Abdul Chaer General Linguistics Book Resume

Surgey Probyshevichy
Novosibirsk State Universitydisabled, Novosibirsk, Russian Federation

Abstract---Every science has three stages of development including linguistics. The first stage is the stage of speculation, meaning that the conclusion is made without being supported by empirical evidence and carried out without certain procedures. The second stage is the stage of observation and classification. At this stage the experts collect and classify all facts carefully without giving theory, this method cannot be said to be scientific because it has not yet arrived at the withdrawal of the theory. The third stage is the stage of the formulation of the theory. At this stage, each discipline tries to understand the basic problems and asks questions about those problems based on the empirical data collected, then formulates hypotheses or hypotheses that can answer the question, and compile tests to test the hypothesis with the facts. This approach to language as a language can be described in some concepts. First, because language is the sound of speech, linguistics sees language as sound. For linguistics, spoken language is primary and written language is secondary. Second, because language is unique, linguistics does not try to use the framework of one language to apply to other languages.

Keywords---certain procedures, communication tool, empirical evidence, general linguistics, lengue, lingua, linguistics treat, special linguistics, spoken language.

Introduction

Popularly, people often say that linguistics is the science of language or the science that makes language the object of its study, or more precisely, the scientific study of human language. The word linguistics (equivalent to linguistics in English,

Linguistique in French, and linguistique in Dutch) is derived from the Latin lingua which means "language" in Romance languages, namely languages that come from Latin there are words that are similar or similar. with the Latin word lingua. These include lingua in Italian, lengue in Spanish, lingue (and langage) in French (Sosa & MacFarlane, 2002; Ashford et al., 2018).

In French, two terms are used, namely langue and language with different meanings. Langue means a particular language, such as English, Javanese or French. While language langage in general, as shown in the expression "humans have language while animals do not" other than langue and French langage has another term for language, namely parole which means language that is in real form, which is concrete, namely in the form of speech. In contrast to parole, langue is abstract because it refers to a particular language system and langage of the human language system in general is the most abstract.

People who are experts in linguistics are called linguists (English linguists). In English, linguist has two meanings, namely people who are linguistic experts and people who are fluent in several languages. Linguistics is also called general linguistics (general linguistics) meaning that linguistics does not only study a language but also the ins and outs of language in general. In the scientific world, language is also taken as an object of study, not only linguistics but also disciplines such as literature, social psychology, and physics. However, there is a difference, the difference lies in the difference in the approach of these sciences to language to express language as a means or tool to express works of art. Social sciences or sociology approach and view language as a tool of social interaction in society (Hutton, 1993; Berwick et al., 2011). Physical sciences approach language as a natural phenomenon, namely as sound waves that propagate from the speaker's mouth to the listener's ear. Linguistics approaches and views language as a language and not as something else.

As a communication tool, language is a system that is both systematic and systemic. What is meant by systemic is that language is a system that is not singular, and has subsystems, namely phonological subsystems, morphological subsystems, syntactic subsystems and simantic subsystems (Scott, 1997; Ruiying & Allison, 2003). In Indonesian, linguistics does not only mean the science of language but also means language itself.

Every science has three stages of development including linguistics, these stages are as follows: The first stage is the stage of speculation, meaning that the conclusion is made without being supported by empirical evidence and carried out without certain procedures. The second stage is the stage of observation and classification. At this stage the experts collect and classify all facts carefully without giving theory, this method cannot be said to be scientific because it has not yet arrived at the withdrawal of the theory (Keating et al., 1983; Bynon, 1968). The third stage is the stage of the

formulation of the theory. At this stage, each discipline tries to understand the basic problems and asks questions about those problems based on the empirical data collected, then formulates hypotheses or hypotheses that can answer the question, and compile test to test the hypothesis with the facts.

This approach to language as a language can be described in some concepts as follows: First, because language is the sound of speech, linguistics sees language as sound. For linguistics, spoken language is primary and written language is secondary. Second, because language is unique, linguistics does not try to use the framework of one language to apply to other languages (Lazard, 2001; Montemurro, 2001). Third, because language is a system, linguistics does not approach language as a collection of independent elements but as a collection of interconnected elements, an approach that sees language as a collection of interconnected elements is called a structural approach and an opponent is an automatic approach.

