaning.
 - ii) The speech sounds are indicative of the meaning that the words consisting of them express.
 - iii) The arbitrary signs of language are called words.
 - iv) The change of meaning of particular words suggest that the users have the last word.
 - v) Words alone are not sufficient for expressing complex ideas.
- 2) Fill in the blanks using the appropriate word given :
 - i) The sound-meaning correlation of animal speech is called..... relation. (arbitrary/involuntary)
 - ii) Humans are capable of creating thousands of words using a..... number of speech sounds. (limited/large)
 - iii) Different words are created by..... a sound by another in a word. (replacing/releasing)
 - iv) Only humans are capable of creating an elaborate..... system using sounds (code/sound).
- 3) Describe the following in your own words.
 - i) Arbitrary meaning
.....
.....
.....
 - ii) Linguistic sign
.....
.....
.....

2.3 LANGUAGE AS A PRODUCT OF SOCIETY

You learnt in the last section that it is society that assigns meanings to linguistic signs. In that sense, the use of language is governed by the conventions of society. Is

that the only connection between language and society? What are the significant uses of language in society? How does society influence language use? The answers to these questions may give you a better idea of what language means to us in society and how we shape its form.

2.3.1 Language as Behaviour

As mentioned earlier, philologists of the 18th-19th centuries were more interested in the evolution of and changes that took place in language. It was only in the later part of 19th century and early 20th century that anthropologists like Malinowski and Franz Boas and linguists like Edward Sapir took great interest in the significance of language in society and its culture. In fact modern linguistics owes its origin to anthropologists.

The Modern anthropologists evolved the approach called 'behaviourism' to objectively study the different cultures of the world. To simplify matters one could define 'behaviourism' as the study of the behaviour of human beings on the basis of observed, empirical data, whereby the researchers only described the pattern of culture on the basis of objective observations rather than deducing conclusions of what they might mean. The behavioural approach also pervaded the study of languages and linguists started stating that language is behaviour, or more precisely, social behaviour.

It was Leonard Bloomfield an American linguist who furthered the idea of behaviourism in the study of languages. He wrote his book called **Language** in 1933. In the first chapter of the book he equates linguistic behaviour with other kinds of social behaviour. One may just smile or raise a hand to greet a friend; it is an observable behaviour. One may as well just utter the word 'Hello' to greet others; it is also an observable behaviour. In fact human beings while communicating with others combine both verbal behaviour and physical movements (gestures etc.) to convey something. The speech behaviour of a language speaker can be observed, his/her language noted down as data for analysis and the form of the language described (or the language structure analysed). Hence, this method of linguistics is called descriptive linguistics or structural linguistics.

According to Bloomfield language is habit, as most human behaviour is. We acquire most of our social actions by observing other's actions, mimicking them and acting similarly. Likewise, language is also acquired from society by an individual by constant interaction. If a person were to be kept out of human contact, she/he will never learn a language. The wolf-boy Ramu who was brought up by a pack of wolves learnt only to growl and grunt and never spoke a word of human language. This theory demolished the notion of language being a hereditary or inborn quality. One has to acquire language from the society one lives in irrespective of what language his/her parents speak in the same way that one acquires patterns of social behaviour like table manners, eating habits, way of dressing, social intercourse etc.

2.3.2 The Social Meaning of Language

Each individual occupies a unique position in society. The individual has a social status and has many social roles to play. A man is a son to his parents, a husband to his wife and a father to his progeny. In the office he is a senior to his subordinates and a subordinate to his seniors. By profession he may be a factory worker or an office clerk and the like. Thus the different roles one has to play in society allows for social stratification. We stratify (or, in other words, classify) human society into different groups viz. male and female, urban and rural, educated and uneducated, the aged and the young etc. Elders or seniors or the rich show the status of power while the younger, the subordinate or the poor show lack of power. Thus the aged etc. command respect and young have to pay respect.

