

1.1 Telugu Language

1.1.1 The Position of Telugu

Telugu is a major Dravidian language of the Central Dravidian subgroup. It is included in the Eighth Schedule of the Indian Constitution alongwith the other seventeen languages. About 80 million people (66,017,615 in 1991) speak this language in India. This figure makes it the largest spoken tongue among all the Dravidian languages, and it is one of the languages of the VIII Schedule.

1.1.2 A Brief History

The Telugu language has about 2000 years of history and heritage. The earliest available Telugu word *na:gabu* is found in the remains of *Amaravati stupa* constructed between second century B.C. and second century A.D. The earliest available Telugu inscription, at *Kalamalla* of the Cuddapah District of the present day Telugu state (Andhra Pradesh), dates back to 570 A.D. The earliest available literary epic, the *Sri:mada:ndhramaha:bha:ratamu* of the Nannaya Bhattaraka of the court of the Eastern Chalukya king Rajarajanarendra dates back to 1050 A.D. But recent research reveals that there were written records even earlier to Nannaya which might have been destroyed in the religious wars, and that the *kum:rasambhavamu* by the king poet Nannechoda and the *kavijana:Srayamu* by Reachana might have been written earlier to *Sri:mada:ndhramaha:bha:ratamu* (ref. Manavalli Ramakrishna Kavi's introduction to *kuma:rasambhavamu*; 1909 and Nadakuduru Vira Raju, Nelaturu Venkataramanayya and Devarapalli Venkatakrishna Reddy, Bharati; 1959).

The Telugu language and literature were patronaged by different royal dynasties. Worth mentioning among them are the *ca:lukya:s* (till the end of the 12th century),

ka:kati:ya:s (13th century), *Padmana:yaka* kings (later part of the 14th century), *reddi* kings (earlier part of the 15th century), *Vijayanagara* kings (1450 A.D. - 1550 A.D.) the *Nawabs of Golkonda* (later part of the 16th century), the *na:yaka* kings of tanjavur, Madura and Chenji kingdoms (17th century and 1st part of the 18th century), *East India Company* (1750 A.D. - 1850 A.D.) and the *Jamindars* of various *Samsthanams* (1850 A.D., to the Independence of India).

1.1.3 Geographical Distribution

The Telugu language is spoken in the entire State of Andhra Pradesh. It is also Spoken in the neighboring states of Tamilnadu, Karnataka, Maharashtra, Madhya Pradesh, Orissa and Bengal. Besides these, the Telugu speaking population is found concentrated also in Burma, Malaysia, Fiji, South Africa, Mauritius, etc.

1.1.4 The Dialects

In modern times Telugu is characterised by two varieties of language adopted in literature, viz., the *gra:ndhikabha:sa* (bookish language) and the *vya:waha:rika bha:sa* (spoken language), though only the former was given the literary status till 1900 A.D.

There are mainly four major regional dialects in Telugu, viz., the Coastal Andhra dialect spoken in the six coastal districts of Nellore (partially), Prakasam, Guntur, Krishna, East Godavari and West Godavari; the Kalingandhra dialect of Visakhapatnam, Vijayanagaram and Srikakulam districts; the Rayalaseema dialect spoken in the four Rayalaseema districts of Cuddpah, Kurnool, Anantapur and Chittoor; and finally the Telangana dialect spoken in the ten districts of Adilabad, Nizamabad, Medak, Karimnagar, Warangal, Mahaboobnagar, Nalgonda, Khammam Mettu, Hyderabad and the Rangareddi district. Besides these, there are many regional dialects spoken in Tamilnadu, Karnataka, Maharashtra, Madhya Pradesh, Orissa, West Bengal, Bihar and Kerala. There are several class dialects spoken in the State of Andhra Pradesh and also outside the State. Some of these are Dommar, Godari, Yanadi, Jogala (Nellore District), Cencu (Warangal, Khammam Mettu, East Godavari and West Godavari), Caccada (Vizag), Vadari (Telangana), Kamathi (Maharashtra and Gujrat), Beradi and Dasari (Maharashtra and Karnataka), Pomla (Maharashtra), Komtau, Golai, Salewari and Kapewari (Madhya Pradesh) and Ikridi, Mijai, Theevvari, Madari, Koduva, Vadaga and Ottanmoli (Tamilnadu). The grammars of these dialects are not yet much explored.