The four linguistics treat language as something dynamic because the language will change over time. Linguistics studies language synchronously and diachronically. Synchronically means studying language with its various aspects at a certain or limited period of time and is descriptive because linguistics gives the state of language as it is in a limited period of time. Diachronically it is also referred to as a comparative historical study, namely studying various aspects of language from time to time, throughout the life of the language. Linguistics has the view that the previous language does not necessarily apply to the present or the future which will come. Fifth, because of its empirical nature, linguistics approaches language descriptively and not perspective (Nygaard et al., 2009; Mertz, 1985). It means that what is important in linguistics is what is actually expressed by someone and not what the researcher thinks should be expressed.

Method

Linguistics has many sub-disciplines because the object of linguistic study is language which is a phenomenon whose activities are related to human activities in society. The naming of linguistic subdisciplines is grouped based on certain criteria or basics. The grouping of the names of the linguistic subdisciplines is as follows: Based on the object of study, whether language in general or a particular language can be distinguished between general linguistics and special linguistics (Acuña-Fariña, 2009; Yakin & Totu, 2014). General linguistics is linguistics that studies the rules of language in general. Special linguistics is linguistics that examines the rules of language that apply to a particular language.

Based on the object of study, whether language at a certain time or language at all times can be distinguished by the existence of synchronic and diachronic linguistics.

Based on the object of study, whether language in general or a particular language is linguistics, it can be distinguished by the existence of synchronic linguistics (descriptive linguistics) and diachronic linguistics (comparative historical linguistics). Synchronous linguistics studies language at a particular time with all forms of change and development (Kurdyumov, 2013; Harré & Harris, 2017).

Based on the object of the study, whether the internal structure of the language or the language in relation to factors outside the language, it is distinguished by the existence of micro linguistics and macro linguistics (macrolinguistics and macrolinguistics). Micro linguistics directs its study to the structure of a particular language or in general. Micro has sub-disciplines, namely: Phonology: investigates the sounds of language. Morphology: investigates morphemes. Syntax: investigates word units. Semantics: investigating the meaning of language (Krämer & Rooryck, 2016; Uhlenbeck, 1961). Lexicology: investigates the lexicon or vocabulary. Macro linguistics investigates language in relation to factors outside of language. Macro linguistics has subdisciplines, among others, sociolinguistics studying language in relation to usage in society. Psycholinguistics, studying the relationship between language and human behavior and reason. Anthropolinguistics, studies the relationship between language and culture stylistics, studying language in literary works. Philology, studying the language, culture, institutions, and history of a nation as contained in written materials. Dialectology, studying the boundaries of dialect and language in a region. The philosophy of language studies the essential nature and position of language as a human activities.

All these subdisciplines can be theoretical or applied. Based on the purpose, whether linguistic investigation is solely to formulate theory or to be applied in everyday life, it is possible to distinguish between theoretical linguistics and applied linguistics. Theoretical linguistics investigates language or language relations against the rules that apply to the object of study. So, its activities are only for the sake of background theory. Applied linguistics investigates language and its relationship with factors outside of language to solve practical problems that exist in society. Adults In this case, linguistics is mostly done for application purposes. Based on the flow or theory used in the study of language, it is known as traditional linguistics, structural linguistics, transformational linguistics, generative linguistics, semantic linguistics, relational linguistics and systematic linguistics (Szwedek, 2006; Eastman, 1984).

In addition to the fields above, there are still other fields, namely those that deal with the history of linguistics. The history of linguistics investigates the ins and outs of linguistic development itself from time to time, and studies the influence of other sciences and the influence of various public institutions on linguistics throughout the ages (Halliday, 1995; Palmer, 1995). The field of linguistics is so broad that no one can master all the branches or fields of linguistics. Even though the branch or field of

linguistics is broad, what is considered the core of linguistics is only concerned with the internal structure of the language, the branches are grouped into micro-linguistics.

Discussion

Linguistic analysis is carried out on language, or more precisely on all levels of language, namely phonetics, phonemics, morphology, syntax, and simantics.

