

## COMPREHENSIVE STUDY NOTES

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### LANGUAGE: ORIGIN, HISTORY & COMMUNICATION

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#### Topics Covered:

- ◆ Origin of Languages ◆
- ◆ History and Growth of Languages ◆
- ◆ Development of Languages ◆
- ◆ Role of Languages in Human Communication ◆
- ◆ Difference Between Language & Speech ◆

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## 1. ORIGIN OF LANGUAGE

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Language is one of the most complex and uniquely human attributes. The question of how language originated has fascinated scholars, philosophers, and scientists for centuries. No single theory has been universally accepted, yet each contributes valuable insights into the evolutionary, cognitive, and social dimensions of human communication.

### 1.1 Definition of Language

Language is a structured system of communication that uses symbols — sounds, gestures, or written signs — governed by grammatical rules to convey meaning. It is the primary means through which human beings express thoughts, emotions, and knowledge, and is central to culture, cognition, and social organization.

### 1.2 Major Theories of Language Origin

#### A. The Divine Origin Theory

One of the oldest theories, upheld across many cultures and religious traditions, holds that language was a divine gift. In the Hindu tradition, language (Vak) was considered sacred and bestowed by the goddess Saraswati. In the Abrahamic traditions, God gave Adam the ability to name all living creatures. The ancient Egyptians attributed language to the god Thoth. While not scientifically verifiable, this view underscores the profound importance of language in human civilization.

#### B. The Bow-Wow Theory (Onomatopoeia Theory)

Proposed by Max Muller and later by scholars like Edward Tylor, this theory suggests that early human language developed through imitation of natural sounds — animals, thunder, wind, water. Primitive humans heard a dog bark and coined the word 'bow-wow.' Words like 'cuckoo,' 'murmur,' 'splash,' and 'hiss' are surviving onomatopoeic examples. This theory explains some vocabulary but cannot account for abstract words or grammatical structures.

#### C. The Pooh-Pooh Theory (Interjection Theory)

Associated with scholars like Herder and Jespersen, this theory argues that language began as emotional exclamations — cries of pain, surprise, joy, or fear. These instinctive sounds ('ouch!', 'oh!', 'ah!') gradually became codified into linguistic symbols. While interjections are universal, they are a minor component of any language and this theory alone cannot explain the full complexity of language.

### **D. The Yo-He-Ho Theory (Physiological-Adaptation Theory)**

Proposed by Noiré, this theory suggests that language evolved from the rhythmic grunts and sounds made during communal physical labor. When early humans worked together — hauling, lifting, hunting — they produced coordinated sounds that gradually took on communicative meaning. This theory connects language emergence to social cooperation and collective activity.

### **E. The Sing-Song Theory (La-La Theory)**

Otto Jespersen proposed that language originated from song, play, and emotional expression — particularly in romantic and aesthetic contexts — rather than from practical needs. Language, in this view, was initially lyrical and musical before becoming utilitarian. This theory emphasizes the emotional and artistic roots of human communication.

### **F. The Gesture Theory**

Supported by researchers including Michael Corballis, this influential theory proposes that language began with hand gestures and eventually shifted to vocalization. Evidence includes: the manual dexterity of early hominids, similarities between sign languages and spoken languages in brain processing, and the fact that great apes can learn symbolic gestures more readily than vocal sounds. The evolution of upright posture and the freeing of hands may have been a key precondition.

### **G. The Social Interaction / Grooming Theory**

Robin Dunbar's influential 'Social Brain Hypothesis' proposes that language evolved as a form of 'vocal grooming' to maintain social bonds as human groups became too large for physical grooming. Language allowed early humans to exchange social information, build trust, coordinate behavior, and manage complex social networks of up to 150 individuals.

### **H. The Evolutionary / Biological Theory (Nativism)**

Noam Chomsky's theory of Universal Grammar proposes that humans are biologically pre-programmed for language — we possess an innate Language Acquisition Device (LAD) in the brain. Steven Pinker extended this with his concept of the 'language instinct,' arguing that language is an evolved biological adaptation shaped by natural selection. Evolutionary linguists cite the development of the Broca's area and Wernicke's area in the brain, and the uniquely descended human larynx, as biological evidence.

### **Key Insight:**

Most modern linguists believe language origin was multi-causal: biological evolution of the brain and vocal tract, social pressures, the need for cooperation, and cognitive development all worked together over hundreds of thousands of years.