1.1.5 The Early Telugu Grammers

a:ndhrasabdacinta:mani in Sanskrit is generally taken to be the first Telugu grammar and is believed to have been composed by Nannaya Bhattaraka, who also wrote the *sri:mada:ndhramaha:bha:ratamu*, which is taken to be the first available book in Telugu. Since then a number of Telugu grammars emerged both in Telugu and Sanskrit. These

grammars are mostly based on the model and pattern of the Sanskrit grammars. They are presented in the form of a series of rules. The modern layout of the Telugu grammar was made available in the beginning of the 19th century by the Western scholars. These grammars, both in style and pattern, resemble the grammars of the European languages and include both theoretical and pedagogical points. These were written generally to meet a pedagogical need, to enable the foreigners to learn this language. The first one of such grammars is the 'Teluga Grammar' by William Carey in 1814. This grammar is based on the Sanskrit model and also assumes that Telugu is derived from Sanskrit. The next grammar is 'A Grammar of the Telooogo Language' (1816) by A.D. Campbell. The third one in the line is 'A Grammar of the Gentoo Language' (1817) by William Brown. The fourth one is 'A Grammer of the Telugu Language' (1857) by Charles P. Brown, the greatest Western scholar of Telugu. The next worth mentioning Telugu grammar written by a foreigner is 'A Progressive Grammar of the Telugu Language' (1873) by A.H. Arden. This was first published in 1873, had its fourth edition in 1937 and got twice reprinted in 1955 and 1969. The language used in this book is neither colloquial nor literary but a sort of an artificial mixture. A few more of this type of grammars written in English by both the Western and the Indian scholars are 'A Telugu Primer' (1851) by Adaki Subbarao, 'A Telugu Grammar' (1858) by Chinnayasuri, 'The Rudiments of Telugu Grammar' (1868) by Paupinani Abbayi Naidu, 'An Abridgement of Telugu Grammar' (1869) by Rev. A. Riccaz, 'A Short Grammar of the Telugu Language' (1870) by G.P. Savundranayagam Pillai.

A few traditional grammars of importance are '*a:AndhraSadacinta:mami*' (11th century) by Nannaya Bhattu, '*kavijana:srayamu*' (1170) by Malliya Rechana, '*a:ndhra-sabdacinta:mami*' (*appakavi:yamu*) (1656) by Kakunuri Appa kavi, '*se:sayya vya:karamamu*' by Bahujanapalli Seetaramacharyulu and '*vya:vaha:rika:ndhra vya:karamamu*' by Vadlamudi Gopalakrishna.

1.1.6 Applications of Modern Linguistic Theory to Telugu Language

The modern linguistic approach to Telugu Grammar started with the 'Telugu Verbal Bases' by Bh. Krishnamurti. It is the first attempt at a descriptive analysis of Telugu verb morphology. It suggests morphophonemic criteria for the classification of Telugu verbs. His other important papers on Telugu morphology and syntax are 'Sandhi in Modern Colloquial Telugu' (1957). Compound verbs in Telugu (1964), 'Gender Systems, Lexical and Grammatical' (1967), 'Stative Expressions in Indian Languages', 'Verbs of Cognition in Telugu' (1970) and 'Causative Constructions in Indian Language:some Semantic and Syntactic Aspects' (1970).

In addition to his 'Dravidian Pronouns' (1970), 'The Gender and Number Categories in Dravidian' (1970) and 'Dravidian Verb Morphology' (1971), P.S. Subramanyam's 'Noun Phrase in Telugu' (1971) makes a significant contribution to the grammatical analysis of Telugu language.

An intensive research on Telugu Syntax within the framework of modern linguistics begins with 'A Transformational Study of Telugu Nominals' by C. Rama Rao (1968). This study applies the transformational generative approach to Telugu syntax. In this work he discusses factive, dubitative, quotative, intensive, action and relative nominalizations in Telugu. A few of his numerous important articles are 'A Grammatical Sketch of Telugu' (1965), 'Direct and Indirect Reports' (1968), 'Coordination or Subordination', 'Causal Use of Quotative Morpheme in Dravidian' (1972), 'Some Aspects of Coordination in Telugu', (1972), 'Time Passes' (1975) and '*telugu va:khyam* (1975)'.

