

**How to Cite:**

Tanwete, C. S., & Kombinda, N. (2020). Object of study and linguistic subdisciplinary. *Macrolinguistics and Microlinguistics*, 1(1), 23–36.

# Object of Study and Linguistic Subdisciplinary

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**Abstract**---General linguistics is linguistics that tries to study the rules of language in general. The resulting theoretical statements will concern language in general, not specific languages. Meanwhile, special linguistics is linguistics that tries to study the rules of language specifically. This special study can also be carried out on one language family / sub-family, ex: the Austronesian language family, the Indo-German sub-family. General linguistics is a field of science that not only investigates a particular language but also pays attention to the characteristics of other languages. Linguistics does not only study one language but also language. The object of linguistic study is language. The language that is meant in this sense is language in the true sense, namely the language used by humans as a means of communication, not the language in the sense of a class.

**Keywords**---Austronesian language, English dictionary, English language, general linguistics, language symbols, linguistic study, middle English, special linguistics.

## Introduction

Regulatory function, namely using language to control the behavior of others. Personal functions, namely language functions that appear in the use of language to express feelings and ideas. Interactional functions, namely language functions that are

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Manuscript submitted: 9 Nov 2019 | Manuscript revised: 18 Dec 2019 | Accepted for publication: 20 Jan 2020

inherent when used to create interactions with other people. Heuristic functions, namely using language to learn and find meaning. Imaginative function, namely using language to create a world of imagination. Representational functions, namely using language to convey information. Carnevale et al. (2017), suggest a special function of language, in the form of Personal function, namely the function of language to express oneself. Interpersonal function, namely the function of language to establish and build relationships with other people. Directive function, namely the function of language to control the behavior of others. Referential functions are language functions to express a reference, concrete or abstract, using language symbols. Imaginative function, namely the function of language to create something by imagination. d. Late Modern English (1800-Present). The main difference between Early Modern English and Late Modern English is in vocabulary. Late Modern English has a much larger vocabulary, which arises from two main factors: first, the industrial and technological revolutions that created the need for new words, and the existence of an English empire, which at the height of its power covered a quarter of the surface of the earth, and language. English adopts foreign words from many countries.

### **History and nature of the language**

History of the development of the English language, the history of the development of the English language consists of several periods, including Old English Period (450-1100 AD). Beowulf, a poem written in Old English, tells of an invasion of Old English speaking Germanic tribes. Old English was unlike any English as it is today known. Native English speakers will now find it difficult to understand Old English. However, about half of the most frequently used words in modern English have Old English roots. The words are, strong and water, for example, come from Old English. Old English was spoken until about 1100.

Middle English Period (1100-1500). An example of Middle English is the language spoken by the poet Chaucer. 1066 William the Conqueror, Duke of Normandy (part of modern France), invades and conquers England. The new conquerors (the Normans) spoke French, which later became the language of the Royal Court, the ruling class, and business. In the period there was a division of linguistics classes, namely the lower class spoke English and the upper class spoke French. In the 14th century, English became dominant in England again, but with the addition of French words. This language is called Middle English. Middle English was the language of the great poet Chaucer (c1340-1400), but it would still be difficult for native speakers of modern English to understand today's Middle English.

Early Modern English (1500-1800). Towards the end of Middle English, a sudden and distinct change in pronunciation began, with the vowels pronounced shorter and shorter. William Shakespeare's famous English literary work Hamlet's "To be, or not to be" was written in Early Modern English. 16th century England had contacts with

many people from all over the world. In those days the invention of printing made books cheaper and more people learned to read. The development of printing also brought standardization in English. Spelling and grammar remained, and London dialect English became the standard for publishing. In 1604 the first English dictionary was published.

Language as a system. Language as a system, namely language consists of elements/components which are regularly arranged according to certain patterns or rules and form a unity. These rules can be seen in two ways, namely the sound system and the meaning system. Language is systematic, meaning that it is arranged according to a pattern, not randomly arranged. Language is systemic, that is, language is not a single system, but also consists of sub-sub systems or subordinate systems. The sub-systems are phonology, morphology, syntax, and semantics. The pragmatic level is a study that studies the use of language with its various aspects, as a means of verbal communication for humans. Language as a symbol. Semiotics/semiology is the study of signs that exist in human life, including language.