## **1.3 Age of Language**

Estimating the age of language is difficult since spoken language leaves no direct fossil record. Key evidence comes from:

- **Archaeology:** Cave paintings (~40,000 years ago) suggest symbolic thinking and therefore likely language.
- **Anatomy:** The descended larynx in Homo sapiens (evolved ~100,000–200,000 years ago) allows for the complex sounds of speech.
- **Genetics:** The FOXP2 gene, associated with language and speech, appeared in modern humans ~200,000 years ago.
- **Tool Use:** Sophisticated tools (~300,000–500,000 years ago) suggest coordinated planning and possibly language.

Most scholars estimate language in some form emerged between 50,000 and 150,000 years ago among early Homo sapiens.

## 2. HISTORY AND GROWTH OF LANGUAGES

The history of language encompasses the story of human civilization itself — how populations migrated, interacted, traded, conquered, and adapted over millennia, leaving linguistic traces that scholars decode today.

### 2.1 Proto-Languages and Language Families

Linguists study the history of language through the comparative method, reconstructing ancient 'proto-languages' by identifying systematic similarities across related languages. The most studied is Proto-Indo-European (PIE), spoken approximately 5,000–7,000 years ago, from which English, Hindi, Latin, Greek, Persian, and hundreds of other languages descended.

#### Major Language Families of the World

Language Family	Geographic Origin	Major Languages	Speakers (approx.)
Indo-European	Central Asia / Pontic Steppe	English, Hindi, Spanish, Russian, Persian	3.2 billion+
Sino-Tibetan	East Asia	Mandarin, Cantonese, Tibetan, Burmese	1.4 billion+
Afro-Asiatic	North Africa / Middle East	Arabic, Hebrew, Amharic, Somali	500 million+
Austronesian	Taiwan / Pacific	Malay, Tagalog, Hawaiian, Malagasy	386 million+
Niger-Congo	Sub-Saharan Africa	Swahili, Yoruba, Zulu, Igbo	350 million+
Dravidian	South Asia	Tamil, Telugu, Kannada, Malayalam	250 million+
Japonic	Japan	Japanese	128 million+

Turkic	Central Asia	Turkish, Uzbek, Kazakh, Uyghur	170 million+
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## 2.2 Timeline of Language History

### Prehistoric Period (Before 3500 BCE)

During this vast period, language existed entirely in oral form. Early human communities used language for survival — hunting coordination, social bonding, sharing knowledge about food and danger. Oral traditions preserved myths, histories, and practical knowledge across generations. No written records survive, but archaeological evidence of symbolic behavior (ochre engravings, bead jewelry, cave art) supports complex linguistic capability.

### Ancient Period (3500 BCE – 500 CE)

This era witnessed humanity's greatest linguistic revolution: the invention of writing. Writing transformed language from a purely ephemeral spoken phenomenon into a permanent, transmissible record.

- **Cuneiform script developed in Sumeria (Mesopotamia) — initially for record-keeping (trade, taxes). Written in clay tablets. 3500–3100 BCE:**
- **Egyptian Hieroglyphics developed — a complex system blending phonetic signs, ideograms, and determinatives. 3100 BCE:**
- **Indus Valley Script (yet undeciphered) used in the Indian subcontinent. 2000 BCE:**
- **Phoenician Alphabet created — the first true alphabet with 22 consonants; ancestor of Hebrew, Arabic, Greek, Latin, and most modern alphabets. 1500 BCE:**
- **Greek alphabet adapted from Phoenician, adding vowels — a revolutionary innovation. 800 BCE:**
- **Sanskrit codified by Panini in the 'Ashtadhyayi' — the world's first formal grammatical analysis. Latin spread with the Roman Empire. 500 BCE–400 CE:**

### Medieval Period (500–1500 CE)

- Latin remained the language of scholarship, religion, and diplomacy across Europe while vernacular languages evolved.
- Arabic became the lingua franca of science, philosophy, and trade across the Islamic world.
- Classical Chinese served a similar function in East Asia.
- Old English, Old French, Middle High German, and other vernaculars developed distinct identities.
- Sanskrit declined as a spoken language but remained authoritative in Indian scholarship and religion.

