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METAREPRESENTATION OF LINGUISTIC COMMUNICATION

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Abstract:- The word "linguistics" is derived from the Latin word for tongue. Linguistics is the scientific study of human language and language is about communication. Linguistic communication is a system of sounds, gestures and written symbols. It bears specific meaning and significance within a particular social group. These understandings differ significantly between different people, based upon region, developmental age and cultural practice. The study of these bodies of communal knowledge is called languages and is known as linguistics. Communication is of two types verbal and non-verbal. Noun-Linguistic communication is a systematic means of communicating by the use of sounds or conventional symbols. This paper examines the use of the terms communication, communicating and communicative in introductory linguistics texts. This paper is designed to illustrate and consider the relations between three types of metarepresentational ability used in verbal comprehension: the ability to metarepresent-attributed thoughts, the ability to metarepresent-attributed utterances, and the ability to metarepresent abstract, non-attributed representations for example sentence types, utterance types, propositions and conjunctions. Many researchers have done research on metarepresentation on the study of linguistic communication. However, there has been little interaction among them. The aim of this paper is to show how the results of these separate strands of research might be integrated with an empirically acceptable pragmatic theory.

Keywords: Linguistic Communication , introductory linguistics , metarepresentational , pragmatic theory.

1. INTRODUCTION:

Linguistics also looks at the broader context in which language is influenced by social, cultural, historical and political factors. This includes the study of evolutionary linguistics, which investigates into questions related to the origins and growth of languages. Historical linguistics explores language change. Sociolinguistics looks at the relation between linguistic variation and social structures. Psycholinguistics explores the representation and function of language in the mind. Neuro-linguistics looks at language processing in the brain; language acquisition, on how children or adults acquire language. Discourse analysis involves the structure of texts and conversations.

'Language' is a human's inborn ability to talk or in more technical terms, an abstract faculty of speech which facilitates him or her to learn and use a language in order to communicate with other humans. This faculty is held by all human beings in common. It does not vary from one region to another, as human psychology is universally the same. To a common person, language is "the expression of what we have in our mind" and they know that this expression can be in form of written symbols, spoken sounds or body gestures. Language is more than just a means of communication. It influences our culture and even our thought processes.

The communicative or functional view of language is the view that language is a vehicle for the expression of functional meaning. The semantic and communicative dimensions of language are more emphasized than the grammatical characteristics, though sociolinguistics, pragmatics and semantics are also included.

"The distinctive qualities of mind that are, so far as we know, unique to man and that are inseparable from any establishing critical phase of human existence, personal or social. Hence the fascination of this study, and no less, its frustration. The frustration arises from the coming to grips with the core problem of human language. I take this for having mastered a language, one is able to understand an indefinite number of expressions that are new to one's experience, that bear no simply

physical resemblance and are in no simple way analogous to the expressions that constitute one's linguistic experience; and one is able ... to produce such expressions on an appropriate occasion, despite their novelty.... The normal use of language is, in this sense, a creative activity. This creative aspect of normal language use is one fundamental factor that distinguishes human language from any known system of animal communication.” Noam Chomsky

This paper has main aim to illustrate the depth and variety of metarepresentational abilities deployed in linguistic communication. A metarepresentation is a representation of a representation. It is a higher-order representation with a lower-order representation embedded within it. The different strands of research on metarepresentation that have studied on the study of linguistic communication vary in the type of metarepresentations involved and the use to which they are put. There is the philosophical and psychological literature on mindreading or “theory of mind”. It deals with the ability to form thoughts about attributed thoughts (Carruthers & Smith 1996; Davies & Stone 1995a, 1995b; Whiten 1991).

Suppose a boy sees a ball being put into a box. Having formed the thought in (1), he may go on, by observing his companions, to form thoughts of the type in (2):

(1) The ball is in the box. (2) a. Michael thinks the ball is in the box. b. Michael thinks the ball is not in the box. c. Michael thinks Mary thinks the ball is in the box. d. Michael thinks Mary thinks the ball is not in the box.

There is a now a substantial body of work on how this metapsychological ability develops and how it may break down. It may be present to changing degrees. People may differ in their ability to attribute to others beliefs incompatible with their own. A boy who believes (1) and lacks this ability would be limited to the metarepresentations in (2a) and (2c). A boy with first-order “theory of mind” could attribute to others beliefs that differ from his own (as in (2b)); and one with second-order “theory of mind” could attribute to others beliefs about the beliefs of others which differ from his own (as in (2d)) (Astington, Harris & Olson 1988; Fodor 1992; Frye & Moore 1991; Gopnik & Wellman 1992; Leslie 1987; Lewis & Mitchell 1994; Scholl & Leslie 1999; Smith & Tsimpli 1995). Autistic people are usually said to be lacking in first- or second-order metapsychological abilities of this type (Baron-Cohen 1995; Baron-Cohen, Leslie & Frith 1985; Baron-Cohen, Tager-Flusberg & Cohen 1993; Happé 1993, 1994; Leslie 1991).