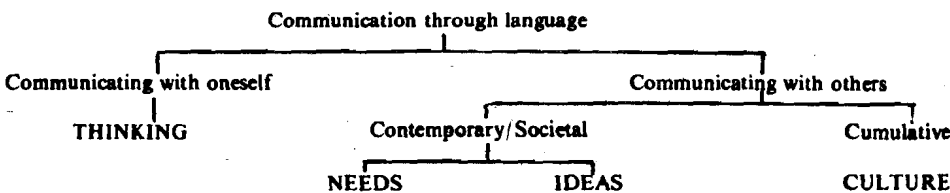
The behavioural patterns of persons in society are expressed through their actions. But the physical actions may not be able to express all aspects of the social set-up and the place of an individual in it. It is only language that elaborates the complex social set-up that we live in. The use of pronouns in languages is an example of stratification in society. Most languages (as also Indian languages) have two-way pronouns for second persons, whereas languages like English have only one i.e. 'you'. Thus while translating from English to Hindi you must be careful in the selection of Hindi आप or तम as a wrong choice would reverse the original meaning intended.

Similarly address terms also denote the social status of a person. We may take the liberty of addressing a person of low social status by 'Hey', but must use 'Milord' while addressing a sitting judge in the court or use 'Your Highness/Excellency' while addressing a person of royal blood. The difference lies in the use of language. Thus the linguistic behaviour of people in human societies is intricately interwoven with other acts of social behaviour which express the status an individual holds.

The linguistic implication of the choice of words in the target language should be in consonance with the social behaviour as expressed in the source language. The use of **आप** in Hindi to address the husband shows a power relation; the use of **तुम** shows solidarity (i.e. intimacy) between the spouses. Thus a translator of English (into Hindi) has the option of using either of the address terms depending upon the power-solidarity equation and will have to make a judicious choice.

2.3.3 Language as a Means of Communication

Language is a vehicle of thoughts ideas. Human society has perfected a system of using speech sounds produced by the vocal organs to communicate very complex ideas. The communication of ideas of an individual can be shown diagrammatically as follows:



Now let us explain the terms used in the diagram :

- i) Need based communication is seen in our day-to-day conversations. This is the basic level of communication, adopted even by the animals. The animals, using growls and grunts etc. are capable of expressing hunger or desire, fear or anger, pain or pleasure. We, at this level, can express ourselves, without using the language, by gestures and signs. But, as the basic needs become more complex, with reference to past events and future possibilities, one may have to take recourse to the more complex patterns of oral expression.
- ii) Ideas are abstract in character. We may surmise that ideas are not possible without language. Can the animals use the power of arguing to solve a problem? Can they think in terms of value i.e. decide what is right and what is wrong? Can animals think about the pros and cons of their own actions? We do not have any conclusive proof that they can. We know that most of their actions are involuntary, observed as reflex actions. It is due to language that human beings are capable of abstract ideas.
- iii) The knowledge gained by society over the thousands of years of human development is preserved and passed on to successive generations. The body of knowledge thus preserved is its culture comprising literature, arts, sciences, medicine, religion, philosophy, customs and rituals. In simpler societies, which do not have a writing system, the cultural component, is simple. With advancement in knowledge, the culture of a society becomes more complex and enriched.

Thinking is auto communication. Thinking is also not possible without language. Thinking is based on the knowledge available to the individual from society and its culture.

Before we wind up the discussion of language in society, we would like to sum up the relation of an individual with the society. Humans are social beings (or 'social animals') and have to learn to live in a society. So, they are expected to follow the norms prescribed by society. This process is called 'socialization'. When a child starts acquiring a language s/he learns not only to communicate through the language, but also learns to be a member of the society. Language and social life are inseparable. When s/he learns the meaning of words, it is not only development of perception, but conceptualisation or cognition. Thus it is only due to language that we are capable of extending the domain of ideas and our languages help us quicken this process.

You also perhaps might have noticed in the foregoing discussion that societies differ in their structure, because of differing socio-economic levels; cultures across the world differ because of different social customs and different rates of development. The differences in societies and cultures are reflected in their languages. A translator must keep in mind such differences in the languages so that s/he can give a true picture of the society and culture of the target language.