### Early Modern Period (1500–1800 CE)

- The printing press (Gutenberg, ~1450) standardized spelling, grammar, and vocabulary, and accelerated the spread of literacy.
- European exploration and colonization spread Portuguese, Spanish, French, English, and Dutch globally, often at the expense of indigenous languages.
- Major vernacular literature emerged: Dante's Italian, Shakespeare's English, Cervantes' Spanish.
- Comparative linguistics was born: scholars began systematically comparing Sanskrit, Greek, and Latin.

### Modern Period (1800–Present)

- Historical linguistics formalized as a science; Proto-Indo-European reconstructed.
- Mass education, print media, and broadcasting accelerated language standardization within nations.
- The 20th century saw dramatic language endangerment: colonialism, globalization, and urbanization caused many minority languages to decline.
- The internet and digital communication created new forms, registers, and varieties of language.
- Today approximately 7,000 languages are spoken worldwide; linguists estimate one language dies every two weeks.

## 2.3 Language Spread and Change

Languages spread through several mechanisms:

- **When communities move, they carry their language. The spread of Indo-European languages across Eurasia is the most studied example.** Migration:

- **Commercial contact creates pidgins, creoles, and lingua francas. Swahili emerged as a trade language along the East African coast. Trade:**
- **Military domination imposes dominant languages. Roman conquest spread Latin; British colonization spread English. Conquest:**
- **Sacred texts drive language adoption. Arabic spread with Islam; Latin with Christianity; Sanskrit with Hinduism and Buddhism. Religion:**
- **Media, internet, and globalization drive English dominance today. Technology:**

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### 3. DEVELOPMENT OF LANGUAGES

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Language development occurs at two levels: (1) the historical development of languages as systems over time, and (2) the individual development of language acquisition in human beings.

#### 3.1 How Languages Change Over Time

No language is static. Every language undergoes continuous change across phonology, grammar, vocabulary, and meaning. Key mechanisms include:

##### A. Phonological Change (Sound Change)

Sounds systematically shift over generations. Grimm's Law describes how Proto-Indo-European consonants shifted in Germanic languages. The Great Vowel Shift (1400–1700) dramatically altered English vowel sounds, explaining why English spelling no longer matches pronunciation ('knight,' 'name').

##### B. Semantic Change (Meaning Change)

Word meanings shift over time in predictable patterns:

- **'Dog'** once referred to a specific breed; now means all domestic canines. Broadening:
- **'Meat'** originally meant any food; now means only animal flesh. Narrowing:
- **'Nice'** originally meant foolish; now means pleasant. Amelioration:
- **'Silly'** originally meant blessed or happy; now means foolish. Pejoration:

##### C. Morphological Change (Grammar Change)

Languages can gain or lose grammatical complexity. Old English had complex noun cases (nominative, accusative, genitive, dative) similar to modern German; Modern English lost most of these, relying instead on word order. Conversely, some languages develop new grammatical markers through grammaticalization — where lexical words become grammatical words (e.g., 'will' in English once meant 'to want' and became a future tense marker).

## D. Lexical Change (Vocabulary Change)

- **English has borrowed extensively from Norman French (beef, court, justice), Latin (education, science), Arabic (algebra, alcohol, sugar), Hindi (shampoo, jungle, bungalow), and hundreds of other languages. Borrowing:**
- **New words are created for new concepts — 'internet,' 'smartphone,' 'podcast.'** Coinage:
- **Combining existing words — 'bookstore,' 'football,' 'deadline.'** Compounding:
- **Words fall out of use — 'forsooth,' 'methinks,' 'anon.'** Obsolescence:

## E. Language Contact Effects

- **Simplified contact languages that emerge when speakers of mutually unintelligible languages need to communicate. They have limited vocabulary and simplified grammar. Pidgin Languages:**
- **When a pidgin becomes the native language of a community, it expands into a full creole language with complete grammar and rich vocabulary. Creole Languages:**
- **Bilinguals alternate between languages within a conversation, reflecting social identity and situational context. Code-Switching:**
- **A language adopted as a common tongue between speakers of different native languages. Historically: Latin, Arabic, Swahili, French. Today: English. Lingua Franca:**

## 3.2 Individual Language Development (Acquisition)

Language development in children follows a remarkably universal pattern, supporting the biological basis of language:

Stage	Age Range	Key Features
Pre-linguistic Stage	0–6 months	Crying, cooing, reflexive sounds; response to intonation
Babbling Stage	6–12 months	Repetitive syllables (ba-ba, ma-ma); all human sounds produced