There is the Gricean pragmatic literature on the attribution of speaker meanings. Grice shifted attention away from a code model of communication and towards an inferential account in which the formation and recognition of communicators' intentions was central. Grice's idea that verbal comprehension is a form of mindreading has been relatively uncontroversial in pragmatics for more than thirty years (Bach & Harnish 1979; Davis 1991; Kasher 1998; Grice 1989; Levinson 1983; Neale 1992; Sperber & Wilson 1986/95). Grice treats the comprehension process equally starting from a metarepresentation of an attributed utterance and ending with a metarepresentation of an attributed thought. Suppose Meena says (3) to Ramesh:

(3) You are neglecting your job.

In understanding her utterance, Ramesh might entertain a series of metarepresentations of the type in (4):

(4) a. Meena said, "You are neglecting your job." b. Meena said that I am neglecting my job. c. Meena believes that I am neglecting my job. d. Meena intends me to believe that I am neglecting my job. e. Meena intends me to believe that she intends me to believe that I am neglecting my job.

Unlike the literature on mindreading, the Gricean pragmatic literature deals with the specific metacommunicative ability to attribute speaker meanings based on utterances.

There is an additional, disparate literature on non-attributive representations of a more abstract nature, linguistic, logical or conceptual. For examples in (5):

(5) a. 'Jasmines are beautiful' is a sentence of English. b. 'Shut up' is rude. c. It's true that lotus is flowers. d. Roses and daisies are flowers entails that roses are flowers. e. I like the name 'Peter'.

f. 'Abba' is not a word of English. g. Tulip implies flower.

Here the higher-order representation is an utterance or thought and the lower-order representation is an abstract representation: for example, a sentence type, as in (5a), an utterance type, as in (5b), a proposition, as in (5c-d), a name, as in (5e), a word, as in (5f), or a concept, as in (5g). This type of cases have been approached from a variety of perspectives: let's say, the philosophical literature on quotation includes some discussion of non-attributive mentions of words or concepts and the ability to make grammaticality judgements to think about sentence or utterance types, or to consider evidential or entailment relations among propositions or thought types.

Metarepresentation then involves a higher-order representation with a lower-order representation fixed inside it. The higher-order representation is usually an utterance or a thought. Three main types of lower-order representation have been investigated: public representations, e.g. utterances; mental representations, e.g. thoughts; and abstract representations, e.g. sentences, propositions.

2 TYPES OF LINGUISTIC COMMUNICATION

Linguistic communication is a system of sounds, gestures and/or written symbols that bears exact meaning and

significance within a particular social group. These understandings differ significantly between different people, based upon region, developmental age and cultural practice.

2.1 Sounds

Articulated communication is called "speech. Speech is broken down into structured pieces for example sentences, words and phones. Phones is also called segments. These distinct units of sound bear significance when combined in specific combinations. Phones may be learned in two ways: as individual units or in combination as a word. Children begin learning phones and words within the first year of life. Eventually the vocal cords, tongue and other articulate develop in response to the phones learned and used. This is one of the reason why it is difficult to mimic a spoken language you did not learn as a child--your body is set-up to produce a different set of sounds. Many aspects of sound are studied in linguistics. The study of speech production is phonetics. Pragmatics is the study of how meaningful sounds are used in social activities. Phonology examines the association between sounds and meanings.

2.2 Gestures

Gestures and facial expression are often seen as adjuncts to spoken communication. Though, gestures may also constitute an independent language is known as sign language. Gestures may be conscious motions to indicate objects that are physical, or patterns of movement that are learned and associated with words. Let's say, yelling angrily is a gesture. The gestures, both glaring and shaking the fist, are accepted in American culture indicates anger and frustration. By performing these motions, the speaker heightens the spoken word.

2.3 Written Language

Written language is a system of physical markers that indicate the existence of unique items and the relationships between them. Only human beings have developed a written language. The advantage of written language is its ability to withstand time. Written language makes it possible to carry ancient stories into the modern day; though, those tales often develop new significance when recovered by descendants.