Several articles on Telugu syntax are contributed by P. Bhaskara Rao. In his paper 'A Grammar of Telugu Causative Constructions' (1971) an attempt is made to derive transitive verbs from intransitive verbs. In the article 'On Delimitation' it is proposed that the morpheme *oka* functions both as definite as well as indefinite article. Besides these, he also published 'On the Syntax of Telugu Existential and Copulative Predication' (1971) and 'Pronouns and Pronominal Compounds in Telugu' (1971).

"The Syntactic Patterns of Telugu and English: A Study in Contrastive Analysis" (1970) of V. Prakasam compares the English and the Telugu syntactic patterns.

"Telugu Grammer - A Descriptive Study of Modern Literary Language" of N. Sivarama Murthy is a comprehensive and scientific analysis of the modern Telugu language.

"The Structure of Nominal Phrases in Telugu (M.A. Dissertation : 1970) of the present author employs the Tagmemic theory for a description of the types of nominal phrases in Telugu and their internal structure.

A study of Telugu Compounds (1966) by J. Suryanarayana; 'Evidence for Locative Case in Telugu' (1969) and 'The Role of Aspect in the Telugu Simple Verb' (1967) of Andree Sjoberg; Towards a Case Grammar of Telugu (M.A., Dissertation : 1969) of Cornelius Von Bayer; 'Telangana Telugu Word Structure and Morphology' (1972) and 'Evidence for Grammatical Convergence of Dakhini Urdu in Telugu' (1972) by Bruce Pray; 'Some Aspects of Noun Phrase in Telugu' (1968) by Gerald Kelley of Cornell University; 'A Grammar of Telugu Number Names' and 'Causative Forms in Telugu' by K.V.S. Murthy; 'Is Negative a Tense in Telugu?' (1975) by Radhakrishna; Localist Studies in Telugu Syntax (Ph.D. Dissertation of Edinburg University, 1977) by B. Ramakrishna Reddy and The Semantic Study of Standard Telugu Verbs : A Case Grammar (1977) by G. Trivikramaiah are some of the other important contributions to the study of Telugu Grammer.

1.2 Tagmemic Grammar

1.2.1 Beginning Theory

Tagmemic model of the analysis of the language is first introduced by Pike (1954) and developed as a fullfledged grammatical model in his later works (1955, 1960) followed by

The basic unit of the tagmemics is the 'tagmeme'. Pike first used the term 'grameme' (Pike, 1958) which was later substituted by 'tagmeme' (Pike, 1958). In his article entitled 'On Tagmemes nee Gramemes', Pike describes how he arrived at the notion of the 'tagmeme' by working with artificial languages, and also explains how his use of the word 'tagmeme' contrasts with that of Bloomfield. Bloomfield defines tagmeme as 'the smallest meaningful unit of grammatical form' (1933, Ch. 10.5) having one or more taxemes whereas a taxeme is 'a simple feature of grammatical arrangement' (1933, Ch. 10.5). Pike Visualizes tagmeme as a grammatical unit corresponding to phoneme and morpheme in the three hierarchies of the language, namely; phonology, lexicon and grammar, whereas in Bloomfield's scheme it is a meaningful grammatical unit composed of taxemes (without meaning) corresponding to the meaningful lexucul unit morpheme composed of phonemes (without meaning).

Pike visualized that language consisted of three hierarchies, viz., phonology, lexicon and grammar. Phonology is a system of sound units whose etic units are phones and emic units are phonemes; and manifested by allophones and distributed in syllables, rhythm groups, etc. Lexicon is a system of lexical units whose etic units are morphs and emic units are morphemes; and manifested by allomorphs and distributed in morpheme sequence (hypermorpheme). Grammar is a system of grammatical units whose etic units are tagmas and emic units are tagmemes; and manifested by alltagmas and distributed in constructions, i.e., tagmeme sequences, (syntagmeme). In a later article (Pike, 1959 : 37-54) Pike showed that all the three basic units, namely, the phoneme, the morpheme and the tagmeme are trimodally structured. A completed picture of the theory was made available when the last volume of Pike's work was brought out in 1960 as Part III.