Holophrastic Stage	12–18 months	Single words carry full meaning ('milk' = 'I want milk')
Two-Word Stage	18–24 months	Telegraphic speech ('Daddy go', 'more juice')
Early Multiword Stage	2–3 years	Three-word+ sentences; grammatical morphemes emerge
Complex Sentence Stage	3–5 years	Subordinate clauses; questions; negation mastered
Full Competence	5–7 years	Near-adult grammar; vocabulary expansion continues lifelong

### 3.3 Theories of Language Acquisition

- **Language is learned through imitation, reinforcement, and conditioning.** Now largely discredited as insufficient to explain the creativity of language use. Behaviourism (Skinner):
- **Children are born with an innate Language Acquisition Device (LAD) containing Universal Grammar — the blueprint for all possible human languages.** Nativist Theory (Chomsky):
- **Language develops through the interaction of innate biological capacities AND environmental input. Social interaction and caregiver speech (motherese/child-directed speech) are essential.** Interactionist Theory:
- **Language development is part of broader cognitive development; language reflects and supports thinking.** Cognitive Theory (Piaget):
- **Language is primarily a social tool; it develops through social interaction and is internalized to become inner speech and thought.** Sociocultural Theory (Vygotsky):

### 3.4 Language and the Brain

Neurolinguistics has identified key brain regions for language processing:

- **Controls speech production and grammatical processing. Damage causes Broca's aphasia — halting, effortful speech with intact comprehension.**  
Broca's Area (Left Frontal Lobe):
- **Responsible for language comprehension. Damage causes Wernicke's aphasia — fluent but meaningless speech with impaired comprehension.**  
Wernicke's Area (Left Temporal Lobe):
- **A bundle of nerve fibers connecting Broca's and Wernicke's areas; critical for language integration.** Arcuate Fasciculus:

The left hemisphere is dominant for language in approximately 95% of right-handed individuals and 70% of left-handed individuals.

## 4. ROLE OF LANGUAGE IN HUMAN COMMUNICATION

Language is not merely a tool for conveying information — it is the foundation of human society, culture, thought, identity, and relationship. Philosophers, linguists, anthropologists, and psychologists have all explored its multifaceted roles.

### 4.1 Primary Functions of Language (Jakobson's Model)

Roman Jakobson identified six fundamental functions of language based on the elements of communication:

Function	Focus	Example
Referential	Message content / Reality	'The temperature is 35 degrees.'
Expressive (Emotive)	Speaker's feelings	'I am absolutely furious!'
Conative	Effect on receiver	'Please close the door.'
Phatic	Maintaining contact	'Hello! How are you?' (small talk)
Metalingual	The code itself	'What does 'epistemology' mean?'
Poetic	Form and aesthetics of message	Rhyme, rhythm, metaphor in poetry

### 4.2 Language as a Vehicle of Thought

The relationship between language and thought is one of the deepest questions in cognitive science. The Sapir-Whorf Hypothesis (Linguistic Relativity) proposes that the language we speak influences how we perceive and conceptualize reality. Strong evidence includes:

- **Languages with more color terms allow finer distinctions in color discrimination.** Color perception:
- **Some languages (like Guugu Yimithirr) use absolute cardinal directions ('north, south') rather than relative terms ('left, right'), and speakers develop extraordinary spatial awareness.** Spatial reasoning:

- **Languages conceptualize time differently — some as a linear horizontal progression, others as vertical, others relative to the speaker.** Time:

While the strong version of Whorfian determinism (language determines thought) is not accepted, moderate linguistic relativity (language influences habitual thought patterns) is well-supported.

### 4.3 Social Functions of Language

#### A. Identity Formation

Language is central to personal and collective identity. The dialect, accent, register, and language one speaks signals regional, ethnic, class, professional, and generational belonging. Code-switching between varieties allows speakers to navigate different social contexts and claim different identities.

#### B. Social Cohesion and Community Building

Shared language creates in-group solidarity. Communities of practice — from academic disciplines to online gaming communities — develop specialized vocabularies (jargon) that signal membership. Conversely, language can exclude and marginalize those who do not share the dominant code.

#### C. Power and Ideology

Critical linguists (Fairclough, Foucault) have demonstrated that language is never neutral — it reflects and reproduces social power relations. The language of those in power becomes 'standard'; other varieties are stigmatized. Politically, language is used to persuade, manipulate, and control — through propaganda, political rhetoric, advertising, and media framing.