2.3.4 Language Variations

One of the primary concerns of socio-linguists is the various forms of language spoken in a society. Linguistics selects one single variety of language for study. Grammars usually describe the so-called standard language. Literature generally uses only the standard, literary variety of a language. All other varieties of language called dialects, jargon pertaining to specific fields, slang, colloquial speech, argot (speech spoken and understood by only a small class of people especially thieves) are usually thought of as insignificant and not worth studying. Socio-linguistics take all speeches obtained in a society as forming one language code, in various forms. It tries to study language in its entirety.

The language varieties can be broadly classified into three categories. They are :

- i) Dialects
- ii) Registers
- iii) Styles.

i) Dialects : The dialects, or more precisely the regional dialects, are language varieties spread over the language region. Usually the dialect of one place differs from that of another. Dialects of contiguous areas are more communicable (i.e., show minimum difference). Thus, the dialects at the extremes of a region may be said to have less communicability. However all dialects fall under the umbrella of the language that they belong to. Usually the speakers of all dialects adopt the standard language for higher pursuits of knowledge viz., education, mass communication, literature etc.

ii) Registers : As you know well, the society is stratified into groups based on age, sex, profession, educational background. We can think of specific varieties of speech forms for each stratum, indicative of the stratum of society the speaker belongs to. Thus we can usually identify the profession of a speaker by his/her speech. The different speeches of the strata of society are called registers. Some scholars prefer to call them social dialects or sociolects in short.

Of what use is the study of registers to us? Why should we study different registers? We have, within the registers, two different varieties. The speech of specific groups is given different names. We talk of the language of businessmen, the speech of the uneducated is called colloquial speech, the secret code used by criminals is called argot, specific groups of speakers are said to have a different slang of their own. The study of such varieties may be of significance to us translators, as we may have to transfer the kind of speech variety used in the SL into the TL text, so that the personality of the persons using them may be brought out appropriately.

The second variety of registers are jargon related to various professions, such as the language of law, administration, science and technology or mass communication. These registers are needed by people who adopt these professions, or by those who train themselves in these so that they can enter these professions. Due to the usefulness of these registers in one's profession, they are called functional registers. The SL text of a particular variety should be translated in an equivalent register in the TL. A legal language text of SL, couched in non-legal language in the TL will be useless as a legal document. The translator must be conversant with the technical terms of different functional varieties in both the languages and should also know the basic features of the functional registers.

iii) Styles : The style is a feature peculiar (or unique) to the individual user. We usually talk only of literary styles of great writers. But all languages speakers have or develop a style of their own. On the basis of individual styles, the style of a particular group of speakers or an era in literature can also be analysed. We can talk of the style of romantic poets of English or of the 'chayavad' school of modern Hindi poetry. Similarly, we can talk of the style of mixing English and Hindi words

2.4 LANGUAGE AS STRUCTURE

We discussed in the previous sections that words are signs that carry meaning. But we do not speak out a sequence of independent words, but utter sentences using words. In fact, a list of words would not convey any meaning in the way we express our ideas.

For example : Man go shop bicycle bring butter.

Do the words give you any specific information? You may make guesses; but the guesses might be too many to be of any use. We can locate the exact meaning of these words when they are linked together into a sentence.

Structure is an essential feature of most of the things we see around. A heap of components that go into making a bicycle, do not convey the 'meaning' of the final product. The components will have to be arranged in a specific order so that each part of the bicycle performs the function for which it is made. The brake stops the vehicle on the move; the pedal pulls the chain along so that the wheels are moved. These are the functions of the components. The function of a bicycle is to carry the cyclist. Finally the components have to be in proper order in relation to the others. The pedal cannot be kept so low that the cyclist is not able to reach it. Thus, in a structure we need to have the following features.