- Sign → marks something directly and naturally;
- Symbol → marking something conventionally, areal classification.

It is carried out based on a reciprocal relationship between one language and another in an area regardless of whether the language is genetically related or not. Sociolinguistic classification. It is carried out based on the relationship between language and the factors that apply in society, to be precise based on status, function, and the community's assessment of the language. This classification is based on four characteristics or criteria, namely:

- Historicality → concerning the history of language development / the history of the use of the language.
- Standardization → regarding its status as standard / non-standard language.
- Vitality → refers to whether the language has speakers who actively use it in daily activities or not.
- Homogeneity → regarding whether the lexicons and grammar of the language are derived.

### **Language functions**

According to [Yamato et al. \(2018\)](#) language has two functions, namely as a means of communication and as a tool to represent civilization and culture. With the emergence of Islam, for example, Arabic began to develop and function to express or declare Islamic culture and civilization. From that time on, in Arabic, new terms began to emerge as a reflection of Islamic culture, for example, the words zakat, shawm, raka'at, jihad, and so on. Apart from these general functions, languages have several special

functions. [Martínez \(2020\)](#) offers a functional explanation of the use of language using language as a means of communication, namely instrumental function, namely using language to get something, and genetic/genealogical classification. Performed based on the lineage of the language, which is derived from an older language. This classification shows that the development of language in the world is divergent, that is, it divides and spreads into many. In the future, there will likely be languages that die from their speakers and switch to using other languages that are more profitable. The languages that exist in this world are divided into eleven major families, namely:

- Indo-European family;
- Hamito-Semitic family;
- Chari-Nil clump;
- Dravidian family;
- Austronesian (Malay Polynesian) family;
- Caucasus family;
- Finno-British family;
- Paleo Asiatic (Hyperbolic) Family;
- Ural-Altai grove;
- Sino-Tibetan family.

Family of Indian Languages. Typological classification. Done based on the similarity of types/types found in several languages. The results of this classification are arbitrary because they are not bound by a particular type, but are still exhaustive and unique. Classification at the level of morphology in the XIX century is divided into 3, namely:

- The first classification → using the form of language as the basis for classification;
- The second group → uses root words as the basis for classification;
- The third group → uses the syntactic form as the basis for classification.

In the XX century, [Brown \(2005\)](#); [Love \(2000\)](#); [Claudino et al. \(2019\)](#) classified language using three parameters, namely:

- Grammatical concepts;
- Grammatical processes;
- The degree of combining of morphemes in words.

Other signs in semiotic objects are: Signals/cues → a deliberate sign made by the signal receiver so that the receiver of the signal does something. Motion gestures → signs that are carried out by movement of the limbs, are not imperative like signals.

Symptom/sympton → an accidental sign, which is produced without purpose, but naturally indicates that something is about to happen. Icon → sign / image of the shape it represents. Index → a sign indicating the presence of something else, such as smoke which indicates the presence of a fire. Characteristics of code as a sign → the existence of a system, both in the form of symbols, signals and gestures that can represent thoughts, feelings, ideas, objects and actions that are agreed upon for a specific purpose.

Language is sound. Language is a symbol whose form is sound. Language sounds are sounds produced by human speech tools. The primary language is that which is spoken employing human speech. Secondary language is the language of writing. Language has meaning. Language is said to have meaning because it has a function, namely conveying messages, concepts, ideas, or thoughts. Based on the different levels, the meaning of language can be divided into:

- Lexical meaning: meaning that refers to the morpheme/word.
- Grammatical meaning: meaning relating to phrases, clauses, and sentences.
- Pragmatic meaning: meaning relating to discourse.
- Language is arbitrary. There is no mandatory relationship between language symbols and the concepts/meanings referred to by these symbols.
- Language is conventional. This means that all members of this language society obey the convention that a particular symbol is used to represent the concept it represents.
- Language is productive. This means that even though the language elements are limited, but with a limited number of elements, an unlimited number of language units can be made, even though they are relatively following the system prevailing in the language.
- Language is unique. This means that each language has characteristics that other languages do not have. This characteristic can involve the sound system, word formation system, sentence formation system, or other systems.
- Language is universal. That is, there are the same characteristics that every language in this world has. The universal characteristic of language: language has language sounds consisting of vowels and consonants.
- Language is dynamic. This means that language changes according to life in a society that is not fixed and always changes.