Structure, system and distribution

The father of modern linguistics, Ferdinand de Saussure (1857-1913) in his course de linguistique generale distinguishes between two types of relationships or relations to language units, namely syntagmatic relations and associative relations. Syntagmatic relations are between language units in certain concrete sentences, associative relations are relationships contained in the language but not visible in the arrangement of sentence units. This associative relation structure will be found when one sentence is compared with another sentence. The relationship that occurs between language units, either one phoneme with another, or one word with another word is called syntagmatic. So the syntagmatic relationship is linear or horizontal between one unit and another that is on the left or right (Fried & Östman, 2005; Joseph, 1995).

A slight change. He replaced the associative term with a paradigmatic term and gave a broad understanding. Paradigmatic applies to all levels of language. The terms structure and system are more appropriate to use because these terms can be used for all language levels. So, structure is a linear arrangement of sentence parts or sentence constituents. The relationship between certain parts of a sentence with other sentences is called a system (Robins, 1997; Gonda, 1961).

The structure can be distinguished based on the systematic level of the language, namely according to the phonetic, allophonic, morphosis and syntactic arrangement. The system basically concerns the problem of distribution. Distribution according to the main terms in language analysis according to the structuralist model of Leonard Bloomfield (American linguist with the book Language published in 1933) is concerned with the problem of whether or not certain constituents can be replaced in certain sentences with other constituents. With the information above, it can be said that there are phonemic substitutions, morphological substitutions, and syntactic substitutions. Phonemic substitutions involve the replacement of phonemes with phonemes. Morphological substitutions involve the replacement of morphines with morphines and syntactic substitutions involve the replacement of words with words, phrases with phrases or clauses with other clauses.

Direct subordinate analysis is usually called direct element or immediate constituent analysis, a technique of elements or nature analyzing the elements or constituents that

make up a language, whether a word, a phrase, a clause or a sentence a priori language unit is assumed to consist of two constituents that directly build the unit. Element series analysis (English: item-and-arragement) teaches that each language unit is arranged or arranged by other elements. Elemental process analysis (English: itemand-process) assumes that language units are the result of a process of formation.

Linguistics provides direct benefits to people who work in language-related activities such as linguists, language teachers, translator, dictionary compiler, textbook compiler, and politician. Benefits linguistics include: Linguist: help complete and carry out their duties in language research. Language teacher: train and teach language skills. Translator: helps in getting good translation results. Dictionary compiler: helps in compiling a complete and good dictionary. Textbook compiler: helps in choosing words and constructing the right sentences. Politicians: assist in their activities of communicating with the crowd.

Language words in Indonesian have more than one meaning or meaning so they are often confused. One of the definitions of language according to experts is "Language is a system of arbitrary sound symbols used by members of social groups to work together, communicate, and identify themselves. Based on the quotation of the understanding of language according to Kridalaksana and which is in line with other experts, there are several essential characteristics and properties of the language, the essential characteristics or properties of language are: (1) language is a system, (2) language is in the form of symbols, (3) language is in the form of sound, (4) language is arbitrary, (5) language is meaningful, (6) language is conventional, (7) language is unique, (8) language is universal, (9) language is productive, (10) language is varied, (11) language is dynamic, and (12) language functions as a tool of social interaction and (13) language is the identity of the speaker.

As a system, language is systematic and systematic, meaning that language is arranged according to a pattern, not arranged randomly. Systemic means that language is not a single system, but consists of sub-subsystems or subordinate systems. The subsubsystems are also called the linguistic level or language level. The order of linguistic levels from lowest to highest is phonemes, morphemes, phrases, clauses, sentences and discourses. . The linguistic level consists of the phonological level, the morphological level, the syntactic level, the semantic level, and the lexicon level. Hierarchically, the language subsystem chart is as follows, discourse, sentence, syntax callus, phrase, word, morpheme morphology, phoneme, font phonology.

Language as symbol

Symbols with various intricacies are studied by people in the field of semiotics, namely the study of signs that exist in human life, including language. In semiotics or semiology, several signs are distinguished, namely: signs, symbols, signals, symptoms,

gestures, icons, indexes, and codes. A sign is something or something that can represent ideas, thoughts, feelings, objects, and actions directly and scientifically. Symbol (symbol) is marking something indirectly, conventionally. Signal is an intentional sign made by the signaler so that the receiver of the signal does something. Signals are imperative. Gestures are signs that are performed using the limbs but are not imperative. A symptom is an unintentional but natural sign to indicate something will happen. An icon is a sign that is most similar to something it represents because it is often called an image of the form it represents. An index is a sign that indicates something else, such as smoke indicating a fire. Code is the existence of a system, either in the form of symbols, signals, or gestures that are agreed upon for a particular purpose, the code is also called a secret language.

