

LINGUISTICS

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Abstract : Linguistics is the scientific study of natural language and is one of the four subfield of anthropology. Linguistics encompasses a number of sub-fields. An important topical division is between the study of language structure (grammar) and the study of meaning (semantics and pragmatics). Grammar encompasses morphology (the formation and composition of words), syntax (the rules that determine how words combine into phrase and sentences) and phonology (the study of sound systems and abstract sound units). Part of linguistics are syntax, morphology, phonology, sociolinguistic and psycholinguistic.

INTRODUCTION

Language is arguably what most obviously distinguishes humans from all other species. Linguistics involves the study of that system of communication underlying everyday .Many people in this world knowing the linguist and linguistics. But, they just know it that the Linguist is the persons who can speaks many languages. Like Language teacher or Guides. Or they will tell us that Linguistics is the knowledge of the languages. They didn't know what is the right answer and what is the part of the linguistics. Linguistics are the scientific study of natural language. Linguistics concerns itself with describing and explaining the nature of human language. Its primary goal is to learn about the 'natural' language that humans use every day and how it works. Linguists ask such fundamental questions as: What aspects of language are universal for all humans? How can we account for the remarkable grammatical similarities between languages as apparently diverse as English, Japanese and Arabic? What are the rules of grammar that we language users employ, and how do we come to 'know' them? To what extent is the structure of language related to how we think about the world around us? A linguist, then, here refers to a linguistics expert who seeks to answer such questions, rather than someone who is multilingual. . so the writer is aimed to the questions a. What is the definition of linguistic? B. What is the part of linguistic?

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Discussion

A. Definition of Linguistics

Linguistics is the scientific study of natural language and is one of the four subfields of anthropology. Linguistics encompasses a number of sub-fields. An important topical division is between the study of language structure (grammar) and the study of meaning (semantics and pragmatics). Grammar encompasses morphology (the formation and composition of words), syntax (the rules that determine how words combine into phrase and sentences) and phonology (the study of sound systems and abstract sound units).

Phonetics is a related branch of linguistics concerned with the actual properties of speech sounds (phones), non-speech sounds, and how they are produced and perceived. Other sub-disciplines of linguistics include the following:

1. evolutionary linguistics, which considers the origins of language;
2. historical linguistics, which explores language change;
3. sociolinguistics, which looks at the relation between linguistic variation and social structures;
4. psycholinguistics, which explores their presentation and functioning of language in the mind;
5. neuron linguistics, which looks at the representation of language in the brain;
6. language acquisition, which considers how children acquire their first language and how children and adults acquire and learn their second and subsequent languages; and
7. discourse analysis, which is concerned with the structure of texts and conversations, and Pragmatics

with how meaning is transmitted based on a combination of linguistic competence, non-linguistic knowledge, and the context of the speech act. Linguistics is narrowly defined as the scientific approach to the study of language, but language can be approached from a variety of directions, and a number of other intellectual disciplines are relevant to it and influence its study.

1. Semiotics, for example, is a related field concerned with the general study of signs and symbols both in language and outside of it.
2. Literary theorists study the use of language in artistic literature. Linguistics additionally draws on work from such diverse fields as psychology, speech-language pathology, informatics, computer science, philosophy, biology, human anatomy, neuroscience, sociology, anthropology, and acoustics.

Within the field, linguist is used to describe someone who either studies the field or uses linguistic methodologies to study groups of languages or particular languages. Outside the field, this term is commonly used to refer to people who speak many languages or have a great vocabulary.

B. Language

A language is a system of signs (indices, icons, symbols) for encoding and decoding information. Since language and languages became an object of study (logos) by the ancient grammarians, the term has had many and different definitions. The English word derives from Latin *lingua*, "language, tongue," with a reconstructed Proto-Indo-European root of **dinghy-*, "tongue," a metaphor based on the use of the physical organ in speech. The ability to use speech originated in remote prehistoric times, as did the language families in use at the beginning of writing. The processes by which they were acquired were for the most part unconscious. In modern times, a large number of artificial languages have been devised, requiring a distinction between their consciously innovated type and natural language. The latter are forms of communication considered peculiar to humankind. Although some other animals make use of quite sophisticated communicative systems, and these are sometimes casually referred to as animal language, none of these are known to make use of all the properties that linguists use to define language. The term 'language' has branched by analogy into several meanings. The most obvious manifestations are spoken languages such as English or Spoken Chinese. However, there are also written languages and other systems of visual symbols such as sign languages. In cognitive science the term is also sometimes extended to refer to the human cognitive facility of creating and using language. Essential to both meanings is the systematic creation and usage of systems of symbols, each pairing a specific sign with an intended meaning, established through social conventions. In the late 19th century Charles Sanders Peirce called this pairing process semiotic and the study of it semiotics. According to another founder of semiotics, **Roman Jakobson**, the latter portrays language as code in which sounds (*signantia*) signify concepts (*signata*).