Languages vary widely. Language varies because the background and environment are not the same. The language variations include:

- Idiolec: individual language variations.
- Dialect: a variation of the language used by a group of community members at a particular time and place.

- Variety: variations of the language used in situations, circumstances or for a particular purpose. Language is human. This means that the human communication tool whose name is the language belongs only to humans and can only be used by humans.

### **Languages and extraordinary factors**

Language society. Language society means a group of people who feel they speak the same language. Variations and social status of language. It varies because the members of the speaking community are very diverse and language is used for a variety of purposes. Diglossia: the difference between the variations of the T language and the R language, the people who experience differences are called the diglotic society. Use of language. In using language, it does not only comply with grammatical rules, because the language used may not be accepted in society. The elements that are considered in a communication use language according to [Joseph \(1995\)](#); [Cheng \(2019\)](#); [Schäffner \(2004\)](#):

- Setting and scene: regarding the place and time of the conversation
- Participants: people who engage in conversation
- Ends: the intent and result of the conversation
- Act sequences: things that refer to the form and content of the conversation
- Key: refers to the way or enthusiasm in carrying out the conversation
- Instrumentalities: refers to the line of conversation whether orally or not
- Norms: refers to the norms of behavior of conversation participants
- Genres: refers to the category or variety of language used.

Language contact. Is a member of the community can receive the arrival of members from other communities. As a result of language contact according to [Melman, A., Elkins, M. R., Kamper, S. J., & Moseley, A. M. \(2019\)](#).

[Biber, D. \(2011\)](#).

[Araujo, A. C., Gonzalez, G. Z., Nascimento, D. P., & Costa, L. O. P. \(2021\)](#).

- Interference: brought about by the entry of other language elements into the language being used so that there are deviations from the rules of the language being used.
- Integration: elements of other languages are brought in, are considered, needed, and used as part of the language that receives them.
- Code-switching: switching the use of a code in another code.
- Mix code: 2 codes / more used for no reason, occurs in casual situations.

Language and culture. Edward Sapir and Benjamin Lee Whorf (and therefore the Sapir - Whorf hypothesis) state that language influences culture/language influences the way of thinking and acting of its speaking community members.

### **Language classification**

According to Greenberg, the classification has conditions, namely non-arbitrage (it cannot be arbitrary, there must be criteria), exhaustive (no more) and unique. The types of classification are as follows. Some pauses are full and some are temporary. While pauses are distinguished by the presence of an inner joint and an outer joint.

A syllable or syllable is the smallest rhythmic unit in a stream of speech or a sequence of speech sounds. One syllable usually includes one vowel and one or more consonants. The syllable has a peak loudness or sonority which usually falls on a vowel. This occurs because of the resonance space in the form of the oral cavity, nasal cavity or other cavities in the head and chest. The sound that uses the most resonance space is the vowel sound. Therefore, the peak of a syllabic is a vowel sound. However, there are times when consonants, whether voiced or not, have no possibility of being the top of the syllabic. The sound which can simultaneously be the onset and code of a sequential syllable is called an interlude. Meanwhile, the meaning of onset itself is the first sound in a syllable. In English the syllable has an internal structure. For example, read, flop, strap. The onset is in bold type. Meanwhile, if a word has more than one syllable, then each syllable will have parts of the syllable. For example win-dow, to-ma-to, fun-digital.