Sound is an impression on the nerve center as a result of the vibration of the eardrum that reacts to changes in air pressure. The sound of language is the sound produced by the human speech apparatus. This sound can be sourced from the sliding or collision of objects of animal and human sound instruments. However, what is meant by language sounds or including language symbols are sounds produced by human speech organs. So sounds that are not produced by human speech organs are not included. language, but not all sounds produced by the human speech apparatus, including language sounds such as sneezing, coughing, etc., so the sound of language or speech sound is a unit of sound produced by the human speech apparatus in which there is a phonetic observed as a phoneme and in phonemics as a phoneme.

A symbol is an understanding, a concept, an idea, or a thought that wants to be conveyed through sound, therefore the symbols refer to a concept, idea, or thought, so it can be said that language has meaning in language in the form of language units in the form of morphemes, words, phrases, clauses, sentences, and discourses related to discourse is called pragmatic meaning or context meaning.

The word arbitrary can be interpreted as 'arbitrary, changing, not fixed, whichever you like'. What is meant by the term arbitrary is the absence of a mandatory relationship between the language symbol (which is in the form of the sound) and the concept or understanding intended by the symbol. Dichotomy distinguishes what is meant by significant and significant. Signifiant (marker) is the symbol of the sound, while the signifier (signifier) is the concept contained in the signifiant. The relationship between the significant and the significant is what is called arbitrary. If there is a relationship between the symbol and what it symbolizes, then someone who does not know a particular language will be able to guess the meaning of a word when he hears the word spoken. In fact, we cannot guess the meaning of a word from any language (including our own) that we have never heard of, because the sound of the word does not give any "suggestion" or "hint" to find out its meaning.

Although the relationship between the sound symbol and what it symbolizes is arbitrary, the use of the symbol for a particular concept is conventional. That is, all members of the language community obey the convention that certain symbols are used to represent the concepts they represent. For example, a four-legged animal that is usually ridden is symbolized by the sound [horse], so members of the Indonesian language community must obey it. If it is not obeyed and replaced with another symbol, then communication will be hampered.

The word productive is an adjective form of the noun production. The meaning of production is a lot of results or rather continuously produces. The purpose of the language being said to be productive is that although the language elements are limited, but with the limited number of elements, language units can be made which are not limited although relatively in accordance with the system prevailing in the language. Language limitations can be divided into two kinds, namely limitations at the porale level and limitations at langue. porale limitations are the unusual or unusual forms produced. at the langue level, productivity is limited because of the rules or systems that apply.

Language is said to be unique, meaning that each language has its own characteristics that are not shared by other languages. This characteristic can involve the sound system, word formation system, sentence formation system, or other systems. Besides being unique, language is also universal. That is, there are characteristics that are shared by every language in this world. For example, the most common universal feature of a language is that it has a linguistic sound consisting of vowels and consonants.

Language is never separated from all human activities and movements as long as humans exist as cultural and social creatures. Because of the attachment and linkage of language to humans, while in life in society, human activities are always changing, then language changes, becomes unstable, becomes dynamic. These changes occur at all levels of language. The most obvious changes are in the field of lexicon and semantics. Changes in language are not in the form of development or expansion but in the form of setbacks in line with changes in the language community concerned.

Members of the community of a language usually consist of various people with different social status and cultural backgrounds. Because of these differences, the language used varies. There are three terms in language variation, namely: Idiolect is a variety of language that is individual. Dialect is a variety of language used by a group of community members at one place or time. Variety is the variation of language used in certain situations. For example, standard variance and non-standard variance.

Human communication tools are different from animals. Animal communication tools are fixed, static. While the means of human communication, namely language is

productive and dynamic. So, language is human, in the sense that language only belongs to humans and can only be used by humans. A language community is a group of people who feel they use the same language.

People who use two languages, for example, use Indonesian and also use regional languages, are called bilingual. People who speak more than two languages are called multilingual. Language variations are divided into two, namely high (T) and low (R) variations. High variation is used in playing or formal situations. Low variation is used in an informal or informal setting. T variation is studied in schools and R variation is learned directly from the general public. This difference in variation is called diglossia. People who make this distinction called diglossia society naming variations depending on each language.