Language is the process of encoding *signata* in the sounds forming the *signantia* and decoding from *signantia* to *signata* .Concepts themselves are *signantia* for the objective reality being conceived. When discussed as a general phenomenon then, "language" may imply a particular type of human thought that can be present even when communication is not the result, and this way of thinking is also sometimes treated as indistinguishable from language itself. In Western philosophy, language has long been closely associated with reason, which is also a uniquely human way of using symbols. In Ancient Greek philosophical terminology, the same word, *logos* , was a term for both language or

speech and reason, and the philosopher **Thomas Hobbes** used the English word "speech" so that it similarly could refer to reason, as presented below.

1. Language Competence

Language competence is abilities that enable them to function more or less effectively as part of a social order. But, the meaning of your language competence depends on your reasons for developing it. Are you mainly interested in speaking proficiency, foreign language literacy, cross-cultural awareness, or knowledge about language? Is language ability an end to itself, or a means to another end, such as graduate study, study abroad, preparation for field work or professional practice? There are many ways to define language ability and to learn and teach languages. Most language teachers try to include some work in each of the areas listed. When you sign up for a language course, it worthwhile for you to reflect on your personal reasons for language study, and communicate these to your teachers so that they will know what matters most to you. When experts define language competence, they try to be as precise and inclusive as possible in coping with a very complicated phenomenon. In this section, we will explore how language is defined by scholars and professionals in language-related areas such as linguistics, language teaching and anthropology. One of the best known models of language ability is known as "Communicative Competence." This model was developed to account for the kinds of knowledge people need in order to use language in meaningful interaction. The term was originally coined by anthropologist Dell Hymes as a means of describing the knowledge language users need in addition to the grammatical forms of the language. The term was then adopted by the language teaching community after it had been developed into a model for that field by Michael Canale and Merrill Swain (1980), then by Sandra Savignon (1997).

2. Language Performance

A speakers actual use of language in real situation. What the speaker actually says, including grammatical errors and other non-linguistics features such as the situations and other dispense. So, language performance is the actual spoken ability of the speaker. This including phonetics, syntactic and other speech error. (H ymes, Dell. (2000 [1965]) The actual spoken ability and comprehension of a speaker is called linguistic performance. It includes phonetic, syntactic and other speech errors.

1E.g.: Try to imagine mustering up the courage to ask your high school crush to the prom. Of course, you know how to talk perfectly well, but the words just don't come out right. Your heart is racing, your hands are sweating, and your throat is bone dry. All of these factors conspire to make you . . . less

than eloquent. 2 E.g.: You are in a meeting with your boss trying to figure out the best way to ask for a raise 2 E.g.: You are to give a presentation to an auditorium full of your colleagues and superiors .2 Whenever your audience has the power to affect your life for better or worse, your anxiety level may rise and your performance decline.2 Performance refers to the specific utterances, including grammatical mistakes and non-linguistic features like hesitations, accompanying the use of language. Performance like structure describes the forms actually realized as a subset of those conceivable. 3 Performance is your real world linguistic output. It may accurately reflect competence, but may also include speech errors due to slips of the tongue or external factors such as memory problems, etc. 5 When we speak, we usually wish to convey some message. At some stage in the act of producing speech, we must organize our thoughts into strings of words. Sometimes the message is garbled. We may stammer, or pause, or produce slips of the tongue. We may even sound like a baby, who illustrates the difference between linguistic knowledge and the way we use that knowledge in performance. 7 E.g.: Baby:(thinking) The apple looks lovely« it must be delicious «I want to eat it «Baby: (saying) APPLE WANT!!

3. Language Universal

In generativist theory, the collection of fundamental properties all languages share are referred to as universal grammar (UG). The specific characteristics of this universal grammar are a much debated topic. Typologists and non-generativist linguists usually refer simply to language universals, or universals of language. Similarities between languages can have a number of different origins. In the simplest case, universal properties may be due to universal aspects of human experience. For example, all humans experience water, and all human languages have a word for water. Other similarities may be due to common descent: the Latin language spoken by the Ancient Romans developed into Spanish in Spain and Italian in Italy; similarities between Spanish and Italian are thus in many cases due to both being descended from Latin. In other cases, contact between languages particularly where many speakers are bilingual can lead to much borrowing of structures, as well as words. Similarity may also, of course, be due to coincidence.

English much and Spanish mucho are not descended from the same form or borrowed from one language to the other, nor is the similarity due to innate linguistic knowledge. Arguments in favor of language universals have also come from documented cases of sign languages (such as Al-S ayyid Bedouin Sign Language) developing in communities of congenitally deaf people, independently of spoken language. The

properties of these sign languages conform generally to many of the properties of spoken languages. Other known and suspected sign language isolates include Kata Kolok, Nicaraguan Sign Language, and Providence Island Sign Language.