Assimilation (assimilation) is the mutual influence that occurs between sounds that are side by side (continuous sound) or between sounds that are close together but with other sounds in speech, or the process of changing sounds that results in a similar or the same sound as other nearby sounds. In other words, what is called assimilation is the process in which two sounds that are not the same are equalized. Based on the direction, there are two types of phonetic assimilation, namely:

Regressive assimilation (phonetic) assimilation, anticipatory assimilation, namely the process of changing the sound to be similar to the sound that follows it, or the effect occurs backwards, or the sound that affects lies behind the sound that follows it. Having similarities in pronunciation. In Indonesian, the phoneme / i / has at least four allophones, namely the sound / i / as in the mind word, the sound / I / as in the pull word, the sound / ī / as in the word ingkar, and the sound / i: / as in said times. Another example, the phoneme / o / has at least two allophones, namely the sound / ɒ / as in the word character, and the sound / o / as in the word shop (Kanoksilapatham, 2015; Dong & Lu, 2020; Loi, 2010). The distribution of allophones can be complementary and independent. Complementary distribution or complementary distribution is a distribution where the place is not interchangeable

and is fixed in a certain environment. For example, the phoneme / p / in English has three allophones, namely aspirated allophones as found in the word *pace* [p<sup>h</sup>eɪs], allophones that do not aspire as in *space* [sp<sup>h</sup>eɪs], and allophones that are not exploded as in the word *map*. [mæp].

Meanwhile, what is meant by free distribution is that the allophones may be used without any specific sound environment requirements. In the free distribution, there is a sound opposition which is clearly two different phonemes because there is a minimal pair, but in the other pair it turns out to be only a free variant. For example, the sound / o / and / u /, their identity as two phonemes can be proven from a pair of necklaces: *bats* or *passes*: *passed*, but in pairs of *bags*: *bag*, *hole*: *hole*, or *egg*: *egg* is only a free variation (McHoul & Luke, 1989; Angermuller, 2018; McGrath, 2014).

Allophones are the realization of phonemes, so it can be said that phonemes are abstract because phonemes are only an abstraction of the allophones and what is concrete or real in the language is that allophones, because that allophones are pronounced.

A phoneme treasure is the number of phonemes found in one language. The number of phonemes that a language has is not the same as that of another language. According to the results of the study, the lowest number of phonemes was the language of the native Hawaiians, which only consisted of 13. The language with the largest number of phonemes, as many as, is the language of the North Caucasus. When viewed from the balance of the number of vowel phonemes and consonant phonemes, it can be seen that Indonesian has 6 vowel phonemes, and English and French have more than 10 vowel phonemes. There are 24 Indonesian phonemes, consisting of 6 vowel phonemes (a, i, U, e, ə, and o) and 18 consonant phonemes, namely phonemes p, t, c, k, b, d, j, g, m, n, ŋ, s, h, r, l, w, and z (Freire et al., 2019; Samraj, 2002; Perrin, 2013).

The phonemes mentioned above need a way to write them. The writing of phonemes in a language according to the spelling system applicable to that language is called orthographic transcription. The writing of this phoneme uses graphemes, namely the letters used to write phonemes from Latin script (Wallander, 2009; Carvalho et al., 2019; Maswana et al., 2015). Some examples of graphemes and phonemes are as follows.

- The grapheme e is used to represent two different phonemes, namely phoneme / e / and phoneme / ə /.
- The graph p is not only used to represent the phoneme / p /, it is also used to represent the phoneme / b / for allophones / p /.
- The graph v is also used to represent the phoneme / f / in certain words.



- In addition to being used to represent the phoneme / t /, the grapheme is also used to symbolize the phoneme / d / for allophone / t /.
- In addition to being used to represent the phoneme / k /, the grapheme is also used to represent the phoneme / g / for allophones / k / which are usually in the final position.
- The graph n is not only used to symbolize the phoneme / n / is also used to represent the position / n / in the position in front of the consonant / j / and / c /.
- Combined graphemes are still used: ng for the phoneme / ŋ /; ny for the phoneme / ŋ /; kh for the phoneme / x /; and sy for the phoneme / ʃ /.
- The glottal stop sound is counted as an allophon of the phoneme / k /; so, it is denoted by a grapheme k.