- i) We must have components. The component is a constituent of the structure of which it is a part. The component in turn may have its own components, as the wheel having a tyre and a tube, the rim and the spokes etc. Thus, the bicycle is a structure built up of components (or constituents)! It is a structure of a higher order. The constituent itself is a structure, which is of a lower order. Thus the structures of varying orders that go into the making of a whole is called the hierarchy of structures. The hierarchical structure of any system gives us an idea of how all the components of the systems are arranged and function at respective levels.
- ii) The different sub-structures have 'meaning' in the way they combine to give the highest order structure (i.e. the whole system). This is the function of the different constituents in a structure. For proper functioning they have to be in proper place (this is called the feature of concatenation); they must have proper balance with each (this we will call 'agreement', in the context of language).

We may now compare the structure of language with that of any other system. We all know that languages have structural arrangement as enunciated by the rules of grammar. What are the properties of language structure? What are its components and its sub-structures? What is the function of components in its sub-structures and of the sub-structures in the structure? As you have learnt so far, the words of the language are made up of speech sounds and the words combine to form sentences. The renowned French linguist Andre Martinet calls this "double articulation". According to him the first articulation is that of speech sounds. Hence we can view language as a system of speech sounds used to construct the meaningful words and sentences therefrom. The second articulation is that of meaningful words combining into language expressions. In addition we have a third dimension of meaning derived from the words. Thus we can describe the structure of language as having three sub-systems. They are :

- i) Phonological structure
- ii) Grammatical structure
- iii) Semantic structures.

Syntax has three following components: phrases, clauses and sentences. You are aware of these three as most school grammars talk of them. Grammars usually present the structure of phrases etc. in a traditional way. In linguistics, the concept is analysed in a more global way, so that it may apply to languages in general.

The phrase is the primary level of a sentence. Each sentence consists of a few functional units, such as the subject, the object and the predicate. The subject and the object are occupied by a noun phrase, the predicate is reflected by a verb phrase. In addition, we also have the adverbial phrase of time, adverbial phrase of place, adverbial phrase of manner etc.

The clause is a part of the sentence, having at least a verb phrase (and more phrases on expansion). In simple sentences, we have one clause; in compound sentences we have more than one clause connected by 'and' etc.; in a complex sentence, we have more than one clause with connectors like 'if', 'who' etc.

The hierarchy of grammatical structures start from the morpheme progressively going upto the sentence. The morpheme is the minimal unit of grammar with no construction of its own. It is made of phonemes. The words contain one or more morphemes; the phrase contains one or more words; the clause contains at least one phrase; the sentence has one or more clauses. We present here below the grammatical structure of language. The sentence is not a component of any higher structure.

Grammar		
Hierarchical order of structures	Types	Functions
Sentence	Declarative Interrogative Imperative Negative etc.	i) Convey contextual meaning ii) Broken, etc.
Clause	Independent Dependent (Conditional, correlative-noun clause Adjectival clause etc.)	i) Basic meaning—what, when, etc. ii) Extended—passives etc.
Phrase	Noun phrase verb phrase, Adverb phrase, Adjective phrase etc.	Subject, Object, Complement verb, adjunct
Word	Noun, Adjective Adverb, verb Pronouns.	Noun-gender, number; Pronoun-gender, number, person; verb-gender, number, person, tense, mood, aspect..
Morpheme	Independent (boy, go, now) etc., Dependent, plural (s), past tense (ed) prefix (nn) ect.	Noun Verb

We have described the grammatical structure of a language in a very generalized way, so that you can get a glimpse of how language structures are described. This is not, however, the ultimate in language description. In fact, the descriptive analysis of structural linguists has been criticized by the American linguist Naom Chomsky and his followers. Chomsky propounded his theory called transformation-generative grammar (T-G grammar, in short), where he criticized the basic concepts of structural linguistics. He takes the sentence as the starting point for analysis (and not the morpheme as in earlier theory) and goes down to the last components. His analysis of a sentence in T-G grammar would look like

Noun phrase	Verb phrase		
	Verb phrase	Noun phrase	
Noun proper	Verb	Demonstrative	Noun common
John	ate	a	mango

Let us not go into any more details of this controversy. We want first to point out the different approaches to the study of grammar. If you are interested in them, you may study books on linguistics.