3 THE FUNCTIONS OF LANGUAGE

In this paper, the researcher may distinguish between functions along three different dimensions. Firstly, one should single out the dialogic functions in social interaction from the monologic functions in thinking and other kinds of intra - individual communication. The conditions on written communication are such that both communicating parties may be said to use language in a monologic fashion.

Secondly, it is possible to focus on the different interacting factors of the communication process and differentiate the following four aspects:

3.1 Focusing-on the sender is the expressive functions. Whatever is communicated is seen as expressions of the sender's beliefs, views, feelings, attitudes, volitions, needs etc.

3.2 Focusing on the receiver is the evocative functions. Communication is seen as directed towards evoking certain reactions on the receiver's part. Whatever is conveyed serves to make him perceive or understand something. He may have certain feelings and attitudes, or have to perform a certain action.

3.3 Focusing on the subject matter (on the imaginary or objective reality that the message refers to) is the referential functions. We are at that moment concerned with how communication is used to refer and describe, to analyze, argue about, and explain things in the world.

3.4 Focusing on the relation between sender and receiver is the social functions. From this perspective, communication serves to establish and maintain social contact between the communicating parties. A great deal of oral discourse takes place simply as social situations and conventions require it. Some speak of the phatic function of language (Malinowski 1949:315).

Thirdly, communication can relate to different psychological dimensions of the communicating parties. There seem to be at least three different aspects:

a) The cognitive functions means to do with knowledge, beliefs, and intellectual understanding. From the expressive point of view, communication may be seen as expressing the views and beliefs of the sender. An evocative perspective communication is viewed as directed towards arousing beliefs, conveying information and bringing about understanding.

b) The emotive functions: the sender expresses his feelings, attitudes, emotions and desires. This may evoke the corresponding states and activities in the receiver.

c) The practical functions is used for guiding the behavior of the receiver, i.e. the messages are conveyed in the hope of arousing a readiness in the receiver to act in certain ways. For noticeable reasons, practical and evocative functions often go together.

Though, the sender may also use language for planning and guiding his own actions; in that case, language is used monologically. The sender simultaneously plays the part of receiver.

4 RELEVANCE THEORY AND COMMUNICATION

Relevance theory (Sperber & Wilson 1986/1995, 1987) is based on a definition of relevance and two general principles.

4.1 Cognitive principle of relevance: the Cognitive Principle that human cognition tends to be geared to the maximisation of relevance. Human cognition tends to be geared to the maximisation of relevance.
4.2 Communicative principle of relevance: the Communicative Principle that utterances create expectations of relevance. Every utterance (or other act of inferential communication) communicates a presumption of its own optimal relevance. Relevance is treated as a property of inputs to cognitive processes and analyzed in terms of the notions of cognitive effect and processing effort. When an input let's say, an utterance is processed in a context of available assumptions, it may yield some cognitive effect such as, by modifying or reorganizing these assumptions. One thing is equal, the greater the cognitive effects, the greater the relevance of the input. Though, the processing of the input, and the derivation of these effects, involves some mental effort, other things, the smaller the processing effort, the greater the relevance of the input. It follows from the Cognitive Principle of Relevance that human attention and processing resources are allocated to information, which seems relevant. It follows from the Communicative Principle of Relevance and the definition of optimal relevance and it is at least relevant enough to be worth his processing effort. This in turn suggests a comprehension procedure that might form the basis for a modularized metacommunicative ability.

5 CONCLUSION

This paper shows that a variety of the metarepresentational abilities used in verbal comprehension. Language is full of metarepresentational devices, which are often quite disconnected or incomplete. I tried to explain that a modularised metacommunicative ability is a sub-part of a more general metapsychological ability, or “theory of mind”.
The processing of linguistic metarepresentations also interacts in ways that are more specific with the metapsychological ability. Linguistic metarepresentations differ both in degree of explicitness and in the type of original; they are used to represent utterances, thoughts or abstract representations. It might be possible to gain new insight into the metapsychological and metacommunicative abilities. There may be cases in which the mindreading ability directly feeds the comprehension process by interpreting paralinguistic information (gestures, facial expressions, intonation, and so on) to provide information about the speaker’s mood or state. It would be interesting to check whether the use of overt linguistic devices would facilitate comprehension, and if so then it is easier to attribute a false belief when expressed or implied by an utterance. From the linguist’s point of view, there are benefits to be gained by considering metarepresentational devices in the context of the more general metapsychological and metacommunicative abilities. In studying linguistic metarepresentations, linguists have tended to concentrate on cases involving the attribution of utterances, and many echoic utterances.

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