A phoneme can differ depending on its environment or on other phonemes around it. The changes that occur in a phoneme are phonetic in nature, not changing the phoneme into another phoneme. Some cases of phoneme changes include the middle line of the mouth is blocked by the tongue and on both sides of the tongue forms the side of the slit and the sound comes out through the gap, for example, the sound "l" (thin) and "l" (thick) that occurs between the tip of the tongue touching the cavity of the teeth called apico alveolar.

Trills are sounds produced by a rapidly vibrating articulator (Ward, 2007; GÜNGÖR & UYSAL, 2020; BOOIJ, 2000) or a sequence of apico-alveolar bursts that are very fast, so that the tip of the tongue vibrates against the arch of the tooth at the same time in the articulation. other consonants (Dehn et al., 2001). Shaking sounds for example in the sound "r". Nasal (nasals) is a sound that is produced by the release of air through the oral cavity but opens the way for it to exit through the nasal cavity (Yamaguchi & Koyama, 2009). Closure of the outflow of air through the oral cavity can occur between the lips which is called bilabial which produces the sound "m" = Also between the tip of the tongue and the cavity of the teeth which is called the apico-alveolar which produces the "n" sound.

### Suprasegmental elements

In a continuous sequence of sounds alternating with short or slightly short pauses, accompanied by loud and soft sounds, high and low sounds, long-short sounds, some sounds can be segmented which are called suprasegmental sounds. These suprasegmental sounds include stress or stress. Pressure is closely related to the problem of loudness or softness of the sound that is issued. If it is hard, it will cause the amplitude to widen and must be accompanied by strong pressure and vice versa. Tone or pitch. Tone refers to the high and low of a sound. If a segmental sound is pronounced with a high vibration frequency, it will certainly be accompanied by a high tone. Vice versa. Tone, in certain languages, can be phonemic and morphemic. And

breaks or joints. Pause or joint refers to the stopping of sounds in the flow of words. It is called a pause because there is a stop, and it is called a joint because it is at the place of stopping that there is a connection between one segment and another.

If the obstruction occurs on two lips, a bilabial obstruction will occur, for example the sound "b". If the obstacle occurs between the tip of the tongue and the upper teeth, it will cause apico-dental obstruction, for example the sound "d" 3) If the obstacle occurs between the tip of the tongue and the recesses of the teeth, there will be an apico-alveolar inhibiting sound such as a sound "t". If the obstruction occurs between the tip of the tongue and the hard palate, there will be an apico-palatal obstruction sound such as the sound "θ". Fricatives are sounds produced by a very narrow path so that most of the airflow is obstructed (Harré & Harris, 2017) or the sound produced when there is a small hole in one of the articulations and the sound is emitted through the hole or gap.

A gap can form between the lower lip and upper teeth which is called the labiodental, resulting in an "f" sound. It also occurs between the upper teeth and the lower teeth with the buttress of the tip of the tongue which is called the apico-dental, so that the sound "θ" occurs. The sound that occurs in the soft palate is called the lamino-palatal, resulting in the sound "s" and "z". The sound that occurs in the soft palate with the back of the tongue is called the dorso-velar so it produces a "g" sound. Alloys/affricates (affricatives) are sound inhibitions with an affricative release or sound produced by blocking the airflow at one of the places of articulation where also the popping sound is articulated, and then it is released fricatively. Affricate sounds include the sound "j" [tʃ] (as in "choke"), [dʒ] (as in "joke"). Side/side / lateral (laterals) is the sound produced by partially closing the tongue (Forteza & Ortiz, 2015) or the sound produced by blocking the airflow so that it comes out through one or usually both sides of the tongue (Samraj, 2002). So, the lateral sound is the sound that occurs when

Assimilation is the event of changing a sound into another sound as a result of the sound in its environment so that the sound becomes the same or has the same characteristics as the sound that influences it (McGrath, 2014). For example, the word Saturday in Indonesian is commonly pronounced [saptu], it can be seen that the sound [b] changes to [p] as a result of the effect of the sound [t]. Phonemic assimilation causes a phoneme to become another phoneme or an adjustment of a phoneme with another phoneme (Holmes, 1997). In other words, phonemic assimilation is the process of converting two different phonemes into the same or phonetic similar phonemes. An example of phonemic assimilation is the change in sound [b] to change to [p] in the word Saturday.