Pike defined tagmeme as a 'unit'. Longacre (1960) explains how these units are combined in a string type of analysis which is different from the binary type of constructions used in the analysis are simultaneous, with multiple branching in a single formula whereas the IC analysis is based on the successive binary cuts. Longacre (1964) explains the analytic procedures at sentence, clause, phrase and word levels in this system. Longacre (1965) summarizes the theory in his article 'Some Fundamental Insights of Tagmemics'.

Pike (1962, 1963) explains the matrix theory of grammar which is derived on the analogy of the phonetic chart 'with one set of contrastive features in rows, another in columns, and with phones in the cells of the matrix', and shows how it can be practically applied. Longacre (1964) while recognising the usefulness of matrices in explaining relations, suggests the use of grammatical transformations also for the same purpose.

1.2.2 Trimodal Structure

Pike views language as trimodally structured. These are the feature mode, the manifestation mode and the distribution mode which are distinct but overlapping. Each linguistic unit,

whether phoneme, morpheme, tagmeme or syntagmeme, has all the three modes. The feature mode ‘serves to describe the internal structure of the unit and contrasts it with other units.’ And the distribution mode ‘defines what functions or slots the unit can manifest’ (Trail, 1970 : 4). The tagmemes of a language have to be described keeping this trimodal system in view.

1.2.3 Particle, Wave and Field

The structure of language can also be viewed from three complementary perspectives, viz., static, dynamic and fundamental.

- (a) *Particle* : In the static viewpoint of the structure, it is composed of discrete particles or segmented units which are arranged in a system with well defined borders. Thus, phoneme, morpheme and tagmeme are independent and well defined particles. The isolation, identification arrangement of these particles is the study of the language.
- (b) *Wave*: In the dynamic viewpoint of the structure, the structure is made up of a series of waves, which merge one into the other. These waves are overlapping though the peaks can be identified as units. In actual speech the sounds cannot be identified as separate units. A vowel sound may overlap with the proceeding and the following consonants. The morphonemes may be jammed together so that they cannot be easily separated into units.
- (c) *Fields* : In the fundamental view of the structure, it is a patterned system or field. Every unit occurs as a member of a class and none occurs alone, emerging from a background, or field which represents the total system of which it is a part.

1.2.4 Etic and Emic Viewpoints

Another important aspect of the tagmemic theory is the etic and the emic viewpoints. Pike has coined these two words taking the endings of the words PHONETIC and PHONEMIC. In advance, the units of creation, external view, external plan, absolute criteria, non-integration, the units of sameness and difference as measured, the units of partial data and the units of preliminary presentation. The emic units are those units which are determined during analysis, units of discovery of a system, internal view, internal plan, relative criteria, integration, systemic, the units of total data and the units of final presentation. In brief, the etic view has to do with universals, with typology, with observation from outside a system, as well as with the nature of initial field data, and with variant forms of an emic unit. The emic view is concerned with the contrastive, patterned system of a specific language or culture or universe of discourse, with the way a participant in a system sees that system, as well as with distinctions between contrastive units’ (Waterhouse, 1974 : 6). Thus, etic units are first approximations of the analyst to the language from an outsider’s viewpoint; and the emic units are the units of the language from a native speaker’s viewpoint to the language.

Tagmeme is to grammar as phoneme is to phonology and morpheme to morphology. Tagmemes are the emic units of the grammar. As phones in phonology and morphs in morphology tagmas are etic units in the grammar. These etic units (tagmas) are grouped as allotagmas of emic units (tagmemes).

Thus, for the three hierarchies of phonology, lexicon and grammar, we have the following Correspondence.