A sociolinguistic expert said that a communication using language must pay attention to the eight elements that are acronymized as SPEAKING, namely: (1) setting and scene, namely elements relating to the place and time of the conversation. (2) Participants are people who are involved in the conversation. (3) Ends, namely the purpose and results of the conversation. (4) Art sequences, namely things that point to things and forms of conversation. (5) Key, which refers to the car or spirit in carrying out the conversation. (6) Instrumentalities, which refer to the conversational path: whether orally or not. (7) Norms, which refers to the norms and behavior of conversation participants. (8) Genders, refers to the category or variety of language used (Longhi, 2021; Connor, 2004).

In an open society, meaning that its members can accept the arrival of members from other communities, either from one or more than one society, there will be what is called language contact. The language of the people who receive the arrival will influence each other with the language of the people who come. What is very prominent that can happen from this language contact is the occurrence or existence of what is called bilingualism and multilingualism with various cases, such as interference, integration, code switching, and code mixing.

Another thing that becomes the object of macro linguistic study is the relationship between language and culture. In the history of linguistics there is a very well-known hypothesis regarding the relationship of language to this culture. This hypothesis was issued by two experts, namely Edward Sapir and Benjamin Lee Whorf (Sapir-Whorf hypothesis) which states that language affects culture or language affects the way members think and act. So language controls the way humans think and act. What humans do is always influenced by the characteristics of their language.

Classification is done by looking at the similarities in the characteristics that exist in each language. Languages that have the same characteristics are included in one group. A good classification must meet the requirements of nonarbitrary, exhaustive, and

unique. Non-arbitrary means that the classification criteria must only have one criterion, then the result will be exhausted. Language classification is divided into four types, namely genetic classification, typographical classification, areal classification, and socio-linguistic classification.

Genetic classification, also known as genealogical classification, is carried out based on the lineage of the languages. That is, a language is derived from or derived from an older language. According to this genetic classification theory, a pro language (old language, original language) will split and produce two or more new languages. Then, this fractional language will also derive other languages. Then the other languages will lower the next fractional languages. Genetic classification is carried out based on the criteria of sound and meaning, namely on the similarity of form (sound) and the meaning it contains. Languages that share such a number of similarities are considered to be derived from the same origin or proto-language. What is done in this genetic classification is actually the same as the technique used in comparative historical linguistics, namely there is a correspondence of form (sound) and meaning. Therefore, genetic classification can be said to be the result of the work of comparative historical linguistics. The genetic classification also shows that the development of languages in this world is divergent, i.e. splitting and spreading into many, but in the future due to the political situation and the development of increasingly sophisticated communication technology, convergent development is likely to occur.

Typological classification is carried out based on the similarity of types or types found in a number of languages. This type is a certain element that can occur repeatedly in a language. This typological classification can be done at all language levels. So the results of the classification can vary, as a result it becomes arbitrary because it is not bound by a particular type. Classification at the morphological level that has been carried out in the XIX century can be broadly divided into three groups, namely: The first group is solely using the form of language as a basis for classification. (morphological classification by Lutzeier (1975) ; Dahl (2004), the second group is those that use the root as the basis for classification (by Franz Bopp). The third group is those who use syntactic forms as the basis for classification, experts include H. Steinthal. In the twentieth century there were also experts in morphological classification with different principles, for example those made.

Area classification is carried out based on the reciprocal relationship between one language and another in an area or region, regardless of whether the languages are genetically related or not. This classification is arbitrary because in historical contact these languages have had a mutual influence in certain limited ways. This classification is also non-exhaustive, because there are still many languages in this world that are still closed in the sense that they have not received external elements. In addition, even this classification is non-unique, because there is a possibility that a language can be included in a certain group and can also be included in another group. This

classification attempt was made by Wilhelm Schmidt (1868-1954) in his book Die Sprachfamilien und Sprachenkreise der Ende, which is attached with a map.