Semantic Structure

Structural linguists did not describe the structure of meaning, as according to them, the structural description of language itself explains the contextual meaning. For example the suffix-less (as in colourless) denotes that the word has the opposite meaning. The noun preceding the verb denotes the subject of the sentence, as in 'He sleeps well'. Chomsky's main attack on structural linguistics was on the way they described meaning by context. Thus, he questioned the very basis of the structural analysis of language. To illustrate his point, Chomsky gives a classic example of a nonsensical sentence.

The Colourless green ideas sleep furiously

This is a well-formed sentence with a subject, predicate and an adverb. But the structural description cannot bring out the oddity of its import. Chomsky says that no structural description is possible unless the linguist sees what meaning it conveys. Let us take one of his examples that displays ambiguity in meaning.

Flying planes can be dangerous

The sentence conveys that i) Planes that fly can be dangerous and ii) It can be dangerous to fly a plane. The structural description above cannot explain the ambiguity. One should know what the speaker had in mind before attempting to produce the structure. Thus, it is not the structure which explains the meaning, but the underlying meaning which explains the structure.

The early semanticists discussed meaning in language, but did not attempt a semantic structure of the language. The T-G grammar, as opposed to the structuralists ascribe meaning a central place in language description. We will not go into the details of the controversies, but would only like to mention that the structure of meaning or the semantic structure of meaning is still not in the shape of a theory. We would only like to mention the basic approaches to the study of meaning.

Meaning is of great significance to linguistic philosophers. The branch of logic, called symbolic logic, describes how the logical meaning of a sentence can be analysed in terms of equations like the algebraic equations.

The T-G grammar and its later development attempt to analyse the semantic structure of language. The present grammarians try to figure out how the use of a particular word controls (is controlled by) the sentence in which it occurs. For example, 'talk' would trigger the use of 'to somebody'.

The semanticists discuss synonymy, polysemy, collocation, etc. for studying the semantic features of words. Lexicographers today try to analyse the contextual meaning of words in relation to their use in the sentence, for example.

Sociolinguists try to find out how the meaning of words are perceived differently by different societies. Indian languages have more terms for relations, whereas English has fewer terms. What is explained by 'cousin' in English, has many equivalents in Hindi as चचेरा, भमेरा, फुफेरा, मौसेरा - भाई/बहन. The difference is not there in the semantic structure of the language, but in the way society treats the system of relations. Likewise some languages have only two colour terms and others more. Thus the English speaker differentiates between yellow and red; the speaker of the former language may not indicate this difference always. Thus language structure controls the perception of the speakers in a particular community.

Semiologists study meaning in a very broad perspective. For them, language alone is not a code system, but every article or artifact of culture is a sign that conveys a message. They would like to study the structure of meaning in arts, literature, rituals. Pragmatics studies the meaning not from the point of what the sign conveys, but from what the speaker intends to convey through the signs.

With scholars of so many fields interested in meaning, it is no wonder that we do not have a definite theory of semantic structure. As a translator it is worthwhile to know what the scholars are doing, so that we can approach meaning in a systematic manner.

2.5 LINGUISTICS AND TRANSLATION

Linguistics is the science of language. It describes the sounds used in a language to build the utterances; it studies the way the meaningful units of language (morphemes, words etc.) combine to produce meaningful sentences; it explains how the linguistic units (sentence etc.) convey the meaning from the speaker to the listener. In written language, we have the additional component of writing (i.e. script).

Translation in the science of conveying in the target language (i.e. the language into which the original is translated) the message originally expressed in the source language (i.e. the language from which the translation is to be done). Thus s/he has to find appropriate equivalents at all levels. The SL words should be expressed by TL words; the SL grammatical constructions should be translated into TL grammatical structures, so that the linking of ideas is maintained; the SL meaning (i.e. the message of the SL text) should be converted to TL meaning (i.e. into a properly translated text) so that the impact on the TL reader is akin to what the reader of SL text in his/her own language might have. The science of translation can take the help of linguistics in understanding the functioning of language structures. Hence, some scholars call the field of translation a branch of linguistics, called "applied linguistics".