PHONOLOGY	LEXICON	GRAMMAR
Phone	Morph	Tagma
Allphone	Allmorph	Alltagma
Phoneme	Morpheme	Tagmeme

1.2.5 Grammatical Hierarchy

The structure of language is hierarchical. That is, smaller units, which are composed of still smaller units, build larger units which in turn take part in building still larger units. The description of the contrasts between these units, the variants each one of them has, their distribution in larger units and their membership in the classes and systems of units, is important for the analysis of a language. The language consists of three simultaneous hierarchies, viz., the phonological, the lexical and the grammatical. Pike (1958 : 275) describes these hierarchies as follows : 'A sentence is analyzable simultaneously into three hierarchies - a lexical hierarchy, a phonological hierarchy and a grammatical hierarchy. *The lexical hierarchy* has the morpheme as its minimum with unitary morpheme sequences of specific morpheme collocations at higher levels in the hierarchy. *The phonological hierarchy* would have either the phoneme or the contrastive feature of the phoneme as its minimum units, with syllables, stress groups, pause groups, breath groups, rhetorical periods, etc., as higher level units of that hierarchy. *The grammatical hierarchy* has the tagmeme as its minimum, with various kinds of tagmemic constructions as higher layered units in the hierarchy. This set of basic concepts - 'three simple hierarchies with their borders in part independently variable - allows for treatment of an enormous complexity of relationships with simplicity and elegance'.

1.2.6 Grammatical Levels

There are five typical levels of analysis in the grammatical hierarchy, viz., the sentence, the clause, the phrase, the word and the stem. The first four levels are the levels of construction, i.e., the levels at which constructions occur, and the last one, stem is not a level of construction and it is only the ultimate point of reference.

Since language is hierarchical, it is made up of a series of levels, beginning at the lower level and building into higher levels. In the hierarchy, tagmemes of a lower level typically fill slots at the immediately higher level. Thus, morphemes build into words, words

into phrases, phrases into clauses, clauses into sentences and sentences into discourses.

Normally, though the lower level constructions are mapped into higher level constructions, at times in certain languages we do come across a typical mapping in which this hierarchical order is violated. Such violations or a typical mapping generally found in the grammatical structure are level skipping, layering and backlooping or loopbacks.

- (a) *Level Skipping* : Level skipping is omission of a particular level in the hierarchy. In such a case a lower level construction is used in a higher level construction above the omitted level. An example, of level skipping is suffixation of - 's in the phrase President of India's, since -s takes part in word level constructions only when the mapping is typical.
- (b) *Layering* : Embedding of a particular construction within the same construction is called layering or embedding. Inclusion of clauses within clauses and phrases within phrases are the examples of layering.
- (c) *Back-looping* : Inclusion of higher level constructions in the slots or lower level structure is called back-looping or loopbacks. Relative clauses filling the modifier slot at the phrase level is a typical example of backlooping.

1.2.7 The Unit : The Tagmeme

The basic unit of the tagmemic grammar is the tagmeme which is the correlation of a functional slot and the class of items that fills the slot. The unit tagmeme is a composite unit of the form and the function and not merely a form unit.

1.2.8 The Tagmeme Defined

The tagmeme is defined by Elson and Pickett (9162:57) as “a grammatical unit, is the correlation of a grammatical function or slot with a class of mutually substitutable items occurring in that slot. This slot-class correlation has a distribution within the grammatical hierarchy of language”. Thus, in the concept of the tagmeme, there exist a functional slot, a filler class, and the correlation of these two.

1.2.9 The Functional Slot

The functional slot is the position in the construction frame work which defines the role of the linguistic form in the construction in relation to other forms in the same construction. Functions show grammatical relationships in the construction and indicate the role of the form in the construction. Thus, the subject, the object, the location, the modifier, the head, etc., are the functional slots.

1.2.10 The Filler Class

The filler class consists of all the items that fill the functional slot. The items of this class are mutually substitutable. The filler class is a distribution class and in many cases may be

heterogeneous, in the sense that the items of the class may belong to different form classes. For example, the subject slot is filled by pronouns, proper nouns, noun phrases, etc. The symbol for each form class that occurs must be listed as part of the tagmeme.

1.2.11 Slot - Class Correlation

Both the function and the form are involved in the tagmeme, but the tagmeme is neither the function nor the form, i.e., it is neither the functional slot nor the filler class. It is a correlation of both the slot and class. If the form of a language are held constant a new language can be created by changing the functions, and similarly, if the functions are held constant a new language can be created by changing the forms. Therefore, both the functions and the forms and their correlation are important to define fully and linguistic sign by its meaning, manifestation and distribution.