Part of linguistics

A. Phonology

Phonology is a sub-field of historical linguistics, which studies the sound system of a specific.

Language or set of languages and change over time. Whereas phonetics is about the physical production and perception of the sounds of speech, phonology describes the way sounds function within a given language or across languages. An important part of phonology is studying which sounds are distinctive units within a language. For example, the "p" in "pin" is aspirated while the same phoneme in "spin" is not. In some other languages, for example Thai and Quechua, this same difference of aspiration or non-aspiration does differentiate phonemes. In addition to the minimal meaningful sounds (the phonemes), phonology studies how sounds alternate, such as the /p/ in English, and topics such as syllable structure, stress, accent, and intonation.

The principles of phonological theory have also been applied to the analysis of sign languages, although the phonological units do not consist of sounds. The principles of phonological analysis can be applied independently of modality because they are designed to serve as general analytical tools, not language-specific ones.

B. Morphology

Morphology is the study of the formal means of expression in a language; in the context of historical linguistics, how the formal means of expression change over time; for instance, languages with complex inflectional systems tend to be subject to a simplification process. This field studies the internal structure of words as a formal means of expression. Words as units in the lexicon are the subject matter of lexicology. While words are generally accepted as being (with clitics) the smallest units of syntax, it is clear that in most (if not all) languages, words can be related to other words by rules. The rules understood by the speaker reflect specific patterns (or regularities) in the way words are formed from smaller units and how those smaller units interact in speech. In this way, morphology is the branch of linguistics that studies patterns of word-formation within and across languages, and attempts to formulate rules that model the knowledge of the speakers of those languages, in the context of historical linguistics, how the means of expression change over time.

C. Syntax

Syntax is the study of the principles and rules for constructing sentences in natural languages. The term syntax is used to refer directly to the rules and principles that govern the sentence structure of any individual language, as in "the syntax of Modern Irish ". Modern researchers in syntax attempt to describe languages in terms of such rules. Many professionals in this discipline attempt to find general rules that apply to all natural languages in the context of historical linguistics, how characteristics of sentence structure in related languages changed over time.

D. Semantic

Semantics within linguistics refers to the study of how language conveys meaning. For example, English speakers typically realize that Chomsky's famous sentence Colorless green ideas sleep furiously is well-formed in terms of word order, but incomprehensible in terms of meaning. Other aspects of meaning studied here include how speakers understand certain types of ambiguous sentences such as A student met every professor (a different student, or the same student?), and the extent to which sentences which are superficially very different, such as The wine flowed freely and Much wine was consumed , mean similar things.

E. Sociolinguistics

Sociolinguistics is the study of the effect of any and all aspects of society, including cultural norms, expectations, and context, on the way language is used, and the effects of language use on society. Sociolinguistics differs from sociology of language in that the focus of sociolinguistics is the effect of the society on the language, while the latter's focus is on the language's effect on the society. Sociolinguistics overlaps to a considerable degree with pragmatics. It is historically closely related to Linguistic Anthropology and the distinction between the two fields has even been questioned recently .It also studies how language varieties differ between groups separated by certain social variables, e.g., ethnicity, religion, status, gender, level of education, age, etc., and how creation and adherence to these rules is used to categorize individuals in social or socioeconomic classes. As the usage of a language varies from place to place (dialect), language usage varies among social classes, and it is these socialists that sociolinguistics studies. The social aspects of language were in the modern sense first studied by Indian and Japanese linguists in the 1930s, and also by Gauchat in Switzerland in the early 1900s, but none received much attention in the West until much later. The study of the social motivation of language change, on the other hand, has its foundation in the wave model of the late 19th century. The first attested use of the term sociolinguistics was by Thomas Callan

Hodson in the title of a 1939 paper. Sociolinguistics in the West first appeared in the 1960s and was pioneered by linguists such as William Labov in the US and Basil Bernstein in the UK.

F. Psycholinguistics

Psychology of language is the study of the psychological and neurobiological factors that enable humans to acquire, use, comprehend and produce language. Initial forays into psycholinguistics were largely philosophical ventures, due mainly to a lack of cohesive data on how the human brain functioned. Modern research makes use of biology, neuroscience, cognitive science, linguistics, and information theory to study how the brain processes language. There are a number of sub disciplines with non-invasive techniques for studying the neurological workings of the brain; for example, neurolinguistics has become a field in its own right. Psycholinguistics covers the cognitive processes that make it possible to generate a grammatical and meaningful sentence out of vocabulary and grammatical structures, as well as the processes that make it possible to understand utterances, words, text, etc. Developmental psycholinguistics studies children's ability to learn language.

CONCLUSION

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