A word of caution, however. As you know well now, no two languages have the same structure. Thus, it would be impossible for us to find two language having the same set of words with similar meaning so that one can mechanically put the equivalent TL word for the SL word. The words differ greatly in the range of meaning they have. It may not be an exaggeration to say that every word of a language differs in its meaning from that of another. Hindi एक has the meaning of English 'one', 'a/an', etc. English 'one' has the meaning of एक, कोई (someone), किसी (one day) etc. Given this variation, study of language can only give the translator an insight into the nature of differences in languages and the problems s/he may have to face in translating. If the translator knows how or in what way languages differ in their structures, s/he will be in a state of readiness to look for such problem areas before starting to translate.

The training of translators provides, on the one hand the contrastive analysis of two different languages as necessary basic information. On the other hand it provides the basic tools the translator might need for reference, such as dictionaries, glossaries pertaining to specific areas of knowledge, atlases/maps/list of proper names in the target language.

Exercise III

- 1) The system of language has the three following structures:
 - a)..... b)..... c).....
- 2) Morphology means..... level grammar and Syntax means..... level grammar.
- 3) Choose the appropriate word and fill in the blanks.
 - i) The phonological level of language structure deals with..... (speech sounds/phonemes).
 - ii) Morpheme is the minimum..... unit of grammar. (useful/meaningful)

- iii) Of the three structures of language..... is the least well-defined area of study. (morphology/semantics)
 - iv) The translator transfers message from the..... language into the..... language (target, source)
 - v) The translator must render his/her translation into the..... register/style as of the original text. (exact/appropriate)
- 5) Explain with 5 examples each the difference in the following areas in Hindi and English.
- a) Pronouns
 - b) Clause structure
 - c) Speech sounds
 - d) Word meanings.

2.6 LET US SUM UP

Language is a part of social structure. We all learn language from the society we live in. Most of us learn the language (as a mother tongue) before we gain wisdom as an adult. The language we use in day-to-day life seems to be such a natural thing as walking or manual work that we hardly realize the significance of its use or complexity of its form. As a translator one should know how language functions and how languages vary.

Language is a semantic system—a system of codes that we use to communicate our ideas with. The signs of the language (i.e. the words) are built into a system of ordered structures. In that sense language is a structure. Language is a product of society. It is society which adopts and shapes this system for social intercourse as well as for cultural communication. The study of the structural analysis of languages is called linguistics or more precisely formal linguistics. The language in society is studied in socio-linguistics.

At all these levels, we talk about meaning. Semantics deals with the meaning of signs. The meaning of structure falls within the realm of grammar. This we call grammatical meaning. The meaning of the various forms and styles of language used in the society can be called social meaning of language. Thus meaning occupies a central place in the study of languages.

The translator has to transfer the message (meaning) of the source language into the target language using the form of the language in both SL and TL as the vehicle. Since language differ in form, display a large varieties of speeches as used in the society and the meaning assigned to language differs from society to society, the translator has to know how effectively it can be done and what problems s/he may have to face in doing so. The study of the science of language and proper training based on linguistics might help the translator accomplish the task more satisfactorily.

2.7 SUGGESTED READING

J.C. Catford, *A Linguistic Theory of Translation*, London: Oxford, 1965.

E.A Nida, *Towards a Science of Translation*, Leinden: E.J. Brill, 1964.

2.8 ANSWERS TO EXERCISES

Exercise I

- 1) i) True, ii) False, iii) True, iv) True, v) True
- 2) i) involuntary, ii) limited, iii) replacing, iv) code
- 3) i) No natural connection between words and meaning. It is socially accepted.
ii) Word is a linguistic sign. It signals a meaning. The signs are built into a system of codes.

Theoretical Background-I

Exercise II

- 1) i) b, ii) c, iii) a, iv) c, v) b
- 2) a) True, b) False, c) True, d) False, e) False
- 3) a) human; b) power; c) socialization;
d) person; e) different

Exercise III

- 1) a) Phonology b) Grammar c) Semantics
- 2) word, sentence
- 3) i) speech sounds; ii) meaningful;
ii) semantics, iv) target, source;
v) appropriate