Phonemic assimilation can be divided into progressive assimilation, regressive assimilation, and reciprocal assimilation. In progressive assimilation, the altered sound

lies behind the sound that influenced it. For example, in German, the *mit der Frau* form is pronounced [mit ter frau]. This example shows that the sound substance [d] in the word *der* changes to a sound [t] as a result of the effect of the sound [t] on the *mit* word in front of it (Loi, 2010).

Regressive assimilation is the change in the sound that lies in front of or in front of the sound that affects it. An example is the change of sound [p] to sound [b] in the Dutch word *op de weg* (Perrin, 2013). Reciprocal assimilation is a change that occurs in the two sounds that influence each other so that it becomes a phoneme or another sound. For example, in the Toba Batak language, the word *bereng* 'see' and the word *hamu* 'you' in the combined construction of *bereng hamu* 'see by you', both the sound [ng] in the word *bereng* and the sound [h] in the word *hamu* both turn into sounds [k], so that the construction of *bereng hamu* is pronounced to be [berek ye] (Biber, 2011).

In the process of dissimilation, this change causes the same two phonemes to be different or different. Examples in Indonesian are the words *copyright* and *love* which come from the Sanskrit *citta*. The sound [t] in the word *citta* changes to the sound [pt] in the creative word and becomes the sound [nt] in the word *love* (Wallander, 2009). In the case of Arabic, it can be found that progressive (phonemic) assimilation is more than regressive (phonemic) assimilation (Schäffner, 2004).

b. Umlaut, Ablaut, and Vocal Harmony. Umlaut is a vowel change in such a way that it is changed to a higher vowel as a result of the next high vowel. For example in Dutch, the sound / a / in the word *handje* is of higher quality than the sound / a / in the word *hand*. Ablaut is a vowel change that we find in Indo German to indicate various grammatical functions. For example, the change of vowel / a / in German becomes / ä / which functions to change the singular form into a plural form, such as the word *haus* 'house' to *hauser* word 'houses'. Another example, the marking of *kala* in English, such as *sing* becomes *sang* and *sung*, or in Dutch *duiken* 'plunges' into *dook* and *gedoken* (Cheng, 2019). Meanwhile, vowel harmony or vowel harmony is found in Turkish which runs from left to right or from the preceding syllable to the following syllable. For example, the plural word *at* 'horse' is *atlar* 'horses', the plural word *oda* 'room' is *odalar* 'rooms', and the plural word *ev* 'house' is *evler* 'houses'. The Javanese vowel harmony runs from right to left. An example is the change of vowel / o / to vowel / a / in the process of adding -e or -ne suffix. For example, the word *amba* is pronounced [o-mbo] 'wide' to be the pronounced *ambane* [a-mbane] 'width'; then the word *sega* pronounces [se-go] 'nasi' becomes the *segane* pronunciation [s gane] (Angermuller, 2018).

Contraction is the loss of a phoneme or more that becomes a segment with its own pronunciation. For example in Indonesian conversation, the expression *you don't know* is pronounced *becomes you don't know*, the phrase that was spoken earlier. Semi vowels are language sounds that have both vowel and consonant characteristics,

have a little shift, and do not appear as the core of the old syllables, for example "y" and "w" (Dong & Lu, 2020). Semi vowels are not pure vowels, nor are they pure consonants, but are practically considered as consonants alone (Joseph, 1995). In English it is also known as glide (semivowel), which is the sound / w /, and / y /. Semi vowels can be interpreted as vowels that are similar to consonants. Why? This is because the air that comes out is not obstructed, causing a shift in sound. For example / w / in the word wet (voiced) then / j / in the word yard (voiced).

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