1.2.12 The Tagmemic Notation

Since the tagmeme is the slot-class correlation, it is represented by both the slot and the class. The functional slot is represented by a capital letter indicating that particular function (S = subject, o = Object, etc.), and the form class is represented by a capital letter if it is a phrase (N = noun phrase, V = verb phrase, etc.) and an abbreviated name in small letters if it is a word (loc. = locative, tem. = temporal, n = noun, v = verb, etc.). The colon mark (:) is always put between these two to indicate the correlation. Further, the obligatory tagmeme is marked by a plus (+) sign, the optional tagmeme by a plus or minus sign (+) and the suprasegmental tagmeme by a minus (-) sign.

1.2.13 Kinds of Tagmemes

There are different kinds of tagmemes depending on the type of construction in which they occur.

(a) Obligatory Vs Optional

The obligatory tagmeme is the tagmeme which must occur in every manifestation of the structure of the given data. It is always marked by a plus (+) sign. The optional tagmeme is that which need not occur in every manifestation of the structure of given data, i.e., it may occur in the structure but need not necessarily occur whenever the construction occurs. The suprasegmental tagmemes represented by (-) indicate that the tagmeme is obligatory but it is not in the linear order like the other types of tagmemes.

(b) Nuclear Vs. Peripheral Tagmemes

Some of the tagmemes are nuclear and some are peripheral to the constructions in which they occur. Cook (1969 : 18) describes these two as follows. "A nuclear tagmeme is a tagmeme that is diagnostic of the construction in which it occurs. It may be either obligatory or optional. A peripheral tagmeme is a tagmeme that is not diagnostic of the construction in which it occurs. It is always optional. Peripheral tagmemes are sometimes called satellite or

marginal tagmemes”. It is to be noted that all the obligatory tagmemes are nuclear but not all the nuclear tagmemes are obligatory, and similarly all optional tagmemes are not peripheral but all peripheral tagmemes are optional.

(c) Movable Vs. Fixed Order Tagmemes

It is generally assumed that the tagmemes occur only in the position they are represented; but in languages in which the word order is movable more statistically frequent order is to be represented. In such cases, the movability of the tagmemes is also to be indicated. Suppose that a tagmeme has only two fixed positions in a string, then the alternate positions must be represented by writing the tagmeme in each position with the either/or notation as + A..... -+A. On the other hand, if it is freely movable within the string an arrow with heads on both the sides should be written on the movable tagmeme. If such a movable tagmeme does not interrupt the nucleus of the string, the nuclear elements must be closed in parentheses. For example, the English sentence ‘The boy ate two bananas yesterday in the party’, is represented in the notation as tC1 = (+S:N + P:tv + O:N) + T:tem. + L:loc.

In the above sentence ‘The boy ate two bananas’ is nucleus to the structure and ‘Yesterday’ and ‘in the party’ are peripheral; and these temporal and locative tagmemes are movable without interrupting the nucleus as ‘The boy ate two bananas in the party yesterday’ of ‘Yesterday the boy ate two bananas in the party’ or ‘In the party the boy ate two bananas yesterday’ of ‘Yesterday in the party the boy ate two bananas’ of ‘In the party yesterday the boy ate two bananas’.

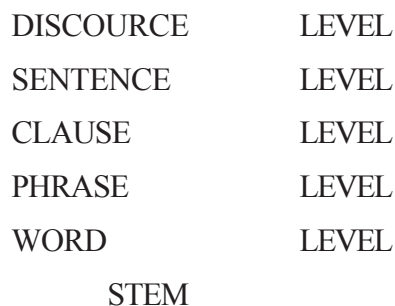
1.2.14 Syntagmeme

The syntagmeme, in simple terms, is nothing but the construction on a given hierarchical level which contains the tagmemes as its constituent parts. The syntagmeme or the construction is defined as ‘a (potential) string of tagmemes, whose manifesting sequence of morphemes fills a grammatical slot’ (Elson and Pickett 1962 : 59).

In tagmemic analysis tagmemes which are the grammatical units, are put linearly strung together to form constructions, which are potentially composed of two or more units.

1.2.15 The Grammatical Hierarchy of Telugu

The grammatical hierarchy of Telugu is presented in the following diagram.



Structure at the base of the arrow fill slots at the head of the arrow. The double lined arrows at the centre connecting the levels indicate typical mapping. The arrows on the sides indicate level skipping, layering or embedding (looped arrows) and back looping (downward arrows).