#### D. Cultural Transmission

Language is the primary vehicle through which culture is transmitted across generations. Oral traditions, written texts, rituals, proverbs, stories, and songs preserve collective memory and values. The loss of a language means the irreversible loss of a unique worldview, ecological knowledge, and cultural heritage.

### 4.4 Language in Education

Language is the medium of all formal education. The choice of language of instruction profoundly affects learning outcomes, particularly for minority language speakers. Research consistently shows that children learn most effectively when initially taught in their mother tongue. Multilingual education that respects and builds on home language knowledge produces better cognitive and academic outcomes.

#### 4.5 Language in Literature and Art

In literature, language transcends its communicative function to become art. Writers exploit the full aesthetic potential of language — rhythm, imagery, metaphor, ambiguity, irony, symbolism — to create experiences that go beyond information transfer. Literary language shapes cultural values, challenges social norms, and preserves human experience across time.

#### 4.6 Language in Digital Communication

The digital revolution has transformed language use in unprecedented ways:

- **Internet language (netspeak) with abbreviations (LOL, BRB), emoticons, memes, and hashtags has created new registers.** New varieties:
- **English dominates online content, raising concerns about linguistic diversity and digital inequality.** Global English:
- **AI and Natural Language Processing have made machines capable of basic language understanding, translation, and generation.** Language processing:
- **Social media allows speakers of minority languages to create vibrant communities, supporting language vitality.** Multilingual spaces:

#### **Critical Point:**

Language is simultaneously a biological endowment, a cognitive tool, a social institution, and a cultural artifact. No other species possesses a communication system of comparable complexity, creativity, and cultural embeddedness. Its roles in human life are so pervasive that it is impossible to imagine human civilization — indeed, human consciousness as we know it — without language.

## 5. DIFFERENCE BETWEEN LANGUAGE AND SPEECH

The terms 'language' and 'speech' are often used interchangeably in everyday conversation, but they denote fundamentally different concepts in linguistics, philosophy, and cognitive science. The distinction was most influentially drawn by the Swiss linguist Ferdinand de Saussure (1857–1913) in his foundational work 'Course in General Linguistics' (1916).

### 5.1 Saussure's Foundational Distinction

Saussure distinguished three related concepts:

- **Human language capacity in general — the biological and cognitive capacity for language shared by all humans. Langage:**
- **Language as a system — the abstract, shared, social code that exists in the collective mind of a community. This is 'language' in the linguistic sense. Langue:**
- **Speech — the concrete, individual act of speaking or using language. This is 'speech' in the linguistic sense. Parole:**

Langue is the object of linguistic study; parole is its data. Langue is social and collective; parole is individual and variable.

### 5.2 Comprehensive Comparison Table

Parameter	Language (Langue)	Speech (Parole)
Definition	Abstract system of signs, rules, and codes	Concrete act of using the language system
Nature	Abstract, virtual, potential	Concrete, actual, realized
Level	Social and collective	Individual and personal
Scope	Complete system with all possibilities	Selection from the system in a given moment

Stability	Relatively stable; changes slowly	Variable; changes moment to moment
Form	Mental/psychological — exists in the mind	Physical — sound waves, written marks, gestures
Study	Studied by structural linguistics	Studied by phonetics, pragmatics, discourse analysis
Creativity	Sets the rules and boundaries	Creative use within and beyond those rules
Errors	Cannot contain errors (it IS the norm)	Can contain errors, slips, repairs
Memory	Stored in long-term memory as a system	Produced by working memory in real time
Universality	Universal capacity in all humans	Varies by individual — accent, voice, style
Primary?	Logically prior (system enables use)	Chronologically prior (learning via speech)
Examples	The grammar of English; the French lexicon	A particular conversation; a specific utterance

### 5.3 Language: Detailed Characteristics

- **Language is a rule-governed system. Its elements (sounds, words, grammatical rules) are organized in structured relationships.** Systematic:
- **The connection between a linguistic sign and its meaning is arbitrary — there is no natural or necessary link between the sound 'tree' and the plant it denotes.** Arbitrary:
- **Language allows speakers to produce and understand an infinite number of new sentences from a finite set of rules — Chomsky's 'discrete infinity.'** Productive / Generative:
- **Language is a convention shared by a speech community. Individual speakers cannot unilaterally change it.** Social Contract:

- **Language has two levels of structure — meaningless sound units (phonemes) that combine into meaningful units (morphemes/words), called double articulation. Dually Structured:**
- **Language can be studied as it changes over time (diachronically) or as a system at a given point in time (synchronically). Diachronic and Synchronic:**

#### 5.4 Speech: Detailed Characteristics

- **Speech is the physical, acoustic realization of language — it exists as sound waves produced by the vocal organs (lungs, larynx, tongue, lips, teeth). Physical:**
- **Each person's speech is unique — characterized by their voice quality, accent, speaking rate, pitch, and personal vocabulary choices (idiolect). Individual:**
- **Speech is shaped by context — who we speak to, in what situation, for what purpose. A professor lectures differently than they speak to a friend. Contextual:**
- **Unlike the abstract language system, actual speech performance is full of hesitations, false starts, repairs, slips of the tongue, and emotional variations. Variable:**
- **Speech is historically and developmentally prior to writing. All languages exist or existed in spoken form; not all have writing systems. Primary Medium:**
- **Spoken speech is ephemeral — it disappears as it is produced (unlike writing). Transient:**

#### 5.5 Chomsky's Competence vs. Performance

Noam Chomsky recast Saussure's distinction in generative terms:

- **The speaker's internalized, unconscious knowledge of the language system — knowing what is grammatically possible even if never heard. Analogous to Saussure's *langue*. Competence:**
- **The actual use of language in specific situations — speaking, listening, reading, writing. Analogous to *parole*. Performance is affected by memory limits, distraction, fatigue, and social factors. Performance:**

Chomsky argued that linguistics should focus on competence — the ideal speaker-hearer — rather than the messy data of actual performance. This was controversial but enormously influential.

## 5.6 Speech Acts Theory

J.L. Austin and John Searle developed Speech Act Theory, focusing on what speakers DO with language. Every utterance is simultaneously:

- **The literal act of saying something with a particular meaning.** Locutionary Act:
- **The intended action performed by speaking — promising, warning, requesting, declaring.** Illocutionary Act:
- **The actual effect produced on the listener — being persuaded, alarmed, amused.** Perlocutionary Act:

This theory reveals that speech is not merely description — it is action. Saying 'I now pronounce you married' IS the marriage; saying 'I promise' IS the promise.

### Summary of Key Distinction:

Language is the abstract, shared system — the 'software' of communication. Speech is the concrete, individual performance — the 'running of the program.' Language enables speech; speech realizes language. Both are essential: without the system (language), individual utterances (speech) would be meaningless noise; without actual use (speech), the system (language) would be a dead abstraction.

## CONCLUSION

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Language stands as perhaps the most remarkable achievement in the history of life on Earth. From its mysterious origins in the cognitive and social evolution of our species, through its millennia-long diversification into thousands of distinct systems, to its central role in every dimension of human experience, language is both the medium through which we understand the world and the primary means through which we construct it.

Understanding the origin of language grounds us in our biological and social nature. Tracing its history reveals the story of human civilization. Studying its development — in species and individual — illuminates both mind and society. Appreciating its role in communication shows us how language shapes thought, identity, culture, and power. And distinguishing language from speech gives us the conceptual tools to analyze linguistic structure and use with precision.

The field of linguistics continues to advance rapidly, with neuroscience, computational modeling, fieldwork on endangered languages, and cross-cultural studies constantly enriching our understanding. Yet language remains, in many respects, deeply mysterious — a uniquely human endowment whose full nature and origins we are still working to understand.

## QUICK REFERENCE SUMMARY

Topic	Key Points
Origin of Language	Divine gift theories; Bow-wow, Pooh-pooh, Yo-he-ho, Sing-song, Gesture, Social Grooming, Evolutionary theories; emerged ~50,000–150,000 years ago
History of Language	Writing invented ~3500 BCE; ~7,000 languages today; major families: IE, Sino-Tibetan, Afro-Asiatic, Austronesian; spread via migration, trade, conquest, religion
Development of Language	Sound change, semantic change, grammatical change, borrowing, pidgins/creoles; individual: babbling → holophrastic → telegraphic → full competence by age 5–7
Role in Communication	Referential, expressive, conative, phatic, metalingual, poetic functions; vehicle of thought; identity, community, power, culture; transformed by digital technology
Language vs. Speech	Language = abstract system (langue/competence); Speech = concrete use (parole/performance); Language is social, stable, systematic; Speech is individual, variable, physical

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