Sociolinguistic classification is carried out based on the relationship between language and the factors that apply in society, precisely based on the status, function, assessment given by the community to the language. This sociolinguistic classification was carried out by William A. Stuart in 1962 which we can read in his article "An Outline of Linguistic Typology for Describing Multilingualism". This classification is carried out based on four characteristics or criteria, namely: historicity is concerned with the history of language development or the history of using that language. Standardization relates to its status as a standard or non-standard language or its status in formal or informal usage, vitality relates to whether the language has speakers who use it in daily activities actively or not (Smith, 1996). Homogeneity relates to whether the lexicon and grammar of the language are derived. By using the four characteristics above, the classification results can be exhaustive because all the languages in the world can be included in certain groups. But this result is not unique because a language can have different states.

Conclusion

The father of modern linguistics, is considered the father of modern linguistics based on the views contained in his book course de linguistique generale compiled and published by Charles Bally and Albert Sechehay in 1915 based on lecture notes during de Saussure's lectures at the University of Geneva in 1906. Synchronic and diachronic studies. Synchronous language study is the study of a language at a certain time. For example, studying the Indonesian language used in the Japanese era. Diachronic language study is the study of language over time, or throughout the ages that language is used by its speakers. La langue is the whole sign system that functions as a means of verbal communication between members of a language community, its nature is abstract. La parole is the use or realization of langue by each member of the language community. Its nature is concrete because parole is nothing but a physical reality that differs from one person to another. In this case, the object of linguistic study is langue, which of course is done through parole, because parole is a concrete form of language, which can be observed and investigated.

Syntagmatic and paradigmatic relationships. Syntagmatic is the relationship between the elements contained in an utterance, which are arranged sequentially, linearly. Syntagmatic relationships at the phonological level appear in the order of phonemes in a word that cannot be changed without destroying the meaning of the word. Morphological level in the sequence of morphemes in a word, which also cannot be changed without destroying the meaning of the word. Syntagmatic relationships at the syntactic level appear in the order of words that may be changed, but may also not be changed without changing the meaning of the sentence, or causing no meaning at all

distinguish between phonetics and phonology. Phonetics studies the sounds themselves, phonology studies the function of these sounds in a system. Phoneme, derived from Russian, phoneme. Used by the Polish scholar Baudoin de Courtenay to distinguish the meaning of a phoneme from a sound.

References

Acuña-Fariña, J. C. (2009). The linguistics and psycholinguistics of agreement: A tutorial overview. *Lingua*, *119*(3), 389-424. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.lingua.2008.09.005

Ashford, R. D., Brown, A. M., & Curtis, B. (2018). Substance use, recovery, and linguistics: The impact of word choice on explicit and implicit bias. *Drug and alcohol dependence*, *189*, 131-138. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.drugalcdep.2018.05.005

Berwick, R. C., Okanoya, K., Beckers, G. J., & Bolhuis, J. J. (2011). Songs to syntax: the linguistics of birdsong. *Trends in cognitive sciences*, *15*(3), 113-121. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tics.2011.01.002

Bynon, T. (1968). Towards a general comparaive linguistics: Jeffrey Ellis, Janua Linguarum, Series Minor 52. Mouton & Co., The Hague 1966. 170 pp. Price 4ls. 9d. *Lingua*, *20*, 415-422. https://doi.org/10.1016/0024-3841(68)90165-4

Connor, U. (2004). Intercultural rhetoric research: Beyond texts. *Journal of English for academic purposes*, *3*(4), 291-304. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jeap.2004.07.003

Dahl, T. (2004). Textual metadiscourse in research articles: a marker of national culture or of academic discipline?. *Journal of pragmatics*, *36*(10), 1807-1825. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.pragma.2004.05.004

Eastman, C. M. (1984). Language, ethnic identity and change. *Linguistic minorities, policies and pluralism*, 259-276. https://doi.org/10.1016/B978-0-12-232760-5.50016-9

Fried, M., & Östman, J. O. (2005). Construction Grammar and spoken language: The case of pragmatic particles. *Journal of pragmatics*, *37*(11), 1752-1778. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.pragma.2005.03.013

Gonda, J. (1961). Reflections on the Indo-European medium I. *Lingua*, *9*, 30-67. https://doi.org/10.1016/0024-3841(61)90059-6

Halliday, M. A. (1995). Systemic theory. In *Concise History of the Language Sciences* (pp. 272-276). Pergamon. https://doi.org/10.1016/B978-0-08-042580-1.50048-9

Harré, R., & Harris, R. (Eds.). (2017). *Linguistics and Philosophy: The controversial interface* (Vol. 13). Elsevier.

Hutton, C. (1993). Analysis and notation: the case for a non-realist linguistics. *Linguistics and Philosophy*, 165-178. https://doi.org/10.1016/B978-0-08041937-4.50011-8

Joseph, J. E. (1995). Saussurean tradition in linguistics. In *Concise History of the Language Sciences* (pp. 233-239). Pergamon. https://doi.org/10.1016/B978-0-08-0425801.50041-6

Keating, P., Linker, W., & Huffman, M. (1983). Patterns in allophone distribution for voiced and voiceless stops. *Journal of phonetics*, *11*(3), 277-290. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0095-4470(19)30827-7

Krämer, M., & Rooryck, J. (2016, November). A tale of two journals or how Elsevier pushed open access in Linguistics. In *Septentrio Conference Series* (No. 1). https://doi.org/10.7557/5.4061

Kurdyumov, V. (2013). Oriental language as an ideal object of linguistics. *Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences*, *70*, 1493-1500. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2013.01.217

Lazard, G. (2001). On the grammaticalization of evidentiality. *Journal of pragmatics*, *33*(3), 359-367. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0378-2166(00)00008-4

Longhi, J. (2021). Using digital humanities and linguistics to help with terrorism investigations. *Forensic science international*, *318*, 110564. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.forsciint.2020.110564

Lutzeier, P. (1975). Barron Brainerd, Introduction to the mathematics of language study. New York: Elsevier, 1971. Pp. x+ 313.-Maurice Gross, Mathematical models in linguistics.(Foundations of modern linguistics). Englewood Cliffs: Prentice-Hall, 1972. Pp. xvi+ 159.-John P. Kimball, The formal theory of grammar.(Foundations of modern linguistics). Englewood Cliffs: Prentice-Hall, 1973. Pp. xvi+ 126.-Robert Wall, Introduction to mathematical linguistics. Englewood Cliffs: Prentice-Hall, 1972. Pp. xiv+ 337. *Journal of Linguistics*, *11*(1), 80-86. https://doi.org/10.1017/S0022226700004308

Mertz, E. (1985). Beyond symbolic anthropology: Introducing semiotic mediation. In *Semiotic mediation* (pp. 1-19). Academic Press. https://doi.org/10.1016/B978-012-491280-9.50007-8

Montemurro, M. A. (2001). Beyond the Zipf–Mandelbrot law in quantitative linguistics. *Physica A: Statistical Mechanics and its Applications*, *300*(3-4), 567-578. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0378-4371(01)00355-7

Nygaard, L. C., Cook, A. E., & Namy, L. L. (2009). Sound to meaning correspondences facilitate word learning. *Cognition*, *112*(1), 181-186. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cognition.2009.04.001

Palmer, F. R. (1995). Firth and the London School of linguistics. In *Concise history of the language sciences* (pp. 268-272). Pergamon. https://doi.org/10.1016/B978-0-08042580-1.50047-7

Robins, R. H. (1997). The contribution of John Rupert Firth to linguistics in the first fifty years of Lingua. *Lingua*, *100*(1-4), 205-222. https://doi.org/10.1016/S00243841(96)00042-3

Ruiying, Y., & Allison, D. (2003). Research articles in applied linguistics: Moving from results to conclusions. *English for specific purposes*, *22*(4), 365-385. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0889-4906(02)00026-1

Scott, M. (1997). PC analysis of key words—and key key words. *System*, *25*(2), 233-245. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0346-251X(97)00011-0

Smith, B. (1996). Mereotopology: a theory of parts and boundaries. *Data & Knowledge Engineering*, *20*(3), 287-303. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0169-023X(96)00015-8

Sosa, A. V., & MacFarlane, J. (2002). Evidence for frequency-based constituents in the mental lexicon: Collocations involving the word of. *Brain and language*, *83*(2), 227-236. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0093-934X(02)00032-9 Szwedek,

A. (2006). Poland: History of Linguistics.

Uhlenbeck, E. M. (1961). The study of the so-called exotic languages and general linguistics. *Lingua*, *9*, 417-434. https://doi.org/10.1016/0024-3841(61)90094-8

Yakin, H. S. M., & Totu, A. (2014). The semiotic perspectives of Peirce and Saussure: A brief comparative study. Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences, 155, 4-8. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2014.10.247